Parenting Style Differences in Black American and White American Young Adults

Sarah Lynette McMurtry
University of Southern Mississippi

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The University of Southern Mississippi

PARENTING STYLE DIFFERENCES IN BLACK AMERICAN AND
WHITE AMERICAN YOUNG ADULTS

by

Sarah Lynette McMurtry

Abstract of a Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School
Of The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
ABSTRACT

PARENTING STYLE DIFFERENCES IN BLACK AMERICAN AND WHITE AMERICAN YOUNG ADULTS

by Sarah Lynette McMurtry

August 2013

Baumrind’s (1967) theory of parenting style influenced over 40 years of parenting research, which found authoritative parenting as the optimal parenting style. Authoritarian and parenting styles have been linked to worse adjustment and achievement for child outcomes (Baumrind, 1967; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994) than children in authoritative-parented homes. In 1972, Baumrind described racial differences in parent-child relations and outcomes between authoritarian Black American and White American parents and preschoolers (1975). In comparison to White American parents, Black Americans exhibited authoritarian parenting that was less rejecting and associated with communication and warmth (Baumrind, 1975; Murry, Brody, & Simons, 2008; Reitman, Rhode, Hupp, & Altolbello, 2002). The current study investigated racial differences in the Baumrind model of parenting style and relative racial differences on authoritative parenting behaviors, autonomy granting, parental supervision/strictness, and parental acceptance/involvement. A sample of 582 Black American and White American young adults, aged 18-25, reported on their parents’ parenting style. Overall, no differences were found in the authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting style factors for both Black American and White American groups and no differences were found
between groups in parental acceptance/involvement and autonomy granting. Racial differences were also found. In the Baumrind model of parenting, authoritarian parenting style was significantly correlated to authoritative parenting style for Black Americans. Further, Black American reported stricter parenting in comparison to White Americans. These findings provide support that Baumrind’s parenting styles are consistent across race, but also provide evidence that racial differences exist in the relationship between authoritative and authoritarian parenting style for Black Americans and White Americans.
The University of Southern Mississippi

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by

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A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School
of The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT .................................................................................................................. ii

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ............................................................................................... iv

LIST OF TABLES ........................................................................................................ vi

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS ........................................................................................ vii

CHAPTERS

I. INTRODUCTION ................................................................................................. 1
   Parenting Style
   Purpose of Study

II. METHODOLOGY .................................................................................................. 18
   Participants
   Instruments
   Procedure

III. RESULTS ........................................................................................................... 25
   Preliminary Analyses
   Multigroup Structural Equation Modeling
   Structural Means Modeling

IV. DISCUSSION ...................................................................................................... 41
   Research Question 1
   Research Question 2
   Limitations
   Areas of Future Research
   Conclusion

APPENDIXES .......................................................................................................... 58

REFERENCES ............................................................................................................ 65
LIST OF TABLES

Table
1. Individual Characteristics of Sample ...........................................19
2. Family Characteristics and Home Environment during Upbringing ....20
3. Means, Standard Deviations, Ranges, and Analysis of Variance for Parenting Variables ..............................................................26
4. Correlations of Parenting Variables .................................................27
# LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

## Figure

1. Parenting Style Measurement Model ........................................31
2. Authoritative Parenting Measurement Model .................................30
3. Retained CFA Model for Black Americans .....................................61
4. Retained CFA Model for White Americans ....................................62
5. Retained SMT Model for Black Americans .....................................63
6. Retained SMT Model for White Americans .....................................64
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA</td>
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In 1971, Diana Baumrind introduced a multidimensional model of parenting which characterizes parenting styles based on warmth and control. Early and current studies indicate that authoritative parenting results in positive child outcomes and that authoritarian and permissive parenting promotes negative child outcomes (Baumrind, 1971; Baumrind, Larzelere, & Owens, 2010). Racial differences in parenting style include findings that Black Americans tend to report higher use of authoritarian parenting (Reis, 1993; Reitman et al., 2002) in comparison to White Americans. Specifically, Black Americans use parenting practices that exhibit lower warmth, as well as more physical discipline, and higher control than White Americans (Hill & Tyson, 2008; Jackson-Newsom, Buchanan, & McDonald, 2008; Weis & Toolis, 2010). Although Black Americans tend to report higher authoritarian parenting style, authoritarian parenting was associated with communication and warmth (Murry et al., 2008; Reitman et al., 2002). Further, positive outcomes, such as self-independence in Black American girls (Baumrind, 1972), are associated with authoritarian parenting style for Black American children. Positive child outcomes are not typically associated with authoritarian parenting style. These positive findings in Black American families have been attributed to racial differences in authoritarian parenting (Baumrind, 1972). The purpose of this study was to examine racial differences in Baumrind’s model of parenting style between Black Americans and White
Americans as well as relative racial differences in parental acceptance/involvement, autonomy granting, and parental strictness.

Parenting Style

In 1967, Diane Baumrind presented a conceptualization of parent-child relations. She theorized that strict, yet nurturing parents were more effective than strict, non-nurturing parents as well as permissive, nurturing parents (Baumrind, 1967). Healthy parenting involves appropriate behavioral standards and expectations and verbal expression of maturity demands. Parents’ communication of behavioral standards and expectations of their children influence healthy levels of aspiration, promote independence in children, and improve attitudes for children (Baumrind, 1967). This type of open parental communication and control has shown to encourage higher levels of child compliance without the loss of self-reliance (Baumrind, 1967).

After developing her theory of healthy, appropriate parenting, Diane Baumrind observed preschoolers in a child developmental center on an academic campus in Wisconsin in 1967. The children were placed in one of three behavioral categories based on their level of self-reliance, self control, mood, peer affiliation, and tendencies to approach or avoid novel situations. The children’s parents’ level of communication, nurturance, verbal directives, and parental control were then also assessed and linked to child-behavioral groups.

The first group of children was self-reliant, self-controlled, and explorative. Their parents demonstrated firm control, warmth, and expressiveness (Baumrind, 1967). This group of parents displayed reasoning and clear, communication
strategies that were considerate and accepting of the child’s opinion or feelings. They further demonstrated behaviors that indicated parental affection as well as verbal approval of the child. The parental warmth and acceptance was also coupled with direct demands and vocal pressures to meet developmentally appropriate behavioral expectations. These levels of warmth and control increased the child’s tendency to accept the parents’ set standards (Baumrind, 1967). This collection of parenting behaviors, characterized as high warmth and high control, was designated as a pattern of authoritative parenting (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1971). Authoritative parents have further been found provide opportunities for autonomy (Stragge & Brandt, 1999) and remain highly involved in monitoring their children’s behaviors (Lamborn & Mounts, 1991; Steinberg et al., 1994).

Authoritative-parented children exhibit healthy psychosocial development (Hastings, McShane, Parker, & Ladha, 2007), optimism (Baldwin, McIntyre, & Hardaway, 2007), behavioral adjustments (Mounts, 2004), academic adjustment and success (Steinberg et al., 1992), as well as increased psychological well-being (Wintre & Bowers, 2007). Authoritative parenting is negatively related with conduct problems and delinquency (Simons, Simons, Burt, Brody, & Cutrona, 2005) and associated with self-regulation, persistence, and mastery for college-aged young adults (Stragge & Brandt, 1999).

The second pattern of parenting behaviors, termed authoritarian parenting, (Baumrind, 1966), was linked to the group of preschoolers who were less content, more likely to become aggressive under stress, insecure, and less
affiliated with peers (Baumrind, 1967). Authoritarian parents displayed low levels of parental nurturance, less involvement, and firm control. They were less sympathetic and less approving of the preschoolers. In authoritarian parenting, parental power is enforced and directives and demands are given without offers of affection or opportunities for the child to express disagreement (Baumrind, 1967). Discussions or debates are discouraged in order to maintain order (Baumrind, 1971). These parents tend to expect a set standard of conduct and assign household responsibilities in order to cultivate respect for work and traditional structure and hierarchy (Baumrind, 1966). Children from authoritarian homes observed to be discontent, distrustful, and withdrawn (Baumrind, 1971). They reported low self-concept, external locus of control (Lee, Daniels, & Kissinger, 2006), and higher rates of depression (Dallaire, Pineda, & Cole, 2006). These youth are likely to be oppositional, defiant (Simons et al., 2005), and have lower educational attainment in comparison to authoritative-parented children (Steinberg et al., 1994).

When comparing authoritative and authoritarian parenting, Baumrind discussed a relative difference in communication and nurturance, but not for control. Authoritarian parents are less likely to use communication to reason or to obtain child compliance and less likely to encourage verbal give and take in comparison to authoritative parents. Authoritarian parents are less nurturing and display less positive reinforcement, less support of the child, and satisfied the child less than authoritative parents (Baumrind, 1967). Baumrind (1967) distinguishes authoritarian parenting from authoritative parenting based on these
differences in communication and warmth rather than on levels of strictness or control.

