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Family Satisfaction, Ethnic Identity, and Subjective Well-Being Among Urban Youth

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LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

FAMILY SATISFACTION, ETHNIC IDENTITY, AND SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING
AMONG URBAN YOUTH

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO
THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

PROGRAM IN COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

BY

KENIA LOIRET GOMEZ

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

MAY 2011

Kenia Loiret Gomez, 2011
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ABSTRACT

Youth is a period of discovery, exploration, and instability that occurs between middle childhood and late adolescence. In the United States, a diverse society, urban youth have to clarify not only their self concept, but also their ethnic identity, which becomes part of their self-concept. Unfortunately, most researchers have ignored early adolescence (i.e., ages 12-15) and have limited their research to either childhood or later adolescence. The purpose of this study is twofold. The first part of this study examined the relationship between family satisfaction and subjective well-being (SWB) among urban youth. The second part of the study examined ethnic identity as a moderator between family satisfaction and SWB. An archived dataset collected in 2007 was used. There were 158 participants enrolled in a public urban school in a large Midwestern city ranging in age from 11-15. Regression analyses were used to test the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to detect main effects and interactions effects (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Findings suggest a significant relationship between family satisfaction and SWB. However, the ethnic identity moderator effect was not significant.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Youth is a period of discovery, exploration, and instability that occurs between middle childhood and late adolescence. Unfortunately, most researchers have ignored early adolescence (i.e., ages 12-15) and have limited their research to either childhood or adolescence. The phase of early adolescent development is a critical period for decision making which has lasting consequences as youth enter adulthood (Kiang & Fuligni, 2009). Young adolescents not only experience physical change (puberty), but also emotional and social change. In the United States, a diverse society, urban youth have to clarify not only their self concept, but also their ethnic identity, which becomes part of their self-concept (Schwartz, 2008).

Family plays an important role in the development of youth's ethnic identity and well-being. Studies have shown that family is a significant protective factor in the lives of urban youth (Pryor-Brown & Cowen, 1989; Sandier, Miller, Short, & Wolchick, 1989). Familismo refers to the importance of strong family loyalty and closeness (Harker, 2001; Parsai, Voisine, Marsiglia, Kulis, & Nieri, 2009). This is a core value not only cherished by the Latino community but also by other ethnic groups across generations regardless of the length of time residing in the U.S. (Santiago-Rivera, 2003). Because family is such a critical aspect there is a high reliance on the family for material, emotional support and

help (Ayon, Marsiglia, & Bermudez-Parsai, 2010). In addition to Familismo, individuals from ethnic groups tend to value social collectivism rather than individualism.

Collectivism refers to a perception of the self that is embedded within social relationships, thus the welfare of the group is more important than the individual. Whereas, Individualism is the concept in which individual consider him or herself as being separate, autonomous, and distinct from others (Le & Stockdale, 2005). Therefore, one could estimate that for urban ethnic minority youth in particular, family support and satisfaction could lead to well-being and a better quality of life. Although peers also play an important role in youth socialization, family satisfaction seems more salient in the ethnic youth population. Studies have shown that those adolescents who have limited family support system have low levels of well-being and are at risk of experimenting with substance abuse (Unger, Ritt-Olson, Teran, Huang, Hoffman, & Palmer, 2002) and early sexual activity (Baumeister, Flores, & Marin, 1995); whereas, youth who have strong family support are more satisfied with their life and are at lower risk for psychological adjustment (Way & Robinson, 2003). It is important to investigate well-being and its causes in urban youth.

In addition to the importance of family satisfaction to well-being, studies have shown that individuals who have a strong ethnic identity hold positive cultural values, have a strong sense of group membership, which as a result can predict life satisfaction and a better quality of life (Umana-Taylor, 2004, Utsey, Chae, Brown, & Kelly, 2002). Because urban youth place a high value on family (i.e., familismo), one could predict that those individuals who hold negative attitudes about their heritage, could also harbor

negative feelings about their family and support system. Based on the literature urban ethnic minority youth have a strong reliance on their family for emotional and material support. This project explores the relationship between familial support, ethnic identity, and subjective well-being among urban youth. With the minority population doubling in the coming decades, it is essential to continue exploring ethnic identity and its effects on life satisfaction and well-being.

Subjective Well-being

Subjective well-being (SWB), according to the hedonic tradition, is the concept of subjective emotional well-being, which consists of happiness, relaxation and pleasure (Lent, 2004). Based on previous studies, SWB is a fairly new construct, which consists of three distinctive, but related components: life satisfaction, positive affect, and the absence of negative affect (Diener, Lucas, & Oishi, 2002). Life satisfaction is referred to as a global, “Cognitive Evaluation” of one’s life as a whole. It probes for broad, abstract affective judgments, such as how happy one feels, whereas, positive and negative affect tap the experience of more specific, intense or defined states, such as feeling excited or enthusiastic. Positive and negative affect are usually measured by participants’ indication of the extent to which they generally experience a variety of positive feelings such as excitement and negative feelings, such as nervous states (Lent, 2004).

The topic of well-being has been ignored by psychology in the last several decades (Park, 2004). Researchers and practitioners have focused on psychopathology, developing treatment strategies and risk-based prevention programs for clients with pathological irregularities such as depression. Well-being has been based on a disease

model in which health is defined by only the lack of distress and disorder. However, Jahoda (1958), one of the pioneers of positive psychology, disputed the traditional view of mental health by stating that the absence of disease is one necessary component, but is not a complete and sufficient definition of mental health.

Although research on children's well-being is insufficient in quantity, the research thus far has provided invaluable information about children's subjective judgments on their quality of life and has helped prevention efforts. Furthermore, close relationships have been found to be a major contributor to resilience and well-being; the most distinct of these being the effects of a warm, supportive family environment, marked by a close relationship with at least one parent (Huebner, 1991; Rice, 1990).

Family Satisfaction

As mentioned previously, the strong identification and attachment of individuals to their families is called familismo (Triandis, Marin, Betancourt, Lisansky, & Chang, 1982). This form of attachment is not only seen in the Latino culture but has also been identified as an important value for other ethnic groups such as African Americans, Asian Americans, and American Indians (i.e., communalism, collectivism) (Marin & Gamba, 2003). Moreover, Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 1986) ecological model explains that individual human development occurs within multiple fixed ecological systems. He identified five systems: the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and the chronosystem, with the individual at the center. The microsystem consists of the people with whom the individual is in contact daily. One example is the child's support system

(i.e., family), which influences the child's development. Family is an important aspect of child development and can influence many aspects of the self (i.e., values).

In addition, McWhiter, McWhiter, McWhiter, and McWhiter (2007) described the importance of family for ethnic minority youth using “(t)he at-risk tree” metaphor, in which one of the primary roots is family, which is described as the roots that supplies “a network that anchors and nourishes life“ (p. 16). Family also serves as a protective factor for youth (Cowen & Work, 1988), in which higher levels of family positive support buffers the negative effects of stress (Dubow & Ullman, 1989). In attachment theory, Bowlby (1969) indicated that supportive attachment and relationships with family may become part of adolescents' internal working models of relationships, and these working models may then be generalized to other members of their ethnic group, thus contributing to positive feelings towards their ethnic group and towards themselves (Gaylord-Harden, Ragsdale, Mandara, Richards, & Peterson, 2007).

Ethnic Identity as a Moderator

Researchers have also demonstrated a positive link between ethnic identity and well-being across an ethnically diverse population (Umana-Taylor, 2004). Ethnic and racial minorities with a strong ethnic identity are more disposed to feel part of the larger community and society, maintain a positive sense of well-being and high self-esteem, and be resilient to life changes and stressors (Yip & Fuligni, 2002) and experience a high quality of life (Utsey et al., 2002). However, some studies have found a weak or non-significant correlation (Cross, 1991).

From the perspective of Social Identity Theory (SIT), acceptance of one's ethnic group as an aspect of positive orientation would enhance positive ethnic self-esteem, whereas, rejection of one's group as a positive orientation group would lead to maladjustment (Turner, 1982). Although ethnic pride is usually study as part of ethnic identity, some researchers advocate for ethnic pride to be examined separately (Kulis, Napoli, & Marsiglia, 2002; Umana-Taylor, Yazedijan, & Bamaca-Gomez, 2004). Guilamo (2009) described that adolescents may identify as Latino, Mexican, Puerto Rican but may not be proud of their ethnic identity.

