Everyday Discrimination, Police-Related Discrimination, and Racial Identity:
Predictive Roles in Internalizing Symptoms, Hazardous Alcohol Use, and Life Satisfaction

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Abstract

Objectives: Psychological effects of racism and discrimination may reflect both the common nature of differential treatment itself, distinctive ways that various types of discrimination impact adjustment outcomes, and ways in which individuals integrate these experiences within their ethnoracial group memberships. Everyday racial discrimination and police-related discrimination tend to be examined separately, and it remains unclear how individuals organize their racial identity to navigate these experiences with intergroup contact. **Method:** African American ($N = 213$, 61.5% women) and Asian American ($N = 571$, 49.6% women) university students were sampled to assess their exposure to everyday racial and police/law enforcement-related discrimination, elements of their racial identity, and psychological adjustment. **Results:** African Americans reported more experiences with both forms of discrimination, whereas exposure to both forms of discrimination was related more consistently to poorer psychological adjustment among Asian Americans. Multivariate regression analyses showed that different dimensions of racial identity accounted for different patterns of internalizing symptoms, hazardous alcohol use, and life satisfaction. Notably, higher levels of private regard were associated with better psychological adjustment among African Americans and Asian Americans. Among Asian Americans, higher levels of centrality were linked to greater internalizing symptoms whereas private regard reduced the correlations between everyday racial discrimination exposure and internalizing symptoms. **Conclusions:** Findings have implications for examining group-specific discrimination experiences through refined and comprehensive measurement, as well as the systematic consideration of identity dimensions as risks and promotive factors for psychological adjustment.

Keywords: distress; drinking; psychological adjustment; racism; well-being

Public Significance Statement

Experiences with discrimination can elicit stress and negative psychological consequences; however, major police/law enforcement-related discrimination and racial discrimination everyday life and are distinctively linked to adjustment outcomes of African American and Asian American individuals. Individuals whose race is of lesser personal significance and who endorse more positive private regard for their group experience better psychological adjustment in the context of racism and discrimination.

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Racism and discrimination are common experiences facing many people of color and indigenous peoples (POCI). Experiences with racism and discrimination have been linked to health behaviors and outcomes by way of stress and other psychological processes (e.g., Le & Iwamoto, 2019; Lui, 2019b; see Lui & Quezada, 2019; Pascoe & Richman, 2009; Williams & Mohammed, 2009 for review). An estimated 55% to 75% of POCI in the United States experience racism and discrimination in their lifetime, whereas 35% of Whites report being treated differentially because of their race or ethnicity (Lee et al., 2019). To the extent that discrimination reflects a serious public health and societal problem in the U.S., continued research is needed to unpack under what conditions and for whom manifestations of discrimination are linked to negative psychological consequences (Causadias & Korous, 2019).

Two key gaps in the discrimination literature limit a more nuanced understanding of POCI's psychological functioning. First, how are various manifestations of discrimination linked to psychological adjustment distinctively (i.e., everyday discrimination versus negative treatment by the police)? Second, how do individual differences in the sense of group membership and connection correlate with psychological adjustment both independently and jointly with discrimination experiences? Addressing the second set of questions is particularly critical because existing research has shown mixed findings about the likely psychological impact of racial identity (Yip et al., 2019). We will address these research questions by better specifying the function of group-distinct risks and protective factors.

Psychological Adjustment and Discrimination Experiences

Experiences with discrimination typically occur in the context of social interactions.

Discrimination perpetuates privilege and power of dominant groups, regardless of whether differential treatment was delivered intentionally or unintentionally (Krieger, 1999; Williams & Mohammed, 2009). Everyday discrimination such as being treated poorly in day-to-day settings—triggered by race or other reasons—generally are encountered more frequently than other major discriminatory events. Everyday experiences with discrimination are linked to acute and cumulative stress responses (Hoggard et al., 2015; Ong et al., 2013; Torres & Ong, 2010). Major discriminatory events, although less frequent than everyday discrimination, also can result in significant stress and life consequences (USDHHS, 2014). Major discriminatory events may include unjust and aggressive policing and physical assaults (RWJF, 2018). Exposure to differential treatment by police/law enforcement is a major form of discrimination reported among African Americans in particular, both directly and vicariously through their communities, the public media, and social movements (English et al., 2017; Jee-Lyn García & Sharif, 2015; Landers et al., 2011). Exposure to police-related discrimination has been linked to psychological distress and health outcomes more strongly among African (and Latinx) Americans than Euro Americans (Bor et al., 2018; Sewell, 2017). Individuals who repeatedly experience police/law enforcement discrimination feel unsafe in the presence of police officers, and are more prone to anticipate future victimization (DeVylder et al., 2017). This kind of threat anticipation not only can cause cardiovascular stress responses and negative affect, but also contribute to allostatic load among POCI (Berger & Sarnyai, 2015; Goosby et al., 2017; Lewis et al., 2015; Sawyer et al., 2012). Consistent with other patterns in stress and health, infrequent, major events (e.g., assault by the police) may not undermine psychological adjustment as much as recurrent, daily hassles. For example, African Americans have rated police contact to be less stressful than other typical life events or general racial discrimination (Landers et al., 2011); however, not many

studies have examined everyday discrimination and police-related discrimination simultaneously.

Prior exposure and socialization contribute to individuals' awareness and/or vigilance regarding differential treatment (Hicken et al., 2013; Kaiser & Major, 2006; Neblett et al., 2008; Thomas & Blackmon, 2014), addressing the psychological effects of discrimination rests on systematic understanding of groups' experiences. Experiences with discrimination are contextualized in socio-political histories. Addressing the mental health risks for POCI thus means understanding both the common threats posed by differential treatment while distinguishing patterns of risk based on their specific social experiences in the American ethnocultural mainstream. Asian Americans make up the fastest growing visible minorities in the U.S. Despite often being labeled the "model minority" group, Asian Americans are targets of racism and discrimination (Cheon & Yip, 2019; Gee et al., 2009; Ong et al., 2013; Rollock & Lui, 2016). Across both major and everyday discrimination events, African/Black American young adult men most frequently and Asian Americans least frequently report experiences of racism and discrimination (Kessler et al., 1999; Lee et al., 2019; RWJF, 2018). Specifically, 75% of African Americans and 60% of Asian Americans report having experienced everyday racial discrimination, and 50% to 60% of African Americans and 12% to 18% of Asian Americans report that they or their family members have been treated unfairly by the police (Lee et al., 2019). These prevalence rates highlight the need to examine a range of discrimination-related experiences: not only everyday discrimination, but also other types of discrimination that may have distinctive effects on psychological adjustment across POCI groups.

Independent and Moderating Roles of Racial Identity on Adjustment Outcomes

Many POCI use adaptive coping strategies to protect their self-esteem and reduce

discrimination-related stresses (Brown et al., 2000). Specifically, racial identity has been examined both as a distinct correlate of psychological adjustment and as a buffer of discrimination-related health effects (Jones & Neblett, 2016; Miller-Cotto & Byrnes, 2016; Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Sellers et al., 1998). Although considered to promote positive psychological adjustment among POCI, results have been mixed regarding how racial identity is linked to adjustment outcomes, and the extent to which it moderates possible effects of discrimination.

