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Overcoming Adversity: Resilience of Low-income, Nonresidential, Black Fathers

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by

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my husband, Immanuel Coates, who provides never-ending support and encouragement for every project that I pursue. I love you very much, and I am so blessed to be married to the best man that I have ever met!

I also would like to dedicate this thesis to my mother, who dedicated her life to being a wonderful mother to my sister and I. Mom, every good quality that I possess came from you. I will cherish the unconditional love that you have provided me and will strive to live a life that would make you proud.

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Abstract

Objective. This study examined the factors associated with higher levels of paternal involvement among low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers. **Method.** Participants were 110 fathers of children up to the age of 10. Participants completed psychometrically sound measures of social support, spirituality, family of origin relationships, coparenting relationship quality, psychological well-being, motivation, conviction history, resilience, and father involvement. **Results.** A simultaneous multiple regression indicated that better psychological well-being and coparenting relationship quality and lower conviction rates since the birth of the child were significant predictors of higher levels of paternal involvement. Mediational analysis revealed that coparenting relationship quality partially mediated the relationship between psychological well-being and paternal involvement. Moderation analysis showed that social support moderated the relationship between psychological well-being and paternal involvement. **Conclusions.** This study provided evidence that several factors are related to higher levels of paternal involvement, specifically higher quality coparenting relationships and psychological well-being, more parenting-specific support from influential individuals, lower conviction rates since the birth of the child, and higher levels of resilience. The present study also illustrated the importance of examining disadvantaged fathers' strengths as targets for future interventions. **Implications.** Clinicians, social workers, program directors, and other individuals working with low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers should educate their

clients on the factors associated with higher levels of paternal involvement as well as provide necessary resources to aid fathers to become more involved with their children.

Introduction

More than 70% of Black children in the United States are born to unwed parents (Hamilton, Martin, & Ventura, 2010). This rate is disproportionately higher than any other racial group and more than twice as high as for White children. Nearly two-thirds of children born to unwed mothers will live apart from their biological fathers by the time the children are five years old (Carlson & McLanahan, 2010). Unwed, noncohabitating fathers are at an increased risk for low levels of father involvement (Cabrera et al., 2004; Marsiglio, Amato, Day, & Lamb, 2000). Relatedly, low-income and minority fathers disproportionately represent nonresidential parents (i.e., parents not living in the same household as their children); thus, they are at higher risk to demonstrate low levels of involvement with their children (Coley, 2001). King, Harris, and Heard (2004) found that lower socioeconomic status, coupled with the decreased likelihood of Black fathers to marry, is associated with lower levels of father involvement among this population. Nonresidential fathers' involvement with their children dramatically decreases over the lifespan of the child (Fagan & Palkovitz, 2007; Lerman & Sorensen, 2000). Additionally, as the father's romantic relationship with the child's mother deteriorates and when either parent repartners and has additional children, the biological father's involvement with previous children decreases (Dollahite, 2004; Edin, Tach, & Mincy, 2009; Jarrett, Roy, & Burton, 2002; Manning & Smock, 2000; Tach, Mincy, & Edin, 2010).

Involved, Low-Income, Nonresidential, Black Fathers

However, contrary to widespread beliefs that low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers are "deadbeat," uninvolved fathers, current research suggests that this subset of fathers are more involved with their children than previously thought (Cabrera et al., 2004; Smith, Krohn, Chu, & Best, 2005; Tamis-LeMonda & McFadden, 2010). For example, findings from the national Early Head Start (EHS) study indicated that more than 80% of the infants and toddlers in EHS had biological fathers who were involved in their lives (Cabrera et al., 2004). In a review of the Fragile Families and Child Well-Being study (FFCWB), Carlson and McLanahan (2010) found that the majority of low-income, minority fathers are involved with their children during the early stages of their children's lives. Specifically, 87% of fathers of 1-year-old children had seen their children since their birth, and 63% reported seeing their children multiple times a month. Additionally, 63% of fathers of five-year-old children reported contact with their children since they were three, and 43% reported seeing their children multiple times a month. Similarly, Argys et al. (2007) reported that up to 61% of nonresident, minority fathers maintain at least annual contact with their children ages zero to five. It is also widely accepted in the literature that nonresidential, Black fathers maintain more frequent contact with their children compared to White and Hispanic nonresidential fathers (Carlson & McLanahan, 2010; Lerman & Sorenson, 2000; Manning, Stewart, & Smock, 2003). While significant variation exists in the extent to which low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers are involved with their children (Furstenberg & Weiss, 2000; Lerman & Sorensen, 2000), recent research provides consistent evidence that the majority of fathers are regularly involved in the early stages of their children's lives

(Carlson & McLanahan, 2010). However, there has been little research conducted, to date, that examines nonresident fathers' involvement patterns with children above the age of five.

Effects of Father Involvement on Children

Researchers have documented the detrimental effects of father absence and the beneficial effects of father presence on children. Children who grow up with absent fathers are more likely to engage in criminal activity and substance abuse, drop out of school, and have poorer academic performance (DeBell, 2008; Jaffee, Caspi, Moffitt, Taylor, & Dickson, 2001; Pan & Farrell, 2006). Specifically, researchers found that boys with absent fathers are more likely to use drugs (Mandara & Murray, 2006), and girls are more likely to have teenage pregnancies (Ellis et al., 2003). Gender role development and interpersonal relationships are also impaired for father-absent children (Mandara, Murray, & Joyner, 2005). Conversely, children who grow up with positively involved fathers demonstrate lower levels of delinquency (Coley & Medeiros, 2007; Pan & Farrell, 2006), sexual-risk taking (Peterson, 2007), and alcohol and substance abuse (Caldwell, Sellers, Bernat, & Zimmerman, 2004; Jordan & Lewis, 2005; Pan & Farrell, 2006), as well as higher levels of self-esteem (Cooper, 2009), academic success (Battle & Coates, 2004; Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003; Caldwell et al., 2004), cognitive development (Shannon, Tamis-LeMonda, London, & Cabrera, 2002), perceived competence, and better overall psychological well-being (Dubowitz et al., 2001). Of importance, researchers have noted the harmful effects of children who are raised by fathers who demonstrate antisocial behaviors (Coley, Carrano, & Lewin-Bizan, 2011; Jaffee, Moffitt, Caspi, & Taylor, 2003). Researchers caution that not all father involvement is beneficial for the child. However, researchers have consistently demonstrated, across studies, the

favorable outcomes associated with children who have a positive father figure present throughout their childhood and the unfavorable outcomes of children who grow up with uninvolved fathers.

Research is scant and inconsistent on whether the presence of a father or the financial contribution of a second parent is responsible for the association between paternal involvement and more favorable child outcomes (Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004). For instance, researchers have found that children raised by lesbian parents (i.e., without a father) do not have less favorable outcomes compared to children reared by heterosexual parents (Anderssen, Amlie, & Ytterøy, 2002; Patterson, 2006). Some researchers have argued father absence is a factor that contributes to putting children at disadvantage, analogous to being low-income or having parents with low educational attainment (DeBell, 2008). Adding to the complexity of these findings, Greene and Moore (2000) found that nonresident fathers who contribute financially are also more likely to visit the child more often; thus, making it difficult to partition whether the better outcomes for children are based primarily on the nonresidential father's monetary support or actual presence in the child's life. However, other researchers have found that paternal involvement was related to positive child outcomes, even after controlling for father's monetary support (Flouri & Buchanan, 2003).

Risk Factors for Being an Uninvolved, Black Father

Research conducted on Black fathers has predominantly focused on the risk factors for being an absent father (Connor & White, 2006). These risk factors include being of low socioeconomic status and education level (Coley, 2001), being unwed (Argys et al., 2007), maintaining a poor relationship with the child's mother (Coley &

Hernandez, 2006; Fagan & Palkovitz, 2007), suffering from increased psychological distress (Davis, Caldwell, Clark, & Davis, 2009), past and current incarcerations (Ryan, Kalil, & Ziol-Guest, 2008; Swisher & Waller, 2008), and having a poor relationship with one's own father (Furstenberg & Weiss, 2000). Compared to White fathers, Black fathers are at increased risk for a number of these risks factors including being impoverished, incarcerated, and unemployed for sustained periods of time (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2001). In a qualitative study of 40 low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers, men attributed their inability to fulfill their intended fathering responsibilities to their strained relationship with their children's mothers, issues with substance and alcohol abuse, incarceration, and lack of stable employment (Nelson, Clampet-Lundquist, & Edin, 2002). In a review of studies examining low-income, Black fathers, Jarrett, Roy, and Burton (2002) found that unstable employment opportunities often led fathers to pursue informal or illegal means of providing for their families. Relatedly, researchers found that 40.5% of low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers had a criminal record (Anderson, Kohler, & Letiecq, 2005). While the majority of research on low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers has focused on examining the risk factors influencing low levels of father involvement, few studies have examined the positive factors that bolster increased levels of father involvement among this population (Connor & White, 2006).

From the Deficit Model to the Resilience Model

Until recently, researchers have predominantly investigated father involvement by using a deficit model. A deficit model assumes the inherent inadequacies of fathers as compared to mothers (Parikh, 2009), and it has disproportionately been used in research

conducted on low-income, nonresidential, minority fathers (Hamer, 2001). The current study examines the strengths of disadvantaged Black fathers by employing Masten's (2001) variable-focused resilience model. Resilience is defined as "good outcomes in spite of serious threats to adaptation or development" (Masten, 2001, p. 228). The resilience model posits that two conditions must be met in order for resilience to be recognized (Masten, 1999; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998): 1) There has to be a demonstrable risk or significant threat associated with statistically poor outcomes for the individual (operationalized in this study as being of low socioeconomic status, a nonresidential parent, and of African American descent), and 2) Individuals must meet the criterion set for the evaluation of positive adaptation despite adversity (operationalized in this study as remaining highly involved with one's child). The variable-focused resilience model examines protective factors that counter negative outcomes associated with risks and adversity (Masten, 2001).

Theoretical Framework

Doherty, Kouneski, and Erickson (1998) developed a conceptual framework of influences on responsible fathering, which forms the basis of our methodology. Doherty et al. (1998) proposed that fathers' levels of involvement with their children are substantially influenced by several variables including father factors (e.g., psychological well-being, family of origin, residential and employment status, etc.), mother factors (e.g., attitude toward, expectations of, and support for the father), contextual factors (e.g., race or ethnicity, resources or challenges, cultural expectations, and social support), child factors (e.g., age, sex, temperament, developmental status, and meanings/beliefs about father involvement), and the coparental relationship (e.g., marital status, cooperation,

mutual support, custodial arrangement). The factors included in this ecological framework are additive and interactive. Doherty et al. (1998) provided a template for father involvement, yet acknowledged fathers' ultimate role in paving their paths of involvement with their children. The present study considers the influence of father factors, contextual factors, and coparental factors on fathers' involvement with their children.

Positive Factors Related to Increased Paternal Involvement

Research examining the positive factors of Black fathers has found support for several father, contextual, and coparental factors that are associated with higher levels of father involvement. Included within these factors are social support (Roy, Dyson, & Jackson, 2010), spirituality (Letiecq, 2007), family of origin (Furstenberg & Weiss, 2000), coparenting relationship quality (Carlson, McLanahan, & Brooks-Gunn, 2008), and psychological well-being (Davis et al., 2009). Additionally, motivation (Bouchard, 2007; Lamb, 1985) and conviction rates (Waller & Swisher, 2006) have been associated with father involvement. The importance of these variables will be reviewed first for fathers in general and then for Black fathers, specifically. In addition, the importance of overall resilience will be reviewed.

Social support.

Social support and general fatherhood. Research on fatherhood indicates that the amount of social support received by fathers is associated with their level of involvement and engagement with their children (Lamb & Elster, 1985). A study conducted on 72 low-income fathers involved with EHS found that the utilization of social support predicted father engagement levels with their children (Roggman, Boyce, Cook, & Cook,

2002). Bunting (2004) found that although most young fathers wished to be more involved with their children, they received little support from family members. Somewhat surprisingly, more researchers have conducted studies on social support related to Black fathers' involvement levels with their children than on fathers' involvement levels with their children in general.

Social support and Black fatherhood. Utilizing social support networks is a long-standing source of resilience for African Americans (McAdoo & McAdoo, 2002). Researchers have suggested that family support, especially from the father's mother, is a vital contributor to sustained father involvement with children among low-income Black fathers (Bunting, 2004; Roy, Dyson, & Jackson, 2010; Summers, Bollers, & Raikes 2004). Although low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers perceive support from family as more helpful than support from friends or professionals (Anderson et al., 2005), it is disputed whether the majority of Black fathers are receiving family support for involvement with their children. In a qualitative study of 26 young Black fathers, participants reported receiving considerable support from family and friends to be involved fathers (Davies et al., 2004). Additionally, Summers et al. (2004) found that fathers reported receiving social support from their partners and families. Conversely, Hayes, Jones, Silverstein, and Auerbach (2010) found that low-income fathers often lacked family support, commenting that the existence of which was imperative for disadvantaged fathers to maintain involvement with their children. In fact, researchers have found that social support from family buffers the relationship between fathers' stress and level of paternal involvement (Fagan et al., 2007). Although comparatively little research has been conducted on the effects of social support for low-income Black

fathers, and even less for fathers in general, research has shown that family support is fundamental for positive outcomes of low-income Black mothers and their children (Ceballo & McLoyd, 2002; Taylor, 2010; Taylor, Seaton, & Dominguez, 2008). Researchers have suggested that family support is essential for sustained paternal involvement among unmarried, low-income, Black fathers (Dallas, 2004; Roy & Dyson, 2010). This study sought to add further clarification for the role that social support plays in the lives of low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers.

