

AFRICAN AMERICANS RESEARCH PARTICIPATION: A DEVELOPMENTAL  
PERSPECTIVE

by

DIANE BYRD

(Under the Direction of GAIL WILLIAMSON)

ABSTRACT

A two-part study expanded current information on research participation where predictors of research participation: a) age and race, b) surface barriers, c) developmental factors, and d) deep barriers, were examined. Sixty-two African Americans and 37 White American adults responded to eight self-report measures. Time availability emerged as the best single predictor of participation. In addition, African Americans and White Americans differed primarily on developmental factors (i.e., mistrust, racial socialization, and ethnic identity development). Path analysis revealed that race and age were indirectly related to participation via developmental factors or deep barriers. The data suggest that researchers attempting to recruit and retain participants (regardless of race) should consider: time management, creating an environment of trust, and provide benefits for participating. Although this study provided information on recruitment and possibly retention, social scientists must continue research in this area, so that accurate knowledge about research participation can be obtained.

INDEX WORDS: Research participation, Age, Race, Barriers, African Americans, Time availability, Developmental factors, Mistrust, Racial socialization, Ethnic identity development

AFRICAN AMERICAN RESEARCH PARTICIPATION: A DEVELOPMENTAL  
PERSPECTIVE

by

DIANE BYRD

BA., Mercer University, 1997

MS., The University of Georgia, 2001

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2006

© 2006

Diane Byrd

All Rights Reserved

AFRICAN AMERICAN RESEARCH PARTICIPATION: A DEVELOPMENTAL  
PERSPECTIVE

by

DIANE BYRD

Major Professor: Gail Williamson

Committee: David Shaffer  
Douglas Kleiber

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso  
Dean of the Graduate School  
The University of Georgia  
May 2006

## DEDICATION

In loving memory of my sister Jo, who showed me unconditional love and was an inspiration for this project. She strongly believed in the goals of research. She participated in research and encouraged others to participate. I miss her dearly.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to acknowledge God who gave me life, and Jesus Christ through whom I have eternal life. Through God, everything is possible. Second, I would like to acknowledge my committee members: Dr. Gail Williamson, Dr. David Shaffer, and Dr. Douglas Kleiber. I very much appreciate the considerate supervision of my major professor, advisor, mentor, and friend, Dr. Gail Williamson. Dr. Williamson helped me to develop the methodology for this project and assisted me with data analysis and interpretation. Her guidance has been extraordinary. Dr. David Shaffer provided me with information on racial socialization, encouraged me to publish my findings, and brought a unique perspective to this project. Dr. Douglass Kleiber challenged me to maintain objectivity during this project. Third, I acknowledge my family. My husband Willie was there with me throughout this journey and his love provided the support I needed. I also acknowledge my family Bernice, Nate, Anthony, Chris, Alphonso, Jezreel, Gabriel, Krista, Lyvette, Nicki, and Crystal who all supported me time and time again. I want to especially thank Alphonso and Monica, who assisted me with data collection. I also acknowledge my parents Willie and Beulah Toole, my brothers Billy, Ronald, Donald, and Earl, who believed in me. Finally, I am grateful to the 99 participants who volunteered for this project. Without their help, I would not have completed this project.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	v
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
Scope of the Problem.....	2
2 EXISTING KNOWLEDGE ABOUT AFRICAN AMERICAN PARTICIPATION.....	4
Recruitment and Retention.....	4
3 AFRICAN AMERICAN PARTICIPATION MODEL.....	13
Age Differences in Participation of African Americans.....	14
The Developmental Environment.....	17
Developmental Factors: Racial Socialization Patterns.....	18
Deep Barriers.....	25
4 GOALS AND HYPOTHESES.....	35
Expressed Willingness.....	36
Continued Participation.....	37
5 METHOD.....	47
Design.....	47
6 RESULTS.....	58
Preliminary Analyses.....	58

	Bivariate Analyses.....	58
	Regression Analyses.....	60
7	DISCUSSION.....	70
	Additional Findings.....	71
	Previous Literature.....	73
	Strengths.....	75
	Limitations.....	76
	Hypotheses Not Supported.....	77
	Other Findings.....	79
	Major Goals.....	80
	Conclusion.....	81
	REFERENCES.....	84
	APPENDICES.....	102
	A Recruitment Flyer.....	102
	B Consent Form.....	103
	C Instructions: Part one.....	104
	D Part Two Recruitment.....	106
	E Demographic Sheet.....	107
	F Likelihood of Participation Scale.....	110
	G Benefits of Research Scale.....	113
	H Empowerment of Research Scale.....	114
	I Spheres of Control.....	116
	J Schedule of Racist and Discriminatory Events.....	120

K	The Multiethnic Identity Measure.....	125
L	Cultural Mistrust Inventory (for African Americans).....	128
M	Cultural Mistrust Inventory (for White Americans).....	135
N	Scale of Racial Socialization.....	142
O	Phone Contact About Part Two Measures.....	145
P	Instructions: Part Two.....	146
Q	Age Attitude Surveys for Participants 40 and Over.....	147
R	Age Attitude Surveys for Participants Under 40.....	164

## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

The American society is slowly becoming ethnically diverse. It is estimated that by 2060, minority populations will become the majority in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2002), making this era the “changing complexion of society” due to the increase in the non-White population (Sue & Sue, 1999). Presently, African Americans comprise 13% of the American population and are the second largest racial/ethnic minority group in the United States (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2002). Yet, research that specifically focuses on African Americans as the population of interest or adequately compares them to White Americans is scarce.

Throughout history, the population of interest for researchers has been the White male, primarily because of membership in the dominant majority. There is, however, awareness among researchers of the inequality in society and how the current system discriminates and places women and minorities at a disadvantage (McIntosh, 1989). This awareness has resulted in efforts to obtain representative samples in order to allow research findings to have generalizability. Recognizing that the minority population is under-represented has led researchers to address the problems surrounding this issue (Shavers-Hornaday & Lynch, 1997) and the necessity to understand the historical background, attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs of minority groups.

## Scope of the Problem

The paucity of research involving African Americans in behavioral research is illustrated by Graham's (1992) examination of the contents of six American Psychological Association (APA) journals from 1970 to 1989 (i.e., *Developmental Psychology*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, and *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*). According to Graham (1992), only three percent of the articles either centered on African Americans as the population of interest or analyzed the data according to race. Moreover, qualifying articles declined over time. That is, 204 (5.2%) articles met Graham's criteria in these APA journals between 1970 and 1974. Between 1975 and 1979, the number dropped to 165 articles (4.1%), a trend that continued between 1980 and 1984 (93 articles, 2.7%), through the period between 1985 and 1989 (65 articles, 2.0%). Although the number of articles with African Americans as the population of interest has decreased, the number of articles published by African American researchers has increased (e.g., Lawson, 1986; Neighbors, Bashur, Selig, Donabalian, & Shannon, 1992). Thus, it appears that African American researchers prefer to publish their work in specialized non-APA journals (e.g., *Journal of Black Psychology*).

The need to include representative samples of African Americans in research is illustrated by the fact that, although most research to determine the efficacy of psychotherapy intervention has been conducted with middle-class White samples (Graham, 1992; Miranda, 1996), African Americans are at least as much at risk for mental health problems (Williams, 1995). For example, Meinhardt and Vega (1987)

investigated the utilization of mental health services between 1981 and 1986 and found 8.5% of the general population to be in need of mental health services. However, about 12% of African Americans were estimated to be in need of mental health services. With so few studies to provide guidelines, the mental health community is hampered in its efforts to meet the needs of this population due to lack of knowledge about the critical ethnic and cultural differences that may underlie deficits in service provision (Lukoff, Lu, & Turner, 1992; Snowden, 1993; Sue, 1992; Williams, 1995).

Lack of ethnic representation is apparent in medical research as well. With the possible exception of cancer research, racial/ethnic minorities such as African Americans are under-represented in almost all aspects of clinical research (Shavers-Hornaday & Lynch, 1997). For example, from 1984 to 1986, only one-third of clinical trials included representation of African Americans adequate for meaningful racial comparisons, and the majority of clinical trial studies did not report racial composition of the sample at all (Svensson, 1989). Without sufficient numbers of ethnic minority participants, the generalizability of clinical trials to the U.S. population as well as adequate documentation of diseases in ethnic minority populations is highly questionable (Robertson, 1994).

In sum, it is clear that African Americans have been under-represented in both psychological and medical research, and the implications for the well-being of this substantial percentage of the population are both long-ranging and of great concern. It appears that African Americans and White Americans differ in many respects that can influence their access to treatment as well as to the treatment they receive. However, before this situation can be remedied, the problem of low participation of African Americans in research must be resolved.

## Chapter 2

### EXISTING KNOWLEDGE ABOUT AFRICAN AMERICAN PARTICIPATION

#### Recruitment and Retention

Although the results are not entirely consistent, the preponderance of evidence indicates that compared to White Americans, African Americans are less likely to be recruited into research (Ballard, Nash, Raiford, & Harrell, 1993; Hatchett, Holmes, Duran, & Davis, 2000; Miranda, 1996; Patrick, Pruchno, & Rose, 1998). For instance, Neal and Turner (1991) concluded that since African Americans pose a recruitment challenge, psychotherapy research focusing on anxiety disorders was substantially lacking, but Ballard et al. (1993) argued that recruitment strategies could be successful with proper planning. In a sample of college students, Armstrong, Crum, Randall, Bennett, and Lloyd (1999) assessed the likelihood of participating in research and found that African Americans expressed as much willingness as White Americans to participate in clinical trials. These results might reflect greater acceptance of research participation among African American college students than in the general population, but Armstrong et al. suggested another explanation - - i.e., that there may be more discrepancy between attitudes and actual likelihood of participation in African Americans than in White Americans. Specifically, although African Americans reported as much willingness to participate in research as White Americans, they also indicated more feelings of mistrust. In a similar vein, Million-Underwood, Sanders, and Davis (1993) found that while

African Americans may be skeptical about research, they still are willing to participate and that providing information about the topic under study could help dispel preconceived beliefs and myths about research.

Making matters worse, once recruited into longitudinal studies, African Americans are more likely than White Americans to drop out before the research is completed (Eaves, 1999; Vernon, Roberts, & Lee, 1984). Attrition rates are notoriously high among African American research participants (e.g., Dresser, 1992; Stoy et al., 1995). Thus, in addition to problems with recruiting, researchers also are concerned with completion rates among those who have often, through extreme effort and expense, been enrolled in studies (Ballard et al., 1993; Dodge, Clark, Janz, Liang, & Schork, 1993; Potashnik, Myers, & Pruchno, 1990).

### *Theories of Recruitment*

Previous findings on African American research participation have been largely atheoretical; with a few theories focusing on this issue. Although the problem is widely believed to be multifaceted, most studies include only a few factors. Recognizing this, researchers have begun to devise new models. The most comprehensive, up-to-date, of these is the Matching Model of Recruitment (Levkoff, Levy, & Weitzman, 2000) that specifies that the goals of the researcher must match the goals of the ethnic minority participant if recruitment is to be successful. Recruitment depends on establishing congruence between perspectives of the researcher and potential minority participants at three levels (i.e., macro/institutional, mediator/gatekeeper, and micro/individual).

Obstacles to participation can occur at the macro/institutional level (e.g., overwhelming service demands) on the staff of community agencies. At the

mediator/gatekeeper level, community leaders, family, physicians and clergy may serve as barriers because their role includes protecting participants from exploitation. At the micro/individual level, the individual participant may be concerned, for example, about abusive research practices. The Matching Model of Recruitment can help identify barriers to research participation specifically associated with ethnic minority individuals such as African Americans. It also provides clues about potential barriers associated with both researcher and participant perspectives at each level, and provides evidence supporting the existence of barriers. According to Levkoff et al. (2000), culture represents the underlying basis for the low levels of participation of African Americans and other ethnic minorities in research. Emphasis is placed on the idea that researchers and the academic institutions they represent should take into account the cultural context of prospective ethnic minority participants. One example of the cultural context would be the importance of involving family in the decision to participate.

Because culture is a significant part of an individual's development of perceptions, definitions, and responses, an appreciation for cultural diversity is necessary for successful recruitment and retention. Wenger's (1993) translation process model focuses on the search for cultural meaning in understanding patient symptoms for the purpose of providing insight in understanding the response of African Americans to the research process. The model is based on the fit or misfit of cultural concepts. Application of the translation process may require modification of current recruitment and retention strategies based on knowledge of the culture of the target population including attitudes, perception, terminology, and responses to research participation (Picot, Stuckey, Smyth, & Whitehouse, 1996).

Based on the Wenger's Translation Process Model, successful recruitment and retention should include: (1) advisory boards to collect and analyze perceptions, terminology, and responses within the target community, (2) examination of strategies to determine the fit and misfit between the community and research team, (3) restructuring recruitment and retention strategies based on fit and misfit of the cultural community, and (4) cooperation between the community and the research team in determining eligibility criteria, ethnic, and socioeconomic matching of researchers.

#### *Summary of Existing Research and Theories*

Existing knowledge regarding African American research participation can be summarized according to: (a) recruitment, (b) retention, and (c) theoretical models. First, the literature on African American research participation indicates, with few exceptions, that there are problems with recruitment. Numerous factors may contribute to this problem (i.e., cost of recruitment, mistrust of research among African Americans, underutilization of mental health services, and the extra effort required to recruit African Americans). Clearly, sufficient knowledge regarding African Americans is essential for the effectiveness of medical treatment and psychotherapy. The poor representation in mental health settings, medical research, and psychotherapy intervention studies may be due to barriers associated with recruiting African Americans.

Second, there seems to be a consensus that attrition rates are high for African Americans in longitudinal studies. Retention of African Americans in research is clearly an important issue. However, this study will focus on problems associated with initial

recruitment for two reasons: (a) retaining African Americans in long-term research depends first on being able to recruit them, and (b) there is substantial overlap in the factors that predict both recruitment and retention.

Third, concerns of social scientists have produced theoretical models. Through previous research experiences with ethnic minority patients, Levkoff et al. (2000) have proposed a model that focuses on barriers and enablers in the recruitment of minorities into research. Some examples of barriers are problems between local community agencies and the academic institution's research team, the costs of recruiting, and stereotypes about the populations of interest. The use of gatekeepers (e.g., family members or community leaders) is an example of an enabler. As a result, the Matching Model of Recruitment (Levkoff et al., 2000) was developed to identify barriers to recruiting ethnic minorities and to suggest effective strategies to enhance recruitment. Wenger's Translation Model emphasizes cultural diversity by requiring an understanding of the perceptions, terminology, and responses of the target community in order to determine recruitment and retention strategies.

### *Gaps in the Literature*

Despite the strengths of existing models of recruitment (e.g., Matching Model of Recruitment and the Translation Process Model), there are several weaknesses. First, the emphasis on the general minority population limits the inclusion of other factors relevant to under-representation of a specific ethnic minority population (e.g., African Americans). Second, these models fail to consider the "big picture," specifically the relations African Americans or other ethnic minorities have with the larger society. Third, previous models do not adequately consider underlying causes of under-

representation in research. Fourth, the matter of how African Americans may develop attitudes and behaviors toward research participation is not addressed. In sum, previous models of African American recruitment are incomplete, and a more inclusive model may better resolve some of the remaining issues.

### *Barriers to Recruitment*

*Surface Barriers and Deep Barriers.* A careful review of the literature indicates that the under-representation of minorities and older adults is the result of barriers to recruitment. Theoretical and empirical research emphasizes the reduction of “surface barriers” to enhance research participation rates. Surface barriers can be defined as obstacles to participation that the participant or the researcher is aware of. A few examples of surface barriers are: (a) physical disabilities and health problems, (b) area of residence, (c) socioeconomic status, (d) transportation, and (e) time availability. First, Bernard (1993) noted that physical disabilities and health problems are a consequence of different patterns of morbidity, mortality, and service utilization for older African Americans, making recruitment problematic. Second, individuals living in rural areas may be more difficult to recruit than those living in urban areas because of isolation (Demi & Warren, 1995). Third, individuals with low socioeconomic status are likely to be avoided by researchers because of ethical concerns related to vulnerability to exploitation due to the need for resources (Demi & Warren, 1995; Eaves, 1999). Researchers may be insensitive to the need for resources of individuals of low socioeconomic status. Further, it may be considered as coercion for a researcher to give participants of low socioeconomic status large sums of money for their participation. In order to evade these types of accusations of unethical practices, researchers may avoid

this population (Demi & Warren, 1995). Fourth, cost, lack of access, and physical difficulty getting to transportation can be barriers for many African Americans (Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996). Anderson, Fogler, and Dedrick (1995) examined recruitment among ethnic minority adults and found that transportation and distance was the number one reason for declining to participate in the study. Finally, the time required to participate in research may be a concern for many African Americans. Successfully involving African Americans in research may mean rescheduling interviews and allowing for responsibilities and work schedules (Patrick et al., 1998). Convenience is important to both White Americans and African Americans when participating in research (Armstrong et al., 1999).

Because African Americans are more likely to have low socioeconomic status (Demi & Warren, 1995; Eaves, 1999; Williams & Collins, 1995), poorer health (Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Bernard, 1993), physical disabilities (Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Chatters, 1991; Dodge et al., 1993), live in rural areas (Demi & Warren, 1995), have less access to transportation (Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Anderson et al., 1995), and have more time constraints (Patrick et al., 1998), surface barriers are increased among this population (Byrd, 2003). Surface barriers of interest in the current study are education, employment, income, transportation, and time availability.

Although surface barriers do affect participation rates and explain many of the problems associated with minority recruitment, strategies to address these conditions are no more than a “quick fix” or incomplete solution to the predicament. It is important to examine what lies beneath the surface in order to provide a complete picture of the under-

representation dilemma. Whitmore (1994) clearly emphasized that the difficulties White university researchers encounter when studying individuals of ethnic minority populations is the result of unseen barriers. Barriers beneath the surface, or “deep barriers,” can be defined as attitudes or behavioral patterns that researchers and participants are largely unaware of. Deep barriers are associated with having a minority status and, for the most part, are embedded in the American society to the extent that participants and researchers are largely unaware of them. For example, a minority individual (e.g., African American) may avoid involvement with social institutions because of previous discriminatory experiences. For example, the Rodney King case has painted a negative picture of law enforcement in the minds of most African Americans. As a result, negative attitudes toward law enforcement may have developed, decreasing the chances of involvement with this institution. Another example, particularly relevant to research participation is the Tuskegee Study which has, justifiably, led many African Americans to mistrust all research. Conducted by the U.S. Public Health Service from 1932 to 1972, the Tuskegee Study focused on the consequences of untreated syphilis. Participants, African American males, were told that they would receive treatment for syphilis. Although treatment was available to some participants, those in the control group were left untreated, and many died as a result. Societal attitudes are especially important for the involvement of African Americans in research because of the history of maltreatment, prejudice, discrimination, oppression, and slavery that they have endured. These and other examples of misuse of authority, strongly suggest that deep barriers play

a role in the decision to participate in research. Deep barriers of interest in the current study are benefits of participation, empowerment of participation, attitudes toward participation, sociopolitical control, and discrimination.

## Chapter 3

### AFRICAN AMERICAN PARTICIPATION MODEL

As proposed by Byrd (2003), the African American Participation Model considers surface barriers, but the emphasis is on “deep barriers.” Discrimination, prejudice, racism, and oppression that are entrenched in the very fabric of society have become institutionalized. Thus, race, ethnicity, culture, and minority status are all connected to the African American experience. Perhaps, understanding the under-representation of African Americans in research relies in large part, on understanding their relations with society. This requires a closer examination of important factors related to the social developmental environment, specifically, racial socialization. Such experiences may ultimately be associated with the decision not to participate in research by reinforcing socially-derived attitudes and behaviors that can be exacerbated by the insensitivity of researchers to the very real barriers to research participation. Further, social influences (e.g., history of maltreatment), may affect African American cultural attitudes toward White-related programs, leading to mistrust and, possibly, active aversion. The African American Participation Model proposes that relations between African Americans and society are relevant to African Americans’ participation in research.

Although theories of research recruitment provide some insights about barriers to recruitment, none take into consideration pertinent developmental factors such as age and social environmental experiences. My intensive examination of the existing literature has led to the opinion that the reluctance of African Americans to participate in research can

be, largely, a developmental issue. Previous theoretical and empirical work has been limited by failure to take a developmental perspective. Thus, the African American Participation Model (Figure 1) provides a theoretical basis for understanding how social relations are connected to the process of human development and may contribute to African American research participation. This model is derived from literature relevant to: (a) age differences in participation and (b) the developmental environment (i.e., racial socialization patterns).

#### Age Differences in Participation of African Americans

A growing interest in the well-being of an increasingly aging population has resulted in efforts to determine the factors responsible for the under-representation of older ethnic minority adults in research (e.g., Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Demi & Warren, 1995; Napoles-Springer et al., 2000; Ory, Lipman, Barr, Harden, & Stahl, 2000; Sinclair et al., 2000). However, regardless of race or ethnicity (and also income level), older adults are, in general, less likely to participate in research than are younger adults (Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Groves, 1989), and the nonresponse rate is greater for older adults (Kaye, Lawton, & Kay, 1990; O'Neil, 1979; Thornberry 1987). The research recruitment rate for older adults is estimated to be between 70% and 80% (Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996), compared to a 90% to 95% response rate seen in younger adults (Carter, Elward, Malmgren, Martin, & Larso, 1991). Although there is evidence that younger African Americans express more interest in participating than do older African Americans (Young, Edevie, Young, & Peters, 1996), differences in participation rates among younger and older African American adults can be largely explained by changes that take place during the aging process.

Generally, compared to younger adults, older adults may have different health concerns as well as different beliefs about health promotion activities (Biddle & Bailey, 1985; Mobily, 1982). However, ethnic status has been associated with a number of poor health outcomes (Harwood, 1981). Compared to their White counterparts, older African Americans are even more difficult to recruit and less likely to be retained in research simply because they are in poorer health (Gibson, 1991), and it is well-documented that, in contrast to White Americans, African Americans experience disproportionately higher rates of all major diseases and more severe consequences of the aging process (McNeilly et al., 2000). In sum, older African Americans are more likely to experience poorer health than White American counterparts, making them more difficult to recruit and retain in research. Physical impairments that limit mobility, hearing, vision, and speech may affect participation rates (Sinclair et al., 2000) and, because they are more prevalent among African Americans, may ultimately contribute to under-representation of the older African American population.

*Surface barriers and developmental factors.*

Nonparticipation is greater among older adults than younger adults across all ethnic groups, all racial groups, and all income levels (Groves, 1989), because of surface barriers, that include: (a) poor health and disability, (b) transportation difficulties, and (c) lower income. First, high attrition rates among older adults may be due to the increased risk of both physical disability (e.g., Williamson & Shaffer, in press) and cognitive disability (e.g., Shaffer & Williamson, in press) that accompanies advancing age. In addition, Arean and Gallagher-Thompson (1996) found that recruitment was lower among older adults because of transportation problems. Finally, financial resources can

present problems for the older population, particularly the older ethnic minority individuals (Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Ballard et al., Williams & Collins, 1995). Put simply, combined with physical and/or cognitive problems, the cost of transportation associated with participating in studies may deter participation (Ballard et al., 1993)

Developmental socialization factors related to age are likely to exist for African Americans in the form of cohort effects. For example, a cohort of older African Americans may be subject to nonparticipation due to psychosocial factors, for example, mistrust. Stoy et al. (1995) suggested that older African Americans may be more concerned about being exploited in research than are younger African Americans. Specifically, a heightened awareness of research exploitation within the medical system may exist among older African Americans because they were alive during the Tuskegee Syphilis Study (Brawley & Tejeda, 1995).

