

An Examination of the Psychology of Working Theory With Employed Asian American Women Ψ

The Counseling Psychologist

2022, Vol. 50(8) 1074–1095

© The Author(s) 2022

Article reuse guidelines:

sagepub.com/journals-permissions

DOI: 10.1177/00110000221116885

journals.sagepub.com/home/tcp



Na-Yeun Choi¹ , Young Hwa Kim² , and Christopher A. Evans³

Abstract

Guided by the psychology of working theory (PWT) and an intersectional approach, the present study investigated how social class and gendered racial microaggression were associated with decent work through experiences of work volition in a sample of 262 self-identified employed Asian American women. Overall, most of the hypothesized direct paths were significant, with social class positively relating to work volition, gendered racial microaggression negatively related to decent work, and work volition positively related to decent work. Support for indirect effects was mixed. Work volition was found to significantly mediate the relation between social class to decent work, but not significantly mediate between gendered racial microaggression to decent work. Overall, results suggest the need for further investigation and refinement of the PWT to gain a better understanding of Asian American women's experience regarding accessibility to decent work. Practical implications and future research directions are discussed.

¹Dankook University, Korea

²Department of Elementary Education, Seoul National University of Education, Seoul, Korea

³New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM, USA

Corresponding Author:

Young Hwa Kim, Department of Elementary Education, Seoul National University of Education, 96 Seochojungang-ro, Seocho-gu, Seoul, 06639, Korea.

Email: yhkim@snu.ac.kr

Keywords

women of Color, gendered racial microaggressions, social class, decent work, work volition

Significance of the Scholarship to the Public

This study explored how marginalized experiences of employed Asian American women are related to their accessibility of decent work. Our findings showed that it is critical to understand how gendered racial microaggressions and economic constraints can function as barriers for employed Asian American women to fulfill their agency and secure safety in their professional lives.

Although racialized sexism or sexualized racism against Asian American women impacts Asian American women's professional and personal lives (Keum et al., 2018; Mukkamala & Suyemoto, 2018), little is known about how Asian American women's work experiences are intertwined with social marginalization. Several qualitative studies have found that both gender discrimination and the stereotypes against Asian Americans (e.g., model minority myth) create barriers for employed Asian American women in pursuing their career goals (Liang et al., 2018; Liang & Peters-Hawkins, 2017). Therefore, our study explored how experiences of marginalization are related to Asian American women's attainment of decent work. *Decent work* refers to having access to a physically and interpersonally safe work environment with adequate financial compensation, health care, and adequate time to rest (Duffy et al., 2016). To promote access to decent work among Asian American women, we sought to examine the relationship between marginalization (compounding and interconnected systems of marginalization as a woman, Asian, and with social class) and core components (i.e., decent work and work volition) of the psychology of working theory (PWT; Duffy et al., 2016). Particularly, we focused on both experiences of gendered racial microaggressions (e.g., objectified based on sexual fetishism or eroticization based on gender and race) and social constraints (e.g., income and perceived social class) as important aspects of marginalization based on an intersectional feminist approach (e.g., McBride et al., 2015; Rodriguez et al., 2016).

Intersectional Feministic Approach and Asian American Women's Work Experiences

Intersectionality highlights the importance of understanding the meaning of intersecting social identities such as race, ethnicity, gender, social class, and sexuality (Cole, 2009; Warner, 2008). An intersectional lens is critical to

understand Asian American Women's work experiences because Women of Color may experience sexism at the workplace differently than White women and experience racism in a different way than men of Color (Berdahl & Moore, 2006). For example, Asian American women faculty in academia reported encountering career barriers including others (e.g., other faculty or students) seeing them as having a "foreigner" background and not regarding them as "normal" faculty with authority, which appears to reflect negative stereotypes of Asian American women (Hune, 2011). Asian American college women also reported perceiving more barriers due to racism in pursuing their future career goals than White college women (Kim & O'Brien, 2018). Thus, we took an intersectional approach by focusing on Asian American women's perceptions of gendered racism which refers to the intersection of racism and sexism in women of Color's lives (Lewis & Neville, 2015; Szymanski & Lewis, 2015).

Keum et al. (2018) identified salient gendered racial microaggression experiences that Asian American women often encounter including ascribed submissiveness (e.g., treating Asian American women as if they will be content with being subordinate), being objectified based on sexual fetishism or eroticization (e.g., the sexual fantasy of Asian Women), and assumptions of having universal body image (e.g., assuming Asian American Women having the same facial features). Given that Asian American women may experience strong expectations to perform traditional gender roles, they are often stereotyped as being passive, subservient, and self-sacrificial at the workplace (Le Espiritu, 2008; Pyke & Johnson, 2003). Nonrecognition or misrecognition through gendered racial microaggressions may influence Asian American women's career outcomes including their job performance (Carlone & Johnson, 2007). Previous studies suggested that experience of racial microaggressions are negatively related to job satisfaction, career decision self-efficacy, and positive outcome expectations among people of Color (Bonifacio et al., 2018; DeCuir-Gunby & Gunby, 2016).

Additionally, several scholars criticized limited discussion of the role of social class in career development literature and recommended researchers actively consider multiple identities such as gender with social class (e.g., Heppner & Jung, 2013), and race with social class (e.g., Diemer & Ali, 2009) in vocational literature. Furthermore, income inequality among Asian Americans appears to be higher than any other racial and/or ethnic group in the United States (Kochhar & Cilluffo, 2018). Significant economic inequality among Asian Americans has been reported depending on family status, generation status, immigrant background, educational level, and geographical location (Segal et al., 2002). Limited cultural capital (e.g., lack of familiarity or educated language regarding the dominant system) appeared to impact Asian American young adults' academic and career decision-making especially when immigrant parents have limited knowledge about the U.S.

academic and career system (Polenova et al., 2018). Accordingly, social class can play a critical role in limiting or assisting Asian American women's accessibility to available resources (e.g., financial and emotional support, cultural capital, value on career) and exposure to opportunities (e.g., internship and volunteering; Diemer & Ali, 2009; Heppner & Jung, 2013). Therefore, it is critical to explore how social class and social class privilege are related to career outcomes of Asian American women.

