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Development and Validation of the African American Men's Gendered Racism Stress Inventory

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African American men encounter unique experiences of stereotypes and racism (Hall, 2001; Majors & Billson, 1993). However, to date, conceptualizations and measures of racism-related stress have not adequately accounted for these unique experiences. Furthermore, although theories of masculinity provide useful conceptualizations of the stressful consequences of men's masculinity experiences, they do not account for the unique gendered racism stress experienced by men of color. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to develop and test the psychometric properties of a measure of gendered racism stress for African American men. We developed the 15-item African American Men's Gendered Racism Stress Inventory (AMGRaSI), a self-report instrument for African American men. An exploratory factor analysis supported a three-factor structure with factors corresponding to gendered racism stress associated with stereotypes of African American men as (a) physically and sexually violent (Violence Subscale); (b) financially and emotionally uninvolved fathers (Absent Fatherhood Subscale); and (c) gifted at/interested in sports (Sports Subscale). We also provided initial evidence for the reliability and validity of the AMGRaSI.

Keywords: African American men, racism, stress, inventory, scale development

Numerous studies have documented the deleterious effects of racism in the lives of African Americans. These effects are diverse and include general physical and mental health problems (Williams, Neighbors, & Jackson, 2008), lowered happiness and life satisfaction (Utsey, Ponterotto, Reynolds, & Cancelli, 2000), increased incidence of depressive disorders (Karlsen & Nazroo, 2002), and elevated blood pressure (Steffen, McNeilly, Anderson, & Sherwood, 2003). African American men appear to be particularly vulnerable to both physical and psychological effects of racism (Utsey, Payne, Jackson, & Jones, 2002). However, there is a scarcity of attention to interactions of race and gender in the cocreation of stressful experiences (Silverstein, 2006). Race and gender are arguably the most visible aspects of people's social identities, making them the frequent bases of people's categorizations of others (Sue, 2003; Rudman & Glick, 2008). Furthermore, most existing studies examining these multiple identities have focused on women instead of men (Liang, Rivera, Nathwani, Dang, & Douroux, 2010), although African American men have been found to report greater frequency of racist incidents than African American women (Pieterse & Carter, 2007).Therefore, the purpose of this study was to develop and test the psychometric properties of a measure of gendered racism stress for African American men based on an intersectionality perspective (Cole, 2009). We begin with a review of the literature on racism, racism-related stress, and theories of masculinity, followed by a discussion of how an intersectionality perspective can address limitations in these topics.

Racism and Racism-Related Stress

Racism's definitions often reflect a number of dynamics: the assignment of inferiority to a racial group (Essed, 1990), the exertion of power over that group (Jones, 1972), and the use of subordination to justify discrimination against that group (Thompson & Neville, 1999). Jones's (1972) model describes three types of racism: (a) individual, involving harmful interpersonal interactions; (b) institutional, as expressed in policies, practices, and norms; and (c) cultural, emphasizing the cultural practices that perpetuate White supremacy. Racism is intimately woven into everyday situations, attitudes, and customs (Essed, 1990). The everyday nature of racism has been reflected in the concept of racial microagressions, which are brief, often unconsciously delivered exchanges that denigrate people of color (Sue et al., 2007). One example of a racial microaggression is a White woman shifting a purse to the opposite side as a Black man approaches. These subtle, yet insidious forms of racism could ultimately be more harmful than overt racism (Neville & Pieterse, 2009). Individuals' subjective interpretations of race-related interactions, or *perceived racism*, are the focus of models of racism-related stress. These models provide conceptual frameworks for investigating the pernicious effects of racism on psychological health.

Research suggests that African Americans experience racist events as stressful (Sanders–Thompson, 2002). An examination of relationships among general life stress, racism-related stress, and

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psychological health for African American men, specifically, found that experiences of racist events accounted for unique stress and impact to psychological health above and beyond that of general life stress (Pieterse & Carter, 2007). Although racism-related stress is an essential construct for examinations of the deleterious effects of racism, the literature in this area has not adequately addressed intersections of race and gender. The tendency for researchers to consider single identify factors has been criticized by those who argue that individuals often experience multiple sources of identity and oppression (Reynolds & Pope, 1991). In order to better understand racism-related stress experienced by African American men, the social process of masculinity and its stressful correlates must also be examined.