The third parenting style, permissive parenting (Baumrind, 1966), was descriptive of the final group of preschoolers. Children in this group were immature and lacked self-control and self-reliance (Baumrind, 1967). Permissive parenting exhibits low control or demandingness and expresses moderate levels of parental warmth (Baumrind, 1966; 1971). In comparison with authoritative parents, permissive parents were less involved with their children and used love as manipulation for compliance. Permissive mothers use withdrawal of love and ridicule to modify child behavior and use verbal directives that fostered less child independence (Baumrind, 1967). This specific pattern of permissive parenting included high passive-acceptance of the child, low firm enforcement of rules, low expectation of household chores, and low directiveness of child behavior (Baumrind, 1971).

Permissive-parented children perform poorly in school (Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, & Roberts, 1987) and exhibit low frustration tolerance and persistence during difficult tasks or situations (Baumrind, 1967; Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Child outcomes for children with permissive parents were described to be worse than child outcomes for children with authoritarian parents (Baumrind, 1967).

Studies of parenting style and outcomes replicated findings that support Diane Baumrind’s conceptualization of parent-child relationships and outcomes in various ethnic groups. Research that studies parenting style utilized various
measures to operationalize Baumrind’s parenting premises. However, parenting measures that assess the parent-child relationship include constructs related to parental warmth, parental control and supervision, communication, and parent-child relationship. There are few measures that address parenting style only. Therefore, the current study sought to utilize a measure that closely operationalized Baumrind’s parenting styles.

*Measures of Parenting Style*

Parenting style includes a global and pervasive collection of parenting attitudes and behaviors that creates a parenting climate over a variety of contexts (Wu et al., 2002). Specific parenting behaviors and practices cluster to create parenting styles based on dimensions of warmth, control, and communication. Only two measurements have been developed that assess parenting style, as defined by Diane Baumrind: Parental Style and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 1995) and Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ; Buri, 1991).

The PSDQ was empirically designed to identify global dimensions of parenting style for parents of preschool children. The PSDQ was specifically designed to assess mothers and fathers’ perception of their own parenting as well as reports on their spouses’ parenting. The 62-item measure assessed parenting practices that are related to authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles. Authoritative dimensions included reasoning/induction, democratic participation, warmth and involvement, and good natured/easy going parenting behaviors. Authoritarian parenting included verbal hostility, corporal
punishment, non-reasoning, punitive strategies, and directiveness. Permissive parenting behaviors were parents’ lack of follow through and ignoring of misbehavior (Robinson et al., 1995).

The most commonly used measure of parenting style is the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ; Buri, 1991). The PAQ is a 30-item questionnaire, which measures authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles. The measure includes a separate mother and father form, in which a participant reports retrospective accounts of his/her parent’s parenting style.

In the development of the PAQ, 21 professionals in the fields of psychology, education, sociology, and social work categorized initial items of the PAQ based on Baumrind’s descriptions of permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative prototypes. The final pool of items was judged to describe three distinct parenting types. Of the 30 selected items of the PAQ, 10 items assessed authoritative parenting style, 10 items measured authoritarian parenting style, and 10 items tested permissive parenting style (Buri, 1991). Correlational analyses found the authoritarian parenting subscale significantly and inversely related to permissive and authoritative parenting subscales. The permissive parenting subscale was unrelated to the authoritative parenting subscale, which the author’s believed provided evidence of discriminant validity (Buri, 1991).

As an indication of criterion-related validity, the PAQ was compared with the Parental Nurturance Scale (Buri, Misukanis, & Mueller, 1988). Parental nurturance, or warmth, was significantly correlated in the expected directions with each subscale of the PAQ. Authoritative parenting was associated with
adolescent self-esteem, while authoritarian parenting was inversely related to
self-esteem, and permissive parenting had no significant relationship with self-
estee (Buri, 1991). The PAQ was initially developed and tested in samples of
high school (mean age = 17.4 years) and college student students (mean age = 18.8 years) from intact families (Buri, 1991). However, no specific information
described the students’ racial background, economic factors, or operationalized
the definition of intact families, suggesting further assessment of this measure in
more diverse samples is needed.

Several studies have used the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) to
investigate outcomes associated with permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative
parenting styles in college settings and in young adults. Findings have linked
authoritative parenting to healthy adjustment, better academic performance,
healthy self-perception, and mastery orientation in college students (Gonzalez,
Greenwood, & WenHsu, 2001; Klein, O’Bryant, & Hopkins, 1996; Turner,
Chandler, & Heffer, 2009; Wintre & Bowers, 2007) and to healthy self-esteem in
young adults (Pawlak & Klein, 1997). With the use of the PAQ, authoritarian
parenting was associated with feelings of rejection, alcohol related problems
(Patock-Peckham & Morgan-Lopez, 2007), lower levels of self-worth (Klein et al.,
1996), and performance orientation (Gonzalez et al., 2001). Permissive
parenting was related to antisocial behaviors and lower levels of empathy in
young adults (Schaffer, Clark, & Jeglic, 2009).

Although the PAQ is a reputable measure of parenting style, Reitman and
colleagues (2002) examined the factor structure of the Parental Authority
Questionnaire in Black American and White American samples in efforts to revise the PAQ as a self-report measure. The result of their study highlighted concerns regarding racial differences in Baumrind’s three factor model of parenting. Reitman et al.’s (2002) results of an exploratory factor analysis found that Baumrind’s three factor model was not clearly supported for Black American samples of low socio-economic status. Specifically, authoritative parenting items related to expression of behavioral expectations, open communication, use of control, and encouragement of verbal feedback loaded onto the authoritarian parenting subscale for Black American parents and low income parents (Reitman et al., 2002).

The cross loading of authoritative parenting items onto authoritarian parenting factor suggests the need to investigate whether Baumrind’s typologies are clearly defined for Black American and low income parents. Reitman and his colleagues (2002) study utilized samples with only low income Black American mothers; therefore, it is not clear how these results may vary due to income. Therefore, the current study sought to examine the model fit of Baumrind’s parenting styles with the original PAQ retrospective report measure in both Black American and White American samples with diverse income backgrounds. The current study utilized the original PAQ as an instrument to measure parenting style due to its ability to assess retrospective accounts of parenting, which makes it conducive to collect information regarding parenting style and current outcomes with adolescents and young adults.
Racial Differences in Parenting Style

When compared to White Americans, Black American parents tend to use authoritarian parenting style that includes lower warmth, greater critical control and hostility, and stricter child-rearing attitudes (Hill & Tyson, 2008; Reis, 1993; Reitman et al., 2002; Weis & Toolis, 2010). In comparison to White American mothers, Black American mothers were more likely to utilize psychological control methods that included guilt and shame for their children in the 4th grade (Hill & Tyson, 2008) and are likely to use spanking and make decisions without their child’s input than White American parents (Deater-Deckard et al., 1996; Jackson-Newsom et al., 2008).

Overall, Black American parents expect mature behavior, discouraged infant-like behavior, and perceive expressions of warmth and affection as a parenting behavior that spoils children (Baumrind, 1967; Reis, 1993). Therefore, it is less likely for Black American mothers to display affection in response to child behavior (Skinner, Mackenzie, Haggerty, Hill, & Roberson, 2011). In comparison to White American parents, Black Americans were described as rejecting (Baumrind, 1972) and to exhibit controlling, critical, and hostile communication when discussing negative events and emotion, (Jackson-Newsome et al., 2008). The parents reported less verbal support and reinforcement for positive and prosocial adolescent behaviors (Skinner et al., 2011).

Although communication in Black American authoritarian parenting is described as more hostile (Skinner et al., 2011), no significant relationship was
found between authoritarian parenting and verbal hostility (Reis, 1993), which is described to be distinctive to authoritarian parenting patterns and most strongly associated with negative adolescent outcomes (Baumrind et al., 2010). Further, authoritarian parenting is associated with increased communication and flexible limit-setting in Black American families (Greening, Stoppelbein, & Luebbe, 2010; Reitman et al., 2002). Communication is important in authoritarian families and serves as a disciplinary practice to protect low income and Black American children and foster obedience (Reitman et al., 2002). Black American parents living in unsafe communities or in rural neighborhoods were found to display increased maternal warmth and monitoring (Murry et al., 2008).

According to findings that compare Black Americans and White American parents’ expression of warmth and discipline, Black American parents tend to exhibit critical and hostile responses to adolescents’ behavior while exhibiting fewer displays of warmth, affection, and strategies to discuss and solve problems with children (Skinner et al., 2011). Authoritarian parents were found to typically use physical punishment (Baumrind et al., 2010) yet, the number of spanking weakened over time for Black American youth (Gunnoe & Mariner, 1997). Further, Black Americans reported less negative affect during discipline than White American parents (Jackson-Newsom et al., 2008; Reis, 1993) and no significant link between harsh discipline strategies and aggressive behaviors in school and home (Deater-Deckard et al., 1996). Research that compares Black American parenting to White American parenting offers relative information that helps differentiate parenting behaviors. However, without consideration of the
cultural function or perception of each variable (i.e., warmth and control); relative differences may appear as deficits or strengths in parenting behavior between groups.