However, previous empirical evidence is inconsistent on age differences regarding mistrust among African Americans. In contrast, some researchers have found that younger African Americans are more distrustful than older African Americans. For example, Schuman and Hatchett (1974) assessed trust levels in African Americans over a period of time and found that younger African Americans were more distrustful of other individuals in general than were older African Americans. One explanation is that mistrust is socialized by older African Americans who transmit their feelings of mistrust generated from experiences of the Civil Rights Movement (Miller, 1992). Younger African Americans who can only perceive such unlived experiences may respond with exaggerated emotions of mistrust. Miller further noted that, unlike younger African

Americans, older African Americans have had time to adapt to their socio-cultural circumstances and thus have better ability to evaluate situations and people individually in terms of appropriate responses.

However, these findings do not address the specific relationship between the social environment and the development of a general trust level (Miller, 1992), nor do they explain mistrust and age differences in participation rates among African Americans since younger African Americans participate more often in research. It is possible that this adaptive trust response does not apply to research participation. Perhaps low levels of trust may be an issue for both younger and older African Americans. Nevertheless, the matter of mistrust is essential to understanding the relationship African Americans have with societal institutions and equally important to understanding their psychosocial development as it relates to participation in research. However, Napoles-Springer et al. (2000) found that the likelihood of participation in research increased when older African Americans had knowledge about the research and knowledge of the benefits. Thus, a high degree of caution may explain why older African Americans depend on gatekeepers (e.g., peers, family, caretakers, and community leaders) to evaluate the credibility of research (Stoy et al., 1995).

#### The Developmental Environment

The developmental ecological perspective posits that the environment directly affects development. Thus, the social environment of the developing African American individual may provide some insight into attitudes about research participation. According to Shaffer (1994), advocates of the environmental perspective argue that “. . . only by observing transactions between developing persons and their ever-changing

natural ecologies will we ever understand how individuals influence and are influenced by their environments” (p. 101). The developmental environment of most children is likely to involve socialization agents that include families, peer groups, school, neighborhoods, the media, the legal system, and the cultural belief system (Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan, & Buriel, 1990). Socialization of children by parents is likely to involve emphasis on ethnicity and culture for children of color (Davis, 1997). Consequently, socialization messages often involve emphasis on culture and ethnicity in response to racism and discrimination and may ultimately shape attitudes about and perspectives on society (Peters, 2002). Because White Americans are the majority population, their socialization experiences are likely to differ from the experiences of African Americans or other people of color (Phoenix, 1997). Nevertheless, socialization experiences are important for all groups because they may affect perceptions of society as a whole.

It is important to point out that because socialization patterns are likely to affect an individual’s attitude toward society, they may be considered as deep barriers to participation. However, socialization patterns have a direct influence on development and deserve special consideration in regard to research participation. Therefore, they will be categorized as developmental factors that relate to the developmental environment.

*Developmental Factors: Racial Socialization Patterns*

Peters (1985) defined racial socialization as a task usually undertaken by parents of color to prepare their children for dealing with society. Messages transmitted during the racial socialization process may shape attitudes toward the system, with those focusing on positive ethnic group identification promoting an optimistic view of society (Jackson,

McCullough, Gurin, & Broman, 1991) and enhancement of participation within society. On the other hand, messages emphasizing mistrust, racial barriers, and oppression could contribute to negative attitudes toward society (Lipscomb, 1975) and may ultimately lead to the decision not to participate.

White Americans are likely to be racially socialized differently from African Americans (Helms, 1984; Phoenix, 1997). For example, the emphasis for racial socialization for African Americans is to understand what it means to be “Black” in a society that devalues “Blackness.” However, for White Americans, the emphasis is not on what it means to be “White” but rather to understand minority individuals (Phoenix, 1997) and therefore, racial socialization messages tend to focus on how racism affects minorities. Further, racial socialization for White Americans may include comparison to other group (i.e., minorities) in society (Phoenix, 1997). White privilege may be the result of this comparison.

*Positive messages of ethnic group identity.* In his approach to psychological health throughout the lifespan, Erikson (1968) identified eight different stages of ego development, emphasizing the importance of social and cultural factors on personality development and psychological health. According to Spencer and Markstrom-Adams (1990), minority adolescents can face an identity crisis in the intimacy versus isolation stage as a result of negative stereotypes and conflict between their culture and the majority culture. Because of the importance of identity formation during the early adolescence period, younger African American adolescents are an especially vulnerable population for experiencing stressful life events in a race-conscious society (Caldwell et al., 2002; Erikson, 1968).

Early socialization in preparation for dealing with racism and discrimination for African Americans, lead to the development of ingroup orientations, ultimately facilitating ethnic/racial identification in adulthood (Broman, Jackson, & Neighbors, 1989; Jackson, McCullough, & Gurin, 1988; Lipscomb, 1975). For example, Jackson et al. (1991) suggested that positive group orientations are essential for group identification and facilitate coping with the dominant population allowing an individual to integrate into the system. In addition, these authors found that individuals socialized to deal with White Americans were more likely to have the perception that Whites were willing to give African Americans a break and treat them fairly. Based on these findings, it may be the case that African Americans with both positive ingroup and outgroup orientations and who have been socialized to deal with the White American majority may be more inclined to participate in research.

It is possible that positive racial socialization messages emphasizing ethnic/racial identity are important to participation for African Americans? There is inconsistent information surrounding this matter. For example, Sanders Thompson (1999) found that African Americans with strong ethnic/racial identity are likely to participate in political activities. Participation was positively correlated with racial identity. In contrast, other findings indicate that African Americans who have a strong sense of ethnic/racial identification are less likely to participate in activities where they are required to share information with Whites (e.g., Broman, Neighbors, & Jackson, 1988; McCullough, Gurin, & Jackson, 1981). In terms of research participation, Collins (1990) notes that African Americans are sometimes reluctant to share information with a White researcher because they view White researchers as outsiders.

White Americans are likely to have different social positioning from African Americans; therefore, their ethnic identities are experienced differently. Phoenix (1997) maintains that White ethnic identity is as tangible as Black ethnic/racial identity in that it requires the realization and consideration of differences among racial groups. Helms (1984) proposed a five-stage (i.e., contact, disintegration, reintegration, pseudo-independence, and autonomy) White ethnic/racial identity developmental theory. However, the Helms (1995) revised theory of White racial identity development proposes a total of six levels of development with three levels (i.e., contact, disintegration, and reintegration) representing awareness of racism to moving away from racism while the latter three (i.e., pseudo-independence, immersion-emersion, and autonomy) are characterized by the formation of a non-racist sentiment. The highest level of White racial identity, autonomy, requires an understanding of racism, discrimination, and oppression and challenging all forms of these (Carter, 1997).

Although information on White racial identity and research participation is lacking, it is very likely that sociodemographic variables other than race are important in understanding research participation among White Americans, for example, socioeconomic status and age. As previously noted, there is substantial supporting evidence that age is a factor in research participation for White Americans. In addition, lower socioeconomic status is related to stress and poverty and results in isolation from mainstream society (Siantz, 1997; Gooley, 1992).

*Racial socialization and mistrust.* Based on the Eriksonian psychosocial stages of development, Jones (1991) suggested that trust and mistrust is the cornerstone of the developing African American personality within the context of U.S. society. Although

Caughy (2002) found that socialization of mistrust was almost nonexistent for younger children, Hughes and Chen (1997) found that older children socialized to mistrust members of other races do not incorporate strategies for dealing with oppression and are likely to have negative attitudes toward mainstream society. Messages of mistrust may create negative attitudes toward society among African Americans, ultimately affecting their decision to participate in research. However, it is possible that messages of mistrust could affect other ethnic groups in their decision to participate in research (Miranda, Azocar, Organista, Munoz, & Lieberman, 1996; Norton & Manson, 1996). For example, messages of mistrust transmitted to Native Americans can result in skepticism about the confidentiality and goals of research conducted in their community (Norton & Manson, 1996).

Although parents play a significant role in social development by shaping attitudes and behaviors, social interactions also impact development. Negative stereotypes perpetrated by society can become internalized, making it difficult for the developing African American individual to trust societal institutions (Jones, 1991). African Americans may mistrust and fear symbols of institutional authority and be concerned about whether or not research benefits them. Researchers are often viewed as taking from the community and not giving anything back, often as a result of research scientists being insensitive to special issues related to ethnicity and culture (Cross, Bazron, Dennis, & Issacs, 1989; Thompson, Neighbors, Munday, & Jackson, 1996). According to Armstrong et al. (1999), these concerns among African Americans are prominent, particularly in medical research, where the medical community might obtain financial gains. Researchers should recognize that African Americans may not see how research

conducted by White Americans will be beneficial to them. If this is the case, it is important that researchers enlighten African American participants about how the research will improve the quality of their lives (or the lives of other African Americans) and dispel concerns that research will be interpreted in a racist manner or used to argue the inferiority of minorities.

Is mistrust an issue for research participation among White Americans? Jeanquart-Barone (1993) found racial differences in trust among Whites and African Americans. Specifically, Whites tended to trust Whites more than African Americans and African Americans tended to trust African Americans more than Whites. Further, Terrell and Terrell (1984) found that mistrust may be responsible for premature termination of counseling services when the race of counselor and client differ.

Sue and Sue (1999) suggested that because Whites conduct the majority of research, trust is not an issue for them. Because of the lack of knowledge in this area, it is not possible to draw conclusions concerning mistrust and research participation among White Americans. However, it is highly likely that mistrust is more a factor in the decision to participate in research among African Americans than it is for White Americans, but the tables might be turned if Whites were faced with, for example, participating in research conducted exclusively by African Americans.

*Racial socialization and oppression.* How does development occur in an oppressive environment? An ecological framework considers the developing human being in various settings and allows for interactions between ecological systems and psychological systems that influence human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Group norms are transmitted and internalized through the socialization process as well as learning and

adapting to one's culture in society (Staples, 1976). African American individuals have keen awareness of racial oppression by acknowledging that regardless of social status, they were destined to experience discrimination (McAdoo, 2002). This environmental awareness may be related to survival in an oppressive society (Peterson, Hamme, & Speer, 2002).

According to Stevenson (1994), if racial socialization messages are to benefit developing African Americans, they should involve spirituality, cultural heritage, and cultural pride rather than socially oppressive experiences. Negative messages (e.g., African Americans will never get ahead) may be a disadvantage of racial socialization and may be detrimental to academic performance. For example, Hughes and Chen (1997) found that messages emphasizing oppression and racial barriers were associated with lower math and reading performances among young children. If, in fact, negative messages lead to system blaming, there may be hesitation on the part of African Americans and even other ethnic groups in participating in a system they feel is responsible for the adversity they are experiencing (Jackson et al., 1991), and, thus, the individual may be difficult to recruit into research.

Based on the fact that African Americans have been oppressed in the American society, it may be concluded that White Americans are less likely to experience feelings of oppression. However, oppression is related to power relationships whereas any individual regardless of race who is in subjectivity may feel powerless and consequently oppressed. Therefore it is possible that White Americans in this situation may experience

oppression. Whether feelings of oppression relate in any way to research participation, remains to be seen. Currently, research on oppression among White Americans is lacking.

### Deep Barriers

It is important to examine what lies beyond the surface in order to provide a complete picture of the under representation in research. For example, Whitmore (1994) concluded that the barriers between White researchers and ethnic minorities are not only on the surface but are buried deep:

What have we learned about oppression, about participation and about quality from this experience? One thing is clear to me: as a middle class, university educated researcher, I could never entirely share the meanings of those from less privileged groups, especially those in the most marginalized sectors of society. The verbal barriers are difficult enough. Beyond the verbal-affective, sense-making, one's experience of the world – understanding is class based, as it is also gender and race based. Our experience of the world is very very different (p. 96).

It is important to note that since deep barriers are embedded in society, they may not only be obstacles to research participation but also obstacles to participation in societal (e.g., political, environmental, recreation) activities in general. In short, it is likely that African Americans' lack of participation is not limited to just research but is generalized to societal activities. Burlew, Banks, McAdoo, and Azibo (1992) suggested that attitudes and behavior that are expressed by African Americans can only be understood in the cultural context in which they are expressed, and the uniqueness of the African American

experiences should always be taken into consideration. Therefore, the African American Participation Model (Figure 1) proposes that deep barriers may play a role in research participation. This aspect of the model was developed from literature relevant to: (a) discrimination, and (b) sociopolitical control.

### *Discrimination*

Unfortunately, the socio-cultural developmental environment of the African American child is likely to include personal experiences of racism and discrimination as part of the conflict with the majority culture (Broman, 1997; Munford, 1994; Outlaw, 1993; Peter, 1978). Previous findings are consistent concerning the effects of racial discrimination experiences on mental health. Based on Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) model of stress, Landrine and Klonoff (1994) developed a racial discrimination scale that assessed the frequency and severity of lifetime and past year events. Of their African American respondents, 98% reported some type of racial discrimination within the past year. Frequency of discriminatory events over the lifetime was positively correlated with psychiatric symptoms (e.g., anxiety, depression, and obsessive-compulsive disorder).

In contrast, other findings (e.g., Blaney, 2000; Cross, Parham, & Helms, 1998; Mazure, 1998; Williams, Spencer, & Jackson, 1999) indicate that development of racial identity buffers African Americans from the deleterious mental health effects of discrimination. Cross (1994), developed the Nigrescence Model to explain how racial identity development relates to individual differences in African Americans. The first stage is the Pre-encounter stage in which the African American individual devalues his or her Blackness. In the second stage, Encounter, African American individuals experience a jarring, race-related incident or insight, causing them to examine the role of racism,

culture, and history more closely. In the third stage, Immersion-Emersion, the individual commits toward changing his or her attitudes about being African American and becomes immersed in African American culture. The final stage, Internalization, involves the individual developing self-love and acceptance for the African American community and re-establishing connections with members of other groups. Munford (1994) found that African American college students in the Pre-encounter, Encounter, and Immersion-Emersion stages were more depressed while those in the Internalization stage were less depressed. These findings indicate that discrimination may lead African Americans to reject mainstream society, negatively affecting their decision to participate in research.

This is not to say that prejudice and discrimination do not affect White Americans. They may actively avoid situations in which prejudice and discrimination are likely, in order to minimize discomfort (Phoenix, 1997). This may result in limited interaction with people of color and decreased ability to understand and accept cultural diversity (Dixon & Foster, 1971). Because White Americans are less likely to experience racism, they may lack awareness of racial issues. For example, Phoenix (1997) found that young White Americans had difficulty answering questions about race or racism because they had limited experience and, therefore, had given less thought to the issue.

Moreover, discrimination is not limited to race and can involve age, gender, and social class. Thus, White Americans may experience discrimination in any of these categories. For example, White women or individuals of low socioeconomic status may be particularly vulnerable to discrimination. Research is lacking on how prejudice and discrimination toward White Americans might affect research participation. Although it

is expected that African Americans will have more experiences than White Americans with discrimination, discrimination experiences in White Americans could be extremely stressful and, thus, have effects analogous to those for African Americans.

### *Sociopolitical Control*

In a sociological context, status is defined as one's ability to obtain scarce resources or commodities such as power or wealth. Specifically, social status is an individual's group position relative to the general society. Thus, social status relates to power in that a group that is considered to be of high status has the ability to obtain resources, make decisions, and have social influence. As a result of minority status, African Americans may have limited social power. Williams and Collins (1995) noted that social structure determines the degree of power in society and thus, power is distributed unequally among social groups. According to Sue and Sue (1999):

“ the dominant group possess their standards and beliefs upon the less powerful group. . . Minorities can be biased, can hold stereotypes, and can strongly believe that their way is the best way. Yet, if they do not possess the power to impose their values on others, they theoretically cannot oppress. It is power or the unequal status relationship between groups that defines ethnocentric monoculturalism . . . since minorities, in general, do not possess a share of economic, social, and political power equal to that of Whites in our society, they are generally unable to truly discriminate on a large-scale basis. The damage and harm of oppression is likely to be one-sided: from majority to minority group (p. 33).

As a consequence of historical oppression, disenfranchisement, and discrimination African Americans may experience feelings of powerlessness. These factors, plus exclusion from participation in certain areas and culturally biased development of agendas by mainstream society, can all produce barriers that hinder participation behavior (Adams, 1992; Steinhart, 1991). The barriers theory (Parker & McDonough, 1999) attempts to explain the low participation of African Americans in American societal issues (e.g., political, environmental). Parker and McDonough proposed that although African Americans would like to participate in society, participation is limited due to feelings of powerlessness. Parker and McDonough examined attitudes toward environmentalism, participation, and feelings of powerlessness among African Americans and White Americans. Both African Americans and White Americans reported having concerns about the environment and that they would be likely to participate in projects concerning environmentalism. Yet, African Americans were more likely to endorse items indicating powerlessness to change societal situations. Parker and McDonough concluded that African Americans have concerns about society but feel there is little they can do to change things through their participation. Therefore, African Americans may be less likely to act on their feelings of wanting to participate. In other words, the developing African American individual in an oppressive environment may perceive that he or she lacks power to participate in and influence societal institutions. One message emerging from these findings is that in order to facilitate research participation, it is essential to convey a sense of empowerment to African Americans – e.g., that their involvement will make a difference. African American participation may ultimately be related to political and social empowerment. According to Bobo and

Gilliam (1992) empowerment is involved in sociopolitical participation in that individuals participate because they believe they can make a difference. Whitmore (1994) noted that nonparticipation could be a form of passive resistance among minority groups. Whether due to passive resistance or feeling that their participation is not meaningful, powerlessness may play an important role in African American participation. Further, Hatchett et al. (2000) noted that because of decades of economic inequity and social inequity, many African Americans feel that they have no voice in American society:

Given the opportunity, African Americans are eager to speak out on relevant issues; however, the social structure in which many African Americans live has largely left them on the fringes of mainstream society. Their voices remain unheard. The voiceless status is due in large part to decades of social and economic inequity, which persists in American society today (p. 671).

African Americans appear to have a better understanding of power through relationships than do White Americans, perhaps indicating a survival mechanism for African Americans (e.g., the need to be more keenly aware of their environment) and the relationship dynamics in society (Peterson et al., 2002).

Understandably, having the power to advocate change in society is important. Similarly, possessing privilege is important to all members, particularly the majority or ruling class. White privilege is designed to promote the superiority of White Americans in general, regardless of sociodemographic background (McIntosh, 1989; Staples, 1976) and limits awareness of power relationships in society. Concerning societal participation,

Parker and McDonough (1999) found that feelings of powerlessness among White Americans were not involved.

*Summary of African American Participation Model*

As previously noted, extensive research on recruitment and retention of African Americans into research indicate that barriers exist that impact participation rates (e.g., Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Carter et al., 1991). However, even when these barriers are adequately dealt with, African Americans still remain under-represented. Byrd (2003) proposed that recruitment of African Americans into research is associated with their perspective of mainstream society and that substantial developmental components are involved in the under-representation dilemma. In examining the recruitment of African Americans, this dissertation centers on developmental components and deep barriers.

Previous research (e.g., Arean & Gallaher-Thompson, 1996; Bernard, 1993; Groves, 1989, Napoles-Springer et al., 2000) indicates that older adults (both African and White Americans) have lower recruitment rates than younger adults, which may be the result of developmental experiences related to the aging process. Major concerns for researchers attempting to recruit older ethnic minority participants are social factors and health status (e.g., financial burdens and poor health) that may contribute to nonparticipation (Napoles-Springer et al., 2000). In terms of racial background, older African Americans are less likely to participate in research than older White Americans or younger African Americans (e.g., Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Groves, 1989). It also may be the case that older African American adults have different attitudes toward participation than younger African Americans. Further, studies show that older African Americans have

more health problems than older White Americans (Chatters, 1991; Gibson, 1991; Sinclair et al., 2000). One purpose of this dissertation is to explore the attitudes toward research participation of African American and White American adults, both young and old, to provide a better understanding of the under-representation predicament.

The ecological perspective of development considers the context of the developing individual, that is, the developmental environment. Racial socialization patterns may be associated with participation, and African Americans may receive messages (e.g., about mistrust, ethnic identity enhancement, and oppression) that impact their social development, view of, and interactions with mainstream society (e.g., Jackson et al., 1991; Lipscomb, 1975). They, then, may be more or less inclined to participate in research depending on the type of socialization messages received. Messages relating positive ingroup and outgroup orientation may facilitate participation, making African Americans more likely to share information with others outside of their ethnic group (Jackson et al., 1988, 1991; Lipscomb, 1975). Messages of mistrust may create a hostile environment for African Americans, making them less likely to participate in research. Messages emphasizing racial oppression may result in less social power that may impede participation in research.

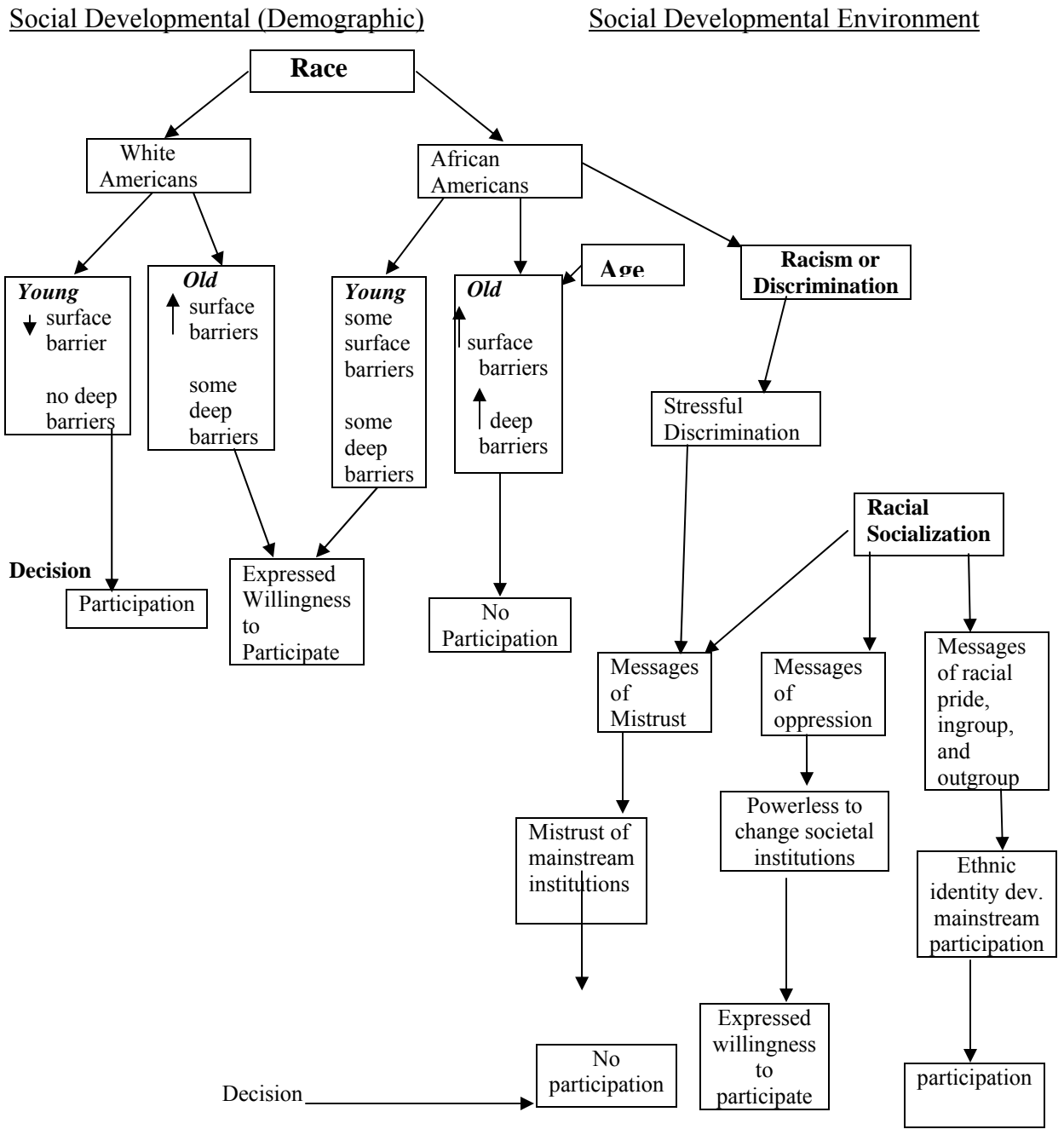
Information on White ethnic identity and oppression concerning research participation is lacking, but previous research on other sociodemographic variables (e.g., age) indicates connections with participation rates among White Americans. In addition, the possibility exists that prosocial behavior may play a role in research participation for White Americans as well as for African Americans. Prosocial behavior is helping behavior that

benefits others. Some studies (e.g., Gaertner & Dovidio, 1977) have shown that race plays a role in the helping behavior of an individual and that individuals are more likely to help people of their own race rather than people of another race.