Spirituality.

Spirituality and general fatherhood. Empirical research suggests that fathers who are active in their respective religions are also more involved as fathers (Bollinger & Palkovitz, 2003; King, 2003). Recent studies conducted using primarily White samples have garnered support for spirituality being associated with higher levels of paternal involvement (Bartkowski & Xu, 2000; Bollinger & Palkovitz, 2003; King, 2003; Roggman et al., 2002; Wilcox, 2002). Using a predominantly White, highly educated, married sample of 65 fathers, Bollinger and Palkovitz (2003) investigated the relationship between faith and father involvement by comparing three groups of fathers with varying religious backgrounds: Christian, Latter-Day-Saints, and nonreligious fathers. They found that fathers who were church members, regardless of their religious faith, were more involved with their children. Similarly, Bartkowski and Xu (2000) found that fathers' church attendance was associated with increased paternal monitoring, engagement with the child, and affective parenting (i.e., praising and hugging their children). Wilcox (2002) found that Protestant fathers were more involved in youth related activities, eating dinner with the child, and one-on-one activities than were fathers

without a specified religion. Using data drawn from the National Survey of Midlife Development in the United States, King (2003) conducted a study examining whether religious fathers are more involved than fathers who report no religious affiliation. King found that religious fathers (both married and divorced) scored higher on several indices of father involvement, most notably relationship quality. Roggman et al. (2002) found that spiritual support and increased involvement in religious activities predicted higher levels of father involvement among a sample of 75 low-income, Head Start fathers. Some researchers purport that religion has the strongest influence on men to be involved fathers, particularly disadvantaged men (Dollahite, 1998; Dollahite, 2004).

Spirituality and Black fatherhood. Researchers have identified spirituality as a prominent source of resilience among African Americans (Akinyela, 2003; Banerjee & Pyles, 2004; Brodsky, 2000; Christian & Barbarin, 2001; Cook, 2000; Herndon, 2003; Utsey, Bolden, Lanier, & Williams, 2007). However, despite the preponderance of evidence that spirituality serves as a protective factor for African Americans, researchers have rarely explored the association between spirituality and father involvement among African Americans. To the best of my knowledge, only one study has examined the role of spirituality among African Americans (Letiecq, 2007). Letiecq (2007) examined 61 biological and social (i.e., nonbiological) African American fathers raising preschool-aged children in crime-ridden, low-income areas. Results showed that highly spiritual fathers were more likely to use positive proactive parenting styles (i.e., teaching preschool-aged children about personal safety and neighborhood survival tactics, and being involved in community activism) in order to protect their children from exposure to violence. Highly spiritual fathers were also more likely to use authoritative parenting

styles with their sons compared to fathers in which spirituality was less central. Although there is an established literature on spirituality serving as a positive factor for African Americans, only one known study has examined the role of spirituality as a positive factor for low-income, nonresidential, African American fathers (Letiecq, 2007). The current study sought to elucidate the role of spirituality as it relates to paternal involvement among Black fathers.

Family of origin.

Family of origin and general fatherhood. There is burgeoning research to suggest that family of origin relationships influence fathers' involvement levels with their children (Beaton & Doherty, 2007; Beaton, Doherty, & Rueter, 2003; Shears, Summers, Boller, & Barclay-McLaughlin, 2006). Most research examining family of origin influences on father involvement focus primarily on paternal influences because research has suggested that the impact of the fathers' fathers, compared to the fathers' mothers, is more salient in predicting fathers' involvement levels with their children (Beaton & Doherty, 2007). Floyd and Morman (2000) suggested two competing hypotheses, modeling versus compensating, to explain how fathers' relationships with their fathers influence involvement with their children. The modeling hypothesis suggests that fathers who had positive experiences with their fathers will model their fathers' behaviors with their own children. The compensating hypothesis suggests that fathers who had absent fathers or who are dissatisfied with their fathers' parenting styles will strive to do better with their children. To explore these hypotheses, Beaton et al. (2003) used data from the Parenting Together Project to examine the attitudes expectant fathers held toward father involvement and their relationships with their parents during childhood. Researchers

found that fathers who reported being very close (modeling hypothesis) or very distant (compensating hypothesis), compared to moderate closeness, with their family of origin during childhood held strong positive attitudes toward father involvement prior to the birth of their child. Beaton and Doherty (2007) replicated and extended the previous study by comparing fathers at three different time points during an 18-month period: before birth, at 6-months-old, and at 12-months-old. Results paralleled the findings of Beaton et al. (2003) at each time point.

Of interest to the present study, researchers suggested an interaction between family of origin and coparenting relationship quality on levels of father involvement such that positive coparenting relationships can serve as a buffer for poor family of origin relationships (Beaton & Doherty, 2007; Doherty et al., 1998). Using data from the National Survey of Adolescent Males, Forste and Jarvis (2007) found that fathers who lived with their biological fathers during adolescence were more likely to live with their children. In a qualitative study by Forste, Bartkowski, and Jackson (2009), researchers found that low-income fathers who had a good relationship with their fathers while growing up modeled their fathers; whereas, fathers who did not have a good relationship with their fathers during childhood hoped not to replicate the negative fathering example that they had received. However, in another study of low-income fathers, fathers' relationships with their own fathers predicted their level of engagement with their infants in a linear fashion (Shannon, Tamis-LeMonda, & Cabrera, 2006). The researchers suggested that although fathers who had uninvolved fathers during childhood may hope not to repeat the actions of their fathers, they might inadvertently replicate their fathers' behavior with their children. Additionally, Coley and Hernandez (2006) found that low-

income, nonresidential fathers, who grew up with uninvolved fathers, did not consistently alter lack of paternal involvement with their children.

Family of origin and Black fatherhood. Although numerous researchers have empirically examined the intergenerational effect of father involvement in predominantly White samples, it appears that, only two studies have examined the intergenerational effect of father involvement using predominantly Black samples in empirical studies (Coley & Hernandez, 2006; Furstenberg & Weiss, 2000). However, multiple data-rich qualitative studies have also examined this phenomenon (Coles, 2003; Jarrett et al., 2002; Nelson et al., 2002; Roy, 2006). In an empirical study, Furstenberg and Weiss (2000) investigated the likelihood of intergenerational noncustodial fatherhood among a sample of primarily Black men using data drawn from the Baltimore Parenthood Study. Researchers found that young inner-city Black fathers, who were raised without a father figure present in the home during adolescence, were more likely to live apart from their children compared to fathers whose biological father was present during their childhood (Furstenberg & Weiss, 2000). In a second empirical study, Coley and Hernandez (2006) found that limited childhood contact with one's father predicted lower levels of father involvement with children among low-income, nonresidential, minority fathers. Consistent with general fatherhood research on the compensating hypothesis, qualitative analyses of nonresidential, Black fathers found that fathers are motivated to be involved with their children as a direct response to having received limited involvement from their fathers (Coles, 2003; Jarrett et al., 2002; Nelson et al., 2002; Roy, 2006). However, some researchers suggest that absent fathering persists across generations despite the father's motivation to be involved in his child's life (Coley & Hernandez, 2006; Roy, 2006). For

example, Roy (2006) conducted life history interviews with 40 low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers and found that more than half of the fathers who grew up with uninvolved fathers also had limited or no contact with their children. Regarding Black fathers' relationships with their mothers during childhood, some researchers have suggested that a father's childhood relationship with his mother is the most vital relationship to predicting his level of paternal involvement with his children (Roy et al., 2010). Given the paucity of quantitative research examining the influence of maternal and paternal family of origin relationships on fathers' involvement levels with their children, these issues were investigated in the current study using quantitative methods.

Coparenting relationship quality.

Coparenting relationship quality and general fatherhood. The coparenting relationship describes the parents' ability to collaborate effectively in raising their children (McHale, Kuersten-Hogan, Lauretti, & Rasmussen, 2000). Since mothers are disproportionately the primary caregivers in single-parent families, researchers suggest their role as the maternal gatekeeper (i.e., controlling or influencing the father's ability to interact with his child) may determine fathers' levels of involvement with their children (Schoppe-Sullivan, Brown, Cannon, Mangelsdorf, & Sokolowski, 2008). When fathers are nonresidential, maintaining a high quality coparenting relationship is even more essential for sustained paternal involvement because the possible maternal gatekeeping role could become more salient (Carlson, McLanahan, & Brooks-Gunn, 2008; Coley & Hernandez, 2006).

Several studies provide support for the importance of high-quality coparenting relationships in promoting father-child involvement (Carlson et al., 2008; Coley &

Hernandez, 2006; Easterbrooks, Barrett, Brady, & Davis, 2007; Fagan & Palkovitz, 2007; Ryan, Kalil, Ziol-Guest, 2008). Easterbrooks et al. (2007) found that a higher quality coparenting relationship was associated with higher levels of father-child involvement including daily involvement, providing the mother with emotional support, and spending a greater proportion of father-child time with both the child and the child's mother. However, the majority of researchers have examined the opposite phenomenon; specifically, that interparental conflict is associated with lower levels of paternal involvement (Bunting & McAuley, 2004). Researchers found that fathers consistently report that among their greatest barriers to being involved with their children are strained relationships with the mothers of their children and the mothers refusing fathers' access to their children (Bunting & McAuley, 2004; Tamis-LeMonda, Shannon, Cabrera, McFadden, Jolley, & Tarkow, 2006). Using data drawn from the Welfare, Children, and Families: A Three-City Study, Coley and Hernandez (2006) tested a model of father involvement among nonresidential, low-income, minority fathers and found that interparental conflict was associated negatively with paternal involvement. Sobolewski and King (2005) analyzed data collected on low-income, nonresidential fathers from the National Surveys of Families and Household. Researchers found that cooperative coparenting was associated positively with the occurrence of father-child contact, longer durations of father-child contact, better father-child relationship quality, and more responsive fathering. Studies examining the association between coparenting relationship quality and father involvement have consistently found that higher-quality coparenting is associated positively with higher levels of father involvement.

Coparenting relationship quality and Black fatherhood. Several studies using data drawn from the FFCWB study have examined the effects of coparenting relationship quality on father-child involvement among low-income, nonresidential, predominantly Black fathers (Carlson et al., 2008; Fagan & Palkovitz, 2007; Ryan, Kalil, & Ziol-Guest, 2008). Using data drawn from the FFCWB study of the first five years of the children's lives, Carlson et al. (2008) found that coparenting relationship quality strongly predicted nonresidential fathers' future levels of involvement with their children. Notably, father involvement was a weak, yet significant, predictor of future coparenting relationship quality. Fagan and Palkovitz (2007) found that fathers who maintained a "friend" relationship with the mother of their child versus an "acquaintance" relationship reported higher levels of engagement with their one-year-old children. Ryan et al. (2008) found that fathers with better coparental relationships maintained consistently higher levels of involvement with their children from age one to age three. These studies all provide further evidence for the positive association between high-quality coparenting and father-child involvement.

As with general fatherhood, interparental conflict has been cited frequently as a barrier of Black men's high paternal involvement levels and contact with their children (Bunting, 2004; Nelson et al., 2002). In a study of low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers, nearly 50% of the men reported having experienced either a great deal of conflict or some conflict with the child's mother regarding childrearing (Anderson et al., 2005). In a qualitative study of 40 low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers, men reported that the mothers of their children actively prevented them from seeing their children, going as far as to seek termination of the father's visitation rights or deny the actual paternity of

the father (Nelson et al., 2002). Recent research has provided overwhelming support for a father's poor relationship with his child's mother being the strongest impediment to his involvement with his child (e.g., Coley & Hernandez, 2006; Ryan et al., 2008). Although myriad studies have examined the relationship between coparenting relationship quality and father involvement, the majority of these studies have focused on fathers of children between the ages of one to five, a time when nonresidential fathers are most likely to remain significantly involved with their children (Carlson & McLanahan, 2010). The current study sought to extend this finding to children up to age 10.

Psychological well-being.

Psychological well-being and general fatherhood. Although myriad studies have examined parent-child involvement associated with maternal depression, scant studies have investigated the association between paternal depression and parent-child involvement (Bronte-Tinkew, Moore, Matthews, & Carrano, 2007; Dudley, Roy, Kelk, & Bernard, 2001). In a study of 239 low-income fathers, Coley and Hernandez (2006) reported that better psychological functioning predicted higher levels of father involvement. Similarly, in a study of 72 low-income fathers participating in Head Start, fathers who were less depressed were more involved with their children (Roggman et al., 2002). Although research on fathers' psychological well-being in relation to their involvement with their children is scarce (Anderson et al., 2005), there is some research to suggest that fathers' poor psychological well-being is associated with lower levels of paternal involvement (e.g., Roggman et al., 2002).

