

AN EXAMINATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE AFRICAN
AMERICAN MEN'S PERCEPTION OF PARENTING

by

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(Under the Direction of Edward Delgado-Romero)

ABSTRACT

The literature within Counseling Psychology on the experiences of African American men is sparse but developing. This study was proposed to fill a void in counseling psychology and support the use of culturally specific considerations for working with African American families. This research specifically set out to understand African American men's perception of what it means to be a father by examining their experiences and psychological well-being. It was the hope of this researcher to understand how these factors may possibly impact African American men's own involvement in their children's lives. This sample included 145 self-identified African American or Black men recruited via online announcements, churches, community agencies, and universities.

The results support a relationship between attachment and self-esteem, contextual variables and the perception of parenting, as well as ethnic identity and the perception of parenting. Specifically, results of this study indicated that ethnic identity would be effective in predicting the perception of parenting in African American men. The results of the self-esteem multiple regression analysis indicated that attachment, specifically father parental attachment did significantly impact self-esteem. The analyses for this regression model did not yield significant

results for amount of education, income, age, and make up of family of origin. However, having children did significantly impact perception of parenting.

However, self-esteem nor previous parental attachment significantly predicted the perception of parenting in African American men. Results were also provided for the comparison of means for the men who had children and the men who did not have children as well as the men who grew up with fathers or father figures in their home versus the men who did not. Men that reported residing with a father or father figure during childhood, indicated having a higher mean in father parental attachment than men who reported not having a father in the home. Men who had children reported a higher mean in their perception of parenting than men who do not have children.

The present study employed a systems' framework to determine the direct and indirect effects of relational influences and the perception of parenting. This study offers the support of and barriers to counseling African American men as it examines individual, family, and contextual environments that may influence therapeutic progress and relationships. Implications for working with African American populations are discussed, as well as recommendations for future research.

INDEX WORDS: African American males, self-esteem, ethnic identity, parental attachment, father role perception, counseling

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DEDICATION

For my brother, Louis.

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CHAPTER 1

ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

The dissertation consists of five chapters. Chapter one will provide an overview of the present research. Constructs are defined and primary research questions are introduced. Chapter Two reviews existing literature relevant to this study. Previous research efforts and findings relevant to this study are reported. Chapter Three describes the methodology employed to answer the research questions, including methods used to select a sample, collect the data, and analyze the data. Research questions will be presented, with attention focused on the data analysis used for the investigation. Chapter Four reports the findings of the study, and Chapter Five discusses the implications of the findings and suggestions for future research.

INTRODUCTION

Historically, research on fathers' involvement with children and family function has been nominal while focus on mothers' involvement and parenting has received thorough attention (Hernandez & Coley, 2007). The lack of research surrounding fathers within a family context is disconcerting considering the significant multidimensional role fathers can play within their children's lives (Cabrera, Tamis-Lemonada, Bradley, Hofferth, & Lamb, 2000). How fathers identify their role within a family context may contribute to their actual involvement with their children. Understanding how men construct internal models of masculinity and fatherhood will aid in contributing to the knowledge of parenting and attachment behaviors (Allen, 2002), which may lead to a better consideration of family dynamics in therapy. Examining these psychosocial

factors is vital for considering parenting styles, perceptions, and practices of fathers when working with men in individual and family therapy.

Much of the previous research on parenting and attachment was conceptualized and operationalized from a Eurocentric perspective, with a focus on traditional nuclear families that consisted of mothers who stayed at home with children and fathers whose main duty of the household was to provide financial support (Arbona & Power, 2003). This research usually relied on the mothers' self report of engagement with their children with little input from the fathers who spent long hours outside of the home, earning an income.

Donald Winnicott, one of the earliest theorists to look beyond the role of the mother and examine the father's contribution when considering a child's emotional development, involved theory in understanding the function of mothering and the paternal help that is required.

Winnicott (1956) theorized a facilitative environment includes the "paternal functions needed to support the mother" (p. 123) in helping her to an ample empathy level which is necessary for the healthy development of the child (Terrell, 2005). With the evidence of paternal involvement being crucial for the healthy development of the child, family-process research continued to typically focused on mothers' well-being, parenting, and reports of child development (Hernandez & Coley, 2007).

Few studies have examined mothers' reports of fathers' levels of engagement as well as father's reports to understand family involvement (Greene, Emig, & Hearn, 1996). It is also important to note that much of the research that considers fathers' involvement with their children, has emphasized a sample of middle-class, custodial, White males (Wade, 1994). Fathers were assumed to be biased toward inflating their reports of engagement while mothers tended to be biased toward underreporting father's engagement (Woldoff & Cina, 2007). It is

also noted that studies that have examined variation between African-American and White fathers across family structures have been inconsistent (Leite & 2006); indicating generalization of results may not accurately describe a range of families.

In the United States, individual differences are great, so the need for specialized research is warranted. For example, research has supported that African-American fathers' roles within the family are typically nontraditional (e.g., nonresidential, non-marital) (Coley & Chase-Lansdale, 1999). These findings are consistent with growing trends of non-married parents of all races in the United States (Furstenberg & Cherlin, 1991). Much of the research on nonresidential fathers focuses on payment of child support or visitation schedules with little attention towards relationship qualities (King, 1994; Seltzer, 1991). Research also indicates among unmarried fathers, African American men are most likely to sustain contact with their children when fathers do not reside in the same household as their children (Edin & Kefalas, 2005).

Research has indicated that responsibility to family has been fundamental to an African-American man's definition of manhood (Taylor, Leashore, & Toliver, 1988). However, issues surrounding paternal role involvement have seldom been investigated among samples of African-American fathers. As a result, there is a lack of understanding concerning the experiences and perceptions of role identity and role formation among African American fathers (Gadsen, Wortham, & Turner, 2003). Sensitivity to cultural variations in family patterns will aid in conceptualizations about family relationships (Black et al., 1999). Further research may aid in removing the occurrence of harmful stereotypes about African-American fathers.

Attempts have been made to identify factors that are associated with parenting engagement (Compton, et. Al., 2007, Letiecq, 2007, Terrell, 2005, Arbona & Power, 2003, & Leite & McKenry, 2006). An examination of family involvement will allow insight into parental

engagement and attachment. Research examining the impact of parenting attitudes of African American men has demonstrated a wide range of effects on parenting, including the presence of several psychosocial factors, such as the impact of environmental factors (Compton, Thompson, & Kaslow), spirituality influence (Letiecq), ethnic socialization and ethnic identity (Terrell), parental attachment (Arbona & Power) and the impact of role perception (Leite & McKenry).

Ethnic socialization research supports the idea that ethnic identity and cultural learning experiences contribute to a father's sense of self-esteem as well as his ability to feel empathy toward his children (Terrell, 2005). Ethnic socialization has been identified as a significant factor that influences self-esteem and attitudes toward parenting (Terrell, 2005). Factors that enhance self-esteem, such as family support and personal accomplishments, are likely to contribute to a secure sense of self as a member of an ethnic or racial group (Rosenberg, Schooler, & Schoenback, 1989). However, few studies have considered the influence of ethnic socialization on African American fathers with their children.

Research suggests ethnically diverse populations have more traditional gender role attitudes (Abreu, Goodyear, & Campos, 2000). Pleck (1981, 1995) proposed that when faced with gender role discrepancy men change their perception of gender role norms and disengage from their ideals. Levant (1995) suggested the need to reconstruct masculinity such that men are able to embrace the aspects of traditional masculinity that remain valuable and reject the more dysfunctional norms. Understanding how these norms may affect African American men's self concept when considering gender roles is needed. Thus, little attention has focused on understanding or describing the self-concept of African American men with respect to their father role.

In terms of involvement with children, cultural variation may impact interpretation and awareness of what constitutes good fathering. These interpretations may be a result of their experiences from their own upbringing. African-American fathers' behaviors may also reflect their response to the real and imagined expectations of others regarding them as a father (Leite & McKenry, 2006), including the experience of living in the United States which has a history of racism towards African Americans. In an attempt to promote societal and psychological understanding of African American men this paper will also address the social and psychological impact stereotypes and discrimination may have.

Males acquire many roles throughout their development. Males are sons, brothers, nephews, and grandsons, oftentimes before they are fathers. Many fathers retain these roles as they create their own families. Literature has indicated that males that are successful in earlier stages of life commonly predict success in later stages of life (Allen, 2002). Thus, males who struggle in their familial roles as boys and adolescents will likely struggle to be successful family members (e.g., fathers) as adults (Allen, 2002). These roles are learned through experiences at home, school, work, and community. In understanding fathers it is important to consider that males not only preserve these roles they have accumulated along the way but they may also retain perceptions and representation of how a father behaves from previous examples and experiences.

The familial experiences during a male's childhood or adolescent stage in life understandably shape how he as a father identifies his role within his family. These experiences have been found to provide an opportunity for males to create a positive side of themselves in the future as a parent (Hooker et al., 1996). Cazenave (1979) examined African-American fathers' role perception and found that the fathers saw themselves as spending more time with their

children and being emotionally closer to their own children than their fathers had been with them. This research suggests the importance of considering previous experiences of males when conceptualizing their father role identity (Minton & Pasley, 1996).

Purpose

Literature relevant to African American fathers is increasing but there is still a considerable need for exploration into patterns of engagement of fathers (Leite & McKenry, 2006). There is a need for examining fathers' psychological well-being (Hoard & Anderson, 2004) and how family attachment and the sense of identity interact. This study was motivated by the gap in existing research surrounding African American men's involvement with their children. Understanding African American males' perception of what it means to be a father and their own experiences can help with the understanding of fathers' involvement within their own children's lives. Examining African American fathers' perception of parenting can aid in developing culturally competent interventions that promote family functioning and the development of more supportive counseling environments (Compton, Thompson, & Kaslow, 2005). Psychologists have the duty to provide leadership as social change agents. Recognizing differences of beliefs and practices for African American men that may emerge from socialization among ethnic and racial groups is important when attempting to promote societal understanding (American Psychological Association, 2003).

African American males often face more psychosocial stressors (e.g., racism and depression) than majority groups (Mizell, 1999). It is suggested that African American males' vulnerability to depression may be caused by factors such as parental loss before the age of 17 or negative experiences with their social support systems as they were developing (Roy, 1981). The impact of psychological distress affects various areas of African American men's life. Thus,

providing mental health services to African American men require a knowledge and understanding of their unique and tenuous status within U.S. society (Washington, 1979).

Psychological aspects of African American parenting have received little research attention. This research examined African American men's commitment and identity as a father while taking their psychological well-being into consideration. Utilizing previous data to understand African American males' perception of parenting is not useful due to the lack of representation of various types of families in previous research. This lack of representation in samples between the racial groups does not account for the social, contextual, and psychological stressors that may occur within the larger population. This study sought to examine the psychological and contextual factors that influence the role perception of African-American fathers, a population that has been neglected in previous research.

Rationale

An unstable mother and father bond seem to interfere with the involvement of unmarried fathers with their children (Furstenberg, 1995). These fathers are many times criticized by the mother's family, particularly if the father does not make economic contributions (Furstenberg, 1995). When examining the involvement of fathers who do not live within the home of their children, researchers often use the mothers' report of their children's father's involvement or role. A common error made by many researchers is the application of mother reported data of fathers' real or expected involvement with their child. There are many implications for utilizing report from individuals that are not the fathers when examining the father's involvement. As such, the lack of common residence does not necessarily signify a lack of paternal involvement with children though when utilizing mother's reports the expected involvement is overemphasized. Research has suggested that when discussing paternal contributions mothers

and fathers emphasize different arenas of father involvement (Cohen & Dolgin, 1997). African American men are often reluctant to participate in research including engaging in dialogue about their personal family issues (Whitfield, Markman, Stanley, & Blumberg, 2001). Many authors have documented numerous barriers to participation in research. Some barriers include 1) characteristics of potential participants; 2) public knowledge, perceptions, and attitudes toward researchers and research; and 3) behaviors and attitudes of providers and researchers (Freimuth et. al., 2001). Males in particular have an amount of mistrust, fear of exploitation and the Tuskegee Syphilis Study as barriers. For much of this reason much of earlier research on African-American fathers has relied on mothers' reports (Coley, 2001; Gadsen, Kane, & Armourer, 1997).

A disproportionate number of studies on African-Americans focus on prison inmates, delinquents, poor, and low educated individuals (Na'im, 2003). Little of the research examines African American males in a middle class sample (Terrell, 2005). Instead, there is an excessive emphasis in African American families has been placed on the themes of matriarchal structure, the absence of the father, and the father's lack of involvement within the home (Hines & Boyd-Franklin, 1982).

African-American men's lack of presence within the household structure is many times deduced to mean there is an absent father (Wilson, 1987). The phenomenon of the absent father and mother-headed families have been a source of sociological inquiry with little attention paid to the psychological causes or implications for the father (Black, 1999). Households that are regulated by single mothers have often been the focus of African American family research, which perpetuates the stereotype of fathers being unavailable. However, it is important to recognize that fathers can maintain relationships with their children and contribute to their

development even when they do not live in the same household. There is a potential bias about the involvement of fathers when the parents have never been married as compared to when they are divorced (Mott, 1990).

Few researchers have studied the specific ways in which African-Americans obtain their parenting style, practices, and socialization goals within a context that essentializes their specific cultural setting (Letiecq, 2007). This study hopes to receive first hand account of African Americans' perception and experiences of not only their interactions with their children but also a view of their own relationship with their parents.