Deep barriers are also important in understanding research participation. African Americans are likely to have personal experiences of racism and discrimination. Stress has been associated with these experiences (Branscombe, Schmin, & Harvey, 1999; Gamson, 1968; Landrine & Klonoff, 1996; Nieburg, 1969). The negative effects of adversity due to discrimination may lead to social isolation or social exclusion in which a disconnection from society limits participation. Likewise, the lack of sociopolitical control emphasizes the deficiency in social power linked to minority status. This may translate to feelings of powerlessness and may hinder participation behavior for African Americans (Parker & McDonough, 1999).

White Americans also may be affected by prejudice and discrimination, and these experiences may increase avoidance of interaction with people of color, limiting an understanding of cultural diversity or racial issues (Dixon & Foster, 1971; Phoenix, 1997). In addition, White Americans also can experience direct discrimination. Although there is a lack of research involving the decision to participate in research and discrimination among White Americans, it is possible that the social isolation that generally affects African Americans may affect at least some groups of White Americans as well (e.g., those who are socioeconomically disadvantaged). Gooley (1992) suggested that an individual consistently confronted with discrimination, experiences stress and discomfort that, in turn, lead to social isolation and, ultimately, less participation in mainstream society.

Figure 1. African American Participation Model: A Developmental perspective (decision tree).



## Chapter 4

### GOALS AND HYPOTHESES

A major goal of this dissertation was to test the African American Participation Model. As previously noted, African Americans remain under-represented in all forms of research. The overall purpose of this study was to provide a better understanding of the differences, if any, between White Americans and African Americans regarding the decision to participate and to provide insight into the under-representation dilemma. Age, developmental factors, and deep barriers of both expressed willingness to participate and continued participation were examined.

First, the African American Participation Model (Byrd, 2003), developed as a result of gaps in the literature, proposed that African Americans' relations with society, including developmental factors and deep barriers, relate to the decision to participate in research. Knowledge of how these various factors influence research participation is relevant. Therefore, information concerning development, specifically, (a) age (b) developmental factors, and (c) deep barriers is necessary. This study examined these issues and addressed methodological gaps in previous research while expanding the findings on research participation.

Second, methodological gaps in existing empirical research involve the differences in expressed likelihood to participate in research and continued participation rates among African Americans. Although previous studies have examined expressed willingness to participate (e.g., Armstrong et al., 1999; Million-Underwood et al., 1993), few have

focused on the ability of expressed willingness to participate to predict continued research participation. The possibility exists that expressed willingness to participate in research and continued participation may differ (Armstrong et al., 1999). One of the purposes of this study was to determine whether a discrepancy exists between expressed willingness to participate and continued participation, thus, extending knowledge about the factors that contribute to both stated willingness to participate in research and actually continuing to do so.

The majority of studies examining research participation utilized qualitative methods (e.g., Armstrong et al., 1999; Gorelick, Harris, Burnett, & Bonecutter, 1998). For example, Armstrong et al. (1999) assessed barriers to research participation among college students via focus groups. The present study incorporated qualitative findings into a quantitative survey methodology, investigating the role of developmental factors and identifying their influence on the decision to participate. The current study addressed several hypotheses:

#### Expressed Willingness to Participate

In general, older adults are likely to have more surface barriers including poor health and disability (Shaffer & Williamson, in press; Williamson & Shaffer, in press), transportation difficulties (Ballard et al., 1993), and lower incomes that can present problems, particularly for older ethnic minority individuals (Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Ballard et al., Williams & Collins, 1995). Thus, they may not even be willing to consider participating (Byrd, 2003). In addition, previous findings (Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Ballard et al., 1993; Carter et al., 1991; Groves, 1989) on recruitment and retention indicate that regardless of race, older adults are less likely to

participate in research. *It was hypothesized that older adults are more likely to refuse to participate in a second study (expressed willingness to participate) than younger adults, and age is negatively related to expressed willingness to participate.*

Does the extent to which people have positive attitudes about research predict expressed willingness to participate? Armstrong et al. (1999) measured individuals' attitudes about participating in research and found that these attitudes were related to intentions to participate in research. *Therefore it was expected that individuals with more positive attitudes will be more likely to indicate willingness to participate in a second study.* However, neither attitudes nor intentions have been investigated in terms of actual behavior in the context of research participation but will be addressed in this study.

#### Continued Participation

Previous studies (e.g., Armstrong et al., 1999; Gorelick, et al., 1998; Million-Underwood et al., 1993; Robertson, 1994) have found that African Americans are likely to be more skeptical about the goals of research than White Americans. Thus, African Americans are inclined to drop out before the research is completed (Ballard et al., 1993; Eaves, 1999; Vernon, Roberts, & Lee, 1984), and attrition rates are found to be high (e.g., Dresser, 1992; Stoy et al., 1995). Further, Vernon et al. (1984) found that African Americans were more likely to refuse follow-up studies than White Americans. *Therefore, it was hypothesized that there is an association between race and continued participation and that more White Americans will participate in Part 2 compared to African Americans.*

The African American Participation Model proposes that both age and race are factors related to continued participation. Previous studies on race and participation rates show

that White Americans participate more often than African Americans (Armstrong et al., 1999; Ballard et al., 1993; Gorelick et al., 1998; Million-Underwood et al., 1993; Stoy et al., 1995; Vernon, Roberts, & Lee, 1984). In a similar vein, existing literature on aging and participation in research indicates that younger adults participate more frequently than older adults (Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Ballard et al.; Carter, et al., 1991; Groves, 1989). *Therefore, an interaction between age and race was predicted such that older African Americans will be the least likely to continue participation and that young White Americans will be the most likely to continue participation (see Figure 2a).*

#### *Developmental Factors*

No previous research has investigated the extent to which socialization messages may influence research participation. However, Armstrong et al. (1999) found that White Americans generally do not mistrust the goals of research. Therefore, in this context, White American participants may best be viewed as a comparison group. Thus, specific hypotheses about the relations between predictor variables and continued participation apply primarily to African Americans.

My hypotheses for continued participation and developmental factors are as follows:

(a) *African Americans with higher scores on the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (Phinney, 1992) will be more likely to agree to participate in Part 2*, because previous research on ingroup and outgroup orientation indicates that enhanced ethnic identity development increases an individual's ability to deal with mainstream society (Jackson et al., 1988; Jackson et al., 1991), (b) *mistrust will be negatively related to continued participation such that African Americans who have higher scores on the Cultural Mistrust Inventory (Terrell & Terrell, 1981) will be less likely to participate in Part 2*,

since previous studies (e.g., Gorelick et al., 1998; Robertson, 1994) have found that African Americans who are highly distrustful participate less in mainstream societal events, and (c) *socialization of racial barriers/oppression will negatively relate to continued participation such that African Americans with high scores on the racial barriers/oppression subscale of the Scale of Racial Socialization for Adolescents* (Stevenson, 1994) *are less likely to participate in Part 2* because previous research (e.g., Lipscomb, 1975) indicated that African Americans socialized for racial barriers/oppression may develop negative attitudes toward society.

### *Deep Barriers*

Although previous literature indicates that benefits of participating and empowerment of participation is important for African Americans, empirical research is lacking. Therefore, these deep barriers were included in my analyses for exploratory purposes and no specific hypotheses were made. Similarly, research is limited on discrimination and social control regarding research participation for White Americans although Parker and McDonough (1999) found that perceived social control was not related to participation among White Americans. Therefore, White American participants will be a comparison group. My hypotheses for continued participation and deep barriers are as follows: (a) *there will be a significant positive correlation between perceived social control and continued participation; that is, African Americans with higher scores on the Spheres of Control* (Paulhus, 1983) *will be more likely to continue to participate in Part 2* because previous findings (e.g., Parker & McDonough, 1999) indicate that African Americans with feelings of powerlessness to promote societal change are less likely to agree to participate in societal institutions, and (b) *discrimination will be negatively related to*

*continued participation in that African Americans who report less stressful and infrequent experiences of discrimination on the Schedule of Racist Events (Landrine & Klonoff, 1996) will be more likely to participate in Part 2 because stressful discrimination can result in a disconnection from mainstream society (Branscombe et al., 1999; Gooley, 1992; Utsey & Ponerotto, 1996).*

*Mediators. First, it is predicted that relations between race and continued participation will be mediated by discrimination (see Figure 2b). As specified by Baron and Kenny (1986):*

A variable functions as a mediator when . . . : (a) variations in levels of the independent variable significantly account for variations in the presumed mediator (Path a), (b) variations in the mediator significantly account for variations in the dependent variable (Path b), and (c) when Paths a and b are controlled, a previously significant relation between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant, with the strongest demonstration of mediation occurring when Path c is zero (p. 1176).

If this is the case, African Americans should be less likely than White Americans to continue to participate in research. However, it is hypothesized that continued participation may depend on discrimination experiences such that African Americans who have not been subjected to frequent discrimination will be more likely to participate.

*Second, it is expected that the relation between discrimination and continued participation will be mediated by mistrust (see Figure 2c). Although it is predicted that discrimination and participation are connected such that an individual who has experienced*

high levels of discrimination may be less likely to participate, this connection may be due to mistrust. In short, research participation among individuals who have experienced frequent discrimination may be due to mistrust.

Third, *it is expected that the association between race and continued participation will be mediated by ethnic identity development* (see Figure 2d). It is expected that race is connected to participation in that African Americans are less likely to participate in research, yet this connection may depend on ethnic identity development. In other words, African Americans will be less likely to participate to the extent that they have lower levels of ethnic identity development.

#### *Relations Among Dependent Measures*

Parker and McDonough (1999) concluded that, although African Americans express willingness to participate in certain areas of society, they often do not participate. In contrast, Armstrong et al. (1999) found that White Americans were more likely to participate in research when they expressed the intention to do so. Does willingness to participate relate to continued participation among White Americans and African Americans? *It was hypothesized that willingness to participate predicts continued participation for White Americans but not for African Americans.* Further, Armstrong et al. (1999) suggested that, among African Americans, there is a discrepancy between expressed willingness to participate and actual participation.

#### *Summary of Goals*

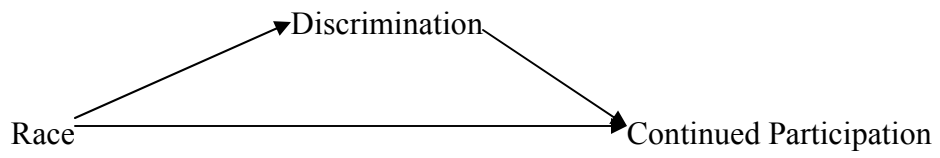
In sum, the developmental factors and deep barriers of expressed willingness to participate and continued research participation among individuals (i.e., African Americans and White Americans) were examined. The present study expanded current

information on research participation by: (a) including measures of developmental factors (i.e., mistrust, racial socialization, ethnic identity development) and deep barriers (i.e., discriminatory experiences, sociopolitical control, benefits of research, empowerment of research, and general willingness to participate), and (b) testing multivariate models of age, developmental factors, and deep barriers with continued participation. Thus a key goal of this study was to investigate obstacles to research participation to improve research participation among African Americans and older adults in general.

*Figure 2a.* When main effects of race and age are controlled for, age will modify the link between race and continued participation.



*Figure 2b.* Discrimination experiences will mediate the relation between race and continued participation.



*Figure 2c.* Mistrust will mediate the relation between discrimination and continued participation.

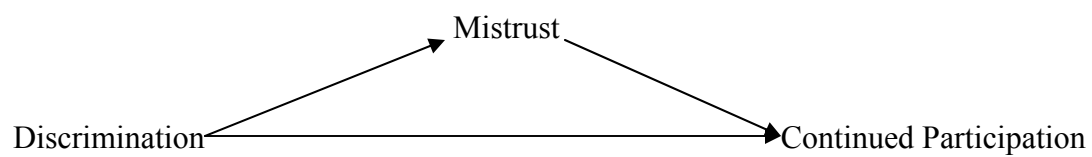
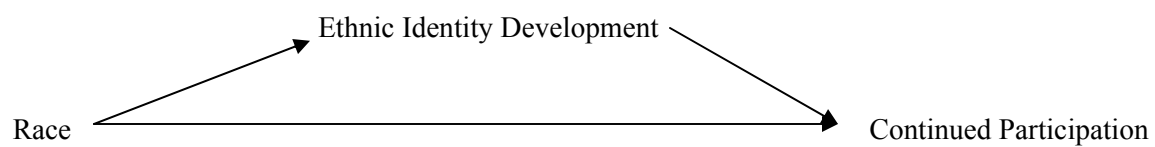


Figure 2d. Ethnic identity development will mediate the relation between race and continued participation.



## Chapter 5

### METHOD

#### Design

This study contains two parts.

In Part 1, the dependent measure was expressed willingness to participate in research. Expressed willingness to participate in further research was operationalized by participants answering either yes or no when asked to participate in a follow-up study. In addition, information on predictor variables (i.e., age, race, mistrust, sociopolitical control, ethnic identity development, discrimination, racial socialization, likelihood of participation, benefits of research, and empowerment of research) was collected in Part 1. In Part 2, the dependent measure, continued participation was actual participation in the follow-up study operationalized by the completion of Part 2 survey measures.

#### *Participants*

*Sample.* A nonprobability convenience sample (N = 99) consisted of 37 White Americans (20 males and 17 females) and 62 African Americans (23 males and 39 females). The age of participants ranged from 16 to 77 (mean of 37.88 and a standard deviation of 13.96). Although the sample was diverse for socioeconomic status, the median income was \$30,000 – 35,000 a year. Twelve participants did not provide information on family income. As far as educational level was concerned, the majority of participants (32%) maintained that high school was their highest level of education, 29% had some college or vocational training, 25% undergraduate degree completion, 10%

masters degree completion, 2% had earned a doctorate or law degree, and 2% of the sample had not completed high school. Thirty-nine percent of participants reported that they were married and 33% reported being single, never married. Eighty percent of participants indicated that they had reliable transportation and most (58%) were employed full time. The majority of participants (80%) resided in an integrated neighborhood while others (20%) resided in a segregated neighborhood. For time availability for research participation, almost half of the participants (48%) indicated that they had little free time to participate in research. Participants were asked to volunteer for the study and did not receive any type of compensation for their participation. All participants completed the survey at the request of an African American researcher.

*Recruitment process.* Participants were recruited through various strategies (i.e., snowball method, flyers, local organizations and agencies). The recruitment process involved a multi-stage sampling procedure followed by a single-stage sampling procedure. First, using multi-stage sampling, church leaders, organization administrators, and individuals with substantial social networks were contacted, the study was explained, and referrals for participants were obtained. Based on these referrals, potential participants were contacted by phone. Second, utilizing a single-stage procedure, permission from various businesses in the community (e.g., beauty parlors, grocery stores) to post flyers (see Appendix A) in their establishments was obtained.. However, over half of the sample (67%) was recruited using the snowball method, 31% from local churches, and 2% from local organizations.

*Selection criteria.* The selection criteria included age and ethnicity. Specifically, participants would have to identify themselves as White American or African

American/Black (of African descent). Permission from parents for individuals under the age of 18 was obtained. Two participants were in this category (i.e., one was age 16, a White American female and the other was 17, an African American female). Individuals excluded were those who were considered as very high risk (e.g., individuals in nursing homes, prisons, homeless shelters). The consent form (see Appendix B) was thoroughly explained to each participant in order to provide a better understanding of the informed consent process and to ascertain whether the participant understood that he or she was giving consent freely and without coercion.

#### *Part 1 Procedure.*

For the first portion of the study, potential participants were contacted. The study was introduced (see Appendix C), and informed consent obtained. Participants were given a packet containing basic demographic information and 9 self-report survey measures and asked to complete the survey within a week. In preparation for Part 2 of the study, the last page (Appendix D) assessed willingness to participate in a follow-up study. The researcher collected completed surveys. The majority of participants completed the survey within a ten-day period. Data were collected over a 6-month period.

#### *Part 1 Measures*

Self-report surveys were used to obtain data on: (a) demographics, (b) general willingness to participate in research, (c) benefits of research, (d) empowerment of research, (e) sociopolitical control, (f) discrimination, (g) ethnic identity development, (h) cultural mistrust, and (i) racial socialization. These measures are described in the following sections.

*Demographics and surface barriers.* A self-designed demographic information sheet (e.g., “What is your age now?”) was used to obtain information (e.g., age gender, education, transportation, employment/occupation, income, time availability, ethnic make-up of neighborhood, and marital status) from participants (see Appendix E).

*Developmental Factors.* The *Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure* (MEIM; Phinney, 1992) assesses the extent to which an individual feels a sense of belongingness to his or her ethnic group including group identification and outgroup orientation (see Appendix K). The MEIM includes ethnic practices, sense of belongingness to one’s ethnic group, and the degree to which one identifies with his or her designated ethnic group. The 20-item MEIM includes two primary scales (i.e., ethnic identity and other group orientation), and uses a 7-point Likert scale (*strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*). Ethnic identity subscales are: (a) positive ethnic attitudes and a sense of belonging (e.g., “I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to”), (b) ethnic identity achievement, both exploration and resolution of identity issues (“e.g., I have spent time trying to find out more about my own ethnic group such as its history, traditions, and customs”), and (c) ethnic behavior and practices (e.g., “I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group”). Other group orientation (e.g., “I like meeting and getting to know people from ethnic groups other than my own”) has no subscales but contains 6 items.

The MEIM was normed on 136 undergraduate psychology students (47 males, 89 females; 58 Hispanics, 35 Asians, 23 Whites, 11 Blacks, 1 Native American, and 8 individuals of mixed backgrounds). Cronbach’s alpha was .74 for the outgroup orientation scale and .90 for the entire Ethnic Identity Scale (.86

Affirmation/Belongingness subscale, and .80 Ethnic Achievement subscale). There were no reliability coefficients for the ethnic behavior subscale provided because it consists of only two items. Cronbach's alpha for the total scale for the present study was .8174 ( $M = 102.29$ ,  $SD = 14.42$ ), for outgroup orientation subscale .70 and for the entire Ethnic Identity Scale .84 (.85 Affirmation/Belongingness subscale, and .76 Ethnic Achievement subscale).

The *Cultural Mistrust Inventory* (CMI; Terrell & Terrell, 1981) is a self-report measure consisting of 48 items that evaluate the extent to which an individual mistrusts the mainstream population. The measure was normed on 241 African American male college students. For the proposed study, the CMI was revised to include a version focused on African Americans and another focused on White Americans (see Appendix L and Appendix M respectively). All participants will respond to both versions of the CMI to assess whether trust/mistrust is specific to the other race or more generalized. The revised measure consists of 44 items, and a 5-point Likert scale (*strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*) will be used for responses for the 4 subscales: (1) education and training ("White teachers teach subjects so that it favors Whites/Black teachers teach subjects so that it favors Blacks"), (2) interpersonal relations ("White friends are least likely to break their promise/ Black friends are least likely to break their promise"), (3) business and work ("A Black person can feel comfortable making a deal with a White person simply by a handshake/ A White person can feel comfortable making a deal with a Black person simply by a handshake"), and (4) politics and law ("Blacks have often been deceived by White politicians/Whites have often been deceived by Black politicians"). Psychometric properties include a 2-week test-retest reliability estimate of .86 (Terrell &

Terrell, 1981). Convergent and discriminate validity have been shown (Terrell & Terrell, 1981). The CMI negatively correlates with social desirability (Jackson, 1970) and positively correlates with the Racial Discrimination Inventory (Terrell & Miller, 1980). Cronbach's alpha for the cultural mistrust scale for White Americans for the present study was .88 ( $M = 89.88$ ,  $SD = 23.72$ ). Cronbach's alpha for the cultural mistrust scale for African Americans was .93 ( $M = 107.5$ ,  $SD = 26.22$ ).

The original *Scale of Racial Socialization for Adolescents* (SORS-A; Stevenson, 1994) is a 45-item self-report measure used to assess beliefs concerning racial socialization processes in education, family, and society. There are four subscales: (a) spiritual and religious coping, (b) extended family caring, (c) cultural pride reinforcement, and (d) racism awareness teaching. A previous Cronbach's alpha revealed an internal consistency of .75. The SORS-A was normed on 200 African American adolescents.

The revised version (see Appendix N) has 20 items with three subscales (a) cultural pride reinforcement ("Schools should be required to teach all children about Black history"), (b) racial barriers and oppression ("If Black parents teach their children that Blacks have fewer opportunities than Whites, it can help them to survive racism and be successful"), and (c) racism awareness teaching ("Whites do not think of Black people as lazy or aggressive today like they used to believe 30 or more years ago"[reverse coded]). A 5-point Likert scale was used for responses (*disagree a lot* to *agree a lot*). Internal consistency for the entire scale for the present study was .64 ( $M = 55.38$ ,  $SD = 7.45$ ). Items 8, 9, 12, and 20, were dropped to increase the internal consistency of the scale. The cultural pride subscale had an internal consistency of .33 ( $M = 28.68$ ,  $SD = 3.73$ ).

Because of the omission of items from the scale, the cultural pride reinforcement subscale contained only three items and had an internal consistency of .40. The internal consistency of the oppression scale was .71.

*Deep Barriers. The Likelihood of Participation Scale* (Armstrong et al., 1999, see Appendix F) is a self-report measure that assesses general attitude toward research participation and the willingness of an individual to participate in research. Although this scale does not directly measure whether or not an individual will actually participate in research, it may provide useful information about willingness to participate.