The discrepancies in Black American’s lack of negative affect and verbal hostility during discipline, as well as increased communication (regardless of whether it is positive or not), implies some differences in authoritarian parenting patterns across racial groups. It is important to consider the impact of these subtle differences in Black American parenting patterns to identify nuances that may lead to differences in parenting styles. Based on past research’s findings regarding racial difference in warmth and control (Greening et al., 2010; Skinner et al., 2011; Reitman et al., 2002), the current study sought to investigate racial differences in authoritative parenting behaviors to identify whether Black Americans report significantly lower in acceptance/involvement and significantly higher strictness/supervision than White American families.

When reviewing theories and exploratory analyses of Black American parenting, terms such as no nonsense parenting and tough love emerged (Brody & Flor, 1998; Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001) and were found to be associated with positive outcomes for Black American children. No nonsense parenting and tough love were used to describe healthy forms of authoritarian parenting style, which included punitive control and parental warmth. Specifically, no nonsense and tough love parenting was suggested to include control that was more punitive than expected in authoritative parenting style and warmth that was more involved than expected in authoritarian parenting style (Brody & Flor, 1998;
Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001). Thus, this integration of parenting behaviors introduce a fourth category of parenting that could previously been confounded by authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles (e.g., no nonsense parenting or tough love parenting, authoritarian parenting, authoritative parenting, and permissive parenting) for Black American families (Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001).

Racial differences in parenting and child outcomes. There has been recent attention to racial differences in parenting and the influences of these differences on child outcomes (Rudy & Grusec, 2006; Wu et al., 2002). Despite the common finding that authoritarian parenting results in negative outcomes (Baumrind et al., 2010; Dornbusch et al., 1987), authoritarian parenting has been found to influence positive outcomes for Black American youth (Baumrind, 1972; Deater-Deckard et al., 1996; Greening et al., 2010, Gunnoe & Mariner, 1997). Black American youth whose parents reported authoritarian parenting were described as independent and socially mature (Baumrind, 1972). Parenting that involved physical punishment and restraint was an indirect predictor of positive outcomes in learning, social interaction, and lower levels of depression and anxiety for youth in rural, low income, single-parented homes (Brody & Flor, 1998). Further, authoritarian parenting was a protective factor for suicidal behaviors in a sample of adolescents receiving treatment for depression in an inpatient facility (Greening et al., 2010).

Although these findings were linked to authoritarian parenting, it is unclear whether the studies assessed classic authoritarian parenting or parenting patterns that are suggestive of no nonsense parenting or tough love. Children
with parents who exhibit authoritarian discipline, but did not express concern or emotion for their children (classic authoritarian), had lower self-esteem, lower racial identity development, and were at significant risk for psychological and behavioral problems (Mandara & Murray, 2002). Yet, no nonsense parenting improved self-regulation in Black American youth (Brody & Flor, 1998). Further, youth with parents identified as using tough love performed better on assessments of intelligence and vocabulary than youth in the classic authoritarian parenting group (Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001). It is important to understand within-group differences among authoritarian discipline and level of warmth to clarify links between parenting patterns and child outcomes for Black American families. Thus, the current study will explore parenting style differences, as well as identify if specific elements of parenting commonly associated with authoritative parenting (i.e., warmth, autonomy granting, and strictness) are responsible for the racial differences in parenting styles.

Purpose of Study

While Black Americans are more likely than White Americans to report authoritarian parenting styles (Baumrind, 1967; Reis, 1993; Reitman et al., 2002), authoritarian parenting style has been linked to less aggression, protective factors for suicidal behavior, and positive social interaction in Black American youth parented by authoritarian parents (Brody & Flor, 1998; Greening et al., 2010; Gunnoe & Mariner, 1997). These findings suggest that a further examination of Baumrind’s typology may be helpful in understanding the ways in which parenting styles differ by race. In particular identifying and understanding
is important because of the links to child outcomes such as achievement (Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Brown, 1992) and internalized and externalized behavior (Pittman & Lansdale, 2001; Steinberg et al., 1992). Further, Baumrind’s parenting model has not been confirmed in Black American samples, and in light of studies that suggest parenting differences in Black American families (Skinner et al., 2011). Therefore, the current study utilized a multigroup confirmatory factor analysis to test the hypothesis that Baumrind’s model fits differently across Black American and White American young adults. The use of structural equation modeling techniques allowed for examination and comparison of factor loadings for individual paths as well as correlations within the model for Black American and White American groups.

The second research aim of the current study was to empirically examine whether between-group differences existed for constructs commonly associated with authoritative parenting (i.e., parental involvement/acceptance, autonomy granting, and parental supervision/strictness). Although Black Americans reported low warmth and high control in comparison to White Americans (Hill & Tyson, 2008; Jackson-Newsom et al., 2008; Skinner et al., 2011; Weis & Toolis, 2010), researchers found that communication and warmth were associated with authoritarian parenting for Black American parents (Greening et al., 2010; Murry et al., 2008; Reitman et al., 2002) and that additional patterns such as no nonsense parenting or tough love (Brody & Flor, 1998; Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001) may exist for Black American families. Therefore, the proposed study tested for significant differences in scales measuring involvement/acceptance,
psychological autonomy granting, and strictness/supervision, constructs that are associated with authoritative parenting (Buri, 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992). The following research questions and hypotheses were examined:

1. Will the Baumrind parenting model, as measured by the Parental Authority Questionnaire, fit significantly differently for Black Americans than White Americans?

   a. Hypothesis 1a: The Baumrind parenting model fit will be significantly different between Black American and White American groups.

   b. Hypothesis 1b: The factor loadings between indicator variables of the authoritative parenting latent variable will be significantly different among Black American and White American groups. Specifically, factor loadings will be greater for the White American group than the Black American group’s factor loadings.

   c. Hypothesis 1c: The factor loadings between indicator variables of the authoritarian parenting latent variable will exhibit no significant difference among Black American and White American groups.

   d. Hypothesis 1d: The factor loadings between indicator variables of the permissive parenting latent variable will exhibit no significant difference among Black American and White American groups.
e. Hypothesis 1e: The correlation between authoritarian and authoritative parenting latent variables will be significantly different among Black American and White American groups. Specifically, the correlation will be greater for Black American groups than the White American groups.

f. Hypothesis 1f: The correlation between permissive and authoritarian latent variables as well as permissive and authoritative parenting latent variables will exhibit no significant difference among Black American and White American groups.

2. Will parenting constructs, such as parental acceptance/involvement, psychological autonomy granting, and parental strictness/supervision significantly differ among Black American and White American participants?

   a. Hypothesis 2a: Black Americans will report a significantly higher mean score for parental strictness/supervision compared to White Americans.

   b. Hypothesis 2b: Black Americans will report a significantly lower mean score for parental acceptance/involvement compared to White Americans.

   c. Hypothesis 2c: Black Americans will report no significant difference in mean score for psychological autonomy granting compared to White Americans.
CHAPTER II

METHODS

Participants

At least 150 Black American participants and 150 White American participants were required to meet minimum satisfactory sample size guidelines for structural equation model statistical procedures (Ding, Velicer, & Harlow, 1995). Sampling exceeded the minimal sample size for both sample groups. A total of 897 participants completed the study measures. Of these, 282 were excluded (i.e., listwise deletion) from the final sample because they either exceeded the age requirements (18-25 years) or did not identify as Black American or White American. Individuals aged 18-25 years old were selected to gain retrospective accounts of parenting that were less likely affected by memory, time, or extraneous experiences in the parent-child relationship. Incomplete surveys that only included demographic information (33 cases) were further excluded. The final study sample included 582 young adults primarily from the southern United States (see Table 1). Participants ranged in age from 18 to 25 ($M = 19.7, SD = 1.73$) and included 44.3% Black Americans ($n = 258$) and 55.7% White Americans ($n = 324$). The overall sample was predominantly single, female, college students without children. A majority of both the Black American sample (72%) and the White American sample (57%) reported personal income in the $30,000 - $90,000 range.
Table 1

*Individual Characteristics of Sample*

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual Characteristics by Racial Group (n)</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black American (n = 258)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>White American (n = 324)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>97.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$0 - $30,000</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$30,000 - $90,000</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$90,000+</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants reported characteristics of their primary caregiver and home environment during their upbringing (See Table 2). Participants were likely to identify their mother as their primary caregiver. Although most participants in each group reported family income in the $30,000 - $90,000 range, approximately one-third of the Black American sample reported family income as $0 - $30,000, while approximately one-quarter of the White American sample reported family income as more than $90,000. Twenty-two percent of the Black American sample and 29% of the White American sample reported that their caregiver received a bachelor’s degree; yet larger percentages of participants in each group reported that their caregiver received a high school diploma only.
Specifically, Black American participants reported lower parent educational attainment and family income levels than White American participants \([F (1, 580) 101.4, p < .001; \text{for income}; F(1, 580) 16.07, p < .001 \text{for education}].\)

Table 2

*Family Characteristics and Home Environment during Upbringing*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics by Total Sample</th>
<th>(n)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Selected Primary Caregiver</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>85.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics by Racial Group ((n = 258))</th>
<th>(n)</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>(n)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family Description</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-Parent</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>75.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step-Family</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single-Parent</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandparent-Family</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Caregiver’s Marital Status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single/Never Married</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>82.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/Separated/Widowed</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Caregiver’s Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Diploma</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate’s Degree</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s Degree</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate’s Degree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family Income</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0 - $30,000)</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>($30,000 - $90,000)</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>($90,000+)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>24.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instruments

*Demographic Form*

A demographic information form assessed participants’ characteristics (e.g., age, gender, race, current income, and highest education level) and participants’ major caregiver’s characteristics. Specific demographic information
on the participants’ home environment, such as family income, primary
caregiver’s marital status, and primary caregiver’s education, was collected to
assess socio-economic status during the years of the participants’ upbringing.