Previous studies (Cazenave, 1984; Staples, 1978) suggest examining black male gender role identity from a social, contextual perspective to better understand that "social status affects the way that he perceives the world and how he ought to behave within it" (Cazenave, 1984; pp. 639-640). To improve the quality of therapeutic services offered to African-American families, more research is needed to understand fathers' role perception and the dynamics of contextual factors affecting these roles (Bryan, 1992). There is a substantial need for research on ongoing patterns of involvement of fathers (Leite & McKenry, 2006). This study will examine the impact of relational influences on African American men and its relation to self-esteem, ethnic identity, and perceptions of parenting. This study will integrate a number of percepts of efficacy related to ethnic identity, self-esteem, and attachment in fathers and non-fathers and provide information on the factors that explain attachment and perceived ideas of parenting.

Research Questions

1. To what extent do African American men's self-esteem and/or ethnic identity predict their perception of parenting?

2. What is the relationship between attachment and African American men's perception of parenting?
3. To what degree does attachment predict self-esteem, ethnic identity, and/or the role perception in African American men?
4. To what degree do demographic variables: age, having children, amount of education, income, make up of family of origin predict perception of parenting?

Hypotheses

1. High levels of self-esteem and/or strong ethnic identity in African American men will predict a positive perception of parenting.
2. Relationships or attachment (positive or negative) are related to African American men's perception of parenting. Thus, men attempt to emulate positive parenting but also try to improve on perceived negative experiences.
3. African Americans with positive parental attachment will predict positive self-esteem, role perspectives and/or ethnic identity.
4. Demographic variables: age, having children, amount of education, income, and/or make up of family of origin predict perception of parenting.

When exploring African-American fathers' contribution to the family it is difficult to locate fathers for data collection, which is paradoxical in view of concerns about some fathers' lack of involvement within families (Furstenberg, Harris, & Mamer, 1998). Functional and cultural perspectives on father availability are important considerations when collecting data on father roles, as many times family patterns are varied in African-American families. To increase validity and reliability, this study is expanded to include African American fathers and non-

fathers to increase sample size. This research will contribute to the relatively few studies that focus on the needs and outcomes of African-American men.

Definition of Terms

Definitions of terms that are important in understanding this study are presented in this section.

1. *Absent Fathers*--Sometimes used interchangeably with nonresident fathers. More negative connotation usually indicates non-involvement.
2. *Nonresidential Fathers*--Lack of marriage or co-residence with the mother and child; not necessarily indicating non-involvement as a parent (Danziger and Radin, 1990).
3. *Psychological Well-Being*--For the purposes of this study psychological well-being will include attachment, ethnic identity, and self-esteem that contribute to positive role perceptions.
4. *Racial Identity* --The process of development by which individual members of various socioracial groups overcome the version of internalized racism that typifies their group in order to achieve a self-affirming and realistic racial-group or collective identity (Helms, 1990).
5. *Ethnic Identity*--Strong, positive feelings about oneself as a member of one's ethnic or racial group (for the purposes of this study Black or African American identity) which may serve as a psychological buffer and self-protective strategies for coping with prejudice, discrimination, and stigmatization (Phinney, 1989). Ethnic Identity will be assessed by *Phinney's Multigroup Identity Measure (MEIM)* developed in 1992.

6. *Role Perception*--The self concept of being a father as assessed by *The Role of the Father Questionnaire (ROFQ)* (Palkowitz, 1984; Adapted Version McBride & Rane, 1996).
7. *Single Mother*--A woman fulfilling the duties of caretaker and provider for her child without the presence of another parental figure within the home.
8. *Self-Esteem*--Most important dimension of self-concept that often reflects others' judgment; global feelings of self-esteem are widely recognized as a central aspect of psychological functioning and well being (Rosenberg et al., 1989). Self-esteem will be assessed by the *Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale* (1986).
9. *Attachment*--The amount of attachment an individual has with each parent. Attachment will be assessed by the Kenny's *Parental Attachment Scale* (1987).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

When examining research surrounding African American males, environmental and psychological factors seemed to continually surface. The factors of self-esteem, ethnic identity, and attachment have all been recognized in research. However, these factors have been briefly examined in the context of African American families, specifically fathers. Researchers have examined these areas with the predominant culture in America but have not been as successful at reaching other ethnicities. This review of literature will provide an overview of how the aforementioned factors explain the role perception of African American men in hopes of being able to promote psychological well-being and culturally specific interventions to this population. This chapter begins with an epidemiological overview of African American men and fathers in the United States, in order to better understand the proximate and distal factors from a psychological perspective. This section will also discuss the relationship between African American men and ethnic socialization, African American men and self-esteem, as well as examining parental attachment in African American men. This chapter will conclude by exploring how these factors impact the father role perception in African American Men.

African American Men

In 2004, the United States Census Bureau reported 27.9 percent of African American men were between 25 and 44 years old, the marriage and childbearing ages. Thus it is important to examine the experiences of men in understanding their role as parents and providers, though research has neglected such emphasis in African American men in particular. Overwhelmingly,

the research concerning African Americans have focused on the women and children, leaving the literature with an incomplete understanding of the nature of African American men's relationships and roles.

Much of the data surrounding African American men's social behavior has focused on the relationships of socially marginalized men (Harris, 1992; Mac An Ghail, 1994). Because of the failed focus on African Americans in research, there continues to be many myths, stereotypes, and distortions about African Americans in general and African American men in particular in American society. Gary and Bogart (1982) named seven deficiencies of such research: (1) a tendency of focus on pathology rather than strengths, (2) poor sampling and research designs, (3) inappropriate and unreliable research instruments, (4) inadequate models and theoretical assumptions, (5) a tendency to assume a common black experience, (6) a propensity to focus on low-income groups in the community, and (7) a tendency to concentrate on captive subjects such as prisoners and mental patients.

While the literature is growing, there is still a substantial need for research on ongoing patterns of involvement of fathers. As previously mentioned, studies that have examined variation between African American and White fathers across family structures have been somewhat inconsistent. However, researchers have noted that responsibility to family historically has been fundamental to most men's definition of manhood (Taylor, Leashore, & Toliver, 1988). Research that has neglected African Americans in such roles has neglected the many identities held by these men, as their presence in the family is continuously evolving and likewise important for child development (Black, Dubowitz, & Starr, 1999).

Parke (1996) found that fathers are doing more child care and household work than in the past. These fathers are becoming highly involved taking full (about 10%) or shared (15%-20%)

custody of their children following divorce (Cancian & Meyer, 1998). Sadly this research cannot be generalized to broader populations because the evidence of trends comes from White samples (Cabrera et al., 2000). Cultural explanations may explain the definition of fatherhood and higher or lower levels of involvement for African American fathers (Cazenave, 1979). Thus, examining African Americans within their own contextual factors will provide normative data that allows for more cultural justification.

African American Fathers

African American men are rarely studied in academic literature as deeply embedded within their families (Gadsden & Smith, 1995; Mirande, 1991). Research has shown an increased interest in examining African American men who reside in two-parent families (Allen, 1981; Fagan, 1998; Mcadoo, 1981, 1986, 1993; Mirande, 1991; Taylor et al., 1988; Wade, 1994). Unfortunately, few researchers have examined African American men's objectives concerning parenthood. The participants in Coles (2001) study qualitatively defined their roles as single African American fathers generally as provider and nurturer. Fathers in the study were asked to rank a list of six possible parenting roles (i.e. provider, nurturer, teacher, disciplinarian, authority figure, and friend) and to prioritize them according to their own fathering experience; they were then asked to define their roles with their children. The fathers defined nurturer as "being there," giving affection and making sure their children feel secure and know that they are loved. One participant described the importance of the nurturing roles of being a father:

...I think you must nurture kids. I mean they always need that affection, tell them that you love them. I tell him everyday I love him. That's part of me nurturing him. I hug him before he goes to school. I

hug him when he goes to bed. You know, give him a kiss on the cheek. He kisses me on the cheek. And that's something I want, you know, until one of us dies. Because just because you are men don't meant they have to get out of that stereotype that men don't do those things. There's nothing wrong with that. I want to let him know that... (pg. 105)

This quote along with other definitions from participants was consistent with the ideas of fathers taking on roles that are associated with a set of ideas, competencies, and action patterns (Cabrera et al., 2000). Thus, this understanding of defining paternal roles is helpful in identifying the motivational bases of paternal involvement. Exploration into the development of gender role attitudes, self-esteem, relational influences, and ethnic socialization may afford useful insight into the development of fatherhood. Coles' study was helpful in understanding the repetitive action patterns in the context of family life, by identifying action patterns that are connected to generative fathering-such as nurturing, providing, and teacher.

We know little about how men learn to be fathers (Daley, 1995). The fathers in Coles' study identified role models in their mothers but alternately rarely mentioned their own fathers as role models, in help with providing advice or representing symbolic meaning. Daley supports the idea that children do not appear to imitate people of their own gender more, but instead are likely to model particular behaviors from a variety of sources rather than particular individuals. Interestingly, in this study, fathers believed they could not serve as sufficient role models for their daughters. Conversely, the men in the study did not identify their father as role models, let alone nurturing. It is possible the fathers were in fact driven by an intuitive felt absence of those

characteristics in their own fathers (Coles, 2001) to behave in such a way. This indicates possible parenting decisions being greatly impacted by previous relational influences. Few studies have examined racial or ethnic differences in memories of parental bonds (in contrast to adult attachment) (Wei et al., 2004). Further, exploring of these parental attachments is useful in understanding patterns of communication and engagement in relationships.

Parental Attachment

Over the past two decades, attachment theory has been used to understand adult relationships (Cassidy & Shaver, 1999). The theory has been used to understand concept the of family and psychotherapy processes (Mallinckrodt, 2000). Some studies have found that the distribution of infants across the three attachment types originally identified by Ainsworth and colleagues (1978) only describes individuals from a Western-centric standpoint as opposed to other countries such as Germany (Grossman, Spangler, Suess, & Unzner, 1985) and Japan (Miyake, Chen, & Campos, 1985). These differences may be attributed to differences in cultural and societal values about appropriate parenting and suggest that assessment systems based on Western norms of secure attachment behavior may be inappropriate if applied to parents and children of other cultures or ethnicities (Miyake et al., 1985; Trnavsky, 1998). Creating norms among various groups is helpful for understanding attachment with cultural-specific factors in mind.

The debate of cultural universality of infant-caregiver attachment constructs has been present for years though addressing these factors have recently begun in adult attachment research (Wei, Russell, Mallinckrodt, & Zakalik, 2004). However, previous research has been unhurried in comparing attachment across racial or ethnic groups within the United States. Among the few available studies, Rice, Cunningham, and Young (1997) found that, in general,

African American and White American college students reported no differences in emotional bonds with their parents. However, African Americans reported lower scores than White college students, on ratings of their father's emotional expressiveness.

Arbona and Power (2003) further examined parental attachment that looked at the relation to mother and father attachment and self-esteem (as well as self-reported involvement in antisocial behaviors among African American) among African American ($n = 488$), European American ($n = 661$), and Mexican American ($n = 434$) high school students. The results of the study revealed ethnic differences in two dimensions of parental attachment related to avoidance and anxiety. The elevation of attachment avoidance may be related to cultural mistrust or other cultural factors (e.g., racial/ethnicity identity development; Wei et al., 2004). The results also indicated that both mother and father attachment make independent contributions to self-esteem, signifying that security in the parent-child relationship is important for individuals from diverse American ethnic/racial groups, even if there are differences in cultural values and family organization.

Research has indicated a strong parallel to understanding attachment and racial identity development. Attachment may vary depending on acculturation, racial or ethnic identity development. Sue and Sue (2003) theorized that racial minorities who are in earlier stages of racial identity development (e.g., conformity stage) may try to fit in with Western mainstream culture and be accepted by people in the mainstream culture. It can be expected that those individuals might score higher on attachment anxiety. The researchers also concluded that racial minorities who are in the middle stage of racial identity development (e.g., resistance and immersion stage) may be less worried about fitting into the mainstream culture and thereby increase their self-reliance as a survival tool in the White dominant culture. Therefore, it can be

expected that a higher level of attachment avoidance (excessive self-reliance) may exist for minorities in the resistance and immersion stage. Likewise, ethnic identity development has clear implications for psychological adjustment (Terrell, 2005), which may impact self-esteem and role identity in individuals.

Ethnic Identity and Self-esteem

“A secure, committed sense of one’s racial or ethnic group membership is assumed to provide the foundation for healthy adjustment among members of ethnocultural groups” (Terrell, 2005, pg. 101). According to the researchers, a secure sense of self is based on the successful resolution of the interrelated issues discussed earlier: ethnic identity, ethnic socialization and relationship to the larger society. The integration of the aforementioned factors is useful in African American men who wish to connect with their heritage as well as develop a positive sense of identity.

Many researchers have developed measures of racial identity, including Helms’ Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale and the White Racial Identity Attitude Scale (Helms, 1990). These measures are often seek to identify racial development, are generally specific particular racial groups, and tend to focus heavily on attitudes towards other groups (Avery, Tonidandel, Thomas, Johnson, & Mack, 2007; Swanson, Tokar, & Davis, 1994; Yanico, Swanson, & Tokar, 1994). This study sought to identify participants’ level of within group membership. Thus, Phinney’s Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure was utilized.

