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# Urban African American Youths' Academic Performance As Related To Fathers' Involvement During Development

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**URBAN AFRICAN AMERICAN YOUTHS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AS  
RELATED TO THEIR FATHERS' INVOLVEMENT DURING DEVELOPMENT**

by

**TRAVIS A. GOLDWIRE**

**DISSERTATION**

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

Detroit, Michigan

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

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2016

MAJOR: PSYCHOLOGY (Clinical)

Approved By:

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Advisor

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## DEDICATION

*This manuscript is dedicated to my partner Matthew, for your encouragement, love, and fierce unwavering belief in me as I went through this process, even when I was mentally exhausted and did not believe in myself. And of course, my family and friends for your help and encouragement over the years as I have worked hard to achieve my goals. None of this would have been possible without your endless love and support.*

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## PREFACE

This project explores the ever-evolving field of father involvement. The research in this area has taken root and is being explored from many perspectives. However, there is yet much to be explored and learned about this special population. This project aims to illuminate the ways in which early father involvement in the lives of urban African American youth plays a part in their longitudinal academic performance as they grow into young adults. In particular, this project explores fathers' engagement in school involvement, education encouragement, monitoring of children's activities, encouraging academic achievement, among others. These aspects of father involvement will be examined in relation to academic performance outcomes across the early decades of the lifespan, from elementary school into the college years. While this project cannot—and does not—aim to answer all questions about this subject, there are several interesting relationships that are discussed.

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## CHAPTER 1: CONTEXT OF URBAN AFRICAN AMERICAN YOUTH

### Introduction

The purpose of this study is to shed light on the ways in which urban African American fathers are involved in the lives of their children throughout development, as well as to better understand the ways in which such involvement may impact youths' academic performance through the school years and into adulthood. In order to understand these patterns of child outcomes, it is first necessary to grasp the historical context of this population.

Urban African American youth are among the most disadvantaged and troubled demographic groups in the United States (Li, Nussbaum, and Richards, 2007). This pattern of disadvantage can be traced all the way back to slavery in this country and persists today through a myriad of compounding life circumstances. These circumstances include factors that prevent African Americans from living lives as fulfilled as others, including poverty, single mother headed households, crime involvement, racial discrimination, and lower levels of education and academic performance (Benhorin & McMahon, 2008).

More specifically, African Americans are disproportionately represented among the nation's poor, with 38.2% of African American children under the age of 18 living in poverty (McCartney, 2011). Contributing to the poverty rate is the high number of African American households headed by single mothers. In 2010, the median income for female-headed households in the African American community was just over \$25,000, compared to married African American couples whose median income was just over \$63,500. This represents a stark disparity for African American mothers raising children alone (McCartney, 2011). Not only have single parent households historically had fewer financial resources, children also tend to suffer from lack of monitoring and social support that can sometimes be afforded by an additional parent

(Blankenhorn, 1995). In addition to poverty, many African American communities also experience higher than average crime rates, and African American individuals are more than three times as likely to be searched, handcuffed, and arrested (U.S. Department of Justice, 2002) and are more likely to be incarcerated for drug and homicide related incidences (U.S. Department of Justice, 2009). Further, despite the election of the first African American president, many African Americans still perceive racial discrimination as a problem in the United States (Pew Foundation, 2013), which may contribute to psychological and health problems for this population (Mays, Cochran, and Barnes, 2007).

Adding to experiences of poverty, crime, and racial discrimination, many African Americans in urban centers continue to have difficulties with academic performance. Academic performance and achievement have continued to increase for African Americans since the 1940s—indeed, high school dropout rates have declined over the past several decades—yet, there is still a marked disparity between this group and other Americans as dropout rates continue to be higher for African Americans relative to all other racial groups (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Areas of deficit include math, reading, and other core areas of education that persist well into the high school years (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Further, the long-term consequences of negative environmental factors may be more impactful to the developmental trajectory of African American youth (e.g., academic performance, financial mobility, employment) compared to their White counterparts (Swisher et al., 2013). These effects may be mitigated by higher levels of parental monitoring (Poulin & Denault, 2012), social religiosity and perceived religious support (Mason et al., 2012), and higher levels of meaningful interactions with and closeness to biological fathers (Coley et al., 2007; National Fatherhood Initiative, 2004).

It is abundantly clear that many African Americans—especially those from impoverished urban environments—experience adverse life circumstances during their development that predict negative life outcomes such as poor academic performance. Poverty and single mother households, experiences of discrimination and exposure to crime all contribute to these negative life circumstances (Murry et al., 2001). The literature appears to point to the benefits of having two parents for preventing negative life outcomes; however, findings are not entirely clear on the relationship between father absence and child maladjustment. In fact, this association might be weaker than previously expected. Some studies have reported that father involvement in some cases appears to have little impact on child outcomes (Lamb, 2012). Poor child outcomes may be due to other adverse life circumstances present in the child’s development. For example, the relationship status between the child and their parents, the relationship between the parents themselves, the amount and quality of father involvement, and the economic climate of the household in which the child resides may all lead to poor child outcomes (Fagan et al., 2009). Therefore, it is important to further explore how such factors as fathers’ involvement during children’s development might predict urban African American adolescents’ and young adults’ academic performance.

### **CORRELATES OF NEGATIVE YOUTH OUTCOMES**

There appears to be a clear recognition that many African Americans in urban areas experience negative life circumstances; however, it is not always easy to understand the underlying mechanisms that drive these outcomes. There seems to be a pervasive stereotypical sentiment that many African Americans are lazy, jobless, drug addicted, uneducated, crime driven, incarcerated, and either cohabitating or living away from their children (Brown Givens & Monahan, 2005). This kind of perspective does not consider the system of historical and

persistent disadvantage that this group has faced—and continues to face—in this country. Indeed, it is not enough to say that African Americans are disadvantaged in a number of ways, but it is necessary to get a clearer picture of what particular circumstances are related to these disadvantages (Shapiro, 2004).

For many African Americans, poverty is the leading contributing factor to many of their poor life outcomes. Since the time of enslavement in this country, when many African Americans were barred from owning property, African Americans have faced difficulties stemming from lack of economic capital. Further, it would appear that the effects of poverty are durable and long-lasting, though academic attainment and performance can spur upward mobility for African Americans (Swisher et al., 2013). Single motherhood in the African American community is tied to higher rates of poverty, with African American women being least likely to marry of all racial and ethnic groups in the U.S. (McCartney, 2011). African American youth who reside in homes headed by single mothers (who generally have fewer resources in several domains) tend to live in neighborhoods with fewer resources, higher rates of poverty, and more community violence than their counterparts who come from intact homes and those from European American households (Anderson, 1999; Gonzalez et al., 2012; Hummer & Hamilton, 2010; US Census Bureau, 2008).

Since Lyndon Johnson's 1960s "War on Poverty" (Zarefsky, 2005), many African Americans have been caught up in the criminal justice system, with an inevitable impact on African American children. Many children who come from poverty-stricken areas are seen by the educational and juvenile justice systems as unruly and disruptive. As a result, there are a disproportionate number of poor African Americans represented in the penal system who are in many ways themselves victims of a system that has failed to take care of their most basic needs



(Alexander, 2010). Poor neighborhoods are often the most dangerous, which has been found to be associated with a wide variety of adjustment problems in adolescence, including antisocial behaviors and conduct problems (Schofield et al., 2012), as well as exposure to traumatic situations and subsequent symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (Gapen et al., 2011).

Of all the negative life outcomes for urban African American youth, lower levels of academic performance appear to be one of the most impactful across time. African American students historically have not fared as well in terms of reading, math, language and socio-emotional development in their early years of education (Aratani, Wright, & Cooper, 2011). Children's academic performance has been linked to maternal education, which may go a long way to influence the cognitive abilities of children and may serve as a protective factor throughout development (Lowe et al., 2013; Perry and Fantuzzo, 2010; Schady, 2011). To add to this, research has continued to demonstrate that while many African Americans strive for educational attainment and better academic performance, rates of college completion by this group are among the lowest of all groups—this may be especially true for African American men (Palmer and Maramba, 2011).

This picture illustrates the multitude of factors that contribute to poor life outcomes for many urban, African American youth. Poverty contributes to children's lack of academic performance because of lack of access to quality schools, as well as having parents who themselves did not have an opportunity for academic upward mobility, thus perpetuating the trend. High rates of single mother households and lack of parental monitoring also contribute to the picture of poverty, crime, and the eventual incarceration of many African American youth. Even for those youth who do not end up in prison, the likelihood of adequate academic attainment and performance beyond high school is low due to adverse environmental factors

(Avalos, 2014; Ou and Reynolds, 2014). For those who reach postsecondary education, there are higher levels of perceived discrimination from their peers, which may contribute to a cycle of depression for these individuals (Brittian et al., 2015; Hwang and Goto, 2009). There is an emerging picture of the often-difficult developmental context for urban African American youth. In focusing on predictors of youth's academic performance in adolescence and young adulthood, father involvement—quantity, quality, depth, and type—has not been fully explored among urban, African American adolescents. The current study aims to shed some light on particular facets of father involvement engaged in by urban African American fathers and how this might influence children's academic performance across the lifespan.

## **FATHER INVOLVEMENT**

The study of father involvement—especially as it relates to child development—has evolved over the past few decades. There are several theoretical roots of this field of study, including Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory of child development, the Integrated Ecological-Parental Capital Theory, and models put forth by Lamb and Pleck. Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory (1979, 1986) of child development states that children are embedded in ever increasing “levels” of environmental complexity. Their most proximal level is comprised of family members and intimate others, including mothers, fathers, and other primary caregivers from whom they learn to negotiate the world in a very basic way. These kinds of interactions may have a profound impact on child development. This is illustrated most explicitly in the home environment in which the reciprocal nature of parent-child interactions can serve to foster opportunities for enhanced academic achievement for children (Baker, 2014; Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986). As the levels extend out, there are the relationships that parents have with extended family members, teachers, and others from the community through whom children learn more

about the world. Extending all the way out, children are influenced by social structures and societal norms that govern people's existence.

Fathers are unique partners for children as they interact with the world, bringing their personality characteristics and styles of interaction that may differ from mothers (Parke et al., 2002; Pleck, 2007), through the influence of gender roles and the ways in which they view the world. The ecological theory of child development has historically been used to support the mechanisms of children's academic performance upon entrance into preschool in relation to the development of nascent academic skills like learning to read and do math. Ecological theory suggests that skills learned within the home—like conversations with parents and siblings and becoming proficient at chores—help to bolster these emerging skills. According to this theory, fathers' interaction with their children is dynamic and may be influenced by such factors as economic status, fathers' relationship with their children and their mother, and their own developmental maturity and the way that they see themselves in the fathering role (Palkovitz & Palm, 2009). It also appears that fathers must negotiate their roles with the mother of their children and those with whom she is connected (Fagan et al., 2009; Schacht, Cummings, & Davies, 2009). If a father cannot provide financially, he may offer his time and support instead (Cabrera, Fagan, and Farrie, 2008). If a marital relationship is not feasible or desired, non-marital options may be an alternative. In many African American families, the idea of "father" is a flexible concept. If biological fathers cannot take on the role, then there are sometimes other "social fathers" who take on some of these parenting responsibilities (Bzostek, 2008).

The Integrated Ecological-Parental Capital Theory (Pleck, 2007) states that the degree to which capital matters depends on the specific context and circumstances of each individual involved in the life and development of a child. Historically, early child development has

focused on mother-child dyad interactions, which have found positive relationships between academically oriented tasks in the home (like shared book reading) and early academic success in school (Blake et al., 2006; Bus, van IJzendoorn, and Pellegrini, 1995). More recent literature often takes into account the roles that fathers—including African American fathers—play in the home and in being involved in the lives of their children, including being involved in daily caregiving activities, play, and academic encouragement. Additionally, father involvement and its relation to early school achievement (Baker, 2014) may have a longitudinal impact on academic performance into adulthood.

Until around the 1970s, mothers were typically the main focus of any discussion of parenting and associations with child outcomes over time. Fathers, if included at all in theories and conceptual models of parenting, were placed in the light of the patriarchal breadwinner and disciplinarian, and not much else. Today, we know that fathers are spending more time with children than ever before (Lamb, 2010) and that there are myriad positive outcomes for children whose fathers are involved in positive and meaningful ways (Paquette et al., 2013).

**What is father involvement?** Depending on the theory, father involvement (FI) has been thought of in different ways across time (Greene et al, 2001; Lamb 1986; Lamb et al. 1987), but a common set of characteristics include being there for children, providing for physical and psychological needs, moral guidance, quantity and quality of time spent with children, shared activities, caregiving, and providing for the family (Flouri, 2012). Several theories have been formulated to help further characterize the nature of the evolution of father involvement across time, many of which are rooted in the model delineated by Lamb and Pleck in the 1980s (Lamb, Hwang, & Frodi, 1982; Lamb & Pleck, 1985). Their model of father involvement included three principle dimensions: Engagement (e.g., direct, one-on-one interactions with the child),

Accessibility (e.g., when a father is available for engagement but is not having direct contact), and Responsibility (e.g., taking responsibility for the child's overall well being) (Greene et al., 2001; Lamb, 1986; Lamb et al., 1987). Engagement can be thought of as activities such as time spent during mealtimes, giving the child a bath, or changing diapers. It might also include reading the child a bedtime story or going on walks and playing with the child. Accessibility includes such activities as talking on the phone while the child plays with toys nearby, preparing dinner while the child is engaged in some other activity, or running errands and bringing the child along. Responsibility includes activities such as getting a child ready and taking him to a doctor's appointment, making sure that the child is properly clothed and helping to provide for the child financially, as well as providing for emergency care arrangements. The aspect of engagement seems to be more about a father's direct interactions with the child, whereas responsibility appears to be a specific form of engagement that takes into account activities that lead to the overall safety and wellbeing of the child. Thus, there is much overlap between these two aspects of father involvement, and all three are tightly connected.

Several other prominent theories help characterize the role and the impact of fathers in the lives of their children (Pleck, 2007). Such theories have included Attachment Theory (Bowlby, 1969), rooted in evolutionary psychology and biology, that posits that children explore the world from a place of stability and security and slowly incorporate ideas about the people around them who can help them to safely explore their surroundings in a way that allows them to acquire new skills. In light of more recent evidence, this theory has been modified to accept fathers as unique contributors to feelings of attachment from children that are independent from mother-child attachment effects (Pleck, 2007). Alternatively, Social Capital Theory (Coleman, 1988) states that there are several domains of "capital" that children can take advantage of if they

are present (e.g., material, social, community, etc). Children with greater capital and resources tend to have better life outcomes (Pleck, 2007). Over the past couple of decades, there has been a shift in parenting roles for fathers, who are beginning to take on—and be seen as capable of taking on—caregiving roles traditionally thought to be filled solely by mothers (Finn & Henwood, 2009). Foundational studies have suggested that there are fundamental differences in how mothers and fathers engage their children in developmental education (Pleck, 2007). Mothering is sometimes characterized as repetitive and predictable, with mothers being generally more likely to interact with their children in ways that serve to engage their verbal abilities through teaching activities. Fathering, on the other hand, is sometimes defined as unpredictable, playful, and supportive of novelty-seeking behavior (Pruett, 2000; Paquette, Coyle-Shepherd, & Newland, 2013). Fathers are sometimes thought to be more likely to engage their children through physical play activities (Yogman et al., 1977; Paquette, Coyle-Shepherd, & Newland, 2013).

More recently, the Integrated Ecological-Parental Capital Theory (Pleck, 2010) of father involvement has emerged. It came as a response and reconceptualization of the work done in the field over the past two decades. It grew out of multiple interpretations of the original theory of father involvement put forth by Lamb and Pleck (1985). It includes aspects of father involvement such as positive engagement activities likely to promote development, including attending events and engaging in activities with the child as well as generally spending time with the child. It also includes aspects of expressed warmth (i.e., feeling closeness) and responsiveness (e.g., listening to what the child has to say and responding appropriately). Further, this theory integrates aspects of control, monitoring and decision making such as setting limits for the child and knowing what activities the child is involved in at any given time.

Indirect care activities, such as making sure that the general needs of the child are met, are also taken into account. Lastly, process responsibility—the direct and indirect engagement and caregiving by the father, such as selecting the child’s pediatrician—have also been included in the updated framework of the father involvement concept. It is likely, that as time passes, more will be learned about the ways in which fathers interact with children and the theory will continue to change.