Racial discrimination occurs in the backdrop of prejudice toward individuals because of their race, typically an attribution based on physical appearances (e.g., skin color, facial features, hair texture) rather than ethnic or cultural heritage. Racial and ethnic identity both speak to social identification, and therefore increasing number of studies consider the meta-concept of racial-ethnic identity (e.g., Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014). Ethnic identity has been shown to be positively associated with psychological adjustment and to buffer the deleterious impact of racial discrimination (Smith & Silva, 2011). Despite the possible conceptual overlap between racial and ethnic identity, we focus on racial identity because it remains unclear the role it plays in psychological adjustment, and whether it mitigates or intensifies the negative impact of discrimination (Yip et al., 2019).

The multidimensional Black identity model is one of the most used and empirically tested frameworks of racial identity (Sellers et al., 1998). Within this conceptual framework, centrality and racial regard are two key dimensions of racial identity, and racial identity is recognized to be influenced by socio-cultural and racism-related experiences. Centrality reflects individuals' perception regarding the relative importance of race in their self-concept. Private regard reflects individuals' positive and/or negative feelings toward and evaluation of their racial group,

whereas public regard reflects individuals' perception of the society's view of their group (Sellers et al., 1997).

Evidence supports dimensions of racial identity as promoting psychological adjustment and as buffering against discrimination among POCI (Brondolo et al., 2009; Cobb et al., 2019; Willis & Neblett, 2019; Zapolski et al., 2019). Consistent with social identity theory, POCI may be motivated to affirm positive aspects of their racial group in order to maintain favorable self-concept when faced with threats such as discrimination (Ellemers et al., 2002). Positive private regard and perceived favorable public regard for the group each can enhance psychological adjustment. Centrality also can promote individuals' connectedness to their group, which in turn alleviate the negative effects of discrimination-related experiences (e.g., Sellers et al., 2003). By contrast, evidence also supports dimensions of racial identity as intensifying psychological distress, physiological reactivity, and health risk behavior directly or in conjunction with discrimination (Hoggard et al., 2017; Molina et al., 2016; Volpe et al., 2018). Consistent with self-categorization theory, individuals' psychology is influenced by the collective understanding of their racial group and their personal characteristics (Reynolds et al., 2001). As such, high levels of racial centrality may harm psychological adjustment because being aware of and attentive to racism (and other forms of differential treatment) threatens a core aspect of how they see themselves (Mason et al., 2017). Clarifying the complex role of racial identity in psychological adjustment largely depends on differentiating the distinctive patterns of findings across dimensions of racial identity (Banks & Kohn-Wood, 2007; Sellers & Shelton, 2003).

Relations among racial identity, discrimination, and psychological adjustment likely are compounded further by distinctive group experiences. Studies that included more Asian American respondents were found to yield stronger buffering roles of racial identity on the

relations between psychological adjustment and racial discrimination than studies that included more African Americans (Yip et al., 2019). Still, racial identity has been studied most extensively among African Americans; group differences in the independent and interactive functions of racial identity on psychological adjustment remain unclear.

Study Aims and Hypotheses

We aimed to examine how everyday racial discrimination and police-related discrimination, and racial identity were independently and jointly related to psychological adjustment among African Americans and Asian Americans. Focusing on these two groups allowed contextualizing discrimination-related experiences across these visibly and socio-historically distinctive groups in the U.S. The study was designed to unpack the complex relations among psychological adjustment and two types of discrimination. To capture a range of adjustment outcomes that may be impacted by self-reported exposure to discrimination and racial identity, we considered general self-evaluation of life, internalizing problems, and hazardous alcohol use. We expected that:

H1: African Americans would report more frequent everyday racial discrimination and police-related discrimination than Asian Americans.

H2: Life satisfaction, internalizing symptoms, and hazardous alcohol use would be associated with exposure to police-related discrimination and everyday racial discrimination independently.

H3: Higher levels of centrality, private regard, and public regard would be associated with greater life satisfaction, and lower levels of internalizing symptoms and hazardous alcohol use.

H4: Police-related discrimination would predict life satisfaction, internalizing symptoms,

and hazardous alcohol use above and beyond everyday racial discrimination.

H5: Centrality, private regard, and public regard would predict psychological adjustment above and beyond discrimination; and,

H6: Centrality, private regard, and public regard would moderate the associations between psychological adjustment and exposure to everyday and police-related discrimination.

In the context of discrimination, racial identity may be a double-edged sword when it comes to its independent and buffering or exacerbating effects on psychological adjustment (Yip, 2018). Given existing mixed findings, we did not pose directional hypotheses concerning whether racial identity would intensify or attenuate the associations between discrimination and psychological adjustment outcomes.

Method

Participants and Procedures

Participants were undergraduate and graduate students of color ($N = 784$) at a predominantly White, midsize university in the Southwest region of the United States. The sample included 213 African Americans ($M_{age} = 21.23$, $SD_{age} = 4.09$, 61.5% women, 0.5% transgender/nonbinary) and 571 Asian Americans ($M_{age} = 21.65$, $SD_{age} = 3.43$, 49.6% women, 0.9% transgender/nonbinary). This study protocol was approved by the institutional review board at the first author's university. Potentially eligible students were contacted via university-wide mass emails. Individuals aged 18 years or older and identified as domestic (non-international) African Americans or Asian Americans were eligible to participate in this study. Students of multiple or mixed heritages were included as long as they considered themselves to be members of POCI. The online survey study was designed to examine correlates of psychological

adjustment among students of color and took approximately 50 minutes to complete. Consenting participants received cash compensation upon completion of the study. Only data pertaining to discrimination, racial identity, and psychological adjustment were analyzed in this research report.

Measures

Everyday Discrimination Scale (Williams et al., 1997). Respondents indicated the frequency with which they experienced racial discrimination in their day-to-day lives over the past 6 months. We modified scale items to specify “race” as the attributed reasons for discrimination (e.g., “You are treated with less courtesy than other people are because of your race or ancestry”). The ten items were rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*often/frequently*); higher summed scale scores indicated more frequent experiences with everyday racial discrimination. Internal consistency reliability of the current scores was excellent (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .95$ and $.93$ for African Americans and Asian Americans, respectively).

Police and Law Enforcement Scale (English et al., 2017). Respondents indicated the frequency with which they experienced police-related discrimination over the past 6 months. Consistent with the rating scales for the Everyday Discrimination Scale, the five scale items (e.g., “Have police or law enforcement been physically abusive to you”) were rated from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*often/frequently*). Higher summed scale scores indicated more frequent experiences with police-related discrimination. Internal consistency reliability of the present scale scores was excellent for Asian Americans (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .94$) and adequate for African Americans (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .88$).

Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (Sellers et al., 1997; Sellers et al., 1998). Respondents reported the extent to which their racial identity was a core defining aspect of their

self-concept (centrality; 8 items), they possess positive feelings toward their racial group in general (private regard; 7 items), and they feel that others in society feel and evaluate positively about their race (public regard; 6 items). The Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity was developed and validated with African American college students initially, but has been shown to be reliable and valid in assessing centrality, private regard, and public regard dimensions of racial identity in other groups (see Yip et al., 2019 for review). In this study, participants were asked to indicate their primary racial self-identification (i.e., Asian American/Asian and African American/Black), and fill in the blank for each item with their own self-identification. Items include, “In general, being ____ is an important part of my self-image” (centrality), “I feel good about ____ people” (private regard), and “Overall, ____ are considered good by others” (public regard). The present scale scores for centrality (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .82$ and $.77$), private regard (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .82$ and $.81$), and public regard (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .86$ and $.83$) demonstrated adequate internal consistency reliability for both African American and Asian American groups.