**Parental Authority Questionnaire**

The Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ; Buri, 1991) is a 30-item
questionnaire comprised of permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative
subscales. Participants selected one primary caregiver and rated the caregiver's
parenting style on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5)
*strongly agree*. Scale scores range from 10-50, and higher scores indicate
greater appraised level of each parenting style. Instructions were modified
slightly to allow for gender-neutral wording which would accommodate either
parent as the referent. As an indication of criterion-related validity, the PAQ was
compared with the Parental Nurturance Scale (Buri et al., 1988). The
authoritative parenting subscale had a positive relationship with parental
nurturance, whereas authoritarian was inversely related to nurturance, and
permissive was not found to be related to nurturance. Buri also indicated that
authoritarian parenting was negatively related to authoritative and permissive
parenting, and that authoritative parenting had no significant relationship with
permissive parenting.

The modified PAQ items included gender neutral phrasing (e.g., “While I
was growing up my caregiver felt that in a well-run home the children should
have their way in the family as often as the parents do”). Results of a pilot study
(McMurtry, 2011) found that modified the phrasing maintained similar levels of
internal reliability as reported by the authors: permissive parenting ($\alpha = .79$),
authoritarian parenting ($\alpha = .87$), and authoritative parenting ($\alpha = .87$), whereas
Buri (1991) reports reliability ranging from .75 - .86. In the current sample, the
estimated internal reliability for the subscales was found to be: permissive
parenting ($\alpha = .85$), authoritarian parenting ($\alpha = .88$), and authoritative parenting
($\alpha = .88$).

**Parenting Style Index**

The 36-item Parenting Style Index, (PSI; Steinberg et al., 1992; 1994) assessed
parental warmth and control. Each participant rated his or her
caregivers’ responsive, warmth, and involvement (i.e., parental
involvement/acceptance); control and monitoring (i.e., strictness/supervision);
and encouragement of individuality within the family (i.e., psychological
autonomy-granting), resulting in scores on three subscales. Participants rated
their caregiver’s parenting on a Likert scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to
(4) *strongly agree*. Higher scores on any scale are indicative of a greater
agreement with that reported parenting approach. Total scores on the
acceptance/involvement and psychological autonomy-granting subscales can
range from 9 to 36; total scores on the strictness/supervision subscale can range
from 8 to 32 with higher scores indicating greater utilization of that parenting
approach.

The items of the PSI were modified to past tense for use with the adult
sample (e.g., “I could count on my parents to help me out, if I had some kind of
problem”). Two items (regarding curfew) were not included in the reliability
analyses as these are assessed on a different scale than the other 8 items making up the strictness/supervision subscale. The use of this past-tensed format had been utilized in a pilot study (McMurtry, 2011) in which internal reliability coefficients were found as acceptance/involvement (α = .85; 9 items), autonomy granting (α = .71; 9 items), and strictness/supervision (α = .83; 6 items) and comparable to those found in the current study: acceptance/involvement (α = .90; 9 items), autonomy granting (α = .74; 9 items), and strictness/supervision (α = .83; 8 items).

**Procedures**

Participants were recruited to complete a 20-30 minute online survey on Psych Surveys (http://www.psychsurveys.org) or a pen-paper survey administered throughout community locations. Of the 582 total surveys collected, 567 were online surveys and 15 were pen-paper forms. A recruitment letter for online participation was posted to several online and social groups, such as university alumni groups, sorority groups, university extracurricular groups, high school alum groups, and volunteer-based groups, through the University of Southern Mississippi SONA research system (http://usm.sona-systems.com), Facebook social network, and email contact. Pen-paper forms and recruitment letters were distributed at local community locations, such as libraries, grocery stores, community college registration booths, local daycare centers, and community leadership groups. The use of pen-paper forms were used to target individuals with limited access to internet services.
Participants who completed online surveys available through University of Southern Mississippi SONA research system were informed of the voluntary nature of the study (See Informed Consent Form in Appendix A) and received credit for participation. All other participants received no benefits for completion of the survey. Sampling procedures were approved through the University of Southern Mississippi’s Institutional Review Board (See Appendix B). Statistical analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 17 and IBM SPSS Amos 19 software.
CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Preliminary Analysis

After excluding (i.e., listwise deletion) cases that did not meet age and race requirements and cases that included only demographic information, a linear trend-at-point calculation was performed to estimate remaining missing data points. Of the 66 total PAQ and PSI items, linear trend-at-point calculation was conducted for 38 items which included between one and four missing data points across cases.

The range of scores, means, and standard deviations for all parenting variables are listed in Table 3. Means and standard deviations for the current sample were similar to those reported in the literature for permissive and authoritative parenting (Buri, 1991). White Americans reported similar means for authoritarian parenting; however Black Americans’ mean score was one standard deviation higher than the normed college student sample (Buri, 1991) on authoritarian parenting. In the current sample, Black Americans reported significantly higher means on the authoritarian subscale than White Americans (see Table 3). White Americans reported significantly higher means than Black Americans on the autonomy granting subscale (See Table 3). Further, parenting style differed between gender, as women reported more parental acceptance/involvement ($F(1, 580) = 4.59$, $p = .03$) and men reported more permissive parenting ($F(1, 580) = 5.23$, $p = .02$). In addition, in the overall sample, race and family household income were moderately related ($r = .39$, $p < .001$).
Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Ranges, and Analysis of Variance for Parenting Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Black Americans</th>
<th>White Americans</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent Authority Questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>10-50</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>10-50</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>10-50</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parenting Style Index</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance/Involvement</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>9-36</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy Granting</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>9-32</td>
<td>9.69</td>
<td>.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strictness/Supervision</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>8-32</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **p < .01

In the overall sample, correlations among authoritative parenting constructs (e.g., acceptance/involvement \( r = .64, p < .001 \), autonomy granting \( r = .21, p < .001 \), and strictness/supervision \( r = .24, p < .001 \)) and authoritative parenting were significant and in the expected (Lamborn et al., 1991) positive direction. When separated by race, authoritative parenting remained significantly related to all authoritative parenting constructs in the White American sample. Authoritative parenting was significantly related to only acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision, not autonomy granting, in the Black American sample (See Table 4).

In the overall sample, authoritarian and permissive parenting were negatively related \( r = -.17, p < .001 \), as expected (Buri, 1991). Authoritative and authoritarian parenting were positively related \( r = .18, p < .001 \), and authoritative and permissive parenting were positively related \( r = .22, p < .001 \).
and discrepant from what would be expected (Buri, 1991). When separated by race, the authoritative and authoritarian correlation was in the expected direction for White Americans but remained discrepant for Black Americans. Also the authoritative and permissive correlation remained in the unexpected direction for both White Americans and Black Americans (See Table 4).

Table 4

Correlations of Parenting Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parenting Authority</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Authoritative</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.48**</td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.56**</td>
<td>.22**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Authoritarian</td>
<td>-.07**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.39**</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Permissive</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>-.29**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parenting Style Index</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Autonomy</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>-.57**</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.15*</td>
<td>-.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Acceptance</td>
<td>.70**</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.33**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Strictness</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>-.22**</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coefficient Alpha</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p < .05. **p < .01. Bolded statistics above the diagonal are correlations for the Black American sample. Statistics below the diagonal are correlations for the White American sample. Coefficient Alpha reported on overall sample.

Multigroup Structural Equation Modeling

Multigroup structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to examine hypothesis associated with Research Question 1, which tested equivalence of Baumrind’s model of parenting style across Black American and White American samples. Hypothesis 1a predicted that the overall parenting model would fit differently between groups. Hypothesis 1b investigated whether factor loadings for the authoritative latent variable would significantly vary between groups and would be stronger for the White American group. Hypotheses 1c and 1d presumed that no between-group differences would be found on the authoritarian
and permissive factor loadings. Hypothesis 1e predicted that the correlation between authoritarian and authoritative latent variables would vary between groups and would be stronger for the Black American group. Hypotheses 1f presumed no between-group differences among the correlations between permissive and authoritarian factors and between permissive and authoritative factors. Hypotheses 1a, 1c, 1d, and 1e were fully supported. Hypothesis 1f was partially supported. Hypothesis 1b was not supported.