Psychological well-being and Black fatherhood. Some researchers suggest that low-income, Black men may show the highest rates of depression in men due to the

compilation of stressors attributed to this group (Reinherz, Giaconia, Hauf, Wasserman, & Silverman, 1999). Anderson et al. (2005) used a predominantly Black sample of 127 low-income, nonresidential fathers to examine the relationship between father involvement and psychological well-being. Over half of the sample (56%), reported depressive symptoms of clinical concern. Greater resource challenges (i.e., lack of transportation and stable housing, substance abuse problems, disabilities, past convictions, and conflictual coparenting relationships) were associated with higher depressive symptoms. In a recent study, researchers examined whether paternal depressive symptoms in nonresidential, Black fathers were associated with lower involvement with their pre-teen sons (Davis et al., 2009). Researchers found that fathers with moderate to severe depressive symptoms reported having less contact and closeness, lower monitoring, and higher conflict with their sons. Additionally, nonresident Black fathers with less depressive symptoms monitored their sons more than did fathers with more depressive symptoms (Howard-Caldwell, Bell, Brooks, Ward, & Jennings, 2011). Likewise, using data drawn from the FFCWB study, researchers found that among low-income, resident, predominantly Black fathers, paternal depressive symptoms were negatively associated with paternal-child engagement (Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2007). Although few studies have examined the association between psychological well-being and father involvement among low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers, there is growing evidence to support the inverse association between depressive symptoms and father involvement. Furthermore, paternal depression and anxiety may alter fathers' perceptions of coparental support, and thus have an indirect effect on lower levels of father involvement (Isacco, Garfield, & Rogers, 2010). The current study sought to

examine this relationship further, include fathers of both daughters and sons, and examine coparenting relationship quality as a mediator.

Motivation.

Motivation and general fatherhood. Lamb (1985) identified a father's motivation to be involved with his child as a critical factor associated with father involvement. Beitel and Park (1998) found that valuing the fatherhood role is associated with increased father involvement. A study conducted with middle class, residential, French Canadian fathers found that motivation accounted for 26% of the variance in father involvement (Bouchard, 2007). Additionally, a qualitative study conducted with 575 low-income, Head Start fathers found that fathers' cited their motivation as a source of support for being an involved father.

Motivation and Black fatherhood. To my knowledge, only one study has examined fathers' motivations to parent among Black men (Coles, 2002). Coles (2002) conducted a qualitative study with 10 Black single fathers to investigate their motivations for becoming a single parent. The following themes were developed: responsibility, being there because their fathers were not around, being a role model, and establishing a bond with the child. Clearly, more research is needed on the association between motivation and paternal involvement. Given the extant research conducted on general fatherhood, we sought to examine the role of motivation in relation to levels of paternal involvement.

Conviction History.

Conviction history and general fatherhood. Although multiple studies have assessed father involvement during incarceration, few studies have examined father involvement of men with conviction histories. Swisher and Waller (2008) found that past

incarcerations were associated inversely with paternal involvement among nonresident, White fathers. However, this association was less pronounced among Black and Hispanic fathers. Similar to social support, more literature on conviction history and father involvement exists for Black fathers compared to fathers in general.

Conviction history and Black fatherhood. Researchers have commonly investigated illegal activities and incarceration as a risk factor associated with fathers' low levels or lack of involvement among Black men (Ryan et al., 2008; Swisher & Waller, 2008). Researchers have found that low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers commonly attribute their lack of involvement with their children to incarceration (Nelson et al., 2002). Jarrett et al. (2002) found that oftentimes, a father's illegal activities were the direct result of not being able to secure stable employment. In a sample of low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers, Anderson et al. (2005) found that nearly half of the sample had a criminal record. Using a predominantly low-income, Black sample, Waller and Swisher (2006) found that incarceration since the birth of the child is strongly and negatively associated with lower levels of paternal involvement. This study sought to extend the findings of previous research by exploring the role of conviction histories following the birth of a child and levels of paternal involvement.

Resilience.

Resilience and Black fatherhood. Although research on the resilience of African Americans is increasing, few studies have employed a measure that examines the construct directly (Brown, 2008). Researchers have primarily studied resilience in African Americans by examining specific protective factors thought to characterize resilience versus a general resilience construct. In the current study, fathers maintaining

highly paternal involvement in their children's lives, despite unyielding adversity (i.e., low employment opportunities and educational attainment and being of nonresidential and minority status), will be characterized as resilient. To my knowledge, no studies have examined the relationship between a broad measure of resilience and father involvement among nonresident fathers. However, Fagan, Barnett, Bernd, and Whiteman (2003) found that fathers' resilient personality characteristics are associated positively with paternal involvement levels. This study sought to add to the extant literature on father involvement by exploring the relationship between self-reported resilience and father involvement.

Paternal Involvement Mediators

Coparenting relationship quality has demonstrated mediating effects between measures of fathers' characteristics and their levels of involvement with their children in previous studies (Coley & Hernandez, 2006). There is evidence that the relationship between spirituality and father involvement is mediated by coparenting relationship quality among married couples (King, 2003). That is, spirituality is associated with a higher-quality coparenting relationship, which is in turn related to higher levels of paternal involvement. This study sought to examine the indirect effect of coparenting relationship quality on spirituality and father involvement among nonmarital couples.

There is evidence that coparenting relationship quality may mediate the relationship between psychological well-being and father involvement (Coley & Hernandez, 2006). Coley and Hernandez (2006) found that psychological distress predicted increased interparental conflict, which reduced fathers' levels of involvement with their children. Anderson et al. (2005) also found that greater resource challenges,

including interparental conflict, was associated with increased depressive symptoms among Black fathers. Additionally, multiple studies have found that interparental conflict is associated with lower levels of paternal involvement (Bunting, 2004; Nelson et al., 2002; Ryan et al., 2008). In line with these findings, this study sought to examine whether coparenting relationship quality had an indirect effect on the relationship between psychological well-being and paternal involvement.

Paternal Involvement Moderators

Researchers have suggested that the quality of the coparenting relationship can moderate the relationship between family of origin relationships and paternal involvement (Beaton & Doherty, 2007; Doherty et al., 1998). Beaton and Doherty (2007) suggested that strong coparenting relationships could serve as a buffer against the effects of poor family of origin relationships on father involvement. Additionally, Doherty and colleagues' (1998) theory suggests that factors contributing to father involvement are additive and interactive. Consistent with the existing literature, this study sought to examine whether high levels of coparenting relationship quality would have a buffering effect against poor family of origin relationships on father involvement.

Previous studies have found that social support serves as a buffer for negative affect and paternal involvement (Fagan et al., 2007). In particular, social support from immediate family, extended family, the child's mother and her family, community, and friends has been found to affect a father's level of involvement with his children (Fagan et al., 2007; Marsiglio & Conan, 1997; Summers et al., 2004). Because social support has been found to counterbalance the effects of negative mood states, this study sought to

examine whether high levels of social support to be an involved parent would serve as a buffer against poor psychological well-being.

Present Study

Overall, the research on paternal involvement among Black fathers is currently limited in several areas. Previous research has focused primarily on the risk factors associated with low levels of involvement among Black fathers versus the positive factors associated with high levels of involvement among this population (Coley & Hernandez, 2006; Fagan & Palkovitz, 2007; Furstenberg & Weiss, 2000; Jarrett et al., 2002; Nelson et al., 2002; Ryan et al., 2008; Swisher & Waller, 2008). There has also been a dearth of quantitative studies examining positive factors of father involvement among Black populations (Davies et al., 2004; Letiecq, 2007; Roy et al., 2010; Summers et al., 2004). Another central limitation is that numerous studies base their findings solely upon the mothers' or children's reports of father involvement without including direct information from the fathers (Carlson et al., 2008; Ryan et al., 2008). The present study sought to address the abovementioned limitations and contribute substantive knowledge to the extant literature on father involvement by examining the factors associated with high levels of paternal involvement among low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers.

Hypotheses

Based on the literature, the present study tested the five following theoretically-based hypotheses:

1. Social support, spirituality, family of origin, coparenting relationship quality, psychological well-being, motivation, and self-reported resilience would be

associated positively with paternal involvement and conviction history would be associated negatively with paternal involvement.

2. Coparenting relationship quality would mediate the relationship between spirituality and paternal involvement.
3. Coparenting relationship quality would mediate the relationship between psychological well-being and father involvement.
4. Coparenting relationship quality would moderate the relationship between family of origin relationships and paternal involvement.
5. Social support would moderate the relationship between psychological well-being and paternal involvement.

Method

Participants

Participants included 110 low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers recruited from the community of a Southeastern urban area. Eligibility for participation in this study included self-identifying as Black or African American, being at least 18 years old, being a nonresidential father of at least one child up to age 10, and being characterized as low-income at the time of the study. Socioeconomic status (SES) was used as a proxy for low-income status (Hollingshead, 1975). Additionally, participants were actively recruited from low-income neighborhoods. Participants' ages ranged from 19 to 52 (M = 30.27, SD = 7.45). Approximately half of the sample (54.5%) reported that they were currently employed. Of the participants, 47.3% were unskilled laborers or menial service workers, 35.5% were machine operators or semiskilled workers, and 17.7% were skilled craftsmen, clerical, or sales workers. In terms of educational attainment, 4.5% reported dropping out of school by the 9th grade, 23.6% reported making it to the 10th or 11th grade, 39.1% reported graduating from high school, 25.5% had partial college or specialized training, 6.4% completed college, and 0.9% had an advanced degree.

Fathers reported a median of two children, one woman he has children with, and zero social children for whom he is responsible. The mean age of the participants' youngest child was 3.59 (SD = 3.01), and approximately 53% of the children were male. Fathers reported a median of living 10 miles away from the child and a median of zero convictions since the birth of the child. Most men reported high involvement with their

child (72.7%), frequent contact with their child (70.0%), whereas most fathers reported that their fathers were not involved (47.3%), and had no contact with them during childhood (36.4%). Nearly 70% of fathers reported that they did not grow up with their biological father in the home, and 83.6% reported that their children live with their biological mothers. Tables 1 and 2 provide detailed demographic information for the study's participants.

Recruitment

An a priori power analysis, conducted with alpha set at .05 for a medium effect size, showed that at least 107 participants would be needed to obtain a desired power of .80 for a simultaneous multiple regression with eight predictor variables (Cohen, 1992). Participants were recruited via flyers (see Appendix A) posted in low-income areas throughout the city, a newspaper ad posted in a local Black-owned newspaper (see Appendix B), and through snowball techniques with community contacts (i.e., church leaders, managers of low-income housing developments, barbershop owners, directors of agencies serving low-income populations, directors of local parks, and directors of local fatherhood programs). Of the 195 men solicited for participation in the study, 139 men returned a survey, yielding a 71.3% completion rate (see Figure 1 for a flow chart of our completion rate). Data from 29 fathers were excluded due to either not meeting selection criteria (28) or returning a blank survey (1). In total, 110 surveys were used in the analyses of the present study. Participants entered a drawing to win raffled prizes including gift cards, vouchers to local restaurants and entertainment venues, and tickets to sporting events as remuneration for participating in the study.

Measures

Participants completed eight questionnaires, which assessed the participants' levels of social support, spirituality, family of origin-fathers, family of origin-mothers, coparenting relationship quality, psychological well-being, resilience, and father involvement. Additionally, participants completed a demographic survey, which included questions pertaining to the father's motivation and conviction history since the birth of the child. Measures for this study were selected based upon their sound psychometric properties, previous use with African American samples, and appropriateness with nonresidential or nonmartial fathers.

Demographic information. The Demographic Survey (see Appendix C) was developed for this study to gather information pertaining to the participant's age, education level, employment status, income, age and gender of his child(ren), relationship with the child(ren)'s mother, involvement with the focal child, involvement with his own father, family of origin configuration, arrest and conviction history, religious affiliation, and involvement in religious-related events. Additionally, fathers responded to the following open-ended item: "Please list your top two favorite things about being a father to the child." Note that the scale used to measure fathers' motivations to parent as well as the question used to measure conviction history was added to the end of the Demographic Survey.

Social support. The Support for Involvement with the Child (SIWTC; see Appendix D) questionnaire was developed for this study to assess the level of support fathers received toward being an involved father. The 12-item questionnaire measured perceived parenting support from multiple domains including immediate family,

extended family, friends, spiritual leaders, child's mother and her parents, current partner and her parents, and community. Participants were asked to rate how supportive each person or group was for the father's involvement with the focal child on a 4-point Likert scale. Responses ranged from 1 ("Very Unsupportive") to 4 ("Very Supportive"). There was also an option to rate the item as "Not Applicable" (coded as missing data). The mean of the item responses was used to calculate the total score for the scale, and ranged from 1 to 4. The scores of the scale items demonstrated sound internal consistency reliability for this sample (α = .89).

Spirituality. The Spiritual Well-Being Scale (SWBS; Paloutzian & Ellison, 1982; see Appendix E) is a 20-item questionnaire that researchers commonly use to assess participants' relationships with a higher power and overall life satisfaction. The scale measures three distinct dimensions: overall SWB, Religious Well-Being (RWB), and Existential Well-Being (EWB). We used the SWB scale for the current study. For all items, participants rated their agreement with the statement on a 6-point Likert scale. Responses ranged from 1 "Strongly Disagree" to 6 "Strongly Agree." Scale creators negatively worded nearly half of the items in order to reduce response bias. After reverse scoring the negatively worded items, we calculated the total SWB score by taking the mean response of all 20 items. Higher scores indicated higher levels of spirituality, and the total score ranged from 1-6. Examples of positively and negatively worded items are: "I have a personally meaningful relationship with God," and "I don't get much personal strength and support from God." In a review of seven studies that utilized the measure, Bufford, Paloutzian, and Ellison (1991) reported that internal consistency reliabilities for SWB were sound (α = .89 - .94). Researchers have frequently used this measure in

studies with African American samples (e.g., Fernander, Wilson, Staton, & Leukefeld, 2004; Walker, Utsey, Bolden, & Williams, 2005). Two hundred and forty-nine studies included in Psycinfo's database have utilized this measure of spirituality. The scores of the scale items demonstrated satisfactory internal consistency reliability for the current sample (α = .90).