Psychology of Working Theoretical Framework

The PWT served as the theoretical framework for the present study. PWT, which stems from the psychology of working framework (Blustein, 2006), seeks to expand research in vocational psychology by explaining work experiences of all individuals who have been historically excluded from vocational theories, with a specific focus on sociocultural barriers and contextual factors to accessing decent work (Duffy et al., 2016). Decent work includes qualities of work that meet the following criteria: (a) physically and interpersonally safe within the work environment, (b) allows for free time and adequate time to rest and recuperate, (c) has organizational values that complement an individual's family and social values, (d) provides adequate compensation for labor performed, and (e) allows for access to adequate healthcare (Duffy et al., 2016). Given that Asian American women face diverse social marginalization, application of the PWT may be especially needed to advance our understanding of Asian American women's access to decent work.

Duffy et al. (2016) proposed several direct and indirect pathways among variables that are linked to access to decent work. The PWT specifically suggests that the economic constraints (i.e., subjective social class status, access to social class resources) and discrimination based on marginalized identities (i.e., gender and race) are key predictors that directly and negatively influence work-related outcomes including decent work (Duffy et al., 2016). A study with a sample of employed women in the United States suggested that women's experiences of social marginalization and economic constraints are negatively related to their attainment of decent work (England et al., 2020). Since decent work should be accessible in the lives of all people who want to work, women's access to decent work is important as a social justice agenda (Blustein et al., 2016).

Also, the PWT highlights work volition as a key construct that mediates the effects of social marginalization to decent work. *Work volition* refers to an individual's perceived capacity to make vocation decisions, even when faced with work constraints (Duffy et al., 2012). The PWT asserts that social class and discrimination experiences indirectly relate to access to decent work through work volition highlighting the role of individual psychological resources in managing contextual challenges (Duffy et al., 2018). The construct of work volition indicates how Asian American women perceive

environmental challenges so it may reflect internal sources to proactively cope with systemic barriers in attaining decent work (Blustein, Kenny et al., 2019). Despite the fact that previous findings generally supported the hypothesized mediating role of work volition in PWT across diverse U.S. samples (Duffy et al., 2018; England et al., 2020), there have been mixed findings of the cultural validity of the PWT models in cross-cultural samples. For example, the indirect path from economic resources to future decent work perceptions was found in a predominantly White college student sample in the United States, but this relationship was not significant in a sample of Korean college students (Kim et al., 2020). These results suggest that further investigation is needed to fully understand the role of work volition related to decent work in a specific cultural group. For this reason, this study focuses on Asian American women's specific experiences with gendered racial marginalization and social class, and how these factors are related to access to decent work through work volition.

Present Study

The present study provides the first known application of the PWT framework for employed Asian American women. In order to expand PWT with a more explicit intersectional framework, we explored (a) the relations of social class, and gendered racial microaggressions with decent work, and (b) the mediating role of work volition in these relations using a sample of employed Asian American women.

Guided by prior research and theory, we made eight hypotheses regarding the specific ordering of variables (see Figure 1). First, we hypothesized that social class would have a positive relationship with work volition (Hypothesis 1, see Path A). Second, we hypothesized that gendered racial microaggressions would have a negative relationship with work volition (Hypothesis 2, see Path B). Previous research consistently found a positive association between social class with work volition and a negative association between marginalization and work volition among racially and/or ethnically diverse employees in the United States (Duffy et al., 2018), sexual minority employees in the United States (Douglass et al., 2017), and low-income Turkish employees (Kozan et al., 2019). This implies that perceptions of economic resources and gendered racial microaggressions may be linked to Asian American women's perceived control and power in their career choices and development. Although gendered racial microaggressions represent marginalization in a broad context instead of experiences within the specific work context, we hypothesized the aforementioned paths based on the finding that marginalization experiences in a general context were correlated with the negative workplace climate against women and work volition among employed women (England et al., 2020).

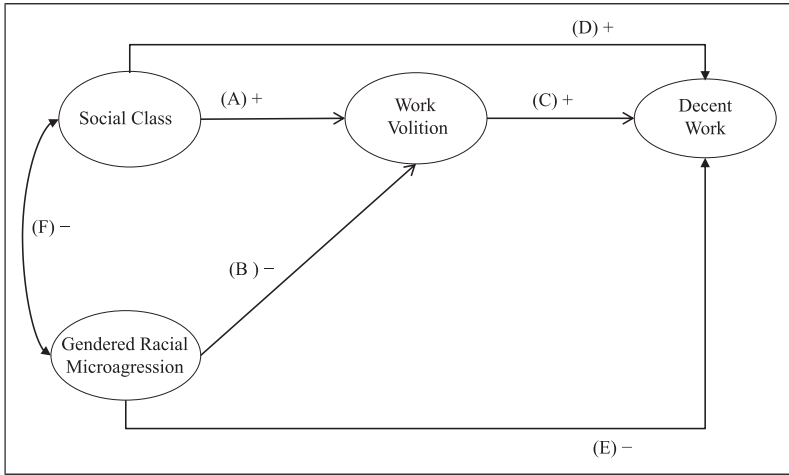


Figure 1. Hypothesized Model of the Pathways to Securing Decent Work.
 Note. A, B, C, D, E, F represents hypothesized paths.

Third, we hypothesized that social class would have a positive relationship with access to decent work (Hypothesis 3, see Path D). Theoretically, it has been noted that, “limited economic resources (e.g., household income, family wealth) represent a critical barrier to securing decent work” (Duffy et al., 2016, p. 133). Although prior research has shown mixed findings regarding the direct relationship between social class and decent work (a significant relationship between these two variables was found for employed women but not for sexual minority or racially and/or ethnically diverse employee samples (Allan et al., 2019; Duffy et al., 2018; England et al., 2020), we tentatively hypothesized that Asian American women in a lower social class would have less access to decent work, to be consistent with the theory. Fourth, we hypothesized gendered racial microaggressions would have a negative relationship with decent work (Hypothesis 4, see Path E). Duffy et al. (2018) demonstrated that marginalization (which was measured by experiences of ethnic discrimination and workplace or school microaggressions) was negatively associated with decent work among racially and ethnically diverse employed adults. Similarly, sexual minority individuals who experience their workplace climate more negatively also reported less likely of having decent work (Allan et al., 2019). This finding suggested frequent experiences of microaggressions in diverse settings may be negatively related to perceptions of decent work for Asian American women. Fifth, we hypothesized a positive relationship between work volition and decent work (Hypothesis 5, see Path C). Sixth, we hypothesized a negative relationship between social class and gendered racial microaggressions (Hypothesis 6, see Path F).