**Model identification.** The original default model was identified based on the subscales of the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ). The measurement model included three latent variables (i.e., Authoritarian, Authoritative, and Permissive Parenting) with ten indicator variables on each of the latent variables.

**Model fit.** Model fit was examined in terms of a chi-square difference test ($\chi^2$), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Chi-square ($\chi^2$) quantifies the differences between the observed sample data and estimated covariance within the model. As the $\chi^2$ decreases, there is indication of better model fit. In models with more than 250 observations in each group (e.g., $n = 324$ for White American sample and $n = 258$ for Black American sample) and with at least 30 observed variables (i.e., 28 indicator variables and 3 latent variables), demonstration of goodness-of-fit is also indicated with a RMSEA value less than .07 with CFI value above .90 (Hair et al., 2006). Yet, according to conventional criteria, good fit would be indicated by RMSEA < .05 and CFI > .97; and acceptable fit indicated by CFI > .95, and RMSEA < .08 (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Muller, 2003).
Confirmatory factor analysis of default model. The result of the initial test of the original default Baumrind model indicated a significant chi-square value ($\chi^2 (1, 804) = 2508, p < .001$) and less than acceptable fit indices (i.e., CFI = .77; RMSEA = .06). The observed data did not support the original default model. All beta weights were significant (i.e., $p < .001$), indicating each directional path between indicator variables each designated latent variable were statistically significant.

Review of standardized residual covariance indicated covariance that was counter indicative of Baumrind’s theoretical premise for authoritative-indicator item 8 (“As I was growing up, my caregiver directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline”, and permissive-indicator item 24 (“As I was growing up, my caregiver allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters, and he/she generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do”). According to Baumrind’s theory, authoritative parenting and authoritarian parenting were negatively correlated and permissive parenting and authoritative parenting are unrelated constructs (Buri, 1991).

Standardized residual covariance indicated positive relationships paths among authoritative-indicator item 8 and various authoritarian parenting items. Modification indices suggested a need for directional paths to and from authoritative-indicator item 8 and various authoritarian-indicator items and the authoritarian parenting latent variable. Standardized residual covariance indicated positive relationships among permissive-indicator item 24 and various authoritative-parenting items. Modification indices suggested a need for
directional paths to and from and the permissive-indicator item 24 and authoritative-indicator items and the authoritative parenting latent variable. Therefore, items 8 and 24 were deleted from the model due to relationships that countered Baumrind’s theoretical premise and evidence of statistical misfit.

Modification indices and standardized residual covariance further indicated a need for additional paths among error terms for the following items: authoritative-indicator item 18 (“As I was growing up, my caregiver let me know what behavior he/she expected of me, and if I didn’t meet those expectations, he/she punished me”) and permissive-indicator item 30 (“As I was growing up, I knew what my caregiver expected of me in the family and he/she insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for his/her authority”); as well as authoritarian-indicator item 3 (“Whenever my caregiver told me to do something as I was growing up, he/she expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions”) and permissive-indicator item 10 (“As I was growing up, my caregiver did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behavior simply because someone in authority had established them”). These paths were included to improve model fit. Specifically, the authoritarian-permissive relationship was consistent with Baumrind’s theory regarding the inverse relationships among authoritarian and permissive parenting.

**Confirmatory factor analysis of the modified measurement model.** The modified measurement model was then tested with the deletion of items 8 and 24, and the added error term correlations for items 18 and 30 and items 3 and 10. In comparison to the original default model, the measurement model was
significantly different and indicated a significantly improved fit ($\chi^2 (1, 690) = 1961, p < .001$; CFI = .81; RMSEA = .06). However, according to conventional criteria, fit indices indicated that fit was less than the acceptable range. The observed data did not support the modified model. Yet, due to the significantly improved chi-square value and acceptable RMSEA value (i.e., < 07) (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006), the model was retained and further analysis was warranted. However, the significance of the findings will be limited due to model fit. All beta weights were significant (i.e., at $p < .001$) for each indicator factor loading (See Figure 1).

![Diagram of Parenting Style Measurement Model](image)

*Figure 1. Parenting Style Measurement Model. Note: PAQ = Parental Authority Questionnaire*
Multigroup Invariance Models: Statistical Procedures

Factor loading constrained models. Hypothesis 1b, 1c, and 1d were evaluated by testing the authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive factor loadings. Hypothesis 1b predicted that the authoritative factor loadings would be stronger for White Americans than Black Americans. Hypotheses 1c and 1d suggested no group differences between authoritarian and permissive factor loadings. A series of between-group models were conducted. In each model, one respective latent variable was constrained while the other latent variables were freely estimated. In comparison to the unconstrained model, the constrained factor loading model was not significantly different ($\chi^2 (1, 718) = 1989, p < .001$) and more parsimonious. Thus the unconstrained model was retained and the analyses revealed no differences among authoritative parenting, authoritarian parenting, and permissive parenting factor loadings for Black Americans and White Americans. Hypotheses 1c and 1d were supported.

A standardized regression weight with magnitude greater than .7 is indicative of strong factor loading among indicator item and latent variable (Stevens, 2012). All authoritative parenting standardized coefficients were significant and exhibited moderate to strong magnitude for both groups. Hypothesis 1b, which expected that factor loadings would be stronger for White Americans was not supported.

Error term correlation models. Further analysis revealed that error term correlation model was not significantly different than the factor loading constrained model ($\chi^2 (1, 720) = 1990, p < .001$) between Black and White
American groups. Therefore, no significant invariance was found between Black American and White American samples on the error term correlations for items 3 and 10 and items 18 and 30. Thus, the error-term correlation model was retained.

Latent variable covariance models. Hypotheses 1e and 1f tested whether correlations between factors would vary among Black American and White American groups. Hypothesis 1e predicted that the correlation between authoritarian and authoritative factor would vary and have greater magnitude for the Black American group. Hypothesis 1f suggested that the correlations between the permissive and authoritarian factors and the permissive and authoritative factors would remain consistent across groups.

Analysis found that the latent variable covariance model was significantly different ($\chi^2 (1, 723) = 2049, p < .001$) and had worse fit than the error term correlation model. Therefore, variance was indicated among latent variable covariance for Black American and White American groups, and the error term correlation model was retained. The next series of models tested specific latent variable covariance pairs (i.e., authoritative-authoritarian latent variables, authoritative-permissive latent variables, and authoritarian-permissive latent variables). The covariance for each respective latent variable pair (e.g., authoritative-authoritarian covariance) was constrained across groups while covariance for other pairs (e.g., authoritative-permissive covariance and authoritarian-permissive covariance) was freely estimated.
The authoritative-permissive covariance model did not significantly differ from the error term correlation model \( \chi^2 (1, 721) = 1992, p < .001 \). Both groups had consistent positive correlation between authoritative and permissive parenting factors \( r = .10, p = .02 \). The authoritative-authoritarian covariance model and the permissive-authoritarian model significantly differed from the error term correlation model \( \chi^2 (1, 721) = 2039, p < .001; \chi^2 (1, 721) = 1997, p < .001; \) respectively). Therefore, the authoritative-authoritarian covariance and the authoritarian-permissive covariance differed between Black American and White American groups. The authoritative-permissive covariance model was retained since the model was more parsimonious than the error-term correlation model.

Further evaluation of the authoritative-authoritarian covariance model indicated a significant, positive correlation between authoritarian parenting and authoritative parenting latent variables for the Black American group \( r = .55, p < .001 \). No significant correlation was found between the authoritative parenting and authoritarian parenting latent variables for the White American group \( r = -.08, p = .18 \). The relationship among authoritative and authoritarian parenting were significantly different for Black American and White Americans. Hypothesis 1e was supported.

Analysis indicated a significant, negative correlation between the authoritarian and permissive parenting latent variables for the White American group \( r = -.36, p < .001 \) and a significant, inverse correlation for the Black American group \( r = -.15, p = .02 \). The relationship among authoritarian and
permissive parenting were statistically different for Black American and White Americans.

To determine the significance of the authoritarian-permissive covariance difference between groups, the relationship among factors and the magnitude of the difference were evaluated. Both Black American and White American groups' authoritarian-permissive covariance was negatively related. Further, the magnitude of the authoritarian-permissive covariance was $r = -.32, p < .01$ for White Americans and $r = -.14, p = .05$ for Black Americans. Due to the similar relationship among the authoritative and permissive parenting factors and the small difference among the authoritative-permissive covariance, the covariance between the factors was not considered a significant finding for this study. Therefore, it was concluded that the covariance between authoritarian and permissive parenting factors were consistent across groups. The final retained model constrained all paths and correlations, but allowed free estimation of the authoritarian and authoritative correlation (See Appendix C). The results found the model to have significant chi square value, $\chi^2 (1, 722) = 1998, p < .001$.