A father’s involvement used to be measured in terms of absence or presence, but has become increasingly more multifaceted to capture the ideas contained in the theories outlined above as well as the changing nature of fatherhood. The father involvement construct eventually evolved to include paternal warmth, support, control/monitoring, cognition and affect, and economic support (Amato, 1999; Pleck and Stueve, 2001), as well as behaviors that capture aspects of Lamb and Pleck’s model, such as singing songs, playing games, eating with the child, and doing other hands-on activities (Castillo & Sarver, 2012; Lamb et al., 1985). Additionally, early reports of father involvement came solely from mothers, with research predominantly presenting data on residential rather than nonresidential fathers, with nonresident fathers’ “involvement” often defined as simply fulfilling financial obligations (Doherty et al., 1998). Now, however, more data is collected from fathers themselves. While research is needed that also accounts for mother involvement, findings over the past several years have helped to illuminate the unique contributions of fathers in the lives of their children, above and beyond other sociodemographic factors (Pleck, 2007) to include impacts on children’s health, education, and social and emotional development (Baker, 2014).

Over and above mothers’ activities and other factors, high father involvement has been associated with fewer externalizing behavior problems and higher levels of sociability for both

boys and girls (Flouri and Malmberg, 2012). For boys in particular, higher father involvement has been shown to be associated with fewer problem behaviors in school as well as higher levels of school performance for pre-adolescent boys (Feldman and Wentzel, 1990; Greene et al, 2001; Jai et al., 2012; Mosley & Thomson, 1995; Radin, 1986; Smith, 1989). Clarke-Stewart (1980) found that preschool-aged children who were cared for by fathers had higher scores on tests of cognitive ability, greater self-control, and were more in touch with the feelings of others as compared to their daycare counterparts. Indeed, recent work in the area illustrates that fathers' early involvement in children's academic lives by engaging them in academically-related encouraging activities, may have long term effects on their academic performance, even after taking into account other academically relevant factors like parental education and SES (Goldwire, 2012). Early involvement by fathers in the lives of their children has a profound impact on child development with regard to cognitive abilities and early academic success (Baker, 2014), and may also have long reaching impact across the lifespan in many domains yet to be fully explored.

Evidence suggests that fathers are more involved now than ever before, but there is still great discrepancy as to how much more and in what ways (Perry, Harmon, & Leeper, 2012). It is also unclear the extent to which other relatively unexplored areas and age periods—such as academic performance in adolescence and early adulthood—might be impacted by early father involvement as well as father involvement across the lifespan during development. It is also important to consider the uniqueness of urban African American fathers and their children. Both mothers and fathers contribute unique social, emotional, and economic capital to the child's development that have lasting and long reaching effects across time as children mature into



young adults and learn to negotiate the world for themselves as separate entities from their parents (Pleck, 2007).

**Urban African American Fathers.** While the general literature on fathers is growing, less is known about African American fathers from urban settings. Compared to other ethnic groups, African American fathers are largely absent from the early childhood literature and are generally only represented in small samples of low-income fathers (Baker, 2014). African American fathers have been negatively characterized for decades as “invisible, irresponsible dads who are marginalized in their families and contribute little economically to the well-being of their children” (Jarrett, Roy, and Burton, 2012, p. 211). What is clear is that the roles of fathers change throughout their lives and are affected by a myriad of individual circumstances. In the research on African American fathers, there are four emergent themes associated with aspects of father involvement. These include the economic context for fathers based on residential neighborhood and opportunities for employment; the relationships between fathers and mothers in an extended family social network; the personal interpretation of the fathering role and the subsequent process of father involvement; and the diversity of father figures who participate in children’s lives and fulfill this particular parenting role (Jarrett, Roy, and Burton, 2012, p. 215).

Specific factors affecting the involvement of African American fathers in their children’s lives have been suggested, including not living in the same residence as the child, the aging process of the child resulting in less involvement over time (Lamb, 2012), and the relationship of the father with the mother of his children and her family (Fagan et al, 2009; Fagan & Palkovitz, 2007; Schacht, Cummings, & Davies, 2009), among others. While father absence has been blamed for child maladjustment, it is important to note that children are without fathers for varying reasons, including incarceration (McLeod, 2016; Roettger & Swisher, 2011) and

mothers' choice (Makusha & Richter, 2016). Furthermore, child maladjustment may also result from fathers decreasing the amount of time spent with their children, with an inverse relationship seen between time spent with children and adverse effects experienced by these children (Flouri & Buchanan, 2003).

A review of the research shows that fathers tend to have the most beneficial impact on their children when they engage in positive relationships with them and when such interactions contain examples of "active parenting" (Lamb, 2012); when nonresident fathers are consistently involved in routine daily activities; when fathers are involved in their children's schooling (Leavell et al., 2011), and when post-divorce circumstances are focused on maximizing positive and meaningful interactions between the father and his children and not just meeting minimum time requirements (Fagan et al., 2009). Many African American fathers who do not reside with their children have few parental rights, and are consequently seen as visitors in their children's lives. Some forms of daily engagement with children might be viewed as trivial and inconsequential (such as arguments and general decision making); however, regular engagement is crucial to the development of meaningful relationships, and nonresidential fathers might miss out on key experiences with their children (Lamb, 2012).

Recently collected large-scale studies that include both residential and nonresidential fathers are quite diverse in their demographics, representing many types of fathers and varying degrees and breadth of involvement. Consequently, it is difficult to paint a very accurate picture of the "involved father" (Greif, 1997), and more difficult to accurately represent involved African American fathers. Additionally, there appears to be some level of discrepancy regarding the actual impact of father involvement during the early stages of development, with some studies suggesting that fathers' involvement in the lives of preschool-aged children influences

cognitive development (Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2008), while others have failed to reach similar conclusions (Black et al., 1999; Cabrera, Shannon, West, and Brooks-Gunn, 2006). Some of this may be accounted for based on the developmental period in children's lives in which studies were conducted, the particular operationalized constructs examined, home contextual factors, and the nature of the fathers represented, among others. Thus, it is necessary to take a closer look at different father figures present throughout a child's life. The structure of father involvement is evolving in the growing literature on fathering, and it still remains unclear as to how father involvement is associated with key child developmental outcomes, including academic performance in adolescence and young adulthood, especially among African American youth.

**Father Involvement & Academic Attainment.** African American young adults have a lower rate of college enrollment, and only 20% of African Americans age 25 or older have a bachelor's degree (Aud et al., 2010). However, a bachelor's degree confers the same benefits for African Americans as it does for members of other racial groups. For example, 96% of African Americans with a bachelor's degree or higher were employed in 2008 compared to 78% of those without a high school diploma (Aud et al., 2010). Given the benefits conferred by a college degree for African-American adults, it is important to examine predictors of college attendance. Furthermore, it may be especially important to examine college attendance during the developmental period immediately after high school because young adults who enter college soon after high school tend to experience higher rates of college completion than nontraditional students (Taniguchi & Kaufman, 2005). It is important to consider both family contextual factors—including family composition and father involvement—and youth attributes when aiming to improve rates of college enrollment among African-American youth. This relationship between father involvement and academic attainment is an aim of the present study.

Fathers are increasingly taking an active role in children's home and school lives. Father involvement has been found to be associated with children's decreased chances of academic failure, decreased risk of mental illness, and decreased likelihood of financial problems over time (Grantham & Henfield, 2011). Some fathers want to be viewed as more valued by educators and want to be included in the educational lives of their children. Being involved in the lives of children can be especially difficult if fathers do not live in the same home—let alone in the same city—as their children, even though they may still want a higher level of involvement than their proximity might allow (Grantham & Henfield, 2011).

Contrary to the belief that African American fathers are uninvolved in their children's education, research has shown that African American fathers who are involved in their children's academic lives “set high expectations, provide support for meeting expectations, and take an interest in their children's extracurricular activities” (Grief, Hrabowski & Maton, 1998; Perry, Harmon & Leeper, 2012, p. 699). They have also been shown to help with schoolwork (Perry et al., 2012) and other school related activities. Moreover, research confirms that African American fathers who provide significant involvement in their children's lives during development prior to school matriculation can have an enhanced effect on children's academic competence (Baker, 2014). Such research also supports the notion that fathers' involvement in academically relevant areas, such as home literacy, can have a significant positive effect on similar relevant academic areas in the school setting (Baker, 2014).

Most early studies of family influences on children's academic performance focused on mothers. While newer studies (e.g., Downer and Mendez, 2005) sometimes include fathers, more research is needed to determine the specific ways in which African American fathers interact with their children and to bolster existing knowledge of the way in which the home

environment positively impacts children's academic development (Baker, 2012, 2014). Sadly, positive images of African American fathers and their involvement in the academic arena are lacking (Ward, 2004). Some educators may believe that fathers do not want to be involved in the lives of their children, and fathers feel these sentiments. Additionally, some fathers might feel that the educational process is dominated by women, and despite a desire to help with children's education, they may feel out of place (Lamb, 2000). Furthermore, if educators do not perceive that parents in general—and fathers specifically—value their child's education, they may be less inclined to put as much effort into these students' education in comparison to those whom they perceive as having parents who are more invested in their education. This process may lead to children who cannot fully realize their academic potential (Grantham & Henfield, 2011).

Father involvement is still a burgeoning field of research, and even less is known about the characteristics of fathers of urban, African American youth. Considering the literature, it might be necessary to add even more facets to the definition of father involvement and to further examine its relationship to important child developmental outcomes. For example, to what extent are fathers involved in the intellectual, social, emotional, and moral development of their children? How much time and effort do fathers expend on monitoring their children's activities and their whereabouts as they are growing? How involved are fathers in children's school activities and encouraging their overall academic achievement? Are there differences in fathers' parenting approach based on the gender of the child? These will be very important questions to answer moving forward, which the current project attempts to shed some light on.

**Gender as a potential moderator between father involvement and academic performance.** Initial research suggested that fathers behave differently toward their male children than their female children. These differences were more apparent in the way that a

father played with his children than in the way that he engaged in caregiving roles with them (Clarke-Stewart, 1978; Greene et al., 2001; Nugent, 1987; Wachs, Uzgiris, and Hunt, 1971; Yarrow et al., 1984). For example, fathers are sometimes thought to engage in more “rough-and-tumble” play with their male children, while engaging in activities that promote verbal skills in their female children; overall, they engage more with male children. However, more recent research in this area leads to mixed results. In one study, residential fathers of very young children did not interact differently with their male and female children in instrumental and enrichment/play activities (Meece, 2013). Conversely, another study found that there were gender differences in father involvement based on marital status, with the presence of male children leading to more involvement for married fathers (Lundberg, McLanahan, & Rose, 2007). Indeed, more recent research would suggest that fathers are more involved with their female children in academic pursuits compared to male children. In other populations—such as fathers in Shanghai, China—fathers appear to be highly invested in their daughters, especially where their education is concerned (Xu & Yeung, 2013). In general, it would appear that girls receive more educational encouragement from their fathers than do their male counterparts (Khan, 2012). It is possible that as the conceptualization of father involvement has changed over time, so too have nuances emerged that perhaps were not as apparent as before. It may also be the case that our changing ideas about the roles of fathers have allowed fathers to be more readily involved in areas in which they were not present before. Further, it is likely that cultural differences may be at play in the literature to account for some of these discrepancies in outcomes.

There is some empirical evidence to suggest that gender may play a role in the degree to which fathers are involved in their children’s academic performance. However, research has not

yet evaluated whether father involvement is more robustly associated with academic outcomes, depending on the youth's gender. Research is especially needed to elucidate this important area of academic and social development in high-risk, urban African American populations. The current project aims to add to the literature and clarify the relationship between father involvement practices of urban African American fathers and the longitudinal academic performance of their children while also examining the moderating effect of gender on this relationship.

### **THE PROPOSED STUDY: AIMS & HYPOTHESES**

The objective of this study was to determine the quality, quantity, types, and depth of father involvement in a sample of high-risk, urban African American fathers and their children from a longitudinal perspective. In particular, this study examined relationships between different aspects of father involvement and later academic performance in childhood, adolescence and early adulthood as primary outcomes. It also explored gender as a moderator of these relationships. Current literature indicates that fathers interact with and are involved in the lives of their children in many ways and to a greater extent than once thought. Specific aims and hypotheses for the present study are as follows:

- Aim 1: Examine different aspects of father involvement including behaviors associated with intellectual (academic, school, achievement) and moral development, social and emotional support, and monitoring.
  - Hypothesis 1.1: It is expected that fathers will be involved in the lives of their children in myriad ways and to differing degrees.

- Hypothesis 1.2: It is hypothesized that separate father involvement measures will be robustly related to each other and be best represented by a single overarching father involvement factor.
- Aim 2: Examine the extent to which father involvement across childhood and adolescence influenced youth' academic performance across time.
  - Hypothesis 2.1: Greater reported father involvement will yield better academic performance on school achievement measures.
  - Hypothesis 2.2: Relationships between father involvement and academic performance will persist after accounting for key covariates (e.g., SES, maternal/paternal age & education, child mental ability, and single parenthood).

The literature has not been entirely clear regarding the role that child gender plays in the relationship between reported levels of fathering behaviors and subsequent academic performance for children. To this end, an exploratory analysis was conducted as little literature exists on gender as a moderator of associations between father involvement and youth outcomes.

- *Exploratory* Aim 3: Determine the role that gender plays in the impact of father involvement on academic performance.
  - Hypothesis 3.1: There may be a differential effect of fathers' youth-reported involvement on their children's academic performance based on child gender.
  - Hypothesis 3.2: Relationships between father involvement and academic performance as separated by participant gender will persist after accounting for key covariates (e.g., SES, maternal/paternal age & education, child mental ability, and single parenthood).



## CHAPTER 2: METHOD

### Participants

Participants were originally identified from 1989 to 1991 as a part of a larger prospective study of pregnant women receiving prenatal care at a large hospital in an urban metropolitan area in the Midwestern United States (Delaney-Black et al., 2010; Greenwald et al., 2011). This group of participants was representative of the population from which it was drawn in terms of racial/ethnic background, poverty and SES, incarceration, and alcohol and drug use/abuse. Over 96% of the original samples were African American women who received prenatal care at the hospital. There were several exclusionary criteria used for selection in the original longitudinal study: multiple gestation, children born to women known to be HIV positive, and children known to have numerous congenital malformations. Subsequent births to the same participating mothers were also excluded from the original study. Additionally, as there was an increase in cocaine use in the Metropolitan Detroit area in the late 1980's, mothers using cocaine during pregnancy were over sampled.. The original sample also included a random sample of mothers who reported no alcohol and drug use during pregnancy. . The original sample consisted of 656) mothers and children. Among the 656, 556 (85%) were located and completed testing at age 7. Of the 556, 432 (78%) were assessed at age 14 and 405 (73%) were assessed at age 19. Of the participants' data used specifically for this dissertation project ( $N = 450$ )—those who had data available across the age 7, 14, and 19 year collection phases and who also provided data for the young adult dissertation assessment— there was a near equal sex division (males = 224, females = 226). Participants were administered a comprehensive set of assessments for each of the age 7, 14 and 19-year data collection waves in an outpatient clinic setting.

## Procedure

Evidence of father involvement was collected by surveying the young adult offspring of the mothers from the original study, at approximately age 21 years. The young adult participants either completed a brief (e.g., 15-30 minute) telephone interview in which surveys were read to them, or research assistants collected the data in person at the family's home or at the research laboratory. Participants were guided through a structured informed consent process as approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Wayne State University and were paid a modest compensation for their time.

In order to reduce attrition and keep track of participants over time for follow-up waves of data collection during the original data collection process at ages 7, 14, and 19 years, various compensation methods were employed. Every year, participants were sent a contact card in the mail to update their home address and phone number, which was stored in an aggregate, electronic participant database. In return, they were given a \$5 gift card to Target. Typically, the first 100 respondents to return data within the first two weeks of data collection were also entered into a raffle for other small compensatory prizes. Participants were also sent \$5 Target gift cards during their birthdays each year, and their parents were also sent gift cards during holidays, Mother's Day and Father's Day, where applicable. When participants visited the study laboratory to provide large amounts of data during one of the main collection phases (i.e. at 7, 14, and 19 years), their parents were provided \$80 as compensation for a typical 8-hour day, and the child/teen was given a small gift (or monetary compensation once they became adults and came to data collection by themselves). Study investigators also contacted participants to express sentiment following other major life events, such as the death of a parent or the death of

a study participant. Updated contact information was collected and entered into the participant-tracking database.

Most of the data collected during the current data collection phase was young adult participants' retrospective accounts of their fathers' involvement in their lives. This route was recommended, as many biological fathers were not living with their children while growing up. For example, during the age 14 data collection wave, 53.9% of participants' fathers were or had been previously incarcerated. By asking participants directly about their fathers, the presence of a biological father or father figure present in the home while the child was growing up could be more accurately captured. Moreover, information on their perception of paternal involvement and his impact on their lives could be gathered.