Based on responses of three focus groups, Armstrong et al. (1999) developed the scale to evaluate the concerns about research participation (e.g., “The government sometimes exposes participants to agents known to be detrimental to one’s health”). This measure contains 15 items and uses a 7-point Likert scale (*strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*). The scale was normed on 119 undergraduates (51% African American and 49% White Americans) with a mean of 61.8. Cronbach’s alpha for the current study was .74 ( $M = 62.66$ ,  $SD = 10.29$ ).

The *Benefits of Participation Scale* is based on previous literature. Previous research (e.g., Gorelick et al., 1998) indicates that African Americans decline to participate because they may not be aware of the benefit of participating in research. Viewing research as beneficial is essential for African Americans because of: (a) past abuses of African Americans during research participation, (b) mistrust of societal institutions associated with alienation, and (c) socio-historical patterns of exploitation. Therefore, one important factor that may affect participation rates is the perceived benefit of participating.

Based on findings from focus group studies (e.g., Freimuth et al., 2001; Gorelick et al., 1998), I designed the Benefits of Research Scale (see Appendix G), to assess attitudes toward participation in relation to perceived benefit of participation (e.g., “I would participate in the study if it benefits people of all races and ethnic groups”). This scale may allow researchers to make predictions about the likelihood of participation. This measure consists of 6 items and a 7-point Likert scale (*strongly agree to strongly disagree*) was used for responses. One item (i.e., item two) was dropped to increase the internal consistency of the scale. Therefore the internal consistency for the present study was .58 ( $M = 19.35$ ,  $SD = 4.43$ ).

The *Empowerment of Participation Scale* is based on a thorough review of previous literature on research participation (e.g., Parker & McDonough, 1999), that suggested that individuals in general are more likely to participate if the research is viewed as empowering. Therefore, empowerment may be essential in the decision making process for research participation. The Empowerment of Research Scale (Appendix H) is based on previous findings (e.g., Fulton-Picot, Samonte, Tierney, Connor, Powell, 2001; McNeilly et al., 2000; Parker & McDonough, 1999), and may provide more insight into the pattern of responding among African Americans and White Americans regarding empowerment and research participation. The scale consists of 8 items (e.g., “I should be asked to give my opinion on how the procedure should be conducted”), and a 7-point Likert scale (*strongly agree to strongly disagree*) was used for responses. Cronbach’s alpha for the present study was .76. ( $M = 38.36$ ,  $SD = 6.87$ ).

Examination of the perceptions of control is necessary to determine the extent to which powerlessness in sociopolitical areas is related to research participation. The

*Spheres of Control Scale* (Paulhus, 1983) was designed to measure perceived control in different areas of an individual's life, including the influence of luck and powerful others, and provides insight into feelings of powerlessness in society (see Appendix I). Based on the Spheres of Control Model (Paulhus & Christie, 1981) which partitions the life space into primary behavioral spheres, sociopolitical control is perceived control over the political and social system (e.g., "By taking an active part in political and social affairs, we the people can control world events"). The Spheres of Control sociopolitical subscale is a self-report measure consisting of 10 items with a 7-point Likert scale (*strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*). The scale was normed on 87 undergraduate psychology students (50 males and 37 females). Previous psychometric properties include internal consistency (.75 -.80) and test-retest reliability (.90 over 4 weeks). Convergent and discriminant validity indicates that the measure is negatively correlated with Rotters (1966) Locus of Control scale and minimally correlated with social desirability (Crown & Marlowe, 1964). For the present study, the internal consistency was .76 ( $M = 40.79$ ,  $SD = 9.33$ ).

The *Schedule of Racist Events* (SRE; Landrine & Klonoff, 1996) measures frequency of racist and discriminatory events as well as evaluations of the stressfulness of these events (see Appendix J). This self-report measure was constructed to assess racism in various areas. The original SRE was normed on 153 African Americans (83 women, 66 men, 4 unidentified) ages 15-70. Means include: recent racist events (40.99), lifetime racist events (53.93), and appraised stress associated with racist events (51.47). Each of the 18 items (e.g., "How many times have you been treated unfairly by teachers and

professors because of prejudice and discrimination?”), has three ratings: (a) during the past year, (b) throughout one’s lifetime, and (c) appraised stressfulness of the event.

The revised version focuses on general experiences of discrimination rather than racism specifically. A 6-point Likert scale will be used for ratings for experienced recently and experienced throughout one’s lifetime (*never happened to you to happened almost all of the time*), and a 5-point Likert scale (*not at all to extremely*) will be used for stressfulness of the event. Two questions assessing the primary cause for discrimination were added at the end of the scale: “The discrimination I have experienced during my *LIFE TIME* was primarily due to \_\_\_\_\_” and “The discrimination I have experienced in the past *YEAR* was primarily due to \_\_\_\_\_.”

Published psychometric properties of the SRE (Landrine & Klonoff, 1996) include Cronbach’s alpha for recent racist events (.94), lifetime racist events (.95), and stress of racist events (.93) as well as split half reliability for recent racist events (.93), lifetime racist events (.91), and stress of racist events (.92). The measure also has demonstrated convergent and discriminate validity. All three subscales ratings are positively correlated with symptoms of the Hopkins Symptom Checklist (Derogatis, Lipman, Rickles, Uhlenhuth, & Covi, 1994). The ratings for recent racist events are negatively correlated with the African American Acculturation Scale (Landrine & Klonoff, 1994) that measures the degree to which African Americans are immersed in African American culture. In short, the more acculturated the African American individual is, the more likely he or she will perceive experiences as racism and discrimination. In the current

study, cronbach's alpha for the total scale was .95 ( $M = 67.67$ ,  $SD = 39.84$ ), for recent discriminatory events .88, for lifetime discriminatory events .92, and for stress of discriminatory events .88.

### *Part 2 Procedure*

Participants agreeing to participate in a follow-up study were contacted by telephone within 2 weeks after completing Part 1 to inform them that Part 2 measures will be mailed (see Appendix O). Estimated time of completion for the questionnaires was 25-30 minutes. Part 2 measures focused on attitudes toward aging. Participants were instructed to place the completed questionnaires in a self-addressed stamp envelope and mail them back to the researcher (see Appendix P) before a specified date (i.e., within 16 days). Data were collected over a seven-month period.

### *Part 2 Measures*

For purposes of another study, Part 2 measures focused on attitudes towards the aging process. One set of measures was given to older adults 40 and over (see Appendix Q) and another set of measures was given to younger adults under 40 (see Appendix R).

## Chapter 6

### RESULTS

#### Preliminary Analyses

As shown in Table 1, African Americans differed from White Americans on t-tests, where all *ts* were  $> 1.92$ , all *ps*  $< .05$ . No other differences between African Americans and White Americans were observed in this study.

In order to assess the relation to both dependent measures (i.e., expressed willingness to participate and continued participation), demographic variables (i.e., gender, education, marital status, neighborhood, income, and employment) were entered in the first step of a hierarchical regression analysis, followed by study variables. Gender, neighborhood, and marital status, were excluded from further analyses because none as a group or individually, explained the variance in expressed willingness ( $R^2 = .03$ ,  $F(5, 93) = .65$ , *ns*, all *ts* (98)  $< .84$ , *ns*) or in continued participation ( $R^2 = .06$ ,  $F(5, 93) = 1.31$ , *ns*, all *ts* (98)  $< 1.06$ , *ns*) in the first step.

#### Bivariate Analyses

##### *Demographic and Surface Barriers*

Correlations shown in Table 2 indicated that older individuals had more income and access to reliable transportation. Although older individuals were less likely to need beneficial or empowering research participation, they reported more experiences of stressful discrimination. Race was negatively correlated to cultural mistrust of White Americans indicating that in general, African Americans are mistrustful of White

Americans and White Americans were mistrustful of White Americans. In addition, race was associated with income, racial socialization, and oppression where African Americans who reported having less income were more oppressed and as a group, African Americans were more likely to be aware of racial issues.

#### *Developmental Factors and Deep Barriers*

Individuals with more experiences of stressful discrimination reported more outgroup orientation. As sociopolitical control decreased mistrust of White Americans increased and oppression increased. Individuals who mistrust African Americans were more likely to mistrust White Americans suggesting that a high score on a cultural mistrust scale may be an indication of general mistrust of others regardless of race. Moreover, individuals who mistrusted African Americans reported less ethnic identity and outgroup orientation. General willingness to participate was related to less discrimination and mistrust of others. Individuals who were more racially socialized, reported more oppression. Further, individuals with increased ethnic identity indicated the need for beneficial research participation.

#### *Dependent Measures*

Individuals who reported more discrimination, stressful discrimination, ethnic identity development, and outgroup orientation were more likely to express willingness to participate in a follow-up study. Further, individuals reporting more stressful discrimination, outgroup orientation, and sociopolitical control were more likely to complete the follow-up study (i.e., part 2). Benefits of participation were negatively related to continued participation suggesting that individuals needing benefits for participation were less likely to complete the follow-up study. Time availability was

related to both dependent measures. Specifically, individuals who completed the follow-up study reported having more time to participate in research. Expressed willingness to participate was positively related to continued participation indicating that those individuals agreeing to participate in the follow-up study were more likely to complete it.

### *Regression Analyses*

A five-step hierarchical regression analysis was performed for the dependent measures of expressed willingness to participate and continued participation. Race and age were entered in the first step where  $R^2 = .01$ ,  $F(2, 95) = .39$ , *ns*. In the second step, developmental factors (i.e., cultural mistrust, ethnic identity, and oppression) that were entered yielded  $R^2 = .06$ ,  $F(4, 91) = .34$ , *ns*. Surface barriers (i.e., time availability, education, employment, transportation, and income) were entered in the third step,  $R^2 = .21$ ,  $F(5, 86)$ ,  $p = .00$ . In the fourth step, deep barriers (i.e., stressful discrimination, empowerment, sociopolitical control, benefits of participation, and general willingness to participate) was entered,  $R^2 = .28$ ,  $F(5, 81) = .16$ , *ns*. Finally expressed willingness to participate was entered in the fifth step where  $R^2 = .62$ ,  $F(1, 80)$ ,  $p = .00$ . These variables explained significant variance (54%) for continued participation.

### *Path Analysis*

A unidirectional model was tested with standard path analysis (Darlington, 1990). Age and race were entered in the first step, predicting, in separate equations, developmental factors (i.e., ethnic identity and cultural mistrust). In the second step, age, race, and developmental factors were the predictor variables, and time availability was the outcome. The third step involved entering age, race, developmental factors, and time availability predicting in separate equations, deep barrier factors (i.e., benefits of

participation were the predictor variables, and benefit of participation was the outcome. In the fourth step, age, race, developmental factors, time availability, and deep barrier factors were the predictor variables and expressed willingness to participate was the outcome. In the final step, continued participation was regressed onto all previous variables. Significant pathways emerging from these analyses are diagrammed in Figure 3, specifically: race and age predicted developmental factors, (b) developmental factors predicted deep barriers, (c) deep barriers and time availability predicted expressed willingness to participate, and (d) expressed willingness to participate predicted continued participation. Variables preceding expressed willingness to participate accounted for 37% ( $p < .000$ ), Adjusted (Adj)  $R^2 = .30$ ) of the variance in scores, and the total model explained 57% ( $p < .000$ , Adj  $R^2 = .52$ ) of the variance in continued participation.

Results (Figure 3) and bivariate analyses (Table 2) differed. Namely, in path analysis: (a) benefits of participation, time availability, sociopolitical control, stressful discrimination did not predict continued participation, and (b) ethnic identity was not related to benefits of participation. In addition, five paths emerged that were not significant in bivariate analysis, that is, in multivariate analysis but not bivariate test: (a) race predicted ethnic identity, (b) race predicted sociopolitical control, (c) ethnic identity predicted stressful discrimination, (d) cultural mistrust predicted benefits of participation, and (e) benefits of participation predicted expressed willingness to participate. Supplementary analyses were required to understand the implications of these differences in results.

### *Tests for Moderation*

Test for moderation was conducted for the dependent measure of expressed willingness to participate. First, a new variable was created. Specifically, for race x ethnic identity, a new variable (i.e., rmeim) was created by multiplying race by ethnic identity scores. Second, to test for moderating effects of race and ethnic identity on expressed willingness, the following procedure was employed: (a) expressed willingness was regressed on race, (b) expressed willingness was regressed on ethnic identity, and (c) expressed willingness was regressed on rmeim. The same procedure was implemented for race x benefits of participation, race x general willingness to participate, race x time availability, race x stressful discrimination, and race x sociopolitical control. None was significant after controlling for main effects (all  $t_s < 1.0$ , *ns*).

### *Tests for Mediation*

Bivariate connections not present in multivariate analysis imply mediation, therefore tests for mediation are suggested (see Baron & Kenny, 1986; Darlington, 1990). These differences indicate that expressed willingness might mediate the association between: (a) time availability and continued participation, (b) stressful discrimination and continued participation, and (c) benefits of participation and continued participation. First, to test whether time availability predicts increases in participation, which consecutively predicts continued participation, the following procedure was implemented: (a) expressed willingness was regressed on time availability, and (b) continued participation was regressed on expressed willingness and time availability simultaneously. Mediation was present because both steps were significant, and the relation between time availability

and continued participation was no longer significant. This same procedure was repeated for stressful discrimination and continued participation, and also for benefits of participation and continued participation, yielded significant results.

Specifically, test for mediation revealed that expressed willingness to participate did mediate the association between time availability. That is, time availability was not related to continued participation after controlling for expressed willingness to participate ( $\beta = -.00$ , ns), while expressed willingness to participate remained significant ( $\beta = .72$ ,  $p < .00$ ). Stressful discrimination and continued participation was mediated by expressed willingness to participate whereas stressful discrimination was not related to continued participation after controlling for expressed willingness to participate ( $\beta = .01$ , ns), and expressed willingness to participate remained significant ( $\beta = .72$ ,  $p < .00$ ). Further, expressed willingness to participate mediated the relation between benefits of participation and continued participation. In other words, benefits of participation were not related to continued participation after controlling for expressed willingness to participate ( $\beta = .06$ , ns), whereas expressed willingness to participate remained significant ( $\beta = .72$ ,  $p < .00$ ).

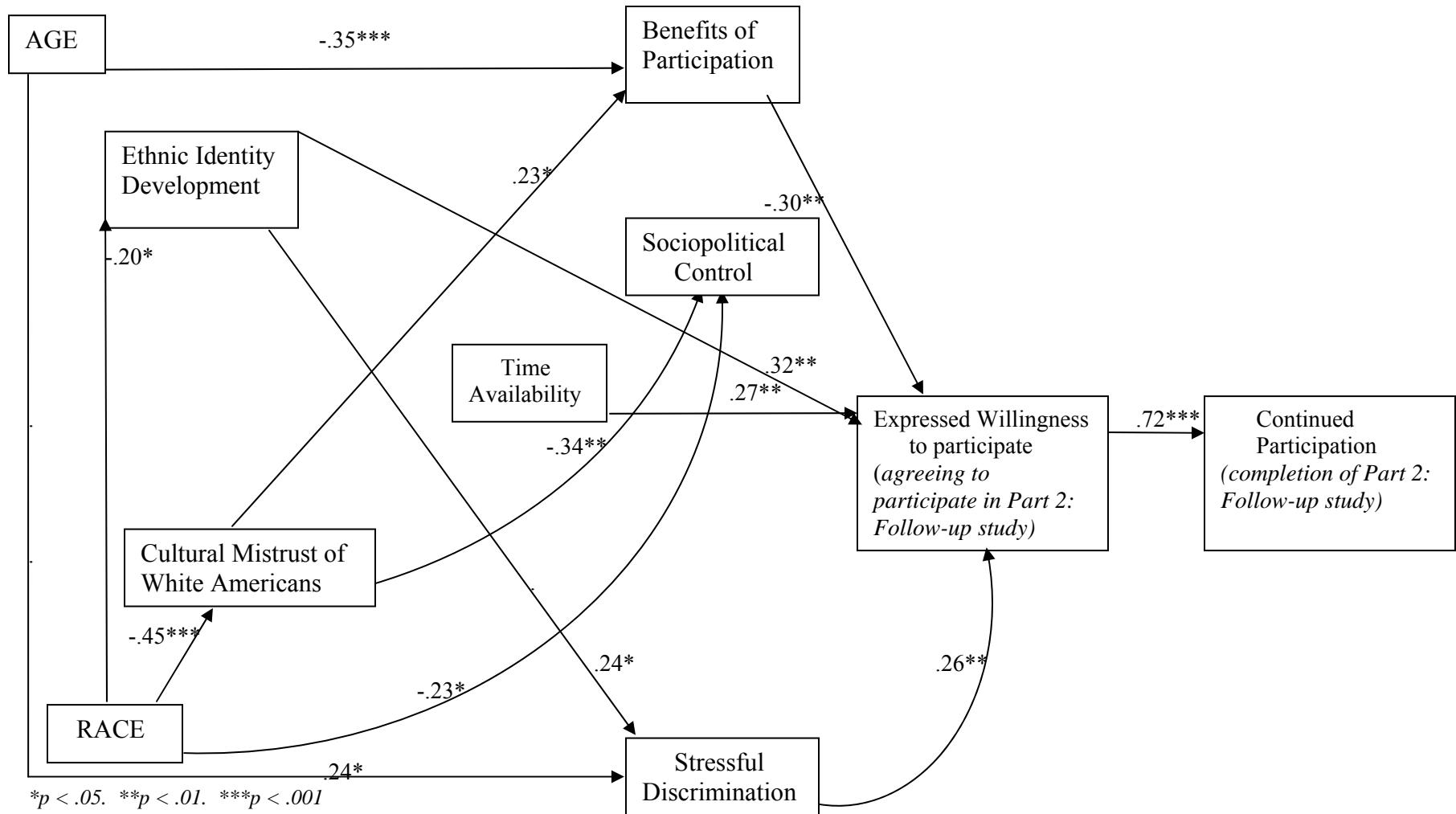
Expressed willingness did not qualify as a mediator of the relation between sociopolitical control and continued participation. Moreover, no other variables were found that mediated this relation. Similarly, no variables were found that mediated the relation between ethnic identity and benefits of participation.

#### *Suppressor Effect*

Race was not related to sociopolitical control in bivariate analyses however these variables were related in path analysis. The requirements for establishing a suppressor

effect (Darlington, 1990) were met for race and sociopolitical control. Specifically, race was negatively related to cultural mistrust (see Table 2) and neither race nor cultural mistrust alone was a very good predictor of sociopolitical control ( $R^2 = .00$ , ns;  $R^2 = .04$ ,  $p < .02$  respectively). Finally, when cultural mistrust was subtracted from race, the amount of explained variance in sociopolitical scores increased ( $R^2 = .10$ ,  $p < .00$ ). No significant suppressor effects were found for: (a) race and ethnic identity, (b) ethnic identity and stressful discrimination, (c) cultural mistrust and benefits of participation, or (d) benefits of participation and expressed willingness to participate.

Figure 3. Significant pathways emerging from path analysis



Comparison of means for White Americans and African Americans

Variable	White Americans		African Americans		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
<i>Demographic (Surface Barriers)</i>					
Age	36.65	13.69	38.15	14.21	.51
Gender	1.46	.51	1.63	.48	1.65
Income	8.16	3.76	6.24	3.19	-2.71***
Education	4.44	1.19	4.06	1.25	-1.46
Marital Status	3.25	2.15	3.39	2.25	.29
Neighborhood	1.16	.37	1.21	.41	.61
Employment	3.26	2.27	3.21	1.98	-.10
<i>Surface Barrier Predictors</i>					
Transportation	6.57	1.28	6.12	1.70	1.89*
Time Availability	3.26	2.27	3.21	1.98	-.16
<i>Deep Barrier Predictors</i>					
General willingness to participate	63.05	10.70	62.40	10.00	-.30
Benefits of research	18.75	4.23	19.50	4.64	.79
Empowerment of research	37.30	6.32	38.90	7.10	1.13
Social political control	39.52	8.26	41.08	10.17	.79

total	62.00	31.13	71.06	44.13	1.09
Discrimination					
Subscales:					
Lifetime	21.64	14.24	24.19	17.35	.75
Past year	10.91	10.37	15.47	12.42	1.87*
Stressful	29.46	12.83	31.41	18.00	.57
Ethnic identity	98.65	13.32	104.47	14.72	1.97*
Ethnic identity					
Subscale:					
Outgroup					
Orientation	33.98	5.01	31.81	6.04	-1.93*
Cultural mistrust					
(White					
Americans)	89.43	22.02	92.08	27.19	.50
(African					
Americans)	92.50	21.46	117.05	24.59	5.02***
Racial					
socialization	64.64	7.87	68.52	5.53	2.87***
Racial					
socialization					
Subscale					
Oppress	14.85	5.32	20.00	3.60	5.74***

---

*Dependent Measures*

Expressed					
willingness to					
participate in					
research	1.48	.50	1.58	.49	.90
Continued					
participation					
in research	1.35	.48	1.40	.49	.41

\*p < .05. \*\*p < .01. \*\*\*p < .00



Americans)	-.07	-.05	-.24*	-.16	—	.48***	.01	.15	-.12	-.09
17. Cultural mistrust (of White Americans)	.11	-.45***	-.07	-.25*	—	.15	.40***	-.02	-.04	
18. Racial Socialize	-.01	-.28**	.05	-.14	—	.65***	.02	-.00		
19. Oppression	.02	-.51***	.06	-.33**	—		-.00	.01		
20. Expressed Willingness to participate	.00	-.09	.14	.03	—				.72***	
21. Continued Willingness To participate	.13	-.05	.10	-.09	—					

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

## Chapter 7

### DISCUSSION

There is a great deal of speculation from researchers concerning what factors influence research participation, for example, whether the intention to participate is related to actual participation (e.g., Armstrong et al., 1999). My findings indicate that there is a strong connection between intention to participate and actual participation. That is, most individuals who agreed to participate in a follow-up study actually did so. These results partially support the hypothesis that willingness to participate predicts continued participation for White Americans but not for African Americans. There were no racial differences between expressed willingness to participate and continued participation. In other words, expressed willingness predicted continued (actual) participation for both African Americans and White Americans.

Finally, in regards to all predictor variables (i.e., demographic variables, surface barriers, developmental factors, and deep barriers), time availability materialized as the strongest single predictor of expressed willingness to participate and continued participation. Specifically, time availability was positively related to both dependent measures. Regardless of race, participants reported that time availability was an important factor in the decision to participate in research. Simply put, individuals that had more time to participate in research agreed to participate in the follow-up study and completed it.

### Additional Findings

Despite the evidence that research participation can primarily be explained by time availability, results of the present analyses indicate that race may play a role in the decision to participate. The hypothesis that there is an association between race and continued participation was partially supported in that two paths emerged where race indirectly predicted expressed willingness to participate. First, race predicted ethnic identity, and ethnic identity predicted expressed willingness to participate. Specifically, African Americans who identified with being African American and who also identified with other racial/ethnic groups were more likely to be willing to participate in research. This supported my hypothesis that African Americans with higher scores on the MEIM (Phinney, 1992) would be more likely to agree to participate in Part 2 because ingroup and outgroup orientation increases an individual's ability to deal with mainstream society (Jackson et al., 1988; 1991). Second, race predicted cultural mistrust of White Americans that in turn predicted benefits of participation, and benefits of participation predicted expressed willingness to participate. Namely, African Americans who mistrust White Americans need to be made aware of the benefits of participating.