Structural Means Modeling

The second set of hypotheses were associated with research question 2 and examined whether parenting constructs, such as parental acceptance/involvement, psychological autonomy granting, and parental strictness/supervision were significantly different among Black American and White American participants. Structural means modeling was selected to analyze group differences and to measure unobserved variables as well as
measurement error (Green & Thompson, 2006) in a model with underlying latent variables of authoritative parenting (i.e., involvement/acceptance, autonomy granting, and strictness/supervision). Hypothesis 2a predicted that Black Americans exhibit more parental strictness/supervision than White Americans. Hypothesis 2b expected that the Black American sample would report lower parental acceptance/involvement than the White American sample. Hypothesis 2c suggested no significant difference for psychological autonomy granting across groups.

*Model identification.* The original default model was based on the Parenting Style Index (PSI) and included three latent variables (i.e., involvement/acceptance, autonomy granting, and strictness/supervision) with nine indicator variables on the involvement/acceptance and autonomy granting variables and eight indicator variables on the strictness/supervision variable.

*Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of default model.* Before investigating mean differences among latent variables, a CFA was conducted to ensure that no differences were found in latent variables between the groups. The result of the test of the default model found a significant chi-square value, ($\chi^2 (1, 595) = 2376, p < .001$) and less than acceptable fit indices (CFI = .72; RMSEA = .07). The observed data did not support the original default model. All beta weights were significant (i.e., at $p < .001$) for each indicator factor loading, indicating that all directional paths were statistically significant. Therefore, modification indices were evaluated in efforts to improve model fit.
Modification indices and item-content were examined to identify model misspecification. Based on evaluation of modification indices and standardized residual means, correlational paths were added to error terms for autonomy granting-indicator item 2 ("My parents said that you shouldn’t argue with adults") and acceptance/involvement-indicator item 3 ("My parents kept pushing me to do my best in whatever I did"); autonomy granting-indicator item 10 ("Whenever I argued with my parents, they said things like, “You’ll know better when you grow up”") and acceptance/involvement-indicator item 11 ("When I got a poor grade in school, my parents encouraged me to try harder"); and autonomy granting-indicator item 12 (My parents let me make my own plans for things I wanted to do") and acceptance/involvement-indicator item 9 ("When my parents wanted me to do something, they explained why"). Correlational paths were also added among supervision/strictness items to improve model fit (See Figure 2).
Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of modified model. The modified model was significantly different than the default model ($\chi^2 (1, 595) = 1714, p < .001$), and resulted in improved fit indices (CFI = .85; RMSEA = .05). According to conventional criteria, fit indices indicated that fit was less than the acceptable range. The observed data did not support the modified model. Yet, due to the significantly improved chi-square value and acceptable RMSEA value (i.e., < 07; Hair et al., 2006), the modified model was retained and further analysis was warranted. However, the significance of the findings will be limited due to the less than acceptable CFI fit index. All beta weights were significant (i.e., at $p < .001$) for each indicator factor loading.
Multigroup Invariance Models: Statistical Procedures

In order to test that involvement/acceptance, autonomy granting, and strictness/supervision latent variables were invariant across Black American and White American samples, a series of between-group comparisons were conducted. The variance of each latent variable was constrained to one to investigate the factor loading estimates for all indicator variables. The factor loading constrained model was not significantly different than the unconstrained measurement model ($\chi^2 (1, 618) = 1641, p < .001$). The analysis revealed significant standardized regression weights (i.e., $p < .001$) and no significant differences among involvement/acceptance, autonomy granting, and strictness/supervision factor loadings for the Black American and White American groups. Further analysis revealed no significant invariance among the correlations of error terms. Therefore, no significant invariance was found between Black American and White American samples on the various error term correlations. Due to parsimony and nonsignificance, the error term correlation model was retained.

The next series of models tested covariance among the latent variables. Results found that the latent variable covariance model was not significantly different from the error term correlation model ($\chi^2 (1, 627) = 1663, p < .001$). Due to parsimony and non-significance, the correlation model was retained (See Appendix C). All beta weights were significant (i.e., at $p < .001$) for each indicator factor loading. The retained correlation model provided a moderate-to-good fit.
across groups, with RMSEA fit statistics in an acceptable range, [CFI = .83, RMSEA = .054] (Hair et al., 2006).

Structural Means Test

When examining the retained measurement model, the mean of each latent variable was fixed to zero and set as a deviation score in the Black American group. In comparison to the White American group’s variable means, a significant deviation was found for the parental strictness/supervision latent variable ($\chi^2_{\text{Difference}} (1) = -.06, p = .04$), indicating that White Americans tend to score lower on strictness/supervision than Black Americans in this study. Hypothesis 2a was supported. No significant differences were found in acceptance/involvement and autonomy granting means across sample groups. Hypothesis 2b was not supported, and hypothesis 2c was supported.
CHAPTER IV
DISCUSSION

The main purpose of the current study was to investigate differences in parenting style for Black American and White American parents. The first research question was developed to investigate racial differences in Baumrind’s model of parenting styles. It was hypothesized that the structure of the Baumrind model of parenting style would vary between Black Americans and White Americans. Specifically, it was expected that factor loadings between authoritative indicator items and the authoritative parenting latent variable would be larger for White Americans than Black Americans. The author also hypothesized that the correlation between authoritarian parenting and authoritative parenting was stronger for Black Americans than White Americans.

Findings partially supported the current study’s hypotheses racial group differences in the Baumrind parenting model. Factor loadings between the authoritative indicator items and the authoritative parenting latent variable were consistent between both groups. However, the correlation between authoritative and authoritarian parenting latent variables varied across groups. The authoritative parenting factor was significantly associated with the authoritarian parenting factor for Black Americans; whereas these factors were not related for White American participants.

The second research question investigated relative racial differences in the authoritative parenting construct. It was hypothesized that parental strictness/supervision would be significantly higher for Black Americans and that
parental involvement would be significantly lower for Black Americans than White Americans. Results indicated support for the hypothesis that strictness/supervision was significantly higher for Black Americans than White Americans; yet, no differences were found between Black Americans and White Americans on parental involvement or autonomy granting.

Research Question 1

Hypothesis 1a

Hypothesis 1a investigated whether the overall model fit would be significantly different between Black Americans and White Americans. Baumrind’s three parenting factors (i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles) were consistent across racial groups. Correlations among authoritative and permissive parenting styles, as well as authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were consistent across samples. However, the correlation between authoritarian and authoritative parenting factors was significantly different across the Black American and White American samples. This was an interesting finding and suggests that while the three factors appear similar across groups, the relationships between the latent variables were different in our different sample groups.

Previous authors suggested that Black Americans demonstrate parenting patterns that are not fully explained by authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles (Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001; Murry et al., 2008; Weis, 2002). Results of the current study may lend additional support to this growing body of research. It was expected that these racial differences occur
due to links between communication and warmth, which are typically associated with authoritarian parenting for Black American groups, but not White American groups (Murry et al., 2008; Reitman et al., 2002).

Although the RMSEA fit index was in the acceptable range, caution should be used when interpreting the current findings due to the less than acceptable CFI fit index. This may be due to the large number of indicator items in our model. The CFI fit index is relatively insensitive to model complexity (Hair et al., 2006), yet it tends to decline with larger numbers of indicator variables (Kenny & McCoach, 2003). Therefore, due to the current study’s use of 28 indicator items, intercorrelation among these items may have affected the CFI.

Hypothesis 1b, 1c, and 1d

Hypotheses 1b, 1c, and 1d explored racial differences among the three latent variables (i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, permissive parenting). Hypothesis 1b tested whether authoritative indicator items were more strongly related to the authoritative parenting latent variable in the White American sample. The authoritative parenting indicator items were consistent and significantly linked to the authoritative factor for both groups. As the relationships between latent variables and indicator items were not variable by race, Hypothesis 1b was not supported as results of the current study did not find racial differences in the authoritative construct. Therefore, differences in outcomes linked to authoritative parenting may be more likely attributed to extraneous variables such as parental goals and values, social peer association,
or community violence more so than parenting (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Pittman & Lansdale, 2001; Steinberg et al., 1992).

Hypotheses 1c and 1d hypothesized that no differences between racial groups existed among authoritarian and permissive indicator items and respective authoritarian and permissive latent variables. Authoritarian factor loadings and permissive factor loadings were consistent across groups. Hypotheses 1c and 1d were supported. The findings regarding the authoritarian and permissive factor loadings were expected due to past findings that suggest that authoritarian and permissive parenting styles predicted negative outcomes in both groups (Baumrind, 1967; Baumrind, 1971; Dallaire et al., 2006; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Simons et al., 2005; Steinberg et al., 1994), so it was assumed that there would be no racial differences in these constructs either.