Many of the measures assessing father involvement were collected as a part of the current study's additional data collection phase during young adulthood ( $N = 93$  for this data collection, approx. 21 years). Study administrators were trained on the dissemination of study measures for the current project, both over the phone and during in-person visits, to ensure standardization in administration. The lead administrator of this project reviewed administrative procedures for questionnaires individually with study personnel, who each had multiple years of experience in working with participants from this particular cohort and on other research projects. Fidelity checks were conducted throughout the duration of the project to ensure procedural consistency. During in-person data collection, questionnaires were either read to participants or completed by participants with administrator assistance. Steps were taken to ensure that participants adequately understood questions being asked of them by reading questions multiple times, reiterating the rating and answer structure periodically during administration, and having participants explain answers to corroborate understanding. For data collected over the phone,

care was taken not only to ensure that participants understood the content of questions, but that they also understood the rating scale (e.g., Likert scale 1-5 or 1-6) for each questionnaire being administered. There were other measures of father involvement, including the *HOME* and other demographic variables that were collected as a part of the original larger longitudinal study. Academic performance outcome data, as well as associated covariates, were also collected at previous waves of the larger study. As a reference, tables in Appendix A show all of the constructs represented in this study, including which phase of the larger project data were collected and the years in which they were collected.

### **Measures of Father Involvement Collected During Childhood and Adolescence**

*Home Observation for Measurement of the Environment (HOME).* The *HOME* was designed as a tool for the quantitative and qualitative measurement of child stimulation and social support in the home environment. The child is the focus of the observation, with stimulation inputs coming from objects, events, and interactions with individuals in the home context. Numerous domains of functioning are assessed in the *HOME*, some of which include Responsivity, Acceptance, Organization, Learning Materials, Involvement Variety, Language Stimulation, Responsivity, Modeling, Encouragement of Maturity, Academic Stimulation, and Paternal Involvement (Caldwell and Bradley, 2013). During the age 7 and age 14 data collection phases, caregivers (typically biological mothers) were asked about their child's father's involvement in the home and with the child. For example, “*Does the child's father do outdoor activities with the child regularly? If yes, how often?*” “*Does your child spend time with father, or father figure, often? If yes, how often?*” “*Does your child eat at least one meal a day, on most days, with mother and father?*” Observers in the home rated each statement with a PLUS (+) or a MINUS (-) sign in the box next to each item indicating whether or not behaviors were observed

in the home environment or if the caregiver reported that the conditions or events were typically characteristic of the home environment. Items collected during the age 7 and 14 data collection phases were essentially the same except for the time period in which they were collected.

***Other Father Involvement Items Collected in Childhood and Adolescence.*** Various items relating to father involvement were collected from mothers on self-report questionnaires during the age 7, 14, and 19 waves of the larger longitudinal study. Examples of father-related items from the age 7 data collection come from the HOME assessment and include “*child spends time with father,*” “*child eats at least one meal/day on most days with mother and father,*” etc. At the age 14 assessment, the following examples of father involvement were collected from demographic interview questionnaires: “biological father lives with child,” and “child spends regular time with father”. At the age 19 assessment, items pertaining to father involvement were also collected from demographic interview questionnaires and included “spends regular time with father.”

### **Measures of Father Involvement Collected During Young Adulthood**

***Father Involvement Preliminary Checklist.*** This demographic questionnaire was created to determine the nature of the relationship between each study participant and their father. The questionnaire determines the “type” of father in question (e.g., biological father, step-father, no father, etc.). If a biological father was present in the participant’s life at any point, he was used as the father of interest during that time period, even if the participant considered his level of involvement low. As most participants had one primary father figure (though some had more than one throughout their lives growing up), participants were asked to focus on the biological father if he was present; if there was no biological father present, focus shifted to an available primary father figure. If a participant reported no relationship with their father while growing up,

additional information was ascertained as to why this was the case. For example, if a participant endorsed only minimal contact with their father while growing up, follow-up information might reveal that his absence was due to incarceration.

***School Help—Retrospective.*** The *School Help* questionnaire is a measure of school involvement and attachment that is comprised of three smaller measures: 1) School Attachment Scale: This instrument was developed to assess student connectedness to school (Somers & Gizzi, 2001). Items are answered on a 5-point scale, and a total score is obtained by summing all items. In a study of more than 500 students, internal consistency was estimated at .88 (Somers & Gizzi, 2001). 2) Sense of School Membership: This measure assesses a student's sense of belonging to his or her school (Goodenow, 1993). The scale has an estimated internal consistency ranging from .77 to .88 across different samples (Goodenow, 1993). 3) School Involvement Scale: This instrument evaluates students' perceived levels of involvement in school activities (Somers & Gizzi, 2001). Items are answered on a 5-point scale, and a total score is computed. Internal consistency was estimated at .72 in a prior study (Somers & Gizzi, 2001).

A retrospective version of the School Help measure was used, as adapted from the Age 14 and 19 data collection phases of the larger project. This measure asked participants to focus on their "father figure" as he was in their life at or before the age of 18 years. This questionnaire asked about the extent to which fathers were involved in activities pertaining to school, extracurricular activities, and homework. Participants were asked to respond to statements on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*. For example, "My father did volunteer work at school." This adapted questionnaire contained a total of 9 statements. Internal consistency for this scale is .82.

***Father Involvement Scale (FIS).*** The *Father Involvement Scale (FIS)* used for this study was adapted from Finley & Schwartz (2004; Hawkins & Palkovitz, 1999). It is a dual-part questionnaire that asks participants to 1) Rate how involved their fathers were in their lives in 20 diverse areas before the age of 18 years. Ratings were made on a scale from 1 = *Never involved* to 5 = *Always involved*; and 2) Rate what participants would have liked for the *desired* level of their father's involvement in the aforementioned domains on a scale from 1 = *Much less involved* to 5 = *Much more involved*. Examples of rated domains of father involvement are *Intellectual development, Showing affection, and Modeling social interactions*. For the purposes of the most recent young adult data collection, the time period focused on was from birth to age 18. This scale has been used with diverse populations with good reliability and validity (Finley & Schwartz, 2004). Internal consistency for this scale in the present study ("Broad Involvement") is .98.

***Child & Adolescent Social Support Scale (CASSS)—Retrospective.*** The *Child and Adolescent Social Support Scale (CASSS)* for fathers, was modeled after the CASSS2000 Extended Family (Malecki et al., 2000) version of the measure, which contains 72 items assessing parent, extended family, teacher, classmate, close friend, and community social support. Studies report that the CASSS has good reliability and validity (Malecki & Demaray, 2002; 2003) and has been used with diverse populations. The versions used in this study (e.g., *CASSS—Retrospective*) took a subset of 12 items from the CASSS2000 Extended Family and asked participants about their father's involvement in their lives from a social support perspective before the age of 18. The questionnaire asked participants to state their level of agreement with statements pertaining to their fathers' involvement in their lives in a variety of

domains on a scale from 1 = *Never* to 6 = *Always*. For example, “*My father...showed that he was proud of me.*” Internal consistency for this scale in the present study is .97.

***Monitoring—Retrospective.*** The *Monitoring* measure (Hetherington et al., 1992) is a 9-item scale that assesses the extent to which parents supervise their children. Internal consistency estimates have ranged from .77 to .87 (Formosa et al., 2000). Monitoring questions in the modified version for this project asked participants to reflect on the extent to which they believed their father knew about the events taking place in their lives on a regular basis before the age of 18. For example, “*Did your father know what you spent your money on?*” Participants rated the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement on a scale where 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*. Internal consistency for this scale in the present study is .96.

***Achievement Encouragement—Retrospective.*** The *Achievement Encouragement* measure is a modified version of a 7-item measure (Somers & Gizzi, 2001) of parents’ view of their child’s academic success. Internal consistency estimates for this measure in prior studies range from .72 to .88. Achievement encouragement questions in the modified version focused on the degree to which participants believed that their father had a desire for them to be high achievers in school and to do great things with their lives. For example, “*Your father thought you should go to college.*” For this set of statements, participants were asked to determine to what extent they agreed or disagreed with each statement and rated them on a scale where 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*.

### **Measures of Youth Academic Performance**

***Kaufman Test of Educational Achievement (KTEA).*** The KTEA is an individually administered battery of tests that provides an in-depth assessment of key academic skills. It assesses skills in the areas of reading, math, written language, and oral language using 14



subtests across subject areas. It was designed for individuals aged 4 to 25 years with norms for grades K-12. Overall reliability measures as obtained from a normative sample ranged from the .80s to the .90s. This measure has also been found to have good validity and has been administered to diverse student populations (Scheiber, 2015). This assessment was administered during the age 7 data collection phase of the larger longitudinal study.

***Test of Early Reading Ability—2 (TERA—2).*** The TERA—2 is an individually administered test of a child’s ability to draw meaning from printed material, to understand the alphabet and how it works, and to understand the ways in which printed words are used. The TERA—2 contains 46 items which are used to assess the reading abilities of children from ages 3 to 9 years. There are 3 clusters of items that fall into the categories of Meaning, Alphabet, and Conventions. Norms are based on a nationally representative sample. Both internal consistency of clusters of items, as well as test-retest reliability, are acceptably high (Reid & Hammill, 2013). This assessment was administered during the age 7 data collection phase of the larger longitudinal study.

***Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT).*** The WIAT, a widely used test of academic performance, was designed to assess the achievement of students in grades PreK-12 with subtests assessing specific academic skills such as reading comprehension, spelling, math reasoning, numerical operations, listening comprehension, oral and written expression. This test was originally designed to help identify individuals thought to have learning disabilities. Internal consistency measures estimate composite scores and subtests for the norm group at or above .82-.97 with consistent validity scores (Vaughan-Jensen et al., 2011). The WIAT was administered during the age 14 phase of the larger longitudinal study.

***Other measures of academic performance.*** Grade Point Average (GPA), a general measure of school performance and academic achievement, was collected during the age 14 data collection phase. Academic performance was also assessed using standardized achievement test scores collected from students with school-based assessments during the age 14 data collection phase. Additionally, subsequent academic performance (e.g., college enrollment) was assessed using participant self-report on a demographic interview collected during the age 19 collection wave.

### **Covariates**

All analyses, where applicable, controlled for variables that have been shown by the literature to be predictors of negative child outcomes, including lower academic performance (Baker, 2014). Such variables include socioeconomic status (SES; based on Hollingshead Four Factor Index, 1975), parental age and education at the child's birth, maternal custody and marital status, and maternal and child mental ability. All of these variables were assessed in the larger longitudinal study. Child mental ability was assessed using the Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence—Revised (WPPSI-R) at the age 7 data collection phase (Wechsler, 1989). Maternal mental ability was also measured at the age 7 data collection wave using the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale—Revised (WAIS-R; Wechsler, 1981). In data analyses, aggregate HOME scores representing each phase of the data collection (i.e., age 7 and 14) served as covariates in multiple regression analyses.

### **Analysis Plan**

Means, standard deviations, and ranges for all variables were inspected for normality. General descriptive statistics were examined for father involvement and academic performance variables. For the father involvement variables (i.e., School Help, Social Support, Monitoring,

Achievement Encouragement, and Broad Involvement), a factor analysis was performed to determine the emergent constructs. Each father involvement construct was made into single variables representing a crystallized representation of each particular aspect of father involvement (e.g., school help, social support, monitoring). Next, bivariate correlations between variables were examined. All other hypotheses were tested using hierarchical multiple regression or logistic regression analyses, controlling for sociodemographic variables that are known to be related to variables of interest, such as parental education and intellectual ability, child intellectual ability, parental age, marital and custody status, SES, and home contextual factors (Melis, Elliot, & Shryane, 2014). Covariates and all hypothesized father involvement predictors of academic performance (the chief outcome of interest) were entered simultaneously into separate regressions for each measure of academic performance. Finally, participant gender was explored as a moderating variable between father involvement and academic performance.

### CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

Prior to running data analyses, a power analysis was conducted to determine the proper sample size required to detect a moderate effect with adequate power. It was determined that the current project contained a sample of adequate size. Additionally, independent samples t-tests were conducted to determine if there were significant mean differences between the smaller subsample of participants providing responses for the young adult data collection phase and the subsample of participants from the larger longitudinal study who did not participate in the young adult data collection phase. This set of analyses was conducted for both mean differences in the academic performance outcome variables of interest as well as covariates. There were no significant mean differences found between the two subsamples.

#### **Aim 1: Descriptive Statistics of Father Involvement**

The focus of Aim 1 was to investigate the nature of father involvement in the sample, including the different kinds of involvement engaged in, and the frequency and quantity of involvement. To this end, an investigation was conducted to determine which kinds of father involvement were represented in the sample and whether or not father involvement could be captured by the measures that were used (H1.1). Furthermore, if fathers were involved, the extent of their involvement would be described and quantified, where applicable. Tables 1-6 present means, standard deviations, and factor loadings for the respective items for the subset of participants who provided father involvement data. Of the participants whose data were obtained for the most recent young adult data collection, many ( $n = 75$ ) gave information about the nature of their relationship with their father, both at the time of data collection and in the past. Most participants reported having a biological father or other father figure of some sort in their lives, both at the time data was collected for the most recent young adult data collection (88%) as well

as in the past (96%). Over half of participants (59%) reported that they have always been in contact to some degree (e.g., occasional visits, phone calls, birthday/holiday cards and gifts, child support, etc.) with their biological fathers throughout their lives. Of the fathers reported on, the majority were biological fathers (current = 62%; past = 76%); however, some participants reported on father figures (i.e., not biological fathers) (current = 26%; past = 20%).

Participants reported that fathers were not involved in their lives while growing up for various reasons including being deceased, incarcerated, or simply not being around for unknown reasons. While it is not possible to make a generalized statement about the entire sample, independent samples t-tests did not show statistically significant mean-level differences between respondents from the young adult data collection phase and other participants from the larger longitudinal sample in terms of their contact with biological fathers or other father figures.

Next, the “School Help” subscale was created by first reverse-scoring three of the original 9 items (i.e., items 2, 3, and 6; See Appendix B) from this measure. Taken together, all of the items had strong internal reliability ( $\alpha = .82$ , Table 1). Then, an exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation and alpha extraction was performed on the items to reveal the underlying factor structure. Three separate factors emerged (Table 2). Each factor had high internal reliability, but there was no clear distinction in content for items loading on each factor. Given the high internal reliability of the full set of nine items and the lack of distinction in content across the separate factors all items were retained as a single scale.

Table 3 presents the items representing the “Social Support” father involvement subscale that was created from the CASSSR measure. An exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation and alpha extraction was performed on the items to reveal the underlying factor structure. A single factor emerged and all 12 items from the measure were retained as they had

good inter-item correlation and internal consistency ( $\alpha = .97$ ) with strong factor loadings (range .79-.90).

In Table 4 are the descriptives for the “Broad Involvement” father involvement subscale created from the Father Involvement Scale. As before, an exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation and alpha extraction was performed on the items to reveal the underlying factor structure. A single factor emerged and all 20 items were retained for further analysis. The factor structure had strong internal consistency ( $\alpha = .98$ ) and good factor loadings (range .63-.91).

Tables 5 and 6 represent the “Monitoring” and “Achievement Encouragement” father involvement subscales (adapted from the Monitoring and Achievement measures from the longitudinal study, respectively). The Monitoring subscale was created from 8 of the original 9 items after performing an exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation and alpha extraction to examine the overall factor structure for the measure. These 8 items were retained as their content fit well with the theoretical content of the construct and had strong internal consistency ( $\alpha = .96$ ) and factor loadings (range .80-.91). One item was removed, as it had a poor factor loading. Likewise, a confirmatory factor analysis with varimax rotation and alpha extraction was performed on the 7 items comprising the Achievement Encouragement subscale. All items were retained for the resulting construct. Factor loadings (range .80-.92) and internal consistency ( $\alpha = .96$ ) were strong and items mapped well to the expected content of the scale.

Total sum scores were created for each subscale such that participants had to answer at least approximately 60% of the items on a given subscale in order for their data to be included in the subscale total sum score for data analysis. For example, the School Help subscale contains 9 total items. In creating the sum score for this subscale, participants had to answer at least 6 of 9 (>60%) of the items in order for their responses to be included in the sum score of the subscale.

The responses from the resultant items were added together to get this “sum score” representing their total score for that subscale. The bivariate correlations between each pair of father involvement subscales were quite high (H1.2) and ranged from  $r = .65$  to  $.87$  (see Table 7). The vast majority of respondents gave enough data for their scores to be included in the sum score creation.