Theories of Masculinity

Among theoretical paradigms in masculinity psychological research, the gender role strain (GRS) paradigm is currently dominant (Wong, Steinfeldt, Speight, & Hickman, 2010). The GRS paradigm emphasizes social influences on masculine gender roles and negative consequences of conforming to or violating these roles (Pleck, 1995). Violations are met with social condemnation and negative evaluation by others. For instance, crying is often a violation of masculine gender roles that prescribe the need for men to control their emotions (Wong & Rochlen, 2005). Gender role conflict (GRC; O'Neil, 2008) and masculine gender role stress (MGRS; Eisler, 1995) are constructs that describe specific patterns of consequences arising from gender role strain. For example masculine gender role stress focuses on restricted range of coping mechanisms and stress (Smiler, 2004). Given that the present study involves the construction of a measure of stress, MGRS is afforded more attention in this review.

Eisler (1995) described key tenets of the MGRS paradigm. For example, men tend develop masculine gender role cognitive schema based on the sociocultural values exhibited in their everyday lives. These schema guide men's understandings of and reactions to environmental challenges. Eisler (1995) explained that stress often arises when the range of coping mechanisms is restricted by a reliance on culturally approved masculine schema. Men also tend to experience stress if they believe they have acted in an unmanly or feminine way. As the GRS paradigm would predict, several studies have suggested that GRC and MGRS are associated with lower levels of well-being for African American men. African American male college students' GRC appears to be related to increased psychological distress (Carter, Williams, Juby, & Buckley, 2005).

Although the GRS and MGRS paradigms provide useful conceptualizations of the stressful consequences of men's masculinity experiences, neither explicitly describes the challenges for men of color who conform to or violate masculine gender roles. Lazur and Majors (1995) proposed that men of color must attempt to reconcile expectations related to ethnicity and gender to achieve a sense of belonging. According to these authors, African American men face the paradoxical problem of pressure to adopt masculine gender roles as defined by the dominant culture, when fulfilling those roles requires resources to which African American men have limited access.

Intersectionality

To summarize, although racism-related stress models and the GRS paradigm each contribute to an understanding of the stressful consequences of racism and masculinity, respectively, neither approach explicitly explains how gender and race interact to create stressful experiences for African American men. For instance, although researchers have developed measures of men's masculine gender role stress (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987), as well as African Americans' racism-related stress (Thompson, Neville, Weathers, Poston, & Atkinson, 1990; McNeilly et al., 1996; Utsey & Ponterotto, 1996; Landrine & Klonoff, 1996), there is currently no measure that assesses African American men's unique experiences of racism-related stress. Hence, intersectionality is presented as a theoretical framework for examining the intersection of racism and masculinity.

Feminist and critical race theorists have proposed intersectionality as a way to examine experiences of multiple social group memberships (Cole, 2009; Hancock, 2007). A key assumption by such theorists is that multiple identities cannot be treated as separate; rather their meanings rely on one another. Examples of recent scholarship on the intersection of race and gender include a qualitative study of feminist-oriented Latino men's subjective understanding of manhood (Hurtado & Sinha, 2008), an investigation of Black and White women's views of femininity (Cole & Zucker, 2007), and an ethnography examining how White men interpret race and gender (Farough, 2006).

Taking an intersectionality approach in investigating African American men's experiences of race- and gender-based discrimination involves finding terminology that represents the combination of racism-related and masculine gender role stresses. In a similar discussion regarding Asian American men, Liang et al. (2010) adopted the term *gendered racism* from Essed (1990), noting that the term represents well how the interaction of racism and sexism produce experiences that are different from experiences of racism or sexism alone. Given the importance of applying an intersectionality perspective to African American men's experiences, we turn to reviewing literature addressing experiences of racism that may be particularly salient to African American men. In particular, hooks (2004) asserted that negative stereotypes about Black men are prevalent and harmful to them. Based on our review of the literature on gendered racism, we identified three experiences of gendered racism stress that are rooted in stereotypes about African American men: (a) stereotypes about violence, (b) stereotypes about fatherhood, and (c) stereotypes about athletic abilities.

Stereotypes about violence. Stereotypes of African American men as criminals and violent brutes date back to slavery and are perpetuated today (Hall, 2001). Actual Black male violence is viewed as a product of historical, economic, and social conditions (Orelus, 2010). The stereotype of all Black males as aggressors is partly generated and maintained in the media (Dixon, Azocar, & Casas, 2003). This stereotype could be reflected in a number of stressful, racism-related experiences. For instance, when a White person refuses to ride an elevator with a Black man, this microagression conveys the assumption that the Black man is dangerous (Sue et al., 2007).