We were especially interested in testing whether work volition partially mediates the relationship between social class and decent work (Hypothesis 7, see Paths A–C), and between gendered racial microaggressions and decent work (Hypothesis 8, see Paths B–C). Empirical studies with U.S. samples have shown that work volition mediates the relationships between marginalization and economic constraints to decent work with samples of ethnically and racially diverse working adults (Duffy et al., 2018), employed women (predominantly White; England et al., 2020), gender and sexual minority employees (Allan et al., 2019; Douglass et al., 2017; Smith, et al., 2020). Therefore, we hypothesized that work volition would partially mediate the relation of social class and gendered racial macroaggression to decent work.

Methods

Procedures and Participants

After receiving institutional review board approval, participants joined the study through the Prime Panels service of TurkPrime service, which provides subject recruitment and data acquisition service through an online crowdsourcing environment (Litman et al., 2017). TurkPrime contacts survey participants through multiple platforms including Mechanical Turk (MTurk), and participants' compensation varies by the amount they agree to receive with the platform through which they entered the survey. TurkPrime contacted participants directly after screening participants with researchers' selection criteria, and participants tend to be more diverse than a college student sample (Sheehan, 2018). Generally, 11% of the participants on MTurk identified as Asian American (Moss & Litman, 2020). We requested to reach survey participants who identified as Asian American women, and who are employed on either a part-time or full-time basis.

A total of 325 participants accessed the survey. Of these, we removed 11 cases for not consenting to our study, 51 cases for failing one or more attention check items, and one case that was missing more than 10% of the data (Schlomer et al., 2010). The final sample size was 262, of which 110 cases had 1.6% to 7.9% missing data. Little's missing completely at random test suggested that data were missing completely at random, ($\chi^2 = 1074.094$, $df = 1020$, $p = .117$). We handled missing data with full-information maximum likelihood in Mplus (Enders, 2010), which has been shown to be unbiased under MCAR. The sample size appeared to be appropriate for sound parameter estimation and provide sufficient statistical power (having more than 5 cases per model parameter; Hancock & Mueller, 2010).

Participants were 262 self-identified Asian American women who were employed with a mean age of 34.34 years ($SD = 10.22$; ranging from 16–68). Among them, participants self-reported being employed full-time ($n = 189$,

72.1%), and part-time ($n = 73$, 27.9%) with numerous current occupations reported as academic advisor, accountant, administrative assistant, analyst, architectural designer, artist, assistant vice president at a credit union, banker, biotechnician, cashier, casino host, chief executive officer, chef, counselor, customer service, dental hygienist, dentist, educator, engineer, escrow officer, finance, graphic designer, human resources, IT, marketing director, medical assistant, mortgage loan processor, pharmacist, registered nurse, research scientist, retailer, sales, scientist, server, software developer, and speech pathologist.

Regarding ethnicity, the sample self-identified as Filipino ($n = 61$, 23.3%), Chinese ($n = 54$, 20.6%), Asian Indian ($n = 33$, 12.6%), Japanese ($n = 30$, 11.5%), Korean ($n = 20$, 7.6%), Vietnamese ($n = 14$, 5.3%), Pacific Islander ($n = 12$, 4.6%), Hmong ($n = 8$, 3.1%), Thai ($n = 7$, 2.7%), Taiwanese ($n = 6$, 2.3%), Laotian ($n = 5$, 1.9%), Pakistan ($n = 3$, 1.1%), Cambodian ($n = 2$, .8%), Bangladeshi ($n = 1$, .4%), Burmese ($n = 1$, .4%), Malaysian ($n = 1$, .4%), and other ($n = 4$, 1.5%). The immigration generational status consisted of 1st generation ($n = 64$, 24.4%), 1.5 generation ($n = 56$, 21.4%), 2nd generation ($n = 99$, 37.8%), 3rd generation ($n = 23$, 8.8%), 4th generation ($n = 8$, 3.1%), 5th generation ($n = 6$, 2.3%), and those who did not know their generational status ($n = 6$, 2.3%).

The majority of participants identified as heterosexual ($n = 231$, 88.2%), and currently in a committed relationship or married ($n = 163$, 62.2%). The participants self-reported having no children ($n = 144$, 55.2%), one child ($n = 51$, 19.5%), 2 children ($n = 47$, 17.9%), and 3 children and more ($n = 19$, 7.3%). Education levels consisted of some high school ($n = 1$, 0.4%), high school or GED degree ($n = 14$, 5.3%), trade or vocational school ($n = 7$, 2.7%), some college ($n = 40$, 15.3%), associate's degree ($n = 23$, 8.8%), bachelor's degree ($n = 111$, 42.4%), master's degree ($n = 54$, 20.6%), doctoral degree ($n = 10$, 3.8%), and those who chose not to answer ($n = 2$, 0.8%).

Measures

Social Class. Participants' social class level was assessed by three variables: annual household income, subjective social status in the United States, and subjective social status in the community. These three variables were chosen based on previous research on social class to include both objective (e.g., income) and subjective (e.g., subjective ladder) indices of social class (e.g., Choi & Miller, 2018; Duffy et al., 2018). For annual income, participants were asked, "what is your current average annual household income?" with answers ranging from under \$10,000 to \$250,000 and above. For subjective social status, the MacArthur Scale of Subjective Social Status (Adler et al., 2000) asked participants to think of an imaginary ladder with 10 rungs, representing where people stand in their community (participants were asked to consider a

community in whatever way is most meaningful to them) and in the United States. For those two items, participants were instructed to locate their subjective social class on this imaginary ladder with the first rung representing the lowest and the tenth rung representing the highest social class based on their community and within the United States. Higher scores indicate higher perception of social class.