Phinney (1989) developed a three stage model applicable to minority individuals to address the general phenomenon of ethnic identity. In stage one, also known as the “unexamined ethnic identity” stage, individuals are not concerned with ethnic issues, but commit to the values of the dominant culture. In stage two, known as the “ethnic identity search” stage, the minority

individual experiences an identity crisis, but begins to understand cultural differences. In stage three, the minority individual reaches “identity achievement.” Individuals with achieved ethnic identity are comfortable with their ethnic heritage and culture of others. Indicating they have an overall positive view of themselves.

As suggested, ethnic identity directly influences self-esteem. Factors that enhance self-esteem, such as family support and personal accomplishments are likely to contribute to a secure sense of self as a member of an ethnic or racial group. Rosenberg and colleagues (1989) found that self-esteem can be seen as the cause or the outcome of developmental variables. Thus, the impact of family involvement or role perception can contribute to an individual’s self-esteem. Ethnic research supports the idea that ethnic identity and cultural learning experiences contribute to a father’s sense of self-esteem and attitudes toward parenting. Therefore, a man’s self-esteem impacts his role as a father, quality of fathering, and ultimately child development. Terrell (2005) explored the effects of ethnic socialization and ethnic identity on self-esteem and parenting attitudes of middle class African American men. This study was implemented under the assumptions that the quality of fathering has a strong impact on child development. The results of the study indicated there was a significant correlation between self-esteem and ethnic identity as well as ethnic identity and ethnic socialization in a sample of 115 African American men. The pattern of correlations was able to provide a predictive significance indicating individuals with higher ethnic identification had higher self-esteem. These findings also suggested that ethnic identity and cultural learning experiences contributed to a father’s sense of self-esteem, as well as his ability to feel empathy toward his children. From this study and similar studies, it can be derived that identity and attachment have been found to be factors that influence a father in his parenting.

Role Perception

The African American father has been examined within a framework of negative role identity and deficient role performance in the context of a disorganized African American family (Bryan, 1992). Research indicates, with reference to the father role in black families, emphasis has been placed on the themes of matriarchal structure, the absence of the father, and the father's lack of involvement within the home (Hines & Boyd-Franklin, 1982). Additional studies have suggested a need to examine African American male role identity from a social contextual perspective (Cazenave, 1984; Staples, 1978).

Cazenave (1984) believed it was important to measure the importance of social status with attainment and identity of masculinity, with the belief that "social status affects the way that he perceives the world and how he ought to behave within it" (pp. 639-640). Cazenave (1979) found the provider role to be a prominent role identity for these fathers during his critical study focusing on middle-income African American's role perceptions. Through interviews with 54 fathers, the provider role was generally defined as an interface phenomenon that negotiated the exchanges between the family system and the economic system. These financially secure fathers saw themselves as more invested in parenting and spend more time with their children than their fathers had spent with them. Economically secure fathers were found to possess more of a nurturing father role identity because they were able to obtain more resources and a wider range of perceptions of fatherhood (Cazenave, 1984).

Cazenave's studies focused on the role perception in African American men with a comparison of age, education employment and income. The aforementioned studies failed to examine men's relationship to their own father, their mother's relationship to her father, and other relational dynamics between father and child which may significantly affect the role

perception of fathers. This study hopes to expand and examine other contextual factors such as family of origin and relational influences including parental attachment on the role perception of black men.

Theory

Overview of Systems Theory

Using Systems Theory to understand individuals, it is necessary to look at the individual in relation to other members of the family (Becvar & Becvar, 1999). Bowen's theory originates from an effort to develop a scientific approach to the study of human behavior focusing on his or her relatedness to the members of his or her family (Papero, 1990).

Structural Systems Theory

As Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory explains, the individual is influenced by many contexts such as society and culture. The individual's family is the largest, usually most influential network of systems. Within the boundaries of a family unit there are many ways that the individual may be influenced. Becvar and Becvar (1999) discuss the importance of these boundaries in which communication and the relationship within this family boundary are seeds to an individual's development.

Structural System Theory of Psychopathology

In a family, many individuals first learn how to communicate with others. Individuals learn patterns of behavior through communication with other family members. Many learn what is considered acceptable within the family and this is a great influence on how that person behaves outside of the family unit, in society. Though there is a focus on the family context, in family therapy as a therapist it is still important to look at the here and now and to look at the present ongoing interaction of that family (Becvar & Becvar, 1999). The key issue to look at is

the pattern of the interaction that may be causing the individual to behave as they do. For the best intervention in family therapy it is important to focus on the interaction and communication that is present. This impacts the structure and organization of the individual.

Bowen Systems Theory

Bowen's Family System Theory was in fact influenced by the General System Theory, which refers to the operations of organisms or wholes as entities and not just parts (Papero, 1990). Much of Bowen's early readings were extensive studies on the natural sciences. Under this influence, he observed the mother-patient symbiosis in schizophrenia. His reaction to this relationship was based on a deep biological process as well as a psychological process (Kerr & Bowen, 1988). This was an indication to him that the human was significantly influenced by the same natural forces that govern other forms of life. He believed that symbiotic relationships were a fact of nature and that they apparently had an important evolutionary function. The General System Theory and the Family System Theory have many aspects in common but originate from different roots. The General System Theory takes upon a more scientific, mathematical approach to human thought. Bowen's Family System Theory stems from direct observation of families (Papero, 1990).

Bowen's Theory of Psychopathology

Bowen accepts the idea of the family as a system, hence the Family System Theory. Bowen saw that a disruption in part of the system would lead to a change in the other part (Bowen, 1966). Thus, it is important to recognize this point when working with families. Through his observations, Bowen saw the family as a social system, a cultural system, a games system, a communication system, and a biological system along with other possibilities (Bowen). For therapy purposes he examines emotions and relationships of individuals, believing that the

forces that motivate the family system are emotional which lead to the interactions that occur within the relationships (Barker, 1981).

Bowen's theory gives the field of therapy a method of organizing and categorizing events, helps us to predict future events, explains past events, and also gives us an understanding of what causes events. This in turn can allow the therapist to predict future events (Becvar & Becvar, 2000).

Theory of Therapeutic Processes

Bowen explained that the essence of the intervention process is to change the family patterns in relating (Bernard & Corrales, 1979). He theorized that change within one individual in the family resulted in a change within the entire family. Bowen coined the concept the *nuclear family emotional system*. Advocating the way to produce change in families is to examine certain basic patterns between the father, mother, and children because this is the "smallest stable relationship system" (Bowen, 1976, p. 76).

Change Processes

Bowen recognized in therapy that the emotional systems of previous generations of the family are alive and well and very much a part of the family and the therapeutic process (Becvar & Becvar, 2000). This nuclear relationship displays repeated behavior of the past generations and will be replicated in the generations to follow (Bowen, 1976). Bowen encouraged that change would occur if the family of origin is explored, as well as the relationships of the nuclear family to the extended family (Barker, 1981). Using the family systems perspective, one must believe family is an important influence on an individual. Bowen's theory views relationship difficulties as stemming from the combination of the level of differentiation of self, in addition to the intensity of anxiety in the relationship field (Datilio & Bevilacqua, 2000).

A systems framework (Cox & Paley, 1997) has recently been applied to diverse populations within studies, and specifically been utilized with African American populations. This system's framework recognizes the family as including multiple subsystems that influence one another (Krishnakumar & Black, 2003). The aforementioned authors investigated this influence of family dynamics within 3-generation households, by examining mothers' satisfaction with father involvement. The participants were low-income African American adolescent mothers and grandmothers recruited at delivery and followed over 6 months. The results of the study indicated that fathers who were involved with care giving activities had positive relationships with adolescent mothers and grandmothers. It also recognized the strong influence grandmothers had on the dynamics on the family. As they served as gatekeepers; when grandmothers reported positive relationships with the mother and father, adolescent mothers reported positive relationships with their male partners. Mothers who reported positive partner relationships also reported high parenting efficacy and satisfaction with father involvement. The authors went on to explain how parental involvement are related to mother–grandmother relationships, grandmother–father relationships, mothers' relationships with fathers, their perceived efficacy as parents, and, ultimately, others' satisfaction with father involvement.

Systems, African Americans, and Parenting

Wang and Mallinkrodt (2003) introduced the notion that when a theory is based on research from one culture (usually the dominant culture), constructs are assumed to present an ideal of healthy development or optimal adjustment. However, research findings indicate that obtaining a systems perspective in working with African American parents and their families is beneficial. Fathers play pivotal roles in the development of their children. When fathers have conflictual and unsupportive relationships with their parents or regard them in a negative light,

they may distance themselves from their own children. Healthy parental–relational influences may help fathers become contributing members of the family gaining skills that may help them remain involved with their children and/or partners over time.

Self-concept and beliefs about others become an increasingly dominant part of individual's interpersonal style as working models influence new relationships (Bowlby, 1988) and create validating experiences and inflexible cognitive patterns that persist despite subsequent disconfirming experiences (West, Sheldon, & Reiffer, 1989). For these reasons, it may be quite difficult for individuals to change their adult attachment style or underlying working models of self or others. Bowlby (1988) acknowledged that attachment patterns are likely very difficult to change in adulthood, but he believed that the experience of an impactful corrective attachment, or counseling, could encourage changes. Understanding how to reach underserved and marginalized populations may provide more conducive and supportive environments in the therapy room.

African American Men & Counseling

African American men do not tend to seek professional help for their mental health needs in proportion to problems they encounter in an often considered oppressive and racist society; strategies must be developed by psychologists and other mental health practitioners to reach this population. Jones and Gray (1983) found that African American men tend to be more likely to use both formal (e.g. church) and informal (e.g. barbershops, social clubs, and neighborhood bar) networks within their own community whenever a crisis arises. Providing counseling that is able to give more understanding about beliefs of self and unique stressors is important to reaching this underserved population. Engaging in culture specific interventions is important for creating a clinical environment that is welcoming and supportive of African American men's unique needs.

From a clinical perspective, the importance of attachment, ethnic identity, role identity and self-esteem in this population cannot be underestimated and should be explored further in counseling as well.

For counseling interventions examining psychological factors and relationships of individuals, will help to motivate the emotional family system to enhance interactions that occur within these personal relationships. Considering African American values and cultural strengths, Hill (1972) described family strengths as “traits which facilitate the ability of the family to meet the needs of its members and demands made upon it by systems outside the family unit” (p. 3). This study aids in understanding the development of the African American family by introducing an understanding of factors that make up the personality and ideals of individuals of the family system, including heterogeneity of African American men male roles, and relationships (McCollum, 1997).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

This study was designed to investigate the role perception of African American men in hopes of being able to promote psychological well-being and culturally specific interventions to this population and their families. The study investigated psychological factors (i.e., self-esteem, ethnic identity and attachment) in hopes of understanding the effect they have on the role perception of being a father for African American men. This chapter provides information on the sample, instrumentation, research design, data collection procedures, and data analysis that was used in this study.

Description of the Sample

According to a power analysis (Statistical Calculator, retrieved July 15, 2009) the minimum required sample size for the proposed study was (given the alpha level of .05, 5 predictors, the anticipated medium effect size of .15, and desired statistical power level of .8) $N = 91$.

Participants of the study ($N = 180$) included African American men between the ages of 25-44. The study was also expanded to males between the ages of 18-44 allowing for a broader sample. Participants must have identified as African American or Black. Men from the metropolitan areas of Saint Louis, Missouri; Atlanta, Georgia; and Athens, Georgia were recruited from churches, community organizations, and colleges. These cities were used due to the primary researcher's contacts and familiarity with these areas. The study was also expanded beyond the listed areas due to sample collected via email and internet.

*Selected Profiles of Metropolitan Areas**Saint Louis City.*

As of the July 2007 U.S. Census estimate, the Greater St. Louis area is the 16th largest metropolitan area in the nation, with 2,871,421 people. St. Louis County borders the City of St. Louis, which is independent from St. Louis County. As of the census of 2000, there were 348,189 people, 76,920 families residing in the city. The racial makeup of the city of St. Louis (as separate and distinct from St. Louis County) was 51.20% for African American. There were 140,934 households out of which 24% were married couples living together, 20.5% had a female householder with no husband present, 5% had a male householder with no wife present and 50% were non-families. The average household size was 2.42 and the average family size was 3.53.

St. Louis County.

The racial makeup of the county was 24% African American. The 2007 estimate for the county was 995,118. There were 404,291 households out of which 48% were married couples living together, 3% had a male householder with no wife present, 13.3% had a female householder with no husband present, and 34.4% were non-families. The average household size was 2.42 and the average family size was 3.02.

Atlanta.

The City of Atlanta ranks as the 33rd largest in the United States. As of the 2008 United States Census, the city of Atlanta had a population of 537,958, an increase of 28% from the 2000 census. As of the 2007 US census, the Atlanta metropolitan area had an estimated population of 5,376,285. The racial makeup of the city was 56% black or African American. According to the 2000 United States Census (revised in 2004), Atlanta has the 12th highest proportion of single-

person households nationwide among cities of 100,000 or more residents, which was at 38%. There were 168,252 households out of which 24% were married couples living together, 4% had a male householder with no wife present, and 16% had a female householder with no husband present. Forty-seven percent of all households were made up of individuals. The average household size was 2.45 and the average family size was 3.71.