Next, all father involvement subscales were included in a factor analysis to determine the factor structure of the overarching father involvement construct. All subscales were found to load adequately onto a single father involvement construct (H1.2) with sufficient strength (factor loadings range from  $.75$ -. $93$ ) and excellent internal consistency ( $\alpha = .93$ ; Table 8). Subscale total sum scores were standardized (i.e., z-scores were created) and they were combined into a single crystallized measure of father involvement—termed “Total FI.” In analyses, father involvement subscale sum scores and the Total FI construct were each examined as predictors of academic performance.

Next, the extent to which fathers were reportedly involved in their children’s lives was examined (H1.1). All items were rated on a 1-5 or 1-6 Likert scale, with low numbers representing less involvement and higher numbers representing more involvement (i.e., Likert 1-5 range: Low = 0-1, Mid = 2-3, High = 4-5; Likert 1-6 range: Low = 0-2, Mid = 3-4, High = 5-6). As can be seen from the mean scores for items on each subscale (Tables 1, 3-6), participants rated their fathers’ level of involvement in the moderate to high range, though there was variability in responses. Approximately 78% of mean scores on the School Help subscale were in the moderate range (i.e., 7 of 9 of the items had mean scores at ratings between 2-3, inclusive); 100% of mean scores on the Social Support, Broad Involvement, and Monitoring subscales were

in the moderate range; and 86% of mean scores on the Achievement Encouragement subscale were in the high range.

### **Aim 2: Academic Performance Descriptive Statistics**

For Aim 2, the extent to which youth's report of their father's influence on their academic performance (up to high school) and college academic performance post-graduation was examined.

Tables 9 and 10 present descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, range and factor loadings (where available) for individual items onto their respective Academic Performance subscale (e.g., Kaufman Test of Educational Achievement (KTEA), Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), Grade Point Average (GPA), and the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT)). The KTEA, administered during the age 7 phase of the project, showed performance in the mid-range (Table 9). The TERA-2 achievement test, on the other hand, showed average performance for this sample below the 50<sup>th</sup> percentile of scores (Table 9). During the age 7 collection phase of the project, most students' grades were in the C+ average range (GPA = 2.45), but showed some decline during the age 14 data collection phase where average grades were below a C (GPA = 1.97). Individual subscales for the WIAT (administered during the Age 14 assessment) had good internal consistency (Table 10;  $\alpha = .96$ ) and there was variability in scores represented. When examined together, all WIAT subscales were highly correlated. As a result, only the Overall Reading, Overall Written Expression, and Overall Math standard scores were used in analyses. Additionally, a composite standardized variable (i.e., z-score) representing general WIAT performance was used in analyses. WIAT standard scores on a given subscale ranged from 0-136. Mean scores ranged from 74.64 ( $SD = 14.96$ , Borderline) to 86.64 ( $SD = 16.62$ , Low Average).



Educational attainment (i.e., questions about post-secondary matriculation) was examined at age 19 (Table 11, college enrollment data), and youth were asked questions (i.e., “yes or no”) about whether or not they had achieved certain educational milestones. There was a wide range of responses when students were asked about their highest level of education completed. Approximately 18.2% ( $N = 72$ ) of youth completed the 11<sup>th</sup> grade; 41.3% ( $N = 163$ ) completed the 12<sup>th</sup> grade (but 66% ( $N = 260$ ) and said they received a HS diploma) with 5.8% ( $N = 23$ ) earning a GED; 10% ( $N = 45$ ) had one year of college; and 10.2% ( $N = 46$ ) had two years of college. Some students (4.1%,  $N = 16$ ) had some kind of trade/skill certification or another type of degree.

Academic performance status was also collected from a subsample during the current young adult data collection. Unfortunately, too few data points were collected to draw meaningful conclusions regarding participants’ current level of academic performance and degree completion as this question was added after data collection had already begun.

### **Aim 2: Bivariate Correlations—Father Involvement with Academic Performance**

Next, the extent to which father involvement was related to school achievement and later academic performance was examined. First, bivariate correlations between each father involvement construct and each academic performance variable (e.g., KTEA, TERA-2, GPA, and WIAT) were examined (Table 12) to understand how these constructs might be related. With few exceptions, correlations between these two groups of variables were very weak with  $r$ -values ranging from  $-.08$  to  $.28$ . Of these correlations, there were only three statistically significant associations, the relationship between the GPA in adolescence and the Broad Involvement ( $r = .28, p < .01$ ), Social Support ( $r = .23, p < .05$ ), and Total FI ( $r = .23, p < .05$ ) subscales.

Then, bivariate correlations between each father involvement construct and each key covariate used in analyses (e.g., mother IQ, age, and education; father age and education; child IQ; HOME score; caregiver's marital status; mother's custody status; and SES) were examined (Table 13). Again, correlations between these pairs of variables were rather weak, ranging from  $r = -.14$  to  $.28$ . Of these correlations, there were few statistically significant correlations. Mother IQ was significantly correlated with School Help father involvement ( $r = .23, p < .05$ ). Child IQ at age 14 was significantly correlated with the School Help ( $r = .21, p < .05$ ), Achievement Encouragement ( $r = .22, p < .05$ ), and Total Father Involvement ( $r = .21, p < .05$ ) subscales. The HOME Score at age 7 was significantly correlated with Achievement Encouragement Father Involvement ( $r = .22, p < .05$ ). Caregiver Marital Status (0 = unmarried, 1 = married) at age 14 was significantly correlated with all forms of Father Involvement except Achievement Encouragement. Lastly, Custody Status (0 = other caregiver, 1 = mother) was correlated with each subtype of Father Involvement except for School Help and Achievement Encouragement.

Next, bivariate correlations were examined between the father involvement subscales and the post-secondary academic performance variables at the age 19 data collection phase (Table 14). None of these correlations were statistically significant. Bivariate correlations were also examined between the father involvement subscales from the young adult data collection and father involvement variables collected during the earlier waves of the larger longitudinal study (Table 15). Values ranged from  $r = -.31$  to  $.39$ . Significant relationships were found between "*Child spends time with father*" (age 7) and all Father Involvement subscales except for Achievement Encouragement, with  $r$ -values ranging from  $.24$ -. $.33$ . Likewise, the age 14 variable, "*Child spends regular time with father*" was significantly correlated with all Father Involvement

subscales, with  $r$ -values ranging from .21-.38. “*Father figure regularly engages in outdoor recreation with child*” (age 7) was significantly inversely related to the Social Support Father Involvement subscale ( $r = -.26, p < .05$ ). Similarly, “*Child’s father does outdoor activities*” (age 7) was correlated with all subscales of Father Involvement except Social Support. “*Biofather lives with child*”(age 14) was correlated with all subscales of Father Involvement except School Help. Lastly, the variable “*Spends regular time with father*” (age 19) was significantly correlated with all of the Father Involvement subscales except for School Help.

Next, the father involvement variables from the child and adolescent waves of data collection from the larger longitudinal study were examined in relation to the academic performance variables (Table 16). Correlation values ranged from -.20 to .20. Only “*How often does your child eat a meal at the table with both mother and father?*” (age 7) was correlated with the KTEA at age 7 ( $r = .20, p < .05$ ).

These father involvement variables from the longitudinal study were also examined in relation to the academic performance variables at age 19 (Table 17). Correlation values ranged from -.45 to .35. Significant inverse relationships were found to exist between the variable “*Child eats at least one meal per day on most days with mother and father*” (age 7) and the academic performance variable (age 19) “*Currently in school?*” ( $r = -.12, p < .05$ ) and “*Received GED?*” ( $r = .13, p < .05$ ). Additionally, the variable “*Child sees and spends some time with father four days a week*” (age 7) was significantly inversely related to a participant reporting having earned “*other type of degree/certificate*” ( $r = -.11, p < .05$ ). The variable “*Father Figure regularly engages in outdoor recreation with child*” (age 7) was inversely correlated with “*Currently in school?*”, “*Highest grade completed,*” and a participant reporting having earned “*other type of degree/certificate.*” “*Child’s father do outdoor activities*” (age 7) was inversely

related to “*Received GED?*” ( $r = -.10, p < .05$ ). Lastly, the longitudinal study father involvement variable “*Child spends regular time with father*” (age 14) was related to both “*Highest grade completed*” ( $r = .13, p < .05$ ) and “*Received HS diploma?*” ( $r = .11, p < .05$ ).

### **Aim 2: Regression Analyses—Age 7 Variables (H2.1)**

Given few significant correlations between major father involvement constructs and related academic achievement outcomes and key covariates, significant findings were not expected when predicting academic achievement outcomes from the same father involvement constructs in multiple regressions. In separate hierarchical linear multiple regressions, each school-related academic achievement outcome was regressed on each type of identified father involvement while accounting for key covariates (H2.2). Where applicable, a filter was created that selected for cases in which father involvement variables were present ( $N = 93$ ) from the young adult data collection phase. Three age 7 academic performance outcomes were examined: the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA). Results from regression analyses of these academic performance outcomes (age 7), in relation to each of the six father involvement predictors, can be seen in Tables 18-23. Of the key predictors of interest, none of the father involvement constructs were significant predictors of academic performance outcomes at the age 7 data collection.

We examined the degree to which father involvement variables collected at the age 7 wave of the larger longitudinal study (e.g., child spends time with father, child’s father does outdoor activities, child eats meals with mother and father, etc.) influenced academic outcomes during the age 7 data collection phase. Regression analyses were conducted for each of the longitudinal study father involvement measures collected at age 7 (Tables 24-31) with relation to

the age 7 academic performance outcomes (i.e., KTEA, TERA-2, and GPA). There were no significant relationships between age 7 father involvement items from the larger longitudinal study and variables from the age 7 academic achievement outcomes.

### **Aim 2: Regression Analyses—Age 14 Variables (H2.1)**

Next, separate regression analyses were repeated for the age 14 academic performance outcomes (Tables 32-37) with relation to each type of identified father involvement predictor and associated covariates. Broad Father Involvement was a significant predictor of WIAT Written Expression (Table 36;  $\beta = -.18, p < .05$ ). There were no other significant associations between father involvement variables collected at the young adult phase and age 14 academic performance outcomes.

Father involvement items from the age 14 data collection phase of the larger longitudinal study were examined to determine the degree to which these father involvement variables (e.g., biological father lives with child, and child spends regular time with father) influenced age 14 academic performance outcomes (i.e., GPA and WIAT scores). When individual hierarchical linear multiple regression was used to predict each academic outcome from each of the father involvement variables from the larger longitudinal study (with age 14 predictors and academic outcomes together in the same model)—while holding key variables constant (H2.2)—there were few significant findings (Tables 38-39). The variable “*Child spends regular time with father?*” was a significant predictor of both GPA (age 14;  $\beta = .14, p < .01$ ) and WIAT Math scores ( $\beta = .09, p < .05$ ).

### **Aim 3: Regression Analyses—Gender Differences (H3.1)**

The objective of this aim was to investigate gender differences with regard to the influence of father involvement constructs on academic achievement outcomes at different

waves of data collection (i.e., age 7 and 14). To accomplish this task, a filter was created in SPSS allowing separate analysis of male and female data. There were no significant correlations between father involvement measures and academic performance outcomes for males. However, few males provided data on the father involvement constructs at the young adult data collection phase ( $n = 24$ ), so these findings should be interpreted with caution. For females, there were several notable associations between father involvement variables and achievement performance indicators. Broad Father Involvement was significantly correlated with GPA at age 14 ( $r = .27, p < .05$ ); School Help father involvement was significantly related to WIAT Reading scores ( $r = .29, p < .05$ ); Achievement Encouragement father involvement was associated with WIAT Math scores ( $r = .27, p < .05$ ); and Total Father Involvement was significantly correlated with WIAT Reading ( $r = .25, p < .05$ ) and Math scores ( $r = .25, p < .05$ ).

Next, the predictive power of father involvement measures with regard to academic performance outcomes as separated by gender was examined to determine if these relationships remained (H3.1). Using separate hierarchical linear multiple regressions, each school-related academic performance outcome was regressed on each type of identified father involvement while holding associated key covariates constant (H3.2) within the female subsample (see analytical description pertaining to Tables 18-39). Regressions were not conducted for the male subsample due to the very small sample size and the lack of significant bivariate correlations. Interestingly, despite significant correlations between father involvement measures and academic performance outcomes for the female subsample, regression analyses yielded no significant findings.

Previously, academic performance outcome variables were regressed on father involvement items from the larger longitudinal sample (Tables 29-39). To determine if there

were any gender differences present in the larger sample, multiple hierarchical linear regression analyses were performed based on gender subsamples, while accounting for several key covariates. There were only two statistically significant findings, both with regard to the male subsample: 1) “*How often does your child eat a meal at the table with both mother and father?*” was a significant predictor of KTEA scores at age 7 ( $\beta = .31, p < .05$ ); and 2) “*Child spends regular time with father?*” was a significant predictor for GPA at age 14 ( $\beta = .21, p < .01$ ). There were no significant associations for the female subsample in this set of regression analyses.

## CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

The results of this study add to the literature regarding what is known about perceived fathering behaviors among urban African American youth. The focus of this study was to better understand the nature of father involvement in a sample of urban African American youth who have been followed longitudinally across time and through important developmental stages of children's lives and to evaluate the relationship between the father involvement construct and academic and school-related outcomes. Previous research findings focusing on the far-reaching effects of father involvement have been mixed (Meece, 2013; Lundberg, McLanahan, & Rose, 2007; Xu and Yeung, 2013). Clarity is especially needed with regard to urban African American youth. Above and beyond the father involvement construct, there are factors such as poverty and income inequality (McCartney, 2011), racial discrimination and systematic disadvantage (Benhorin & McMahon, 2008), crime and drug use (U.S. Department of Justice, 2002), as well as academic performance (U.S. Department of Education, 2010) that have been shown through research to adversely and disproportionately impact on negative outcomes for urban African American youth. Similarly, factors such as parental marital status and relationship quality (Fagan et al., 2009), intergenerational relationships, and job status have been associated with varying levels of father involvement in previous studies. The goal of the current study was to further shed light on the ways in which this construct affects the longitudinal development of an at-risk subset of youth.

Contrary to some popular beliefs regarding father involvement in urban African American families, the vast majority of participants in the current study reported involvement from fathers, mostly biological, throughout their lives. The first aim was to better understand the ways in which fathers were involved in the lives of their children. The literature suggests that



fathers are involved in the lives of their children in myriad ways (Flouri, 2012; Perry, Harmon, & Leeper, 2012), including play, emotional support, and caregiving activities (Castillo & Sarver, 2012), as well as providing financial support and developmental needs (Doherty et al., 1998; Palkovitz & Palm, 2009). The literature still lacks clarity on the nature of fathering behaviors in urban African American contexts (Jarrett, Roy, and Burton, 2012). Current findings indicate that fathers represented in the present sample were involved in their children's lives in a number of ways with varying degrees of frequency. More specifically, the extent of father involvement varied widely, including frequent contact through visitation with the child, sending greeting cards during special occasions, and speaking with the child over the phone. Also, many fathers were reported to be involved by helping in school, providing social support, promoting intellectual and moral development, monitoring their children's daily activities, as well as encouraging their overall academic achievement. In these different domains, fathers were reported to be involved to varying degrees, and, on average, participants reported that their fathers were involved in these areas at least to a moderate amount, but in many cases, participants rated their fathers as being very involved in their lives while growing up.

Also, as expected, the different types of father involvement examined were all highly correlated but with enough differentiation to stand apart from one another as distinct concepts. Findings from this study help to support the notion that fathers are involved in the lives of their children in myriad ways and to varying extents (Castillo & Sarver, 2012). Particularly, this study corroborates the idea that fathers are not just involved in the lives of their children in so-called "rough-and-tumble" play (Meece, 2013), but are also involved in ways that seek to help their children achieve academically (Pleck, 2007). Further, this study lends support to the idea that despite some of the barriers to involvement (e.g., poverty, job and relationship status,

intergenerational conflict, etc.), urban African American fathers continue to find ways to be involved with their children across their development in meaningful and impactful ways.

In the current study, several subscales measuring father involvement up to age 18 were created. Additionally, father involvement items and measures from the larger longitudinal study (drawn from demographic questionnaires completed by mothers at age 7 and 14 data collection waves) were also used in data analyses. Notably, there were strong correlations between these two sets of measures of father involvement. Such findings give validity to the particular father involvement constructs used, and show a level of congruence in views of father involvement from both mothers and their children across time, from age 7 to young adulthood. Part of the discussion in the literature is whether or not—and perhaps to what degree—mothers' report of father involvement is valid (Coley & Morris, 2002). Current findings not only suggest that current methods of measuring father involvement are valid, but also that reports of father involvement demonstrate convergent validity, holding up across time and across different reporters. While hearing from fathers directly is perhaps the most desirable method of collecting father involvement data, it is instructive to know that valuable information can still be gathered from alternative sources when available.