Stereotypes about absent fatherhood. Stereotypes of African American fathers portray them as absent and unsupportive

(Smith, Krohn, Chu, & Best, 2005). In a review of literature on fatherhood issues, Marsiglio (1993) noted that Whites typically view African American fathers as uninvolved, financially irresponsible, and hypermasculine. One study found that African American fathers do not differ from Hispanic fathers or White fathers in terms of how they fulfill their paternal roles (Smith et al., 2005). Stress related to fatherhood stereotypes could result from being seen as an undesirable, long-term partner, from a sense of pressure to avoid fulfilling stereotypes, and from a deficit of role models stemming from lack of attention to successful African American fathers. African American men who want to be good fathers could experience these stereotypes as barriers to fulfilling their paternal roles (Jones, 2006).

Stereotypes about athletic abilities. The resistance to seeing Black men as intellectually capable sets the stage for viewing their athletic ability as racially determined (Edwards, 1977; Hall, 2001). A predominant sports stereotype of African American men is that they are gifted basketball players (Hall, 2001). Football is a second sport in which African American men are stereotyped as physically dominating (Harrison & Lawrence, 2004). These stereotypes are also fueled by African American men's overrepresentation in basketball and football (Hall, 2001).

African American males' overidentification with athletics and underidentification with academics has been seen as a consequence of their socialization into sports (Beamon & Bell, 2006). For African American men who have intellectual and occupational interests outside of sports, the process of choosing a career path could be quite stressful given the limiting stereotypes. Developmental career theory suggests that individuals develop a sense of acceptable occupational aspirations based partly on stereotypes for the groups to which they belong (Gottfredson, 1981). A potential link between racism and vocational choices has been acknowledged (Utsey & Ponterotto, 1996).

Research Questions

In this study, we report the development and psychometric properties of a scale to measure gendered racism stress for African American men. Our new measure specifically addresses gendered racism stress associated with the three aforementioned dimensions of stereotypes about African American men. We named this measure the African American Men's Gendered Racism Stress Inventory (AMGRaSI). We conducted an exploratory factor analysis to examine the factor structure of the AMGRaSI. Next, we evaluated the test–retest reliability and internal consistency reliability of the AMGRaSI.

To assess convergent validity, we hypothesized that the AMGRaSI would be positively related to measures of racism-related stress and masculine gender role stress, given that the AMGRaSI was intended to be a measure of racism-related stress for a particular group of men. Discriminant validity was evaluated by assessing the AMGRaSI's relationship with a measure of social desirability. We expected the AMGRaSI would be weakly related to that measure. Construct validity was also evaluated by assessing the AMGRaSI's relationship with a measure of psychological distress. We hypothesized that the AMGRaSI would be positively related to the measure of psychological distress. To assess incremental validity, we hypothesized that the AMGRaSI would contribute significantly to predicting psychological distress above and beyond what was accounted for by measures of racism-related stress and masculine gender role stress.

Method

Participants

Participants were 210 African American men (mean (*M*) age = 31.5, *SD* = 12.26 years). Seventy-four percent of participants were attending college or technical school. The majority of these were attending a large, urban, public university. Participants reported the highest level of education of their families' primary financial provider with 4% reporting "Less than 12 years," 17% reporting "High school degree/GED," 28% reporting "Some college," 24% reporting "bachelor's degree," and 27% reporting "Graduate/professional degree." Participants were recruited through advertisements on websites geared toward African Americans, college student organization listservs, and professional organization listservs. Approximately 70% of participants were recruited through college student organization listservs. Thirty-one participants completed the test–retest survey and were recruited via an invitation in the initial survey (i.e., "30 participants will be chosen from volunteers to complete a shorter version of this survey two weeks after completing this survey. If you are interested in being contacted two weeks from the completion of this survey to complete the shorter version, please indicate your interest below.").

Measures

The survey consisted of a demographic questionnaire, the AMGRaSI-Initial, and other measures described hereafter. Test–retest participants completed a different version of the questionnaire that consisted only of the AMGRaSI-Initial.