Gendered Racial Microaggressions. The Gendered Racial Microaggressions Scale for Asian American Women (Keum et al., 2018), assesses nuanced Asian American women's gendered racial microaggressions experiences in subtle and everyday verbal, behavioral, and environmental expressions. It contains 22 items rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). The measure was developed to explore how often Asian American women generally experience stereotypes or discrimination against them throughout their lifetime without referring to a specific context. Higher scores indicate more frequent gendered racial microaggressions experienced by Asian American women. Sample items include "others expect me to be submissive" and "others express sexual interest in me because of my Asian appearance." Construct validity evidence for scores was demonstrated with a theory-consistent relationship with racial microaggressions, sexist events, depressive symptoms, and internalized racism in a sample of 564 Asian American women (Keum et al., 2018). Keum et al. (2018) reported support for unidimensionality and use of total scale score, and an initial consistency reliability of .93. The reliability estimate of the Gendered Racial Microaggressions Scale for Asian American Women scores for this sample was .94.

Work Volition. The four-item Volition subscale from the Work Volition Scale (WVS), developed by Duffy et al. (2012), measures individuals' perception of capacity to make occupational choices in the face of constraints. The Volition subscale response items are on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). A higher score indicates a stronger perception of work volition and choice. Sample items include "I've been able to choose the jobs I have wanted" and "I feel total control over my job choices." The theory supports consistent relationships between the Volition subscale and career barriers ($r = -.19$), and between the Volition subscale and career compromise ($r = -.33$) provided evidence for the volition subscale's construct validity (Duffy et al., 2012). The prior WVS Volition subscale score reliability estimate with 256 racially and ethnically diverse employed adults was .82 (Duffy et al., 2018). In the present study, the WVS Volition subscale produced an internal consistency estimate of .91.

Decent Work. Participants' attainment of decent work was assessed using the Decent Work Scale (DWS) developed by Duffy et al. (2017). It contains 15-

items rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). A higher score indicates attainment of decent work among employed adults. Example items include “I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work,” and “I am rewarded adequately from my work.” Duffy et al. (2017) supported the use of the general factor and total scale score. Duffy et al. (2017) provided construct validity evidence for DWS by demonstrating correlations in the expected directions with job safety, job satisfaction, job meaning, and occupational fatigue. The prior DWS reliability estimates ranged from .82 to .97 among 275 employed adults (predominately White/European American, 68.5%; Duffy et al., 2017), and ranged from .79 to .97 among 526 racially ethnically diverse employed adults (Duffy et al., 2018). In the present study, DWS produced a reliability estimate of the total score of .83.

Results

Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations of all the investigated observed variables are presented in Table 1. We conducted the main structural equation modeling (SEM) analyses using Mplus 8.0 software (Muthén & Muthén, 2012–2017). We used individual items related to social class and work volition as observed indicators of latent factors, given the small number of items associated with these scales (e.g., 3 to 4 items). We created parcels for gendered racial microaggressions and decent work in order to decrease the number of estimated model parameters (Little et al., 2002). A subset-item-parcel approach was used for gendered racial microaggressions (three parcels) and decent work (three parcels). We assigned items to parcels according to the size of the factor loading after running an exploratory factor analysis.

When Mardia’s multivariate skewness and kurtosis test (Mardia, 1970) was conducted, both skewness and kurtosis were significant ($p < .05$). Therefore, the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square was used to address multivariate non-normality (Kline, 2015). The root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR), comparative fit index (CFI), and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) were used to assess the model fit. RMSEA values less than .08, SRMR values less than or equal to .09, CFI values greater than or equal to .90, and TLI values greater than or equal to .90 indicated an adequate model fit existed (Hoyle & Panter, 1995; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

First, the measurement model exhibited a good fit to the data: $\chi^2 = 81.097$, $df = 59$, $p < 0.0298$; RMSEA = .038; CFI = .987; TLI = .983; SRMR = .037. The variance accounted for by observed indicators was 63% for social class, 91% for gendered racial microaggressions, 84% for work volition, and 84% for decent work. All items and parcels significantly loaded onto their perspective factors. All the factor loadings were significant, and the mean loadings were .81 ($SE = .04$). Examining the specific coefficients, all observed

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Investigated Observed Variables

	1	2	3	4.1	4.2	4.3	5	6.1	6.2	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. Sub-social status_com	—									5.97	1.65	-.05	0.23
2. Sub-social status_U.S.	.61**	—								5.47	1.70	.10	0.32
3. Income	.10	.30**	—							2.37	1.31	.92	0.48
4.1. GRM1	.04	.00	-.05	—						3.50	1.00	.04	-.09
4.2. GRM2	.02	.02	-.06	.81**	—					3.23	1.07	.05	-.50
4.3. GRM3	.02	.02	-.05	.87**	.78**	—				3.45	0.91	.20	-.03
5. Work volition	.24**	.29**	.19**	-.08	-.08	-.07	—			19.93	5.52	-.64	-.09
6.1. DW1	.18*	.21**	.16*	-.19**	-.15*	-.18**	.46**	—		4.44	1.17	-.25	-.14
6.2. DW2	.16*	.16*	.08	-.15*	-.14*	-.18**	.39**	.65**	—	4.77	0.96	-.48	0.97
6.3. DW3	.20**	.23**	.14*	-.19**	-.20**	-.16**	.47**	.75**	.68**	4.97	0.96	-.73	1.02

Note. Sub-social status_com = subjective social status in the community; Sub-social status_U.S. = subjective social status in the United States; GRM1 = gender racial microaggressions parcel #1; GRM2 = gender racial microaggressions parcel #2; GRM3 = gender racial microaggressions parcel #3; DW1 = decent work parcel #1; DW2 = decent work parcel #2; DW3 = decent work parcel #3.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

indicator variables loaded significantly on their respective latent factors, providing support to the factor structure of the measurement part of the overall SEM model.

Second, we ran our hypothesized model using the sample to investigate how the gendered racial microaggressions, together with social class, are associated with decent work through work volition. The model estimation results are presented in Figure 2. Overall, the model showed acceptable fit indices: $\chi^2 = 81.098$, $df = 59$, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .038; CFI = .999; TLI = .98; SRMR = .037. Regarding the structural part, there was a significant positive association between social class and work volition ($\beta = .33$, $p = .000$), indicating that the higher the social class, the higher work volition was perceived. Moreover, two significant associations were found in terms of individuals' reported access to decent work: gendered racial microaggressions negatively related to decent work ($\beta = -.19$, $p = .004$), and work volition positively related to decent work ($\beta = .49$, $p = .000$). This suggested that better access to decent work was related to higher work volition, and lower experiences with gendered racial microaggressions.