Athens.

As of the census of 2000, there were 100,266 people and 19,344 families residing in the city. The racial makeup of the city was 27% Black or African American. There were 42,033 households out of which 31% were married couples living together, 4.7% had a male householder with no wife present, 13.8% had a female householder with no husband present, and 50.3% were non-families. The average household size was 2.41 and the average family size was 3.06.

Research Design

A passive research design was utilized in this study. Passive designs are used when examining the relationship between two or more variables (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1991). In a passive research design participants are not obtained from random assignments nor is there an independent variable (Shadish, Cook, Campbell, 2002), which results in a lack of the ability to assess causal relationships. However, descriptive causal inferences may result from the study, which may encourage future quantitative studies. As mentioned, an independent variable is not measured; however, particular variables including father role importance, self-esteem, ethnic identity, and role perception were matched and compared within the sample. Data collection was accomplished through survey designs.

Survey design was utilized due to the exploratory nature of the study. This design was useful because surveys provided important information regarding to the relationship of the variables that was being investigated. This design allowed for low costs in terms of time and money and did not require significant time from respondents and little intrusion from the researchers as compared to observational or face-to-face interviewing (Cresswell, 1994). These means were necessary and beneficial due to the difficulties in reaching African American men (Carlson & McLanahan, 2004).

Validity and Reliability

Internal validity addresses whether the treatment produced a change in the outcome. Since there was no treatment in this study there were no foreseeable threats to internal validity. External validity refers to the variables, populations, and settings, to which the results were generalized. The characteristics of the participants who agreed to participate in this study may not be representative of all African American men, thus making the results not completely generalizable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Reliability refers to the accuracy of measurement of a test (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Cronbach's alpha coefficients were computed to assess the reliability of each instrument. The following is a list of the questionnaires used in the study including previous Cronbach's alpha. Further explanation of this researcher's test reliability is explained in the results section.

Description of Research Instruments

Demographic Form.

A 15-item questionnaire was used to provide information regarding the participants' personal identification (e.g., racial/ethnicity identity, education, marital status, and income range), family of origin, and whether or not they had children.

Ethnic Identity.

Phinney's (1992) Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) was used to measure participants' ethnic identity. Fifteen questions were scored on a Likert scale of one (rarely) to five (often). Ethnic Identity was conceptualized in terms of two processes, exploration of the meaning and implications of one's ethnicity and commitment to one's group. The two subscales of exploration and commitment can be used as a single scale combining the two subscales. This instrument consistently showed good reliability when used with various ethnic groups of different age ranges, typically above .90. Phinney (1992) found the overall reliability for the MEIM, ethnic search, and affirmation was .81, .81, and .80.

Self-Esteem.

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem (RSE) scale was used to measure global self-esteem. The scale is a 10-item Likert scales, with items answered on a four point scale, from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Studies have demonstrated both a unidimensional and a two-factor (self-confidence and self-deprecation) structure to the scale. The scale generally has high reliability: test-retest correlations are typically in the range of .82 to .88, and Cronbach's alpha for various samples are in the range of .77 to .88 (Rosenberg, 1986). Various studies have supported the reliability the RSE across a variety of populations. Rosenberg (1979) reported an internal consistency for a unidimensional factor of the RSE with a coefficient of .92 on a sample of 5,024 adolescents in New York. Wesley (2003) also reported finding alpha coefficients greater than .70 in samples of predominantly African American women.

Attachment.

The Parental Attachment Questionnaire (PAQ; Kenny, 1987) was used to assess mother and father attachment. Designed to reflect Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, and Wall's (1978) theory

of attachment and for use with adolescents and adults, the PAQ is a self-report measure of an individuals' attachment to their mother and father (individually or collectively). The PAQ describes the relationships to parents along three dimensions: Parents as a Source of Support, Parents as Facilitators of Independence, and Affective Quality of the Parent-Child Relationship. Respondents are asked to answer the 55 items on a 5-point Likert scale. Responses to questions are scored from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much). Kenney (1987) reported scale internal consistency (Cronbach alpha) coefficients of .93 and .95 for samples of first year college men and women. The subscales have demonstrated high levels of internal consistency as well with Cronbach alphas between .82 and .91.

Role Perception.

A revised version of The Role of the Father Questionnaire (ROFQ) was used to measure the extent that an individual believes the father's role is important to child development (Palkowitz, 1984; McBride & Rane, 1996). The ROFQ contains 15 items. Subjects indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with each item on a 5-point scale. Total scores on the ROFQ can range from 15 to 75. Higher scores reflect attitudes that fathers are capable and should be involved with and sensitive to their children. The response will be interpreted as a measure of the saliency of a particular father role perception. The responses will be measured on a five-point Likert scale with a score of 1 representing no saliency and a score of 5 representing a very high degree of saliency. A revised version of the ROFQ scale for young children was used for this study (Christiansen, 1999; McBride & Rane, 1994). McBride and Rane (1996) have reported good internal consistency of the adapted measure with an alpha of .77. Christiansen reported a coefficient alpha of .73 when using the scale.

Procedures

Recruitment of Participants.

To meet the needs of participants, data were collected through multiple mediums. A portion of the packets were distributed by the researcher, as well as via electronic submission. A web-survey link included an email announcing the details of the survey, researcher information, and IRB approval information. Participants were asked to access the survey link and read the informed consent statement provided before the survey could begin.

Participants for this study were recruited from community organizations. The researcher identified contact people of churches, universities, and organizations for soliciting participants for the study. The contact people were personal contacts of the researcher or the presidents of their respective organizations. Contact people were asked to share the contents of a letter, written by the researcher, containing a description of the study.

The data for the study were also collected via an online announcement available to the Facebook networking site, and black programming and organizational list serves (e.g. Graduate and Professional Scholars). A recruitment message for the survey was distributed through each list serve once while there was an active link for the survey on the Facebook site for the month of November.

The sequences of the measures for both mediums of data collection were as follows: demographic questionnaire, self-esteem scale, ethnic identity scale, role of father scale, and parental attachment scale. As an incentive for participating, individuals were allowed to enter their names into a raffle for a \$25 gift card for use at Barnes and Noble Bookstores or Best Buy.

Data Collection

Data were collected during fall semester 2009, specifically October through December 2009. Contact people were mailed a package of materials including survey packets, a letter

detailing the duties of the contact person, a list of frequently asked questions for the contact person that would assist them in answering any questions participants have, a letter to share with the interested participants and a statement of informed consent. Contact people were responsible for administering and collecting completed survey packets, including signed informed consent statements and mailing them back to the researcher. The researcher covered the postage for all mailings.

Participants took approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaires. The participants received a debriefing statement upon completion of the surveys. Participants were also informed that they may contact the primary investigator, Timika Edwards, with any questions they had about the study and were given the necessary contact information. One participant was rewarded a gift card for their participation in the survey from a voluntary raffle, no participation was necessary.

Data Analysis of Research Questions

Means for each variable were obtained utilizing one way ANOVA. To assess the means for two groups within the sample T-tests were used. A Pearson Product-Moment correlation was also used to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the variables.

Research Question 1

To what extent do self-esteem and/or ethnic identity predict perception of parenting?

To investigate the effect of a predictor variable on multiple criterion variables, multiple regression analyses were used. The predictor variables for this analysis were self-esteem and ethnic identity. The criterion variable was perception of parenting.

Research Question 2

What is the relationship between attachment and African American men's perception of parenting?

A Pearson Product-Moment correlation was used to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between attachment and perception of parenting.

Research Question 3

To what degree does parental attachment predict self-esteem, ethnic identity, and/or perception of parenting in African American men?

To investigate the effect of a predictor variable on multiple criterion variables, multiple regression analyses were used. The predictor variable for this analysis was attachment. The criterion variables were self-esteem, ethnic identity, and the perception of parenting.

Research Question 4

To what degree do demographic variables: Ages, having children, amount of education, income, and/or make up of family of origin predict perception of parenting?

To investigate the effect of a predictor variable on multiple criterion variables, multiple regression analyses were used. The predictor variables for this analysis were age, having children, amount of education income, and/or make up of family of origin. The criterion variable was role perception.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This study examined (a) the demographic variables that may influence this sample of African American men's role identity as a father and (b) the impact psychological well being (self-esteem, ethnic identity, and attachment) may have on the participant's role identity. This chapter will provide information about the results of the analyses conducted for this study.

Analyses of the demographic data are presented first, so that a description of the sample can be illustrated. Next, a preliminary statistical analysis is presented, participant profiles for the four instruments administered using the demographic variables most relevant to the research questions: Self-Esteem, Ethnic Identity, Parental Attachment, and Perception of Parenting.

Lastly, the results of the research questions and hypotheses tested are presented.

Demographic Data

Data were collected from 180 self-identified African American men through an online (N=142) and paper (N=38) survey. If more than half of the questions on more than one of the instruments were unanswered, then the packet was removed from the analysis. Additionally, if participants did not complete the Role of Father Questionnaire, the packet was excluded since this instrument was central to several of the analyses conducted in the study. Of the 180 research packets, 31 of them were excluded because they did not meet the criteria, (N= 134 participants completed the entire survey).

Basic Assumptions Regarding Multivariate Analysis

The remaining sample of 149 participants were examined for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and the assumptions of multivariate analysis: (a) normality, the normal distribution of variables, (b) linearity, a straight-line relationship between variables, and (c) homoscedasticity, the variability in scores for one continuous variable is roughly the same at all values of another continuous variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001); the final assumption of multicollinearity will be explained later in this chapter.

The data set of 149 participants was examined for outliers, which may include a case with an extreme value on one variable (univariate outlier) or a strange combination of scores on two or more variables (multivariate outlier). A total of eight cases with extremely high or low z scores ($z > 3.29$, $z < -3.29$) on the Parental Attachment and Multigroup Ethnic Identity measures were found to be univariate outliers which may violate multivariate normality (normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity).

To improve pairwise linearity and to reduce extreme skewness and kurtosis, univariate variables were assigned a raw score one unit larger than the most extreme score in the distribution, otherwise known as score alteration (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Score alteration may not work for a multivariate outlier because the problem is with the combination of scores on two or more variables, not with the score on any one variable (Tabachnick & Fidell). Multivariate outliers are usually deleted; if they remain it is with the knowledge that they may distort the results in almost any direction. Four cases were identified through Mahalanobis distance as multivariate outliers with $p < .001$. These four cases with multivariate outliers were deleted, leaving 145 cases for analysis. Pairwise linearity and homoscedasticity were checked on the remaining data set using bi-variate scatterplots and were found to be satisfactory.

Sample Characteristics

One hundred thirty-three (91.7%) of the 145 participants identified their race/ethnicity as African-American/Black, eight (5.5%) of the participants identified as Biracial, and four (2.8%) identified as Other (the others all identified as Black or of African-American while recognizing their nationality, for example African American/Guyanese or Black/Caribbean). The sample in this study represented a wide array of demographic diversity.

The range of income for the participants was from less than \$24,000 to more than \$100,000. Thirty-three (22.8%) of the participants reported annual income less than \$24,000, fifty-eight (40.0%) of the participants reported income between \$25,000 and \$49,999, twenty-seven (18.6%) of the participants reported income between \$50,000 and \$74,999, twelve (8.3%) of the participants reported income between \$75,000 to \$99,999, and five (10.3%) of the participants reported having an annual income of more than \$100,000.

Nearly 47% ($n=68$) of this sample reported having at least one child and nearly 40% of the participants indicated they were married. Participants ranged in age from 18-44 ($M=30.30$, $mode=31$, & $median=30.00$). Forty percent of participants had at least a Bachelor's degree. More detailed demographic information about the sample can be found in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1*Demographic Characteristics of the Sample*

Variable	Frequency	Percent (%)
Age groups m=30.30; mode=31.00; median=30.00		
18-21	6	4.1
22-25	24	16.6
26-29	35	24.1
30-33	45	31
34-37	12	8.3
38-44	22	15.2
Missing	1	0.7
# of Years attended formal education		
0-12	9	4.1
Post high school	12	16.6
2 year college	19	24.1
4 year university	41	31.0
Graduate school	64	8.3
Missing	1	0.7
Last Degree Obtained		
GED	1	0.7
High school diploma	29	20.0
Associate's Degree	12	8.3
Bachelor's Degree	52	35.9
Master's Degree	36	24.8
Doctoral	6	4.1
Missing	9	6.2

Table 4.1 continued*Demographic Characteristics of the Sample*

Variable	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent (%)</i>
Status of Employment		
More than 40 hours	36	24.8
Full time	75	51.7
Part time or less	32	22.1
Disabled	1	0.7
Missing	1	0.7
Income		
Less than \$24,999	33	22.8
\$25,000 to \$49,999	58	40.0
\$50,000 to \$74,999	27	18.6
\$75,000 to \$99,999	12	8.3
More than \$100,000	15	10.3
Race/Ethnicity		
African American/Black	133	91.7
Biracial/Multiracial	8	5.5
Other	4	2.8
Make of Family of Origin		
Blended family (Step-parent, step-brother, etc)	15	10.3
Nuclear (Mother and Father)	88	60.7
Single Parent: Mother	27	18.6
Single Parent: Father	4	2.8
Other	11	7.6
Marital Status		
Single	78	53.8
Married	55	37.9
Divorced	8	5.5
Separated	3	2.1
Widowed	1	0.7

Table 4.1 continued*Demographic Characteristics of the Sample*

Variable	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent (%)</i>
Current Living Arrangements		
Live alone	42	29.0
Roommate	20	13.8
Parent(s) or guardian	17	11.7
Significant other	66	45.5
Sexual Orientation		
Gay	5	3.4
Straight	139	95.9
Bi-Sexual	1	0.7
Have Children		
Yes	68	46.9
No	77	53.1
Child(ren) reside with participant <i>N</i> =68		
Yes	36	52.9
No	17	25.0
Half of the time	9	13.2
Some do	5	7.4
Missing	1	1.5
Romantically involved with mother of children		
Yes	32	47.1
No	25	36.7
Yes but my children have different mothers	7	10.3
No and my children have diff. mothers	4	5.9

Descriptive Statistical Analysis

Self-esteem.