With regard to academic achievement, the literature suggests that African American youth who are able to excel in their education and who have fathers help them along the way have greater chances of earning advanced degrees (Aud et al., 2010) and better financial life outcomes (Grantham & Henfield, 2011). In this sample, multiple measures of academic achievement were collected, including the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA) and the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2) during the age 7 phase, components of the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT) at age 14, and Grade Point

Average (GPA) collected at both age 7 and 14 assessments. Most participants performed below average on standardized achievement tests that were collected during the age 7 phase of the larger longitudinal study, with average grades in school. Students' achievement scores did not significantly improve during the age 14 assessment. Likewise, academic performance as measured by grades in school declined from average to near failing. A finding of this kind in an urban, at risk sample is not completely surprising given the wealth of research in this area regarding historically poor performance (Aratani, Wright, & Cooper, 2011; U.S. Department of Education, 2010). We wanted to know if this pattern of achievement was stable over time. In order to ascertain this continuous pattern, participants were asked about their level of academic performance after the age 18/19 data collection phase of the study. Of students surveyed, most had completed high school and a good many were enrolled in school at the time they were surveyed. Very few, however, were taking college-level courses and even fewer had earned a degree of some kind. Given that most were not far out from high school graduation, it may be too early to draw conclusions regarding future degree completion.

These findings support trends of academic performance for African American youth that have improved since the 1940s and in which this particular group has seen a significant decrease in high school dropout rates (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Current findings also illustrate that although more African American youth from urban environments report high levels of father involvement while growing up and are graduating from high school, few enroll in college immediately after high school compared to other ethnic groups (Palmer and Maramba, 2011). Time will only tell, however, the extent to which this cohort completes higher levels of education and whether higher education is associated with past instances of father involvement.

Given the high frequency of reported father involvement across the sample, and the differences in achievement for students across time, the next step was to examine the ways in which different types of father involvement were related to evidence of academic functioning at different points during development. For the subsample who provided retrospective reports of childhood/adolescent father involvement at the young adulthood data collection ( $N = 93$ ), only GPA at age 14 was correlated with measures of father involvement. When examining the indicators of father involvement collected as part of the larger study ( $N = 450$ ), there were very few father involvement indicators that were related to school achievement. There were other constructs, however, that were significantly related to father involvement such as Mother IQ, Child IQ, HOME scores, caregiver marital status, and custody status. Due to the very limited data available on post-secondary academic performance, few conclusions could be drawn regarding the relationships between father involvement constructs and post-secondary academic performance. What is suggested, however, is that the developmental context—including those present in the home, their educational background, and the overall home environment—continues to be a strong indicator for father involvement. Future research should investigate which of these constructs—either individually or collectively—are significant contributors to differences seen in the father-child relationship.

Given correlational analyses and the lack of findings with regard to the relationships between father involvement constructs and achievement outcomes, it was not expected that many significant relationships among these constructs would be found in regression analyses with covariates. Indeed, there were no significant associations between father involvement and academic achievement at age 7 with regard to both the main father involvement subsample constructs as well as those from the larger longitudinal study. There were significant findings,

however, at the age 14 data collection phase that included broad involvement's relationship to children's writing abilities as well as time spent with children predicting their broad school performance (via GPA) and math performance. These findings are usually associated with mother involvement and education, and it provides further evidence that fathers can have a similar impact on children. It must be noted, however, that as bivariate correlations did not indicate significant associations among constructs, findings from regression analyses must be viewed with a degree of caution.

Statistical analyses with regard to gender differences present in the sample were exploratory in nature. Based on past research, there is some evidence to suggest that gender differences may exist with regard to the ways in which fathers interact with their children (Clarke-Stewart, 1978; Greene et al., 2001; Nugent, 1987; Wachs, Uzgiris, and Hunt, 1971; Yarrow et al., 1984). These studies suggested that these differences are not so much in the way a father cares for his children, as much as in the types of activities he engages in with them. Fathers have historically been thought to be more involved with their male children overall, devoting more physical activities to males and more activities related to verbal development with female children (Greene et al., 2001). More recent findings on this subject, however, have been mixed (Meece, 2013) when family contextual factors are considered more closely (Lundberg, McLanahan, & Rose, 2007; Xu and Yeung, 2013).

Due to the nature of the present sample and the small number of participants for analyses, there was low statistical power to detect statistically significant associations in this set of analyses. Analyses with male participants yielded no significant findings. For females, however, correlational analyses indicated several relationships between constructs encompassing broad involvement, helping in school, and achievement encouragement with school achievement

outcomes such as GPA and achievement test scores. These relationships are similar to those found in previous studies suggesting that fathers are involved in education promotion for their female children (Greene et al., 2001; Xu and Yeung, 2013). However once held up to the scrutiny of regression analysis, none of the father involvement constructs were significant predictors of school achievement outcomes for females. Operating under the premise that having increased statistical power would help to bear out these relationships, a larger group of participants—drawn from the data of the entire longitudinal cohort—were used in similar regression and correlational analyses for gender difference exploration. There appeared to be some significant predictive relationships with regard to two father involvement constructs (i.e. eating meals and spending regular time with the child) and their effects on achievement scores across time.

Findings from the current study are encouraging and illuminating as they support previous findings regarding the nature of father involvement among urban African American youth. As highlighted in the introduction of this study, the concept of father involvement has evolved in the past several decades from the Engagement-Accessibility-Responsibility approach (Lamb & Pleck, 1985), to a more encompassing and integrated philosophy (Pleck, 2010). This study highlights the moderate to high levels of father involvement by fathers (mostly biological) despite their primarily non-residential status. Likewise, this study demonstrates that fathers are involved in the lives of their children in myriad ways that are similar to generally and historically accepted “norms” for father involvement, including those that demonstrate positive engagement, responsiveness, monitoring, and process responsibility (Pleck, 2010). In the current sample, fathers were reported to have some direct engagement with their children across the lifespan, even if not continuous. Fathers were also reported to take responsibility for certain aspects of the

child's wellbeing by providing for physical needs and being there for the child even if not able to provide direct childcare regularly. Conversely, it would appear that accessibility was lacking in this sample as fathers were frequently reported absent during portions of children's lives during development for various reasons. Other aspects of father involvement as derived from theory on the construct—like providing social support, monitoring, and academic encouragement—were present to some degree in reports from the current sample, further supporting the multi-faceted nature of the construct.

This study was limited in several ways. First, though power analyses indicated that there would be adequate power to detect effects if they were present, there were some analyses that had very small amounts of data available and were thus underpowered. The underpowered nature of this study increased the risk of type II error, meaning that the null hypothesis (no relation between father involvement and academic performance) may have been incorrectly supported at times due to relatively low power to detect effects. Further, in some of the analyses regarding academic performance, many participants' scores were very low and clustered toward the bottom of the distribution of possible scores with few represented across the mid- and upper range of scores. This may indicate a floor effect leading to a false assumption that all participants from this population perform poorly on measures of academic performance, when in fact there may exist measures of academic performance that are more appropriate for this particular population. In addition, the floor effect could have attenuated associations between father involvement and academic performance that might have been supported if measures of academic performance had exhibited greater variability.

In addition, from a methodological standpoint, the degree of difficulty that would be involved with recruiting a sizable sample of young adult participants from the existing

longitudinal cohort was underestimated. Without a large enough sample for the young adult data collection, there were several hypothesized outcomes that appeared to be trending as predicted, but without sufficient power, no definitive conclusions could be drawn. This was especially true for analyses requiring a sufficient sample of male participants from the young adult data collection. While some conclusions were able to be drawn regarding the females in this population, none could be explored regarding males. This obviously limits the generalizability of the findings of this study. Future studies should seek to further explore gender differences with regard to father involvement. The sample of this study was also drawn from a very specific subset of the population—urban African American youth. While it is likely that findings would generalize well to the rest of the population, follow-up studies would need to examine a larger portion of the population to include nuances not captured by the most recent young adult data collection, especially with regard to the father involvement construct. Adding to this point, when sum scores were created representing the different domains of father involvement, participants had to contribute enough data (i.e., 60%) in order to be included in the sum score. To this end, it may be that the use of the all data could yield different results than what is reported here.

Lastly, certain aspects of the study were not implemented from the beginning and were not added to the young adult data collection protocol until later, including questions regarding academic performance and specific time periods for father involvement. As a result, there was not enough quantitative data to include these items in analyses, though qualitative impressions could be made. These data collection shortcomings, while not generally desirable, give concrete and instructive direction for future study in this area.

In future studies of urban African American youth, with regard to father involvement, it might be helpful to explore similar directions as those addressed in the current project with a



greater emphasis on recruiting a larger sample of young adults. With a larger sample, it will likely be easier to ascertain clearer outcomes regarding the hypotheses put forward in this study. Further, having greater power might allow for teasing apart gender differences that are perhaps present in this population. Additionally, future studies could help in the exploration of some of the areas of father involvement that were examined in this sample. Participants might be asked about what forms of father involvement they felt were most impactful for them during their development. Aggregate types of father involvement could be devised and analyses could be conducted to determine the degree of relationship between these constructs and developmental outcomes of interest. In the most recent young adult data collection, the degree to which father involvement impacted such areas as academic performance in college could not be determined as many participants had not yet obtained academic degrees. A follow-up with this subsample could yield greater numbers for analysis and further exploration in this area. Lastly, it would be interesting to better understand how this subsample defines success in their own lives above and beyond academic performance. Such dialogue with participants could reveal fundamental differences in the way that success is defined, giving researchers other avenues to explore with regard to the relationship between “life success” and father involvement during development. This is certainly an exciting time for the study of father involvement with many diverse avenues for further exploration.

## APPENDIX A: DATA ANALYSIS

Table 1  
*Descriptive Statistics for School Help Subscale*

Items	<i>N</i>	Mean ( <i>SD</i> )
My father did volunteer work at school.	92	1.89 (1.23)
My father went to school activities.	92	2.83 (1.69)
My father was involved in programs for parents.	92	2.80 (1.63)
My father went to parent teacher conferences.	92	2.46 (1.60)
My father went to activities in which I was involved.	92	2.87 (1.65)
My father thought he should help me with my HW.	90	3.94 (1.37)
When I asked for help with HW, my father usually gave it to me.	91	3.33 (1.62)
My father thought HW was a very important part of school.	91	4.01 (1.52)
When I got poor grades, my father offered help.	92	3.10 (1.63)

*Note.* Item responses reverse scored. Items range in value from 1-5, “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” Internal consistency ( $\alpha$ ) is .82.

Table 2  
*School Help Subscale Factor Loadings*

Items	Factor Loadings		
	1	2	3
My father did volunteer work at school.		.88	
My father went to school activities.			.81
My father was involved in programs for parents.			.71
My father went to parent teacher conferences.		.55	
My father went to activities in which I was involved.	.65		
My father thought he should help me with my HW.	.35		
When I asked for help with HW, my father usually gave it to me.	.83		
My father thought HW was a very important part of school.	.74		
When I got poor grades, my father offered help.	.80		

*Note.* Exploratory factor analysis with alpha extraction and varimax rotation. Internal reliabilities for each factor are as follows: 1) ( $\alpha$ ) is .83; 2) ( $\alpha$ ) is .70; and 3) ( $\alpha$ ) is .75.

Table 3  
*Descriptive Statistics for Social Support Subscale*

Items	<i>N</i>	Mean ( <i>SD</i> )	Factor Loading
My father showed that he was proud of me.	91	4.45 (1.77)	.87
My father understood me.	91	3.75 (1.80)	.87
My father listened to me when I needed to talk.	91	4.30 (1.84)	.83
My father made suggestions when I didn't know what to do.	91	4.09 (1.96)	.82
My father gave me good advice.	91	4.36 (1.77)	.87
My father helped me solve problems by giving me information.	91	4.23 (1.80)	.88
My father told me I did a good job when I did something well.	90	4.56 (1.87)	.84
My father nicely told me when I made mistakes.	91	3.82 (1.96)	.85
My father rewarded me when I did something well.	90	4.01 (2.01)	.86
My father helped me practice my activities.	90	3.30 (2.06)	.79
My father took time to help me decide things.	90	3.69 (1.93)	.90
My father got me many of the things I needed.	90	4.06 (1.99)	.84

*Note.* Items range in value from 1-6, "never" to "always." Internal consistency ( $\alpha$ ) is .97.

Table 4  
*Descriptive Statistics for Broad Involvement Subscale: "How involved was your father in the following aspects of your life from birth to age 18?"*

Items	<i>N</i>	Mean ( <i>SD</i> )	Factor Loading
Intellectual development	90	3.07 (1.56)	.88
Showing affection	90	3.26 (1.47)	.79
Modeling social interactions	90	2.94 (1.50)	.74
Teaching right/wrong	90	3.68 (1.58)	.90
Going to church	90	2.47 (1.64)	.63
Doing physical activities with me	89	2.97 (1.61)	.83
Helping me learn about jobs of interest	90	2.97 (1.71)	.76
Developing responsibility	90	3.42 (1.68)	.90
Developing independence	90	3.31 (1.69)	.85
Teaching me to do things	90	3.43 (1.64)	.86
Leisure, fun, play activities	90	3.10 (1.58)	.81
Providing income	90	3.56 (1.67)	.83
Sharing activities/interests	90	3.01 (1.50)	.86
Mentoring/teaching	90	3.07 (1.60)	.91
Caregiving	90	3.28 (1.62)	.86
Being protective	90	3.98 (1.49)	.81
Giving advice	90	3.58 (1.63)	.89
Discipline	90	3.22 (1.67)	.76
School/homework	90	2.98 (1.65)	.87
Being with me	90	3.24 (1.55)	.85

*Note.* Items range in value from 1-5, "never involved" to "always involved." Internal consistency ( $\alpha$ ) is .98.

Table 5  
*Descriptive Statistics for Monitoring Subscale*

Items	<i>N</i>	Mean ( <i>SD</i> )	Factor Loading
Did your father know what you did during your free time?	89	2.79 (1.41)	.80
Did your father know who you had as friends during your free time?	89	3.13 (1.53)	.89
Did your father usually know what type of homework you had?	89	2.98 (1.53)	.89
Did your father know what you spent your money on?	89	2.85 (1.47)	.84
Did your father usually know when you had a paper or exam due in school?	89	2.73 (1.59)	.88
Did your father know how you did in different subjects in school?	89	3.13 (1.59)	.85
Did your father know where you went when you were out with friends at night?	89	2.94 (1.62)	.88
Did your father normally know where you went and what you did after school?	89	3.08 (1.65)	.91

*Note.* Items range in value from 1-5, “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” Internal consistency ( $\alpha$ ) is .96.

Table 6  
*Descriptive Statistics for Achievement Encouragement Subscale*

Items	<i>N</i>	Mean ( <i>SD</i> )	Factor Loading
Your father had high hopes for your future.	89	4.29 (1.18)	.92
You father wanted you to do your best on everything.	89	4.25 (1.19)	.93
Your father thought you should go to college.	89	4.30 (1.21)	.88
Your father encouraged you to try hard when your grades were poor.	89	3.98 (1.43)	.87
Your father thought succeeding in life was important for you.	89	4.37 (1.15)	.91
Your father thought you were a good student.	89	4.07 (1.32)	.80
Hard work was important to your father.	89	4.10 (1.32)	.85

*Note.* Items range in value from 1-5, “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” Internal consistency ( $\alpha$ ) is .96.

Table 7  
*Bivariate Correlations: Father Involvement Subscales*

Subscale	School Help	Social Support	Broad Involvement	Monitoring	Achievement
Social Support	.77**				
Broad Involvement	.77**	.87**			
Monitoring	.76**	.78**	.82**		
Achievement	.65**	.72**	.71**	.65**	
Total FI	.85**	.93**	.93**	.90**	.83**

*Note.* \*\* $p < .01$ .  $N$  is 88-92



Table 8  
*Factor Analysis: Father Involvement Subscale Loadings*

Subscale	Factor Loading
Broad Involvement	.93
School Help	.84
Social Support	.92
Monitoring	.86
Achievement	.75

*Note.* Alpha factoring extraction method. Variance values rounded. Internal consistency ( $\alpha$ ) is .93.