The aforementioned literature concluded that familismo is an important value for urban ethnic minority youth and their families, consequently this study considers the question of whether family satisfaction predicts subjective well-being among urban youth, and if it does, does the relationship differ for urban youth who have higher levels of ethnic identity (i.e., positive cultural values) versus those who may feel ashamed or embarrassed about their heritage. The purpose of this study is twofold. The first part of this study examined the relationship between family satisfaction and subjective well-being (SWB) among urban youth. The second part of the study examined ethnic identity as a moderator between family satisfaction and SWB.

Research Questions

- 1) Is there a relationship between family satisfaction and SWB?
- 2) Does ethnic identity moderate the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB?

Hypotheses

- 1) It is hypothesized that there is a relationship between family satisfaction and SWB.

- a) Students who demonstrate higher levels of family satisfaction will indicate a greater degree of SWB.
- b) Students who demonstrate lower levels family satisfaction will experience a lesser degree of SWB.
- 2) Youth with higher ethnic identity scores will have a stronger relationship between family satisfaction and SWB than kids with lower ethnic identity scores.
- a) with higher ethnic identity scores will have a stronger relationship between family satisfaction and life satisfaction than kids with lower ethnic identity scores.
- b) with higher ethnic identity scores will have a stronger relationship between family satisfaction and positive affect than kids with lower ethnic identity scores.
- c) with higher ethnic identity scores will have a weaker relationship between family satisfaction and negative affect than kids with lower ethnic identity scores.

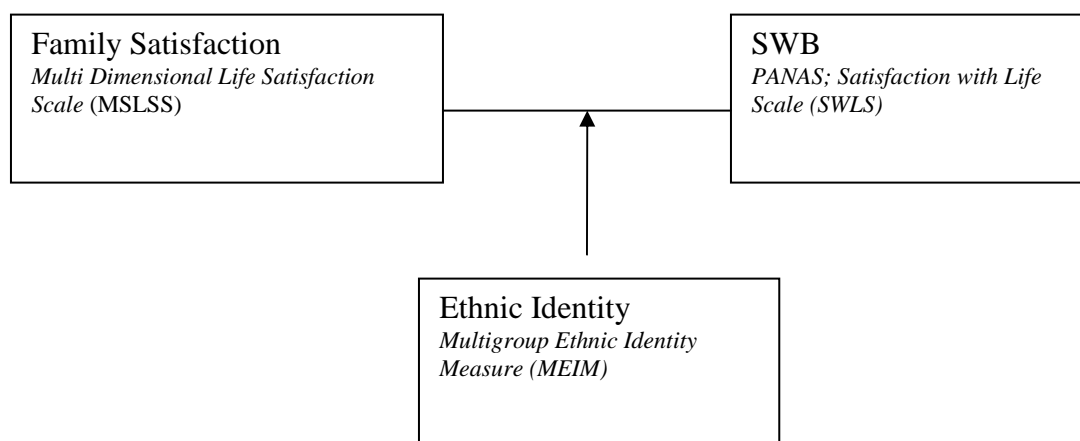


Figure 1. Family Satisfaction, Subjective Well-being and Ethnic Identity Measures

Operationalized Terms

Ethnic Identity is defined as an individual's achievement and acceptance of cultural characteristics such as thinking, feelings, and rituals that are incorporated into one's self-concept. It develops in the context of the individual belonging to a minority ethnic group within the larger society (Phinney, 1992).

Subjective Well-Being (SWB) is comprised of three components that are similar but distinct and includes life satisfaction, positive affect and the absence of negative affect (Diener, Lucas, & Oishi, 2002).

Family satisfaction is the extent to which children feel supported and satisfied with the perceived support from family members (Huebner, 1991).

Urban youth are defined as individuals who are predominantly non-white (i.e., Latino, Asian American, African American) and in the present case, live in Chicago, a major Midwestern city. Developmentally these individuals are in their early adolescence phase, ages 12 to 15 and in seventh and eighth grade.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter summarizes the literature relevant to the current study, which includes the examination of factors that influence well-being in urban youth. First an extended literature summary of the variables in the study including subjective well-being, family satisfaction, and ethnic identity will be provided. Second, the relationship between the three variables will be explained, and lastly, the current research rationale will be justified.

The study of subjective well-being in adults has a fairly long history; however, studies that correlate positive subjective well-being in children and youth have just started (Diener, 1994). Studies to date have focused largely on the relations between demographic variables such as age, gender, and socioeconomic status, and intrapersonal characteristics including self-concept, extraversion, internal locus of control, and well-being (McCullough, Huebner, & Laughlin, 2000). However, opportunity for future investigation lies in understanding different types of social support that Latino adolescents use or perceive in their lives and the effects on overall life satisfaction (Edward & Lopez, 2006). It is important to note that well-being and quality of life have been used interchangeably; however, well-being is one indicator of quality of life, whereas quality of life reveals some aspects of physical, social, or emotional functioning (Gladis, Gosch, Dishuk, & Crits-Christoph, 1999).

The study of well-being in psychology has developed from two different but related philosophical perspectives. The hedonic view consists of the experience of pleasant feelings (e.g., bliss and enjoyment), positive affect, and the absence of negative affect in everyday life (Ryan & Deci, 2001). The other view is the eudemonic view, which consists of a general search for happiness and the primary focus is on what someone is doing or thinking rather than how someone is feeling. This view emphasizes that pain and pleasure is related and that achieving a goal could be both challenging and rewarding (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). For example, a professional athlete could be working and at the same time enjoying the game (Bordin, 1994).

Although this study's focus on SWB is the hedonic view of well-being, it is important to recognize other views in order to have a better understanding of well-being to the fullest extent. Research findings support both views of well-being and it has been described as the yin and the yang. For instance, a factor analysis of well-being measures revealed two factors that were labeled as happiness and meaningfulness. Findings indicated that measures of SWB were related most highly on the happiness factor, whereas indicators of growth and purpose were strongly related to psychological well-being (PWB) (McGregor & Little, 1998). Thus, well-being is comprised of both views, SWB is based on the hedonic view and PWB is based on the eudaimonic view (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

When assessing for well-being there are certain limitations that one must consider. For instance, when working with patients with thought disorders such as schizophrenics, one has to carefully assess their sense of well-being because they may

report extreme happy emotions that may not be necessarily accurate from others perspective and could may even seen as ineffective functioning (Robbins & Kliever, 2000). Moreover, individuals who engage in irresponsible behaviors may report high levels of meaning and purpose; however, their behavior could be troublesome and even risky. Such inconsistency indicates the there are limits in assessing both forms of well-being and it could be helpful to view self-reported happiness as necessary but not sufficient indicators of psychological adjustment (Diener, Sapyta, & Suh, 1998).

Similar to other self-report measures, in order to obtain an accurate assessment of well-being, external perspectives are also needed to evaluate other aspects of functioning such as work success or social adjustment. Keeping in mind that opinions of well-being and psychological health are socially constructed (Maddux, 2002); there are three time frames in which well-being could be assessed. The first one is the global time frame, in which the individual reports how they feel in general, it is based on an overall life satisfaction and a general positive and negative affect (Diener et al., 1998). The second time frame to assess SWB is on a daily basis during the past week or past month (Diener & Fujita, 1995). The third time frame is immediate; individual reports of SWB are based on passing affect (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). The immediate and shorter term frames for assessing SWB are less stable and less dependent on traits but are more responsive to situational factors and life events. Ratings of SWB obtained close to the event in which people experience provide a more accurate respond because are less prone to retrospective recall biases (Kahneman, 1999).

Regarding context, one can also evaluate SWB context free by assessing how someone is generally satisfied with their life or context specific assessing on a particular life domain such as work, school, home or roles such as worker, student, partner (Robbins & Kliewer, 2000). Research indicates that measures of satisfaction with different life domains often correlate moderately to general life satisfaction measures. A meta-analysis study by Tait, Padgett, and Baldwin (1989) indicated an average correlation between job and life satisfaction. Another finding suggested that usually people who are pleased with their lives have the tendency to find their work more fulfilling (Diener et al., 1998). The latter could be explained by the spillover hypothesis which suggests that both specific context domain and context free domain mutually influence each other (Rain, Lane, & Steiner, 1991).

The conceptualization of well-being is also tied to individuals' values and cultural beliefs. Thus, what is satisfying in one culture could be irrelevant in another culture (Compton, 2001). Studies on well-being are rooted in the Western culture which is a more individualistic society and the concept of well-being may reflect more personal values, whereas, in a collectivistic society social relationships and family obligations may be more related to happiness (Christopher, 1999).