African American Men's Gendered Racism Stress Inventory-Initial (AMGRaSI-Initial). During the pilot phase of this study, psychologists and psychology students with knowledge of this topic were contacted through listervs of professional psychology organizations related to diversity and masculinity interests and asked to contribute examples of experiences of racism among African American men. Using a combination of these examples, along with the literature addressing African American men's experiences of racism, a list of possible scale dimensions was constructed. Conducting African-centered psychological research involves steps that ensure the study's constructs reflect Africentric perspectives (Utsey, Belvet, & Fischer, 2009), such as consulting with individuals who identify with an African reality structure and worldview. Furthermore, expert reviewers can help maximize content validity, review the clarity of items, and suggest additional ways of tapping the phenomenon of interest (DeVillis, 2003). Accordingly, African Americans with expertise in African American psychology were consulted via email to solicit their feedback on the tentative scale dimensions and to rank order these dimensions in terms of their perceived saliency and stress for African American men.

Nine African American experts responded with feedback. Based on their feedback as well as our review of the literature on African American men's gendered racism stress, three tentative dimensions were proposed: (a) experiences related to stereotypes of African American men as physically/sexually violent (Violence

Subscale); (b) experiences related to stereotypes that African American men are absent/irresponsible fathers (Absent Fatherhood Subscale); and (c) experiences related to stereotypes of African American men's involvement/interest in sports (Sports Subscale). Unlike existing scales that focused on racism stress for African Americans in general, dimensions for the current inventory focused on racism stress for African American men. A total of 36 initial items were generated for the AMGRaSI-Initial with 12 items in Subscale 1, 11 items in Subscale 2, and 13 items in Subscale 3. For the final step of the pilot phase, the items were sent to African American psychology experts again for review. Minor modifications were made to some items based on expert feedback.

Participants responded to items according to the following 5-point, Likert-type scale. The response options for the AMGRAaSI were adopted from Utsey and Ponterotto's (1996) Index of Race-Related Stress, which was also used in the Asian American Racism-Related Stress Inventory (Liang, Li, & Kim et al., 2004): 0 = "This event 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". Scoring of the AMGRaSI-Initial involved calculating the average score across all items and the average score for each subscale. High scores represented higher levels of gendered racism stress.

Schedule of Racist Events (SRE). The SRE (Landrine & Klonoff, 1996) is an 18-item self-report measure of racist discrimination in the lives of African Americans. It assesses the frequency of specific, stressful racist events in the past year and in one's entire life, as well as the degree to which these experiences were appraised as stressful. Participants rate each item three times on a 6-point, Likert-type scale according to the frequency of having experienced the event in the past year (1 = *This has never happened to you*; 6 = *This has happened almost all of the time* (more than 70% of the time), the frequency of having experienced the event in one's entire life, and how stressful the event was (1 = *not at all*; 6 = *extremely*). An average score is calculated for each of these three ratings. A high score on the first rating indicates high frequency of recent racist events. A high score on the second rating indicates high frequency of lifetime racist events. A high score on the third rating indicates a high appraisal of stressfulness of the racist events. In the current study, the second rating for each item, reflecting frequency of lifetime racist events, was omitted. Landrine and Klonoff (1996) found that African American participants who reported high scores on the SRE also experienced more stress-related psychiatric symptoms. In another study of African American men's experiences of racism-related stress, internal consistency reliability coefficients of .89 for recent racist events and .86 for appraised racist events were reported (Pieterse & Carter, 2007). High internal consistency reliability coefficients were reported in the current study (i.e., .93 for recent racist events and .94 for appraised racist events).

Kessler Psychological Distress Scale. The 10-item Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K10; Kessler et al., 2002) is a self-report, global measure of psychological distress. It assesses symptoms of anxiety and depression in the most recent 4-week period. Participants indicate the frequency of an experience such as "During the last 30 days, how often did you feel nervous?" on a 5-point, Likert-type scale (1 = *none of the time,* 5 = *all of the time*). An average score for all items is calculated and higher scores represent higher levels of psychological distress. The authors reported that the K10 discriminated well between participants who were diagnosed with mental health disorders and those who were not. Kessler et al. (2002) reported an internal consistency reliability coefficient of .93 for the K10. The K10 demonstrated a coefficient alpha of .86 in the current study.

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale 2(10). Strahan and Gerbasi (1972) created the M-C 2(10), a short version of the Marlowe–Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). The M-C 2(10) is a 10-item self-report measure of social desirability. Participants respond "true" or "false" to each item. There are an equal number of positively and negatively keyed items to control for an acquiescence response set. The total score is calculated by adding up the number of "true" responses. A high score is indicative of high social desirability. Strahan and Gerbasi reported Kuder–Richardson formula 20 (KR-20) reliability coefficients of .62 for university males, .75 for university females, .49 for college females, and .62 for British males. They noted that the M-C 2 (10) is appropriate for use when a shortened administration time is desirable. In the current study, the M-C 2(10) demonstrated a KR-20 of .52. One possibility for this low reliability score is that scores for scales with dichotomous items tend to be lower. Strahan and Gerbasi also found low reliabilities for this measure (e.g., .49 for college females).

Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale. The MGRSS (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987) is a 40-item, self-report measure of masculine gender role stress. Participants rate items (e.g., "Feeling that you are not in good physical condition") on a 6-point (0 = *not stressful,* 5 = *extremely stressful*), Likert-type scale according to how stressful the experiences would be for them. Scores are averaged for each of five domains of gender role concerns: physical inadequacy, emotional inexpressiveness with regard to tender emotions, subordination to women, feeling intellectual inferiority, and performance failures in work or sex. Higher scores represent higher levels of masculine gender role stress in the given domain. Eisler and Skidmore (1987) reported that MGRSS scores distinguished men from women and were significantly related to measures of anger and anxiety. One study, in which 43% of participants were African American, found that higher scores on the MGRSS were related to higher levels of anger and abusive behavior in intimate relationships (Copenhaver et al., 2000). In one study where the majority of participants were European American and 13% of the 339 participants were African American men, the MGRSS demonstrated a coefficient alpha of .77 (Moore et al., 2008). A high coefficient alpha (i.e., .95) was demonstrated in the current study.

Procedure

The surveys were administered to participants through an online program. Each survey included a study information sheet describing the voluntary nature of the survey and informed participants that personal information (i.e., name and address) was not required, but would be needed to send payment for participation and would be detached from the data once payment was issued. The full questionnaire took 10–15 min to complete. The version for the test–retest participants took 3–5 min to complete. Participants could complete the survey at any computer of their choice. Participants were either offered a small cash award ($5 for those taking the initial survey and $15 for those taking both the initial

and test–retest surveys) or an opportunity to participate in a draw for cash prizes (seven $100 cash prizes were drawn).

Results

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Prior to conducting an exploratory factor analysis, we performed tests to ensure that the correlation matrix was suitable for factoring. First, the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .921, which indicated that partial correlations among variables were small and the data were likely to factor well (Kaiser, 1974). Second, Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1950) was statistically significant ($p < .0005$) indicating that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix, which is desirable for factor analysis.

To assess the AMGRaSI-Initial's factor structure, we conducted an exploratory factory analysis. We subjected 36 items to a factor analysis with Promax rotation using a principal axis extraction technique. Pair-wise deletion was used for missing data. Promax rotation was used because we assumed the factors would be correlated with one another. The scree plot demonstrated a clear break between the steep slope of the first three factors and the gradual trailing off of the rest. The total variance explained by the three-factor solution was 55.03%. As suggested by Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988), items with factor loadings of .40 or higher, items that loaded on only one factor, and those that made sense conceptually were retained. This resulted in the deletion of 14 items. Additionally, seven items with the weakest factor loadings that did meet these criteria were deleted to create a brief, 15-item measure. Scale brevity is optimal because respondents are less burdened (DeVillis, 2003). DeVillis (2003) indicated that it is often appropriate to choose a shorter scale if the reliability is not greatly reduced. The deletion of these seven items from the scale corresponded to a minimal impact on internal consistency reliability (i.e., the coefficient alpha of the 22-item scale was .91, while the coefficient alpha of the 15-item scale was .88). The remaining 15 items were subjected to another factor analysis. The resulting scale (AMGRaSI) consisted of three factors corresponding to the three proposed dimensions—Violence, Absent Fatherhood, and Sports. See Table 1 for a list of the 15 items and their factor loadings.

Reliability

An assessment of the AMGRaSI's internal consistency yielded a coefficient alpha of .88. An examination of the three subscales yielded coefficient alphas of .76 for Violence, .94 for Absent Fatherhood, and .88 for Sports. The 2-week test–retest reliability coefficients for the AMGRaSI and the Violence, Absent Fatherhood, and Sports subscales were .73, .72, .82, and .33, respectively.