Table 9  
*School Achievement: Descriptive Statistics for KTEA, TERA-2, and GPA*

Items	<i>N</i>	Mean ( <i>SD</i> )	Range
Kaufman Test of Education Achievement	443	8.21 (3.15)	1-18
TERA-2 Achievement Test	439	38.99 (20.23)	.80-93.50
GPA: Combined Avg (1998-1999)	406	2.45 (.85)	0-4.00
GPA: Combined Avg (2002-2008)	421	1.97 (.76)	0-4.00

*Note.* The Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2) and Grade Point Average (GPA) are indicators of academic performance.

Table 10  
*School Achievement: WIAT at Age 14*

Items	<i>N</i>	Mean ( <i>SD</i> )	Range	Factor Loading
Basic Reading	422	84.01 (15.49)	45-117	.89
Math Reasoning	422	82.13 (13.31)	47-129	.84
Spelling	422	86.64 (16.62)	46-133	.91
Reading Comprehension	422	85.23 (14.25)	40-136	.85
Numerical Operation	422	74.64 (14.96)	40-126	.79
Written Expression	421	79.80 (16.42)	40-129	.85
Overall Reading	422	80.70 (16.60)	40-132	.93
Overall Written Expression	421	81.30 (18.02)	14-131	.94
Overall Math	422	75.66 (15.04)	0-127	.85

*Note.* Internal consistency ( $\alpha$ ) is .96. The Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT) is an academic performance indicator.

Table 11  
*Educational Attainment at Age 19*

Items	<i>N</i>	Yes/No
Are you currently in school?	395	165/230
Highest grade completed in school	395	*12 <sup>th</sup>
Received HS diploma?	394	260/134
Received GED?	394	23/371
Received trade/skill certification?	395	13/382
Received other type of degree/certificate?	395	3/392

*Note.* Items responses are yes/no. \*Modal response.

Table 12  
*Bivariate Correlations: Father Involvement Subscales with Academic Performance*

Variables	Broad Involvement	School Help	Social Support	Monitoring	Achievement Encouragement	Total FI
Kaufman	-.02	-.00	-.07	-.08	.06	-.03
TERA-2	.10	.12	.09	.16	.15	.14
GPA (Age 7)	-.02	.12	.04	.05	.14	.07
GPA (Age 14)	.28**	.17	.23*	.19	.12	.23*
WIAT Reading	.03	.19	.06	.15	.12	.12
WIAT Written Expression	-.04	.16	.04	.09	.09	.07
WIAT Math	.14	.18	.09	.15	.18	.17
WIAT Composite	.04	.19	.07	.14	.14	.13

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ . The Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), Grade Point Average (GPA), and the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT) are indicators of academic performance.  $N$  is 86-91.

Table 13  
*Bivariate Correlations: Father Involvement Subscales with Covariates*

Variables	Broad Involvement	School Help	Social Support	Monitoring	Achievement Encouragement	Total FI
Mother IQ	.11	.23*	.07	.11	.12	.14
Mother Education	.05	.05	.03	.14	.02	.08
Mother Age	-.04	-.05	-.04	.02	.01	-.02
Father Education	-.02	.02	-.13	-.01	-.03	-.05
Father Age	-.01	-.08	-.01	.02	-.05	-.03
Child IQ (Age 7)	.06	.03	.00	.08	.19	.06
Child IQ (Age 14)	.18	.21*	.14	.18	.22*	.21*
HOME Score (Age 7)	.12	.06	.11	.15	.22*	.14
HOME Score (Age 14)	.07	.09	.04	.09	.00	.07
Caregiver Marital Status (Age 7)	-.04	-.07	-.14	-.10	-.04	-.07
Caregiver Marital Status (Age 14)	.28**	.26*	.22*	.26*	.17	.25*
Custody Status	.22*	.17	.27*	.23*	.21	.25*
SES	-.04	.15	.03	-.01	-.02	.04

Note. \* $p < .05$ ,  $N$  is 66-92.

Table 14  
*Bivariate Correlations: Father Involvement Subscales with Academic Performance Variables at Age 19*

Items	Broad Involvement	School Help	Social Support	Monitoring	Achievement Encouragement	Total FI
Currently in school?	-.10	-.03	-.04	-.06	-.08	-.05
Highest grade completed?	-.01	.00	.05	.01	.13	.07
Received HS diploma?	.11	.21	.17	.16	.14	.19
Received GED?	-.08	-.10	-.13	-.01	.04	-.08
Trade/skill certification?	.00	-.03	.01	-.09	.00	-.03
Other type of degree/cert?	---	---	---	---	---	---

*Note.* *N* ranges from 3-89.

Table 15  
*Bivariate Correlations: Father Involvement Subscales with Father Involvement Measures from Longitudinal Study*

Items	Broad Involvement	School Help	Social Support	Monitoring	Achievement Encouragement	Total FI
Child eats at least one meal per day on most days with mother and father (Age 7)	-.05	-.07	-.11	.10	-.02	-.02
Child sees and spends some time with father four days a week (Age 7)	-.01	.03	.02	-.04	-.02	.01
How often does your child eat a meal at the table with both mother and father? (Age 7)	.16	.10	.02	.11	.15	.08
How often does your child spend time playing or "working" with his father? (Age 7)	-.25	-.13	-.08	.01	-.05	-.19
Father figure regularly engages in outdoor recreation with child (Age 7)	-.18	-.12	-.26*	-.13	-.21	-.20
Child's father do outdoor activities (Age 7)	.30**	.26*	.17	.39**	.25*	.30**
Child spend time with father (Age 7)	.28**	.24*	.26*	.33**	.07	.26*
Biofather lives with child? (Age 14)	.32**	.15	.27**	.25*	.24*	.27**
Child spend regular time with father? (Age 14)	.31**	.21*	.33**	.38**	.25*	.34**
Spend regular time with father? (Age 19)	.35**	.19	.34**	.34**	.31**	.33**

Note. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ .  $N$  ranges from 10-91.



Table 16  
*Bivariate Correlations: FI Items from Longitudinal Study with Academic Performance*

Items	KTEA (Age 7)	TERA-2 (Age 7)	GPA (Age 7)	GPA (Age 14)	WIAT Reading	WIAT Written	WIAT Math	WIAT Composite
Child eats at least one meal per day on most days with mother and father (Age 7)	-.02	-.05	.03	-.07	-.00	-.00	-.02	-.01
Child sees and spends some time with father four days a week (Age 7)	.05	-.04	-.06	-.09	-.00	-.00	.00	.00
How often does your child eat a meal at the table with both mother and father? (Age 7)	.20*	.03	.08	.05	.05	.16	.02	.08
How often does your child spend time playing or "working" with his father? (Age 7)	.01	.05	.06	-.00	.10	.08	-.00	.06
Father figure regularly engages in outdoor recreation with child (Age 7)	.02	-.08	-.02	-.06	-.07	-.09	-.07	-.08
Child's father do outdoor activities (Age 7)	-.03	.02	.09	.02	.00	-.01	.01	.00
Child spend time with father (Age 7)	-.02	.02	.04	.00	-.00	-.00	.03	.01
Biofather lives with child? (Age 14)	-.01	.01	.08	.06	-.01	.01	.01	.00
Child spend regular time with father? (Age 14)	.05	.02	.04	.01	-.01	.05	.06	.03
Spend regular time with father? (Age 19)	.01	.00	.10	.06	-.02	.00	.04	.01

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ . The Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), Grade Point Average (GPA), and Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT) are academic performance indicators. *N* ranges from 104-439.

Table 17  
*Bivariate Correlations: FI Items from Longitudinal Study with College Attainment at Age 19*

Items	Currently in school?	Highest grade completed?	Received HS diploma?	Received GED?	Trade/skill certification?	Other type of degree/cert?
Child eats at least one meal per day on most days with mother and father (Age 7)	-.12*	.02	-.03	.13*	.01	.06
Child sees and spends some time with father four days a week (Age 7)	-.05	-.02	.01	.03	.04	-.11*
How often does your child eat a meal at the table with both mother and father? (Age 7)	-.16	-.02	.12	.17	.09	---
How often does your child spend time playing or "working" with his father? (Age 7)	-.12	-.07	-.03	-.09	-.09	---
Father figure regularly engages in outdoor recreation with child (Age 7)	-.12*	-.11*	-.02	.03	.04	-.11*
Child's father do outdoor activities (Age 7)	-.02	.05	.07	-.10*	-.01	.08
Child spend time with father (Age 7)	.01	-.00	.02	-.10	-.00	.03
Biofather lives with child? (Age 14)	.05	.09	.08	-.05	.00	.04
Child spend regular time with father? (Age 14)	.08	.13*	.11*	-.07	-.04	.06
Spend regular time with father? (Age 19)	.02	.05	.09	-.01	-.04	.00

Note. \* $p < .05$ .  $N$  ranges from 6-97.

Table 18  
*Fathers' School Help as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 Years*

Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 86			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 85			GPA (7yr) n = 78		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.02	.04	-.06	.49	.20	.28*	.02	.01	.21
Caregiver's Marital Status (7yr)	-.63	.80	-.09	-13.52	4.28	-.31**	-.28	.20	-.15
Mother's Custody Status	-.46	.73	-.07	-2.59	3.96	-.07	.16	.19	.10
HOME Score (7yr)	.04	.06	.08	.39	.32	.13	.02	.02	.18
Mother's Age	.02	.07	.04	-.15	.35	-.05	.00	.02	.04
Caregiver Education	.04	.30	.02	3.24	1.67	.22	.03	.08	.05
Caregiver IQ	.02	.03	.08	.24	.17	.14	.02	.01	.25*
Child IQ	.36	.15	.30*	1.11	.80	.14	.04	.04	.13
Father's Age	-.00	.05	-.01	.12	.27	.05	-.00	.01	-.04
Fathers' School Help	-.13	.30	-.05	.94	1.62	.06	.02	.07	.02

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ . Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 19  
*Fathers' Achievement Encouragement as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 Years*

Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 84			TERA-2 (7yr) n= 83			GPA (7yr) n = 77		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.03	.04	-.09	.50	.20	.28*	.01	.01	.18
Caregiver's Marital Status (7yr)	-.81	.83	-.12	-16.04	4.35	-.36***	-.38	.21	-.20
Mother's Custody Status	-.56	.75	-.09	-3.60	3.97	-.09	.16	.18	.10
HOME Score (7yr)	.05	.06	.09	.32	.32	.10	.03	.02	.21
Mother's Age	.02	.07	.05	-.07	.35	-.02	.00	.02	.04
Caregiver Education	.05	.32	.02	3.97	1.69	.27*	.03	.08	.05
Caregiver IQ	.02	.03	.07	.22	.17	.13	.02	.01	.24*
Child IQ	.44	.16	.35**	1.34	.84	.17	.06	.04	.19
Father's Age	.00	.05	.01	.16	.26	.07	-.00	.01	-.01
Achievement Encouragement Father Involvement	-.06	.33	-.02	2.33	1.69	.13	.01	.08	.01

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 20  
*Fathers' Social Support as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 Years*

Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 85			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 85			GPA (7yr) n = 77		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.03	.04	-.13	.47	.19	.27*	.01	.01	.15
Caregiver's Marital Status (7yr)	-.73	.81	-.11	-14.80	4.30	-.33***	-.35	.21	-.19
Mother's Custody Status	-.55	.75	-.09	-2.93	3.98	-.07	.13	.19	.08
HOME Score (7yr)	.06	.06	.12	.44	.31	.14	.03	.02	.22*
Mother's Age	.02	.07	.04	-.12	.35	-.04	.01	.02	.04
Caregiver Education	.13	.31	.06	3.37	1.64	.23*	.05	.08	.08
Caregiver IQ	.02	.03	.08	.25	.17	.15	.02	.01	.26*
Child IQ	.43	.15	.35**	1.40	.80	.18	.07	.04	.21
Father's Age	.00	.05	.01	.15	.26	.06	-.00	.01	-.02
Social Support Father Involvement	-.16	.22	-.08	.89	1.14	.07	-.01	.05	-.02

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 21  
*Fathers' Monitoring as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 Years*

Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n= 84			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 83			GPA (7yr) n = 77		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.03	.04	-.11	.49	.20	.28*	.01	.01	.16
Caregiver's Marital Status (7yr)	-.96	.83	-.14	-15.35	4.43	-.34***	-.40	.21	-.21
Mother's Custody Status	-.41	.74	-.07	-3.48	4.01	-.09	.20	.18	.12
HOME Score (7yr)	.05	.06	.10	.37	.32	.12	.03	.02	.21
Mother's Age	.02	.07	.04	-.06	.35	-.02	.00	.02	.03
Caregiver Education	.09	.31	.04	3.61	1.69	.24*	.03	.08	.05
Caregiver IQ	.02	.03	.09	.23	.17	.14	.02	.01	.26*
Child IQ	.46	.16	.36**	1.46	.84	.18	.07	.04	.21
Father's Age	.01	.05	.03	.12	.27	.05	-.00	.02	-.00
Monitoring Father Involvement	-.33	.26	-.14	1.42	1.39	.10	-.05	.06	-.09

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 22  
*Fathers' Broad Involvement as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 Years*

Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 85			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 84			GPA (7yr) n = 78		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.03	.04	-.10	.52	.20	.29*	.01	.01	.15
Caregiver's Marital Status (7yr)	-.77	.82	-.11	-15.29	4.32	-.34***	-.39	.20	-.21
Mother's Custody Status	-.44	.74	-.07	-3.03	3.97	-.08	.21	.18	.13
HOME Score (7yr)	.05	.06	.11	.44	.31	.14	.03	.02	.21*
Mother's Age	.01	.07	.03	-.09	.35	-.03	.00	.02	.02
Caregiver Education	.02	.30	.01	3.45	1.64	.24*	.02	.07	.04
Caregiver IQ	.02	.03	.07	.22	.17	.13	.02	.01	.26*
Child IQ	.43	.16	.35**	1.28	.81	.16	.07	.04	.22
Father's Age	.01	.05	.02	.13	.27	.06	.00	.01	.00
Father's Broad Involvement	-.14	.27	-.06	1.59	1.41	.11	-.06	.07	-.11

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 23  
*Total Father Involvement as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 Years*

Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 87			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 86			GPA (7yr) n = 79		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.02	.04	-.07	.51	.19	.29**	.02	.01	.21
Caregiver's Marital Status (7yr)	-.62	.79	-.09	-13.42	4.20	-.31**	-.28	.20	-.15
Mother's Custody Status	-.44	.73	-.07	-3.47	3.96	-.09	.16	.19	.10
HOME Score (7yr)	.04	.06	.09	.37	.31	.12	.03	.02	.19
Mother's Age	.02	.07	.03	-.11	.35	-.04	.00	.02	.03
Caregiver Education	.02	.30	.01	3.28	1.64	.23*	.02	.08	.04
Caregiver IQ	.02	.03	.07	.23	.17	.13	.02	.01	.24*
Child IQ	.38	.15	.32*	1.05	.78	.14	.05	.04	.15
Father's Age	-.00	.05	-.01	.10	.26	.04	-.00	.01	-.04
Total Father Involvement	-.23	.39	-.07	2.60	2.09	.12	-.02	.10	-.02

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ . Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability (TERA-2) —2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, and Grade Point Average (GPA).