Researchers have found that people living in individualistic cultures report higher life satisfaction and positive affect than do those in collectivistic cultures. Moreover, personal satisfaction, or happiness, may be a more salient concept in individualistic than in collectivistic countries, where interpersonal values, like harmony and respect, may be more salient (Diener & Suh, 1999). In addition, cross-cultural differences have been

found in the predictors of the life satisfaction component of SWB. For instance, affective variables were found to predict life satisfaction well in both individualistic and collectivistic cultures. However, within the collectivist sample, social norms and affective variables were equally predictive of life satisfaction, whereas in the individualist sample, affect was the stronger of the two predictors (Suh, Diener, Oishi, & Triandis, 1998).

Personality variables (i.e., extraversion and neuroticism) and levels of self-esteem are another factor related to positive and negative affect across cultures. As expected, personality variables predict life satisfaction mostly in individualistic cultures than in collectivist cultures (Schimmack, Radhakrishnan, Oishi, Dzokoto, & Ahadi, 2002). Self-esteem was found to relate more highly to global life satisfaction in individualistic than in collectivistic culture and not surprisingly, harmony with relationships was found to be a better predictor of life satisfaction in a collectivistic than in an individualistic context (Kwan, Bond, & Singelis, 1997). Satisfaction with particular life domains (e.g., finances, job, home life) were equally predictive of life satisfaction across the two types of culture (Oishi, Diener, Suh, & Lucas, 1999). In sum, there are cultural differences in what makes people happy and at the same time there are also cross-cultural similarities (Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2003).

Demographics variables also impact the experience of well-being and are usually grouped together with indicators of life satisfaction such as health status and level of income (Andrews & Withey, 1976). Individual demographic and circumstance variables have typically been found to explain a small portion of life satisfaction, however, demographics alone are not sufficient to distinguish happy from unhappy people

(DeNeve, 1999). For instance, research indicates that higher income is not associated with more happiness. However, a significant relationship has been found between national wealth and life satisfaction, with people in wealthier countries tending to report greater satisfaction than do those in poorer nations. This relation could be explained by the benefits that exist from national wealth, such as better living conditions, food, shelter, rather than implying that wealth as such enhances well-being (Diener et al., 1998).

Other demographic variables that are related to SWB are religion and marital status. Religion improves life satisfaction by providing a sense of meaning in life and a strong social support system (Diener et al., 1998). Marriage improves life satisfaction by providing social and emotional support, companionship, and material help (Argyle, 1999). Although relationships in general improve life satisfaction, the quality is more important than marital status in predicting life satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Personality trait and emotions have also been predictors of life satisfaction. In fact, personality traits are one of the best predictors of SWB (Diener et al., 1998). It is assumed that both traits and emotional predispositions develop from genetic mechanisms that are present at birth and are sometimes considered to be relatively unchangeable to situations (Meehl, 1975). A meta-analysis by DeNeve and Cooper (1998) suggested that overall correlations of personality factors to life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect values that would not meet most criteria for a strong effect size. However, some individual personality factors did produce medium-sized meta-analytic relationships with particular components of SWB. Other studies have found moderate to large relations of two particular personality factors, extraversion and neuroticism, to the affective

dimensions of positive affectivity and negative affectivity, respectively (Watson & Clark, 1992).

Research by Tellegen and his colleagues suggests that genes account for very large proportions of the variance in SWB. Lykken and Tellegen (1996) found in their twin research that a significant variance in current SWB was attributable to genes and heritability. However, other behavior genetics studies have found smaller heritability and larger environment estimates for the various components of SWB (Diener et al., 1999).

Headey and Wearing (1989) found that life satisfaction, PA, and NA each showed moderate levels of stability over two to six year periods. However, changes were also observed in the three indicators of SWB, and life events were found to explain unique variance in SWB. The latter is explained by the dynamic equilibrium hypothesis, suggesting that situationally induced changes in SWB are likely to be temporary because stable person characteristics tend to return people to their baseline levels of affective experience over time. The impact of many life events on the three indicators of SWB may weaken within about three months for many persons (Suh, Diener, & Fujita, 1996). In other words, although an individual's immediate emotional reactions and judgment may change in response to ongoing life events, long-term SWB is likely to be consistent (Diener 1994).

Several researchers argued that although traits may be useful predictors of SWB, they do not offer a sufficient explanatory system (Diener, 1996). This argument is based on the distinction between long-term and short-term SWB. DeNeve and Cooper (1998) noted that although long-term SWB is well predicted by certain traits, shorter term SWB

is usefully predicted by such variables as situational conditions, daily events, goals achieve and, relationships. Even though the impact of life events tends to diminish over time as people relapse to characteristic levels of affect (Suh et al., 1996).

Lastly, environmental support, mainly social support, has been considered as a key facilitator of well-being outcomes, encouraging SWB and decreasing negative affect related with adverse life events (Harlow & Cantor, 1996). Social support includes specific functions or benefits such as material help, emotional support, and companionship (Argyle, 1999). SWB also appears to work as a buffer against a variety of negative outcomes, including psychological disorders and of maintaining the best possible mental health.

Although there have been little research on SWB in children, life satisfaction of young people has been differentiated from other psychological constructs such as self-esteem (Bender, 1997). Global self-esteem generally refers to an overall evaluation of one's behavior and personal characteristics, whereas global life satisfaction is a more comprehensive construct that involves cognitive judgments of satisfaction in various life domains (Huebner, 1997). Research indicates that life satisfaction among children and adolescents is an important construct related to other characteristics. For example, life satisfaction is negatively linked to violent problem behaviors among adolescents, such as physical fighting, weapon carrying and dating violence (Valois et al., 2001), negative emotional problems such as depression, anxiety, neuroticism, loneliness, symptoms of psychological disorders, and teacher ratings of school-discipline problems (McKnight, Huebner, & Suldo 2002). Moreover, adolescents who have difficulties with identity

formation also report low subjective sense of well-being (Van Hoof & Raaijmakers, 2002).

Inversely, youth life satisfaction is positively correlated with a variety of pleasing psychological characteristics including internal locus of control, high self-esteem, extraversion, and motivation (Huebner, 1991). Self-efficacy, self-reliance, and optimism are also associated positively with life satisfaction among youth (Greenspoon & Saklofske, 2001), and resiliency (Cafasso, 1998). Life satisfaction among youth is also positively correlated with physical health and healthy behaviors such as exercise and healthy eating (Frisch, 2000). In addition, a study of more than 5,000 high school students in the United States found that higher life satisfaction was associated with decreased likelihood of smoking and using alcohol, marijuana, and other illegal drugs (Zullig et al., 2001). Other important outcomes related to lower life satisfaction include teen pregnancy (Guijarro et al., 1999).

Several existing theories provide possible explanations for why SWB buffers against stresses in life and facilitates success. Lazarus' (1991) theory of coping explains that individuals with high life satisfaction are likely to appraise stressful life events in more positive ways, which leads them to have more positive emotional responses and to display more effective coping behaviors. What would be a hassle for someone low in life satisfaction such as taking care of a neighbor's pet—might be amusing for someone high in life satisfaction. Fredrickson (2001) explains that positive feelings such as happiness have importance beyond just surviving and can actually influence success. When individuals experience more positive emotions, they become more open-minded and tend

to think and act in more flexible and in efficient ways, developing both psychological and interpersonal coping skills that can be used in stressful situations.

Moreover, effective parenting and good peer relationships are important for positive youth development and high life satisfaction. Indeed, youth with low life satisfaction may experience problems in positive development despite rich environmental resources, whereas youth with high life satisfaction could have well-adjusted and healthy lives despite stressful life circumstances. Discrepancies between parents' and youth's views on values and attitudes are related to low life satisfaction across cultures (Phinney & Ong, 2007).

Most recently, Vera, Thakral, Gonzales, Morgan, Conner, Caskey, Bauer, Mattera, Clark, Bena, and Dick (2008) examined two hypotheses. First they looked at the relationships among traditional predictors such as gender, personality, and resources related to SWB in urban adolescents of color. Secondly, they explored the relative influence that individual and contextually specific predictors might have on SWB criteria, including support, and self-esteem derived from family, peer, and school contexts. The results of their study demonstrated that family context was the most relevant contextual influence on SWB for urban adolescents. Furthermore, family variables were significant predictors of life satisfaction and negative affect, beyond the influence of peer and school contexts.