Family of origin. The Nuturant Fathering Scale (NFS; Finley & Schwartz, 2004; see Appendix F) is a 9-item measure that researchers developed for adolescents and adults to retrospectively assess the affective childhood relationship quality with their fathers. Researchers developed the Nuturant Mothering Scale (NMS; Finley, Mira, & Schwartz, 2008; see Appendix G) as a mother version to assess the same 9-items, with "father" replaced by "mother" in the questionnaire. The scales are appropriate for the assessment of both resident and nonresidential parents. A sample item is, "When you needed your father's (mother's) support, was he (she) there for you?" Participants were instructed to rate the items on either a 4- or 5-point Likert scale, with varying endpoints. The total scale score was calculated by taking the mean response of the items. The total score could range from 1 to 4.78, with higher scores indicating a higher quality childhood relationship with one's parent. The measures were created using ethnically diverse samples, and the measures have demonstrated sound internal consistency reliabilities (α = .90 and α = .94) in previous studies (e.g., Finley et al., 2008; Finley & Schwartz, 2004), respectively. In the current study, the item scores of the NFS and NMS demonstrated high internal consistency reliabilities (α = .96 and α = .95, respectively).

Coparenting relationship quality. The Parenting Alliance Measure (PAM; Abidin & Konold, 1999; see Appendix H) is a 20-item measure used to assess the

perceived working alliance between parental figures of children aged 1-19. Sample items include, “My child’s other parent makes my job of being a parent easier” and “When there is a problem with our child, we work out a good solution together.” Participants were asked to rate each statement on a 5-point Likert scale. Responses ranged from 1 “Strongly Disagree” to 5 “Strongly Agree.” The total score was calculated by using the mean of the item responses. The total score ranged from 1 to 5, with higher scores indicating a higher quality coparenting relationship. Researchers reported a high internal consistency reliability (i.e., α = .96) for fathers’ reports (Abidin & Konold, 1999). Item scores on the PAM also demonstrated high internal consistency reliability for the current sample (α = .95).

Psychological well-being. The General Health Questionnaire-12 (GHQ-12; Goldberg & Williams, 1988; see Appendix I) is a 12-item measure that is used widely to assess general mental health. Participants are asked to rate the accuracy of the statements using a 4-point Likert scale. Responses ranged from 0 to 3, and had varying endpoints. The mean of the item responses was used to calculate the total score for the scale. The total score ranged from 0 to 3, with higher scores reflecting better psychological well-being. Sample items include, “Have you recently lost much sleep over worry?” and “Have you recently been able to enjoy your day-to-day activities?” The scores on the measure have demonstrated sound psychometric properties including internal consistency reliability (α = .85), test-retest reliability (.73), and split half reliability (.83; Goldberg & Williams, 1998). Researchers have utilized this measure with Black populations (e.g., Bogner, 2004). Four hundred and one studies included in Psycinfo’s database have utilized this measure of psychological distress, to date. Scores on the GHQ-12

demonstrated satisfactory internal consistency reliability with the current sample (α = .87).

Motivation. The Father Motivation Scale (FMS; Appendix C [at the end of the Demographic Survey]) was developed for this study to assess motivation toward being a father. The measure consisted of four items: 1) "On a scale 1-100, how much do you value being a father to the child?" 2) "On a scale 1-100, how much did you look forward to becoming a father to the child" 3) "When you prioritize the important things in your life, where does being a father to the child fall?" and 4) "Is it important to you to be a father to the child?" The first two questions were measured on a continuous scale. The third question had 4 endpoints ranging from 1 "It's my top priority" to 4 "I don't know." The fourth question was measured on a dichotomous scale: 1 for "Yes" and 0 for "No." To improve the normalcy of the distributions, questions one through three were recoded into dichotomous responses. For questions one and two, 100% was coded as a 1, and all other values were coded as 0. For question three, "It's my top priority" was coded as 1, and all other values were coded as 0. The mean score was used to calculate the total score for the scale. Therefore, total scale scores could range from 0 to 1. The internal consistency reliability of the measure was poor (α = .41) due to the limited items included in the scale and the skewness of the data for the scale.

Conviction history. Conviction history since the birth of the child was measured by a single question on a continuous scale included in the Demographic Survey, "Since the birth of the child, how many times have you been convicted of a crime?" Responses from the participants ranged from 0 to 7.

Resilience. The Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC; Connor & Davidson, 2003; see Appendix J) is a 25-item questionnaire that researchers commonly use to assess resilience. Participants rated the accuracy of the statements using a 5-point Likert scale. Responses ranged from 0 "Not true at all" to 4 "True nearly all of the time." The total score was calculated by using the mean of the item responses and ranged from 0 to 4, with higher scores indicating greater resiliency. Sample items include, "Tend to bounce back after illness or hardship," "When things look hopeless, I don't give up," and "Not easily discouraged by failure." Scores on the measure have demonstrated sound psychometric properties including internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = .89$), test-retest reliability, and convergent validity. Researchers have validated the measure using community samples, and several studies have utilized this measure with African American populations (e.g., Alim, Charney, & Mellman, 2006; Brown, 2008; Steinhardt, Mamerow, Brown, & Jolly, 2009). Forty-five studies included in Psycinfo's database have utilized this recent measure of resiliency, to date. Scores on the CD-RISC demonstrated sound internal consistency reliability for the current sample ($\alpha = .94$).

Father involvement. The Relationship with the child questionnaire (Father Involvement; Hernandez & Coley, 2007; see Appendix K) was used to assess paternal involvement. This measure is consistent with Lamb, Pleck, Charnov, and Levine's (2010) conceptualization of paternal involvement. The composite scale measures three aspects of father involvement: responsibility (i.e., providing resources to the child and ensuring that the child is taken care of), accessibility (i.e., availability to the child and monitoring of the child), and engagement (i.e., directly interacting with the child). Coley and Hernandez (2007) developed this measure of father involvement by drawing questions from previous

studies (Cabrera et al., 2004; Coley & Chase-Lansdale, 1999). They developed the measure to be appropriate for both residential and nonresidential fathers. To assess responsibility, fathers were asked the following items: 1) "How much responsibility do you take for raising the child?" and 2) "How much does your help with financial and material support of the child help the child's mother?" Both questions were rated on a 4-point (1 – 4) Likert scale, with higher scores indicating greater paternal responsibility. To measure accessibility, fathers were asked the following items: 3) "How often do you see or visit with the child?" and 4) "How often does the child see or visit with your family?" Questions 3 and 4 were rated on a 9-point (1 - 9) Likert scale. Higher scores on both scales indicate greater paternal accessibility. To measure engagement, fathers were asked the following items: 5) "How many hours per week do you take care of the child?" and 6) "How much does your involvement make things easier for the child's mother or make her a better parent?" Question 5 is a continuous item that asks how many hours per week fathers take care of the child, and question 6 is rated on a 4-point Likert scale related to fathers helping the mothers of their children. Higher scores reflect greater paternal engagement with the child. We collapsed the responses for items 3 through 5 to 4-point scales to be consistent with previous studies that used this measure (Coley & Morris, 2002; Hernandez & Coley, 2007).[1]

[1]Participants responded to items 3 and 4 on a 9-point Likert scale (1 = "never," 2 = "every couple of years," 3 = "once a year," 4 = "twice a year," 5 = "every few months," 6 = "once a month or more," 7 = "once a week or more," 8 = "once a week or more," and 9 = "every day." Items 3 and 4 were recoded (1 = "never," 2 through 6 = "a little," 4 = "some," and 5 and 6 = "every day". The response range for Item 5 was "0 hours" to "168 hours." Item 5 was collapsed so that 1 = "0 hours," 2 = ".46 – 9 hours," 3 = "10 – 20 hours," and 4 = 21 to 168 hours."

Hernandez and Coley (2007) reported high internal consistencies for the composite scale ($\alpha = .82$). The measure demonstrated adequate internal consistency with the current sample ($\alpha = .80$).

Procedure

Consistent with Letiecq's (2007) methodological approach, Black male research assistants were used in the recruitment of, and survey administration to, Black male participants. The research team approached fathers for participation at agencies geared toward providing aid to low-income individuals, churches, barbershops, outdoor parks, community events, established fatherhood programs, and low-income housing developments. Researchers notified potential participants that they were looking for fathers who had children age 10 and below, who they do not live with full-time, to participate in the study. Fathers who met criteria were asked to complete a 30-minute survey about fatherhood. Researchers read the informed consent to interested individuals (see Appendix L to view the informed consent), and asked them whether they wished to be entered into a drawing to win raffled prizes, such as gift cards, vouchers to local restaurants and entertainment venues, and tickets to sporting events. Upon receiving informed consent from the participants, researchers administered the survey packet. Interested participants, who did not have the time to complete the survey immediately, were offered the opportunity to complete the survey over the telephone at a convenient time for the participant and research assistant. Participants were instructed to complete the survey in reference to their youngest child, age 10 or younger, who they do not live with full-time. Participants completed the study individually or separately in small groups; participants completed the survey in approximately fifteen minutes. This study

was conducted in accordance with the university's institutional review board, governed by APA guidelines.

Data Analysis

To test Hypothesis 1, zero-order correlations were used to examine the relationships between the predictor variables and outcome variable. Only predictor variables that were significantly correlated with the outcome variable were included in the subsequent simultaneous multiple regression. To test Hypotheses 2 and 3, Baron and Kenny's (1986) conventional methods were followed to test whether there was evidence of mediation between a predictor and outcome variable. If there was evidence of mediation, based on Baron and Kenny's guidelines, Hayes's (2009) bootstrap mediational analysis was subsequently implemented to test the significance of the mediated effect. The bootstrap mediational analysis resampled the data 5000 times, with replacement, and calculated 95% confidence intervals (percentile rank) for indirect effects. Percentile rank was used for Hayes and Preacher's bootstrap mediational analysis because the bias corrected method has been criticized as being too liberal (Fritz, Taylor, & MacKinnon, in press). To test Hypotheses 4 and 5, Baron and Kenny's (1986) conventions were followed to test for moderation among certain predictors and the outcome variable. If the interaction term was significant, simple slope analysis (Aiken & West, 1991) was used to test whether the conditional regression lines, which use values of one standard deviation above and below the mean of the moderator, significantly differed from zero. Given the prior research on father's age, education level, employment status, income (measured by SES), and child factors, such as age and gender, influencing father's level of involvement with his child (Doherty et al., 1998), zero-order correlations were used to test each father

and child factor to determine whether they were related to the outcome variable. Variables significantly associated with the criterion were treated as covariates and controlled in subsequent multivariate analyses.[2]

[2]All multivariate hypotheses were conducted with and without covariates included in the analyses. Both versions produced the same pattern of results.

Results

The Results section is subdivided into three major sections: Missing Data, Preliminary Analyses, and Primary Analyses. The first section details how missing data were handled in this study. The second section provides descriptive information on study and covariate variables as well as qualitative findings of the study. The third section details the results of the study's five main hypotheses.

Missing Data

As is typical, there was a small degree of missing data on some of the predictor variables. For study variables, the mean score of the items was used to calculate the total score. A criterion was set that 70% of the items on each scale had to be completed in order for the participant's responses to be included in the analyses. Listwise deletion was used to correct for missing data in all analyses.

Preliminary Analyses

Study variables. See Table 3 for psychometric properties of the predictor and outcome variables. The table reveals that fathers who participated in this study reported primarily moderate to high levels of the constructs under study. Fathers reported receiving support from multiple individuals to be involved with the focal child and were moderately religious. Fathers reported having poor childhood relationships with their fathers, whereas they reported having strong relationships with their mothers. They reported moderate levels of coparenting relationship quality and psychological well-being. Fathers reported having a high motivation to be a parent and low levels of

convictions since the birth of the child. Finally, fathers reported fairly high levels of general resilience and involvement levels with their children (see Table 4 for item response frequencies for the RWTC measure).

Covariates. The relationship between each covariate and the predictor and outcome variables were examined (see Table 5 for a correlation matrix of the results). None of the covariates were correlated significantly with paternal involvement as measured by the RWTC. Specifically, age of father, education level, employment status, SES, child gender, and age of child were not significantly related to father involvement. Thus, these variables were not covaried in subsequent analyses. It is interesting to note that education level was correlated significantly with spirituality, $r(108) = .23$, $p = .018$, employment status was correlated significantly with psychological well-being, $r(110) = .22$, $p = .023$, and SES was correlated significantly with both spirituality, $r(108) = .26$, $p = .006$, and psychological well-being, $r(110) = .19$, $p = .043$.

Qualitative Findings. Fathers' responses to "Please list your top two favorite things about being a father to the child" were rated by two researchers. Each response (up to two responses per father [196 responses]; $N = 102$) was coded into one category. The interrater reliability was high (Kappa = .90). The most frequently endorsed categories included: 1) Being there and spending time with the child, 2) Teaching the child, 3) Receiving love from the child, 4) Seeing and watching the child grow, 5) Making and seeing the child happy, and 6) Taking care of the child. See Table 2 for frequencies for all of the categories.