Life Satisfaction Rating. Respondents rated their current overall (positive) evaluation of life on a scale from 0 (*my life is horrible*) to 10 (*my life is fantastic*). Higher scale scores indicated greater life satisfaction. A single item assessing life satisfaction is shown to be valid in capturing overall perceived quality of life (Cheung & Lucas, 2014), and has been used in previous research to indicate positive psychological adjustment in the context of racial discrimination (Broman, 1997; Seaton et al., 2008).

PHQ-4 (Kroenke et al., 2009). Respondents indicated their levels of internalizing symptoms associated with depression and anxiety over the past month. The four-item scale contains items such as “How often have you been bothered by feeling nervous, anxious, or on edge” and “How often have you been bothered by feeling down, depressed, or hopeless.” Items

are rated on a scale from 1(*not at all*) to 4 (*nearly everyday*). Summed scores can indicate severity levels of internalizing symptoms (1-6 = normal to mild, 7-9 = moderate, and 10-16 = severe). The current PhQ-4 scores demonstrated adequate internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .83$ for both African American and Asian American groups).

Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (Saunders et al., 1993). Respondents reported on 10 scale items whether or not they consumed alcohol, and their levels of hazardous drinking in the past 6 months. Items include, "How many drinks containing alcohol do you have on a typical day when you are drinking" and "How often have you had a feeling of guilt or remorse after drinking?" Total scale scores at or above 8 had been shown to indicate problematic drinking and warrant early intervention (Bohn et al., 1995). The scale has been used validly across African and Asian American college samples (Lui, 2019a, 2019b). The present summed scores showed adequate internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$ for both African American and Asian American groups). Only data from drinkers were used when analyses concerned hazardous alcohol use.

Statistical Analyses

To the extent that groups likely differ in the rates of exposure to distinct types of discrimination, we inspected the frequencies that participants experienced everyday racial discrimination and police-related discrimination across African and Asian Americans. To test H1, independent samples *t*-tests were used to compare mean differences in continuous variables across African and Asian American groups. To test H2 and H3, we conducted bivariate correlation analyses to examine the associations among study variables. We examined the distribution of each outcome variable to determine the most appropriate types of regression analyses. Linear regression analyses were planned for outcome variables with normally

distributed residuals, whereas negative binomial regression analyses were planned for outcome scale scores with nonnormally distributed residuals. To test H4, we first regressed each outcome variable on everyday racial discrimination in Step 1, and subsequently on both everyday racial discrimination and police-related discrimination in Step 2. To test H5 and H6, we included racial identity variables in Step 3 of regression analyses, and included *discrimination x racial identity* interaction terms in Step 4.

Results

Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Relations

Participants reported more frequent everyday racial discrimination than police-related discrimination (see Table S1 for frequencies). Overall, there was a relatively low frequency of self-reported discrimination specific to police and law enforcement in our sample. Across five examples of police-related discrimination, Asian Americans were more likely than African Americans to indicate having “never” been exposed to these events over the past six months. Given the low base rates for police-related discrimination and that the everyday racial discrimination data were positively skewed, we dichotomized these variables to indicate whether or not participants experienced everyday discrimination and police-related discrimination.

Table 1 summarizes descriptive statistics of and zero-order correlations among our study variables. Consistent with H1, African Americans reported greater frequencies of everyday racial discrimination (88.7% African American and 60.9% Asian American) and police-related discrimination (36.2% African American and 15.8% Asian American) than Asian Americans. Post-hoc analyses indicated that African American men were most likely to report having exposed to police-related discrimination: 45.7% of them reported being treated unfairly by police and law enforcement in the past six months, compared to less than 20.0% of Asian American men and women (see Table

S2). Experiences with everyday racial discrimination were only weakly associated with experiences with police-related discrimination across groups, highlighting the distinctiveness of these discrimination experiences (see Tables 1 and S2 for correlations).

Results fully supported H2 among Asian Americans and partially supported H2 among African Americans. Among Asian Americans, exposure to everyday racial discrimination and police-related discrimination were consistently correlated with psychological adjustment (ρ ranged from $-.09$ to $.27$). Among African Americans, everyday racial discrimination and police-related discrimination were positively associated with hazardous alcohol use ($\rho = .17$ and $.18$, respectively), but not with internalizing symptoms and life satisfaction. In terms of racial identity, our data generally supported H3 across groups. Private and public regard were statistically significantly associated with internalizing symptoms and/or hazardous alcohol use negatively ($\rho = -.14$ to $-.15$), and life satisfaction positively (ρ ranged from $.15$ to $.21$). Centrality was only associated with internalizing symptoms among Asian Americans ($\rho = .10$), and was not linked to psychological adjustment among African Americans (see Table 1).

Multivariate Relations Linking Discrimination and Racial Identity to Adjustment

Residuals of life satisfaction and internalizing symptoms scores were normally distributed; data patterns justified the use of ordinary least squares regression. Data on hazardous alcohol use were positively skewed, however. Dispersion parameter estimates and model fit indices showed that negative binomial regression was appropriate for hazardous alcohol use across African and Asian American groups. We reported results from confirmatory analyses below and in Tables 2-4. Exploratory analyses separated by gender for each group are summarized in Tables S3-S5.

African Americans. Everyday racial discrimination and police-related discrimination

were not systematically associated with life satisfaction and internalizing symptoms among African Americans. Consistent with H4, police-related discrimination ($IRR = .70$) predicted hazardous alcohol use over and above everyday racial discrimination (see Model 2 in Table 4). African Americans who reported exposure to differential treatment by the police were 30% less likely to engage in hazardous drinking. Partially consistent with H5, private regard—but not centrality or public regard—was uniquely associated with psychological adjustment among African Americans. Every one unit increase in private regard corresponded to 0.36 points increase in life satisfaction ratings ($\beta = .17$; see Step 3 in Table 2) and 0.57 points decrease in internalizing symptoms ($\beta = -.16$; see Step 3 in Table 3). Finally, when considering both types of discrimination and all three dimensions of racial identity, we did not find evidence supporting H5 in the African American sample. None of the racial identity dimensions moderated the relations between discrimination and psychological adjustment.

Asian Americans. With respect to H4, the predictive roles of discrimination types varied by psychological adjustment outcomes. Exposure to everyday racial discrimination was linked to lower levels of life satisfaction ($\beta = -.16$; see Step 1 in Table 2) and greater internalizing symptoms ($\beta = .24$; see Step 1 in Table 3). Accounting for police-related discrimination did not change these patterns of results. In contrast, although everyday discrimination alone was not a robust predictor of hazardous alcohol use, police-related discrimination accounted for a statistically significant proportion of variance in this drinking outcome ($IRR = .63$; see Model 2 in Table 4). Contrary to expectations, exposure to police-related discrimination corresponded to 37% decrease in the incidence rate ratio of hazardous alcohol use among Asian Americans. Evidence supported H5, but the direction of the associations between psychological adjustment and racial identity varied by content dimensions. Higher levels of centrality was associated with

lower ratings of life satisfaction ($\beta = -.09$; see Step 3 in Table 2) and greater internalizing symptoms ($\beta = .09$; see Step 3 in Table 3). Higher levels of private regard was associated with higher levels of life satisfaction ($\beta = .21$; see Step 3 in Table 2) and lower incidence rate for hazardous alcohol use (IRR = .89; see Model 3 in Table 4). Finally, consistent with H6, *police-related discrimination x centrality* statistically significantly predicted life satisfaction ($\beta = -.39$; see Step 4 in Table 2) and *everyday discrimination x private regard* predicted internalizing symptoms ($\beta = -.67$; see Step 4 in Table 3). Our simple slopes analysis (Preacher et al., 2006) probing the *everyday discrimination x private regard* interaction showed a statistically significant relation between private regard and internalizing symptoms for the no-discrimination group, but nonsignificant relation for the discrimination group (see Figure 1). Private regard mitigated the negative impact on internalizing symptoms when Asian Americans were exposed to everyday discrimination, but was not linked to internalizing symptoms when individuals reported no discrimination experiences. Probing of the possible *police-related discrimination x centrality* effect on life satisfaction revealed statistically nonsignificant simple slopes, which suggested that the interaction likely was identified by chance. Graphical illustration (Figure S1) and interpretation of the simple slopes analysis results are presented in the supplemental materials.