Moreover, adult support systems outside and inside the family are also correlated with resilience and life satisfaction. Nickerson and Nagle (2004) examined satisfaction in different life domains with respect to parent and peer attachment relationships in middle

childhood and early adolescence. In their study, 303 students, evenly distributed across sex and grade were administered People in My Life, a measure of attachment relationships, and the Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale. Children and early adolescents in this sample generally reported high levels of life satisfaction. Attachments to both parents and peers predicted life satisfaction, although the influence of these relationships varied as a function of grade level and life domain. Parental attachment predicted satisfaction for sixth graders. However, both parent and peer attachments predicted school satisfaction for eighth graders.

Joronen and Astedt-Kurki (2005) examined a more complete understanding of which familial factors contributed to adolescent satisfaction and ill-being. They conducted semi structured interviews with 19 non-clinical adolescents from seventh and ninth grades. The results suggested six themes concerning satisfaction including comfortable home, emotionally warm atmosphere, open communication, familial involvement, possibilities for external relations and a sense of personal significance in the family. Moreover, three themes were related to the ill-being including familial hostility. It was evident that family satisfaction and support lead to feelings of well-being. However, is this accurate for every urban youth regardless of their levels ethnic identity?

Family is not the only important aspect of support, but the family environment in which a child is raised can cultivate and promote the development of a stable and meaningful cultural identity (Frasch & Brooks, 2003). Supportive family, exposure to mixed race peers, and a diverse community can mediate the effects of marginalization

(Root, 1990). Social support from family can also affect as to whether an individual's choice to identify as part of the minority or majority group (Poston, 1990).

Stevenson, Reed, and Bodison (1996) explored the level of kinship support participants experienced as members of extended family networks and racial socialization beliefs. There were 229 African American adolescents in the sample with a mean age of 14.6 years. The Scale of Racial Socialization for Adolescents, the Kinship Social Support Scale, and questions about the amount of parental communication about racism were administered. Results indicated significant differences between adolescents with high, moderate, and low levels of kinship support. Those participants who reported having high and moderate levels of kinship support were significantly higher in extended family caring than those who reported low kinship support, they also showed strong cultural pride reinforcement.

Caldwell, Zimmerman, Bernat, Sellers, and Notaro (2002) investigated the role of racial identity and maternal support in reducing psychological distress among African American adolescents. Both direct and indirect influences of multiple dimensions of racial identity, maternal support on perceived stress, depressive symptoms, and anxiety were assessed among 521 African American twelfth graders. Findings indicated that maternal support was positively related to racial identity and the meaning that African American adolescents attribute to being Black was critical to their psychological well-being. The ages and culture of those sampled are different from the sample this study intends to examine.

As mentioned previously, family support systems also serve as protective factors against substance use, delinquency, and depression for ethnic minority youth. Pabon (1998) examined family bonding (i.e., solidarity, value of family unit) and involvement in delinquent behavior in a sample of Puerto Rican adolescent males residing in the South Bronx ages 12-19. Family Involvement, Family Social Isolation, Family Normlessness, Perceived Sanctions in Family, Family Solidarity and Familism, Parental Availability, and Parental Supervision were administered. Results suggested that spending more time with family members on the weekends and evenings showed a reduction in opportunity for delinquency. It was also suggested that prevention strategies for delinquency among Puerto Rican adolescents should focus on activities and opportunities for frequent interactions between family members. The study indicated the importance of family involvement in the reduction of delinquency; however, the study did not take into account young girls or youth from other ethnic groups. Moreover, the study focused on the population ages 12 to 19, which is a wide age range population, therefore within group variability could have been unnoticed.

In addition, Unger et al. (2002) examined the association between cultural values and substance abuse among 211 California adolescents grades 9 to 12. Results suggested that familism and filial piety (respect for the parents in the Chinese culture) were associated with a lower risk of substance use. Thus, cultural values might influence adolescents' decisions about substance use; therefore those values should be taken into account when developing prevention programs. The study emphasized the importance of

family support in preventing substance use; however, researchers limited their study to older adolescents. Younger adolescents may have different experiences.

Gaylord-Harden et al. (2007) examined the roles of social support as well as possible mediators' self-esteem and ethnic identity in reducing internalizing symptoms. Two hundred and twenty-seven African American adolescents, mean age 12.55 participated in the study. Surveys consisting of Children's Social Support, Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure, State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children, and Experience Sampling Method were administered. Results suggested that ethnic identity and self-esteem function as important links in how social support reduced internalizing symptoms in African American youth. The researchers focused on how social support reduced internalizing symptoms using ethnic identity as a mediator for a sample of African American adolescents and the present study will examine indicator of SWB among a diverse sample of urban youth.

Yoon, Lee, and Goh (2008) examined social connectedness in mainstream society as a mediator between acculturation and subjective well-being (SWB), and social connectedness in the ethnic community as a mediator between enculturation and SWB. The sample included 188 Korean immigrants in the Midwest, ages 19 to 81 years. The Abbreviated Multidimensional Acculturation Scale, Social Connectedness in Mainstream Society, Social Connectedness in the Ethnic Community, Satisfaction with Life Scale, and Positive Affect Negative Affect Scales were administered. Results indicated that not only are close relationships a major contributor of well-being, but also social connectedness in mainstream society tended to partially mediate the relationship between

acculturation and SWB. Enculturation was related to SWB, which indicates that ethnic minority connectedness with the related ethnic community has a positive impact on overall sense of well-being. In fact, social connectedness in the ethnic community explains the relationship between enculturation and subjective well-being. The study provided important information for a Korean immigrant sample, however, the ages and culture of those sampled are significantly different from what this present study intends to examine.

Ethnic identity is also a significant predictor of high self-esteem, social connectedness, and sense of community in samples of Asian American college students (Tsai, Ying & Lee, 2001). Moreover, ethnic identity is a significant predictor of well-being for Asian Americans even when the effects of personal self-esteem or acculturation are controlled for (Yasuda & Duan, 2002).

Research also finds that ethnic identity functions as an important psychological resource that enables ethnic and racial minorities to be resilient against the stresses of racial discrimination (Phinney, 2003). For instance, Cassidy, O'Connor, Howe, and Warden (2004) found that a strong ethnic identity significantly attenuated the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and both depression and anxiety among a sample of South Asians living in Scotland. Other studies have similarly identified ethnic identity as a protective factor against the deleterious effects of racism for Asian minorities (Alvarez & Kimura, 2001). The culture and citizenship of those sampled is significant different from what this present study plans to examine.

Protective effects of ethnic identity on daily psychological well-being were examined in a sample of 415 ninth graders from Mexican and Chinese backgrounds (Kiang, Yip, Gonzales-Backen, Witkow, & Fuligni, 2006). Daily diary assessments and multilevel modeling were used. Findings suggested that adolescents with a greater regard for their ethnic group exhibited greater levels of daily happiness and less daily anxiety averaged over the two-week study period. Ethnic regard moderated the daily association between normative stressful demands and happiness, and between stressful demands and happiness experienced one day after stressors occurred. Moderating effects were significant even after controlling for self-esteem. The ages of those sampled in the study are significantly different from the ages of the sample in the present study.

Yip and Fuligni (2002) examined the links among Chinese American adolescents' global ethnic identity and their ethnic behaviors, ethnic identity salience, and psychological well-being based on daily diaries collected over a two-week period. The daily connection between engagement in ethnic behaviors and ethnic salience were positive regardless of overall ethnic identity. The daily-level association between ethnic identity salience and well-being, however, was dependent on adolescents' global ethnic identity. Among adolescents who were moderate or high in global ethnic identity, ethnic identity salience was consistently associated with positive well-being at the daily level. In contrast, the daily association between ethnic identity salience and well-being was more weakly correlated for youths who were low in ethnic identity. Additionally, a higher level of salience and a weaker association between salience and negative symptoms was found for girls than for boys. While this study focused on Chinese American adolescents, one

can hypothesize that urban youth who score high in ethnic identity will also score high in positive well-being.

In addition, Edward and Lopez (2006) explored perceived family support, acculturation, and life satisfaction in a mixed method design among 266 Mexican American adolescents. The Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale, The Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II, The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support, and open-ended questions about well-being were administered. Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to investigate the independent and interactive contributions of perceived support from family and Mexican and Anglo acculturation orientations on life satisfaction. Results suggested that perceived family support and Mexican orientation were significant predictors of life satisfaction in these adolescents, but not Anglo orientation.