Self-Esteem was measured using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem (RSE) (Rosenberg, 1965). Participants received a mean total score for the RSE scale. The mean total score for the RSE was 25.41 ($SD=4.04$) with a range from 13 to 30. More than 90 % of the men scored above the midpoint of 15, indicating the men had overall positive self-evaluations. Previous research found that across 53 nations, participants scored a mean of 23 with participants from the United States scoring 24 on average (Schmitt & Allik, 2005). Nearly 65% ($n=93$) of this sample scored above 24, indicating a higher than average level of self-satisfaction, in comparison to previous research.

To assess the internal consistency of the scale, coefficient alphas were examined. The coefficient alpha of the RSE Scale for this sample was .82, indicating that the RSE Scale exhibited a good internal reliability. Deleting any one item from the scale yielded little improvement in alpha. Tables 4.2 and 4.3 provide more detailed information about the self-esteem scores for this sample.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE)

Table 4.2			
<i>Subscale</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>
RSE Total	25.41	4.04	17

Additional Descriptive Statistics for RSE

Table 4.3		
<i>Category</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent (%)</i>
<i>Less than 15</i>		
(Low Self Satisfaction)	1	0.7
<i>Average 15-24</i>		
(Average Self Satisfaction)	51	35.2
<i>Higher than 24</i>		
(Higher than average Self Satisfaction)	93	65.1

Note. N=145.

Ethnic Identity.

Ethnic Identity was measured using the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) (Phinney, 1992). Previous research found that White, Hispanic, African American, and Asian American adults likely use similar conceptual frames when responding to the ethnic identity of the MEIM; thus this scale has been found to be a sufficient measure across racial and ethnic groups (Avery, Tonidandel, Thomas, Johnson, & Mack, 2007). Participants received a score on two subscales of the MEIM as well as a total score. Mean scores for the subscales were: Ethnic Identity Search, 3.89 (SD= .66) with a range from 1.80 to 5.00 and Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment, 4.46 (SD=.53) with a range from 2.98 to 5. The total mean score for the MEIM was 4.22 (SD=.53) with a range from 2.74 to 5.

The coefficient alpha of the total MEIM Scale for this sample was .87, indicating that the total MEIM Scale exhibited a good internal consistency. Alphas for search and affirmation were in the moderate and good range (e.g., .67 and .90, respectively). Table 4.4 provides information about the MEIM scores for this sample.

Multi-group Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM)

Table 4.4			
<i>Scale</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>
Search MEIM	3.89	0.66	3.2
Affirmation MEIM	4.46	0.53	2.02
Total MEIM	4.22	0.53	2.26

Note. N=145

Attachment.

Attachment was measured using the Kenney's Parental Attachment Scale, (PAQ; Kenney, 1965). Nearly 96% of the participants identified their biological mother as the maternal attachment figure. Almost 3% of the participants identified a stepmother or adoptive mother as their maternal attachment figure. Approximately 2.3% identified other as an attachment figure

(e.g. grandmother or aunt). Eighty-seven percent of the participants identified their biological fathers as a paternal attachment figure. Approximately seven percent identified a stepfather (6.1%) or adoptive father (.8%) as the paternal attachment figure. Six percent of the participants identified other as an attachment figure (e.g. grandfather or uncle). Participants received a score for each parent on three subscales of the PAQ. Mean scores for the subscales Mother and Father, respectively were as follows: Affective, 103.66 (SD= 27.03), 95.58 (SD=26.61); Autonomy Fostering, 56.00 (SD=10.30), 56.14 (SD= 9.95); and Support, 38.88 (SD=11.06), 35.33 (SD=11.87).

The coefficient alpha of each PAQ Scale for this sample was as follows: Affective, .90 and .93; Autonomy Fostering, .84 and .80; and Support, .75 and .81 (Mother and Father, respectively). These scores indicate that the PAQ Scale exhibited a good internal consistency. Deleting any one item from the scale yielded little improvement in alpha. Tables 4.5 provide more detailed information about the Attachment scores for this sample.

Parental Attachment Questionnaire (PAQ)

<i>Scale</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>
<i>Mother</i>	198.99	44.36	219
Affective (N=137)	103.66	27.03	120
Autonomy Fostering (N=135)	56	10.3	42
Support (N=137)	38.88	11.06	51
<i>Father</i>	187.89	47.8	226
Affective (N=135)	95.58	29.61	129
Autonomy Fostering (N=134)	56.14	9.95	42
Support (N=135)	35.33	11.87	56

Role of Father Questionnaire.

Perception of Parenting was measured using the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ; Palkovitz, 1980; McBride & Rane, 1994). The mean score for the ROFQ was 62.86 ($SD=4.44$) with a range from 49 to 75.

The coefficient alpha of the ROFQ Scale for this sample was .61, indicating that the ROFQ Scale exhibited an acceptable (moderate) internal consistency. Deleting any one item from the scale yielded little improvement in alpha. Table 4.6 provides more detailed information about the Perception of Parenting scores for this sample.

Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ)

Table 4.6			
<i>Scale</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>
ROFQ	62.86	4.44	26

Note. N=145

Basic Assumptions Regarding Multivariate Analysis continued...

Correlation matrices were used to determine whether multicollinearity, the final assumption of multivariate analysis, existed between the independent variables of the regression model will occur, a common practice is to examine the correlations between the variables for coefficients greater than or equal to .80 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). If multicollinearity occurs, particularly in studies with small sample sizes, it becomes more likely that a Type 1 error will occur. Variables with correlation values of the variables that exceed .80 indicate the assumption of multicollinearity has been violated.

To investigate the multicollinearity in the presence of the regression models of this study that employed more than one independent variable, Pearson Product Moment Correlations were calculated and examined for scores equal to or greater than .80. None of the correlation values were above .80 indicating the assumption of multicollinearity had not been violated. Table 4.7

illustrates the correlation matrices for the independent variables of Perception of Parenting, Ethnic Identity, Self-Esteem, and Attachment which are used to address several research question of this study.

Pearson Product Moment Correlations for Independent Variables Used in Research Questions

Table 4.7

<i>Variable</i>	<i>ROFQ</i>	<i>MEIM</i>	<i>RSE</i>	<i>Attachment Mother</i>	<i>Attachment Father</i>
ROFQ		0.206*	0.151	0.029	0.031
MEIM	0.206*		0.240*	-0.078	-0.077
RSE	0.151	0.240*		0.144	.238**
Attachment Mother	0.029	-0.078	0.144		.781**
Attachment Father	0.031	-0.077	.238**	.781**	

** $p < .01$ level (2 tailed).

* $p < .05$ level (2-tailed).

Analysis of Primary Research Questions and Hypotheses.

Research Question 1

To what extent do African American men's self-esteem and/or ethnic identity predict perception of parenting?

To examine the degree to which self-esteem and/or ethnic identity predicted perception of parenting each variable was entered into a multiple regression model as a predictor variable.

Null Hypothesis 1.1:

Self-esteem (RSE) will not significantly predict the perception of parenting as measured by the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ).

Null Hypothesis 1.2:

Ethnic Identity Search (Search MEIM) will not significantly predict the perception of parenting as measured by the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ).

Null Hypothesis 1.3:

Ethnic Identity Affirmation (Affirm MEIM) will not significantly predict the perception of parenting as measured by the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ).

Null Hypothesis 1.4:

Total MEIM sores will not significantly predict the perception of parenting as measured by the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ).

The regression model using these predictor variables yielded statistically significant results $F(4, 140) = 3.740$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .097$, and adjusted $R^2 = .071$. Table 4.8 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (**B**), standardized regression (*Beta*), t-value, significance and standard error for each of the predictor variables. Affirmation in Ethnic Identity contributed significantly to the prediction of perception of parenting. Altogether 9.7% (7.1% adjusted) of the variability of perception of parenting was predicted by knowing scores of the MEIM Affirmation. Refer to Table 4.7 for an illustration of statistically significant correlations for ethnic identity and the perception of parenting.

Regression analysis of significant predictor variable

Table 4.8					
<i>Variable</i>	<u>B</u>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>T</i>	<u>P</u>
Total MEIM	-15.147	7.91	-1.803	-1.915	0.058
Search MEIM	5.827	3.254	0.872	1.791	0.075
Affirm MEIM	11.272	4.839	1.343	2.329	0.021*
RSE	0.102	0.094	0.092	1.085	0.28

* $p < .05$

Research Question 2

What is the relationship between attachment and African American's perception of parenting?

A Pearson Product Moment correlation was conducted to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between Attachment and Perception of Parenting.

Null Hypothesis 2.1:

There will be no statistically significant relationship between attachment and perception of parenting as measured by the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ).

Pearson Product Moment correlation indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between attachment and perception of parenting. None of the correlations were significant, see Table 4.9. Based on this result, it is not possible to reject the null hypothesis for this research question, $p > .05$, not significant.

Pearson Product Moment Correlations for Attachment and Men's Role Identity as a Father

Variable	Pearson Correlation	Significance Value (p)
Mother Total	0.029	0.741
Affect	0.01	0.455
Autonomy	0.126	0.074
Support	0.054	0.268
Father Total	0.031	0.723
Affect	0.021	0.407
Autonomy	0.126	0.154
Support	0.064	0.233

Note. $N=134$ * $p < .05$

Research Question 3

To what degree does attachment predict self-esteem, ethnic identity, and/or the perception of parenting in African American men?

To examine the degree to which attachment predicts self-esteem, ethnic identity, and/or perception of parenting, multiple regression analyses were used. The predictor variable for this analysis was attachment. The criterion variables were self-esteem, ethnic identity, and role perception. Three separate analyses were conducted to address this research question.

Null Hypothesis 3.1:

Attachment as measured by the Parental Attachment Questionnaire (PAQ) will not significantly predict perception of parenting as measured by the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ).

Null Hypothesis 3.2:

Attachment as measured by the Parental Attachment Questionnaire (PAQ) will not significantly predict Ethnic Identity as measured by Multigroup Ethnic Identity Scale (MEIM).

Null Hypothesis 3.3:

Attachment as measured by the Parental Attachment Questionnaire (PAQ) will not significantly predict Self-Esteem as measured by the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSE).

The regression model using these predictor variables yielded statistically significant results, with $F(2, 132) = 4.208$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .060$, adjusted $R^2 = .046$. Table 4.10 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (**B**), standardized regression (*Beta*), t-value, significance and standard error for each of the predictor variables. The predictor variable, Father Parental Attachment contributed significantly to the prediction of Self-esteem. Altogether 6% (4.6% adjusted) of the variability of self-esteem was predicted by knowing scores of attachment.

Refer to Table 4.7 for an illustration of statistically significant correlations for attachment and self-esteem. Table 4.10 provides a summary of this analysis. This indicates that father parental attachment does predict self-esteem in participants. Thus the null hypothesis was rejected.

Regression analysis of attachment and criterion variables

Table 4.10

	<i>Variable</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>
Total Attachment Mother	ROFQ	0.001	0.014	0.013	0.094	0.925
	Total MEIM	-0.001	0.002	-0.085	-0.612	0.542
	RSE	-0.009	0.013	-0.094	-0.697	0.487
Total Attachment Father	ROFQ	0.002	0.013	0.021	0.147	0.883
	Total MEIM	0.000	0.002	-0.011	-0.076	0.939
	RSE	0.027	0.012	0.311	2.303	0.023*

* $p < .05$

Research Question 4

To what degree do demographic variables: age, having children, amount of education, income, and/or make up of family of origin predict perception of parenting?

To test this hypothesis, each variable: age, having children, amount of education, income, and/or make up of family of origin were entered into a multiple regression model as predictor variables. Role of Father Questionnaire was the criterion variable in this model.

Null Hypothesis 4.1:

Age will not significantly predict perception of parenting as measured by the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ).

Null Hypothesis 4.2:

Having children will not significantly predict the perception of parenting as measured by the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ).

Null Hypothesis 4.3:

Amount of education will not significantly predict the perception of parenting as measured by the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ).

Null Hypothesis 4.4:

Income will not significantly predict the perception of parenting as measured by the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ).

Null Hypothesis 4.5:

Make up of family of origin will not significantly predict the perception of parenting as measured by the Role of Father Questionnaire (ROFQ).

The regression model using these predictor variables yielded statistically significant results $R^2 = .121$, adjusted $R^2 = .089$, $F(5, 138) = 3.790$, $p < .01$. Table 4.12 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (**B**), standardized regression (*Beta*), t-value, significance and standard error for each of the predictor variables. The predictor variable, Having Children contributed significantly to the prediction of Perception of Parenting. Altogether 12.1% (8.9% adjusted) of the variability of perception of parenting was predicted by knowing scores of the predictor variables. Thus the null hypotheses were rejected.