Discussion

The present study was one of the first few that systematically examined the complex relations linking everyday discrimination, police-related discrimination, and racial identity to a range of psychological adjustment outcomes. A large body of research on discrimination has examined the experiences and self-perceptions of African Americans, which likely reflects the longstanding history of oppression and continued power dynamics facing this group in the U.S.

society. The present study expanded scientific understanding of discrimination and racial identity by exploring the experiences of Asian Americans—another visible minoritized group with a history of marginalization in the U.S. mainstream context. Our findings help further illuminate the range of psychological impact of discrimination and the independent and interactive roles of within-group characteristics and self-perceptions on adjustment. The present results also can inform clinical approaches to promoting psychological functioning for both groups.

Consistent with estimates from nationally representative datasets (Lee et al., 2019; RWJF, 2018), our participants reported high prevalence of exposure to everyday racial discrimination. This is likely because of increased opportunities for intergroup contact while enrolled in college at a predominantly White university. The focus on individuals at this age group was important for three reasons. First, emerging adults in college have more interactions with larger groups of people from diverse backgrounds, this exposure possibly increases the chance that they are confronted by negative racial stereotypes and discriminatory incidents in their social milieu (Jochman et al., 2019). Second, compared to their younger counterparts, emerging adults can engage in more sophisticated understanding of their racial identity with greater levels of cognitive faculties. Third, individuals in emerging adulthood are prone to experience symptoms associated with psychological disorders and experiment with health-risk behaviors such as hazardous alcohol use (Adams et al., 2013; Storrie et al., 2010). Vulnerabilities for psychological distress that are prevalent during this developmental period and social setting thus set the context for the present investigation.

Between-Group Differences: Types of Discrimination

Among African Americans and Asian Americans, understanding of psychological impact of discrimination depends not only on the distinct types of differential treatment, but also

individuals' dispositions in how they relate to their group membership. Specifically, we found that approximately 90% of Asian American college students reported never having been subjected to specific incidents of police-related discrimination over the past six months, and over 50% of these individuals reported never having experienced racism in their day-to-day lives. Tapping police-related discrimination contributes to scientific understanding of POCI's adjustment above and beyond general understanding of the psychological effects of everyday discrimination. Findings regarding the distinctive psychological correlates of everyday racial discrimination and police-related discrimination were consistent with the conceptual differentiation of daily hassles and major episodic discrimination experiences (Harrell, 2000). Our findings also highlighted the resiliency of the African American community (Brown & Tylka, 2011; Mallett & Swim, 2009; Teti et al., 2012): everyday racial discrimination was not predictive of psychological adjustment among African Americans. Except for hazardous alcohol use, we did not observe robust relations linking police-related discrimination and psychological adjustment among African Americans. To the extent that vast majority of African Americans are exposed to daily hassles associated with racism, they may be desensitized from experiences with everyday racial discrimination. By contrast, police-related discrimination occurred at a much lower rate among Asian Americans than African Americans; this type of differential treatment did not reliably predict life satisfaction and internalizing symptoms among Asian Americans. Despite being considered the model minority group, our data supported the notion that Asian Americans experienced a fair share of racial discrimination in their day-to-day lives and that such exposure were detrimental to their psychological adjustment (Alvarez et al., 2006; Chan, 2017; Museus & Park, 2015).

To the extent that alcohol often is used to reduce stress (Cooper et al., 1992; Sher &

Levenson, 1982), we examined hazardous alcohol use as an aspect of psychological adjustment. Among Asian American and African American drinkers, self-reported exposure to police-related discrimination was linked to lower levels of hazardous drinking when everyday racial discrimination was accounted for. This finding contradicts previous research on general racial discrimination and alcohol use outcomes (Gilbert & Zembre, 2016; Le & Iwamoto, 2019; Martin et al., 2003). Most studies have indicated that greater experiences with discrimination are linked to higher levels of alcohol use and misuse among POCI (Chae et al., 2008; Hatzenbuehler et al., 2011; Keyes et al., 2011; Martin et al., 2003; Parenteau et al., 2017), but existing investigations tend to focus on everyday racial discrimination, whereas no studies have examined police-related discrimination. Presumably, POCI consume alcohol to cope with general discrimination-related stress because of cumulative strain on their psychological resources (Le & Iwamoto, 2019; Tse & Wong, 2015). When confronted with police-related discrimination, however, POCI are made aware of the risks for differential treatment and the threats for adverse legal consequences. Hence, police-related discrimination may be a deterrent for externalizing problems such as hazardous drinking among individuals who consume alcohol, a piece of finding that warrants further research for better identification of the underlying psychological processes.

Within-Group Differences: Racial Identity Centrality and Private Regard

Our study also helps clarify the ways in which different racial identity dimensions contribute to psychological adjustment, especially in the context of discrimination. Considering centrality, private regard, and public regard simultaneously, public regard did not uniquely predict variances in adjustment outcomes. To the extent that public regard represents general societal view of individuals' membership group, public regard may not affect psychological adjustment as much as personal evaluation and significance of their race. Private regard was

consistently a promotive factor in psychological adjustment among African and Asian Americans, including higher levels of self-reported life satisfaction, and lower levels of internalizing symptoms and hazardous drinking. Private regard also was found to be protective against Asian American individuals' internalizing symptoms in the event of everyday racial discrimination. Positive private regard likely reinforces a sense of pride, empowerment, and possibly agency in relieving stress associated with discrimination. Research has shown that parental racial socialization promotes both personal and collective regard for POCI's racial group, and enhances individuals' self-esteem (Ajayi & Syed, 2014; Neblett et al., 2008; Thai et al., 2017; Thompson et al., 2016). Hence, positive racial socialization can help prepare POCI in navigating lives as visible minorities, and serves as a social and psychological resource to cope with discrimination-related stresses (Reynolds & Gonzales-Backen, 2017; Richardson et al., 2015). Enhancing psychological adjustment and promoting racial private regard may be achieved through family support, access to identity-affirming affinity spaces, and advocacy for POCI's welfare in society.

Centrality was shown to be a vulnerability factor in psychological adjustment among Asian Americans. Individuals who considered race to be more significant to their lives reported not only more severe internalizing symptoms but also lower levels of life satisfaction. Asian Americans typically are considered a model minority group; experiencing racism and differential treatment by the police/law enforcement likely challenge this view. On the one hand, individuals who have received racial socialization from parents and other community members may develop greater awareness of racism, and thus perceive experiences of discrimination more acutely (Alvarez et al., 2006). On the other hand, exposure to racism and discrimination may heighten one's awareness of their racial categorization in the mainstream U.S. society (see Hughes et al.,

2016). Currently, not many studies have teased apart the directionality of these associations; more research is needed to understand these pathways in order to inform ways to reduce individual vulnerabilities to psychological impact of discrimination.