The aforementioned literature indicates that there is a relationship between family satisfaction and well-being. Moreover, those individuals with higher levels of ethnic identity experience higher levels of well-being. There were also noticeable limitations in the literature. For instance, most of the studies looked at later adolescence, ignoring the importance of early adolescence. In addition, although, family support and well-being, family support and ethnic identity, or ethnic identity and well-being were considered, they failed to investigate how the three constructs related to one another as a group. Moreover, most of the participants in the studies were Asian Americans, African Americans, or Mexican Americans and not many studies looked at a heterogeneous sample, such as urban youth in general. Because the United States has become a melting

pot of ethnicities and nationalities, one can conclude that urban youth in general, regardless of their heritage share similar experiences. Studying a heterogeneous group provides the researcher with variability in responses.

Study Rationale

The purpose of this study is to discover if ethnic identity serves as a moderator between family satisfaction and SWB. It is indicated that family satisfaction plays an important role in the development of youth, specially ethnic minority youth whose family relations play an important role in their lives. Early adolescence is a difficult period for all individuals, but mostly difficult for urban youth because of an age at which they must culturally define themselves. This study contributes to the greater discussion of explaining the relation of ethnic identity, subjective well-being among, and family satisfaction.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The current chapter will provide a thorough explanation of methodology used in the current study. First, a description of the participants and the procedures in the study is provided. Second, the specific measures that are used in the study and their validity and reliability based on previous research studies will be presented. Lastly, the statistical analysis used in the study will be presented.

Participants

There were 158 participants in this study who were enrolled in the seventh and eighth grades in a public urban school in a large Midwestern city ranging in age from 11-15 ($M = 13.49$, $SD = .847$). The sample included 88 males (55%) and 70 females (43%). The majority of the participants were born in the United States, (74.4%) and in Mexico (13.1%). The remaining sample was born in Cuba, Ecuador, China, Philippines, Iraq, and Bosnia, for those participants who were born outside the United States, the maximum time living in the United States was 15 years and the minimum time was one year. Their primarily language was English for 107 (66.9%) students and English and another language for 45 (28.1%) students. Language spoken at home was reported only English by 25 (15.6%) students, whereas 98 (61.3%) reported only another language was spoken at home. Thus, the majority of the students in the sample spoke a language other than English at home.

Procedures

The information use in the study was from an archived dataset collected in 2007. All students in the seventh and eighth grade had the opportunity to participate in the study. Participants were part of the Choices Program, a school-based prevention program that addressed challenges of youth of color (i.e., gender and ethnic identity, coping with difficult emotions, stereotypes, peer pressure) and promoted protective factors (Vera et al. 2007). Parental consent and assent form were obtained before conducting the study; parents and kids could opt out of the research and still be part of the outreach program.

Measures

Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)

The PANAS contains a 10-item positive affect and a 10-item negative affect subscale (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Words such as “interested,” “strong,” and “inspired” measure positive affect, and words such as “guilty,” “afraid,” and “hostile” measure negative affect. A 5-point-Likert scale will be used, with a score of 5 indicating “extremely characteristic of me,” and 1 indicating “very slightly or not at all characteristic of me.” Internal consistency was rated as excellent with Cronbach’s alpha coefficients ranging from .84 to .90 in the original study.

Yoo and Lee (2005) included the PANAS as a measurement to examine effects of perceived racial discrimination on well-being. For their study, PA scale, the internal reliability estimate was .80 and the NA scale internal reliability estimate was .87. The PANAS was also used by McCullough et al. (2000) to assess positive subjective well being. The sample was comprised of 92 high school students’ grades 9 through 12. The

majority of the students were Caucasian and a few African American. For the Negative Affect and Positive Affect scales, internal consistency reliability was reported as .84 and .85 respectively. Moreover, another study by Vera et al. (2008) used the PANAS to examine SWB in urban adolescents of color. There were 151 urban adolescents ages 12 to 15 years from a diverse racial and ethnic group, 57% Latino (Mexican American, Puerto Rican, and Central American) 13% Asian American, 9% African American, and 9% Biracial. The internal consistency reliability for their sample was estimated to be .72. In sum, the PANAS appears to be a reliable measurement to use with urban youth. For the current study Cronbach's alpha for PA .809 and for NA was .828.

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) is a 5-item scale, in which individuals rate each item on a scale from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree). Diener et al. report that the SWLS is both internally consistent (Cronbach's alpha=0.87) and reliable. In a study by Edward and Lopez (2006), the authors explored perceived family support, acculturation, and life satisfaction among Mexican American adolescents' ages ranging from 15 to 18 years old. Life Satisfaction Scale was utilized to assess to understand the overall life satisfaction. In their study, the internal reliability was .86 for the Global subscale. In addition, Yoo and Lee (2005) studied the effects of perceived racial discrimination on the well-being of Asian American college students. They used the SWLS as a 5-item self-report measure of subjective wellbeing. For their study, an internal reliability estimate of .83. In another study by Yoon and colleagues in 2008, the SWLS was used to examine social

connectedness in mainstream society as a mediator between acculturation and SWB, and social connectedness in the ethnic community as a mediator between enculturation and SWB. The sample consisted of 188 Korean immigrants, mostly residing in two Midwestern metropolitan areas of the United States. The ages ranged from 19 to 81 years of age. The SWLS had a high internal consistency and was also found to be a suitable measure for different age groups. A study by Vera et al. (2008) the SWLS was used to examine life satisfaction among urban adolescents of color ages ranging from 12 to 15 years. The sample was racially and ethnically diverse and the internal consistency reliability for their sample was estimated to be .82. For the current study Cronbach's alpha was .797.

Multi Dimensional Students Life Satisfaction Scale (MSLSS)

The 40-item MSLSS was designed to provide a multidimensional profile of children's life satisfaction judgments (Huebner, 1991). Specifically, the MSLSS was designed to provide a profile of children's satisfaction with important, specific domains (e.g., school, family, and friends) in their lives. This study used only the family domain. The Factor structure indicated the meaningfulness of the five dimensions; and it has been used effectively with children across a wide range of age (grades 3-12). The four response options are assigned points as follows: (never = 1); (sometimes = 2); (often = 3); and (almost always = 4). Negatively-keyed items must be reverse scored. Hence, negatively-keyed items are scored so that almost always = 1, and so forth. Higher scores thus indicate higher levels of life satisfaction throughout the scale. Internal consistency alpha coefficients findings suggest that the reliabilities all range from .70s to low .90s.

Test-retest coefficients for two- and four-week time periods have also been reported (Huebner, 1994) falling mostly in the .70 - .90 range.

Martin and Huebner (2007) investigated the relationships among different forms of peer victimization, prosocial experiences and early adolescent emotional well-being. A total of 571 students in grades sixth and eighth with a mean age of 13 participated in the study. The sample was significantly diverse 44.3% were African American, 43.1% were Caucasian, 3.2% were Asian, 1.2% were Hispanic, 2.1% were American Indian, and 6.1% represented other ethnic groups. The MSLSS among other measures was administered and the reliability alpha coefficients ranged from .91 to .93 for the total scale. Another study by Antaramian and Huebner (2009) administered the MSLSS to 84 students on three occasions, one year apart. The samples were students in eighth through tenth grade. The majority of the sample was White (44%) and African American (39%). The internal consistency and test retest reliability for the three years for the family domain were $\alpha = .85$, $\alpha = .92$, and $\alpha = .92$.

Martin, Huebner, and Valois (2008) used the MSLSS to assess the relationship between adolescents' life satisfaction, peer victimization and prosocial experiences among 1, 571 students in eighth and ninth grade attending five public middle schools in a rural school district. Their mean age was 13.0 (SD= 1.03). There were a total of 44.3% African American, 43.1% Caucasian, 3.2% Asian, 1.2%, Hispanic, 2.1% American Indian, and 6.1% represented other ethnic groups. The Cronbach's alpha for the study were .83 and .80 for Time 1 and Time 2.

In addition, Haranin, Huebner, and Suldo (2007) examined the concurrent, predictive, and incremental validity of global and domain-based adolescent life satisfaction. SLSS and MSLSS were administered to secondary school students on three occasions, each separated by one year. The sample included 1,201 students from one large public school district in a southeastern U.S. All students were in sixth through twelfth grades. Students' ages ranged from 10 to 19 ($M = 14.62$; $SD = 2.06$). The majority of the sample identified themselves as 58% African American and 34% Caucasian. Their study internal consistency Cronbach's alpha ranged from .84 to .91. For the current study Cronbach's alpha was .899 for the family domain.