Although there was an indirect relation between mistrust and continued participation, there was no direct relation as predicted. African Americans in the present study were highly mistrustful of White Americans, but this did not affect expressed willingness or continued participation directly as previous studies have found (e.g., Gorelick et al., 1998; Robertson, 1994). Unexpectedly, there was no significant difference for continued participation between African Americans and White Americans. This does not support previous studies (e.g., Ballard et al., 1993; Dresser, 1992; Eaves, 1999; Stoy et al., 1995;

Vernon et al., 1984), that African Americans are inclined to drop out before the research is completed and often refuse follow-up. There are two possibilities for this. First, strong feelings of group identification among African Americans may make them less likely to share information with a White researcher because they view White researchers as outsiders (Collins, 1990). Consequently, African American researchers may be viewed as insiders primarily because they share common characteristics, background, history, and African American participants are likely to be more comfortable being involved with research conducted by another African American. African Americans in the present study had strong group identification according to MEIM (Phinney, 1992) ingroup scores. Moreover, the principle researcher for the present study is African American. Second, prosocial behavior may have played a role in the decision for African Americans to participate in the present study. Prosocial behavior is helping behavior that benefits others. Some studies (e.g., Benson, Karabenick, & Lerner, 1976; Gaertner & Bickman, 1971) have shown that race plays a role in the helping behavior of an individual and that individuals are more likely to help people of their own race rather than people of another race while other studies (e.g., Katz, Cohen, & Glass, 1975; Piliavin, Rodin, & Piliavin, 1969) show that there is no preference for race in helping an individual.

In a similar vein, two paths emerged where age indirectly predicted expressed willingness to participate. First, age was positively related to stressful discrimination, and stressful discrimination was positively related to expressed willingness to participate meaning that older individuals who experience stressful discrimination were more likely to agree to participate in research. These results are in contrast to my original hypothesis that stressful discrimination will be negatively related to continued participation in that

individuals (i.e., African Americans) who report less stressful and infrequent experiences of discrimination will be more likely to participate in Part 2 because stressful discrimination can result in a disconnection from mainstream society. In fact, stressful discrimination was positively related to continued participation where individuals reporting more stressful discrimination were more likely to complete the follow-up study which also contradicts previous literature (e.g., (Branscombe et al., 1999; Gooley, 1992; Utsey & Ponerotto, 1996) on this topic. Second, age was negatively related to benefits of participation, and in turn benefits of participation was negatively related to expressed willingness to participate indicating that older individuals do not require research to be beneficial in order to agree to participate, and younger adults do require benefits to participate. This might be because older adults in the sample had more financial resources than younger adults.

#### Previous Literature

The present study expands knowledge concerning research participation. Further, more information was provided about the African American Participation Model regarding age and race and the decision to participate in research. As previously mentioned, the African American Participation Model proposes that surface barriers, deep barriers, and developmental factors predict research participation.

According to Byrd (2003) surface barriers are a hindrance for participation. Unlike previous findings (e.g., Arian Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Ballard et al., 1993) that older adults have less income and less access to reliable transportation, compared to younger adults in the present study, older adults had more education, income, and access to reliable transportation. Thus, older adults in my sample had fewer surface barriers than

younger adults. This is dissimilar to the African American Participation Model that proposed that because older adults have fewer resources than younger adults, they are therefore less likely to participate in research. With the exception of time availability, surface barriers in the present study did not predict expressed willingness to participate.

However, findings from the present study provided some support for the African American Participation Model concerning deep barriers, specifically, stressful discrimination. Both stressful discrimination and benefits of research were directly related to expressed willingness and continued participation. Previous literature (e.g., Gooley, 1992) suggested that stressful discrimination might increase social isolation causing a disconnection from mainstream society (Branscombe et al., 1999; Gooley, 1992; Utsey & Ponerotto, 1996) resulting in nonparticipation. The data indicated that experiences of stressful discrimination were associated with more research participation, not less.

Further, the developmental environment of African Americans is likely to include socialization messages of oppression, mistrust, and ethnic identity enhancement (Jackson et al., 1988; Jones, 1991, Keefe, 1982, Lipscomb, 1975). Race was related to these developmental factors in the present study. Previous findings on race and oppression (e.g., Adams, 1992; Parker & McDonough, 1999; Steinhart, 1991) suggested that African Americans may experience feelings of oppression that produce barriers that hinder participation behavior and foster avoidance of research efforts (Davis, 1997). African Americans in the present study had more cultural mistrust and ethnic identity development than White Americans. This is consistent with previous literature on socialization (e.g., Jackson et al., 1988; Lipscomb, 1975) that maintains African

Americans have increased ethnic identity development because minorities share a distinctive identity. For example, race is highly visible, making the African American identity highly salient to both African Americans and others. As a result of racism, African Americans are apprehensive and mistrustful toward social institutions (Keefe, 1982). Jones (1991) suggested that the dominant U.S. society is a hostile environment that perpetuates negative stereotypes making it difficult for the developing African American individual to trust societal institutions.

### Strengths

Among the strengths of the study was the amount of information obtained on research participation. First, the model that emerged from path analysis provided information on how study variables predict participation. Second, results yielded more information on the differences between African Americans and Whites Americans (see table 1) regarding surface barriers, deep barriers, and developmental factors. Third, developmental factors were related to race. Fourth, time availability was important for both groups. Fifth, two new measures were established for research participation, namely, benefits of research and empowerment of research that might be helpful to other researchers interested in studying research participation.

Another strength of the study was the use of survey methodology. The survey method is currently popular in the social sciences because it allows researchers to ask broad questions (Ray, 2006). One advantage of the survey method is the economy of the design (Babbie, 1990; Fowler, 1988; Sudman & Bradburn, 1986). The survey method allows attributes to be identified from a small group of individuals (Babbie, 1990; Fowler, 1988; Sudman & Bradburn, 1986) and the data are readily accessible for multivariate analysis.

## Limitations

Despite these strengths, one major limitation is the use of a correlational cross-sectional design and a unidirectional model. These exclude both causal inference and potential bi-directional associations. Longitudinal data would better serve this purpose, as would well-controlled experimental studies evaluating research participation among adults regardless of racial ethnic group membership. Perhaps, one motive of future research might be to use an experimental approach manipulating variables to infer causation. One idea would be to present different case scenarios (e.g., medical research versus psychological research) to examine whether various types of research situations would affect participation rates. Based on the importance of culture and ethnicity, some researchers (e.g., Armstrong et al., 1999; Atkinson, 1983; Terrell & Terrell, 1984; Watkins & Terrell, 1988) believe that ethnic matching will facilitate African American participation rates. Therefore, ethnicity of the researcher can be manipulated using an experimental approach. Such studies have yet to be conducted. The same is true for research including assessment of prosocial behavior and research participation. Although my model explained significant variance in both expressed willingness to participate and continued participation, adding this construct may increase predictability.

One question that has puzzled social psychologists is, do attitudes predict behavior? This question is related to a long time criticism of survey methodology using self-report data (Ray, 2006). Although there are several strengths of the survey method (e.g., Babbie, 1990; Fowler, 1988; Ray, 2006; Sudman & Bradburn, 1986), it has been suggested that verbal data are not related to non-verbal responses (Galtung, 1967). Self-report data only provides one perspective and is not consistent across responses (Gur &

Sackeim, 1979, Ray, 2006). Therefore, it is possible that information collected for self-report measures used in this study may not be consistent with actual participation behavior although the results strongly suggest that an individual's intentions predict actual participation behavior. Future research should focus on using other methodologies other than the survey method; for example, meta analysis studies on research participation is lacking.

Another limitation was sample size. It is possible that a larger sample would have yielded different results and provided better information on participation. To obtain larger samples, better recruitment methods are required, especially when working with the general population versus the use of a large research pool of college students. My findings need to be replicated in larger, more representative samples with data that do not rely exclusively on self-reports.

#### Hypotheses Not Supported

Although many of the studies' hypotheses provided support for the African American Participation Model and for the previous literature, some hypotheses were not supported. For example, I did not find that attitudes toward research participation predicted behavior. In other words, general willingness to participate (Armstrong et al., 1999) did not relate to expressed willingness to participate or continued participation. This is consistent with the findings of Armstrong et al. (1999), that there may be a discrepancy between attitudes concerning research participation and actual participation. Most social scientists agree that attitudes may be strong predictors of behavior if the attitudes are formed as a consequence of direct experience (Regan & Fazio, 1977). It may be the case

that participants in the present study had no experience with research participation. Therefore, attitude toward research participation did not predict behavior.

Previous studies (e.g., Armstrong et al., 1999; Ballard et al., 1993; Gorelick et al., 1998; Million-Underwood et al., 1993; Stoy et al., 1995; Vernon et al., 1984) on race and participation rates show that White Americans participate more often than African Americans. In addition, studies on the recruitment and retention of older adults (e.g., Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Ballard et al., 1993; Carter et al., 1991; Groves, 1989) suggest that they are less likely to participate in research. Results from the present study indicated no interaction between age and race such that older African Americans were equally as likely to continue participating as young White Americans. Perhaps a sample with more elderly adults might have yielded a different outcome. Studies that suggest that older adults participate less (e.g., Arean & Gallagher-Thompson) usually refer to individuals over the age of 55. Although the oldest participant of the present study was 77 years old, the majority of the participants were under the age of 50. In addition, older individuals in the sample were more educated with higher incomes. Based on previous literature (e.g., Arean & Gallagher-Thompson, 1996; Ballard et al., 1993; Spurlock, 1988), education and income levels increase the chances that an individual will participate. Although previous findings (e.g., Parker & McDonough, 1999) on sociopolitical control and race indicate that African Americans have feelings of powerlessness to promote societal change and therefore participate less, the hypothesis that African Americans with higher sociopolitical control would complete the follow-up study was not supported. While, sociopolitical control was positively related to continued participation in bivariate analysis but did not predict continued participation in

multivariate analysis. One explanation is that mediation is present (Darlington, 1990). However, a mediating effect was not found. Another explanation might be that feelings to promote change in societal issues simply has less to do with research participation and more to do with political activity (i.e., voting).

Finally, test for predicted mediations were not significant: a) race and continued participation was not mediated by discrimination, b) discrimination and continued participation was not mediated by mistrust, and c) race and continued participation was not mediated by ethnic identity development. None of the predicted mediators were significant because race was not directly related to participation. In other words, there was no difference between African Americans and White Americans in completing the follow-up study. One explanation might be the low-ball approach (Cialdini & Trost, 1998) that suggests that once people commit themselves to do something, they feel obligated to follow through. It is possible that participants in the present study wanted to be consistent in their words and deeds.

#### Other Findings

One curious and unexpected finding involves stressful discrimination. Because racism is ingrained in the U. S. American society, it was expected that African Americans have more experiences of discrimination than White Americans. Unexpectedly, there was no difference between African Americans and White Americans for lifetime discrimination and stressful discrimination, although the reasons for discrimination differed. The majority of African Americans reported that discriminatory experiences were due to racial prejudice. Unlike African Americans, White Americans experienced discrimination for reasons related to individual differences, and in some cases, prejudice

due to stereotypes. White Americans indicated that discrimination was the result of gender, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, disability, religion, weight, and geographical residence. More research is needed on how discriminatory experiences affect White Americans.

Interestingly, stressful discrimination predicted research participation. Individuals who experienced more stressful discrimination were more likely to express the intention to participate and actually participate. There may be several reasons for this. First, it is possible that there is another variable mediating the relation between stressful discrimination and expressed willingness to participate. However, there were no other study variables that qualified as mediators based on Kenny and Baron (1986). Second, the path analysis revealed that race was indirectly related to stressful discrimination via ethnic identity. That is, African Americans who strongly identify with their ethnic group are more likely to experience stressful discrimination and in turn participate in research. It may be the case that because of well-developed ethnic identity (i.e., having increased ingroup orientation and outgroup orientation), those African Americans that have experienced stressful discrimination are able to cope with these situations. In addition, because stressful discrimination was also related to age, it is likely that these individuals are older African Americans who may have learned strategies over time to handle discriminatory experiences and therefore, have no difficulty with the mainstream population including institutions that conduct research.

#### Major Goals

There were three major goals of the present study. First, one goal was to obtain support for the African American Participation Model and to provide a better

understanding of the differences between White Americans and African Americans regarding the decision to participate. Although African Americans and Whites did not differ in their decision to participate, information on the role of developmental factors, surface barriers and deep barriers was obtained along with information on age. Second, another goal was to determine whether a discrepancy exists between expressed willingness to participate and continued participation. Although previous studies have investigated expressed willingness to participate (e.g., Armstrong et al., 1999; Million-Underwood et al., 1993), research on whether expressed willingness to participate predicts actual research participation is lacking. Results revealed that regardless of race, individuals expressing the intention to participate, usually do. Third, because the majority of studies investigated research participation utilizing a qualitative methodology (e.g., Armstrong et al., 1999; Gorelick, Harris, Burnett, & Bonecutter, 1998), the final goal of this study was to utilize a quantitative methodology to provide more information on identifying the factors that influence participation rates. While qualitative research is concerned with the process, quantitative research is concerned with the outcome (Creswell, 1990). The present study utilized a survey method in which participants responded to self-report measures. As a result, a numeric description of the population was provided and relations between variables were established. This is important for the generalizability of findings.

### Conclusion

Identifying processes through which the developmental environment (i.e., developmental factors), deep barriers, and surface barriers contribute to the decision to participate has just begun to scratch the surface. Specifying a model of participation may

help target those individuals who are difficult to recruit and retain in research to promote a representative sample. Preliminary as they are, the current data suggest that managing time has a direct effect on participation. Moreover, increasing benefits, providing an environment that enhances trust, and obtaining agreement for continued participation in longitudinal studies may increase research participation.

Based on the information obtained from this study, the following may assist in recruitment and retention of participants. First, because time availability emerged as an important predictor of participation, researchers need to take into consideration the method for data collection. If possible, keep the length of time the participant needs to be available at a minimum. Also, researchers should be flexible in the hours for data collection. Second, when working with difficult to recruit populations (e.g., rural populations), make participants aware of the benefits of research (e.g., compensate participants for time by offering monetary benefits). Third, regardless of race, researchers should earn the trust of participants. Without giving away the hypotheses, participants should be informed of why the study is being conducted. In addition, researchers should get to know potential participants and become familiar with the area of interest by establishing a good rapport with local agencies, organizations, and churches. Ethnic matching is also important in earning trust. For example, if attempting to recruit African Americans, then having African American researchers as part of the project might be important. Finally, when conducting longitudinal studies, have participants verbally agree to continue to participate in the study.

Because our society is becoming more diverse, the need to include representative samples in research is apparent. Without sufficient numbers of all racial ethnic groups,

generalizability of results is limited. Therefore, factors that impact research participation among various populations for example, African Americans, is a recent interest of scientific community (Icard, Zamora-Hernandez, Spencer, & Catalano, 1996; NIH Outreach Notebook on the Inclusion of Women and Minorities, 1994; Stoy et al., 1995) including the identification of specific predictors of participation. The African American Participation Model was proposed in an attempt to provide a mechanism for including the substantial developmental factors that may contribute to the under representation dilemma. The emphasis of the model is on developmental factors and deep barriers that are related to participation. Still, it is necessary to understand and find ways to remedy both surface barriers and deep barriers in order to solve the problem of under representation. Although this study provided some information on recruitment and possibly retention, more studies are needed. Therefore, as a group, social scientists must continue to develop research in this area, so that accurate, precise knowledge about research participation can be obtained.

## REFERENCES

- Adams, J. (1992). The mainstream environmental movement. *EPA Journal, 18*(1), 25-27.
- Anderson, L. A., Fogler, J., & Dedrick, R. F. (1995). Recruiting from the community: Lessons learned from the diabetes care for older adults project. *Gerontologist, 35*, 395-401.
- Arean, P. A., & Gallaher-Thompson, D. (1996). Issues and recommendations for the recruitment of older ethnic minority adults into clinical research. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 64*, 875-880.
- Armstrong, T. D., Crum, L. D., Randall, R. H., Bennett, T. A., & Lloyd, E. J. (1999). Attitudes of African Americans toward participation in medical research. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 29*, 552-574.
- Atkinson, D. R. (1983). Ethnic similarity in counseling psychology: A review of research. *The Counseling Psychologist, 11*(3), 79-92.
- Babbie, E. (1990). *Survey research methods*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Belmont CA: Wadsworth.
- Ballard, E. L., Nash, F., Raiford, K., & Harrell, L. E. (1993). Recruitment of Black elderly for clinical research studies of dementia: The CERAD experience. *Gerontologist, 11*, 561-565.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1173-1182.

- Benson, P. L., Earlam, C., & Karabenick, S. A. (1976). Pretty pleases: The effects of physical attractiveness, race, and sex on receiving help. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 12*(5), 409-415.
- Bernard, M. A. (1993). The health status of African American elderly. *Journal of the National Medical Association, 33*, 75-92.
- Biddle, S. J. S., & Bailey, C. I. A. (1985). Motives for participation and attitudes toward physical activity of adult participants in fitness programs. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 61*, 831-834.
- Blaney, P. H. (2000). Stress and depression: A personality-situation interaction approach. In S. L. Johnson (Ed.), *Stress, coping, and depression* (pp. 89-116). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bobo, L., & Gilliam, F. D. (1992). Race, sociopolitical participation and Black empowerment. *American Political Science Review, 84*, 377-393.
- Branscombe, N. R., Schmin, M. T., & Harvey, R. D. (1999). Perceiving pervasive discrimination among African Americans: Implications for group identification and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 77*, 135-149.
- Brawley, O. W., & Tejeda, H. (1995). Minority inclusion in clinical trials: Issues and potential strategies. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute Monographs, 17*, 53-57.
- Broman, C. L. (1997). Race-related factors and life satisfaction among African Americans. *Journal of Black Psychology, 23*, 36-49.

- Broman, C. L., Jackson, J. S., & Neighbors, H. W. (1989). Sociocultural context and racial group identification among black adults. *Revue Internationale de Psychologie Sociale*, 2, 367-378.
- Broman, C. L., Neighbors, H. W., & Jackson, J. S. (1988). Racial group identification among Black adults. *Social Forces*, 67, 146-158.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Burlew, K. A., Banks, C. W., McAdoo, H., & Azibo, D. (Eds.). (1992). *African American psychology: Theory, research, and practice*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Byrd, D. (2003). *African Americans and Research Participation: A Review of the Literature*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Caldwell, C. H., Zimmerman, M. A., Bernat, D. H., Sellers, R. M., & Notaro, P. C. (2002). Racial identity, maternal support, and psychological distress among African American adolescents. *Child Development*, 73(4) 1322-1336.
- Carter, R. T. (1997). Is White a race? Expressions of White racial identity . In M. Fine, L. Weis, L. C. Powell, & M. Wong (Eds.), *Off White: Readings on Race, Power, and Society* (pp.198-209). New York: Routledge.
- Carter, W. B., Elward, K., Malmgren, J., Martin, M. L., & Larsen, E. (1991). Participation of older adults in health programs and research: A critical review of the literature. *The Gerontologist*, 31, 584-592.

- Caughy, M. O., O'Campo, P. J., Randolph, S. M., & Nickerson, K. (2002). The influence of racial socialization practices on the cognitive and behavioral competence of African American preschoolers. *Child Development, 73*(5), 1611-1625.
- Chatters, L. M. (1991). Physical health. In J. S. Jackson (Ed.), *Life in Black America*, (pp. 199-219). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Cialdini, R. B., & Trost, M. (1998). Social influence: Social norms, conformity, and compliance. In D. Gilbert, S. T. Fiske, and G. Lindzey (Eds.), *Handbook of social psychology*, Vol 2 (4<sup>th</sup> ed., pp. 151-192). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.
- Collins, P. H. (1990). *Black feminist thought: Knowledge, consciousness, and the politics of empowerment*. Boston, MA: Unwin Hyman Inc.
- Cross, W. E. (1994). Nigrescence theory: Historical and explanatory notes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 44*, 110-123.
- Cross, W. E., Bazron, B. J., Dennis, K. W., & Isaacs, M. R. (1989). *Towards a culturally competent system of care*. Washington, DC: Child and adolescent Service System Program Technical Assistance Center, Georgetown University Child Development Center.
- Cross, W. E., Parham, T. A., & Helms, J. E. (1998). Nigrescence revisited: Theory and research. In R. L. Jones (Ed.), *African American identity development: Theory, research, and intervention*. Hampton, VA: Cobb & Henry.
- Crown, D. P. & Marlowe, D. (1964). *The approval motive: Studies in evaluative dependence*. New York: Wiley.

- Darlington, R. B. (1990). *Regression and linear models*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Davis, R. A. (1997). *The myth of Black ethnicity: Monophylety, diversity, and the dilemma of identity*. Greenwich Connecticut: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Demi, A. S., & Warren, N. A. (1995). Issues in conducting research with vulnerable families. *Western Journal of Nursing Research, 17*(2), 188-202.
- Detogatis, L. R., Lipman, R. S., Rickles, K., Uhlenhuth, E., & Covi, L. (1994). The Hopkins Symptom Checklist: A self-report symptom inventory. *Behavioral Science, 19*, 1-15.
- Dixon, V. J., & Foster, B. G. (1971). *Beyond Black or White: An alternate America*. Boston MA: Little Brown.
- Dodge, J. A., Clark, N. M., Janz, N. K., Liang, J., & Schork, M. A. (1993). Nonparticipation of older adults in a heart disease self-management project. *Research on Aging, 15*, 220-237.
- Dresser, R. (1992). Wanted single, white male for research. *Hastings Central Republic, 22*, 24-29.
- Eaves, Y. D. (1999). Family recruitment issues and strategies: Caregiving in rural African Americans. *Nursing Research, 48*, 183-187.
- Erikson, E. H. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. New York: W.W. Norton.
- Fowler, F. J. (1988). *Survey research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Freimuth, V. S., Quinn, S. C., Thomas, S. B., Cole, G., Zook, E., & Duncan, T. (2001). African Americans' views on research and the Tuskegee Syphilis Study. *Social Science and Medicine, 52*, 797-808.

- Fulton-Picot, S. J., Samonte, J., Tierney, J. A., Connor, J., Powell, L. L. (2001). Effective sampling of rare population elements: Black female caregivers and noncaregivers. *Research on Aging, 23*, 694-712.
- Gaertner, S. L., & Bickman, L. (1971). Effects of race on the elicitation of helping behavior: The wrong number technique. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 20*(2), 218-222.
- Gaertner, S. L., & Dovidio, J. E. (1977). The subtlety of White racism, arousal and helping behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35*(10), 697-707.
- Galtung, J. (1967). *Theory and methods of social research*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Gamson, W. A. (1968). *Power and discontent*. Homewood, Ill: Dorsey.
- Gibson, R. C. (1991). Age-by-race differences in the health and functioning of elderly persons. *Journal of Aging & Health, 3*, 335-351.
- Gooley, R. L. (1992). African American communities: A significant part of the whole. *The Western Journal of Black Studies, 16*(3), 113-122.
- Gorelick, P. B., Harris, Y., Burnett, B., & Bonecutter, F. J. (1998). The recruitment triangle: reasons why African Americans enroll, refuse to enroll, or voluntarily withdraw from clinical trials: An interim report from the African American antiplatelet stroke prevention study (AAASPS). *Journal of the National Medical Association, 90*, 141-145.