Table 24

*“Child spends time with father” as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 years*

Longitudinal Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 422			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 419			GPA (7yr) n = 382		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	.01	.01	.04	.26	.09	.15**	.01	.00	.13*
Caregiver’s Marital Status (7yr)	-.06	.33	-.01	-3.17	2.03	-.07	.01	.09	.00
Mother’s Custody Status	.07	.29	.01	-1.20	1.76	-.03	.00	.08	.00
HOME Score (7yr)	.03	.03	.05	.57	.17	.17***	.02	.01	.16**
Mother’s Age	-.00	.03	-.00	.09	.18	.03	.01	.01	.08
Caregiver Education	.24	.12	.11*	1.62	.72	.12*	.02	.03	.03
Caregiver IQ	.02	.02	.08	.31	.09	.16***	.01	.00	.15**
Child IQ	.39	.05	.36***	1.62	.30	.24***	.07	.01	.24***
Father’s Age	.01	.02	.04	-.11	.13	-.05	-.01	.01	-.09
Child spends time with father	-.19	.29	-.03	.94	1.81	.02	.00	.08	.00

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 25

*“Child eats at least one meal/day on most days with mother and father” as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 years*

Longitudinal Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 414			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 411			GPA (7yr) n = 375		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	.01	.02	.05	.27	.09	.15**	.01	.00	.13*
Caregiver’s Marital Status (7yr)	-.08	.34	-.01	-3.65	2.05	-.08	-.01	.10	-.01
Mother’s Custody Status	.00	.29	.00	-1.65	1.76	-.04	-.01	.08	-.00
HOME Score (7yr)	.03	.03	.05	.50	.17	.15**	.02	.01	.16**
Mother’s Age	-.00	.03	-.00	.10	.18	.03	.01	.01	.08
Caregiver Education	.21	.12	.10	1.37	.72	.10	.02	.03	.03
Caregiver IQ	.02	.02	.07	.32	.09	.17***	.01	.00	.15**
Child IQ	.40	.05	.37***	1.69	.31	.25***	.06	.01	.22***
Father’s Age	.01	.02	.04	-.09	.13	-.04	-.01	.01	-.10
Child eats at least one meal/day on most days with mother and father	.07	.32	.01	.16	1.94	.00	-.05	.09	-.03

Note. \*p < .05; \*\*p < .01; \*\*\*p < .001. Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 26

*“Child sees and spends some time with father 4 days/week” as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 years*

Longitudinal Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 412			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 409			GPA (7yr) n = 373		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	.01	.02	.04	.27	.09	.16**	.01	.00	.13*
Caregiver’s Marital Status (7yr)	-.04	.33	-.01	-3.83	2.03	-.08	-.01	.09	-.01
Mother’s Custody Status	-.01	.29	-.00	-1.62	1.76	-.04	-.01	.08	-.00
HOME Score (7yr)	.04	.03	.07	.48	.17	.14**	.02	.01	.15**
Mother’s Age	-.00	.03	-.01	.10	.18	.03	.01	.01	.08
Caregiver Education	.19	.12	.09	1.46	.72	.10*	.02	.03	.03
Caregiver IQ	.02	.02	.08	.31	.09	.16***	.01	.00	.14
Child IQ	.40	.05	.37***	1.67	.31	.25***	.06	.01	.23***
Father’s Age	.01	.02	.04	-.08	.13	-.04	-.01	.01	-.10
Child sees and spends some time with father 4 days/week	.34	.30	.05	.44	1.86	.01	-.08	.09	-.05

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 27

*“How often does your child eat a meal at the table with both mother and father?” as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 years*

Longitudinal Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 109			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 109			GPA (7yr) n = 98		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.00	.03	-.01	.37	.17	.22*	.02	.01	.20
Caregiver’s Marital Status (7yr)	.52	.61	.08	-7.02	3.77	-.18	-.22	.20	-.12
Mother’s Custody Status	.62	.55	.11	4.39	3.40	.12	-.10	.18	-.06
HOME Score (7yr)	.04	.05	.09	-.05	.33	-.02	.02	.02	.16
Mother’s Age	-.03	.05	-.06	-.05	.34	-.02	.02	.02	.12
Caregiver Education	.15	.22	.08	1.97	1.38	.16	.01	.07	.02
Caregiver IQ	.05	.03	.18	.31	.18	.17	.00	.01	-.00
Child IQ	.24	.10	.25*	1.03	.59	.17	.02	.03	.08
Father’s Age	.00	.03	.01	.17	.20	.10	-.01	.01	-.12
How often does your child eat a meal at the table with both mother and father?	.46	.28	.15	.13	1.74	.01	-.00	.09	-.01

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ . Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 28

*“How often does your child spend time playing or working with his father?” as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 years*

Longitudinal Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 108			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 108			GPA (7yr) n = 97		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	.00	.03	.01	.40	.17	.24*	.02	.01	.21
Caregiver’s Marital Status (7yr)	.87	.62	.14	-6.83	3.71	-.17	-.22	.21	-.12
Mother’s Custody Status	.60	.56	.11	5.30	3.32	.15	-.08	.18	-.05
HOME Score (7yr)	.06	.06	.13	-.09	.33	-.03	.02	.02	.16
Mother’s Age	-.02	.05	-.05	-.06	.33	-.02	.02	.02	.12
Caregiver Education	.12	.23	.06	2.35	1.35	.19	.02	.07	.03
Caregiver IQ	.06	.03	.20	.24	.18	.14	-.00	.01	-.01
Child IQ	.25	.10	.26*	.90	.58	.15	.02	.03	.07
Father’s Age	-.01	.03	-.02	.19	.20	.11	-.01	.01	-.11
How often does your child spend time playing or working with his father	.18	.19	.09	1.09	1.14	.09	.02	.06	.04

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ . Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 29  
 “Father regularly engages in outdoor recreation with child” as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 years

Longitudinal Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 423			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 420			GPA (7yr) n = 383		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	.01	.01	.04	.26	.09	.15**	.01	.00	.13*
Caregiver’s Marital Status (7yr)	-.02	.33	-.00	-3.31	2.04	-.07	.00	.09	.00
Mother’s Custody Status	.08	.29	.01	-1.27	1.75	-.03	.00	.08	.00
HOME Score (7yr)	.04	.03	.08	.51	.17	.15**	.02	.01	.15**
Mother’s Age	-.01	.03	-.01	.10	.18	.03	.01	.01	.08
Caregiver Education	.23	.12	.11*	1.63	.72	.12*	.02	.03	.03
Caregiver IQ	.02	.02	.07	.32	.09	.16***	.01	.00	.15**
Child IQ	.38	.05	.36***	1.65	.30	.24***	.07	.01	.25***
Father’s Age	.01	.02	.04	-.11	.13	-.05	-.01	.01	-.10
Father regularly engages in outdoor recreation with child	.22	.30	.03	-.98	1.85	-.02	-.03	.08	-.02

Note. \*p < .05; \*\*p < .01; \*\*\*p < .001. Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 30  
 “Child’s father does outdoor activities” as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 years

Longitudinal Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 399			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 397			GPA (7yr) n = 362		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	.00	.02	.01	.25	.09	.14**	.01	.00	.10
Caregiver’s Marital Status (7yr)	-.02	.34	-.00	-2.64	2.08	-.06	.10	.10	.05
Mother’s Custody Status	.04	.29	.01	-1.16	1.80	-.03	-.01	.08	-.01
HOME Score (7yr)	.03	.03	.05	.57	.17	.17***	.02	.01	.16**
Mother’s Age	-.02	.03	-.04	.14	.19	.05	.01	.01	.11
Caregiver Education	.26	.12	.12*	1.64	.74	.12*	.02	.03	.03
Caregiver IQ	.03	.02	.10	.31	.09	.16***	.01	.00	.17***
Child IQ	.39	.05	.37***	1.70	.31	.25***	.07	.01	.27***
Father’s Age	.03	.02	.08	-.13	.14	-.06	-.01	.01	-.10
Child’s father does outdoor activities	-.19	.32	-.03	-.07	1.99	-.00	-.03	.09	-.02

Note. \*p < .05; \*\*p < .01; \*\*\*p < .001. Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).

Table 31

*“Child spends time with father” as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 7 years*

Longitudinal Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators								
	KTEA (7yr) n = 402			TERA-2 (7yr) n = 400			GPA (7yr) n = 365		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	.00	.02	.01	.25	.09	.14**	.01	.00	.11
Caregiver’s Marital Status (7yr)	-.03	.34	-.00	-2.41	2.07	-.05	.10	.09	.05
Mother’s Custody Status	.05	.29	.01	-.91	1.79	-.02	-.01	.08	-.01
HOME Score (7yr)	.03	.03	.06	.57	.17	.17	.02	.01	.16**
Mother’s Age	-.01	.03	-.03	.14	.19	.05	.02	.01	.12
Caregiver Education	.25	.12	.11*	1.54	.74	.11*	.02	.03	.03
Caregiver IQ	.03	.02	.09	.31	.09	.16***	.01	.00	.16***
Child IQ	.38	.05	.36***	1.69	.30	.25***	.07	.01	.27***
Father’s Age	.03	.02	.08	-.13	.14	-.06	-.01	.01	-.11
Child spends time with father	-.08	.29	-.01	-.23	1.78	-.01	.03	.08	.02

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Academic performance indicators are the Kaufman Test of Education Achievement (KTEA), the Test of Early Reading Ability—2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (TERA-2), and Grade Point Average (GPA).



Table 32  
*Fathers' School Help as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 14 years*

Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators														
	GPA (14yr) n = 84			WIAT Reading n = 85			WIAT Written Expression n = 85			WIAT Math n = 85			WIAT Composite n = 85		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.01	.01	-.15	.12	.14	.09	.15	.16	.10	-.01	.10	-.01	.01	.01	.07
Caregiver's Marital Status (14yr)	-.10	.17	-.06	-.49	3.03	-.01	-2.17	3.60	-.06	.60	2.27	.02	-.04	.14	-.02
Mother's Custody Status	.30	.16	.22	1.26	2.73	.04	-.71	3.24	-.02	1.33	2.04	.05	.04	.13	.02
HOME Score (14yr)	.02	.01	.24*	.06	.14	.04	.07	.17	.04	.02	.10	.01	.00	.01	.03
Mother's Age	-.01	.01	-.09	-.10	.24	-.04	.22	.29	.08	-.22	.18	-.11	-.00	.01	-.02
Caregiver Education	-.02	.06	-.03	1.77	1.10	.15	1.73	1.30	.13	-.07	.82	-.01	.07	.05	.10
Caregiver IQ	.00	.01	.05	-.03	.12	-.02	.03	.14	.02	.05	.09	.04	.00	.01	.01
Child IQ	.02	.01	.31*	.79	.11	.64***	.82	.14	.60***	.83	.09	.80***	.05	.01	.74***
Father's Age	-.01	.01	-.09	.07	.18	.04	.04	.22	.02	.09	.14	.06	.00	.01	.04
School Help Father Involvement	.04	.07	.07	.06	1.17	.00	-.18	1.39	-.01	-.51	.88	-.04	-.01	.06	-.02

Note. \* $p < .05$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Academic performance indicators represent Grade Point Average (GPA), and Reading, Written Expression, Math, and Composite scores for the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT).

Table 33  
*Fathers' Achievement Encouragement as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 14 years*

Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators														
	GPA (14yr) n = 82			WIAT Reading n = 83			WIAT Written Expression n=83			WIAT Math n = 83			WIAT Composite n=83		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.01	.01	-.14	.11	.14	.08	.14	.17	.09	-.02	.10	-.01	.00	.01	.06
Caregiver's Marital Status (14yr)	-.12	.17	-.09	1.71	2.91	.05	-.88	3.51	-.02	1.21	2.15	.04	.05	.14	.02
Mother's Custody Status	.36	.16	.27*	1.93	2.77	.06	-.10	3.35	-.00	1.34	2.05	.05	.07	.13	.04
HOME Score (14yr)	.02	.01	.23	.04	.14	.03	.06	.17	.03	.00	.10	.00	.00	.01	.02
Mother's Age	-.01	.01	-.07	-.14	.24	-.06	.17	.30	.06	-.19	.18	-.09	-.00	.01	-.03
Caregiver Education	-.00	.06	-.01	1.22	1.09	.10	1.31	1.32	.10	-.12	.81	-.01	.05	.05	.07
Caregiver IQ	.01	.01	.10	-.04	.12	-.03	.02	.14	.01	.04	.09	.04	.00	.01	.01
Child IQ	.02	.01	.30*	.81	.12	.67***	.84	.14	.62***	.82	.09	.80***	.05	.01	.76***
Father's Age	-.01	.01	-.07	.10	.18	.05	.06	.22	.03	.11	.13	.07	.01	.01	.05
Achievement Encouragement Father Involvement	-.00	.07	-.01	-.82	1.18	-.06	-.84	1.43	-.05	-.16	.87	-.01	-.04	.06	-.05

Note. \*p < .05; \*\*\*p < .001. Academic performance indicators represent Grade Point Average (GPA), and Reading, Written Expression, Math, and Composite scores for the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT).

Table 34  
*Fathers' Social Support as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 14 years*

Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators														
	GPA (14yr) n = 84			WIAT Reading n = 85			WIAT Written Expression n = 85			WIAT Math n = 85			WIAT Composite n = 85		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.01	.01	-.15	.12	.14	.09	.15	.16	.09	-.01	.10	-.01	.01	.01	.06
Caregiver's Marital Status (14yr)	-.14	.16	-.10	1.45	2.89	.04	-1.05	3.47	-.03	1.29	2.10	.04	.04	.14	.02
Mother's Custody Status	.31	.16	.23*	1.71	2.76	.05	-.36	3.32	-.01	1.68	2.00	.06	.07	.13	.04
HOME Score (14yr)	.02	.01	.25*	.03	.14	.02	.05	.17	.03	-.00	.10	-.00	.00	.01	.02
Mother's Age	-.01	.01	-.06	-.11	.24	-.05	.19	.29	.07	-.20	.18	-.10	-.00	.01	-.02
Caregiver Education	.00	.06	.00	1.45	1.08	.12	1.51	1.30	.12	-.14	.78	-.01	.05	.05	.09
Caregiver IQ	.01	.01	.11	-.06	.12	-.04	.01	.14	.01	.04	.09	.04	-.00	.01	-.00
Child IQ	.01	.01	.25*	.83	.11	.68***	.85	.14	.62***	.83	.08	.82***	.05	.01	.77***
Father's Age	-.01	.01	-.08	.09	.18	.05	.05	.22	.03	.11	.13	.07	.01	.01	.05
Social Support Father Involvement	.07	.05	.16	-.80	.81	-.08	-.75	.98	-.07	-.46	.59	-.06	-.04	.04	-.07

Note. \*p < .05; \*\*\*p < .001. Academic performance indicators represent Grade Point Average (GPA), and Reading, Written Expression, Math, and Composite scores for the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT).

Table 35  
*Fathers' Monitoring as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 14 years*

Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators														
	GPA (14yr) n = 82			WIAT Reading n = 83			WIAT Written Expression n = 83			WIAT Math n = 83			WIAT Composite n = 83		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.01	.01	-.13	.12	.14	.08	.14	.17	.09	-.02	.10	-.02	.00	.01	.06
Caregiver's Marital Status (14yr)	-.14	.17	-.10	1.63	2.95	.05	-.80	3.56	-.02	1.38	2.17	.05	.05	.14	.03
Mother's Custody Status	.34	.16	.25*	1.66	2.78	.05	-.21	3.36	-.01	1.48	2.04	.06	.06	.13	.04
HOME Score (14yr)	.02	.01	.23	.05	.14	.03	.07	.17	.04	.00	.10	.00	.00	.01	.03
Mother's Age	-.01	.01	-.06	-.14	.25	-.06	.16	.30	.06	-.20	.18	-.10	-.00	.01	-.03
Caregiver Education	-.00	.06	-.00	1.31	1.09	.11	1.40	1.31	.11	-.11	.80	-.01	.05	.05	.08
Caregiver IQ	.01	.01	.09	-.05	.12	-.04	.02	.14	.01	.05	.09	.04	.00	.01	.01
Child IQ	.01	.01	.28*	.79	.11	.66***	.83	.14	.61***	.83	.08	.81***	.05	.01	.75***
Father's Age	-.01	.01	-.08	.10	.18	.06	.07	.22	.03	.11	.13	.07	.01	.01	.06
Monitoring Father Involvement	.04	.06	.08	-.15	.98	-.01	-.49	1.19	-.04	-.40	.72	-.04	-.02	.05	-.03

Note. \* $p < .05$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Academic performance indicators represent Grade Point Average (GPA), and Reading, Written Expression, Math, and Composite scores for the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT).

Table 36  
*Fathers' Broad Involvement as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 14 years*

Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators														
	GPA (14yr) n = 83			WIAT Reading n = 84			WIAT Written Expression n = 84			WIAT Math n = 84			WIAT Composite n = 84		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.01	.01	-.10	.07	.14	.05	.09	.17	.06	-.02	.10	-.02	.00	.01	.03
Caregiver's Marital Status (14yr)	-.17	.17	-.12	2.27	2.90	.07	-.02	3.47	.00	1.32	2.16	.05	.08	.14	.04
Mother's Custody Status	.32	.16	.24*	2.06	2.72	.07	.41	3.26	.01	1.41	2.02	.05	.08	.13	.05
HOME Score (14yr)	.02	.01	.24*	.03	.14	.02	.05	.16	.03	-.00	.10	.00	.00	.01	.02
Mother's Age	-.01	.01	-.05	-.15	.24	-.06	.14	.29	.05	-.20	.18	-.10	-.01	.01	-.04
Caregiver Education	.01	.06	.01	1.31	1.07	.11	1.32	1.28	.10	-.12	.79	-.01	.05	.05	.07
Caregiver IQ	.00	.01	.08	-.03	.12	-.02	.04	.14	.03	.05	.09	.04	.00	.01	.02
Child IQ	.01	.01	.24	.85	.11	.70***	.90	.14	.66***	.83	.08	.81***	.05	.01	.79***
Father's Age	-.01	.01	-.09	.11	.18	.06	.08	.21	.04	.11	.13	.07	.01	.01	.06
Broad Father Involvement	.10	.06	.20	-1.95	1.02	-.16	-2.48	1.22	-.18*	-.30	.76	-.03	-.09	.05	-.14

Note. \* $p < .05$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Academic performance indicators represent Grade Point Average (GPA), and Reading, Written Expression, Math, and Composite scores for the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT).