Primary Analyses

The first hypothesis stated that social support, spirituality, family of origin, coparenting relationship quality, psychological well-being, motivation, and self-reported resilience would be associated positively with paternal involvement, whereas conviction history would be associated negatively with paternal involvement. A correlation matrix of the predictor and outcome variables is displayed in Table 6. Social support, $r(108) = .21$, $p = .028$, coparenting relationship quality, $r(105) = .38$, $p < .001$, psychological well-being, $r(109) = .31$, $p = .001$, and overall resilience, $r(108) = .19$, $p = .044$, were associated positively with levels of father involvement, whereas conviction history, $r(103) = -.26$, $p = .008$ was associated negatively with father involvement. A simultaneous multiple regression was then conducted to test whether social support, coparenting relationship quality, psychological well-being, conviction history, and resilience predicted higher levels of father involvement (see Table 7). The overall regression model was significant, $F(5, 91) = 7.37$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .29$. Psychological well-being, coparenting relationship quality, and conviction history emerged as significant predictors, whereas social support and resilience did not. Since spirituality, family of origin-father, family of origin-mother, and motivation were not significantly correlated with paternal involvement levels, the first hypothesis was only partially supported.

The second hypothesis stated that coparenting relationship quality would mediate the relationship between spirituality and paternal involvement. Based on the steps for conducting mediational analysis outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986), the following results were obtained: 1) spirituality did not significantly predict paternal involvement, $t(105) = -0.27$, $p = .792$, $\beta = -.03$, 2) spirituality significantly predicted coparenting

relationship quality, $t(102) = 2.94$, $p = .004$, $\beta = .28$, 3) coparenting relationship quality significantly predicted paternal involvement when controlling for spirituality, $t(100) = 4.36$, $p < .001$, $\beta = .42$, and 4) spirituality did not significantly predict paternal involvement when controlling for coparenting relationship quality, $t(100) = -1.59$, $p = .115$, $\beta = -.15$. Because this mediational model failed to satisfy the first condition (i.e., the independent variable must be related to the dependent variable), it does not provide evidence of mediation according to Baron and Kenny's (1986) conventions. Therefore, bootstrapping was not implemented to test the significance of the mediated effect. Overall, hypothesis two was not supported.

The third hypothesis stated that coparenting relationship quality would mediate the relationship between psychological well-being and father involvement. The mediational model met all of the conditions set forth by Baron and Kenny (1986) for partial mediation (i.e., the *p* value increased when controlling for the mediator, but it did not become nonsignificant). See Table 8 for complete results of the mediational analysis. I subsequently tested the significance of the mediated effect using Hayes and Preacher's (2009) bootstrapping analysis. Psychological well-being demonstrated a total effect point estimate of .40 (*SE* = .12) and direct effect point estimate of .27 (*SE* = .12) on paternal involvement, yielding a total indirect effect through coparenting relationship quality point estimate of .13 (*SE* = .06, 95% CI = 0.04 – 0.25). That is, the mediated effect of psychological well-being on paternal involvement was significant. Therefore, hypothesis three was partially supported.

Moderation analysis was used to test the fourth hypothesis that coparenting relationship quality would moderate the relationship between family of origin (for

paternal mothers and fathers, separately) and levels of paternal involvement. Family of origin-fathers and coparenting relationship quality were entered in the first block of the analysis, and the interaction term (family of origin-fathers*coparenting relationship quality) was entered in the second block. The first model, without the interaction term included, accounted for 14% of the variance in paternal involvement, $F(2, 102) = 8.35$, $p < .001$. There was a significant main effect for coparenting relationship quality, $t(102) = 4.07$, $p < .001$, $\beta = .38$, but not for family of origin-fathers, $t(102) = -.07$, $p = .941$, $\beta = -.01$. Adding the interaction term to the regression model did not significantly increase the variance accounted for, $F_{change}(1, 101) = .002$, $p = .966$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$. The interaction term was not significant, $t(101) = -.04$, $p = .966$, $\beta = -.00$, indicating that there is no evidence of moderation.

Another model was tested with family of origin-mothers and coparenting relationship quality entered in the first block of the analysis, and the interaction term (family of origin-mothers * coparenting relationship quality) entered in the second block. The first model was significant, $F(2, 101) = 8.63$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .15$. Coparenting relationship quality, $t(3.94) = 3.46$, $p < .001$, $\beta = .37$, emerged as a significant predictor; although, family of origin-mothers, $t(101) = .83$, $p = .410$, $\beta = .08$, did not. The inclusion of the interaction term did not result in a significant change in variance accounted for, $F_{change}(1, 100) = .17$, $p = .681$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$. The interaction term was also not a significant predictor, $t(100) = -.41$, $p = .681$, $\beta = -.04$. Since the interaction was not significant, a simple slopes analysis (Aiken & West, 1991) was not performed. The finding of a nonsignificant interaction between coparenting relationship quality and family of origin (fathers and mothers) did not provide support for the fourth hypothesis.

A moderation analysis was conducted to test the fifth hypothesis that high levels of social support would moderate the relationship between psychological well-being and levels of paternal involvement. Social support and psychological well-being were entered in the first block of the analysis, and the interaction term (social support * psychological well-being) was entered in the second block. The first model, without the interaction term included, accounted for 12% of the variance in paternal involvement, $F(2, 105) = 7.43$, $p = .001$ (see Table 9 for a summary of the moderated regression). The second model, with the interaction term included, accounted for 17% of the variance in paternal involvement, $F(3, 104) = 7.04$, $p < .001$. The increase in variance accounted for was significant, $F_{change}(1, 104) = 5.60$, $p = .020$, $\Delta R^2 = .05$. The interaction term was also significant. The negative interaction indicates that the effects of psychological well-being on paternal involvement decreases as levels of social support increase from zero to one.

Simple slope analysis was then conducted to test whether the conditional regression lines significantly differed from zero. The interaction was plotted at low (-1 SD), mean (0 SD), and high (+1 SD) levels of social support (see Figure 2 for a visual display of the interaction). The regression line plotted at a standard deviation below the mean significantly differed from zero, $t(108) = 3.93$, $p < .001$. That is, when social support is low, psychological well-being is positively related to paternal involvement. The regression line plotted at a standard deviation above the mean was not significantly different from zero, $t(108) = .67$, $p = .507$. That is, when social support is high, psychological well-being is not significantly related to paternal involvement. Because social support moderated the relationship between psychological well-being and paternal involvement, hypothesis five was supported.

Discussion

The current study investigated the relationships among various factors and high levels of paternal involvement, guided by influences of the Doherty et al. (1998) responsible fathering conceptual framework. The current findings suggested that several of the proposed factors, including social support, coparenting relationship quality, and psychological well-being are associated with high levels of paternal involvement. Additionally, conviction history and overall resilience were found to be significantly related to paternal involvement. Examination of interrelationships between the factors revealed that coparenting relationship quality did not mediate the relationship between spirituality and paternal involvement; however, it did emerge as a partial mediator for the relationship between psychological well-being and paternal involvement. Coparenting relationship quality did not moderate the relationship between family of origin (fathers or mothers) and paternal involvement, whereas social support moderated the relationship between psychological well-being and paternal involvement. Fathers' motivation to parent was not associated with paternal involvement. These findings largely support the use of the Doherty and colleagues' (1998) model for determining low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers' involvement levels with their children, as well as suggest possible modifications to model that may make it more culturally relevant to the current population under study.

Positive Factors Related to Paternal Involvement

The first hypothesis examined whether social support, spirituality, family of origin, coparenting relationship quality, psychological well-being, motivation, conviction history since the birth of the child, and overall resilience would be associated with paternal involvement. Consistent with previous literature on father involvement among Black males, increased social support (Dallas, 2004; Roy & Dyson, 2010), better coparenting relationship quality (Carlson et al., 2008; Coley & Hernandez, 2006; Ryan et al., 2008), better psychological well-being (Anderson et al., 2005; Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2007; Davis et al., 2009; Howard-Caldwell et al., 2011), and lower conviction rates since the birth of the child (Nelson et al., 2002; Ryan et al., 2008; Waller & Swisher, 2006) were associated with higher levels of paternal involvement. In addition, fathers' overall resilience levels were associated positively with paternal involvement, which supports previous literature that has found general resilience to be related to academic success among African Americans (Brown, 2008) and resilience characteristics to be related to levels of paternal involvement (Fagan et al., 2003). This finding suggests that Black fathers, who have demonstrated resilience in other areas of their life, are also adept at persevering past the obstacles of being low-income, having low educational attainment, and being of minority and nonresidential status. General resilience appears to be a factor that extends its influence to fathering abilities and may enhance the model for influences on responsible fathering proposed by Doherty et al. (1998). Further, conviction history may prove to be a valuable addition to the influences of responsible fathering model developed by Doherty et al. (1998), particularly for low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers.

Not all of the proposed positive factors were associated with paternal involvement. Contrary to previous findings on general father involvement (Bollinger & Palkovitz, 2003; King, 2003), spirituality was not associated with levels of paternal involvement among low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers. Only one known study to-date has examined the association between spirituality and father involvement among Black fathers (Letiecq, 2007); however, this study examined the association between spirituality and parenting styles, versus levels of paternal involvement (Letiecq, 2007). Although, studies conducted on primarily White samples of married fathers (Bartkowski & Xu, 2000; Roggman et al., 2002) have found an association between greater involvement in religious activities and increased involvement with children, it is possible that racial, socioeconomic, marital, or residential status may be moderators for the relationship between spirituality and paternal involvement. Further examination on whether spirituality is associated with paternal involvement among fathers of varying races, and socioeconomic, marital, and residential statuses is warranted.

Family of origin relationships was also not associated with levels of paternal involvement in this study. This finding is inconsistent with previous studies conducted with primarily White samples, which suggested that fathers' close relationships with their fathers were associated with fathers' close relationships with their children (Beaton & Doherty, 2007; Floyd & Morman, 2000; Forste et al., 2009). It is also inconsistent with Coley and Hernandez's (2006) finding that Black fathers, who had limited contact with their fathers, also had limited contact with their children. The lack of association between family of origin and paternal involvement suggests that Black fathers' relationships with their fathers may not predict their levels of involvement with their children in a linear

fashion, as has been evidenced with primarily White samples (Shannon et al., 2006). Fathers in the present study also lacked variability on the family of origin measures (i.e., fathers generally reported close relationships with mothers and poor relationships with fathers). The lack of variability may have contributed to the nonsignificant finding. Further research should empirically examine the appropriateness for including relationships with one's father as a determinant for involvement for low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers. To my knowledge, this is the first study to empirically test whether fathers' childhood relationships with their mothers was associated with fathers' current levels of involvement with their children. Findings of this study did not provide empirical evidence for this association.

Motivation to parent, as measured in this study, was not associated with paternal involvement, which is inconsistent with previous literature (Beitel & Park, 1998; Bouchard, 2007; Lamb et al., 1985) and contrary to our expectations. Although, Doherty et al. (1998) did not include motivation in their model of influences on responsible fathering, Lamb et al. (1985) proposed motivation to play a major role in the involvement level of fathers with their children. The motivation scale developed by the research team lacked adequate reliability with the present sample. There is a need for the development of a standardized scale to measure a father's motivation to parent, as a scale measuring this construct could not be readily found in the existing literature.

Of the factors that were significantly associated with paternal involvement among low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers, coparenting relationship quality, psychological well-being, and conviction history emerged as significant predictors. These findings confirm previous research (Anderson et al., 2005; Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2007;

Carlson et al., 2008; Fagan & Palkovitz, 2007; Ryan et al., 2008; Waller & Swisher, 2008). Myriad studies have shown that coparenting relationship quality is associated with higher levels of paternal involvement (Carlson et al., 2008; Fagan & Palkovitz, 2007; Ryan et al., 2008). There is also a growing body of research demonstrating the association between psychological well-being and paternal involvement (Anderson et al., 2005; Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2007; Davis et al., 2009; Howard-Caldwell et al., 2011; Isacco et al., 2010). A burgeoning area of research has also found that fathers with higher conviction rates since the birth of their children are less involved with their children (Ryan et al., 2006; Swisher & Waller, 2008). These findings suggest that fatherhood programs and policies geared toward improving fathers' levels of psychological well-being, coparental relationships, and conviction rates may contribute to increased levels of paternal involvement among low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers.

Mediators of Paternal Involvement

Findings of the current study did not support hypothesis two, as coparenting relationship quality did not mediate the relationship between spirituality and father involvement. Contrary to previous studies (Bollinger & Palkovitz, 2003; King, 2003), spirituality was not related to father involvement in the present sample. Coley & Hernandez (2006) found that coparenting relationship quality mediated the relationship between spirituality and paternal involvement using a predominantly White sample. As this appears to be the first study to examine the relationship between spirituality and paternal involvement levels among Black fathers, further research on this topic and an examination of the influence of possible moderators is warranted.

The present findings demonstrate that coparenting relationship quality partially mediated the relationship between psychological well-being and paternal involvement, which partially supported hypothesis three. This finding supports previous research (Coley & Hernandez, 2006), which found that interparental conflict mediated the relationship between psychological distress and paternal involvement. Alternatively, we found that better psychological well-being was associated with better coparenting relationship quality, and thus had an indirect connection to higher levels of paternal involvement. This finding provides evidence that psychological well-being is both directly and indirectly (through coparenting relationship quality) related to paternal involvement (Coley & Hernandez, 2006).

Moderators of Paternal Involvement

Findings of the current study did not support hypothesis four, as coparenting relationship quality did not moderate the relationship between family of origin and paternal involvement. The findings of the study were inconsistent with previous research (Beaton & Doherty, 2007; Doherty et al., 1998), which suggested that there would be an interaction between current relational factors, such as coparenting relationship quality, and the quality of family of origin relationships on paternal involvement. Specifically, it was expected that a high coparenting relationship quality would buffer poor family of origin relationships. As this is among the first studies to examine the interactions between familial relationships and current relationships, researchers should continue to investigate relationships among these factors.