Table 4.11 provides an illustration for the correlation of predictor variables of age, having children, education, income, and make up of family of origin and the criterion variable of Perception of parenting for Research Question 4 of this study.

Pearson Product Moment Correlations for Predictor and Criterion Variables Used in Research Question 4

Table 4.11		
<i>Variable</i>	<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	<i>Significance Value (p)</i>
Income	-0.076	0.181
Family of Origin	-0.118	0.079
Education	-0.78	0.175
Children	-0.26	0.001*
Age groups	-0.057	0.247

* $p < .05$

Regression analysis of demographic variables in Question 4

<i>Variable</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>
Income	-0.295	0.327	-0.081	-0.9	0.369
Family of Origin	-0.508	0.365	-0.112	-1.391	0.167
Education	0.12	0.317	0.033	0.38	0.705
Children	-3.198	0.815	-0.36	-3.923	0.00
Age groups	-0.576	0.301	-0.178	-1.915	0.058

* $p < .05$

Supplemental Data Analysis

T-Tests were ran to determine if there were any statistically significant differences between the means of the participants that had children (N=68) and did not have children (N=77) as well as participants who identified having father (or a father figure) (N=118) in their home versus not growing up with their father (or a father figure) (N=27). Leven's Test for Equity of Variances was computed with no significant differences being found. Therefore homogeneity of variance was assumed.

Results of the T-Test for participants who had children ($M = 64.1029$) versus not having children ($M=61.7662$) indicated a statistically significant mean difference in the role of father $t(143) = 3.300, p < .01$. Tables 4.13 provide more detailed information about the means and standard deviations for participants who have children versus who did not.

Independent Samples Test for Participants who did and did not have Children

Table 4.13									
<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>		<i>Std. Dev.</i>	<i>Mean</i>		<i>Std. Dev.</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	Have children			Do not have children					
ROFQ	64.1029	(N=68)	3.88698	61.7662	(N=77)	4.63651	3.264	143	0.001*
Total MEIM	4.2414	(N=68)	0.51069	4.2013	(N=77)	0.54709	0.455	143	0.650
RSE	25.3529	(N=68)	3.97291	25.4545	(N=77)	4.12485	-0.151	143	0.881
Attachment Mother	195.2308	(N=65)	48.24215	202.375	(N=72)	40.59225	-0.941	135	0.348
Attachment Father	187.9219	(N=64)	47.24247	187.859	(N=71)	48.6293	0.008	133	0.994

***p < .05**

Results of the T-Test for participants who resided with a father or father figure ($M = 194.56$) versus not residing with a father ($M = 155.39$) indicated a statistically significant mean difference in father parental attachment $t(133) = -3.766, p < .01$. Table 4.14 provides more detailed information about the means and standard deviations for participants who resided with a father figure growing up vs. those participants who did not.

The results of this study detailed the demographic variables that influenced perception of parenting in African American men and also provided information about the impact of self-esteem, ethnic identity, and attachment on the perception of parenting. In the next chapter, special attention will be given to the theoretical, empirical, and practical implications of the finding. Attention will also focus on the limitations of this study.

Independent Samples Test for Participants who did and did not have Father Figures in the Home

Table 4.14							
<i>Variable</i>	Mean	Std. Dev.	<i>Mean</i>	Std. Dev.	<i>T</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	Father (figure)		No Father (figure)				
ROFQ	64.1029 (N=118)	4.46735	62.2963 (N=27)	4.37488	-0.732	143	0.465
Total MEIM	4.2027 (N=118)	0.54693	4.2963 (N=27)	0.44237	0.829	143	0.409
RSE	25.6695 (N=118)	4.1655	24.2593 (N=27)	3.26511	-1.646	143	0.102
Attachment							
Mother	201.4464 (N=112)	43.7719	187.9600 (N=25)	46.22813	-1.379	135	0.170
Attachment							
Father	194.5625 (N=112)	45.67231	155.3913 (N=23)	45.38896	-3.750	133	0.000*

***p < .05**

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the psychological well being of men as well as parental attachment and contextual factors that may affect African American men's perception of parenting. Little research has described the route that boys take to the role as a father, nor has there been constructed a unified theory explaining the complex set of developmental process that give meaning to and shape the practice of fatherhood in African American men (Lamb, 1997; Tanfer & Mott, 1998). Similarly little is known about psychological factors that contribute to men's understanding of what it means to be a father, in general.

Given the importance of identity to healthy development, psychologists should consider these factors when working with men. By conducting a study of this nature, it was the hope of this investigator to critically examine African American men's psychological factors from a strengths (as opposed to a deficit) perspective. Psychologists tend to underscore the importance of identity and belonging as a means of achieving psychological well being and acceptance (Day-Vines, Patton, & Baytops, 2003). This research aimed to specifically investigate aspects of ethnic identity, the influence of self-esteem, and the effect of parental attachment on African American men's perception of parenting. The research questions that were proposed in this study were: (a) To what extent do African American men's self-esteem and/or ethnic identity predict perception of parenting?; (b) What is the relationship between attachment and African American men's perception of parenting?; (c) To what degree does attachment predict self-esteem ,ethnic identity, and/or perception of parenting in African American men?; and (d) To what degree do

demographic variables: age, having children, amount of education, income, and/or make up of family of origin predict perception of parenting?

The final sample for the study consisted of 145 participants. Descriptive analysis (based on comparison of means) indicated that the participant sample included mostly self identified, heterosexual, African American/Black men in their 30's, with at least an undergraduate level of education and a bachelor's degree. Most were employed full time, earning at least or more than \$25,000. Most participants identified their family of origin as consisting of both a mother and father, what has traditionally been termed a nuclear family. Most participants identified as single yet living with a significant other without any children. Most of the participants that identified having children (n=68) reported that their children currently reside with them and that they were romantically involved with the mother of their children.

To address Research Question 1, multiple regression analyses were conducted using self-esteem and/or ethnic identity as predictor variables and perception of parenting as the criterion variable. The analysis for this regression model yielded significant results suggesting that ethnic identity would be effective in predicting the perception of parenting in African American men. Self-esteem did not yield a significant result suggesting that self-esteem would not be effective in predicting the perception of parenting in African American men.

To address Research Question 2, a Pearson Product Moment correlation was conducted to determine whether there was statistically significant relationship between attachment and perception of parenting. None of the correlations in this analysis yielded significance values lower than the .05 level suggesting there was no statistically significant relationship between attachment and perception of parenting in African American men.

Research Question 3 was addressed through the use of three separate multiple regression analyses to determine the degree to which attachment predicted self-esteem, ethnic identity, and/or perception of parenting. Results of the ethnic identity multiple regression indicated that attachment did not significantly predict ethnic identity. Likewise, the results of the perception of parenting multiple regression suggested that attachment did not significantly predict perception of parenting. However, the results of the self-esteem multiple regression analysis indicated that attachment, specifically father parental attachment did significantly impact self-esteem as measured specifically by the Rosenberg Self-esteem. The correlation coefficient for the attachment and self-esteem was below the .01 level of significance.

To address Research Question 4, multiple regression analyses were conducted using age groups, having children, amount of education, income, and make-up of family of origin as predictor variables and perception of parenting as the criterion variable. The analyses for this regression model did not yield significant results for amount of education, income, age, and make up of family of origin suggesting that these variables would not be effective in predicting perception of parenting. However, having children did significantly impact perception of parenting. The correlation coefficient for having children was below the .01 level of significance.

Also, it is to be noted there were statistically significant differences in the means. Men who reported residing with a father or father figure indicated having a higher mean in father parental attachment than men who reported not having a father in the home. Men who had children reported a higher mean in their perception of parenting than men who do not have children.

Discussion of Findings

Findings indicated that the overall and subscales of the attachment questionnaire, self-esteem scale, the overall and affirmation scales on the MEIM were highly reliable for the sample; however the ethnic identity search and the role of father questionnaire only had adequate reliability. Lower overall Cronbach Alpha may indicate the existence of latent constructs. It is possible there is more ambivalence regarding ethnic identity search and the role of father questionnaire, thus the results are interpreted with care. It is also possible the reliability scores may have resulted from random guessing.

In addressing the original research questions proposed in the present research it is important to note the findings that were significant as well as those that were not, as each result provided meaningful information for the researcher in addressing the issue of father role identity in African American men.

Does self-esteem predict perception of parenting? Results from this study indicated that self-esteem was not a predictor of perception of parenting in this study. This means a participant's could have a higher or lower level of self-esteem and then reported feeling the father's role was at least moderately important to a child's development.

This variable was selected for inclusion in this model based on findings from a study conducted by Terrell (2005) in which he found a sample of African American middle class men to indicate a high correlation between self-esteem and ethnic identity when considering role identity, using the Rosenberg Self-esteem scale, Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) and the Adult-Adolescent Parenting Index (AAPI-2, 2001). Terrell's findings suggested that self-esteem impacted parental role identity in individuals. However, this hypothesis was not supported in this study.

There are several possible reasons why the result of this analysis may not have been significant. A possible explanation is that all participants were asked to rate their general feelings about themselves on the Rosenberg Self-esteem scale. While the Role of Father Questionnaire explored an overall view of perception of parenting and did not specifically measure the participant's view of self involvement with a child. The questions on the Self-Esteem scale were specific to the participant's view of self without the assumption of role identity. Consequently, participants may feel good about themselves without considering the impact of fathering. Participants may feel self-satisfied as they are now; however, when they assess their own actual ability to be a father their overall view of self may not be as fulfilled. More than half of the participants were not fathers. It is possible that participants' general feelings about themselves may change if they were fathers and had additional responsibilities.

Another possible explanation, as noted earlier, the results of Role of Father scale may have resulted from random guessing due to the fact that more than half of the participants have not been exposed to the role of father. Thus, the participants may have responded to this particular scale with the most desirable answer when considering a father's impact in a child's life (Paulhus, 1984). However, this appears unlikely given the strong reliability of all other scales used in this study.

Future research could include the creation of a perception of parenting measure that specifically measures the participants own experience or capability of being a father. A longitudinal study could allow for an examination of the challenges and accomplishments in life in African American men and how it affects self-esteem while considering an important role as a father.

Does ethnic identity predict perception of parenting? Results indicated that ethnic identity was a predictor of father role identity. Specifically high incidences of ethnic identity affirmation, feeling positively about their ethnic group membership, could suggest African American men have a stronger perception of parenting. It is possible participants having a higher ethnic identity creates a need to want to be more involved in their child (ren)'s life in hopes of influencing the relationship and contexts that surround their children (Sameroff, 1975). This finding is supported by ethnic research that found ethnic identity and cultural learning experiences to contribute to a father's attitudes toward parenting (Terrell, 2005).

It is also possible that participants felt a deeper connection to their community and therefore would like to believe they can have an impact on their children to ensure they too are proud of the community. The sense of community can be seen as a sanctuary from the world (Burton, Winn, Stevenson, & Clark, 2004). Considering the general climate that may be occurring with the nation's first African American president it is possible that the participants exhibit a stronger sense of belonging within their ethnic group impacting the want to be present in their children's lives to encourage the concept of belonging to something bigger than themselves, a community.

Is there a relationship between attachment and perception of parenting? Results from this study indicated that there was not a relationship between attachment and perception of parenting. Surprisingly results indicated that attachment was not a predictor of perception of parenting as evidenced from a multiple regression. Thus the result from the research question that asked does attachment predict perception of parenting was not significant. This means that a participant may have indicated having higher or lower levels of attachment to their mother and/or father and then reported feeling the father's role to a child development was at least moderately important.

This variable was selected for inclusion in this model based on theoretical beliefs that the quality of early parent-child interactions is likely to shape expectations regarding attachment security (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) and role identity (Bryan, 1992). Additionally, findings from a qualitative study conducted by Coles (2001) on single African American middle class men found that the participants believed that their parents, specifically their mother impacted them the most when it came to their ability to be a good parent.

Theoretically, sensitive and responsive parenting in one's childhood should not only result in a mental model of secure attachment relationships but also serve as an observable model for parenting one's own children (Sroufe & Fleeson, 1988). Thus, this researcher hypothesized that positive or negative parental attachment histories can either promote or undermine a sense of efficacy in becoming or being a parent. This hypothesis was not supported.

It is interesting that the present research found no significant relationship between attachment and perception of parenting. One explanation that a statistically significant correlation was not found for parental attachment and parenting perception may be explained by the impact of other sources that may serve as role models of parenting (e.g. media). Further exploration into what or who men may consider as influential in their development of ideas of what it means to be a parent may be beneficial in understanding how these ideas are developed. Future research may examine whether the use of internet or media or other factors are serving as models for African American men forming perception of parenting.

It is also possible important to remember as noted earlier, the responses on the Role of Father scale may have resulted from random guessing and/or social desirability. Future studies may be advised to include a measure of social desirability to test this hypothesis.

Does attachment predict self-esteem or ethnic identity? Results from this study indicated that attachment was a predictor of self-esteem but not for ethnic identity. This means that a participant may have indicated having higher or lower levels of attachment to their mother and/or father and then reported having at least a moderate connection to their ethnic identity. While participants who scored higher on the parental attachment scale tended to score higher on the self-esteem scale.