Limitations and Future Directions

Our results should be considered within the confines of the following considerations. Findings also present opportunities for future research. First, despite that most African American and Asian American students in our sample reported exposure to everyday racial discrimination over the past six months, they also reported relatively low levels of internalizing symptoms and (among drinkers,) hazardous alcohol use. The present sample likely does not match the characteristics of the general population in the community and/or nonstudents of different employment statuses. Furthermore, our sample was recruited from an urban predominantly-White four-year university; findings may not generalize to other segments of the population of different racial and ethnic composition in the immediate environments.

Second, the present results should be interpreted with the timing of data collection and sociopolitical climate in mind. Our data were collected during 2016-2018. National statistics have indicated that racialized hate crime rates in the community and on college campuses have been rising, and POCI view the police more negatively than their White counterparts since 2016 (Bauman, 2018; FBI, 2017; Fingerhut, 2017; Polls, n.d.). It is possible that contemporary race relations and heightened prejudice toward POCI increased minoritized individuals' sense of racial identity centrality and informed their public regard. It is also possible that the current sociopolitical climate increased participants' vigilant response bias, and thus resulted in more negative impact of discrimination. Future research with other samples, especially using naturalistic cohort surveys, can help delineate how sociopolitical climate influences the

psychological impact of racism, discrimination, and racial identity.

Third, the present measurement of discrimination-related experiences likely underestimated the deleterious impact of differential treatment on psychological adjustment. We assessed whether or not individuals were exposed to everyday discrimination and police-related discrimination over the past six months, and did not focus on overall frequencies and their perceived stressfulness of these encounters. Additionally, psychological burden of experiences with interpersonal discrimination can accumulate over time (Brondolo et al., 2005; Hoggard et al., 2015; Krieger, 1999; Torres & Ong, 2010). More research should examine not only direct experiences with racism and discrimination over longer assessment period to understand their negative impact on psychological adjustment, but also vicarious discrimination experiences. Specifically, except traffic stops and mass incarceration affecting certain POCI groups, prevalence of major discrimination events associated with negative police contact—is generally low, an important research direction is to further examine the psychological consequences of vicarious experiences with racism and differential treatment (Herda & McCarthy, 2018; Nadal et al., 2017; Scott et al., 2017).

Finally, we aimed to establish a cross-sectional overview of the associations among racial identity dimensions and two types of discrimination, and psychological adjustment. We did not examine how individuals respond to distinctive discriminatory events, and how between-person differences in racial identity affected these psychological processes. To the extent that psychological processes that underlie the impact of racial identity are only initiated when race is salient to individuals (Ellemers et al., 2002; Hurtado et al., 2015; Trepte & Loy, 2017), our results likely capture an average description of these associations. Salience of racial identity and perception of discrimination can vary across situations, gender, socioeconomic status,

community characteristics, and other personal and socio-demographic factors (e.g., Douglass et al., 2016). We conducted exploratory analyses concerning the interrelations among discrimination, racial identity, and psychological adjustment across men and women; however, these results likely were underpowered and warranted targeted examinations in the future. The lived experiences and cognitive and affective mediating factors of racial identity also likely vary by individuals. For example, individuals confronted with racial discrimination may choose to reject their racial identity and adopt the model minority stereotype or to deploy their identity as an adaptive coping strategy (Chan, 2017). Thus, future research should use innovative methods to disaggregate within- and between-person variability in the relations among discrimination experiences, racial identity dimensions, and psychological adjustment.

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Table 1

Summary of Descriptive Statistics of and Correlations (Spearman's ρ) Among Study Variables

	Yes (%)		<i>M(SD)</i>		<i>t</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
	<u>African</u> <u>American</u>	<u>Asian</u> <u>American</u>	<u>African</u> <u>American</u>	<u>Asian</u> <u>American</u>									
1. Police Discrimination	36.2	15.8	--	--	--	--	.22***	-.02	-.18***	-.22***	.11*	.15***	-.09*
2. Everyday Discrimination	88.7	60.9	--	--	--	.15*	--	.19***	-.06	-.18***	.29***	.13**	-.16***
3. Racial Identity Centrality	--	--	4.94(1.26)	4.49(1.14)	-4.60***	.18*	.21**	--	.38***	.13**	.12*	-.02	-.03
4. Racial Private Regard	--	--	6.17(0.95)	5.63(1.03)	-6.56***	-.04	.10	.56***	--	.55***	-.05	-.15***	.21***
5. Racial Public Regard	--	--	2.90(1.27)	5.12(1.11)	23.73***	.02	-.23**	-.32***	-.15*	--	-.06	-.11	.19**
6. Internalizing Symptoms	--	--	7.05(3.10)	6.84(2.89)	-0.91	-.05	.14	.10	-.11	-.15*	--	.14**	-.36***
7. Hazardous Alcohol Use	--	--	4.35(4.77)	4.04(4.82)	-0.81	.18*	.17*	.03	-.03	.02	.18*	--	-.13**
8. Life Satisfaction	--	--	6.99(1.94)	7.13(1.70)	0.99	.06	-.12	-.00	.17*	.15*	-.53***	-.09	--

Note. $N = 213$ for African Americans. $N = 571$ for Asian Americans. Correlations for African Americans are listed below the diagonal, and for Asian Americans are listed above the diagonal. Police-related discrimination and everyday racial discrimination are binary variables. Mean scale scores for racial identity centrality, private regard, and public regard are rated on a scale from 1 to 7. Possible scores for internalizing symptoms range from 1 to 16, life satisfaction range from 0 to 10, and hazardous alcohol use range from 0 to 40. Bold fonts indicate statistically significant racial differences.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .005$, *** $p < .001$

Table 2

Ordinary Least Squares Regression Analyses on Life Satisfaction Among African American and Asian American Participants

Predictor	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	β	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	β	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	β	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	β
African American								
Everyday Discrimination	-.74(.43)	-.12	-.69(.44)	-.11	-.69(.44)	-.11	-1.56(2.93)	-.25
Police Discrimination			.55(.29)	.14	.55(.29)	.14	-.01(2.17)	.00
Centrality					-.09(.13)	-.06	-.15(.39)	-.10
Private Regard					.36(.17)	.17*	.26(.42)	.13
Public Regard					.19(.11)	.13	.15(.29)	.10
Everyday Discrimination x Centrality							.04(.42)	.04
Everyday Discrimination x Private Regard							.04(.47)	.04
Everyday Discrimination x Public Regard							.15(.32)	.11
Police Discrimination x Centrality							.12(.30)	.16
Police Discrimination x Private Regard							.10(.38)	.16
Police Discrimination x Public Regard							-.24(.24)	-.19
Model <i>R</i> ²		.01		.03		.07*		.08
Asian American								
Everyday Discrimination	-.56(.15)	-.16*	-.50(.15)	-.14*	-.41(.15)	-.12*	-2.09(.96)	-.60*
Police Discrimination			-.37(.20)	-.08	-.16(.20)	-.03	2.07(1.21)	.45
Centrality					-.14(.07)	-.09*	.05(.10)	.03
Private Regard					.35(.09)	.21*	.21(.15)	.13
Public Regard					.08(.08)	.05	-.01(.14)	-.01
Everyday Discrimination x Centrality							-.24(.14)	-.35
Everyday Discrimination x Private Regard							.36(.19)	.60
Everyday Discrimination x Public Regard							.13(.17)	.20
Police Discrimination x Centrality							-.39(.19)	-.39*
Police Discrimination x Private Regard							-.20(.22)	-.23
Police Discrimination x Public Regard							.15(.22)	.15
Model <i>R</i> ²		.03*		.03*		.08*		.11*

Note. *N* = 208 for African Americans. *N* = 551 for Asian Americans.