This study found that social support moderated the relationship between psychological well-being and paternal involvement, which supported hypothesis five.

Researchers have previously found that social support moderated the relationship between fathers' stress and level of paternal involvement among adolescent fathers of infants (Fagan et al., 2007). Specifically, the current study found that psychological well-being was associated significantly with increased paternal involvement among fathers with lower, but not higher, levels of social support. This finding suggests that when a father receives low levels of social support, the strength of association between his psychological well-being and paternal involvement is strong. Conversely, when a father receives high levels of social support, the strength of the father's psychological well-being and paternal involvement is diminished. Expressed differently, social support can serve as a buffer for fathers with poorer levels of psychological well-being. This finding extends the current knowledge on how determinants of responsible fathering can interact to affect levels of paternal involvement.

Implications

Findings of the current study added substantive information to the literature on the determinants of paternal involvement among low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers. Previously, researchers have focused on the factors that discourage fathers from being involved in their children's lives, especially when studying minority fathers (Hamer, 2001). This line of research took a strengths-based approach to illuminate the variables that sustain paternal involvement despite the adversity of being low-income and of nonresidential and minority status. Incorporating findings from this study into the objectives of fatherhood programs and policies directed toward increasing father presence and support in the low-income, Black community may prove useful. Developing interventions to test the effectiveness of targeting these areas is needed. Clinicians, social

workers, program directors, and other individuals working with low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers should educate their clients on the factors associated with increased paternal involvement as well as provide necessary resources to aid fathers' improvements in identified areas of weakness.

Limitations and Future Research

Despite the numerous strengths in the present study, several limitations must be noted. Foremost, measuring levels of paternal involvement was based solely on the fathers' reports, which is prone to overestimation (Hofferth, Pleck, Stueve, Bianchi, & Sayer, 2002; Wical & Doherty, 2005). However, as previous studies on paternal involvement have frequently used maternal or child reports of father involvement (Carlson et al., 2008; Ryan et al., 2008), we consider it a strength of this study that fathers' reports of their paternal involvement were included. Additionally, Hernandez and Coley (2007) found that fathers' reports of their paternal involvement are reliable in studies involving simple surveys assessing the construct. Future studies should use multi-informant reports on father involvement (i.e., mother, father, and child, when applicable) to triangulate information and address response bias. Another limitation of the current study is that it relied solely on self-reported data. Studies that use a mono-method design tend to have inflated statistical associations above and beyond the "true" associations of the constructs measured due to common method variance. To address this methodological limitation, future studies should employ other methods of measurement, such as observations or interviews in addition to self-reports.

Due to the restrictive inclusion criteria of the present study, these findings have limited generalizability to fathers of other ethnic/racial groups, residential fathers, or

fathers with higher socioeconomic status. However, due to the disproportionate amount of Black children growing up in father-absent homes, it was deemed to be of grave importance to focus on this population in order to study the strengths of this particular subset of fathers. Future studies should continue to examine the variables in the current study in more heterogeneous samples, as rates of father-absent homes are increasing nationally (Hamilton, Martin, & Ventura, 2010). Lastly, since there was no manipulation in this study, researchers cannot conclude causal or directional effects. Future studies should utilize longitudinal methodologies to more fully elucidate the nature of relationships, and provide directional evidence for, the association between the positive factors in this study and levels of father involvement.

Since coparenting relationship quality, psychological well-being, and conviction history emerged as significant predictors of paternal involvement, future research should examine additional potential mediators and moderators, which may further inform potential interventions around those areas. It is also imperative that future research be conducted to determine which qualities of the coparental relationship serve to promote or inhibit paternal involvement, as coparenting relationship quality has consistently been shown to be strongly related to paternal involvement as well as mediate the relationship between other factors and paternal involvement. Finally, research should be conducted on which interventions are most effective in increasing paternal involvement among fathers with poor psychological well-being and criminal records since the birth of their children.

Conclusion

Although the current study had several limitations, it extends the extant knowledge of the strengths of low-income, nonresidential, Black fathers. This study

provided evidence that several factors are related to higher levels of paternal involvement among this population, specifically higher quality coparenting relationships and psychological well-being, more parenting-specific support from influential individuals, lower conviction rates, and better overall resilience. The present study also illustrated the importance of examining the strengths of disadvantaged fathers in order to gather information on key areas to potentially incorporate into future interventions. This study was unique in that it included fathers of children above the age of 5, followed a resilience model versus a deficit model, and examined these factors quantitatively. Future studies should continue to examine the factors as well as the mediators and moderators that are associated with high levels of paternal involvement among this population.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Recruitment Flyer

Appendix B: Recruitment Newspaper Advertisement

USF "Strong Fathers" Project at the Lee Davis Neighborhood Service Center

The USF Family Research Lab and the Lee Davis Neighborhood Service Center are collaborating on a "Strong Fathers" project during the months of May, June, and July. We need information on fathers living in the Tampa area. We are asking volunteers to participate in a 30-minute survey. Everyone who participates will be placed automatically into a drawing to win 4 Tampa Rays tickets and will be guaranteed to receive at least one prize (for example, a coupon for a local restaurant such as Lee Roy Selmon's, Chick-Fil-A, T.G.I. Fridays, Golden Coral, or CiCis). All information provided to the researchers will be kept confidential.

For more information, or to participate in the study, please contact Jamal at 813-974-9222.

Appendix C: Demographic Survey

Demographic Survey

Age: _____

What *zip code* do you live in? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

Which of the following best describes your *education* level?
_____Less than Seventh Grade
_____Junior High School or Middle School (9th grade)
_____Partial High School (10th or 11th grade)
_____High School Graduate (whether private preparatory, parochial, trade, or public school)
_____Partial College (at least one year) or Specialized Training
_____Standard College or University Graduate (Bachelors degree)
_____Graduate professional training (Graduate degree)

What is your *race/ethnicity* (Please Specify where Indicated)?
_____Black/African American
_____African (Please Specify): _____
_____Caribbean (Please Specify): _____
_____Caribbean American (Please Specify):_____
_____South American (Please Specify):_____
_____Black Hispanic (Please Specify): _____
_____Biracial (Please Specify): _____
_____Multiracial (Please Specify): _____
_____Others (Please Specify): _____

Are you Employed: Yes _____ No _____

If yes, what kind of *work* do you do? _____

How many hours a *week* do you work? _____

How much do you *make* an hour? $_____

What is your sexual orientation (Please Choose One)?
_____Heterosexual (Straight)
_____Homosexual (Gay)
_____Bisexual (Go both ways)
_____Don't Know
_____Other (Please Specify): _____

Number of *biological* children: _____ Number of women that you have *biological* children with: _____

Number of *nonbiological* children you are raising (e.g., stepchildren, adopted children, etc): _____

>>>>> Please write the initials of your *youngest* biological child, that you do *not* *live* with: _____<<<<<

That child is the focus of this study. Whenever there is a question about *THE CHILD*, please think of the child whose initials you just wrote down as you answer the question.

Is *THE CHILD* a boy or a girl? _____

How old is *THE CHILD*? _____

Appendix C: Demographic Survey Cont'd

How would you describe the relationship with the *mother* of *THE CHILD*?
_____Romantic relationship (e.g., We're dating/seeing each other)
_____Friendly relationship (e.g., We get along with each other well, but are not romantically involved)
_____Hostile relationship (e.g., We fight a lot and are not romantically involved)
_____No relationship (e.g., I do not see or talk to her)
_____Other (Please Explain: _____)

How far away do you live from *THE CHILD*? _____ Miles

How would you describe your involvement level with *THE CHILD*?
_____Highly Involved
_____Somewhat Involved
_____Not Involved

How much contact do you have with *THE CHILD*?
_____Frequent Contact
_____Moderate Contact
_____No Contact

Who does *THE CHILD* live with?
_____Their biological mother
_____Their biological mother and step-father or mother's boyfriend
_____Other relatives (e.g., grandparents, aunt, etc). Please explain: _____
_____Other. Please explain: _____

Now we would like to find out more about you and your past.

How would you describe your own *biological father's* involvement level when you were *growing up*?
_____Highly Involved
_____Somewhat Involved
_____Not Involved

How much contact did you have with *your biological father* when you were *growing up*?
_____Frequent Contact
_____Moderate Contact
_____No Contact

How often did you see your *biological father* when you were *growing up*?
_____ Never
_____ Every Couple of Years
_____ Once a Year
_____Twice a Year
_____Every Few Months
_____Once a Month or More,
_____Once a Week or More
_____Almost Every Day
_____Every Day

Who all did you live with when you were growing up (Example: mom, dad, sister, and grandma)?

Appendix C: Demographic Survey Cont'd

What is your religion (Please Choose One)?

_____ Baptist
_____ Protestant
_____ African Methodist Episcopal
_____ Muslim
_____ Southern Baptist
_____ Catholic
_____ Pentecostal
_____Holiness/Church of God in Christ
_____Agnostic (I need proof that there is a God)
_____ Atheistic (I don't believe in God)

Other (Please Specify): _____

How often do you attend church (or a place of worship) or religious events?

_____ Never
_____ Every Couple of Years
_____ Once a Year
_____Twice a Year
_____Every Few Months
_____Once a Month or More,
_____Once a Week or More
_____Almost Every Day
_____Every Day

In your lifetime, how many times have you been arrested? _____

In your lifetime, how many times have you been convicted of a crime? _____

What was the crime(s)? _____

Since the birth of *THE CHILD*, how many times have you been arrested? _____

Since the birth of *THE CHILD*, how many times have you been convicted of a crime? _____

What was the crime(s)? _____

(Note: The following four items reflect the Father Motivation Scale)

On a scale 0-100, how much do you *value* being a father to *THE CHILD*? _____

On a scale 0-100, how much did you *look forward* to becoming a father to *THE CHILD?* _____

When you prioritize the important things in your life, where does being a father to *THE CHILD* fall?

_____It's my top priority
_____It's second or third on my list
_____It's fourth or fifth on my list
_____It's not on my list
_____I don't know

Is it important to you to be a father to *THE CHILD*?

_____Yes _____No

Please list your top two favorite things about being a father to *THE CHILD*:

1. _____

   _____

2. _____

   _____

Appendix D: Support for Involvement with THE CHILD

Support for Involvement with *THE CHILD*

Directions

How supportive is your _____ of your involvement with *THE CHILD*?

Please read the names below and each of the possible answers to complete the question above. Circle the response that best describes how supportive that person is to your involvement with *THE CHILD*. Please select "Not Applicable" for any relationship that does not apply to you.

	Very Unsupportive	**Unsupportive**	**Supportive**	**Very Supportive**	**Not Applicable**
1. Your Mother	1	2	3	4	N/A
2. Your Father	1	2	3	4	N/A
3. Your Other Relatives	1	2	3	4	N/A
4. Your Friends	1	2	3	4	N/A
5. Your Spiritual Leaders	1	2	3	4	N/A
6. Child's Mother	1	2	3	4	N/A
7. Child's Mother's Mother	1	2	3	4	N/A
8. Child's Mother's Father	1	2	3	4	N/A
9. Current Partner	1	2	3	4	N/A
10. Current Partner's Mother	1	2	3	4	N/A
11. Current Partner's Father	1	2	3	4	N/A
12. Community	1	2	3	4	N/A

Please list anyone who was not mentioned on this list who is supportive of your involvement with THE CHILD:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Appendix E: Spiritual Well-Being Scale

SWBS

(Protected by Copyright)

Two Sample Items:

1. I have a personally meaningful relationship with God.
2. I don't get much personal strength and support from God.

Appendix F: Nurturant Fathering Scale

NFS

Directions: Read each question and the associated answers. Choose the answer that best describes how you felt *when you were growing up.*

1. How much do you think your father *enjoyed* being a father?
   _____A great deal
   _____Very much
   _____Somewhat
   _____A little
   _____Not at all
2. When you needed your father's *support*, was he there for you?
   _____Always there for me
   _____Often there for me
   _____Sometimes there for me
   _____Rarely there for me
   _____Never there for me
3. Did your father have enough *energy* to meet your needs?
   _____Always
   _____Often
   _____Sometimes
   _____Rarely
   _____Never
4. Did you feel that you could *confide in* (talk about important personal things with) your father?
   _____Always
   _____Often
   _____Sometimes
   _____Rarely
   _____Never
5. Was your father available to spend *time* with you in activities?
   _____Always
   _____Often
   _____Sometimes
   _____Rarely
   _____Never
6. How emotionally *close* were you to your father?
   _____Extremely close
   _____Very close
   _____Somewhat close
   _____A little close
   _____Not at all close
7. When you were an *adolescent* (teenager), how well did you get along with your father?
   _____Very well
   _____Well
   _____Ok
   _____Very poorly
8. Overall, how would you *rate* your father?
   _____Outstanding
   _____Very good
   _____Fair
   _____Poor
9. As you go through your day, how much of a *psychological presence* (influence) does your father have in your daily thoughts and feelings?
   _____Always there
   _____Often there
   _____Sometimes there
   _____Rarely there
   _____Never there

Appendix G: Nuturant Mothering Scale

NMS

Directions: Read each question and the associated answers. Choose the answer that best describes how you feel *when you were growing up.*

1. How much do you think your mother *enjoyed* being a mother?
   _____A great deal
   _____Very much
   _____Somewhat
   _____A little
   _____Not at all
2. When you needed your mother's *support*, was she there for you?
   _____Always there for me
   _____Often there for me
   _____Sometimes there for me
   _____Rarely there for me
   _____Never there for me
3. Did your mother have enough *energy* to meet your needs?
   _____Always
   _____Often
   _____Sometimes
   _____Rarely
   _____Never
4. Did you feel that you could *confide in* (talk about important personal things with) your mother?
   _____Always
   _____Often
   _____Sometimes
   _____Rarely
   _____Never
5. Was your mother available to spend *time* with you in activities?
   _____Always
   _____Often
   _____Sometimes
   _____Rarely
   _____Never
6. How emotionally *close* were you to your mother?
   _____Extremely close
   _____Very close
   _____Somewhat close
   _____A little close
   _____Not at all close
7. When you were an *adolescent* (teenager), how well did you get along with your mother?
   _____Very well
   _____Well
   _____Ok
   _____Very poorly
8. Overall, how would you *rate* your mother?
   _____Outstanding
   _____Very good
   _____Fair
   _____Poor
9. As you go through your day, how much of a *psychological presence* (influence) does your mother have in your daily thoughts and feelings?
   _____Always there
   _____Often there
   _____Sometimes there
   _____Rarely there
   _____Never there

Appendix H: Parenting Alliance Measure

PAM

(Protected by Copyright)

Two Sample Items:

1. My child's other parent makes my job of being a parent easier.
2. When there is a problem with our child, we work out a good solution together.