Ethnic Identity

The six ethnic identity items in Phinney's and Ong (2007) Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure-Revised (MEIM-R) were administered. The MEIM-R measures exploration and commitment, two important aspects of ethnic identity (Phinney & Ong, 2007). Questions are answered on a Likert-scale, with answers ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). Each subscale has three questions and the results can either be divided into subscales or a full scale score can be used. Sample questions include: "I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs" and "I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group." Phinney and Ong found that both subscales have good reliability: .76 for the exploration scale and .78 for the commitment scale. Full scale reliability was found to be .81. Factor analysis showed that this model was a good representation of the latent structure of ethnic identity, indicating that it has good validity.

Ong, Phinney, and Dennis (2006) used the MEIM to examine the protective influence of psychological and family factors on academic achievement. The sample included 123 diverse Latino college students (i.e., Mexican American, Central American, and mixed Mexican/Central American). The internal consistency reliability of the MEIM in their study was .91. Findings suggested that Latino students with greater psychological and family resources showed greater academic achievement. MEIM was also administered by Kiang and Fuligni (2009); they studied ethnic identity and family attitudes and relationships in a diverse sample (Latin American, Asian, and European backgrounds) of ninth graders. Internal consistencies were similarly high across ethnic groups .68 - .78 for belonging and .85 - .88 for exploration. Results indicated that adolescents from Latin American and Asian backgrounds reported significantly higher levels of obligation and assistance as compared to adolescents with European backgrounds.

Moreover, Gaylord-Harden et al. (2006) examined the roles of social support and possible mediators' self-esteem and ethnic identity in reducing internalizing symptoms. The sample included 227 African American adolescents with the mean age of 12.55. The MEIM was administered and their internal consistency, as indicated by Cronbach's alpha coefficient, was .81. The results suggest that ethnic identity and self-esteem function as important links in how social support reduces internalizing symptoms in African American youth. Roberts and colleagues (1999) examined the structure and construct validity of the MEIM among young adolescents (N= 5,423) in sixth, seventh, and eighth grades from ethnically diverse groups (i.e., European American, African American, and

Mexican American). In their sample the reliability, as assessed by the Cronbach's alpha, was .84. Results of the study suggested that ethnic identity was related positively to measures of psychological well-being such as coping ability, mastery, self-esteem and optimism, and negatively to measures of loneliness and depression.

Yip and Fuligni (2002) examined the links among Chinese American adolescents' global ethnic identity and their ethnic behaviors, ethnic identity salience, and psychological well-being. The sample ranged from 14 to 19 years of age and consisted of both first and second generation (birthplaces included China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan). MEIM was used to assess ethnic identity. The affirmation and belonging subscale Cronbach's alpha was equal to .84 and the role of one's ethnicity as a part of one's self-construal was equal to .78 Cronbach's alpha. A study by Yoo and Lee (2005) used the MEIM to examine if ethnic identity would moderate the effects of perceived racial discrimination on the well-being of Asian American college students. For their study, MEIM internal reliability estimate of .87. For the current study Cronbach's alpha was .829. MEIM was also used by Shin, Daly, and Vera (2007) in order to assess the relationships of peer support and ethnic identity to school engagement in urban youth grades seventh and eighth. The sample was racially and ethnically diverse (Latino 54.5%, African American 11%, Asian American 8%, Native American 0.8% and biracial). Internal consistency reliability for their study was .83. In sum, MEIM has been widely use with children and adolescents from racial and diverse backgrounds. Table 1 provides Cronbach's alpha for each measurement used in the current study.

Procedures

Participants were given questionnaires that included demographic questions, PANAS, Life Satisfaction Scale, ethnic identity, and perceived family satisfaction. The principal investigator attended the school and talked with the students about the study and distributed the permission form for parents to sign. All the students from ages 12-15 and grades seventh to eighth had the opportunity to participate, but only those that return the parental permission form were able to participate in the study, although all students were able to participate in the outreach program.

Data Analysis

Data was analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS). Preliminary analyses were conducted in order to identify outliers, test for normality, and homogeneity. Descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation of study variables and participants demographic were calculated. Correlations among study variables (family satisfaction, ethnic identity, PANAS, life satisfaction) were also analyzed.

In order to test hypothesis one (if there is a relationship between family satisfaction and SWB) regressions analyses were used test the relationship between the predictor (family satisfaction) and the outcome (SWB). SWB is comprised of three variables including Life Satisfaction, Positive Affect, and Negative Affect, thus three regression analyses were conducted: (1) linear regression between family satisfaction and life satisfaction, (2) linear regression analysis between family satisfaction and positive affect, (3) linear regression analysis between family satisfaction and negative affect.

In addition, hierarchical multiple regression analyses was performed to detect for main effects and interactions effects (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). The variables were introduced into three steps. First the predictor was entered (1) Family Satisfaction. Then the moderator was entered (2) Ethnic identity. And last the interaction term (3) Interaction effects (family satisfaction X Ethnic Identity). Before calculating moderator effect, the variables were centered; numerous researchers have recommended centering the continuous predictor variables in order to increase interpretability of interactions (Aiken & West, 1991). If the variable is not centered there are possible problems with multicollinearity. The independent variables were centered using SPSS by subtracting the mean score from each data-point.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The results of this study are presented in two parts. The first part provides descriptive statistics for the participant sample and for the measures used. The second part provides inferential statistics associated with each of the operational hypotheses.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for the composite measures of life satisfaction, PANAS, family satisfaction, and ethnic identity are shown in Table 1 for whole sample. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for the various variables were as follows: life satisfaction scale (.79), PANAS (.81), family satisfaction (.89), and ethnic identity (.82). Overall, the reliability coefficients were consistent with previous studies.

Table 1: *Reliability Statistics*

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Items	Mean	SD
PA	.809	10	32.16	6.22
NA	.828	10	26.55	6.41
MEIM	.829	6	22.84	4.57
SWLS	.797	5	20.79	6.72
MDLS (family domain)	.899	7	18.85	5.10

Correlations

Table 2 shows the correlations between the five variables for the combined sample. The strongest correlations were between the overall life satisfaction and family satisfaction scales. Specifically, overall life satisfaction had a correlation of .31 ($p < 0.01$) with positive affect, -.13 ($p > .05$) with negative affect, .51 ($p < .01$) with family satisfaction, and .20 ($p < .05$) with ethnic identity. Positive affect had a correlation of .17 ($p < .05$) with negative affect, .17 ($p < .05$) with family satisfaction, and .14 ($p > .05$) with ethnic identity. Negative affect had a correlation of -.18 ($p < .05$) with family satisfaction and -.023 ($p > .05$) with ethnic identity. Family satisfaction had a correlation of .17 ($p < .05$) with ethnic identity.

Table 2: *Correlations*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Life Satisfaction		.319**	-.137	.518**	.207*
Positive Affect			.170*	.177*	.141
Negative Affect				-.186*	-.023
Family Satisfaction					.178*
Ethnic Identity					

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Inferential Statistics

Regression analyses were computed in order to test hypotheses, and hierarchical regression analyses were performed in order to test the moderation hypothesis. The first hypothesis stated that Family Satisfaction Scale scores would significantly correlate with scores on the SWB measures. This hypothesis was tested computing a regression

analyses between Family Satisfaction Scores and the Satisfaction with Life Scale scores, Positive Affect scores, and Negative Affect scores respectively.

Hypothesis 1a: Students who demonstrate higher levels of family satisfaction will indicate a greater degree life satisfaction. Family satisfaction Scale scores and life satisfaction scores were significantly correlated, $r = .518$, $p > .000$, supporting the hypothesis (see Table 3 for summary statistics).

Table 3: *Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Life Satisfaction*

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig.	R ²
Step 1						
Family Satisfaction	.762	.093	.575	8.203	.000	.263
Step 2						
Family Satisfaction	.734	.094	.554	7.831	.000	.335
Ethnic Identity	.177	.105	.119	1.684	.095	
Step 3						
Family Satisfaction	.725	.095	.547	7.658	.000	.333
Ethnic Identity	.180	.106	.121	1.704	.091	
FS X EI	.015	.020	.053	.751	.454	

Hypothesis 1b: Students who demonstrate higher levels of family satisfaction will indicate a greater degree of positive affect. Family satisfaction scale scores and positive affect scores were significantly correlated, $r = .177$, $p > .031$, supporting the hypothesis (see Table 4 for summary statistics).