**p* < .05

Table 3

Ordinary Least Squares Regression Analyses on Internalizing Symptoms Among African American and Asian American Participants

Predictor	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	β	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	β	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	β	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	β
African American								
Everyday Discrimination	1.02(.69)	.10	1.16(.69)	.12	.83(.71)	.08	2.72(4.73)	.27
Police Discrimination			-.68(.45)	-.11	-.88(.46)	-.14	-.50(3.45)	-.08
Centrality					.33(.21)	.14	.88(.63)	.36
Private Regard					-.55(.26)	-.17*	-.88(.67)	-.27
Public Regard					-.24(.18)	-.10	.13(.47)	.05
Everyday Discrimination x Centrality							-.68(.68)	-.43
Everyday Discrimination x Private Regard							.45(.75)	.31
Everyday Discrimination x Public Regard							-.45(.52)	-.21
Police Discrimination x Centrality							.18(.49)	.15
Police Discrimination x Private Regard							-.20(.60)	-.19
Police Discrimination x Public Regard							-.02(.39)	-.01
Model <i>R</i> ²		.01		.02		.06*		.07
Asian American								
Everyday Discrimination	1.46(.25)	.25*	1.38(.25)	.23*	1.26(.26)	.21*	1.56(1.65)	.27*
Police Discrimination			.48(.33)	.06	.37(.34)	.05	.05(2.08)	.01
Centrality					.26(.12)	.10*	.01(.18)	.00
Private Regard					-.25(.15)	-.09	.25(.26)	.09
Public Regard					-.02(.13)	-.01	-.32(.23)	-.12
Everyday Discrimination x Centrality							.36(.24)	.30
Everyday Discrimination x Private Regard							-.75(.33)	-.74*
Everyday Discrimination x Public Regard							.46(.29)	.40
Police Discrimination x Centrality							.40(.32)	.24
Police Discrimination x Private Regard							-.14(.38)	-.09
Police Discrimination x Public Regard							-.18(.38)	-.11
Model <i>R</i> ²		.06*		.07*		.08*		.09*

Note. *N* = 208 for African Americans and 547 for Asian Americans.

**p* < .05

Table 4

Negative Binomial Regression on Hazardous Alcohol Use Among African American and Asian American Participants

Predictor	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	Exp(<i>B</i>)	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	Exp(<i>B</i>)	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	Exp(<i>B</i>)	<i>B</i> (<i>SE</i>)	Exp(<i>B</i>)
African American								
Everyday Discrimination	-.13(.23)	0.88	-.07(.23)	0.93	-.14(.24)	0.87	-.45(2.02)	0.64
Police Discrimination			-.36(.13)	0.70*	-.38(.13)	0.69*	.00(1.01)	0.99
Centrality					-.07(.06)	0.93	.13(.26)	1.13
Private Regard					-.05(.09)	0.95	-.16(.22)	0.85
Public Regard					-.01(.06)	0.99	-.02(.22)	0.98
Everyday Discrimination x Centrality							-.11(.27)	0.89
Everyday Discrimination x Private Regard							.01(.23)	1.01
Everyday Discrimination x Public Regard							.04(.21)	1.04
Police Discrimination x Centrality							-.24(.13)	0.79
Police Discrimination x Private Regard							.29(.17)	1.34
Police Discrimination x Public Regard							-.07(.11)	0.93
Model $\chi^2(df)$		.317(1)		8.34*(2)		11.16*(5)		15.40(11)
Asian American								
Everyday Discrimination	-.09(.09)	0.91	.01(.09)	1.96	-.09(.09)	0.91	1.16(.59)	3.20*
Police Discrimination			-.46(.11)	0.63*	-.38(.11)	0.69*	-.47(.67)	0.63
Centrality					-.06(.04)	0.94	-.17(.10)	0.84*
Private Regard					-.12(.05)	0.89*	-.18(.11)	0.83
Public Regard					.01(.05)	1.01	.22(.12)	1.02
Everyday Discrimination x Centrality							.13(.09)	1.14
Everyday Discrimination x Private Regard							.15(.13)	1.16
Everyday Discrimination x Public Regard							-.02(.12)	0.98
Police Discrimination x Centrality							.09(.09)	1.09
Police Discrimination x Private Regard							-.16(.12)	0.85
Police Discrimination x Public Regard							.09(.14)	1.09
Model $\chi^2(df)$		1.09(1)		19.13*(2)		35.47*(5)		43.30*(11)

Note. Models included drinkers only. *N* = 155 for African Americans and 367 for Asian Americans.

**p* < .05

Figure 1. Interaction between racial identity private regard and everyday racial discrimination as they relate to internalizing symptoms among Asian American participants. Linear regression model also includes simple main effects of police-related discrimination, centrality, public regard, and the interactions between discrimination and racial identity variables (see Table 3). Possible scores for internalizing symptoms range from 1 to 16 and for centrality range from 1 to 7.

Supplemental Materials

- Supplement to the Results section (p. 1)
- Tables S1-S5 (p. 2-6)
- Figures S1 (p. 7)

Figure S1 depicts the joint predictive relations linking police-related discrimination and racial identity centrality to life satisfaction among Asian American participants. Examinations of the region of significance did not apply because exposure to police-related discrimination was measured on a binary categorical scale. When visualizing the interaction, it appeared that experiences with police discrimination were associated with higher levels of life satisfaction among Asian Americans reporting lower personal significance of race. This pattern of finding should be interpreted with caution, however. Despite the overall statistically significant *police-related discrimination x centrality* interaction term, our simple slopes analysis (Preacher et al., 2006) showed that the regression lines for exposure ($b = -.34, p = .12$) and no exposure to discrimination ($b = .05, p = .65$) were nonsignificant. With 11 predictor variables in the model, it is possible that the *police-related discrimination x centrality* interaction term was a function of a suppressor effect or simply occurred by chance. This result did not provide us with confidence to conclude a meaningful moderating role of centrality in the association between police-related discrimination and life satisfaction.