Lastly, we conducted a bootstrap analysis based on 10,000 bootstrap samples and bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals to test the statistical significance of the hypothesized model indirect effects (Mallinckrodt et al., 2006). We tested two specific indirect pathways from social class and gendered racial microaggressions to decent work through work volition (see Figure 2, Paths A–C, and B–C). The indirect pathway from social class to decent work via work volition was statistically significant (Path A–C; $p = .001$).

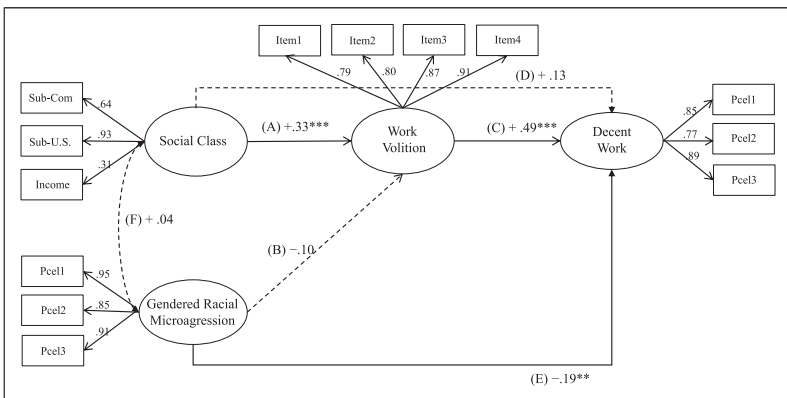


Figure 2. Estimated Structural Equation Model.

Note. Pcel = parcel; Sub-Com = subjective social status in the community; Sub-U.S. = subjective social status in the United States. All factor loading coefficients are significant at $p < .001$ level. Dashed lines indicate hypothesized but nonsignificant structural paths. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The standardized structural coefficients estimating the indirect effect from social class to decent work through work volition was significant, $\beta = .15$, $SE = .05$, 95% CI [.07, .28]. However, the indirect pathway (Path B–C) from gendered racial microaggressions to decent work via work volition was not significant, $\beta = -.04$, $SE = .03$, $p = .16$, 95% CI [–.14, .01].

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to advance the state of knowledge about Asian American women's work experiences by applying the PWT and a feminist intersectional framework. We were also interested in testing work volition as a mediator among research variables. Partially supporting hypothesized relationships in PWT, experiences of gendered racial microaggression were directly associated with decent work but the mediating effect of work volition between gendered racial microaggressions and decent work was not found. Work volition mediated the relationship between perceived social class and access to decent work, but social class was not directly related to securing decent work.

The present study promotes an understanding of intersectionality in the work lives of Asian American women highlighting the need for continued examination of theoretical applicability of the PWT for Asian American women. Research focusing on intersectional identities beyond a single sociocultural status has started to emerge in PWT literature (e.g., Allan et al., 2019), but no research has specifically addressed the experiences of Asian American employed women yet. Our findings provide preliminary evidence on the implications of PWT for Asian American women when considering the role of the unique gendered racism and perceived social class in relation to access to decent work.

Our results show that gendered racial microaggressions (e.g., others assuming submissiveness, invalidating Asian American women's uniqueness in ethnic diversity, and sexualizing) are negatively associated with Asian American women's access to decent work. Although gendered racial microaggressions can happen in diverse personal spaces (we did not measure gendered racism in a work-specific context), a workplace is one of the settings where Asian American women may encounter frequent gendered racial microaggressions as people interact with the broad political, economic, and social world through working (Blustein, 2008). Additionally, Asian American women may feel less empowered to perceive physical, emotional, and economic safety at the workplace when they experience more frequent gendered racial microaggressions in daily interactions, considering that racial microaggressions were linked to psychological distress and a diminished sense of self-efficacy among people of Color (Wong et al., 2014). Therefore, our research supports the calls for further examinations based on an intersectional feminist approach to address issues pertaining to social oppression toward women of Color in the workplace (Kachchaf et al., 2015).

Contrary to the previous PWT finding with employed women (predominantly White; England et al., 2020) or racially diverse adults in the United States (Marks et al., 2020), no relationship was reported between microaggressions and work volition among Asian American women. Furthermore, work volition did not mediate the effect of gendered racial microaggressions on decent work. This may be because our study focused on gendered racial microaggressions in a broad context not specific to the workplace or potential factors may mediate or moderate the relationship between microaggressions and work volition (e.g., bicultural self-efficacy; Marks et al., 2020). Given that work volition represents an important attitudinal variable within the PWT, the current findings call for further exploration of possible factors associated with work volition that explains how marginalized experiences can link to limited access to decent work.

This study also contributes to the literature by highlighting the importance of social class in Asian American women's work volition and decent work. Although perceived social class was not directly associated with decent work, perceived social class was positively related to work volition, and work volition was positively related to decent work. This result implies that Asian American women from working-class backgrounds might have difficulty believing their capacity to make career choices despite constraints, and then, limited work volition may function as a barrier to securing decent work. A substantial number of Asian Americans (ranging from 8% to 26% depending on ethnicity; Ahmed & Weller, 2014) are living below the poverty line and uninsured. Thus, it is critical to explore work volition of Asian American women from poor and working-class backgrounds to help them navigate potential constraints to securing decent work.

Limitations

Present findings should be considered in light of a number of limitations. First, there are sample-related limitations. Although this study presents the first known relationships of decent work variables among employed Asian American women, our convenience sample consists of various Asian ethnic groups; therefore, the generalizability of findings across various Asian American ethnic women populations is unclear. Considering most scales including the gendered racial microaggressions scale were designed to assess shared experiences among Asian American women instead of unique experiences of a specific ethnic group, it is important to test measurement invariance of the research model across diverse Asian ethnic groups, however we were unable to conduct structural equation modeling for each ethnic group due to our limited sample size and concerns about statistical power. Therefore, future research is needed to fully explore experiences of women in diverse Asian ethnic groups and their access to decent work.

Second, although our sample consisted of part-time and full-time employed Asian American women to understand and promote decent work for employed Asian American women, experiences of women who are engaged in nonpaid work and unpaid labor at home were not considered. Given that unpaid work (e.g., childcare, housework, and end-of-life care) has played a significant role in women's life experiences (Jung & O'Brien, 2019), it is important to include unpaid work when we discuss gender inequality of career outcomes. Thus, it would be necessary to expand our theoretical and empirical understanding of Asian American women's access to decent work by including both paid and unpaid work.