Parental attachment relationships are frequently used to account for numerous adjustment outcomes in youth and young adults. In general, studies have indicated individuals who report higher levels of attachment security-supportive and loving parents, who also encourage autonomy, tend to report higher levels of well-being across psychological and emotional domains (Love, Tyler, Garriott, Thomas, Brown, & Roan-Belle, 2009). It is possible the lack of African American's involved in these studies may create a false generalization to this population.

Another possible explanation may be explained by the effectiveness of the MEIM's scale with this sample. This scale was chosen to identify self-identification as a group member, a sense of belonging, and attitudes toward one's own ethnic group (Phinney, 1991). However, only a few studies have examined the scale's measurement equivalence across racial and ethnic groups or adult populations (Spencer, Icard, Harachi, Catalano, & Oxford, 2000; Yancey, Aneshensel, & Driscoll, 2001). This may indicate the measure may not accurately assess African American men's ethnic identity also indicating previous samples may not be generalizable to this sample.

This lack of influence on ethnic identity may be explained by negligible differences in family relationships in African American cultures. Research has show that many African Americans adhere to a more collectivistic and communal family structure that emphasizes stronger parent child bonds than do their European-American counterparts (e.g., Harrison,

Wilson, Pine, Chan, & Buriel, 1990). This may indicate there are possible variables other than attachment that better predict ethnic identity such as economic status, class, and achievement.

Does age, having children, amount of education, income, and/or make up of family of origin predict perception of parenting? Results indicated that out of all the listed demographic variables, having children was the only predictor of perception of parenting. This means that any age, any amount of education, any amount of income, and a variety make up of the family of origin resulted in at least a moderate level of importance of having a father involved, while remembering that the results of Role of Father scale may have resulted from random guessing and/or social desirability. There may be other explanations.

This result is somewhat supported by research by Bryan (1992) that found that saliency of role perception among African American fathers may be more related to immediate, concrete circumstances such as actually having children in this study. Additionally, Bryan (1992) found that age and education were not influential factors on the father role perception though income and employment were. Thus, given that the majority of the men in this sample have jobs and are living within a middle class or higher socioeconomic status it is possible that there was not any perceived threat or feelings of incompetence regarding being a parent, since level of income has been proven to be predictive of males' perception of being a father. Future investigators should be sensitive to cultural variations in family patterns and individual characteristics as this researcher intended. Mental health workers should adjust their conceptualizations about family relationships and their sampling strategies accordingly.

This researcher had a diverse sample of African American men from across the United States, with varying degrees of relationships with their significant others. The availability of the sample could have affected the outcomes of the present research. Because the researcher used a

convenience sample of participants who were somewhat aware of the purpose of the research (the language was changed to make the research topic seem broader), participant sample might not have been as generalizable as intended. Also, because the ROFQ has not been normed on an African American male sample, results are interpreted with that in mind. Future research could include a more efficient manner in which to recruit the research sample so that possibly different relationship, socioeconomic, and other demographic variables can be observed.

Limitations

First, the present study looked at men with and without children. In depth information from fathers themselves may help to shed light on role perceptions that occur with being a father. It is likely the sample of men in this study had varying developmental experiences that may have affected the results of this study (e.g. fathers, husbands, students, workers) and historical experiences (e.g., some experiential knowledge of the sociopolitical climate of the 1970's and 1960's).

Second, this study was also affected by the selection of assessment tools. Some of the instruments in this study were very lengthy, which appeared to be a deterrent to some participants in completing them. Either fewer instruments or shorter instruments may increase the likelihood that participants would participate and complete the research packet. Tools for exploring the experiences of fathers particularly, African American populations are not as fully developed and therefore not as actively tested for validity and reliability. Improving upon and utilizing culturally sensitive instruments that have been normed on African American men is recommended for the cultural and specific characteristic variables that are unique to this population.

Third, a quantitative research design may not adequately examine experiences of men of color, as the self report survey format may be limiting in exploring the wide range of social and psychological factors involved in role identity. The researcher suggests that self-report questionnaires do not always adequately measure role identity and attachment, specifically.

Also, an internet survey may inherently draw a slightly higher SES group of participants. According to the 2009 census, 45 % of black households do not have any internet access at home. It appears that only 68% of African Americans have internet access from outside locations (<http://www.census.gov/hhes/computer/publications/2009.html>).

This researcher chose to use an ethnicity scale, but other scales are also available (including the widely used Cross Racial Identity Scale), and it is unknown if the results would have been different. However, the MEIM scale and the Cross scale have been highly correlated in previous studies. Phinney's model is helpful in identifying very real triggers for consciousness and in outlining threats to ethnic self-concept, which was central to this study. However, it is still missing a discussion of the critical and positive aspect of immersion into one's own culture. Cross's model may have been helpful in outlining racial identity as a dynamic progression, as influenced by individuals within a particular ethnic group as well as those outside it, and in acknowledging ethnocentric and multicultural frames (Chavez & DiBrito, 1995).

Lastly, participants were not randomly sampled from a population of Black men from 18 to 44, thus introducing potential sample bias. That is, participants were volunteers from the settings sampled and may have responded differently to questions than Black men age 18 to 44 that were randomly sampled.

Implications of the Limitations on Present and Future Research

Despite this study's limitations, the present findings provide some novel insight into understanding and working with African American men individually or within a family. The results suggest that mental health professionals need to understand how African American men view themselves to better understand potential stressors for African American men. That is, clinicians need to assess how psychological and contextual factors of African American men may affect patterns of thought, behavior, and functioning which when compared to normative samples may be construed as deficient or deviant.

Culturally responsive counseling practices require an ethic of understanding and care as well. Culturally responsive counseling may consist of the inclusion of diverse perspectives into the counseling process in a manner that validates and affirms individuals from marginalized groups and recognizes the contextual factors of race, culture, class, gender, religion, sexual orientation, and geography (Day-Vines, Patton, & Baytops, 2003).

Further, the results support a concordance between attachment and self-esteem, contextual variables and the perception of parenting, as well as ethnic identity and the perception of parenting. This is supported by understanding values in African American communities. Many of the cultural values in African American communities originated in West Africa (Holloway, 1990). Often times within non-Western cultures, some European American cultural values and African American values differ. Many African Americans, with traditional worldviews, embrace values such as the significance of the collective over the individual, kinship and affiliation, and extended families (Asante & Gudykunst, 1989; Nobles, 1991). It is often the case African Americans that are of middle class status tend to incorporate mainstream European American cultural perspectives as well as from their own culture. Considering this dynamic it is important

that counseling psychologists consider the implications of cultural values, role and ethnic identity that impact psychological well being and acceptance.

Recommendations

It is recommended that future research in this area employ more qualitative methods of data collection as it appears that attachment or the perception of parenting may not be captured by quantitative methods. The research would suggest the utilization of focus groups for African American men.

Future research could include a more detailed look at the intersection of the other demographic variables such as region, student status, religion/ spirituality. Examining these variables will allow for a more extensive examination of cultural and contextual barriers that may impact African American men's worldviews.

Additionally, increasing African American fathers' participation in research on children and family processes and increasing the specificity of measurement on father perception is important.

Lastly, future research could focus specifically on African American men's previous experience of counseling, their likelihood to utilize counseling services as well as feelings towards counseling. This will aid in understanding what possible modalities may be beneficial for reaching this population that many times neglects or avoids the utilization of mental health services.

Implications for Counseling

Considering the complex interaction of attachment, self-esteem, and identities counseling psychologists should be cognizant of these possible concerns that may be affecting their African American male clients. Many African American men do not seek counseling however, issues of

race and social class may still be embedded in presenting problems. Psychologists should be challenged not to partake in the primarily negative stereotypes that are presented in the media and perpetuated in society about African American men but instead consider the many aspects of his being (King, 2004). Allowing for a safe space to explore feelings, concerns, perceptions and possibly even confront issues of social injustice which many times plague minority individuals, are important in creating a safe place for these African American men to process concerns.

These findings highlight the need to consider men's roles from functional and cultural perspectives rather than relying solely on reports of men's deficits. This research will hopefully impact practitioners' fundamental knowledge and increase appreciation of African American men's experiences thus allowing the opportunity to create specialized training that enables students to reach African American males through outreach or counseling specific therapeutic interventions. The emphasis on actualizing the strengths of African American men rather than identifying internal or cultural deficits as the source of role dysfunction is important to enhance and promote a healthy context and environment for growth and progression in counseling.

The traditional methods of increasing self awareness by psychotherapy and counseling must be supplemented by systematic and structural instruction about the nature and acceptance of self. Having a broader understanding of what constructs contribute to African American men self concept is important for reaching a population that has many times been generalized or analyzed from a normed population that does not resemble themselves. With the ongoing increase in knowledge and theory, psychologists and counselor alike can provide more effective interventions to the African American family and in particular African American men.

The African American population is special because of the given embeddedness of racism and discrimination in our society, counseling psychologists may need to perform

alternative roles as advocates and change agents in which they work within the system to institute changes in practices and or climate of individual counseling (Sue & Sue, 2003). Counseling centers, community agencies, etc. can implement seminars or ongoing continuing education to focus on issues of diversity, advocacy, and effective psychological interventions that specifically focus on helping African American men develop effective coping skills within a systemic framework.

Parham and McDavis (1993) recommended that forums such as support groups be developed that will assist “African American men work through issues related to stress.” (p. 97). Support groups have been found to be beneficial as primary, secondary, and tertiary forms of prevention for emotional stressors (Gutierrez-Mayaka, Garcia & Boyd, 1993). Creating groups that allow for African American men to process similar concerns with other African American men is encouraged by these findings. Group counseling will not only allow for men to process their individual and collective experiences but also help learn coping strategies and feel less isolated. This mode of counseling allows for communal dynamics that are valued among African Americans (Ford, 1997).

In summary, the results from this study provide some support for the contention that there are some psychological and demographic factors that concur with the perception of parenting in African American men. This study may have been helpful in reducing the assumption that African American men do not have positive relationships with their fathers or father figures. Additionally, because the study consisted of a mainly middle to upper class African American men the findings provide a broader view of the African American community in which research has many times only focused on the deficits. This study was an attempt to observe this population where they are and try to create a better paradigm to understand the characteristics of

a people that has many times been marginalized and underserved through examining possible antecedents and determinants of behavior.

A counseling psychologist who has some familiarity with the specific and unique issues that concern African American men, is better prepared to listen empathically, recognize the relationships between self-esteem, ethnic identity, attachment and role perception, and are less like to discount or unintentionally avoid prominent features of African American men's lives.

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APPENDIX A

Dear Contact Person,

Thank you for agreeing to help me collect data for my dissertation entitled “Psychological Factors that Influence African American Men’s Perceptions of Parenting.” Your assistance is truly appreciated!

In this package, you will find a letter to prospective participants describing the study, a prepaid postage envelope for return mailing of the survey packets. (I have included a few more in addition to the number that you indicated. Please send complete and incomplete surveys back).

Additionally, you will find a list of frequently asked questions that may be useful to you when you administer the survey packets. Any questions beyond those listed should be directed to me. Below you will find a list of your responsibilities as a contact person.

1. Participants may have the enclosed “Letter to Participants Describing the Study.”
(Participants should be African American Men 18-44 years of age—*they do not have to be fathers*).
2. **After participants have signed the included consent form.** Allow an approximate 15 minute block of time for them to complete the survey packets (including demographic sheet, MEIM, Attachment, Father Questionnaire, Self-Esteem). *Please ensure the surveys have been filled out completely.*
3. Direct any difficult questions about the surveys or the research from the participants to my email address study4men09@gmail.com if necessary.
4. Collect completed survey packets and the consent forms.
5. Mail all packets (including the completed and incomplete surveys and consent forms) to me by **December 10, 2009** to the following address using the provided postage and envelope:

Timika Edwards

251 North Roadrunner Pkwy Apt. 1703

Las Cruces, NM 88011

If you have any questions about your role as the contact person, please do not hesitate to contact me at tsedwar7@uga.edu. *If participants have questions they may email me at Study4men09@gmail.com.* I appreciate your help in investigating this important topic.

Sincerely,

Frequently Asked Questions

Do I need to write my name on any of the instruments in the survey packet?

No, your name should not be placed on any of the instruments in order to protect your anonymity.

Will someone be able to figure out which survey is mine?

Unless you write your name on the instruments, there will be no way to identify which instruments are yours. The purpose of this study is not to single out individual responses but rather to get a collective view about role perceptions in African American men.

Can I select more than one answer for some of the questions?

Unless it specifically states that you can choose more than one answer for a question, please do not do so. Please just answer the question with the response that you feel best captures your thoughts or experiences.

Will it be possible for me to find out the results of this study?

If you would like a summary of the results of this study, please email the researcher at Study4men09@gmail.com and let her know that you have participated in the study and would like to be notified of the results. The researcher will keep a list of email addresses, and a summary of the results will be emailed to you.

APPENDIX B

Email Announcement

Dear African American Males between the ages of 18 and 44,

If you have not already completed a survey, please help me collect data for my dissertation by completing a survey on "Psychological Factors that Influence African American Men's Perceptions of Parenting" by clicking on the link provided below. Also by completing the survey you have the opportunity to enter a raffle for a \$25 gift card for use at Barnes and Noble or Best Buy. The raffle will be held in March 2010 once I have completed data collection. I would really appreciate your help. The survey should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. The survey is confidential. Please email me if you have any questions or concerns.