Table S1

Frequencies of Everyday Racial Discrimination and Police-Related by African American and Asian American Groups

		African American (N = 213)			Asian American (N = 571)				
		Never	A little/ Rarely	Sometimes/ A moderate amount	Often/ Frequently	Never	A little/ Rarely	Sometimes/ A moderate amount	Often/ Frequently
Abridged Item									
Everyday Racial Discrimination									
1.	Less courtesy	28.6	35.7	23.0	12.7	58.0	26.1	12.8	3.2
2.	Less respect	33.3	33.3	20.7	12.7	56.7	27.8	11.6	3.9
3.	Poorer service	48.1	23.1	18.4	10.4	69.8	18.8	8.4	3.0
4.	Assumed not smart	35.7	25.4	23.0	16.0	83.3	10.4	4.9	1.4
5.	Afraid	38.0	28.2	18.3	15.5	84.2	9.8	5.1	0.9
6.	Assumed dishonest	54.0	22.5	13.6	9.9	78.6	14.5	5.4	1.4
7.	Inferior	29.9	26.5	19.4	24.2	54.9	23.0	15.1	6.7
8.	Insulted	50.7	33.8	8.5	7.0	60.7	26.1	11.1	2.1
9.	Threatened or harassed	71.4	17.8	6.1	4.7	77.4	16.5	5.1	1.1
10.	Followed around	33.3	34.33	21.1	11.3	87.9	7.5	3.7	0.9
Police Discrimination									
1.	Accused of having or selling drugs	85.0	9.4	4.7	0.9	92.3	3.9	3.2	0.7
2.	Pulled over	74.2	14.1	8.0	3.8	89.7	6.1	3.7	0.5
3.	Verbally abused	78.9	11.7	7.0	2.3	90.9	5.3	3.2	0.7
4.	Physically abused	92.5	4.2	2.8	0.5	94.0	2.8	2.1	1.1
5.	Unfair treatment	84.0	6.1	6.1	3.8	92.5	3.9	3.5	0.2

Table S2

Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlations (in Spearman's ρ) among Key Study Variables for African and Asian American Men and Women

Variable	Men		Women		1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
	Yes (%)	<i>M(SD)</i>	Yes (%)	<i>M(SD)</i>								
African American												
1. Police Discrimination	45.7	--	29.8	--	--	.06	.13	-.05	.02	-.11	.08	.10
2. Everyday Discrimination	86.4	--	90.1	--	.03	--	.19*	.13	-.19*	.19*	.23*	-.19*
3. Racial Identity Centrality	--	4.51(1.40)	--	5.18(1.10)	.37*	.22	--	.50*	-.16	.05	.07	.08
4. Racial Private Regard	--	5.95(1.08)	--	6.30(0.83)	.04	.02	.56*	--	-.08	-.11	.03	.23*
5. Racial Public Regard	--	3.11(1.27)	--	2.78(1.25)	-.09	-.27*	-.45*	-.12	--	-.13	-.06	.20*
6. Internalizing Symptoms	--	6.69(3.15)	--	7.26(3.07)	.06	.05	.08	-.17	-.13	--	.09	-.54*
7. Hazardous Alcohol Use	--	5.76(5.98)	--	3.55(3.69)	.28*	.10	.08	-.04	-.09	.34*	--	.04
8. Life Satisfaction	--	7.14(1.97)	--	6.61(1.92)	-.00	.00	-.07	.10	.05	-.49**	-.31*	--
Asian American												
1. Police Discrimination	19.8	--	11.7	--	--	-.01	.07	-.10	-.21*	.15*	.07	-.11
2. Everyday Discrimination	56.9	--	64.7	--	.17*	--	.29*	-.08	-.22*	.26*	.11*	-.16*
3. Racial Identity Centrality	--	4.30(1.00)	--	4.68(1.25)	-.07	.06	--	.40*	.03	.09	.02	-.07
4. Racial Private Regard	--	5.46(1.12)	--	5.81(0.90)	-.23*	-.07	.35*	--	.41*	-.09	-.09	.21*
5. Racial Public Regard	--	5.04(1.11)	--	5.21(1.09)	-.22*	-.17*	.22*	.67*	--	-.10	-.02	.16*
6. Internalizing Symptoms	--	6.17(2.51)	--	7.41(3.03)	.13*	.31*	.07	-.07	-.06	--	.16	-.43*
7. Hazardous Alcohol Use	--	4.80(5.21)	--	3.31(4.28)	.19*	.17*	.00	-.18*	-.17*	.22*	--	-.12*
8. Life Satisfaction	--	7.15(1.71)	--	7.13(1.67)	-.08	-.13*	.03	.21*	.22*	-.27*	-.14*	--

Note. $N = 81$ and 131 for African American men and women, respectively. $N = 283$ and 283 for Asian American men and women, respectively. Correlations for men are below the diagonal and for women are above the diagonal. Police-related discrimination and everyday racial discrimination are binary variables. Mean scale scores for racial identity centrality, private regard, and public regard are rated on a scale of 1 to 7. Possible scores for internalizing symptoms range from 1 to 16, life satisfaction range from 0 to 10, and hazardous alcohol use range from 0 to 40. * $p < .05$

Table S3

Models Regressing Life Satisfaction on Discrimination and Racial Identity Variables Among African American and Asian American Men and Women

Predictor	Men								Women							
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4		Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β
African American																
ERD	.05(.68)	.01	-.02(.68)	-.00	.13(.72)	.02	-8.49(4.96)	-1.45	-1.30(.56)	-.20*	-1.44(.56)	-.23*	-1.45(.79)	-.23	.39(3.87)	.06
PD			.37(.46)	.09	.58(.51)	.15	-.42(3.32)	-.11			.58(.37)	.14	.67(.36)	.16	.75(3.01)	.18
Centrality					-.26(.24)	-.19	-1.57(.80)	-1.11					-.12(.17)	-.01	-.09(.50)	-.05
Private Regard					.24(.27)	.13	-.41(.71)	-.22					.62(.22)	.27*	.92(.56)	.40
Public Regard					-.01(.22)	-.01	.08(.69)	-.05					.28(.13)	.18*	.30(.33)	.20
ERD x Centrality							1.09(.82)	1.13							-.22(.54)	.21
ERD x Private							.79(.76)	.89							-.49(.65)	-.52
ERD x Public							-.04(.70)	-.03							.03(.38)	.02
PD x Centrality							.67(.51)	.91							-.46(.43)	-.61
PD x Private							-.29(.59)	-.45							.40(.51)	.60
PD x Public							-.09(.45)	-.07							-.05(.30)	-.04
Model <i>R</i> ²	< .01		.01		.03		.14		.04*		.06*		.15*		.16*	
Asian American																
ERD	-.51(.21)	-.15	-.45(.22)	-.13*	-.38(.22)	-.11	-3.21(1.34)	-.92*	-.57(.21)	-.16*	-.51(.21)	-.15*	-.29(.22)	-.09	-1.15(1.07)	-.33
PD			-.23(.27)	-.05	-.03(.27)	-.01	3.69(1.54)	.86*			-.55(.32)	-.11	-.36(.31)	-.07	-1.56(2.25)	-.30
Centrality					-.02(.11)	-.01	.09(.16)	.05					-.25(.09)	-.19*	-.01(.14)	-.00
Private Regard					.16(.13)	.10	.17(.22)	.11					.54(.13)	.29*	.22(.23)	.12
Public Regard					.23(.12)	.15	.02(.22)	.01					-.01(.10)	-.01	.02(.18)	.01
ERD x Centrality							-.07(.22)	-.09							-.30(.18)	-.46
ERD x Private							.19(.28)	.31							.42(.28)	.73
ERD x Public							.39(.26)	.57							-.01(.22)	-.09
PD x Centrality							-.39(.32)	-.39							-.52(.28)	-.51
PD x Private							.02(.34)	-.46							.45(.36)	.48
PD x Public							.02(.34)	.02							.29(.34)	.26
Model <i>R</i> ²	.02*		.02*		.06*		.07*		.03*		.04		.11*		.15*	

Note. $N = 77$ for men and $N = 130$ for women among African Americans. $N = 275$ for men and $N = 268$ for women among Asian Americans. ERD = everyday racial discrimination, PD = police-related discrimination.