Validity Evidence

The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among the AMGRaSI, its subscales, and other measures are presented in Table 2. With regard to convergent validity, the AMGRaSI and its subscales were significantly and positively related to a measure of racism-related stress (i.e., the SRE) as hypothesized. Additionally, the AMGRaSI and the Violence subscale were significantly and

Table 1
Factor Loadings, Means, Standard Deviations, and Communalities

Subscale/AMGRaSI item number/item	Factor loading 1	2	3
Violence			
1. I have experienced a White woman shifting her belongings to the other side when I am nearby.	.11	−.21	**.70**
4. I have experienced a White person locking his/her car door when I am nearby.	−.06	−.09	**.55**
7. Others have interacted with me in a way that suggests I might be violent toward them.	.02	.12	**.62**
10. A White woman has interacted with me in a way that suggests I might be a sexual predator.	−.09	.19	**.57**
15. I have noticed that people react to me with fear that I could become violent.	.01	.11	**.67**
Absent fatherhood			
2. I have heard the stereotype that Black men are absent fathers.	**.93**	−.01	−.05
5. I have heard the stereotype that Black fathers are not financially involved in their children's lives.	**.88**	.08	−.04
8. I have noticed that the media tends to portray Black men as uncaring fathers.	**.85**	.03	−.03
12. I have noticed that Black fathers are stereotyped as not providing for their children.	**.92**	−.09	.07
14. I have heard the stereotype that Black fathers are uninvolved in their children's lives.	**.80**	.04	.04
Sports			
3. Someone has assumed that I am better at a particular sport (e.g., basketball, football) than I actually am.	.09	**.70**	−.02
6. Someone has assumed that I know more about a certain sport (e.g., basketball, football) than I actually do.	.04	**.81**	−.07
9. Someone has assumed I am more interested in a particular sport (e.g., basketball, football) than I actually am.	−.01	**.77**	.08
11. Others have assumed that I am more athletic than I actually am.	.02	**.82**	.09
13. I have been mistaken as playing a sport (e.g., basketball, football) that I don't.	−.04	**.81**	.05

Note. Numbers in bold reflect items that load on a specific factor.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations of the AMGRaSI and Other Measures

Measure	*M (SD)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. AMGRaSI	2.77 (.74)	—	.77**	.77**	.72**	.49**	.28**	−.06	.27**
2. AMGRaSI-V	2.55 (.96)		—	.34**	.44**	.51**	.31**	−.07	.33**
3. AMGRaSI-F	3.53 (1.14)			—	.31**	.28**	.15*	−.05	.14
4. AMGRaSI-S	2.25 (.83)				—	.32**	.20**	−.02	.11
5. SRE	2.46 (.94)					—	.30**	−.07	.22**
6. K10	2.02 (.66)						—	−.14*	.28**
7. M-C 2(10)	1.66 (.20)							—	.25**
8. MGRSS	3.01 (.91)								—

Note. $N = 210$. AMGRaSI = African American Men's Gendered Racism Stress Inventory; AMGRaSI-V = African American Men's Gendered Racism Stress Inventory–Violence Subscale; AMGRaSI-F = African American Men's Gendered Racism Stress Inventory–Absent Fatherhood Subscale; AMGRaSI-S = African American Men's Gendered Racism Stress Inventory–Sports Subscale; SRE = Schedule of Racist Events; K10 = Kessler Psychological Distress Scale; M-C2(10) = Marlowe–Crowne Social Desirability Scale 2(10); MGRSS = Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

positively related to a measure of masculine gender role stress (i.e., the MGRSS). However, the Absent Fatherhood and Sports subscales were not significantly related to the MGRSS.

Discriminant validity was evaluated by examining the AMGRaSI's relationship with a measure of social desirability [i.e., M-C 2(10)]. As expected, the AMGRaSI and its subscales were weakly and not significantly related the M-C 2(10) [see Table 2]. Construct validity was established further by examining the relationship of the AMGRaSI with a measure of psychological distress (i.e., the K10). As hypothesized, the AMGRaSI and its subscales were significantly and positively related to the K10 (see Table 2).

To assess the incremental validity of the AMGRaSI and its subscales, we conducted four separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses with the K10 as the outcome measure. For each of the four analyses the SRE and the MGRSS were entered as predictors at step 1. The AMGRaSI, AMGRaSI-Violence, AMGRaSI-Absent Fatherhood, or AMGRaSI-Sports was added at Step 2 for each respective analysis (see Table 3). The regression models were significant at Step 1. The addition of the AMGRaSI, AMGRaSI-Violence, and AMGRaSI-Sports contributed to the models significantly. Controlling for the SRE and MGRSS, the AMGRaSI, AMGRaSI-Violence, and AMGRaSI-Sports remained significantly and positively related to the K10. These findings provide support for the incremental validity of the AMGRaSI, AMGRaSI-Violence, and AMGRaSI-Sports; that is, the relationships between the AMGRaSI, AMGRaSI-Violence, and AMGRaSI-Sports and the K10 were independent of their relationships with measures of racist discrimination and masculine gender role stress. The addition of the AMGRaSI-Absent Fatherhood at Step 2 of its respective regression analysis did not contribute significantly to the model, indicating that the AMGRaSI-Absent Fatherhood did not account for additional variance in K10 above and beyond what was accounted for by the SRE and the MGRSS.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to develop and study the psychometric properties of a measure of gendered racism stress for African American men. The theoretical framework used in the development of