Appendix I: General Health Questionnaire-12

GHQ-12

(Protected by Copyright)

Two Sample Items:

1. Have you recently lost much sleep over worry?
2. Have you recently been able to enjoy your day-to-day activities?

Appendix J: Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale

CD-RISC

(Protected by Copyright)

Two Sample Items:

1. When things look hopeless, I don't give up.
2. Not easily discouraged by failure.

Appendix K: Relationship with THE CHILD

Relationship with *THE CHILD

Directions: Read each question and the following answers carefully. Choose the answer that best describes your current relationship with *THE CHILD*.

1. How much responsibility do you take for raising *THE CHILD*?
   _____None
   _____A Little
   _____Some
   _____A Lot

2. How much does your help with financial and material support of *THE CHILD* help *THE CHILD's* mother?
   _____None
   _____A Little
   _____Some
   _____A Lot

3. How often do you see or visit with *THE CHILD*?
   _____ Never
   _____Every Couple of Years
   _____Once a Year
   _____Twice a Year
   _____Every Few Months
   _____Once a Month or More,
   _____Once a Week or More
   _____Almost Every Day
   _____Every Day

4. How often does *THE CHILD* see or visit with your family?
   _____ Never
   _____Every Couple of Years
   _____Once a Year
   _____Twice a Year
   _____Every Few Months
   _____Once a Month or More,
   _____Once a Week or More
   _____Almost Every Day
   _____Every Day

5. How many hours per week do you take care of *THE CHILD*? _____

6. How much does your involvement make things easier for *THE CHILD's* mother or make her a better parent?
   _____None
   _____A Little
   _____Some
   _____A Lot

***Note: Responses from Items 3, 4, and 5 were collapsed to create a 4-point scales.**

Appendix L: Informed Consent

USF
UNIVERSITY OF
SOUTH FLORIDA

Informed Consent to Participate in Research
Information to Consider Before Taking Part in this Research Study

IRB Study # ____3002_____

You are being asked to take part in a research study. Research studies include only people who choose to take part. This document is called an informed consent form. Please read this information carefully and take your time making your decision. Ask the researcher or study staff to discuss this consent form with you, please ask him/her to explain any words or information you do not clearly understand. We encourage you to talk with your family and friends before you decide to take part in this research study. The nature of the study, risks, inconveniences, discomforts, and other important information about the study are listed below.

Nature of the study: To learn about men in Hillsborough County.

Discomforts: You will be asked to share information regarding the family you grew up in, the relationship with your child, and the relationship with your child's mother.

Inconveniences: This study will occupy half an hour of your time.

We are asking you to take part in a research study called:
Dads and their kids

The person who is in charge of this research study is Erica E. Coates. This person is called the Principal Investigator. However, other research staff may be involved and can act on behalf of the person in charge. She is being guided in this research by Dr. Vicky Phares.

The research will be conducted at the University of South Florida (USF).

Purpose of the study

- The purpose of the study is to learn about the individual characteristics of fathers. You are being asked to take part in this study because we believe your experiences will help us to better understand the motives of fathers in Hillsborough County.
- The Principal Investigator, Erica E. Coates, is a doctoral student at the University of South Florida.

Appendix L: Informed Consent Cont'd

Study Procedures

- *You will be asked to complete a packet of nine questionnaires, including a demographic* questionnaire, after providing informed consent.
- *The packet should take approximately half an hour to complete. The study will be completed in* one sitting, unless the participant must leave before the study is complete.
- The study will be conducted at USF at a time arranged by you and a male member of the research team.

Total Number of Participants

About 200 individuals will take part in this study at USF.

Alternatives

You do not have to participate in this research study.

Benefits

We are not sure if you will receive any benefits by taking part in this research study.

Risks or Discomfort

This research is considered to be minimal risk. That means that the risks associated with this study are the same as what you face every day. There are no known added risks to those who take part in this study.

Compensation

You will be entered into a drawing to win a possible prize, such as coupons for a local restaurant or place of entertainment, tickets to a sporting event, or a gift cards.

Cost

There will be no additional costs to you as a result of being in this study.

Privacy and Confidentiality

We will keep your study records private and confidential. Certain people may need to see your study records. By law, anyone who looks at your records must keep them completely confidential. The only people who will be allowed to see these records are:

- The research team, including the Principal Investigator, faculty advisor, study coordinator, and all other research staff.
- Certain government and university people who need to know more about the study. For example, individuals who provide oversight on this study may need to look at your records. This is done to make sure that we are doing the study in the right way. They also need to make sure that we are protecting your rights and your safety.
- Any agency of the federal, state, or local government that regulates this research. This includes and the Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) and the Office for Human Research Protection (OHRP).

Appendix L: Informed Consent Cont'd

- The USF Institutional Review Board (IRB) and its related staff, who have oversight responsibilities for this study, staff in the USF Office of Research and Innovation, USF Division of Research Integrity and Compliance, and other USF offices who oversee this research.

We may publish what we learn from this study. If we do, we will not include your name. We will not publish anything that would let people know who you are.

Voluntary Participation / Withdrawal

You should only take part in this study if you want to volunteer. You should not feel that there is any pressure to take part in the study. You are free to participate in this research or withdraw at any time. There will be no penalty or loss of benefits you are entitled to receive if you stop taking part in this study.

You can get the answers to your questions, concerns, or complaints

If you have any questions, concerns or complaints about this study, or experience an adverse event or unanticipated problem, call Dr. Vicky Phares at (813)974-0493.

If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this study, general questions, or have complaints, concerns or issues you want to discuss with someone outside the research, call the USF IRB at (813) 974-5638.

Consent to Take Part in this Research Study
It is up to you to decide whether you want to take part in this study. If you want to take part, please sign the form, if the following statements are true.

I freely give my consent to take part in this study. I understand that by signing this form I am agreeing to take part in research. I have received a copy of this form to take with me.

_____ _____
Signature of Person Taking Part in Study Date

_____
Printed Name of Person Taking Part in Study

Appendix L: Informed Consent Cont'd

Statement of Person Obtaining Informed Consent

I have carefully explained to the person taking part in the study what he or she can expect from their participation. I hereby certify that when this person signs this form, to the best of my knowledge, he understands:

- What the study is about;
- What procedures;
- What the potential benefits might be; and
- What the known risks might be.

I can confirm that this research subject speaks the language that was used to explain this research and is receiving an informed consent form in the appropriate language. Additionally, this subject reads well enough to understand this document or, if not, this person is able to hear and understand when the form is read to him or her. This subject does not have a medical/psychological problem that would compromise comprehension and therefore makes it hard to understand what is being explained and can, therefore, give legally effective informed consent. This subject is not under any type of anesthesia or analgesic that may cloud their judgment or make it hard to understand what is being explained and, therefore, can be considered competent to give informed consent.

_____ _____

Signature of Person Obtaining Informed Consent Date

_____

Printed Name of Person Obtaining Informed Consent

Appendix M: Tables

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Participants' Demographic Information

	n	*M*	*SD*	*Median*	Range
Father's Age	102	30.27	7.45	29.50	19.00-52.00
Number of Biological Children	110	2.50	1.85	2.00	1.00-10.00
Number of Children's Mothers	107	1.68	1.00	1.00	1.00-7.00
Number of Nonbiological Children	94	.88	1.28	0.00	0.00-8.00
Age of Focal Child	104	3.59	3.01	3.00	0.00-10.00
Distance (in miles) from Focal Child	100	93.62	224.53	10.00	0.00-1000.00
Number of Lifetime Arrests	102	5.39	5.62	4.00	0.00-30.00
Number of Lifetime Convictions	100	2.47	3.67	1.00	0.00-17.00
Number of Arrests Since Birth of Focal Child	108	1.34	2.35	0.00	0.00-15.00
Number of Convictions Since Birth of Focal Child	104	.53	1.25	0.00	0.00-7.00
How Much Father Values Being a Father	106	99.04%	5.03	100.00%	60.00-100.00%
How Much Father Wanted to Become a Father	104	88.48%	27.84	100.00%	0.00-100.00%

Table 2. Frequency Statistics for Participants' Demographic Information

	Frequency (%)
Employed	
Yes	60 (54.5)
No	50 (45.5)
SES	
Unskilled Laborers, Menial Service Workers	52 (47.3)
Machine Operators, Semiskilled Workers	39 (35.5)
Skilled Craftsmen, Clerical and Sales Workers	19 (17.3)
Education Level	
9th Grade or Below	05 (4.5)
Partial High School (10th or 11th Grade)	26 (23.6)
High School Graduate	43 (39.1)
Partial College/Specialized Training	28 (25.5)
Bachelor's Degree	07 (6.4)
Graduate Degree	01 (0.9)
Sex of the Focal Child	
Male	58 (52.7)
Female	40 (36.4)
Missing	12 (10.9)
Relationship with the Mother of the Focal Child	
Friendly	62 (56.4)
Romantic	20 (18.2)
Hostile	16 (14.5)
No Relationship	09 (8.2)
Other	03 (2.7)
Involvement Level with the Focal Child	
Highly Involved	80 (72.7)
Somewhat Involved	23 (20.9)
Not Involved	06 (5.5)
Missing	01 (0.09)
Contact with the Focal Child	
Frequent Contact	77 (70.0)
Moderate Contact	25 (22.7)
No Contact	08 (7.3)
Who the Focal Child Lives With	
Biological Mother	92 (83.6)
Biological Mother and her Partner	07 (6.4)
Other Relatives	08 (7.3)
Other	03 (2.7)

Table 2 Cont'd

	Frequency (%)
Father's Involvement with His Father Growing Up	
Highly Involved	28 (25.5)
Somewhat Involved	30 (27.3)
Not Involved	52 (47.3)
Father's Contact with His Father Growing Up	
Frequent Contact	34 (30.9)
Moderate Contact	36 (32.7)
No Contact	40 (36.4)
How Often Father Saw His Father Growing Up	
A Lot	37 (33.6)
Some	08 (7.3)
A Little	34 (30.8)
Never	31 (28.2)
Father Grew Up with Father in the Home	
Yes	33 (30.0)
No	76 (69.1)
Missing	01 (0.9)
Religion	
Baptist	52 (47.3)
Other	19 (14.4)
Non-Denominational (Christian)	14 (12.7)
Pentecostal	10 (9.1)
Holiness/Church of God in Christ	09 (8.2)
None	03 (2.7)
Missing	06 (5.5)
Frequency Father Attends Church or Religious Activities	
A Lot	34 (30.9)
Some	42 (38.2)
A Little	26 (23.7)
Never	07 (6.4)
Missing	01 (0.9)

Table 2 Cont'd

	Frequency (%)
Lifetime Crimes	
Drug-Related Crimes	20 (18.2)
Multiple Crimes	13 (11.8)
Driving-Related Crimes	11 (10.0)
Crimes Against Persons	10 (9.1)
Petty Crimes	08 (7.3)
Crimes Against Property	06 (5.5)
Homicide	03 (2.7)
None	16 (14.5)
Missing	23 (20.9)
Crimes Since Birth of the Child	
Crimes Against Persons	12 (10.9)
Drug-Related Crimes	09 (8.2)
Driving-Related Crimes	07 (6.4)
Petty Crimes	05 (4.5)
Multiple Crimes	04 (3.6)
None	54 (49.1)
Missing	19 (17.3)
Priority	
It's My Top Priority	100 (90.9)
It's My 2nd or 3rd Priority	07 (6.4)
Don't Know	02 (1.8)
Missing	01 (0.9)
Important to be a Father to the Focal Child	
Yes	109 (99.1)
No	01 (0.9)
Two Favorite Things about Being a Father to the Focal Child (N = 102; which resulted in 196 responses). Below are the percentages of fathers who endorsed each category, thus, percentages exceed 100%)	36 (35.3)
1. Being There or Spending Time with the Child	29 (28.4)
2. Teaching the Child	23 (22.5)
3. Receiving Love from the Father	23 (22.5)
4. Seeing or Watching the Child Grow	18 (17.6)
5. Making or Seeing the Child Happy	17 (16.7)
6. Taking Care of or Supporting the Child	13 (12.7)
7. Being a Role Model	13 (12.7)
8. Creating a Child	09 (0.09)
9. Relationship with the Child	08 (0.08)
10. Seeing the Child Succeed	03 (0.03)
11. Being Responsible for the Child	02 (0.02)
12. Not Giving Up	02 (0.02)
13. Playing with the Child	