Table 4: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Positive Affect

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig.	R ²
Step 1						
Family Satisfaction	.257	.097	.222	2.661	.000	.025
Step 2						
Family Satisfaction	.212	.097	.184	2.186	.031	.072
Ethnic Identity	.251	.109	.194	2.309	.022	
Step 3						
Family Satisfaction	.210	.099	.181	2.114	.036	.065
Ethnic Identity	.253	.110	.195	2.306	.023	
FS X EI	.003	.021	.013	.154	.878	

Hypothesis 1c: Students who demonstrate higher levels of family satisfaction will indicate lower levels of negative affect. Family satisfaction scale scores and negative affect scores were significantly negative correlated, $r = -.186$, $p > .023$, supporting the hypothesis (see Table 5 for summary statistics).

The second hypothesis stated that students with higher Ethnic Identity scores will have a stronger relationship between Family Satisfaction and SWB than students with lower ethnic identity scores. In order to examine the second hypothesis, a hierarchical regression analysis was used, which involves a predictor variable, a moderator variable, and a product term (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Cronbach, 1987). In step 1, family satisfaction scale scores were entered. In step 2, ethnic identity scores were entered. In step 3, family satisfaction scale scores X ethnic identity scores were entered.

Table 5: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Negative Affect

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig.	R ²
Step 1						
Family Satisfaction	-.241	.103	-.196	-2.351	.020	.028
Step 2						
Family Satisfaction	-.238	.105	-.193	-2.273	.025	.024
Ethnic Identity	-.019	.117	-.014	-.166	.869	
Step 3						
Family Satisfaction	-.240	.106	-.195	-2.264	.025	.018
Ethnic Identity	-.019	.118	-.014	-.161	.873	
FS X EI	.003	.023	.012	.145	.885	

Hypothesis 2a: Students with higher ethnic identity scores will have a stronger relationship between family satisfaction scale scores and life satisfaction scores than students with lower ethnic identity scores. At step 1, family satisfaction was entered in the model, the main effect of family satisfaction on life satisfaction was significant, ($\beta=.762, p=.000, R^2=.263$). At step 2, ethnic identity was entered in the model, the main effect of ethnic identity on life satisfaction was not significant ($\beta=.177, p=.095, R^2=.335$). At step 3, family satisfaction X ethnic identity was entered in the model. There was a non-significant interaction between family satisfaction and ethnic identity ($\beta=.015, p=.454, R^2=.333$) suggesting non-significant interaction term (see Table 3 for summary statistics).

Hypothesis 2b: Students with higher ethnic identity scores will have a stronger relationship between family satisfaction scale scores and positive affect scores than

students with lower ethnic identity scores. At step 1, family satisfaction was entered in the model, the main effect of family satisfaction on positive affect was significant ($\beta=.257, p=.000, R^2=.025$). At step 2, ethnic identity was entered in the model, the main effect of ethnic identity on positive affect was significant ($\beta=.251, p=.022, R^2=.072$). At step 3, family satisfaction X ethnic identity was entered in the model. There was a non-significant interaction between family satisfaction and ethnic identity ($\beta=.003, p=.878, R^2=.065$) suggesting non-significant interaction term (see Table 4 for summary statistics).

Hypothesis 2c: Students with higher ethnic identity scores will have a weaker relationship between family satisfaction scale scores and negative affect scores than students with lower ethnic identity scores. At step 1, family satisfaction was entered in the model; the main effect of family satisfaction on negative affect was significant ($\beta=-.241, p=.020, R^2=.028$). At step 2, ethnic identity was entered in the model, the main effect of ethnic identity on negative affect was non-significant ($\beta=-.019, p=.869, R^2=.024$). At step 3, family satisfaction X ethnic identity was entered in the model, there was a non-significant interaction between family satisfaction and ethnic identity ($\beta=.003, p=.885, R^2=.018$) (see Table 5 for summary statistics).

Post-hoc analysis was also completed to help explain the non-significant interaction and main effects. The observed power for the ethnic identity main effect was computed using an $\alpha=.05$. The results described the ethnic identity main effect observed power was from .395, .629, and .053 using each independent variable that is life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect. The observed power for the interactions was .116, .053, and .052 for each independent variable. The results suggest the need for a

larger sample size when using MEIM scale with this sample. Using the Russ Lenth's power and sample size program, it was estimated that in order to obtain a meaningful interaction, there needs to be a sample size of up to 635 participants at a 0.80 power.

In summary, correlation analyses results suggested a strong significant correlation between family satisfaction and life satisfaction. Furthermore, results from hypotheses 1a-1c suggested significant relationship among family satisfaction (predictor) and life satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect (outcomes). Hypotheses 2a-2c suggested significant main effects of family satisfaction on the three outcome variables (life satisfaction and positive affect, and on the absence of negative affect). Moreover, the main effect of ethnic identity on positive affect was significant; however, the main effect of ethnic identity was non-significant on life satisfaction and the absence of negative affect outcomes. In addition, hypotheses 2a-2c suggested non-significant interactions, providing no support for the hypothesis of ethnic identity as a moderator of family satisfaction and SWB.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the purpose of the study is revisited. Second, the results of the study are addressed in greater detail and its connection to previous research studies is also discussed. Attention is directed first to the supported hypotheses, then to the unsupported hypotheses, and to additional findings of interest. Lastly, recommendations for future research, implications, and limitations of the current study are discussed.

The purpose of this study was twofold: first the study examined the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB among urban youth ages 11 to 15. Second, the study examined the moderator effects of ethnic identity between family satisfaction and SWB among urban youth. The findings suggest a significant relationship between family satisfaction and all dimensions of SWB (i.e., life satisfaction, positive affect, and the absence of negative affect). However, when the moderator (i.e., ethnic identity) was introduced, the data did not support a significant interaction between family satisfaction scale scores and ethnic identity.

The results of the study are consistent with the literature on SWB and family satisfaction. For instance, Vera et al. (2008) suggested that family variables were significant predictors of life satisfaction and positive affect among urban adolescents. The results support the evidence that family satisfaction and support lead to feelings of well-being (Joronen & Astedt-Kurki, 2005). The second question addressed in the present

study was related to ethnic identity as a moderator between the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB among urban youth. The results illustrated non significant moderator effects, suggesting that ethnic identity did not influence the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB in this sample. In other words, urban youth with higher level of ethnic identity did not add more significance to family satisfaction as it relates to SWB.

Family Satisfaction and Positive Dimensions of Subjective Well-being

In the present study, family satisfaction was defined as the extent to which children feel supported and satisfied with their (Huebner, 1991). Family satisfaction had a significant correlation with life satisfaction. Also, Family satisfaction had a significant relationship with positive affect. These finding suggest that children who are in general satisfied with their family experience an overall satisfaction in their life and obtain greater pleasure from their environment and their interactions with other. These findings are consistent with the existing body of literature stating that children who have a positive and satisfying relationship with their family, not only experience higher levels of life satisfaction and positive affect. Family satisfaction also functions as a protective factor (Pabon, 1998).

Family fulfillment has a remarkable impact in the lives of urban youth. Family is the foundation of children's psychosocial development (i.e., the development of their values, their core beliefs, and their effectiveness in relationships). According to attachment theory, secure parental attachment provides a feeling of security for the child (Bowlby, 1982). A positive relationship between parent-child as early as infancy provides

a secure base for the child to explore her or his environment and to engage in developmental behavior (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). The attachment system is central to the functioning of all other behavioral aspects including friendship, adult relationships, care giving and could affect individuals' quality of life (Shaver, Hazan, & Bradshaw, 1988). On the other hand, negative family environment is associated with a decreased well-being and lower life satisfaction among youth who experience high conflict and disagreement with their family (Bradley & Corwyn, 2004).

The findings of the study also support the vast research studies that indicate the importance of positive family relationship in the development of urban youth. For instance, Triandis et al. (1982) described that familismo is a sense of strong identification and attachment of individuals to their families. This form of attachment is not only seen in the Latino culture but has also been identified as an important value for other ethnic groups such as African Americans, Asian Americans, and American Indians (Marin & Gamba, 2003).

Moreover, Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 1986) ecological model explains that individual human development occurs within multiple fixed ecological systems. Family support is embedded in one of the systems, the microsystem, and is paramount for a child's healthy development. Family is an important aspect of child development and can influence many aspects of oneself (i.e., values, ethnic identity).

Negative Affect

Findings indicate that family satisfaction was negatively related to negative affect. These findings are consistent with the literature. It was expected that if family satisfaction

was significantly related to positive affect and life satisfaction, then family satisfaction would be negatively related to negative affect. The results are consistent with the literature, for instance, Nezelek and Allen (2006) examined negative reactivity to negative events and social support. Findings suggest that reactivity to negative events is less stressful for people who can rely on others for support. Family support works as an allied to cope with negative emotions.