Hypothesis 1e and 1f

Hypotheses 1e and 1f explored the correlations between latent variables and predicted that there would be consistencies between groups as well as one significant difference on the authoritarian-authoritative correlation between Black Americans and White Americans. For Black Americans, there was a positive relationship between authoritative parenting and authoritarian parenting that differed from that of White Americans. Hypothesis 1e was supported.

Authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles were previously described as distinct constructs that were inversely related (Buri, 1991). The positive authoritative-authoritarian correlation in the current study may suggest that the two factors are not as distinct for Black Americans as for White Americans.
Whereas, in a previous study, White Americans associated harsh disciplinary control with low warmth and negative affect (Jackson-Newsom et al., 2008), in the current study, Black Americans associated strict, rigid, and control, (authoritarian parenting as defined by the PAQ items) with open, flexible, responsive parenting (authoritative parenting as defined by the PAQ items). Further, in the current study, parental acceptance/involvement was correlated with authoritarian parenting for Black Americans \( (r = .36, p < .001) \), but not for the White American group \( (r = .00, p = .99) \). The positive correlations among authoritative and authoritarian factors and among parental acceptance/involvement and authoritarian parenting are consistent with previous research that suggest that communication, warmth, limit setting, and less verbal hostility were associated with authoritarian parenting with Black American parents (Greening et al., 2010; Murry et al., 2008; Reis, 1993; Reitman et al., 2002). Therefore, Black Americans may be more likely to utilize authoritative behaviors within authoritarian parenting style. Research question 2 explored this question further.

The positive relationship among authoritative and authoritarian parenting factors for Black Americans could also be related to the low association among autonomy granting and authoritative parenting for the Black American sample. Autonomy granting was described as the democratic component of authoritative parenting (Lamborn et al., 1991), and Black Americans were less likely to associate democratic verbal give and take with authoritative parenting in the current study \( (r = .01, p = .87) \). This is consistent with previous research which
similarly found that Black American parents were more parent-directed, rejecting, and less receptive of the child’s opinion (Baumrind, 1972; Skinner et al., 2011). Notably, the relationship between autonomy granting and authoritative parenting was significant and positive for the White American sample \( (r = .36, p < .001) \).

The correlation between authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles for Black Americans could also provide support for a fourth parenting pattern. Researchers have proposed a fourth fluid and continuous parenting pattern that includes a combination of strict control and critical communication as well as acceptance and involvement in Black American families (Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001; Murry et al., 2008). No nonsense parenting and tough love are parenting patterns that include warmth, which is higher than expected for authoritarian parenting, and patterns of control, that is more critical than expected for authoritative parenting (Brody & Flor, 1998; Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001).

Kohen and Brooks-Gunn (2001) performed a cluster analysis that identified tough love as one of four parenting factors for Black Americans and White Americans. The Black Americans reported higher use of tough love, but did not differ from White Americans on classic authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting factors. Our findings that authoritative and authoritarian parenting style are related for Black Americans, but not for White Americans may support notions of no nonsense parenting and tough love (Brody & Flor, 1996; Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001) and suggest the need for further investigation of this parenting style in this population.
Hypothesis 1f explored the relationships permissive parenting had with the authoritative and authoritarian constructs. As expected, relationships among permissive and authoritative parenting factors and among permissive and authoritarian parenting factors were consistent across racial groups. Hypothesis 1f was supported.

Interestingly, permissive and authoritarian factors were inversely related; while permissive and authoritative factors were positively related across both groups. The permissive-authoritative relationship was discrepant from Buri’s (1991) findings that permissive parenting was unrelated to authoritative parenting. The positive relationship among permissive and authoritative parenting may be due to overlap between authoritative and permissive parenting behaviors that was described in the early development of the parenting constructs (Baumrind, 1971). Baumrind separated authoritative and permissive parenting styles into subpatterns which included two clusters of authoritative parenting and three clusters of permissive parenting. The “permissive, non-nonconforming” (Baumrind, 1971, p. 23) and the “authoritative non-conforming” (Baumrind, 1971, p. 23) parenting clusters both included parenting behaviors that encouraged independence, promoted nonconformity, and was passive-acceptant of the child (Baumrind, 1971). Therefore, the positive correlations between authoritative and permissive factors found in the current study may indicate some support for these subgroups.
Research Question 2

The current study also investigated whether authoritative parenting constructs, such as parental acceptance/involvement, psychological autonomy granting, and parental strictness/supervision would significantly differ among Black American and White American participants. Overall, fit statistics offered only tentative support for the three dimensions of authoritative parenting in the current sample. Although the RMSEA fit index is in the acceptable range, the CFI fit index was in the less than acceptable range, which may be due to a large number of indicator items (Kenny & McCoach, 2003). Results should be interpreted with caution due to the less than acceptable CFI fit index.

Hypothesis 2a

Hypothesis 2a explored the prediction that Black Americans would report a significantly higher mean score for parental strictness/supervision compared to White Americans. Black American participants reported higher parental strictness/supervision, indicating increased monitoring and increased control of the child’s free time. Hypothesis 2a was supported.

Strictness is an important construct to evaluate as it is thought to be evident in both authoritarian and authoritative parenting (Baumrind, 1967; Steinberg et al., 1994) and may be one mechanism by which racial differences in parenting are demonstrated. Previous research found that Black Americans tend to report authoritarian discipline strategies and punitive communication in comparison White Americans (Hill & Tyson, 2008; Jackson-Newsom et al., 2008; Weis & Toolis, 2010). In addition to the structural means test that indicated
stricter parenting for the Black American group, preliminary analyses of variance (ANOVA) found that the Black American sample reported higher authoritarian parenting in the current study. Black Americans were found to value strictness as a form of protection, affection, compliance, and respect for authority in other samples (Young, 1974). Increased strictness was suggested to protect Black American youth in high crime environments and serve as protective factors for Black American youth (Deater-Deckard et al., 1996) and may be an explanation for these findings.

When considering findings regarding the overlap between authoritative and authoritarian parenting, an evaluation of strictness and control is important. Although, Baumrind (1967) indicated that the key distinguishing factors between authoritative and authoritarian parenting is communication and warmth, control is a parental behavior that is similar in both authoritative and authoritarian parenting. Behavioral control has been linked to authoritative parenting (Steinberg et al., 1994), and psychological control has been associated with authoritarian parenting (Barber, Olsen, & Shagle, 1994). Parental behavioral control includes management of child behavior by monitoring and establishing limits and consequences (Barber et al., 1994; Schaefer, 1965), and psychological control is a coercive, passive-aggressive form of control that utilizes feelings of guilt or shame and love or approval as a form of consequence for child noncompliance or compliance (Barber, 1996). Therefore, behavioral control appears to be a healthier form of managing child behavior.
The current study did not assess psychological control; however, in comparison to White Americans, Black Americans reported of higher behavioral control (e.g., strictness/supervision) and authoritarian parenting in the current study. Therefore, the association between authoritarian and authoritative parenting factors may also be explained by Black Americans higher use of parental monitoring and supervision. Yet, further investigation of the construct of psychological control in relation to Black American parenting may be useful to understand the mechanisms by which parenting may differ between racial groups.

Hypothesis 2b and 2c

Hypotheses 2b and 2c explored racial differences in parental acceptance/involvement and autonomy granting. No differences on the parental acceptance/involvement factor and autonomy granting factor were found across Black American and White American samples. Hypotheses 2b and 2c were not supported.

Relative to White American parents, Black Americans have been found to be less affectionate and more hostile while communicating about their children’s behavior (Skinner et al., 2011); therefore it was hypothesized that Black American participants would report significantly less parental acceptance/involvement than White American participants. Notably, while Black Americans reported higher levels of authoritarian parenting, which is typically characterized by a lack of warmth, Black Americans and White Americans described their parents as similarly involved and active in family activities and
homework, aware of peer groups, and supportive of verbal feedback (i.e., parental involvement/acceptance and autonomy granting) in the current sample. This is consistent with research that found that Black American and White American children reported no differences in their perception of parental warmth (Hill & Tyson, 2008) and that warmth was not related to harsh discipline or negative affect for Black Americans (Jackson-Newsom et al., 2008).

Authoritarian parenting style, as described by Baumrind (1967), includes controlling, strict parenting, and low parental acceptance and warmth. In summary, Black American participants demonstrated stricter parenting that was not relatively lower in acceptance and involvement, which appears to be consistent with an authoritative parenting style. However, interestingly, Black Americans participants also reported higher levels of authoritarian parenting, and a different authoritarian-authoritative relationship than for White American parents. Taken together, findings may provide additional support of a parenting pattern that integrates warmth with strict control, such as no-nonsense parenting and tough love (Brody & Flor, 1998; Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001) for Black Americans.