- Graham, S. (1992). Most of the subjects were White and middle class: Trends in published research on African Americans in selected APA journals, 1970-1989. *American Psychologist, 47*, 629-639.
- Groves, R. M. (1989). *Survey errors and survey costs*. New York: Wiley.
- Gur, R. C., & Sackeim, H. (1979). Self-deception: A concept in search of a phenomenon. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37*, 147-169.
- Harrison, A. O., Wilson, M. S., Pine, C. H., Chan, S. Q., & Buriel, R. (1990). Family ecologies of ethnic minority children. *Child Development, 61*, 347-362.
- Harwood, A. (1981). *Ethnicity and medical care*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Hatchett, B. F., Holmes, K., Duran, D. A., & Davis, C. (2000). African Americans and research participation: The recruitment process. *Journal of Black Studies, 30*, 664-675.
- Helms, J. E. (1984). Toward a theoretical explanation of the effects of race on counseling: A Black and White mode. *The Counseling Psychologist, 12*, 153-165.
- Helms, J. E. (1995). An update of Helms's White and people of color racial identity models. In J. G. Ponterotto, J. M. Casas, L. A. , Suuzuki, & C. M. Alexander (Eds.), *Handbook of Multicultural Counseling* (pp. 181-191). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hughes, D., & Chen, L. (1997). When and what parents tell children about race: An examination of race-related socialization among African American families. *Applied Developmental Science, 1*, 200-214.

- Icard, L. D., Samora-Hernandez, C. E., Spencer, M. S., & Catalano, R. (1996).  
 Designing and evaluating strategies to recruit African Americans for AID/HIV  
 interventions: Targeting the African American family. *Ethnicity & Disease, 6*,  
 301-310.
- Jackson, D. N. A. (1970). A sequential system for personality scale development.  
*Current Topics in Clinical Community Psychology, 2*, 61-96.
- Jackson, J., McCullough, W. R., & Gurin, G. (1988). Family, socialization environment  
 and identity development in black Americans. In H. P., McAdoo (Ed.), *Black  
 families* (pp. 242-256). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Jackson, J., McCullough, W. R., Gurin, G., & Broman, C. L. (1991). Race identity. In J.  
 S. Jackson (Ed.), *Life in Black America*, (pp. 238-253). Newbury Park,  
 California: Sage.
- Jeanquart-Barone, S. (1993). Trust differences between supervisors and subordinates  
 examining the role of race and gender. *Sex Roles, 29(1)*, 1-11.
- Jones, J. M. (1991). The politics of personality: Being Black in America. In R. L. Jones  
 (Ed.), *Black Psychology*, (pp. 305-318). Berkeley, CA: Cobb & Henry.
- Katz, I., Cohen, S., & Glass, D. (1975). *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*,  
*32(6)*, 964-970.
- Kaye, J. M., Powell L., & Kaye, D. (1990). Attitudes of elderly people about clinical  
 research on aging. *The Gerontologist, 30*, 100-106.
- Keefe, S. E. (1982). Help-seeking behavior among foreign-born and native-born  
 Mexican Americans. *Social Science and Medicine, 16*, 1467-1472.

- Landrine, H., & Klonoff, E. A. (1994). The African American Acculturation Scale: Development, reliability, and validity. *Journal of Black Psychology, 20*, 104-127.
- Landrine, H., & Klonoff, E. A. (1996). The schedule of racist events: A measure of racial discrimination and a study of its negative physical and mental health consequences. *Journal of Black Psychology, 22*, 144-168.
- Lawson, W. B. (1986). Racial and ethnic factors in psychiatric research. *Hospital and Community Psychiatry, 37*, 50-54.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York: Springer.
- Levkoff, S. E., Levy, B. R., & Weitzman, P. F. (2000). The Matching Model of Recruitment. *Journal of Mental Health & Aging, 6*, 29-38.
- Lipscomb, L. (1975). *Socialization factors in the development of black children's racial self-esteem*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Association. San Francisco.
- Lukoff, D., Lu, F., & Turner, R. (1992). Toward a more culturally sensitive DSM-IV: Psychoreligious and psychospiritual problems. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 180*, 673-682.
- Mazure, C. M. (1998). Life stressors as risk factors in depression. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice, 5*, 291-313.
- McAdoo, H. P. (2002). The village talks: Racial socialization of our children. In H. P. McAdoo (Ed.), *Black children: Social educational, and parental environments (3rd ed)* (pp. 47-55). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- McCullough, W. R., Gurin, G., & Jackson, J. S. (1981). *Racial identity and consciousness: The socialization of ingroup and outgroup orientations*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association. Los Angeles, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 212 687.)
- McIntosh, P. (1989, July/August). White privilege: Unpacking the invisible knapsack. *Peace and Freedom*, pp. 8-10.
- McNeilly, M., Musich, M., Efland, J. R., Baughman, J. T., Toth, P. S., Saulter, T. D., Sumner, L., et al. (2000). Minority populations and psychophysiological research challenges in trust building and recruitment. *Journal of Mental Health and Aging*, 6, 91-101.
- Meinhardt, K., & Vega, W. (1987). A method for estimating underutilization of mental health services by ethnic groups. *Hospital and Community Psychiatry*, 38, 1186-1190.
- Miller, F. S. (1992). Network structure support: Its relationship to the psychosocial development of Black females. In K. A. Burlew, C. W. Banks, H. McAdoo, & D. Azibo, (Eds.), *African American psychology: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 105-126). Newbury Park, CA.: Sage Publications.
- Million-Underwood, S., Sanders, E., & Davis, M. (1993). Determinants of participation in state-of-the-art cancer prevention, early detection/screening, and treatment trials among African Americans. *Cancer Nursing*, 161, 25-33.
- Miranda, J. (1996). Introduction to the special section on recruiting and retaining minorities in psychotherapy research. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 64, 848-850.

- Miranda, J., Azocar, F., Organista, K. C., Munoz, R. F., & Lieberman, A. (1996). Recruiting and retaining low-income Latinos in psychotherapy research. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 64*(5), 868-874.
- Mobily, K. E. (1982). Motivational aspects of exercise for the elderly: Barriers and solutions. *Physical and Occupational Therapy in Geriatrics, 1*(4), 43-54.
- Munford, M. B. (1994). Relationship of gender, self-esteem, social class, and racial identity to depression in blacks. *Journal of Black Psychology, 20*, 157-174.
- Napoles-Springer, A. M., Grumbach, K., Alexander, M., Moreno-John, G., Forte, D., Hudson, S., Leventhal, H., Contrada, R., Leventhal, E. A., & Brownlee, S. (2000). Predicting retention for older African Americans in a community study and a clinical study: Does anything work? *Journal of Mental Health & Aging, 6*, 67-78.
- Neal, A. M., & Turner, S. M. (1991). Anxiety disorders research with African Americans: Current status. *Psychological Bulletin, 109*, 400-410.
- Neighbors, H. W., Bashur, R., Selig, S., Donabalian, A., & Shannon, G. (1992). Ethnic minority mental health service delivery: A review of the literature. *Research in Community and Mental Health, 7*, 55-71.
- Nieburg, H. L. (1969). *Political violence: The behavioral process*. New York: St Martin's Press.
- NIH guidelines on the inclusion of women and minorities as subjects in clinical research. (1994). *Federal Register, 59*, 14508-14513.

- Norton, I. M., & Manson, S. M. (1996). Research in American Indian and Alaska Native communities: Navigating the cultural universe of values and process. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 64*(5), 856-860.
- O'Neil, M. J., (1979). Estimating the nonresponse bias due to refusals in telephone surveys. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 43*, 218-232.
- Ory, M. G., Lipman, P. D., Barr, R., Harden, J. T., & Stahl, S. M. (2000). A national program to enhance research on minority aging and health promotion. *Journal of Mental Health and Aging, 6*, 9-18.
- Outlaw, F. H. (1993). Stress and coping: The influence of racism on the cognitive appraisal processing of African Americans. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing: Special Issue, Socially Vulnerable Populations, 14*, 399-409.
- Parker, J. D., & McDonough, M. H. (1999). Environmentalism of African Americans: An analysis of the subculture and barriers theories. *Environment & Behavior, 31*, 155-178.
- Patrick, J. H., Pruchno, R. A., & Rose, M. S. (1998). Recruiting research participants: A comparison of the costs and effectiveness of five recruitment strategies. *Gerontologist, 38*, 295-302.
- Paulhus, D. L. (1983). Sphere-specific measures of perceived control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 44*, (6) 1253-1265.
- Paulhus, D. L., & Christie R. (1981). Spheres of control: An interactionist approach to assessment of perceived control. In H. M. Lefcourt (Ed.), *Research with the locus of control* (Vol. 1). New York: Academic Press.

- Peters, M. (1978). Psychosocial determinants of depression among Blacks. *Transnational Mental Health Research Newsletter*, 20, 5-9.
- Peters, M. F. (1985). Racial socialization of young children Black children. In H. P. McAdoo & J. L. McAdoo (Eds.), *Black children* (pp. 159-173). Newbury, CA: Sage.
- Peters, M. F. (2002). Racial socialization of young black children. In H. P. McAdoo (Ed.), *Black children: Social educational, and parental environments (3rd ed)* (pp. 57-72). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Peterson, A. N., Hamme, C. L., & Speer, P. W. (2002). Cognitive empowerment of African Americans and Caucasians: Differences in understandings of power, political functioning, and shaping ideology. *Journal of Black Studies*, 32, 336-351.
- Phinney, J. S. (1992). The Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure: A new scale for use with diverse groups. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 7, 156-176.
- Phoenix, A. (1997). "I'm White! So what?" The construction of Whiteness for young Londoners. In M. Fine, L. Weis, L. C. Powell, & M. Wong (Eds.), *Off White: Readings on Race, Power, and Society* (pp.187-197). New York: Routledge.
- Picot, S. J., Stuckey, J. C., Smyth, K. A., & Whitehouse, P. J. (1996). Cultural assessments and the recruitment and retention of African Americans into Alzheimer's disease research. *Journal of Aging and Ethnicity*, 1(1), 5-18.
- Piliavin, I. M., Rodin, J., & Piliavin, J. A. (1969). Good Samaritanism: An underground phenomenon? *Journal of Personality and Social Personality*, 13(4), 289-299.

- Potashnik, S., Myers, J., & Pruchno, R. (1990, November). *Recruiting research respondents: Innovative strategies*. Paper presented at the Annual Scientific Meeting of the Gerontological Society of America. Boston, MA.
- Ray, W. J. (2006). *Methods toward a science of behavior and experience* (8<sup>th</sup> ed.). Monterey, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Regan, D. T., & Fazio, R. (1977). *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 13(1), 28-45.
- Robertson, N. L. (1994). Clinical trial participation: Viewpoints from racial/ethnic groups. *Cancer*, 74, 2687-2691.
- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, 80(1), (whole number 609).
- Sanders Thompson, V. L. (1999). Variables affecting racial identity salience among African Americans. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 139(6), 748-761.
- Schuman, H., & Hatchett, S. (1974). *Black racial attitudes: Trends and complexities*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Survey Research Center.
- Shaffer, D. R. (1994). *Social & personality development* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Shaffer, D. R., & Williamson, G. M. (in press). Age and cognitive functioning. In *Cambridge handbook of psychology, health and medicine* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.).
- Shavers-Hornaday, V. L., & Lynch, C. F. (1997). Why are African Americans under-represented in medical research studies? Impediments to participation. *Ethnicity & Health*, 2, 31-46.

- Siantz, d. L., M. L. (1997). Factors that impact the developmental outcome of immigrant children. In A. Booth, & A. C. Crouter (Eds.), *Immigration and the family: Research and policy on U.S. immigration* (pp.149-161). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Sinclair, S., Hayes-Reams, P., Myers, H. F., Allen, W., Hawes-Dawson, J., & Kington, R. (2000). Recruiting African Americans for health studies: Lessons from the Drew-RAND center on health and aging. *Journal of Mental Health & Aging, 6*, 39-51.
- Snowden, L. (1993). Emerging trends in organizing and financing human services: Unexamined consequences for ethnic minority populations. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 21*, 1-13.
- Spencer, M. B., & Markstrom-Adams, C. (1990). Identity processes among racial and ethnic minority children in America. *Child Development, 61*, 290-310.
- Spurlock, J. (1988, April 18-19). Needed research in treatment. In A. O. Harrison, J. S. Jackson, C. Munday, & N. B. Bleiden (Eds.), *A search for understanding: The Michigan Research Conference on Mental Health Services for Black Americans*. Detroit, MI: Wayne State University Press.
- Staples, R. (1976). *Introduction to Black sociology*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Steinhart, E. (1991). What can we do about environmental racism? *Audubon, 84(9)*, 18-21.
- Stevenson, H. C. (1994). Validation of the scale or racial socialization for African American adolescents: Steps toward multidimensionality. *Journal of Black Psychology, 20* (4), 445-468.

- Stoy, D. B., Cutis, C. R., Dameworth, K. S., Dowdy, A. A., Hegland, J., Levin, J. A., & Sousoulas, B. G. (1995). The successful recruitment of elderly black subjects in a clinical trial: The CRISP experience. *Journal of the National Medical Association, 87*, 280-287.
- Sudman, S., & Bradburn, N. M. (1986). *Asking questions*. San Francisco: Jossey: Bass.
- Sue, S. (1992). Ethnicity and mental health: Research and policy issues. *Journal of Social Issues, 48* (2), 187-205.
- Sue, D. W., & Sue, D. (1999). *Counseling the culturally different: Theory and practice*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Svensson, C. K. (1989). Representation of American Blacks in clinical trials of new drugs. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 26*, 263-265.
- Terrell, F., & Miller, F. S. (1980). *The development of an inventory to measure experience with racialistic incidents among Blacks*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Terrell, F., & Terrell, S. L. (1981). An inventory to measure cultural mistrust Blacks. *Western Journal of Black Studies, 5*, 180-184,
- Terrell, F. & Terrell, S. L. (1984). Race of counselor, client sex, cultural mistrust level and premature termination from counseling among black clients. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 31*(3), 371-375.
- Thompson, E. E., Neighbors, H. W., Munday, C., & Jackson, J. S. (1996). Recruitment and retention of African American patients for clinical research: An exploration of response rates in an urban psychiatric hospital. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 64*, 861-867.

- Thornberry, O. T., (1987). An experimental comparison of telephone and personal health interview surveys. In vital and health statistics. *National Center for Health Statistics technical series 2, no. 106 (DHS publication no. PHS 87-1380)*. Hyattsville, MD: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.
- U.S. Bureau of the Census. (2002). *Population Characteristics: The Black population in the United States (on-line)*. Available Internet: <http://www.census.gov/prod/2003pubs/p20-541.pdf>.
- Utsey, S. O., & Ponerotto, J. G. (1996). Development and validation of the index of race-related stress. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 43*, 490-501.
- Vernon, S. W., Roberts, R. E., & Lee, E. S. (1984). Ethnic status and participation in longitudinal health surveys. *American Journal of Epidemiology, 119*, 99-113.
- Watkins, C. E., & Terrell, F. (1988). Mistrust level and its effects on counseling expectations in black client-white counselor relationships. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 35*, 194-197.
- Wenger, A. F. (1993). Cultural meaning of symptoms. *Holistic Nursing Practice, 7*(2), 22-35.
- Whitmore, E. (1994). To tell the truth: Working with oppressed groups in participatory approaches to inquiry. In P. Reason (ed.), *Participation in Inquiry*, (pp 82- 98). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- Williams, D. (1995). African Americans mental health: Persisting questions and paradoxical findings. In R. Taylor (ed.), *African American research perspectives* (pp. 8-16). Ann Arbor, MI: Program for research on Black Americans, African Americans Mental Health Research Center, Institute for social research.

- Williams, D. R., & Collins, C. (1995). US socioeconomic and racial differences in health: Patterns and explanations. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *21*, 349-386.
- Williams, D. R., Spencer, M., & Jackson, J. S. (1999). Race, stress, and physical health: The role of group identity. In R. J. Contrada & R. D. Ashmore (Eds.), *Self, social identity, and physical health: Interdisciplinary explorations* (pp. 71 – 100). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Williamson, G. M., & Shaffer, D. R. (in press). Age and cognitive functioning. In *Cambridge handbook of psychology, health and medicine* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.).
- Young, R. R., Edevie, S., Young, J., & Peters, J. (1996). Issues of recruitment and retention in Alzheimer's research among African and White Americans. *Journal of Aging and Ethnicity*, *1*(1), 19-25.

## Appendix A

## RECRUITMENT FLYER



**Graduate Student at the  
University of Georgia is  
seeking  
individuals between the  
ages of 18-90 for  
participation in social  
research project. Call the  
following number for more  
information:**

Diane Byrd: (478) 746-5584

## Appendix B

## CONSENT FORM

I \_\_\_\_\_ agree to participate in the study titled "Research Participation: A Developmental Perspective," which is being conducted by Diane Byrd and supervised by Dr. Gail Williamson, Psychology Department (706) 542-2174. I understand my participation is voluntary. I can stop taking part without giving any reason, and without penalty. I can ask to have all the information about me returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The reason for this study is to provide information about how developmental factors relate to the decision to participate in research.

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to do the following things:

- 1) Answer questions about my ethnic identity, general willingness to participation, discrimination experiences, cultural mistrust, racial socialization experiences, perceived social control, and attitudes toward the aging process which will take between 45-60 minutes.
- 2) Answer questions about my age, marital status, education, income, employment/occupation and neighborhood.
- 3) My information will be kept and I will be asked to participate in a follow-up study where I will be given a 20-minute survey by mail on age related attitudes. However, I can choose not to participate in the follow-up study.
- 4) If I choose to participate in the follow-up study, I will be contacted in 2 weeks.

The benefits for me are that I will become aware of the educational benefits of research participation, have a better understanding of the research process, and have improvement of self-knowledge.

No risk is expected but I may experience some discomfort or stress when answering questions about discrimination and its sources.

No information about me, or provided by me during the research, will be shared with others without my written permission, except if it is necessary to protect my welfare (for example, if I were injured and need physician care) or if required by law. I will be assigned an identifying number and this will be used on all questionnaires I fill out.

The investigator will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project (478-746-5584).

I give my permission that I am agreeing by my signature on this form to take part in this research project and understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form for my records.

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Diane Byrd  
 Telephone: (478) 746-5584  
 Email: dtbyrd@uga.edu

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Name of Participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Date

Please sign both copies, and return one to the researcher. Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D. Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-57411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

## Appendix C

### INSTRUCTIONS: PART ONE

#### *Greeting*

Thank you for taking time to participate in this study. As you may know I am working on my doctoral degree at the University of Georgia and this research is a requirement for receiving my degree. So, I really appreciate your help.

#### *About the Study*

This study is important because it has recently become clear that many research findings do not represent the entire population in the United States. What this means is that for example, medical treatment and the decisions of policy makers may not be right when it comes to what you, your family, and members of your community actually need.

A major problem in fixing this situation is that so many people do not participate in research when they have the opportunity. But we don't know why or how best to convince them to do so. That is what this study is about, how people feel about participating in research.

You are being asked to fill out several questionnaires. It should take about an hour but you should take as much time as you need. Please read each question carefully and answer based on your own experience or feelings. There are no right or wrong answers.

#### *Confidentiality*

I want you to know that all the information on the questionnaires will be kept confidential. This means that your name or any other information you give me will not be made public.

### *Informed Consent and Voluntary Participation*

Before you begin, I need you to read and sign a consent form. This form indicates that you have been told about the study, that you may ask questions about the study, and that you have the right to leave the study at any time if you choose to do so. By signing this form, you are indicating that you agree to participate. I am giving you two copies of the form. Sign both copies. Keep one copy and put the other copy in the large envelope. Take a few minutes and read this form. Again, place one copy of the form inside the large envelope. You will keep the other form.

### *Demographic Information Sheet and Questionnaires*

The first two pages are the information sheets that will provide background information about you. After that there are 9 questionnaires. On the very last page, there is an important question asking you if you would participate in Part 2 of this study. You can choose to do so, or you can choose not to do so. If you choose to do so, please make sure that you answer all questions on this page and provide the necessary information. If any question is not clear or you just don't understand it, please feel free to ask me about it. I will be happy to answer any questions you might have.

### *Finishing the Study*

When you are finish, put everything in the large envelope. Again, I want to thank you for your participation. If you would like information on the results, feel free to contact me. My phone number is on the consent.

## Appendix D

## PART TWO RECRUITMENT

I am interested in gaining more knowledge about your experiences, so a colleague and I will be conducting the second and last part of this study in the following weeks. If you agree to participate, you will be mailed another survey that will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. It will come with a self-addressed, stamped envelope for easy return.

Would you be interested in volunteering for this study? Please check the appropriate blank below.

\_\_\_\_\_ yes

\_\_\_\_\_ no

If you are interested in this study, please provide the following information so that I may contact you:

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Address \_\_\_\_\_

City \_\_\_\_\_ State \_\_\_\_\_

Telephone no. \_\_\_\_\_ Best time to contact you by phone \_\_\_\_\_

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!**



Diane Byrd



Karly Branch

## Appendix E

## DEMOGRAPHIC SHEET

I would like to start by getting some general information about you. Please take a few moments to fill out this sheet. Fill in all answers that apply to you.