Family Satisfaction and Ethnic Identity

The current study also examined ethnic identity moderator effects between family satisfaction and SWB. It was hypothesized that those kids who score higher on ethnic identity had a significantly stronger relationship between family satisfaction and SWB, whereas those kids who had lower ethnic identity scores would have a weaker relationship between family satisfaction and SWB. The data in the study did not support the moderator hypothesis that ethnic identity buffers the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB. These findings suggest that ethnic identity does not influence the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB in this sample. In other words, kids' ethnic identity did not enhance the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB.

A study by Garcia Coll and Magnuson (1997) described several reasons to assume that family plays an essential role in the development of ethnic identity among Chinese children, and it is expected to be the same among other cultures. Family is likely children's primary source of knowledge about their culture. Immigrant families encourage their children to model their cultural values (i.e., familismo, loyalty) and collectivism. Ethnic identity also influences adolescents' family processes on a number

of levels. Adolescents who reported greater exploration of and belonging to their ethnic and cultural background reported greater family connectedness across a variety of indicators (i.e., respect and support). Specifically, adolescents' identification with and connection to their ethnic group showed the strongest associations with family respect, which is a process that is implanted in the cultural backgrounds of urban youth (Kiang & Fuligni, 2009).

Ethnic identity is influenced by socialization in which the primary component is family influences (Umaña-Taylor & Fine, 2004), thus children learn about their ethnic background from their parents. Despite the theoretical expectations that support the same patterns between ethnic identity and family satisfaction across diverse ethnic groups, differences can be expected to vary across ethnic background (Kiang & Fuligni, 2009). Even though those differences across groups exist, researchers support the idea that ethnic identity is developed through family socialization, in which the individuals imitate their family values (Hughes, 2003). In this study the results suggest that ethnic identity appears to be independent from the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB.

In addition, family relations serve as an avenue for the development of positive family identification and for ethnic culture learning opportunities that could encourage children's ethnic identity development (Sue & Costigan, 2009). In addition, Costigan and Dokis (2006) insinuate that a strong sense of ethnic identity can be complicated by immigrant parents and children adaptation to the new country; hence those differences could lead to conflict within the family. One could assume that children, who are more acculturated to the mainstream culture than their parents, would have greater

dissatisfaction with their family than those families that have the same level of acculturation.

As mentioned previously ethnic identity has many positive benefits for urban youth (i.e., protective factor). In particular during early adolescence, this is a time for many changes including physical, emotional, and social (Kiang & Fuligni, 2009). Consequently, young adolescents might be worried about physical and emotional changes due to puberty. In addition, a number of adolescents might face peer pressure to use alcohol, tobacco products, and drugs, and to have sex. Other challenges can be eating disorders, depression, and family problems. During this phase of development youth are more influence by peer group and less by the family. Based on the reasons indicated above, one could presume that in early adolescence there may be a tendency for urban youth's ethnic identity to be less well defined.

Other important reasons why the moderator effect might have been non-significant could be due to range restriction, which could also have a significant effect on power due to limited variability in the responses (Aguinis & Stone-Romero, 1997). Restriction of range always brings a decrease in the variability of scores. Thus a decrease in variance brings a decrease in the correlation coefficient. Research indicates that the coefficient of correlation r is greater for a group with more variability than for a more homogeneous group (Glass & Hopkins, 1984). Although, the range of all independent variables was relatively large, correlation r was lower for the ethnic identity variable in the sample compare to the other variables. Thus, the increase of variability in the responses could impact the interaction significance in the study.

Conclusion

The current study contributes to the literature in a number of ways. First the study examined the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB among urban youth. As hypothesized there was a significant relationship between the two variables suggesting that for urban youth, satisfaction with family leads to greater level of well-being, better quality of life, and positive affect. Second, the study examined ethnic identity as a moderator; the results suggested a non-significant interaction between ethnic identity and family satisfaction among urban youth for this sample. Although ethnic identity did not buffer the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB for this sample, there is a vast amount of literature that supports the concept that family plays an important role in the ethnic identity development among urban youth (Triandis et al., 1982). Therefore, many factors could have impacted the moderator effect including sample size when using the MEIM measure to evaluate ethnic identity.

Limitations

These findings must be understood in light of study limitations. One of the limitations is that the results are correlational in nature and does not allow casual attributions. Another limitation is that only self report measurements were used in the study and results may be subject to bias and errors. In addition, ethnic identity and family satisfaction were not assessed using other methods including in school or at home behavioral observations. In addition, students from the study attended a relatively homogeneous school in which they were similar in the time in the United States, family income, English as a second language, and the majority was from Latin American

descent. Consequently, the study had a limited representation of the population, suggesting that the findings could not be generalized to the urban youth population living in the country.

Clinical Implications

The importance of family satisfaction and SWB among urban youth was demonstrated in the present study. Family satisfaction plays an essential role in the life of urban youth. Thus, counselors and psychologists should include family members as part of the psychotherapy treatment for this population. According to the literature, family satisfaction and support not only serve as a protective factor for urban youth, but also promote subjective well-being. In addition, when working with children's parents, counselors and psychologists should be aware of the importance of the attachment bond between parent and children during their early infancy years. Parenting education could play a major role in psychotherapy because lack of parental support could lead to psychological problems in children development.

Although ethnic identity did not buffer the relationship between family satisfaction and SWB, results suggested a significant correlation between ethnic identity and life satisfaction. These findings are supported by the literature on ethnic identity, suggesting that individual with higher level of ethnic identity indicated life satisfaction. In addition, there was also a significant correlation between family satisfaction and ethnic identity, suggesting that those individuals with higher ethnic identity also reported higher levels of family satisfaction.

Future Research

Future research could examine ethnic identity as a moderator and observe other levels of non-familial socialization (i.e., peers, mentors, teachers, and media) which were described in the literature as an essential aspect of urban youth ethnic identity development. In addition to examining other levels of socialization, researchers could assess levels of acculturation among urban youth because studies have shown that ethnic identity could be influenced by immigrant parents and children adaptation to a new country (Costigan & Dokis, 2006). One could assume that youth, who are acculturated to the mainstream culture, might have less levels of ethnic identity.

Sample size and range could also be taken into consideration, the sample in this research study was somewhat significantly diverse, future research could select a more diverse sample and select students from other middle schools and other areas of the country. Furthermore, multiple methods of measurements and not only self report could add more significance to the study, primarily when conducting research with children collateral information from parents and teachers could be necessary to gather more accurate information. Future research could also compare ethnic identity between early adolescents and later adolescents in order to distinguish when adolescents' ethnic identity becomes defined.

APPENDIX A
INSTRUMENTS

Multidimensional Students Life Satisfaction Scale – Family Domain (MSLSS) - Huebner,

1991

1=never, 2=sometimes, 3=often, 4=always

1. I enjoy being at home with my family.
2. My family gets along well together.
3. I like spending time with my parents.
4. My parents and I doing fun things together.
5. My family is better than most.
6. Members of my family talk nicely to one another.
7. My parents treat me fairly.

Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) - Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988

In general how often do you feel the following emotions?

1=never, 2=a little, 3=sometimes, 4=a lot, 5=all the time

- | | |
|------------------|--|
| 1. Interested: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 2. Stressed: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 3. Excited: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 4. Upset: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 5. Strong: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 6. Guilty: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 7. Scared: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 8. Angry: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 9. Enthusiastic: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 10. Proud: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 11. Irritated: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 12. Alert: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 13. Ashamed: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 14. Motivated: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 15. Nervous: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 16. Determined: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 17. Attentive: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 18. Worried: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 19. Active: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |
| 20. Afraid: | <i>Never.....A little.....Sometimes.....A lot.....All the time</i> |

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) - Diener et al., 1985

1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=neither, 5=slightly disagree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree

1. In most ways my life is close to ideal.
2. The conditions in my life are excellent.
3. I am satisfied with life.
4. So far I've got the things I want in life.
5. If I re-lived my life, I'd change nothing.

Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) - Phinney, 1992

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

Please fill in: In terms of ethnic group, I consider myself to be _____
Use the numbers below to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

4=Strongly agree, 3=Agree, 2=Disagree, 1=Strongly disagree

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

- e. (5) American Indian/Native American
- f. (6) Mixed; Parents are from two different groups
- g. (7) Other (write in): _____

14. My father's ethnicity is (use numbers above)

15. My mother's ethnicity is (use numbers above)

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