Third, although Turkprime service is a great tool to reach diverse participants with specific demographic selection criteria beyond typical college participants, participants might be "experienced" survey takers who have been engaging in survey studies frequently (Sheehan, 2018). Therefore, selection bias can occur because participants from Turkprime service might engage in a survey in a less thoughtful manner. To ensure the quality of the data, attention check items were recommended as the best practice (Sheehan, 2018) and were implemented in our study, but participants could have been "savvy" test-takers who can engage with the survey by expecting the attention check items. Future studies should expand data collection from diverse communities to further generalize the results of this data to Asian American women.

Fourth, social class was measured based on income and perceived subjective social class; however, the direct measure of classism, which is the marginalization, derision, alienation, and discrimination based on perceived social or economic standing (Lott, 2012; Thompson & Subich, 2013), would provide further understanding of discrimination and marginalization based on economic resources. Especially, it would be important to investigate how institutional classism maintains and reinforces low status by creating barriers to access resources to secure decent work (Lott, 2012) for Asian American women.

Fifth, although our cross-sectional data provided the correlations among psychology of working theory-driven pathways (Duffy, et al., 2016), our study did not provide causality of the study variables or the ordering of constructs in the model. Also, some scholars have argued that cross-sectional mediation tests may generate misleading results (Maxwell & Cole, 2007). Future studies could examine structural relationships of social class, discrimination, work volition, and decent work variables by applying a longitudinal research design (e.g., autoregressive cross-lagged model).

Implications for Practice, Advocacy, Education, Training, and Research

Preliminary findings from the current study suggest the importance of addressing the intersectional marginalization of Asian American women in

career counseling. When working with Asian American female-identified clients, counseling psychologists can play an active role in identifying and understanding the impact of gendered racial microaggressions on Asian American women's sense of physical and psychological safety at the workplace. Counseling psychologists also can help clients to frame their challenges in a "compassionate, critical, and systemic perspective" (Blustein, Kenny et al., 2019, p. 247) that will empower them to engage in proactive actions.

Given that the mediating role of work volition between microaggressions and decent work was not fully supported in our study, we believe it is important to explore Asian American women's diverse coping strategies (e.g., interpersonal support, systemic or institutional support) for dealing with gendered racial microaggressions in their career development rather than solely focusing on work volition. Counseling professionals can empower Asian American women by helping them identify and develop their strengths and power in their voice. This process may involve exploring cultural strengths (e.g., ethnic pride, bicultural competency), developing social support systems (e.g., finding support from a mentor who shares similar cultural identity or family members), or building self-advocacy skills to cope with gendered racial microaggressions.

Our findings also imply that it is important to consider the role of social class in understanding Asian American women's career development. Some scholars argue that highly varied economic experiences in the Asian American community are often overlooked because Asian Americans do not appear to struggle with economic disadvantages on the aggregated income and employment data level compared to other racial or ethnic groups (Ahmad & Weller, 2014). Our findings suggest that clinicians need to be mindful that economic constraints may lower a sense of autonomy and power in the career development process of working-class Asian American women.. To assist Asian American women in coping with economic constraints, counseling professionals can help their clients to find and secure financial resources and training opportunities in the community.

In addition to individual-level implications, counseling psychologists can focus on activities for prevention and advocacy to address sociopolitical inequality that is the source of Asian American women's experiences of marginalization. Clinicians can act with clients or act on behalf of clients (Toporek et al., 2009) to raise consciousness in promoting the right to secure decent work. For example, a counseling psychologist can work with a local Asian American community to alert the public regarding the role of gendered racial microaggressions or economic constraints related to access to decent work among Asian American women. Furthermore, we believe it is critical to proactively incorporate feminist intersectional frameworks into different levels of counselor training to address strong intersectionality that impacts

Asian American women's lives instead of general racism or sexism frameworks, as Keum et al. (2018) suggested. This approach will help future counseling psychologists to prepare and practice advocacy skills for individuals with multiple marginalized social identities.

Our results also point to a number of implications for future research. As mentioned previously, future research can test a modified or extended version of PWT to explore potential moderators (e.g., bicultural self-efficacy; Marks et al., 2020) or other mediators (e.g., workplace climate; Allan et al., 2019). Findings from the present study also suggest that further refinement and examination of the theory may be necessary to fully capture the intersection of multiple identities pertaining to vocational outcomes of a specific cultural group (Blustein, Ali, & Flores, 2019). When PWT is applied to Asian American women, future studies can add culturally-relevant variables in relation to decent work such as internalized model minority myth (Yoo et al., 2010) or interpersonal factors related to Asian American women's life roles and context (e.g., family support, barriers related to childcare, societal or interpersonal mattering).

In conclusion, this study provided preliminary evidence of the applicability of PWT to understand the relationship between intersectional marginalization and vocational outcomes of Asian American women. The results revealed that Asian American women's experiences of gendered racial microaggressions and economic constraints are likely to relate to their accessibility of decent work. By closely examining the unique intersectional experiences of Asian American women, counseling psychologists will be better able to promote the right to secure decent work among Asian American women.

Funding

The author(s) disclosed receipt of the following financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article: The present study was supported by a research fund from Dankook University in 2021.