* $p < .05$

Table S4

Models Regressing Internalizing Symptoms on Discrimination and Racial Identity Variables Among African American and Asian American Men and Women

Predictor	Men								Women							
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4		Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β	<i>B(SE)</i>	β
African American																
ERD	.39(1.09)	.45	.36(1.10)	.04	-.03(1.14)	< -.00	12.69(8.04)	1.35	1.40(.89)	.14	1.71 (.89)	-.17	1.50(.93)	.15	-2.64(6.40)	-.26
PD			.19(.75)	.03	.01(.80)	< .00	-1.78(5.29)	-.28			-1.26(.59)	-.19*	-1.39(.60)	-.21*	-.49(4.99)	-.07
Centrality					.25(.39)	.11	1.94(1.29)	.85					.32(.28)	.11	.66(.83)	.24
Private Regard					-.73(.41)	-.25	.17(1.15)	.06					-.46(.36)	-.13	-1.46(.90)	-.40
Public Regard					-.20(.35)	-.08	-.39(1.11)	-.16					-.24(.22)	-.10	.11(.54)	.05
ERD x Centrality							-2.14(1.32)	-1.38							-.40(.90)	-.24
ERD x Private							-.78(1.23)	-.55							1.20(1.07)	.80
ERD x Public							.04(1.21)	.02							-.35(.63)	-.15
PD x Centrality							1.04(.82)	.86							180.71)	.00
PD x Private							-.67(.94)	-.65							-.05(.85)	-.05
PD x Public							.22(.72)	.11							-.18(.50)	-.09
Model <i>R</i> ²	< .04		< .01		.06		.13		.02		.05*		.08		.09	
Asian American																
ERD	1.35(.30)	.27*	1.25(.31)	.25*	1.23(.31)	.24*	2.86(1.97)	.56	1.43(.37)	.23*	1.13(.38)	.38*	1.13(.40)	.18*	-.27(2.71)	-.06
PD			.45(.38)	.07	.31(.39)	.05	-1.17(2.27)	-.19			1.00(.57)	.11	.86(.58)	.09	4.66(4.17)	.47
Centrality					.08(.16)	.03	-.08(.24)	-.03					.25(.16)	.11	-.02(.276)	-.02
Private Regard					-.24(.19)	-.11	-.23(.33)	-.10					-.51(.24)	-.15*	.22(.43)	.05
Public Regard					-.01(.18)	-.01	.20(.32)	.09					.08(.18)	.03	-.49(.33)	-.17
ERD x Centrality							.15(.32)	.14							.38(.34)	.33
ERD x Private							-.11(.41)	-.13							-.77(.53)	-.65
ERD x Public							-.32(.39)	-.30							.77(.41)	.59
PD x Centrality							.46(.42)	.32							.28(.53)	.13
PD x Private							.16(.46)	.13							-1.00(.66)	-.56
PD x Public							-.30(.50)	-.23							.09(.62)	.05
Model <i>R</i> ²	.07*		.08*		.09*		.10*		.05*		.06*		.08*		.11*	

Note. *N* = 77 for men and *N* = 130 for women among African Americans. *N* = 275 for men and *N* = 268 for women among Asian Americans. ERD = everyday racial discrimination, PD = police-related discrimination.

**p* < .05

Table S5

Models Regressing Hazardous Alcohol Use on Discrimination and Racial Identity Variables Among African American and Asian American Men and Women

Predictor	<u>Men</u>								<u>Women</u>							
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
	<i>B(SE)</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>	<i>B(SE)</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>	<i>B(SE)</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>	<i>B(SE)</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>	<i>B(SE)</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>	<i>B(SE)</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>	<i>B(SE)</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>	<i>B(SE)</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>
African American																
ERD	-.13(.23)	0.91	-.07(.23)	1.01	-.14(.24)	0.87	-.45(2.02)	0.64	-1.01(.36)	0.79	-.97(.36)	0.38*	-.90(.39)	0.41*	-1.48(2.44)	0.23
PD			-.36(.13)	0.63*	-.38(.13)	0.69*	-.01(1.01)	0.99			-.26(.20)	0.78	-.25(.21)	0.78	2.85(1.76)	17.28
Centrality					-.07(.06)	0.93	.13(.26)	1.13			.05(.10)	1.05	-.17(.24)	0.84		
Private Regard					-.05(.09)	0.95*	-.16(.22)	0.85			-.10(.13)	0.90	-.44(.27)	0.64		
Public Regard					-.01(.06)	0.99	-.02(.22)	0.98			-.07(.08)	0.93	.45(.26)	1.57		
ERD x Centrality							-.11(.27)	0.89					.23(.27)	1.26		
ERD x Private							.01(.23)	1.12					.16(.30)	1.18		
ERD x Public							.04(.21)	1.04					-.61(.28)	0.54		
PD x Centrality							-.24(.13)	0.79					-.15(.19)	0.86		
PD x Private							.29(.17)	1.34					.58(.30)	1.78		
PD x Public							-.07(.11)	0.93					.10(.18)	1.11		
Model $\chi^2(df)$	.32(1)		8.34*(2)		11.16*(5)		15.40(11)		1.71(1)		8.79(2)		10.12(5)		19.03(11)	
Asian American																
ERD	-.09(.09)	0.88	.01(.09)	0.93	-.09(.09)	0.91	1.16(.57)	3.20*	-.24(.18)	0.36*	-.19(.18)	0.83	-.24(.20)	0.79	2.12(1.09)	8.36
PD			-.46(.11)	0.70*	-.38(.11)	0.69*	-.47(.69)	0.63			-.39(.26)	0.68	-.37(.28)	0.69	-4.55(1.79)	0.01*
Centrality					-.06(.04)	0.94	-.17(.07)	0.84*			-.07(.08)	0.93	-.30(.13)	0.75*		
Private Regard					-.12(.05)	0.88*	-.18(.09)	0.83			-.06(.12)	0.94	-.19(.20)	0.83		
Public Regard					.01(.05)	1.01	.02(.10)	1.02			-.02(.08)	0.98	.11(.135)	1.12		
ERD x Centrality							.13(.09)	1.14					.30(.17)	1.35		
ERD x Private							.15(.13)	1.16					.33(.25)	1.39		
ERD x Public							-.02(.12)	0.98					-.14(.19)	0.87		
PD x Centrality							.09(.09)	1.09					.05(.18)	1.05		
PD x Private							-.16(.12)	0.85					-.60(.32)	0.55		
PD x Public							.09(.14)	1.09					-.27(.28)	0.77		
Model $\chi^2(df)$	1.09(1)		19.13*(2)		35.47*(5)		43.30*(11)		7.19*(1)		4.11*(2)		6.20(5)		18.86(11)	

Note. Models included drinkers only ($N = 74$ for men and $N = 127$ for women among African Americans, and $N = 273$ for men and $N = 266$ for women among Asian Americans). ERD = everyday racial discrimination, PD = police-related discrimination.

* $p < .05$

Figure S1. Interaction between racial identity centrality and police-related discrimination as they relate to life satisfaction among Asian American participants. Linear regression model also includes simple main effects of everyday racial discrimination, private regard, public regard, and the interactions between discrimination and racial identity variables (see Table 2). Possible scores for life satisfaction range from 0 to 10 and for centrality range from 1 to 7.