**1. What is your age now?** \_\_\_\_\_

**Please enter the number that matches information about you.**

**2. What is your gender?** \_\_\_\_\_

- (1) Male
- (2) Female

**3. How much education have you completed?** \_\_\_\_\_

- (1) Elementary school
- (2) Middle school
- (3) High school
- (4) Technical or vocational training
- (5) Undergraduate college degree
- (6) Masters degree
- (7) Doctorate or Law degree (example, MD, Ph.D)
- (8) Other \_\_\_\_\_

**4. What is your employment status right now?** \_\_\_\_\_

- (1) Housewife/Homemaker
- (2) Full-time employment
- (3) Part-time employment
- (4) Semi-retired
- (5) Retired
- (6) Disabled
- (7) Unemployed but looking for work
- (8) Unemployed but not looking for work
- (9) Other specify \_\_\_\_\_

**5. How would you describe your occupation?** \_\_\_\_\_

- (1) Professional, technical
- (2) Manager or official
- (3) Clerical or sales
- (4) Craftsman or foreperson
- (5) Operative (skilled labor)
- (6) Unskilled service or domestic
- (7) Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

**6. Please enter the number that matches your annual household income before taxes. \_\_\_\_\_**

- (1) Less than \$5,000
- (2) \$5,000 - \$9,999
- (3) \$10,000-\$14,999
- (4) \$16,000-\$19,999
- (5) \$20,000-\$24,999
- (6) \$25,000-\$29,999
- (7) \$30,000-\$34,999
- (8) \$35,000-\$39,999
- (9) \$40,000-\$49,999
- (10) \$50,000-\$59,999
- (11) \$60,000-\$69,999
- (12) \$70,000-\$79,999
- (13) \$80,000-\$89,999
- (14) \$90,000-\$99,999
- (15) \$100,000 or greater

**Please enter the number that matches information about you.**

**7. What is your marital relationship now? \_\_\_\_\_**

- (1) Married
- (2) Living as married
- (3) Widowed
- (4) Divorced
- (5) Separated
- (6) Single, Never married

**8. What is your current transportation condition? \_\_\_\_\_**

- (1) Have a car/truck/bike, and it is reliable
- (2) Have a car/truck/bike, but it is unreliable
- (3) Good public transportation
- (4) Unreliable public transportation
- (5) Reliable source of transportation from another individual
- (6) No transportation
- (7) Difficulty getting to transportation

**9. How much time do you have for participating in research projects? \_\_\_\_\_**

- (1) I have a lot of time free to participate
- (2) I have some time free to participate
- (3) I have little time free to participate
- (4) I have no time free to participate

10. **In your opinion, do you live in an integrated neighborhood?  
An integrated neighborhood is a neighborhood where people of  
different races live, for example, African Americans and White  
Americans.**

**Circle one:    yes        no**

11. **If your neighborhood is integrated, which groups of people live in your  
neighborhood?**
- 

12. **If your neighborhood is integrated, please guess or estimate the  
percentage of each racial or ethnic group to the best of your knowledge  
(for example, 40% African American and 60% Hispanic).**
-

## Appendix F

## LIKLIHOOD OF PARTICIPATION SCALE

Imagine the following situation. Researchers from a nearby University are investigating various aspects of physical and mental health in your community and you have been asked to take part in the study. For each item below, circle the number that best describes your feelings about deciding to participate. *Please note that **participant** refers to a person who takes part in a study.*

**1. The government sometimes exposes participants to agents known to be detrimental to one's health.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**2. Private industry sometimes exposes participants to procedures known to be damaging to one's health.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**3. Research is part of a conspiracy to negatively affect my health.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**4. Research is part of a conspiracy to negatively affect the health of certain groups.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**5. Researchers sometimes hide information from participants prior to their participation.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**6. \*In general, researchers have the good health of the participants in mind.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**7. In general, researchers have little respect for the participants in their research.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**8. Researchers often focus mainly on their own career goals and aspirations.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**9. I would be more likely to participate in a research study if the researcher is a male.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**10. I would be more likely to participate in a research study if the researcher is a female.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**11. I would be more likely to participate in a research study if the researcher is Black.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**12. I would be more likely to participate in a research study if the researcher is White.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**13. \*Enough attention is being paid to curative research (research that seeks to cure diseases that people have).**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**14. \*Enough attention is being paid to preventive research (research that seeks to prevent diseases before they affect people).**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**15. I simply do not have the time to devote to being a participant in a research study.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

*\* Indicates reverse scoring*

## Appendix G

## BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATION

Researchers from a nearby University are investigating various aspects of physical and mental health in your community and you have been asked to take part in the study. For each item below, circle the number that best describes your feelings about deciding to participate.

**1. \*I would participate in the study ONLY if it benefits people of my race or ethnic group.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**2. \*I would participate in the study if it benefits people of all races and ethnic groups.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**3. \*I would participate in the study if the research staff offered to give a presentation or conduct a class on a topic of interest to my community.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**4. \*I would participate in study if I could learn more about my health.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**5. \*I would participate in the study ONLY if it provides some type of payment.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**6. \*I would participate in the study if I could get free medical or psychological treatment during participation.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

\* indicates reverse scoring

## Appendix H

## EMPOWERMENT OF RESEARCH SCALE

Researchers from a nearby University are investigating various aspects of physical and mental health in your community and you have been asked to take part in the study. For each item below, circle the number that best describes your feelings about deciding to participate.

**1. \*I would participate in the study if I could receive information about the results.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**2. \*I would participate in the study if the interviewer were someone who is part of my community.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**3. \*I would participate in the study if I were asked to give my opinion on how the procedure should be conducted.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**4. \*I would participate in the study if I were convinced that the research would not be used against my community.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**5. \*I would participate in the study if I were given information about how the research will be interpreted.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**6. \* I would participate in the study if people in my community should have a say in how the research is conducted.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**7. \* I would participate in the study if the researchers demonstrate their appreciation for my participation.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**8. \* I would participate in the study if I am convinced that the research will not be used against people of my race.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

\* indicates reverse scoring

## Appendix I

## SPHERES OF CONTROL

Circle the number that best describes your feelings. There are no right or wrong answers.

*Personal efficacy scale***1. When I get what I want, it's usually because I work hard for it.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**2. When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**3. \*I prefer games involving luck over games requiring pure skill.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**4. I can learn almost anything if I set my mind to it.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**5. My major accomplishments are entirely due to my hard work and ability.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**6. \*I usually don't set goals because I have a hard time following through on them.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**7. \*Competition discourages excellence.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**8. \*Often people get ahead just by being lucky.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**9. On any sort of exam or contest, I like to know how well I do compared to everyone else.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**10. \*It's useless to keep working on something that's too difficult for me.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

*Interpersonal control scale***1. \*Even when I'm feeling sure about most things, I still seem to lack the ability to control social situations.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**2. I have no trouble making and keeping friends.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**3. \*I'm not good at steering the course of a conversation that involves other people.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**4. I can usually establish a close personal relationship with someone I find attractive.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**5. When being interviewed, I can usually steer the interviewer toward the topics I want to talk about and away from those I want to avoid.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**6. \*If I need help in carrying off a plan of mine, it's usually difficult to get others to help.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**7. If there's someone I want to meet, I can usually arrange it.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**8. \*I often find it hard to get my point of view across to others.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**9. \*When I try to smooth over a disagreement, I usually make it worse.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**10. I find it easy to play an important part in most group situations.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

*Sociopolitical control scale*

**1. By taking an active part in political and social affairs, we the people can control world events.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**2. The average citizen can influence government decisions.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**3. \*It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**4. \*Bad financial conditions are caused by world events that are beyond our control.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**5. With enough effort, we can wipe out political corruption and political dishonesty.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**6. One of the major reasons we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**7. \*There is nothing we can do to keep the cost of living from going higher.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**8. \*When I look at it carefully, I realize it is impossible to have any really important influence over what big businesses do.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**9. \*I prefer to concentrate my energy on other things rather than on solving the world's problems.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**10. In the long run we, the voters, are responsible for bad government.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

\* indicates reverse scoring

## Appendix J

## SCHEDULE OF RACISTS AND DISCRIMINATORY EVENT

We are interested in your experiences with discrimination (for example, being treated unfairly due to race, gender, religion, or income). For each question, please circle the number that best captures the things that have happened to you.

Use these numbers:

Circle **0** = If this has NEVER happened to you

Circle **1** = If this has happened ONCE IN A WHILE (less than 10% of the time)

Circle **2** = If this has happened SOMETIMES (10% - 25% of the time)

Circle **3** = If this has happened A LOT (26% - 49% of the time)

Circle **4** = If this has happened MOST OF THE TIME (50% - 70% of the time)

Circle **5** = If this has happened ALL OR ALMOST ALL OF THE TIME (more than 70% of the time)

**1. How often have you been treated unfairly by teachers and professors because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?      0   1   2   3   4   5

How often in your entire life?    0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

Never happened to me	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
0	1	2	3	4	5

**2. How often have you been treated unfairly by your employers, bosses, and supervisors because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?      0   1   2   3   4   5

How often in your entire life?    0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

Never happened to me	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
0	1	2	3	4	5

**3. How often have you been treated unfairly by your coworkers, fellow students, and colleagues because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?      0   1   2   3   4   5

How often in your entire life?    0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

Never happened to me	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
0	1	2	3	4	5

**4. How often have you been treated unfairly by people in service jobs (store clerks, waiters, bartenders, bank tellers, and others) because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?      0   1   2   3   4   5  
 How often in your entire life?    0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

<b>Never happened to me</b>	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>Very little</b>	<b>Somewhat</b>	<b>Very much</b>	<b>Extremely</b>
0	1	2	3	4	5

**5. How often have you been treated unfairly by strangers because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?      0   1   2   3   4   5  
 How often in your entire life?    0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

<b>Never happened to me</b>	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>Very little</b>	<b>Somewhat</b>	<b>Very much</b>	<b>Extremely</b>
0	1	2	3	4	5

**6. How often have you been treated unfairly by people in helping jobs (doctors, nurses, psychiatrist, case workers, dentist, school counselors, therapists, social workers, and others) because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?                      0   1   2   3   4   5  
 How often in your entire life?                    0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for this for you?

<b>Never happened to me</b>	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>Very little</b>	<b>Somewhat</b>	<b>Very much</b>	<b>Extremely</b>
0	1	2	3	4	5

**7. How often have you been treated unfairly by neighbors because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?                      0   1   2   3   4   5  
 How often times in your entire life?            0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

<b>Never happened to me</b>	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>Very little</b>	<b>Somewhat</b>	<b>Very much</b>	<b>Extremely</b>
0	1	2	3	4	5

**8. How often have you been treated unfairly by institutions (schools, universities, law firms, the police, the courts, the Department of Social Services, the Unemployment Office, and others) because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?                    0   1   2   3   4   5  
 How often in your entire life?                0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

Never happened to me	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
0	1	2	3	4	5

**9. How often have you been treated unfairly by people you thought were your friends because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?                    0   1   2   3   4   5  
 How often in your entire life?                0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

Never happened to me	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
0	1	2	3	4	5

**10. How often have you been accused or suspected of doing something wrong (such as stealing, cheating, not doing your share of the work, or breaking the law) because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?                    0   1   2   3   4   5  
 How often in your entire life?                0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

Never happened to me	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
0	1	2	3	4	5

**11. How often have people misunderstood your intentions and motives because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?                    0   1   2   3   4   5  
 How often in your entire life?                0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

Never happened to me	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
0	1	2	3	4	5



**16. How often have you gotten into an argument or a fight about something discriminating that was done to you or done to somebody else?**

How often in the past year?    0   1   2   3   4   5  
 How often in your entire life?   0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

<b>Never happened to me</b>	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>Very little</b>	<b>Somewhat</b>	<b>Very much</b>	<b>Extremely</b>
0	1	2	3	4	5

**17. How often have you been made fun of, picked on, pushed, shoved, hit, or threatened with harm because of prejudice or discrimination?**

How often in the past year?    0   1   2   3   4   5  
 How often in your entire life?   0   1   2   3   4   5

How stressful was this for you?

<b>Never happened to me</b>	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>Very little</b>	<b>Somewhat</b>	<b>Very much</b>	<b>Extremely</b>
0	1	2	3	4	5

**CIRCLE the letter that best describes your experiences with discrimination.**

**18. The discrimination I have experienced during my *LIFE TIME* was primarily due to:**

- a. race
- b. gender
- c. other: Explain

d. \_\_\_\_\_  
 experienced no discrimination

**19. The discrimination I have experienced in the past *YEAR* was primarily due to:**

- a. race
- b. gender
- c. religion
- d. income (social standing)
- e. other: Explain

f. \_\_\_\_\_  
 experienced no discrimination

## Appendix K

## The MULTIETHNIC IDENTITY MEASURE

In this country, people come from a lot of different cultures and there are many ways to describe differences in backgrounds or ethnic groups. Some examples are Mexican-American, Hispanic, African American, Asian American, Native American, Anglo American, and White. Every person is born into at least one ethnic group but people differ in how important their ethnicity is to them, how they feel about it, and how much their behavior is affected by it. These questions are about your ethnicity or your ethnic group and how you feel about it or react to it.

Circle the number that indicates how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

**1. I have spent time trying to find out more about my own ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**2. The organizations or social groups that I am active in include mostly members of my own ethnic group.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**3. I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means to me.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**4. I like meeting and getting to know people from ethnic groups other than my own.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**5. I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic membership.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**6. I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**7. I sometimes feel it would be better if different ethnic groups didn't try to mix together.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**8. \*I am not very clear about the role of my ethnicity in my life.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**9. I often spend time with people from ethnic groups other than my own.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**10. \*I really have not spent much time trying to learn more about the culture and history of my ethnic group.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**11. I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**12. I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means in terms of how I relate to my own group and other groups.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**13. In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic group.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**14. I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group and its accomplishments.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**15. \*I don't try to become friends with people from other ethnic groups.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**16. I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**17. I am involved in activities with people from other ethnic groups.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**18. I feel a strong attachment toward my own ethnic group.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**19. I enjoy being around people from ethnic groups other than my own.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**20. I feel good about my cultural and ethnic background.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	disagree	strongly disagree

**Enter the number that best describes your ethnicity. If you have more than one ethnicity, choose the one that is most important to you:**

**21. Your ethnicity** \_\_\_\_\_

- (1) Asian, Asian American, or Oriental
- (2) Black or African American
- (3) Hispanic, Latino, or Mexican American
- (4) White, Caucasian, European, not Hispanic
- (5) American Indian, Native American
- (6) Mixed (your parents are from two different groups)
- (7) Other (write in): \_\_\_\_\_

**22. Your father's ethnicity (use numbers above)** \_\_\_\_\_

**23. Your mother's ethnicity (use numbers above)** \_\_\_\_\_

\* indicates reverse scoring

## Appendix L

## CULTURAL MISTRUST INVENTORY (FOR AFRICAN AMERICANS)

Read each statement carefully and give your honest feelings about your beliefs and attitudes. Indicate the extent to which you agree by circling one number for each statement. There are no right or wrong answers. If you are in doubt, circle the number that most matches your feelings.

**1. \*Whites are usually fair to all people regardless of race.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**2. White teachers teach subjects so that they favor Whites.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**3. White teachers are more likely to slant the subject to make Blacks look inferior.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**4. White teachers deliberately ask Black students questions that are difficult so they will fail.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**5. \*Black citizens can rely on White lawyers to defend them to the best of their ability.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**6. Black parents should teach their children not to trust White teachers.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**7. White politicians will promise Blacks a lot but deliver little.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**8. White politicians will slant a story to make Blacks appear guilty.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**9. \*White politicians usually can be relied on to keep the promises they make to Blacks.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**10. Blacks should be suspicious of a White person who tries to be friendly.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**11. \*Whether you trust a person or not is not based on his or her race.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**12. Probably the biggest reason Whites want to be friendly with Blacks is so that they can take advantage of them.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**13. \*A Black person can usually trust his or her White co-workers.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**14. If a White person is honest in dealing with Blacks, it is because of fear of being caught.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**15. A Black person cannot trust a White judge to evaluate him or her fairly.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**\*16. A Black person can feel comfortable making a deal with a White person simply by a handshake.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**17. Whites deliberately pass laws designed to block the progress of Blacks.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**18. \*There are some Whites who are trustworthy enough to have as close friends.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**19. Blacks should not have anything to do with Whites since they cannot be trusted.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**20. It is best for Blacks to be on their guard when among Whites.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**21. \*White friends are least likely to break their promises.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**22. Blacks should be cautious about what they are saying in the presence of Whites since Whites will try to use it against them.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**23. Whites can rarely be counted on to do what they say.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**24. \*Whites are usually honest with Blacks.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**25. \*Whites are as trustworthy as members of any other ethnic group.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**26. Whites will say one thing and do another.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**27. White politicians will take advantage of Blacks every chance they get.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**28. When a White teacher asks a Black student a question, it is usually to get information that can be used against him or her.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**29. \*White policemen can be relied on to exert an effort to apprehend those who commit crimes against Blacks.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**30. \*Black students can talk to a White teacher in confidence without fear that the teacher will use it against him or her later.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**31. \*Whites will usually keep their word.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**32. \*White policemen usually do not try to trick Blacks into admitting they committed a crime when they didn't.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**33. \*There is no need for Blacks to be more cautious with White businessmen than with anyone else.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**34. \*There are some White businessmen who are honest in business transactions with Blacks.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**35. White storeowners, salesmen, and other White businesses tend to cheat Blacks whenever they can.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**36. Whites who establish businesses in Black communities do so only to take advantage of Blacks.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**37. Blacks have often been deceived by White politicians.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**38. \*White politicians are equally honest with Blacks and Whites.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**39. Blacks should not confide to Whites because they will use it against them.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**40. \*A Black person can loan money to a White person and feel confident it will be repaid.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**41. \*White businessmen usually will not try to cheat Blacks.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**42. White business executives will steal the ideas of their Black employees.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**43. Blacks should be suspicious of advice given by White politicians.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**44. \*If a Black student tries, he will get the grade he deserves from a White teacher.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

\* indicates reverse scoring

## Appendix M

## CULTURAL MISTRUST INVENTORY (FOR WHITE AMERICANS)

Read each statement carefully and give your honest feeling about the beliefs and attitudes you have. Indicate the extent to which you agree by circling the number that applies. There are no right or wrong answers. If you are in doubt, circle the number that most matches your feelings.

**1. \*Blacks are usually fair to all people regardless of race.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**2. Black teachers teach subjects so that they favor Blacks.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**3. Black teachers are more likely to slant the subject to make Whites look inferior.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**4. Black teachers deliberately ask White students questions that are difficult so they will fail.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**5. \*White citizens can rely on Black lawyers to defend them to the best of their ability.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**6. White parents should teach their children not to trust Black teachers.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**7. Black politicians will promise Whites a lot but deliver little.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**8. Black politicians will slant a story to make Whites appear guilty.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**9. \*Black politicians usually can be relied on to keep the promises they make to Whites.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**10. Whites should be suspicious of a Black person who tries to be friendly.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**11. \*Whether you trust a person or not is not based on his or her race.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**12. Probably the biggest reason Blacks want to be friendly with Whites is so that they can take advantage of them.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**13. \*A White person can usually trust his or her Black co-workers.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**14. If a Black person is honest in dealing with Whites, it is because of fear of being caught.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**15. A White person cannot trust a Black judge to evaluate him or her fairly.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**16. \*A White person can feel comfortable making a deal with a Black person simply by a handshake.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**17. Blacks deliberately pass laws designed to block the progress of Whites.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**18. \*There are some Blacks who are trustworthy enough to have as close friends.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**19. Whites should not have anything to do with Blacks since they cannot be trusted.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**20. It is best for Whites to be on their guard when among Blacks.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**21. \*Black friends are least likely to break their promises.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**22. Whites should be cautious about what they are saying in the presence of Blacks since Blacks will try to use it against them.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**23. Blacks can rarely be counted on to do what they say.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**24. \*Blacks are usually honest with Whites.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**25. \*Blacks are as trustworthy as members of any other ethnic group.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**26. Blacks will say one thing and do another.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**27. Black politicians will take advantage of Whites every chance they get.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**28. When a Black teacher asks a White student a question, it is usually to get information that can be used against him or her.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**29. \*Black policemen can be relied on to exert an effort to apprehend those who commit crimes against Whites.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**30. \*White students can talk to a Black teacher in confidence without fear that the teacher will use it against him or her later.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**31. \*Blacks will usually keep their word.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**32. \*Black policemen usually do not try to trick Whites into admitting they committed a crime when they didn't.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**33. \*There is no need for Whites to be more cautious with Black businessmen than with anyone else.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**34. \*There are some Black businessmen who are honest in business transactions with Whites.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**35. Black storeowners, salesmen, and other Black businesses tend to cheat Whites whenever they can.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**36. Blacks who establish businesses in White communities do so only to take advantage of Whites.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**37. Whites have often been deceived by Black politicians.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**38. \*Black politicians are equally honest with Whites and Blacks.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**39. Whites should not confide to Blacks because they will use it against them.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**40. \*A White person can loan money to a Black person and feel confident it will be repaid.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**41. \*Black businessmen usually will not try to cheat Whites.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**42. Black business executives will steal the ideas of their White employees.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**43. Whites should be suspicious of advice given by Black politicians.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**44. \*If a White student tries, he will get the grade he deserves from a Black teacher.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

\* indicates reverse scoring

## Appendix N

## SCALE OF RACIAL SOCIALIZATION

Please circle the number that BEST describes how you feel.

*Cultural Pride Reinforcement***1. Schools should NOT be required to teach all children about Black history.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**2. \*Teachers should make it so that Black children can see signs of Black culture in the classroom.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**3. \*Parents can teach children to be proud to be Black without saying a word.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**4. Teaching children about Black history will NOT help them to survive a hostile world.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**5. \*Black parents should talk about their roots to African Culture with their children.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**6. \*Families of Black children should teach them to be proud to be Black.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

*Racial Awareness and Teaching***7. Black parents should NOT teach their children about racism.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**8. Whites think of Blacks as lazy or aggressive people today just like they believed 30 or more years ago.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**9. Our society is NOT fair toward Black people.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**10. \*Black children should feel good about being Black in a school with mostly White children.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**11. \*A Black child or teenager will not be harassed simply because he or she is Black.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**12. My family taught me very little about racism in America.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**13. \*Children should be taught that all races are equal.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

*Racial Barriers and Oppression*

**14. If Black parents teach their children that Blacks have fewer opportunities than Whites, it can help them to survive racism and be successful.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**15. More job opportunities would be open to African Americans if people were not racist.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**16. Black parents should not teach their children to speak their mind because they could be attacked by others in society.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**17. \*Whites do not have more opportunities than Blacks.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**18. Racism and discrimination is the hardest thing a Black child has to face.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**19. No matter what Black people do, they will never get ahead.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

**20. \*Blacks can make a difference in the American society.**

1	2	3	4	5
strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree or disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree

\* indicates reverse scoring

## Appendix O

## PHONE CONTACT ABOUT PART TWO MEASURES

Good Morning (or Good Afternoon:)

This is Diane Byrd. First, let me thank you for participating in my study. You indicated that you would be interested in participating in part 2. I am calling to let you know that the Part 2 questionnaire will be mailed to you shortly. If you have any questions, please feel free to call me or Karly Branch. My number is (tell them my telephone number again). Karly's number will be on the consent form being mailed to you. We are asking that you send the questionnaire packet back in the stamped, self-addressed envelope within about two weeks; the due date will be indicated in the instructions. Do you have any questions that I can answer now? Again, I want to thank you for your participation. Have a nice day.

## Appendix P

## INSTRUCTIONS: PART TWO

Dear Participant,

**Thank you so much** for taking your time to participate in this study. I am a graduate student in the Life-Span Developmental Psychology program at the University of Georgia, and I am very close to completing my Master's degree requirements. Your participation counts toward my Master's thesis, and I cannot express enough gratitude to you for your invaluable help.

**What to expect:**

Inside this packet is a survey, two consent forms, and a self-addressed, stamped envelope (SASE).

**The consent form** briefly explains the point of the study and your rights and protection as a participant in a research project. Please sign and return one copy of the consent form in the SASE. The second copy is yours to keep.

**The survey** will take you approximately 25-30 minutes to complete. Please try to complete it in one session if possible (two at most). Please do not put your name anywhere on the survey. To maintain confidentiality, the survey is pre-marked with a participant ID number. Once the completed survey is returned, the survey and the consent form will immediately be separated and your survey will not contain any personal identification. Please use a pencil and follow the directions given for each set of questions. Most of these questions are meant to be answered quickly and honestly, based on your initial reaction (gut response). Please do not skip any questions or leave any blank. Make sure that your responses are clear and legible. Any and all information that you provide will be kept strictly confidential.

**When returning the envelope**, please make sure to include the completed survey and one signed copy of the consent form. If you have any questions, feel free to contact me in the Psychology department at the University of Georgia at (706) 542-3072. Once again, thank you very much for your participation.

Sincerely,

Karly Branch  
Graduate Student  
Life-Span Developmental Psychology  
The University of Georgia Athens, GA 30602-3013

Please return the survey on or before \_\_\_\_\_



What is your employment status right now?