Table 3
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Models Predicting K10

	Step 1			Step 2		
Measure	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β
SRE	.09	.04	.19*	.06	.04	.12
MGRSS	.15	.06	.21**	.14	.05	.19*
AMGRaSI				.17	.07	.19*
R^2	.11**			.14*		
ΔR^2				.03**		
AMGRaSI-Violence				.14	.06	.20*
R^2	.11**			.14*		
ΔR^2				.03**		
AMGRaSI-Absent Fatherhood				.04	.04	.07
R^2	.11**			.11		
ΔR^2				.01		
AMGRaSI-Sports				.10	.06	.14*
R^2	.11**			.13*		
ΔR^2				.02*		

Note. $N = 210$; K10 = Kessler Psychological Distress Scale; SRE = Schedule of Racist Events; MGRSS = Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale; AMGRaSI = African American Men's Gendered Racism Stress Inventory.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

this measure was based on an integration of racism-related stress theories (e.g., Clark et al., 1999) and masculine gender role stress theory (Pleck, 1995) from an intersectionality perspective (e.g., Cole, 2009). Accordingly, we developed the 15-item AMGRaSI, a self-report instrument for African American men. Statistical analyses provided initial evidence for the reliability and validity of the AMGRaSI.

An exploratory factor analysis supported a three-factor structure as best representing African American men's experiences of gendered racism stress. The factors corresponded to three proposed dimensions reflecting stereotypes of African American men as physically and sexually violent (Violence subscale), financially and emotionally uninvolved fathers (Absent Fatherhood subscale), and gifted at/interested in sports (Sports). The AMGRaSI and its subscales demonstrated good internal consistency reliabilities. Test–retest reliabilities for the AMGRaSI and two of its subscales, Violence and Absent Fatherhood, demonstrated initial reliability. However, the third subscale, Sports, demonstrated low test–retest reliability (r = .33). We speculate that the low test–retest reliability of this subscale may be because college students (who made up the majority of the respondents) might have relatively frequent and varied sports-related experiences, providing them with more opportunities for reassessing the stress they experienced with respect to sports-related stereotypes. Further research is needed to evaluate the reliability of this subscale and possible reasons for the low test–retest reliability in this study, such as the notion that the experience of sports-related gendered racism stress might vary across time and situation.

Initial evidence for the convergent validity of the AMGRaSI was established through its relationships with a generic measure of racism-related stress for African Americans (i.e., the SRE) and a measure of masculine gender role stress (i.e., the MGRSS). As hypothesized, African American men who reported higher levels of gendered racism stress also reported higher levels of racism-related stress and masculine gender role stress. The AMGRaSI's three subscales were also significantly and positively related to the measure of racism-related stress; however, only the Violence subscale was significantly and positively related to the measure of masculine gender role stress. Violence, more so than issues associated with fatherhood and sports, has been identified as a prominent masculine ideology that is associated with gender role strain for men (Levant & Richmond, 2007). It seems that African American men's gendered racism stress related to stereotypes about being absent fathers and excelling at sports may be less salient to their experiences of masculine gender role stress.

Initial discriminant validity was established given the weak and nonsignificant relationship between the AMGRaSI and a measure of social desirability [i.e., the M-C 2(10)]. Each of the subscales also demonstrated null relationships with the measure of social desirability. Construct validity was also examined by looking at the AMGRaSI's relationship with a measure of psychological distress (i.e., the K10). As expected, African American men who scored higher on our measure of gendered racism stress also scored higher on a measure of psychological distress.