ORCID iDs

Na-Yeun Choi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0234-8409>

Young Hwa Kim  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4597-4154>

References

- Adler, N. E., Epel, E. S., Castellazzo, G., & Ickovics, J. R. (2000). Relationship of subjective and objective social status with psychological and physiological functioning: Preliminary data in healthy White women. *Health Psychology, 19*(6), 586–592. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0278-6133.19.6.586>
- Ahmad, F. Z., & Weller, C. E. (2014). Reading between the data: The incomplete story of Asian Americans, Native Hawaiians, and Pacific Islanders. Center for

- American Progress. <http://www.asianpacificpolicyandplanningcouncil.org/wp-content/uploads/AAPI-report.pdf>
- Allan, B. A., Tebbe, E. A., Bouchard, L. M., & Duffy, R. D. (2019). Access to decent and meaningful work in a sexual minority population. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 27(3), 408–421. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072718758064>
- Berdahl, J. L., & Moore, C. (2006). Workplace harassment: Double jeopardy for minority women. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(2), 426–436. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.2.426>
- Blustein, D. L. (2006). *The psychology of working: A new perspective for career development, counseling, and public policy*. Routledge.
- Blustein, D. L. (2008). The role of work in psychological health and well-being: A conceptual, historical, and public policy perspective. *American Psychologist*, 63(4), 228–240. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.63.4.228>
- Blustein, D. L., Ali, S. R., & Flores, L. Y. (2019). Vocational psychology: expanding the vision and enhancing the impact. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 47(2), 166–221. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000019861213>
- Blustein, D. L., Kenny, M. E., Autin, K., & Duffy, R. (2019). The psychology of working in practice: A theory of change for a new era. *Career Development Quarterly*, 67(3), 236–254. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cdq.12193>
- Blustein, D. L., Olle, C., Connors-Kellgren, A., & Diamonti, A. J. (2016). Decent work: A psychological perspective. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7, 407. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00407>.
- Bonifacio, L., Gushue, G. V., & Mejia-Smith, B. X. (2018). Microaggressions and Ethnic Identity in the Career Development of Latina College Students. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 46(4), 505–529
- Carlone, H. B., & Johnson, A. (2007). Understanding the science experiences of successful women of color: Science identity as an analytic lens. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 44(8), 1187–1218. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tea.2023>
- Choi, N. Y., & Miller, M. J. (2018). Social class, classism, stigma, and college students' attitudes toward counseling. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 46(6), 761–785.
- Cole, E. R. (2009). Intersectionality and research in psychology. *American Psychologist*, 64(3), 170–180. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0014564>
- DeCuir-Gunby, J. T., & Gunby, N. W. (2016). Racial microaggressions in the workplace: A critical race analysis of the experiences of African American educators. *Urban Education*, 51(4), 390–414. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085916628610>
- Diemer, M. A., & Ali, S. R. (2009). Integrating social class into vocational psychology: Theory and practice implications. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 17(3), 247–265. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072708330462>
- Douglass, R. P., Velez, B. L., Conlin, S. E., Duffy, R. D., & England, J. W. (2017). Examining the psychology of working theory: Decent work among sexual minorities. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 64(5), 550–559. <https://doi.org.proxy.lib.fsu.edu/10.1037/cou0000212>

- Duffy, R. D., Allan, B. A., England, J. W., Blustein, D. L., Autin, K. L., Douglass, R. P., Ferreira, J., & Santos, E. J. R. (2017). The development and initial validation of the Decent Work Scale. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 64*(2), 206–221. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000191>
- Duffy, R. D., Blustein, D. L., Diemer, M. A., & Autin, K. L. (2016). The psychology of working theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 63*(2), 127–148. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000140>
- Duffy, R. D., Diemer, M. A., Perry, J. C., Laurenzi, C., & Torrey, C. L. (2012). The construction and initial validation of the Work Volition Scale. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 63*(2), 127–148. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000140>
- Duffy, R. D., Velez, B. L., England, J. W., Autin, K. L., Douglass, R. P., Allan, B. A., & Blustein, D. L. (2018). An examination of the psychology of working theory with racially and ethnically diverse employed adults. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 65*(3), 280–293. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000247>
- Enders, C. K. (2010). *Applied missing data analysis*. Guilford.
- England, J. W., Duffy, R. D., Gensmer, N. P., Kim, H. J., Buyukgoze-Kavas, A., & Larson-Konar, D. M. (2020). Women attaining decent work: The important role of workplace climate in psychology of working theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 67*(2), 251–264. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000411>
- Hancock, G. R., & Mueller, R. O. (Eds.). (2010). *The reviewer's guide to quantitative methods in the social sciences*. Routledge.
- Heppner, M. J., & Jung, A. K. (2013). Gender and social class: Powerful predictors of a life journey. In *Handbook of vocational psychology* (pp. 97–118). Routledge.
- Hoyle, R. H., & Panter, A. T. (1995). Writing about structural equation models. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues, and applications* (pp. 158–176). Sage.
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 6*(1), 1–55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118>
- Hune, S. (2011). Asian American women faculty and the contested space of the classroom: Navigating student resistance and (re)claiming authority and their rightful place. *Diversity in Higher Education, 9*, 307–335. [https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-3644\(2011\)0000009019](https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-3644(2011)0000009019)
- Jung, A. K., & O'Brien, K. M. (2019). The profound influence of unpaid work on women's lives: An overview and future directions. *Journal of Career Development, 46*(2), 184–200. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845317734648>
- Kachchaf, R., Ko, L., & Ong, M. (2015). Career–life balance for women of color: Experiences in science and engineering academia. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 8*(3), 175–191. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039068>
- Keum, B. T., Brady, J. L., Sharma, R., Lu, Y., Kim, Y. H., & Thai, C. J. (2018). Gendered Racial Microaggressions Scale for Asian American Women:

- Development and initial validation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 65(5), 571–585. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000305>
- Kim, H. J., Kim, S. Y., Duffy, R. D., Nguyen, N. P., & Wang, D. (2020). A cross-cultural comparison of psychology of working theory among U.S. and Korean college students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 67(5), 568–579. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000408>
- Kim, Y. H., & O'Brien, K. M. (2018). Assessing women's career barriers across racial/ethnic groups: The Perception of Barriers Scale. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 65(2), 226–238. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000251>
- Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. Guilford.
- Kochhar, R., & Cilluffo, A. (2018). *Income inequality in the U.S. is rising most rapidly among Asians*. Pew Research Center. <https://www.pewresearch.org/social-trends/2018/07/12/income-inequality-in-the-u-s-is-rising-most-rapidly-among-asians/>
- Kozan, S., Işık, E., & Blustein, D. L. (2019). Decent work and well-being among low-income Turkish employees: Testing the psychology of working theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 66(3), 317–327. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000342>
- Le Espiritu, Y. (2008). *Asian American women and men: Labor, laws, and love*. Rowman & Littlefield.
- Lewis, J. A., & Neville, H. A. (2015). Construction and initial validation of the Gendered Racial Microaggressions Scale for Black women. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 62(2), 289–302. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000062>
- Liang, J. G., & Peters-Hawkins, A. L. (2017). "I am more than what I look alike": Asian American women in public school administration. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 53(1), 40–69. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X16652219>
- Liang, J. G., Sottile, J., & Peters, A. L. (2018). Understanding Asian American women's pathways to school leadership. *Gender and Education*, 30(5), 623–641. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09540253.2016.1265645>
- Litman, L., Robinson, J., & Abberbock, T. (2017). TurkPrime.com: A versatile crowdsourcing data acquisition platform for the behavioral sciences. *Behavior research methods*, 49(2), 433–442. <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-016-0727-z>
- Little, T. D., Cunningham, W. A., Shahar, G., & Widaman, K. F. (2002). To parcel or not to parcel: Exploring the question, weighing the merits. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 9(2), 151–173. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15328007SEM0902_1
- Lott, B. (2012). The social psychology of class and classism. *American Psychologist*, 67(8), 650–658. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029369>
- Mallinckrodt, B., Abraham, W. T., Wei, M., & Russell, D. W. (2006). Advances in testing the statistical significance of mediation effects. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 53(3), 372–378. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.53.3.372>
- Mardia, K. V. (1970). Measures of multivariate skewness and kurtosis with applications. *Biometrika*, 57(3), 519–530. <https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/57.3.519>
- Marks, L. R., Yeoward, J., Fickling, M., & Tate, K. (2020). The role of racial microaggressions and bicultural self-efficacy on work volition in racially diverse

- adults. *Journal of Career Development*, 49(2), 311–325, <https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845320949706>
- Maxwell, S. E., & Cole, D. A. (2007). Bias in cross-sectional analyses of longitudinal mediation. *Psychological Methods*, 12(1), 23–44. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.12.1.23>
- McBride, A., Hebson, G., & Holgate, J. (2015). Intersectionality: Are we taking enough notice in the field of work and employment relations? *Work, Employment and Society*, 29(2), 331–341. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017014538337>
- Moss, A., & Litman, L. (2020). *Demographics of people on Amazon Mechanical Turk*. <https://www.cloudfiresearch.com/resources/blog/who-uses-amazon-mturk-2020-demographics/#:~:text=Age%20%26%20Generation&text=As%20shown%20in%20Figure%202,U.S.%20population%20as%20a%20whole>
- Mukkamala, S., & Suyemoto, K. L. (2018). Racialized sexism/sexualized racism: A multimethod study of intersectional experiences of discrimination for Asian American women. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, 9(1), 32–46. <https://doi.org/10.1037/aap0000104>
- Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (2012–2017). *Mplus* (Version 8.0) [Computer software].
- Polenova, E., Vedral, A., Brisson, L., & Zinn, L. (2018). Emerging between two worlds: A longitudinal study of career identity of students from Asian American immigrant families. *Emerging Adulthood*, 6(1), 53–65. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2167696817696430>
- Pyke, K. D., & Johnson, D. L. (2003). Asian American women and racialized femininities: Doing gender across cultural worlds. *Gender & Society*, 17(1), 33–53. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0891243202238977>
- Rodriguez, J. K., Holvino, E., Fletcher, J. K., & Nkomo, S. M. (2016). The theory and praxis of intersectionality in work and organizations: Where do we go from here? *Gender, Work & Organization*, 23(3), 201–222. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gwao.12131>
- Schlomer, G. L., Bauman, S., & Card, N. A. (2010). Best practices for missing data management in counseling psychology. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 57(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0018082>
- Segal, E. A., Kilty, K. M., & Kim, R. Y. (2002). Social and economic inequality and Asian Americans in the United States. *Journal of Poverty*, 6(4), 5–21. https://doi.org/10.1300/J134v06n04_02
- Sheehan, K. B. (2018). Crowdsourcing research: Data collection with Amazon's Mechanical Turk. *Communication Monographs*, 85(1), 140–156. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03637751.2017.1342043>
- Smith, R. W., Baranik, L. E., & Duffy, R. D. (2020). Psychological ownership within psychology of working theory: A three-wave study of gender and sexual minority employees. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 118, Article 103374. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2019.103374>

- Szymanski, D. M., & Lewis, J. A. (2015). Gendered racism, coping, identity centrality, and African American college women's psychological distress. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 40(2), 229–243. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0361684315616113>
- Thompson, M. N., & Subich, L. M. (2013). Development and exploration of the experiences with classism scale. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 21(1), 139–158. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072712450494>
- Toporek, R. L., Lewis, J. A., & Crethar, H. C. (2009). Promoting systemic change through the ACA advocacy competencies. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 87(3), 260–268. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6678.2009.tb00105.x>
- Warner, L. R. (2008). A best practices guide to intersectional approaches in psychological research. *Sex Roles*, 59(5–6), 454–463. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-008-9504-5>
- Wong, G., Derthick, A. O., David, E. J. R., Saw, A., & Okazaki, S. (2014). The what, the why, and the how: A review of racial microaggressions research in psychology. *Race and Social Problems*, 6(3), 181–200. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12552-013-9107-9>
- Yoo, H. C., Burrola, K. S., & Steger, M. F. (2010). A preliminary report on a new measure: Internalization of the Model Minority Myth Measure (IM-4) and its psychological correlates among Asian American college students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 57(1), 114–127. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017871>

Author Biographies

Na-Yeun Choi, PhD, is an assistant professor in the Department of Counseling at Dankook University in Youngin-si, South Korea. Her research interests include racial minority health and mental health, mental health service utilization, and social class and classism. She is also interested in multicultural issues in career development.

Young Hwa Kim, PhD, is an assistant professor at Department of Elementary Education at Seoul National University of Education in Seoul, South Korea. She earned her PhD in counseling psychology at University of Maryland, College Park. She completed her pre-doctoral internship and postdoctoral clinical fellowship at Counseling and Psychological Services at University of Pennsylvania. She is a licensed psychologist at the State of Pennsylvania.

Christopher A. Evans, PhD, received his doctoral degree in counseling and education psychology from New Mexico State University, with an emphasis on integrated behavioral health. Christopher's research agenda is centered around the lives and experiences of queer populations. He is also interested in examination of the influence of employment and access to employment on holistic well-being. Christopher completed his doctoral internship at The University of Houston at Clear Lake's Counseling Services and is planning to spend his post-doctoral training as a staff psychologist at a private practice in Houston, Texas.