- \_\_\_\_\_ Housewife/Homemaker  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Full-time employment (including self-employed)  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Part-time employment (including self-employed)  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Unemployed, not looking  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Unemployed, but looking  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Semi-retired  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Retired  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Disabled  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Other: \_\_\_\_\_

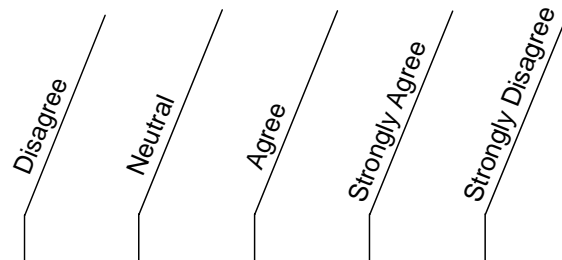
If you don't mind, please indicate your approximate annual household income before taxes:

- |                            |                            |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| _____ Less than \$5,000    | _____ \$40,000 to \$49,999 |
| _____ \$5,000 to \$9,999   | _____ \$50,000 to \$59,999 |
| _____ \$10,000 to \$14,999 | _____ \$60,000 to \$69,999 |
| _____ \$15,000 to \$19,999 | _____ \$70,000 to \$99,999 |
| _____ \$20,000 to \$29,999 | _____ \$100,000 or more    |
| _____ \$30,000 to \$39,999 |                            |

How would you rate your overall health right now?

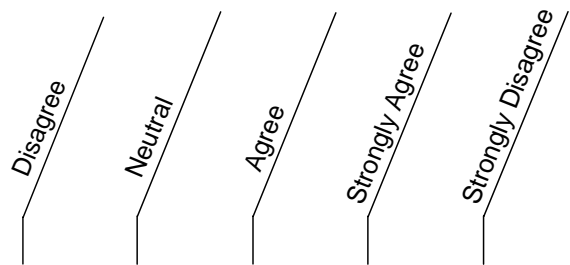
- \_\_\_\_\_ Poor  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Fair  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Good  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Very good  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Excellent

The following statements reflect some people's beliefs about the typical old person. Please provide your opinion of the typical old person by indicating the extent to which you agree (or disagree) with each of the following statements. Circle the number that most closely represents your opinion. There are no right or wrong answers. The "Neutral" response means that you neither agree nor disagree.



**The typical old person ...**

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 1. is forgetful/ has memory problems.                   | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 2. is lonely.   | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 3. is depressed.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 4. cannot, or will not, learn new things.               | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 5. is cantankerous.                                     | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 6. is stubborn.   | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 7. is close-minded.                                     | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 8. has nothing to offer society.                        | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 9. is unhealthy.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 10. complains often.                                    | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 11. has already lived<br>the best part of his/her life. | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 12. is frail/feeble.                                    | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 13. is set in his/her ways<br>and reluctant to change.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |



**The typical old person...**

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 14. is irritable or grouchy.                                   | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 15. has no sexual desire and/or<br>lacks the capacity for sex. | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 16. is dependent.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 17. is bored.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 18. is angry.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 19. is helpless.   | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 20. is passive.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 21. is rigid.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 22. has always got an ache or pain.                            | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |

The following statements reflect opinions that some people have about themselves. For each statement, please indicate whether you believe it is true for yourself by circling "T" for true or "F" for false. There are no right or wrong answers.

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.                    T        F
2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.    T        F
3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.            T        F
4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.    T        F
5. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.        T        F
6. I would probably make a good actor.            T        F
7. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.        T        F
8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.    T        F
9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.        T        F
10. I'm not always the person I appear to be.            T        F
11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.        T        F
12. I have considered being an entertainer.            T        F
13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.    T        F
14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.    T        F
15. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.        T        F
16. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite as well as I should.    T        F
17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).    T        F
18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.    T        F

The following questions reflect beliefs that some people have about their own aging and changes they notice in themselves as they age. Circle the answer that most closely represents your opinion. There are no right or wrong answers. The “Neutral” response means that you neither agree nor disagree.

**Since you’ve gotten older, have you...**

1a. become forgetful? No or Yes ↗

1b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

2a. become lonely? No or Yes ↗

2b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

3a. become depressed? No or Yes ↗

3b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

4a. become unable, or unwilling, to learn new things? No or Yes ↗

4b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

5a. become cantankerous? No or Yes ↗

5b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

6a. become stubborn? No or Yes ↗

6b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

**Since you've gotten older, have you...**

7a. become close-minded? No or Yes ↗

7b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

8a. come to feel that you have little or nothing to offer society? No or Yes ↗

8b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

9a. become unhealthy? No or Yes ↗

9b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

10a. found that you complain often? No or Yes ↗

10b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

11a. come to feel that you have already lived the best part of your life? No or Yes ↗

11b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

12a. become frail? No or Yes ↗

12b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

13a. become set in your ways or reluctant to change? No or Yes ↗

13b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

**Since you've gotten older, have you...**

14a. become irritable or grouchy? No or Yes ☞

14b. **If yes**, how much do you believe your AGE is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

15a. had a lack of sexual desire? No or Yes ☞

15b. **If yes**, how much do you believe your AGE is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

16a. become dependent? No or Yes ☞

16b. **If yes**, how much do you believe your AGE is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

17a. become bored? No or Yes ☞

17b. **If yes**, how much do you believe your AGE is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

18a. become angry? No or Yes ☞

18b. **If yes**, how much do you believe your AGE is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

19a. become helpless? No or Yes ☞

19b. **If yes**, how much do you believe your AGE is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

20a. become passive? No or Yes ☞

20b. **If yes**, how much do you believe your AGE is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

**Since you've gotten older, have you...**

21a. become rigid? No or Yes ↗

21b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

22a. found that you always have an ache or pain? No or Yes ↗

22b. **If yes**, how much do you believe **your AGE** is the **cause**?

Not at all    A little bit    Neutral    Somewhat    Completely

On the next few pages is a series of attitude statements. Each represents a commonly held opinion. There are no right or wrong answers. You will probably agree with some items and disagree with others. We are interested in the extent to which you agree or disagree with such matters of opinion.

Read each statement carefully. Then indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by circling the number following each statement. The numbers and their meanings are indicated below:

If you agree strongly: circle +3

If you agree somewhat: circle +2

If you agree slightly: circle +1

If you disagree slightly : circle -1

If you disagree somewhat: circle -2

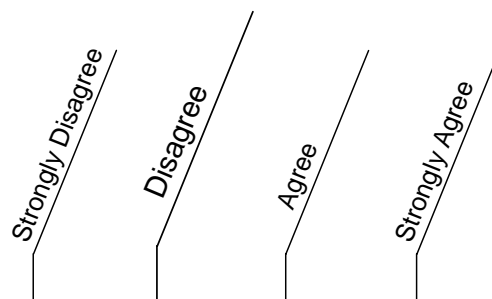
If you disagree strongly: circle -3

First impressions are usually best. Read each statement, decide if you agree or disagree and the strength of your opinion, and then circle the appropriate number.

**\*Give your opinion on every statement.\***

If you find that the numbers to be used in answering do not adequately reflect your own opinion, use the one that is closest to the way you feel.

The following statements represent some people's opinions about their own aging. Please indicate the extent to which you believe each statement is true for yourself by circling the number that best fits your view. There are no right or wrong answers.



1. Things keep getting worse as I get older.      1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4
2. I have as much pep as I did last year.      1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4
3. As you get older, you are less useful.      1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4
4. I am as happy now as I was when I was younger.      1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4

Circle one of the three choices in the parentheses that will make the sentence true for you.

5. As I get older, things are (**better than, worse than, or the same as**) I thought they would be.

Specify **in years** the age (any age) that most closely corresponds to:

- (a) the way you feel \_\_\_\_\_
- (b) the way you look \_\_\_\_\_
- (c) the age of the person whom your activities and interests are most like \_\_\_\_\_
- (d) the age you would like to be if you could pick your age right now \_\_\_\_\_

If you didn't know how old you are, how old would you be? \_\_\_\_\_  
(Please answer in years.)

Based on your knowledge, please respond to the following questions by circling the ONE answer you believe is factually correct.

1. In old age, a person's height:
  - a. does not change
  - b. only appears to change
  - c. tends to decline
  - d. depends on how active one is
  
2. As compared to younger persons, more older persons (65 or over) are limited in their activity by which type of illnesses?
  - a. acute illnesses (short-term)
  - b. colds and flu
  - c. infections
  - d. chronic illnesses
  
3. Which type of illnesses do older persons have less frequently than younger persons?
  - a. chronic illnesses
  - b. colds and flu
  - c. infections
  - d. acute illnesses
  
4. Compared with younger persons, older persons have:
  - a. more injuries in the home
  - b. have about the same number of injuries in the home
  - c. have less injuries in the home
  - d. are twice as likely to be injured in the home

5. Older workers:
  - a. have higher rates of absenteeism than younger workers
  - b. cannot be depended upon
  - c. have about the same rates of absenteeism as younger workers
  - d. have lower rates of absenteeism than younger workers
  
6. The life expectancy of African Americans at age 65:
  - a. is higher than that of whites
  - b. is lower than that of whites
  - c. is the same as that of whites
  - d. has never been determined
  
7. Men's life expectancy at age 65 as compared to women's life expectancy:
  - a. is lower
  - b. tends to be returning to what it was in the 1940s
  - c. is about the same
  - d. is higher
  
8. What percent of medical expenses for the aged does Medicare pay?
  - a. nearly 50 percent
  - b. nearly 70 percent
  - c. nearly 100 percent
  - d. about 15 to 20 percent
  
9. Social security benefits:
  - a. automatically increase with inflation
  - b. are not subject to change
  - c. are not adjusted to meet inflation
  - d. are often cut back in times of inflation

10. Supplementary Security Income (SSI):
  - a. guarantees a minimum income for the needy elderly
  - b. provides extra income for all the elderly
  - c. supplements the income for the elderly in nursing homes
  - d. pays medical expenses for the elderly
  
11. As far as the aged getting their proportionate share of the nation's income:
  - a. most of the aged live below the poverty level
  - b. the aged are the poorest group in our society
  - c. the aged do get their proportionate share of income
  - d. the income gap between the aged and other adult groups continues to widen
  
12. Compared to persons under 65, rates of criminal victimization among the elderly are:
  - a. higher
  - b. lower
  - c. much the same
  - d. steadily increasing
  
13. Regarding crime and the elderly:
  - a. they are more fearful of crime than are younger persons
  - b. they fear crime the same as other age groups
  - c. they are less fearful of crime than are younger persons
  - d. most elderly persons have no fear of crime
  
14. The most law abiding of all adult age groups are:
  - a. the middle-aged
  - b. persons in their 30s
  - c. young couples
  - d. the elderly

15. Regarding the number of widows and widowers among the aged:
  - a. their numbers are about equal
  - b. there are nearly 5 times as many widows as widowers
  - c. there are about twice as many widowers as widows
  - d. the number of widows is rapidly increasing
  
16. When it comes to voter participation rates:
  - a. the aged seldom vote
  - b. those ages 35-44 tend to have higher rates than the elderly
  - c. college students have higher rates than the rest of the population
  - d. older people have higher rates than the rest of the population
  
17. In reference to public office:
  - a. there is no relationship between age and public office
  - b. older people are seldom found in public office
  - c. there are proportionately more older persons in public office
  - d. there are proportionately more younger persons in public
  
18. The proportion of African Americans among the aged is:
  - a. growing
  - b. declining
  - c. very small compared with other minority groups
  - d. staying about the same
  
19. Participation in voluntary organizations:
  - a. usually does not decline among healthy older persons
  - b. drops among healthy older persons
  - c. rises among healthy older persons
  - d. is highest among the youth

20. The majority of old people live:
- alone
  - in institutions
  - with their spouses
  - with their children
21. The rate of poverty among the elderly:
- is lower than among those under 65
  - is higher than among those under 65
  - is the same as it is for other age groups
  - is high as a result of their having fixed incomes
22. The rate of poverty among aged African Americans:
- is less than that of whites
  - is about the same as that of whites
  - is about triple that of older whites
  - continues to increase
23. Older persons who reduce their activity tend to be:
- happier
  - not as happy as those who remain active
  - more well-adjusted than those who remain active
  - healthier
24. When the last child leaves home, the majority of parents:
- have serious problems of adjustment
  - have higher levels of life satisfaction
  - try to get their children to come back home
  - suffer from the “empty nest” syndrome

25. The proportion of the widowed among the aged:
- a. is gradually decreasing
  - b. is rapidly increasing
  - c. has remained the same in the last half century
  - d. is unrelated to increasing longevity

## Appendix R

## AGE ATTITUDE SURVEYS FOR PARTICIPANTS UNDER 40

Participant ID # \_\_\_\_\_

What is your age? \_\_\_\_\_

What is your gender? (check one) \_\_\_\_\_ Female \_\_\_\_\_ Male

How do you describe your race? (check one)

_____ Asian	_____ Black or African American
_____ White	_____ American Indian or Alaska Native
_____ Other	_____ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

Do you consider your ethnicity to be (check one):

\_\_\_\_\_ Hispanic or Latino?  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Not Hispanic or Latino?

What is your marital status? (check one)

_____ Single, never married	_____ Separated
_____ Living as married	_____ Divorced
_____ Married	_____ Widowed

How many people aged 18 or younger live in your household? \_\_\_\_\_

How much education have you had?

_____ Less than 7 years	_____ Trade/technical school
_____ Jr. high (7-9 years)	_____ Partial college
_____ Partial high school	_____ College graduate
_____ High school graduate, GED, or equivalent	_____ Graduate/professional

What is your employment status right now?

- \_\_\_\_\_ Housewife/Homemaker  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Full-time employment (including self-employed)  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Part-time employment (including self-employed)  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Unemployed, not looking  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Unemployed, but looking  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Semi-retired  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Retired  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Disabled  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Other: \_\_\_\_\_

If you don't mind, please indicate your approximate annual household income before taxes:

- |                            |                            |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| _____ Less than \$5,000    | _____ \$40,000 to \$49,999 |
| _____ \$5,000 to \$9,999   | _____ \$50,000 to \$59,999 |
| _____ \$10,000 to \$14,999 | _____ \$60,000 to \$69,999 |
| _____ \$15,000 to \$19,999 | _____ \$70,000 to \$99,999 |
| _____ \$20,000 to \$29,999 | _____ \$100,000 or more    |
| _____ \$30,000 to \$39,999 |                            |

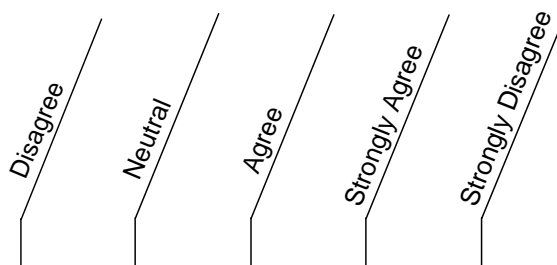
How would you rate your overall health right now?

- \_\_\_\_\_ Poor  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Fair  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Good  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Very good  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Excellent

The following statements reflect some people's beliefs about the typical old person. Please provide your opinion of the typical old person by indicating the extent to which you agree (or disagree) with each of the following statements. Circle the number that most closely represents your opinion. There are no right or wrong answers. The "Neutral" response means that you neither agree nor disagree.

**The typical old person ...**

	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>
1. is forgetful/ has memory problems.	1	2	3	4	5
2. is lonely.	1	2	3	4	5
3. is depressed.	1	2	3	4	5
4. cannot, or will not, learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5
5. is cantankerous.	1	2	3	4	5
6. is stubborn.	1	2	3	4	5
7. is close-minded.	1	2	3	4	5
8. has nothing to offer society.	1	2	3	4	5
9. is unhealthy.	1	2	3	4	5
10. complains often.	1	2	3	4	5
11. has already lived the best part of his/her life.	1	2	3	4	5
12. is frail/feeble.	1	2	3	4	5
13. is set in his/her ways and reluctant to change.	1	2	3	4	5



**The typical old person...**

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 14. is irritable or grouchy.                                   | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 15. has no sexual desire and/or<br>lacks the capacity for sex. | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 16. is dependent.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 17. is bored.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 18. is angry.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 19. is helpless.   | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 20. is passive.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 21. is rigid.  | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |
| 22. has always got an ache or pain.                            | 1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 |

The following statements reflect opinions that some people have about themselves. For each statement, please indicate whether you believe it is true for yourself by circling "T" for true or "F" for false. There are no right or wrong answers.

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.                    T        F
2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.    T        F
3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.            T        F
4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.    T        F
5. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.        T        F
6. I would probably make a good actor.            T        F
7. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.        T        F
8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.    T        F
9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.        T        F
10. I'm not always the person I appear to be.            T        F
11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.        T        F
12. I have considered being an entertainer.            T        F
13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.        T        F
14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.    T        F
15. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.        T        F
16. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite as well as I should.    T        F
17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).    T        F
18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.    T        F

On the next few pages is a series of attitude statements. Each represents a commonly held opinion. There are no right or wrong answers. You will probably agree with some items and disagree with others. We are interested in the extent to which you agree or disagree with such matters of opinion.

Read each statement carefully. Then indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by circling the number following each statement. The numbers and their meanings are indicated below:

If you agree strongly: circle +3

If you agree somewhat: circle +2

If you agree slightly: circle +1

If you disagree slightly : circle -1

If you disagree somewhat: circle -2

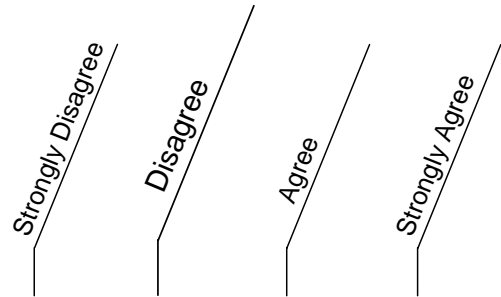
If you disagree strongly: circle -3

First impressions are usually best. Read each statement, decide if you agree or disagree and the strength of your opinion, and then circle the appropriate number.

**\*Give your opinion on every statement.\***

If you find that the numbers to be used in answering do not adequately reflect your own opinion, use the one that is closest to the way you feel.

The following statements represent some people's opinions about their own aging. Please indicate the extent to which you believe each statement is true for yourself by circling the number that best fits your view. There are no right or wrong answers.



- 1. Things keep getting worse as I get older.      1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4
- 2. I have as much pep as I did last year.      1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4
- 3. As you get older, you are less useful.      1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4
- 4. I am as happy now as I was when I was younger.      1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4

Circle one of the three choices in the parentheses that will make the sentence true for you.

- 5. As I get older, things are (**better than, worse than, or the same as**) I thought they would be.

Specify **in years** the age (any age) that most closely corresponds to:

- (a) the way you feel \_\_\_\_\_
- (b) the way you look \_\_\_\_\_
- (c) the age of the person whom your activities and interests are most like \_\_\_\_\_
- (d) the age you would like to be if you could pick your age right now \_\_\_\_\_

If you didn't know how old you are, how old would you be? \_\_\_\_\_  
 (Please answer in years.)

Based on your knowledge, please respond to the following questions by circling the ONE answer you believe is factually correct.

26. In old age, a person's height:
- e. does not change
  - f. only appears to change
  - g. tends to decline
  - h. depends on how active one is
27. As compared to younger persons, more older persons (65 or over) are limited in their activity by which type of illnesses?
- a. acute illnesses (short-term)
  - b. colds and flu
  - c. infections
  - d. chronic illnesses
28. Which type of illnesses do older persons have less frequently than younger persons?
- a. chronic illnesses
  - b. colds and flu
  - c. infections
  - d. acute illnesses
29. Compared with younger persons, older persons have:
- a. more injuries in the home
  - b. have about the same number of injuries in the home
  - c. have less injuries in the home
  - d. are twice as likely to be injured in the home

30. Older workers:
- a. have higher rates of absenteeism than younger workers
  - b. cannot be depended upon
  - c. have about the same rates of absenteeism as younger workers
  - d. have lower rates of absenteeism than younger workers
31. The life expectancy of African Americans at age 65:
- a. is higher than that of whites
  - b. is lower than that of whites
  - c. is the same as that of whites
  - d. has never been determined
32. Men's life expectancy at age 65 as compared to women's life expectancy:
- a. is lower
  - b. tends to be returning to what it was in the 1940s
  - c. is about the same
  - d. is higher
33. What percent of medical expenses for the aged does Medicare pay?
- a. nearly 50 percent
  - b. nearly 70 percent
  - c. nearly 100 percent
  - d. about 15 to 20 percent
34. Social security benefits:
- a. automatically increase with inflation
  - b. are not subject to change
  - c. are not adjusted to meet inflation
  - d. are often cut back in times of inflation

35. Supplementary Security Income (SSI):
- guarantees a minimum income for the needy elderly
  - provides extra income for all the elderly
  - supplements the income for the elderly in nursing homes
  - pays medical expenses for the elderly
36. As far as the aged getting their proportionate share of the nation's income:
- most of the aged live below the poverty level
  - the aged are the poorest group in our society
  - the aged do get their proportionate share of income
  - the income gap between the aged and other adult groups continues to widen
37. Compared to persons under 65, rates of criminal victimization among the elderly are:
- higher
  - lower
  - much the same
  - steadily increasing
38. Regarding crime and the elderly:
- they are more fearful of crime than are younger persons
  - they fear crime the same as other age groups
  - they are less fearful of crime than are younger persons
  - most elderly persons have no fear of crime
39. The most law abiding of all adult age groups are:
- the middle-aged
  - persons in their 30s
  - young couples
  - the elderly

40. Regarding the number of widows and widowers among the aged:
- their numbers are about equal
  - there are nearly 5 times as many widows as widowers
  - there are about twice as many widowers as widows
  - the number of widows is rapidly increasing
41. When it comes to voter participation rates:
- the aged seldom vote
  - those ages 35-44 tend to have higher rates than the elderly
  - college students have higher rates than the rest of the population
  - older people have higher rates than the rest of the population
42. In reference to public office:
- there is no relationship between age and public office
  - older people are seldom found in public office
  - there are proportionately more older persons in public office
  - there are proportionately more younger persons in public
43. The proportion of African Americans among the aged is:
- growing
  - declining
  - very small compared with other minority groups
  - staying about the same
44. Participation in voluntary organizations:
- usually does not decline among healthy older persons
  - drops among healthy older persons
  - rises among healthy older persons
  - is highest among the youth

45. The majority of old people live:
- alone
  - in institutions
  - with their spouses
  - with their children
46. The rate of poverty among the elderly:
- is lower than among those under 65
  - is higher than among those under 65
  - is the same as it is for other age groups
  - is high as a result of their having fixed incomes
47. The rate of poverty among aged African Americans:
- is less than that of whites
  - is about the same as that of whites
  - is about triple that of older whites
  - continues to increase
48. Older persons who reduce their activity tend to be:
- happier
  - not as happy as those who remain active
  - more well-adjusted than those who remain active
  - healthier
49. When the last child leaves home, the majority of parents:
- have serious problems of adjustment
  - have higher levels of life satisfaction
  - try to get their children to come back home
  - suffer from the “empty nest” syndrome

50. The proportion of the widowed among the aged:
- a. is gradually decreasing
  - b. is rapidly increasing
  - c. has remained the same in the last half century
  - d. is unrelated to increasing longevity