In summary, the current study found that although authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting factors were consistent across racial groups, notable differences existed between groups in the relationships between authoritarian and authoritative factors. Black Americans were more likely to report authoritarian parenting and exhibited more parental strictness than White Americans. Yet, a positive relationship between the authoritarian and
authoritative factors was found for the Black American sample, and no racial differences were found in parental acceptance/involvement and autonomy granting. However, for the current sample, the fit indices reported questionable overall fit for Baumrind’s typology of parenting in the overall sample. Therefore, further study is necessary to explore the relationships among authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting style for Black American and White American parents.

Limitations

While efforts were made to solicit participants from diverse socioeconomic backgrounds, one limitation to the current study is that we did not control for income or education. Previous studies have shown that parenting style is influenced by contextual factors such as education and income status (Hill & Tyson, 2008; Murry et al., 2008). Since, race and family household income were moderately related in the current study, it is inappropriate to assume that all findings were pure effects of racial differences in absence of differences due to income and education. It is important that future studies also consider structural models that control income and education to better understand parenting differences that are attributed to race.

Interpretations of our results may further be complicated by a race-by-income interaction as the majority of the Black American participants reported lower parental educational attainment and family income levels than White American participants. Particularly, the Black American sample reported their family income as predominantly low-middle ($15,000-$60,000; 62%) and their
parent’s education as mostly high school to bachelor’s level (i.e., 44% high school/GED, 21% associate’s degree, and 22% bachelor’s degree). The White American sample reported predominantly middle-high income ($45,000-$105,000+; 72 %) and mostly associate’s level to master’s level education (i.e., 18% associate’s degree, 29% bachelor’s degree, and 20% master’s degree). Further, the majority of the sample completed high school (62.4 %) and only a small percentage of the sample were described as low income (i.e., 19.6% of total sample reported a family income of less than $30,000). Therefore, our interpretations of between-group differences in Baumrind’s typologies and authoritative parenting factors are specific to families that have higher education and income levels and may not be generalized to low income families.

Our sample also consisted of predominantly women, and the overall sample predominantly selected their mother as the identified caregiver. So the findings may be describing a specific parenting style in mother-daughter relationships, which does not generalize to mother-son, father-son, or father-daughter relationships. According to studies that differentiate parenting style by gender, daughters reported higher parental supervision than sons, and mothers reported more overreactive parenting than fathers (Fulton & Turner, 2008; Rhoades & O’Leary, 2007). It is important for future studies to include fairly equal sample sizes of men and women to fully understand the impact of racial differences in parenting with both gender groups.

In addition, these findings cannot generalize to families of different ethnic or racial backgrounds as only Black American and White American participants
were selected to target specific differences in the two groups. Authoritarian parenting was found to be significantly higher for Asian American (Chao, 1994) groups as well as Hispanic American families (Steinberg et al., 1992); therefore, examination of Baumrind’s model of parenting in these groups and racial differences in authoritative parenting behaviors should be considered.

A further limitation of the study is the use of retrospective data in which young adults aged 18-25 reported their caregivers' parenting style. These reports were based on recall of their upbringing and their parents' parenting and may have been influenced by the participants' age, current relationship with parents. It may have been difficult to report on overall level of parenting style and behavior due changes throughout childhood or current relationships with the identified parent. However, it is suggested that parental self-reports may lead to exaggerated or unreliable findings regarding parental acceptance and discipline (Schwarz, Barton-Henry, & Pruzinsky, 1985). Retrospective accounts allow the children to report their perceptions of their parents' behavior (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Schaefer, 1965) and have been utilized in various studies with college students (e.g., Steinberg et al., 1992). However, use of parent self-report questionnaires may offer insight on current parenting patterns and could be considered for future studies.

Areas for Future Research

The current study found less than acceptable fit for Baumrind's model of parenting style in Black American and White American groups. The lack of strong support for the model indicates that additional relationships among the
indicator variables may exist. Therefore, it is suggested that future research perform exploratory factor analyses to identify models that more closely fit with parenting in Black American and White American groups. Further, the current finding of the significant correlation among authoritarian and authoritative factors for Black Americans may provide support for additional parenting patterns not described by Baumrind’s model of parenting style (Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001). Therefore, an additional area of future research is in demonstrating the validity of parenting patterns such as tough love and no nonsense parenting (Kohen & Brooks-Gunn, 2001; Brody & Flor, 1998). Specifically, studies should consider exploratory analyses of parenting style in separate White American and Black American samples to understand patterns of parenting that load onto factors differently due to race.

Specific to Black American parenting, it is suggested that future studies consider the overlap among authoritative and authoritarian parenting style in relation to child outcomes. Mandara and Murray (2002) suggest that models should include outcome measures to classify parenting patterns as indicative of healthy or harmful parenting patterns. These investigations of positive and negative outcomes may help inform that specific parenting behaviors are linked to specific outcomes in Black American families.

A further suggestion for future research is to accompany measures of parenting style with measures that investigate specific parenting behaviors that examine underlying relationships among parenting patterns despite between-group similarities in parenting style. Use of measures that include psychological
control, behavioral control, strictness, supervision, acceptance/involvement, expressiveness, nurturance, as well as autonomy granting operationalize dimensions of responsiveness and demandingness (Barber, 1996; Bradford et al., 2003; Buri, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Moos & Moos, 1986; Steinberg et al., 1994) and can be used to better understand racial differences within parenting style.

Further, future studies should include heterogeneous Black American samples to better understand overall parenting patterns as well as within-group differences based on contextual factors, such as education and income. Although “no-nonsense” parenting was specific to parents in low income rural settings (Brody & Flor, 1998); Weis (2002) found a separate parenting pattern (i.e., affectionate-distressed) that was specific to low income Black American families. Therefore, the intersection between race and socioeconomic status may provide additional information on the parenting patterns of Black American families.

Conclusion

The current study examined the model fit of Baumrind’s model of parenting style as well as racial differences in parental acceptance/involvement, autonomy granting, and parental strictness/supervision. Although authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting style factors were similar constructs for both Black American and White American samples, findings demonstrated questionable fit for Baumrind’s model of parenting style as well as inconsistencies between the relationship of authoritarian and authoritative
parenting style in Black American and White American families. Further, the findings challenged the notion (Skinner et al., 2011) that Black Americans exhibit lower warmth than White Americans, and the current study also supported research (Hill & Tyson, 2008) that described Black American parents as exhibiting stricter, more controlled parenting. Overall, the study suggests that future research expand the work of Diane Baumrind to include differences in authoritative and authoritarian parenting for Black American families.
APPENDIX A

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI

AUTHORIZATION TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH PROJECT

CONSENT FORM

Consent is hereby given to participate in the study titled:
Parenting Style Differences in African American and Caucasian American Adults

Purpose: This study seeks to examine whether the parenting model of authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting applies to both African American and Caucasian American adults in a similar fashion.

Description of Study: Participants aged 18 - 25 will be asked to complete online questionnaires related to parenting style. Approximately 300 participants will assess an online survey through a secure online survey link, psychsurveys.org. The survey will take an estimated 15-20 minutes to complete. Participation in this project is completely voluntary. Participants may withdraw at any time without penalty.

Benefits: All university students enrolled in the SONA experiment research system (http://usm.sona-systems.com/) will receive credit for participation. Community or online participants will receive no direct benefits for participation.

Risks: There are no known risks to participation in this study beyond those experienced in everyday life.

Confidentiality: All identifying information will be kept private and confidential. Participants will not be identified by name. Computerized data will be numerically tracked with no identifying information. Only researchers will have access to all data obtained during this study.

Participant’s Assurance: Whereas no assurance can be made concerning results that may be obtained (since results from investigational studies cannot be predicted), the researcher will take every precaution consistent with the best scientific practice. Participation in this project is completely voluntary, and subjects may withdraw from this study at any time without penalty, prejudice, or loss of benefits. Questions concerning the research should be directed to Sarah McMurtry, M.A. or Dr. Bonnie C. Nicholson at (601-266-4598). This project and this consent form have been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations.
Any questions or concerns about rights as a research subject should be directed to the Chair of the Institutional Review Board, The University of Southern Mississippi, Box 5147, Hattiesburg, MS 39406, (601) 266-6820.

______________________________
Signature of Research Participant Date

______________________________
Signature of Researcher Explaining the Study Date
APPENDIX B

IRB APPROVAL FORM

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
118 College Drive #5147 | Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001
Phone: 601.266.6820 | Fax: 601.266.4377 | www.usm.edu/irb

NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months. Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 11110102
PROJECT TITLE: Differences in African American and Caucasian American Parenting Style
PROJECT TYPE: Dissertation
RESEARCHER/S: Sarah McMurtry
COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Education & Psychology
DEPARTMENT: Psychology
FUNDING AGENCY: N/A
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Expedited Review Approval
PERIOD OF PROJECT APPROVAL: 11/07/2011 to 11/06/2012

Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board Chair
APPENDIX C

RETAINED CFA MODEL FOR BLACK AMERICANS

[Diagram of a causal model with variables and paths labeled with coefficients]
RETAINED CFA MODEL FOR WHITE AMERICANS
RETAINED SMT MODEL FOR BLACK AMERICANS
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