To test the incremental validity of the inventory, we examined whether the AMGRaSI and its three subscales were significantly related to a measure of psychological distress after controlling for measures of racism-related stress and masculine gender role stress. The AMGRaSI-Absent Fatherhood was not significantly related to psychological distress. One possibility for the absence of a significant relationship here is that the majority of participants were college students and young adults, many of whom were likely not fathers. Therefore, the impact of this stereotype might have been less stressful for them if it was less personally relevant. However, as hypothesized, we found evidence for the incremental validity of the AMGRaSI, the AMGRaSI-Violence, and the AMGRaSI-Sports. That is, the AMGRaSI, AMGRaSI-Violence, and AMGRaSI-Sports remained significantly and positively related to psychological distress, indicating that they accounted for unique variance in psychological distress above and beyond what is accounted for by measures of racism-related stress and masculine gender role stress. This finding provides evidence in support of an intersectionality perspective as applied to African American men. These gendered racism experiences for African American men seem to be distinct from experiences of racism-related stress or masculine gender role stress alone.

Strengths of the Study

To our knowledge, the AMGRaSI is the only scale that measures African American men's experiences of gendered racism stress. A key strength of this study is that it is one of few to examine the stress of race-based discrimination specifically for men of color. In their discussion of gendered racism experiences among Asian American men, Liang et al. (2010) traced the roots of intersectionality research to multiracial feminists and indicated that most research that has taken into account multiple identities has focused on women rather than on men. Hence, the development of the AMGRaSI would provide researchers with an assessment tool to explore the psychosocial experiences of African American men from an intersectionality perspective.

A second strength of this study was our assessment of incremental validity. Other related scale development studies (e.g., Liang et al., 2004; Utsey & Ponterotto, 1996) have not examined the incremental validity of their instruments measuring racism-related stress. Given the centrality of an intersectionality perspective to the creation of the AMGRaSI, it is noteworthy that, in general, African American men's gendered racism stress accounted for unique variance in psychological distress above and beyond the influence of racism-related stress and masculine gender role stress.

Limitations and Future Research

One limitation of this study related to the nonrepresentative sample. That is, 74% of respondents were attending college or technical school and most of these were at a large, Midwestern university. As a result, most of the participants were young adults, with a median age of 27. While this sample seemed adequate for establishing initial reliability and validity of the AMGRaSI, future research should test the psychometric properties of the AMGRaSI in a community sample and with African Americans from more diverse socioeconomic backgrounds.

A second limitation involves the requirement for participants to recall past events. However, in their study developing the Asian American Racism-Related Stress Inventory, Liang et al. (2004) noted that life experiences with racism are long-lasting. Future research could seek to clarify how passage of time might affect distress level by asking participants to estimate length of time

since they last experienced a given event. A third limitation of this study is that it did not include a confirmatory factor analysis. Future research is needed to provide further validation of the AMGRaSI's factor structure. A fourth limitation relates to our use of only one masculinity-related stress measure. Future research could examine the relationships between the AMGRaSI and other masculinity-related stress measures, such as the Gender Role Conflict Scale (O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986) and the Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory (Mahalik et al., 2003). A fifth limitation was that the relationship between the AMGRaSI and physical health was not examined, though there are studies showing that racism is related to poorer physical health (e.g., Steffen et al., 2003). Future research should explore relationships between African American's gendered racism stress and their physical health outcomes. Finally, causation could not be established from the relationship between the AMGRaSI and psychological distress because we relied on cross-sectional data. Longitudinal studies are needed to assess the influence of gendered racism on future mental health outcomes.

Clinical Implications

The American Psychological Association's *Guidelines on Multicultural Education, Training, Research, Practice, and Organizational Change for Psychologists* (*Guidelines* [APA], 2002) indicate that seeking better understanding of the worldviews and perspectives of individuals different from oneself is central to multicultural sensitivity and responsiveness. Therapists can use this inventory to better understand the salient types of gendered racism stress that might contribute to their African American male clients' psychological distress. Furthermore, the APA's *Guidelines* (APA, 2002) encourage therapists to consider how their own preconceived ideas about clients can detrimentally affect perceptions of and clinical interventions with clients who are ethnically and racially different from themselves. Specifically, we urge therapists to reflect on whether they might inadvertently possess stereotypes related to African American men being physically and sexually violent, being absent fathers, and having a proclivity toward sports as well as how these stereotypes might adversely affect their clinical work with African American men.

In conclusion, the development of the AMGRaSI represents an effort to attend to African American men's stressful experiences of gendered racism in the psychological literature. The present findings underscore the importance of considering multiple dimensions of African American men's identities (e.g., the intersection of race and gender) in research and practice. Our hope is that the current study helps lay the groundwork for progress in understanding how African American men's experiences of gendered racism contribute to their health outcomes.

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