Table 37  
Total Father Involvement as a Predictor of Academic Performance at Age 14 years

Longitudinal Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators														
	GPA (14yr) n= 85			WIAT Reading n = 86			WIAT Written Expression n = 86			WIAT Math n= 86			WIAT Composite n = 86		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.01	.01	-.14	.12	.14	.08	.14	.16	.09	-.01	.10	-.01	.01	.01	.06
Caregiver's Marital Status (14yr)	-.16	.17	-.11	1.04	2.95	.03	-1.08	3.45	-.03	.86	2.18	.03	.02	.14	.01
Mother's Custody Status	.30	.16	.22	1.20	2.80	.04	-.44	3.27	-.01	1.19	2.07	.04	.04	.13	.02
HOME Score (14yr)	.02	.01	.25*	.04	.14	.03	.06	.16	.03	.01	.10	.01	.00	.01	.03
Mother's Age	-.01	.01	-.08	-.13	.25	-.05	.19	.29	.07	-.22	.18	-.11	-.00	.01	-.03
Caregiver Education	-.00	.06	-.01	1.48	1.10	.12	1.51	1.29	.12	-.12	.81	-.01	.06	.05	.09
Caregiver IQ	.01	.01	.08	-.06	.12	-.05	.01	.14	.01	.03	.09	.03	.00	.01	-.01
Child IQ	.01	.01	.26*	.84	.12	.68***	.87	.14	.63***	.84	.09	.81***	.05	.01	.77***
Father's Age	-.01	.01	-.09	.06	.18	.03	.04	.21	.02	.09	.14	.05	.00	.01	.04
Total Father Involvement	.10	.09	.13	-1.21	1.55	-.07	-1.63	1.81	-.08	-.48	1.14	-.03	-.07	.07	-.07

Note. \* $p < .05$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ . Academic performance indicators represent Grade Point Average (GPA), and Reading, Written Expression, Math, and Composite scores for the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT).

Table 38  
Predicting Academic Performance at Age 14 years from "Biological father lives with child?"

Longitudinal Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators														
	GPA (14yr) n = 324			WIAT Reading n = 327			WIAT Written Expression n=326			WIAT Math n = 327			WIAT Composite n=327		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.00	.00	-.05	.05	.07	.03	.10	.08	.06	.06	.06	.05	.00	.00	.05
Caregiver's Marital Status (14yr)	-.04	.10	-.02	1.21	1.65	.03	1.02	1.86	.03	.88	1.31	.03	.06	.08	.03
Mother's Custody Status	.10	.08	.07	-.81	1.39	-.02	-.02	1.56	.00	1.33	1.10	.04	.01	.06	.01
HOME Score (14yr)	.01	.01	.10	.09	.08	.05	.13	.09	.07	.06	.06	.03	.01	.00	.06
Mother's Age	-.01	.01	-.07	.20	.14	.08	.39	.16	.14*	.09	.11	.04	.01	.01	.09*
Caregiver Education	.03	.03	.06	.88	.58	.07	.60	.65	.05	-.05	.46	-.00	.03	.03	.04
Caregiver IQ	-.01	.00	-.06	.01	.07	.01	.00	.08	.00	-.02	.06	-.01	-.00	.00	-.00
Child IQ	.02	.00	.41***	.76	.06	.62***	.82	.06	.61***	.87	.04	.77***	.05	.00	.74***
Father's Age	.00	.01	.02	-.26	.11	-.13*	-.30	.12	-.14	-.10	.09	-.06	-.01	.01	-.12*
Father's Education	.00	.03	.01	1.06	.53	.08*	.99	.60	.07*	.45	.42	.04	.05	.03	.07*
Biological father lives with child?	.05	.11	.03	-2.22	1.83	-.05	.40	2.07	.01	1.10	1.46	.03	-.01	.09	-.01

Note. \*p < .05; \*\*\*p < .001. Academic performance indicators represent Grade Point Average (GPA), and Reading, Written Expression, Math, and Composite scores for the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT).

Table 39  
*Predicting Academic Performance at Age 14 years from "Child spends regular time with father?"*

Longitudinal Predictors	Academic Performance Indicators														
	GPA (14yr) n = 323			WIAT Reading n = 326			WIAT Written Expression n = 325			WIAT Math n = 326			WIAT Composite n=326		
	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$	B	SEB	$\beta$
Socioeconomic Status	-.00	.00	-.04	.06	.07	.04	.11	.08	.07	.08	.06	.06	.01	.00	.06
Caregiver's Marital Status (14yr)	-.07	.09	-.04	.61	1.58	.02	.89	1.77	.02	.57	1.24	.02	.04	.07	.02
Mother's Custody Status	.09	.08	.06	-.87	1.39	-.03	-.13	1.56	-.00	1.15	1.10	.04	.01	.07	.00
HOME Score (14yr)	.01	.01	.08	.09	.08	.05	.13	.09	.06	.04	.06	.02	.01	.00	.05
Mother's Age	-.01	.01	-.07	.20	.14	.08	.39	.16	.14*	.09	.11	.04	.01	.01	.09*
Caregiver Education	.03	.03	.05	.85	.58	.07	.57	.65	.04	-.15	.46	-.01	.02	.03	.04
Caregiver IQ	-.00	.00	-.06	.01	.07	.01	.00	.08	.00	-.01	.06	-.01	.00	.00	.00
Child IQ	.02	.00	.42***	.76	.06	.62***	.82	.06	.61***	.88	.04	.78***	.05	.00	.74***
Father's Age	.00	.01	.04	-.26	.11	-.14*	-.29	.12	-.14*	-.08	.09	-.05	-.01	.01	-.12*
Father's Education	.01	.03	.01	1.06	.53	.08*	.99	.60	.07	.46	.42	.04	.05	.03	.07*
Child spends regular time with father?	.22	.08	.14**	-.59	1.42	-.02	.97	1.60	.03	2.80	1.12	.09*	.07	.07	.04

Note. \*p < .05; \*\*p < .01; \*\*\*p < .001. Academic performance indicators represent Grade Point Average (GPA), and Reading, Written Expression, Math, and Composite scores for the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test (WIAT).



Table 40  
*Study Measures Separated by Data Collection Phase*

Data Collection Phase					
	Birth (1989-1991)	Age 7 (1996-1999) (5.98-8.32)	Age 14 (2003-2006) (12.93-17.75)	Age 19 (2008-2011) (15.05-23.03)	Young Adult (2013-2015)
Measures	Mother Age Father Age	GPA (1998-1999) Child IQ Mother IQ HOME Caregiver Marital Status Mother Education Father Education KTEA TERA-2 Longitudinal FI	GPA (2002-2008) Child IQ Mother IQ HOME Caregiver Marital Status Mother Education Father Education WIAT SES Longitudinal FI	College Attainment Longitudinal FI	School Help (ASAIHR) Social Support (CASSSR) Broad Involvement (FIS) Monitoring (MONR) Achievement Encouragement (ACHR) Total FI Education Attainment Status Father Type

## APPENDIX B: STUDY MEASURES

### Father Involvement Preliminary Checklist

1. Do you currently have contact with your biological father? YES NO

b. IF NO, What is the reason you do not have contact with your biological father?

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2. Have you always been in contact with your biological father? YES NO

b. IF NO, at what age(s) were you not in contact with your biological father and why?

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If YES, discontinue.

If NO, continue.

3. If you are not currently in contact with your biological father, is there a male individual who is like a father to you, in other words a “father figure?” YES NO

b. If YES, how is this person related to you? (e.g., uncle, maternal grandfather, stepfather, etc.)

---

4. If you did not have contact with your biological father in the past, was there a male individual who is like a father to you, in other words a “father figure?” YES NO

b. How was this person related to you? (e.g., uncle, maternal grandfather, stepfather, etc.)

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Summary:

Time Period	Father Type (circle)		
Current	Biological	Father Figure ( )	None
Past	Biological	Father Figure ( )	None

\*Participants must identify ONLY ONE for each time period. If NONE is selected, participants must answer questionnaires to the best of their abilities according to ANY contact that they had with either their biological father or a father figure

**Educational Attainment Status**

1. Are you currently in school?                      **0= no    1=yes**
- a. If YES**, circle which one participant is currently attending:
- High school      College/University      Trade school**
- b. If NO**, do you have plans to enroll in the near future?
- When? \_\_\_\_\_ What kind of program? \_\_\_\_\_
- c.** If participant is taking college or trade school classes, how many hours per week? \_\_\_\_\_
2. What is the highest grade you completed? \_\_\_\_\_
3. Have you received any of the following? *(Please circle all applicable responses; if participant is still in high school, go to question #11.)*
- HS Diploma                  GED                  Trade/Skill Certification          Other \_\_\_\_\_**
4. What is the last level of formal education you have completed?
- 0 – No formal schooling
  - 1 – 7<sup>th</sup> grade or less
  - 2- Junior high completed
  - 3 – Partial high school (at least one year)
  - 4 – High school graduate/GED certificate
  - 5 – Partial college (at least one year) or specialized training
  - 6 – Junior college/Associates degree (2 years)
  - 7 – Standard college or university degree (4 years)
  - 8 – Graduate professional training or graduate degree

**ASAIH—Retrospective  
“School Help”**

Please circle the response that best reflects your feelings.

**1. My father did volunteer work at school.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**2. My father did not go to school activities.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**3. My father was not involved in programs for parents.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**4. My father went to parent teacher conferences.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**5. My father went to activities in which I was involved.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**6. My father thought he should not help me with my homework.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**7. When I asked for help with homework, my father usually gave it to me.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**8. My father thought homework was a very important part of school.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**9. When I got poor grades, my father offered help.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**Child & Adolescent Social Support Scale (CASSS, 2000)—Retrospective  
“Social Support”**

**My father...**

**1. ...showed that he was proud of me.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**2. ...understood me.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**3. ...listened to me when I needed to talk.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**4. ...made suggestions when I didn't know what to do.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**5. ...gave me good advice.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**6. ...helped me solve problems by giving me information.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**7. ...told me I did a good job when I did something well.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**8. ...nicely told me when I made mistakes.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**9. ...rewarded me when I did something well.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**10. ...helped me practice my activities.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**11. ...took time to help me decide things.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**12. ...got me many of the things I needed.**

Never	Almost Never	Some of the Time	Most of the Time	Almost Always	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6

**Father Involvement Scale**  
**“Broad Involvement”**

Please place the appropriate number on the line *before* each of the following items.

	How <i>involved</i> was your father in the following aspects of your life and development from birth to age 18?	Involvement Domains		What <i>did you want</i> your father’s level of involvement to be compared with what it actually was?
	1 = Never Involved 2 = Rarely Involved 3 = Sometimes Involved 4 = Often Involved 5 = Always Involved			1 = Much Less Involved 2 = A Little Less Involved 3 = It Was Just Right 4 = A Little More Involved 5 = Much More Involved
1a.	1    2    3    4    5	Intellectual development	1b.	1    2    3    4    5
2a.	1    2    3    4    5	Showing affection	2b.	1    2    3    4    5
3a.	1    2    3    4    5	Modeling social interactions	3b.	1    2    3    4    5
4a.	1    2    3    4    5	Teaching right/wrong	4b.	1    2    3    4    5
5a.	1    2    3    4    5	Going to church	5b.	1    2    3    4    5
6a.	1    2    3    4    5	Doing physical activities with me	6b.	1    2    3    4    5
7a.	1    2    3    4    5	Helping me learn about jobs of interest	7b.	1    2    3    4    5
8a.	1    2    3    4    5	Developing responsibility	8b.	1    2    3    4    5
9a.	1    2    3    4    5	Developing independence	9b.	1    2    3    4    5
10a.	1    2    3    4    5	Teaching to do things	10b.	1    2    3    4    5
11a.	1    2    3    4    5	Leisure, fun, play	11b.	1    2    3    4    5
12a.	1    2    3    4    5	Providing income	12b.	1    2    3    4    5
13a.	1    2    3    4    5	Sharing activities/interests	13b.	1    2    3    4    5
14a.	1    2    3    4    5	Mentoring/teaching	14b.	1    2    3    4    5
15a.	1    2    3    4    5	Caregiving	15b.	1    2    3    4    5
16a.	1    2    3    4    5	Being protective	16b.	1    2    3    4    5
17a.	1    2    3    4    5	Giving advice	17b.	1    2    3    4    5
18a.	1    2    3    4    5	Discipline	18b.	1    2    3    4    5
19a.	1    2    3    4    5	School/homework	19b.	1    2    3    4    5
20a.	1    2    3    4    5	Being with me	20b.	1    2    3    4    5

**MONITORING – Pregnancy Study Retrospective Report**

Please circle the response that best reflects your feelings.

**1. Did your father know what you did during your free time?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**2. Did your father know who you had as friends during your free time?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**3. Did your father usually know what type of homework you had?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**4. Did your father know what you spent your money on?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**5. Did your father usually know when you had a paper or exam due in school?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**6. Did your father know how you did in different subjects at school?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**7. Did your father know where you went when you were out with friends at night?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**8. Did your father normally know where you went and what you did after school?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**9. Did your father ever have no idea of where you were at night?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Turn the page over →

**ACHIEVEMENT – Pregnancy Study Retrospective Report**  
 “Achievement Encouragement”

**1. Your father had high hopes for your future.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**2. Your father wanted you to do your best on everything.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**3. Your father thought you should go to college.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**4. Your father encouraged you to try hard when your grades were poor.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**5. Your father thought succeeding in life was important for you.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**6. Your father thought you were a good student.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

**7. Hard work was important to your father.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5



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**ABSTRACT****URBAN AFRICAN AMERICAN YOUTHS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AS RELATED TO THEIR FATHERS' INVOLVEMENT DURING DEVELOPMENT**

by

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Father involvement in the context of urban African American youth was examined using a subsample ( $n = 556$ ) of a large cohort of participants followed longitudinally through development. Data was collected at regular intervals (e.g., Age 7, 14, 19 and young adult). Young adults ( $n = 93$ ) were surveyed for retrospective accounts of their fathers' involvement in their lives before age 18. In the young adult data collection phase (the main subject of this project), most participants reported varying levels and frequency of involvement from their fathers while growing up, including helping at school, providing social support, and encouraging academic achievement. Most participants performed below average on measures of academic performance during development though a good many were enrolled in post-secondary education at the time this data was collected. Hierarchical linear multiple regressions were used in statistical analyses, and there were very few statistically significant associations between father involvement and academic performance. There were also no consistent gender differences present with relation to father involvement. This study showed support for the many ways in which fathers are present in African American children's lives over time. Also, this study gives validity to the congruence that exists between the views of father involvement between mother and young adult reports.

## AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

I was born in Wurzburg, Germany to Nathaniel Goldwire and Marilyn Hall, both on active duty in the U.S. Army. I spent my formative years in Georgia, where both my parents were stationed at Fort Benning. I attended high school both at Columbus High School (Georgia; 1997-1998) and Smiths Station High School (Alabama; 1998-2001)—where I graduated as valedictorian. Growing up, I visited my grandparents in Lansing, MI, and always imagined that I would attend either the University of Michigan or Michigan State University. I applied to both schools and was accepted, but it was ultimately a really great scholarship package from Hope College in Holland, MI, that drew me there, where I graduated Magna Cum Laude (2001-2005). During this time, I began my career in research with a project investigating Hispanic youth in the area with Dr. Lorna Hernandez-Jarvis, exploring their attitudes toward acculturation and bilingualism. After college, I worked for Hope's Admissions Office (2005-2009) until I finalized my plans for graduate school. I eventually enrolled at Wayne State University (2009-2016) where I completed my studies in clinical psychology with an emphasis on child development and a minor in statistics. I worked in a laboratory with my mentor, Christopher Trentacosta, where I received exceptional hands-on experience in conducting research. Additionally, I gained much clinical experience through practica and community placements with various agencies in Detroit, culminating in the defense of my master's thesis in July 2012. Upon completion of academic requirements, I applied for and was selected for a pre-doctoral APA-accredited residency with the United States Air Force at Wilford Hall Ambulatory Surgical Center at Lackland AFB, San Antonio, Texas (2014-2015). During this time I became a commissioned officer at the rank of Captain. I now serve as a staff clinical psychologist at my first duty station at Dover AFB, Delaware, where I am the Officer in Charge of psychological testing and assessment as well as the mental health liaison to the Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) unit.