Please send the link to other African American men between the ages of 18 and 44 as well!

<http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/D6CPPNS>

Sincerely,
Timika S. Edwards, M. A.
Ph.D. Candidate, Counseling Psychology
The University of Georgia
Department of Counseling and Human Development
Study4men09@gmail.com

APPENDIX C

Letter to Participants Describing the Study

Dear Participant,

Please assist me in completing my dissertation by participating in a study entitled “Psychological Factors that Influence African American Men’s Perceptions of Parenting.” The purpose of this study is to examine the relationships between role perceptions and the various aspects of psychological wellbeing including self-esteem, ethnic identity, and parental attachment. Through participation in this study, you may be offering information that will be useful in developing quality counseling interventions and specialized research for African American men and families.

If you are interested in participating in this study, your contact person or I will arrange a date and time for you to complete the survey packet or complete the online survey. It will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please feel free to contact me at study4men09@gmail.com. Your assistance with this project is valued!

You may be entered into a drawing with an email that should contain only your name and email address for a \$25 gift card for use at a Barnes & Noble Bookstore or Best Buy. This email should not contain any information about your responses to the survey so that there will be no links between you and the information you provided in the survey. No participation is necessary.

Sincerely,

Timika S. Edwards, M.A.
Ph.D. Candidate, Counseling Psychology
The University of Georgia
(314) 609-7735
Study4men09@gmail.com

APPENDIX D

Psychological Factors of African American Men

This research study hopes to examine the social, psychological, and contextual factors that influence the role perceptions of African-American men, a population that has been neglected in previous research. If you understand the statements and freely consent to participate in the study please sign below.

Consent Form

The research study is being conducted by Timika S. Edwards, M.A. and is supervised by Dr. Edward Delgado-Romero of the University of Georgia. No deception is involved, and the study involves no known risk. All responses are treated as confidential. There will be no names associated with the questionnaires and individual participants will not be identified.

Participation in the study typically takes 15 minutes and is confidential. Participants begin by meeting with principle investigator or contact person individually to discuss and sign consent form. A packet containing the demographic form and four questionnaires will be given at time of consent. Completion of the form and questionnaires will take approximately 15 minutes and packet including the demographic form and four questionnaires will be returned to the investigator or contact persons.

Many individuals find participation in this study enjoyable and a valuable way to contribute to the field of positive psychology. Additionally, you have the opportunity to enter yourself into a raffle for a \$25 gift card for use at a Barnes & Noble Bookstore or Best Buy. The raffle will occur after all research packets have been collected by the researcher. Participation is voluntary, refusal to take part in the study involves no penalty, and participants may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

If you are interested in participating in the raffle, sending an email to Timika Edwards at study4men09@gmail.com, after you have returned the packet of information. This email should contain only your name and email address so that you can be entered into the raffle. This email should not contain any information about your responses to the survey so that there will be no links between you and the information you provided in the survey. No participation is necessary.

The investigator will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project. Participants may contact the principal investigator, Timika Edwards, at study4men09@gmail.com; Professor Edward Delgado-Romero, Training Director of the Counseling Psychology program, Department of Counseling and Human Development Services, at (706) 542-1812. Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu.

If you understand the statements above, and freely consent to participate, sign and date below.

 Name

 Date

APPENDIX E

Study4Men Demographic Form

1. Age _____ Date of Birth _____

2. Total number of years attended in formal education

- a. 0-12
- b. Post High School
- c. Post 2 year College
- d. Post 4 year University
- e. Post Graduate Degree

If applicable last degree obtained:

GED, High School Diploma, Associate's, Bachelor's, Specialists, Master's, Doctoral

3. Status of employment:

- a. employed
- b. unemployed
- c. disabled
- d. retired

If employed please circle hours worked:

Full Time 40 hours, Part time less than 40 hours, Over-time more than 40 hours

4. More than one job

- a. Yes
- b. No

5. Income

- a. Less Than \$24000.
- b. \$25000 To \$49999.
- c. \$50000 To \$74999.
- d. \$75000 To \$99999.
- e. >\$100000

6. Race/Ethnicity

- a. African American/Black
- b. Biracial/Multiracial
- c. Other _____

7. Make up of family of origin (family life while growing up)

- a. Blended (step-parent, step brother, etc.)
- b. Nuclear (Mom & Father)
- c. Single Parent: Mother or Father (Circle one)
- d. Other: _____

_____ # of siblings total _____ # of siblings you lived with

8. Marital Status
 - a. Single
 - b. Married
 - c. Divorced
 - d. Separated
 - e. Widowed

9. Current Living Arrangements
 - a. Live Alone
 - b. live with a roommate
 - c. live with parent(s)
 - d. live with a significant other

10. Sexual Orientation
 - a. Gay
 - b. Straight
 - c. Bi-sexual
 - d. Other _____

10. Do you have children?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

If Applicable answer the next three questions:

11. Do your children live with you?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Half of the time
 - d. Some children , some do not
 - e. Other: _____

12. Are you romantically involved with the mother of your child(ren)?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Yes but I have other children from previous relationships
 - d. No and my children have different mothers

13. How do you consider the relationship with your child(ren)'s mother:
 - a. Good
 - b. Manageable
 - c. Hostile
 - d. We do not communicate

If more than one please describe each relationship with the above choices

APPENDIX F

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)

Instructions: Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. If you strongly agree, circle **SA**. If you agree with the statement, circle **A**. If you disagree, circle **D**. If you strongly disagree, circle **SD**.

- | | | | | |
|---|----|---|---|----|
| 1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 2. At times, I think I am no good at all. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 4. I am able to do things as well as most other people. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 6. I certainly feel useless at times. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 7. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 8. I wish I could have more respect for myself. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 10. I take a positive attitude toward myself. | SA | A | D | SD |

APPENDIX G

Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM)

In this country, people come from many different countries and cultures, and there are many different words to describe the different backgrounds or ethnic groups that people come from. Some examples of the names of ethnic groups are Hispanic or Latino, Black or African American, Asian American, Chinese, Filipino, American Indian, Mexican American, Caucasian or White, Italian American, and many others. These questions are about your ethnicity or your ethnic group and how you feel about it or react to it. Use the numbers below to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

(5) Strongly agree (4) Agree (3) Neutral (2) Disagree (1) Strongly disagree

- 1- I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs. _____
- 2- I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group. _____
- 3- I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means for me. _____
- 4- I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership. _____
- 5- I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to. _____
- 6- I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group. _____
- 7- I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.
- 8- In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic group. _____
- 9- I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group. _____
- 10- I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs. _____
- 11- I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group. _____
- 12- I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background. _____
- 13- My ethnicity is _____
 - (1) Asian or Asian American, including Chinese, Japanese, and others
 - (2) Black or African American
 - (3) Hispanic or Latino, including Mexican American, Central American, and others
 - (4) White, Caucasian, Anglo, European American; not Hispanic
 - (5) American Indian/Native American
 - (6) Mixed; Parents are from two different groups
 - (7) Other (write in): _____
- 14- My father's ethnicity is (use numbers above) _____
- 15- My mother's ethnicity is (use numbers above) _____

APPENDIX H

Role of the Father Questionnaire (ROFQ)-Adapted (McBride& Rane, 1996)

For the following items place the letter that indicates your feelings in the blank. Use the scale below.

- 1 = agree strongly
 2 = agree moderately
 3 = neither agree or disagree
 4 = disagree moderately
 5 = disagree strongly
-

1. It is essential for the child's well being that fathers spend time interacting and playing with their children.

1 2 3 4 5
2. It is difficult for men to express tender and affectionate feelings toward children.

1 2 3 4 5
3. Fathers play a central role in the child's personality development.

1 2 3 4 5
4. The responsibilities of fatherhood never overshadow the joys.

1 2 3 4 5
5. Fathers are able to enjoy children more when the children are older and don't require so much care.

1 2 3 4 5
6. Children are generally able to sense an adult's moods and feelings. For example, a child can tell when you are angry.

1 2 3 4 5
7. Children are affected by adults' moods and feelings. For example, if you are angry he/she may feel hurt.

1 2 3 4 5
8. The most important thing a man can invest time and energy into his family.

1 2 3 4 5
9. A father should be as heavily involved in the care of a child as the mother is.

1 2 3 4 5
10. Mothers are naturally more sensitive caregivers than fathers are.

1 2 3 4 5
11. Even when a child is very young it is important for a father to set a good example for his child.

1 2 3 4 5

12. It is as important for a father to meet his child's psychological needs as it is for the mother to do so.

1 2 3 4 5

13. It is important to respond quickly to a child each time it cries.

1 2 3 4 5

14. The way a father treats his child in the first six months has important life-long effects on the child.

1 2 3 4 5

15. All things considered, fatherhood is a highly rewarding experience.

1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX I

Parental Attachment

This questionnaire asks you about your mother and father (past or present). If you have more than one (1) mother and one (1) father, think about the mother and father to whom you feel closest (if a parent is deceased think about what it was like when they were living).

M		F		
In the first column (marked M) I am thinking about my:		In the second column (marked F) I am thinking about my:		
___ 1. biological mother		___ 1. biological father		
___ 2. stepmother		___ 2. stepfather		
___ 3. adopted mother		___ 3. adopted father		
___ 4. foster mother		___ 4. foster father		
___ 5. other (please write-in)		___ 5. other (please write-in)		
___ 6. I will not be answering this column because I don't have a mother.		___ 6. I will not be answering this column because I don't have a father.		
1	2	3	4	5
Not at All (0-10%)	Somewhat (11-35%)	A Moderate Amount (36-65%)	Quite A Bit (66-90%)	Very Much (91-100%)

In general, my mother/father.....**M / F****M / F**

___/___ 1. is someone I can count on to listen to me when I feel upset.

___/___ 14. has no idea what I am feeling or thinking.

___/___ 2. supports my goals and interests.

___/___ 15. lets me try new things out and learn on my own.

___/___ 3. sees the world differently than I do.

___/___ 4. understands my problems and concerns.

M/F

___/___ 5. respects my privacy.

___/___ 6. limits my independence.

___/___ 7. gives me advice when I ask for it.

___/___ 8. takes me seriously.

___/___ 9. likes me to make my own decisions.

___/___ 10. criticizes me.

___/___ 11. tells me what to think or how to feel.

___/___ 12. gives me attention when I want it.

___/___ 13. is someone I can talk to about anything.

(go to next column)

___/___ 16. is too busy to help me.

___/___ 17. has trust and confidence in me.

M/F

___/___ 18. tries to control my life.

___/___ 19. protects me from danger and difficulty.

___/___ 20. ignores what I have to say.

___/___ 21. Is sensitive to my feelings and needs.

___/___ 22. Is disappointed in me.

___/___ 23. Gives me advice whether or not I want it.

___/___ 24. respect my decisions, even if they don't agree.

___/___ 25. does things for me which I would rather do for myself.

___/___ 26. Is someone whose expectations I feel I have to meet.

___/___ 27. treats me like a younger child.

(Go to next section)

1	2	3	4	5
Not at All (0-10%)	Somewhat (11-35%)	A Moderate Amount (36-65%)	Quite A Bit (66-90%)	Very Much (91-100%)

During time spent together, my mother/father was someone...

M / F

___/___ 28. I looked forward to seeing

___/___ 29. with whom I argued.

M / F

___/___ 35. Who made me feel guilty and anxious.

___/___ 36. I liked telling about what I have done recently.

___/___ 30. With whom I felt comfortable.

___/___ 37. for whom I felt feelings of love.

___/___ 31. who made me angry.

___/___ 38. I tried to ignore.

___/___ 32. I wanted to be with all the time.

___/___ 39. to whom I told my most personal thoughts and feelings.

___/___ 33. towards whom I felt cool and distant.

___/___ 40. I liked being with.

___/___ 34. Who got on my nerves.

___/___ 41. I didn't want to tell what has been going on in my life.

(Go to next column)

1	2	3	4	5
Not at All (0-10%)	Somewhat (11-35%)	A Moderate Amount (36-65%)	Quite A Bit (66-90%)	Very Much (91-100%)

Following time spent together, I leave my mother/father...

M/F

M/F

___/___ 42. With warm and positive feelings.

___/___ 43. feeling let down and disappointed.

(Go to next column)

When I have a serious problem or an important decision to make...

M F

M F

___/___ 44. I look to my parent for help.

___/___ 48. I talk it over with a friend (instead of my parent).

___/___ 45. I go to a therapist, school counselor, or clergy (priest, rabbi or minister) (instead of my parent).

___/___ 49. I know that my family will know what I should do.

___/___ 46. I think about what (my parent) might say.

___/___ 50. I ask my family for help if my friends can't help.

___/___ 47. I work it out on my own, without help from anyone (including my parent).

(Go to next column)

1	2	3	4	5
Not at All (0-10%)	Somewhat (11-35%)	A Moderate Amount (36-65%)	Quite A Bit (66-90%)	Very Much (91-100%)

When I go to my mother /father for help...

M F

___/___ 51. I feel more sure of my ability to handle the problems on my own.

___/___ 52. I continue to feel unsure of myself.

___/___ 53. I feel that I would have gotten more understanding from a friend.

M F

___/___ 54. I feel sure that things will work out as long as I follow my parent's advice.

___/___ 55. I am disappointed with their response.

(Go to next column)