Table 3. Psychometric Properties of Social Support, Spirituality, Family of Origin-Father, Family of Origin-Mother, Coparenting Relationship Quality, Psychological Well-Being, Motivation, Conviction History, Resilience, and Paternal Involvement

					Range		
Measure	*n*	*M*	*SD*	α	Potential	Actual	Skew
Social Support	109	3.16	0.65	.89	1.00-4.00	1.00-4.00	-0.81
Spirituality	108	4.87	0.79	.90	1.00-6.00	2.95-6.00	-0.49
Family or Origin-Fathers	110	2.58	1.29	.96	1.00-5.00	1.00-4.78	0.26
Family of Origin-Mothers	109	4.10	0.90	.95	1.00-5.00	1.00-4.78	-1.67
Coparenting Relationship Quality	106	3.74	0.83	.95	1.00-5.00	1.00-5.00	-0.77
Psychological Well-Being	110	2.14	0.55	.87	0.00-3.00	0.00-3.00	-1.11
Motivation	106	0.91	0.17	.41	0.00-1.00	0.00-1.00	-2.50
Conviction History	104	0.53	1.25	-	0.00-∞	0.00-7.00	3.76
Resilience	109	3.22	0.56	.94	0.00-4.00	1.28-4.00	-0.93
Paternal Involvement	109	3.20	0.69	.81	1.00-4.00	1.00-4.00	-1.29

Table 4. Item Response Frequencies for Paternal Involvement

Items	Frequency (%)
"How much responsibility do you take for raising the child?"	
A Lot	85 (77.3)
Some	18 (16.4)
A Little	03 (2.7)
None	04 (3.6)
"How much does your help with financial and material support of the child help the child's mother?"	
A Lot	65 (59.1)
Some	26 (23.6)
A Little	13 (11.8)
None	06 (5.5)
"How often do you see or visit with the child?"	
A Lot	47 (42.7)
Some	33 (30.0)
A Little	23 (22.7)
None	05 (4.5)
"How often does the child see or visit with your family?"	
A Lot	28 (25.5)
Some	35 (31.8)
A Little	37 (33.6)
None	10 (9.1)
"How many hours per week do you take care of the child?"	
21 to 168 Hours	43 (39.1)
10 to 20 Hours	16 (14.5)
0.49 to 9 Hours	10 (9.1)
0 Hours	20 (18.2)
Missing	21 (19.1)
"How much does your involvement make things easier for the child's mother or make her a better parent?"	
A Lot	64 (58.2)
Some	22 (20.0)
A Little	10 (9.1)
None	11 (10.0)
Missing	03 (2.7)

Table 5. Correlations Between Covariates and Social Support, Spirituality, Family of Origin-Father, Family of Origin-Mother, Coparenting Relationship Quality, Psychological Well-Being, Motivation, Conviction History, Resilience, and Paternal Involvement

	Age of Father	Education Level	Employment Status	Socioeconomic Status	Sex of Child	Age of Child
Social Support	-.09	.07	.06	.05	-.07	-.11
Spirituality	-.02	.23*	.11	.26**	-.16	.14
Famil of Origin-Fathers	.06	.02	-.11	-.03	-.15	-.06
Family of Origin-Mothers	-.11	-.15	.07	-.12	.13	-.08
Coparenting Relationship Quality	-.15	.09	.15	.02	-.16	-.14
Psychological Well-Being	.03	.17	.22*	.19*	-.02	.03
Motivation	.01	.10	-.09	.06	-.01	.09
Conviction History	-.02	-.14	-.03	-.01	.01	.16
Resilience	-.05	.10	.14	.11	-.06	.06
Paternal Involvement	-.12	.04	.16	.05	-.08	-.08

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 6. Summary of Intercorrelations for Scores on Social Support, Spirituality, Family of Origin-Father, Family of Origin-Mother, Coparenting Relationship Quality, Psychological Well-Being, Motivation, Conviction History, Resilience, and Paternal Involvement

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Social Support	-									
2. Spirituality	.17	-								
3. Family of Origin-Father	.25**	.12	-							
4. Family of Origin-Mother	.13	-.06	.00	-						
5. Coparenting Relationship Quality	.35***	.28**	.11	.12	-					
6. Psychological Well-Being	.22*	.23*	.08	.05	.34***	-				
7.Motivation	.17	.29**	.10	.04	.07	.02	-			
8. Conviction History	-.18	.17	-.06	-.04	-.20*	-.02	.09	-		
9. Resilience	.16	.56***	.14	.07	.33**	.19	.33**	.04	-	
10. Paternal Involvement	.21*	-.03	.03	.11	.38***	.31**	.09	-.26**	.19*	-

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 7. Summary of Paternal Involvement Regressed on Social Support, Coparenting Relationship Quality, Psychological Well-Being, Conviction History, and Resilience

Predictor	β	*t*	*p*
Social Support	.11	1.09	.281
Coparenting Relationship Quality	.21	2.04	.044*
Psychological Well-Being	.24	2.53	.013*
Conviction History	-.22	-2.38	.019*
Resilience	.07	0.75	.454

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 8. Summary of Mediational Analysis Examining Coparenting Relationship Quality as a Mediator for the Relationship between Psychological Well-Being and Paternal Involvement

	β	*t*	*p*
a	.34	3.72	< .001***
b	.30	3.16	.002**
c	.31	3.38	.001**
c’	.22	2.26	.026*
	Estimate	SE	95% CI
Indirect Effect	.13	.06	.04 - .25

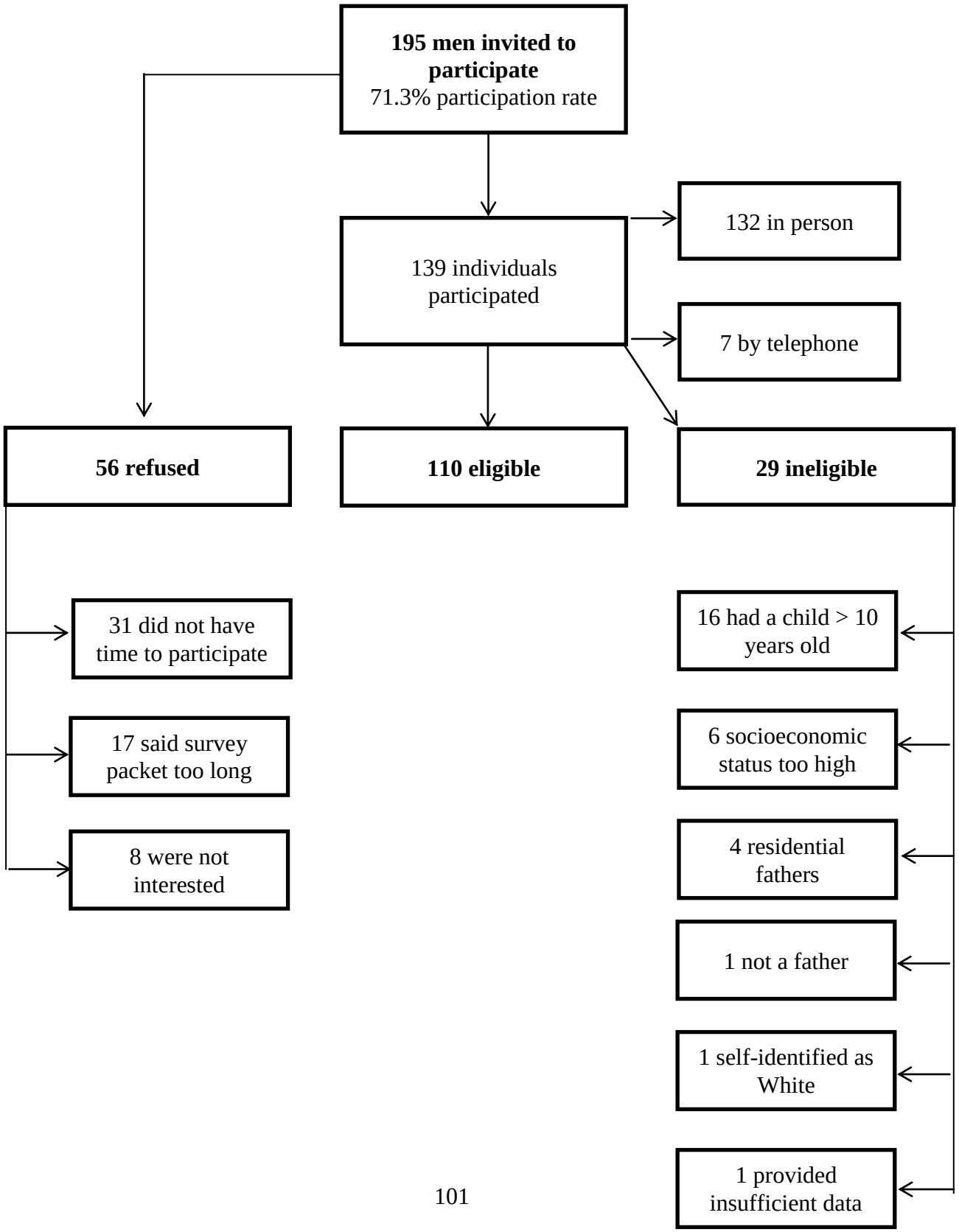
Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 9. Summary of Moderated Regression for Social Support Moderating the Relationship between Psychological Well-Being and Paternal Involvement

Block	Predictor	β	*t*	*p*
1	Social Support	.15	1.60	.113
	Psychological Well-Being	.29	3.08	.003**
2	Social Support	.12	1.33	.187
	Psychological Well-Being	.28	3.04	.003**
	Social Support x Psychological Well-Being	-.21	-2.37	.020*

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Appendix N: Figures



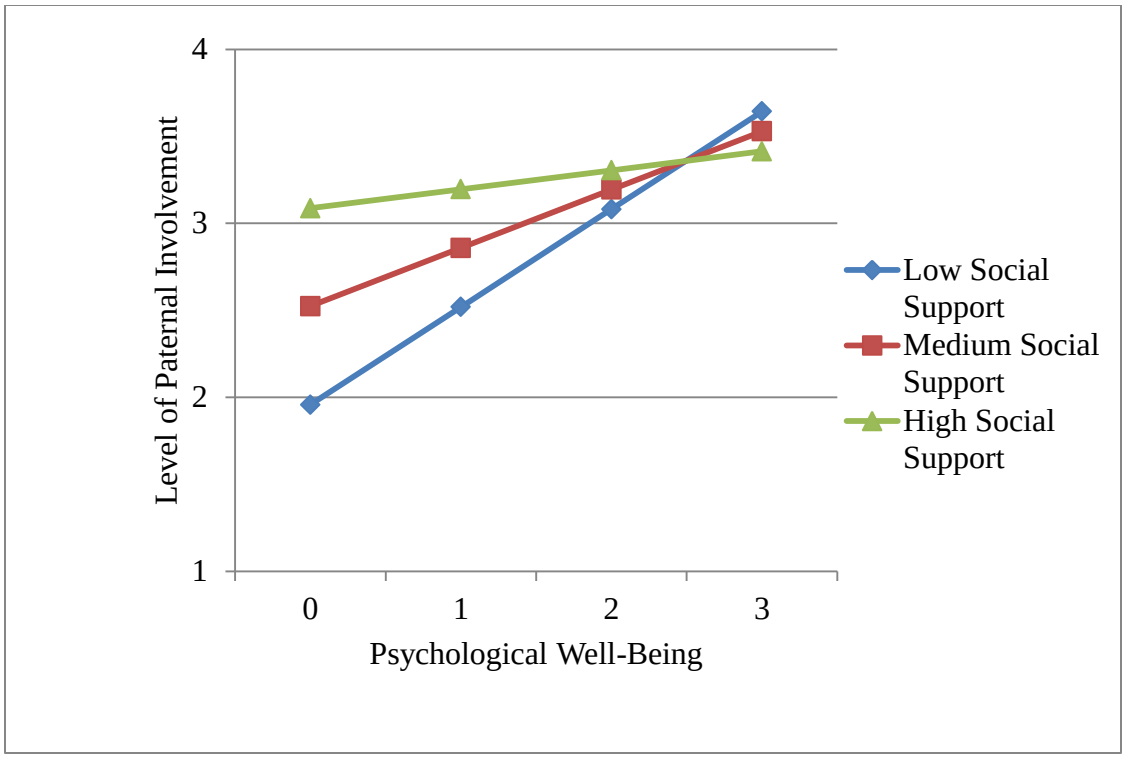


Figure 2. Illustration depicting social support moderating the relationship between psychological well-being and paternal involvement

About the Author

Erica E. Coates was born in Knob Noster, Missouri to Karen and Leon Johnson. She graduated Summa Cum Laude from the University of Central Missouri and earned a Bachelor of Science in Psychology in December of 2009. She married Immanuel Coates in March of 2010, and entered the Clinical Psychology Doctoral Program in August of 2010. Since beginning the program, Erica has completed multiple projects in the Hillsborough county community. These projects have focused primarily on examining the role of paternal involvement in the lives of children and families.