PSYCHOLOGICAL STRENGTHS AMONG BLACK WOMEN WHO HEAD HOUSEHOLDS

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NOTE OF THE REPORT

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ABSTRACT

Fifty Black single women residing in a Federally subsidized multi-family unit in the southwestern United States were interviewed and administered four psychological inventories. The inventories measured self-esteem, depression, state and trait anxiety.

It was hypothesized that several personal and familial characteristics, based on the literature, would be predictors of the psychological status of the sample.

Multiple Regression was used to analyze dependent and independent sets of factors. Findings suggest that Black single women who are primarily poor do possess psychological strengths resulting from their personal and familial characteristics. Further examinations of Black poor matrifocal families are needed in light of the increasing poverty rate and the paucity of studies found relative to this population.

Psychological Strengths Among Black Women Who Head Households

Previous research and literature reviews have consistently reflected the disorganization, dysfunctional, pathological, negativistic, and weaknesses of Black American families in previous decades (Frazier, 1968; Moynihan, 1965; Rainwater, 1966; Sarbin, 1970). The most salient focus has been the matrifocal family (Billingsley, 1968; Lewis, 1966). Yet, there appears no appreciable research regarding the positive aspects of the psychological status of these poor mother-centered families. Although Hays and Mindel (1973), Hill (1972), McAdoo (1978), and others have attempted to point to certain strengths of Black American families, these strengths have been primarily related to "extended family kinship ties", "social support systems", and "religion". Concomitantly, others (Crumidy & Jacobziner, 1966; Kamii & Radin, 1971; McAdoo, 1978; Symonds, 1969) have concentrated notably on racial differences, socioeconomic class comparisons, marital status comparisons (i.e., married compared to non-married), and other combinations of these. Very little interest has been devoted to the psychological status of poor matrifocal Black Americans families.

More recently, there does appear to be a marginal recognition in the literature concerning matrifocal families in the United States. This growing recognition of single-headed households occurs relatively simultaneous with the recent upsurge of divorce among white middle-class families

Bloom & Clement, 1984; Duffy, 1987). As a result of the upsurge of white middle-class divorce and the fact that more white American women are currently heading families, social scientists are for the first time in the history of this country, beginning to "legitimize" the matrifocal family. Moreover, the new matrifocal image appears to reflect a more positive character than the previous image of matrifocal families (Duffy, 1987). There is marginal evidence that the new image of mother-centered families or single women carries the notion of "personal growth", "individuality", and "personal autonomy" (Curran, 1983; Duffy, 1987).

However, there is little evidence that the Black matrifocal family is included in this new positive image (Staples, 1981). This may be largely due to the biases of researchers regarding the poor in general. It appears that poor Black women in the United States continue to be viewed and studied in terms of deficits, weaknesses, pathologies, and not strengths. The gamut of issues currently reported and studied tend to be, for example, unwed mothers (Colletta & Lee, 1983), mental dysfunction (Lindblad-Goldberg & Dukes, 1985), poverty and welfare (Dickinson, 1986; Wodarski, Parham, Lindsey & Blackburn, 1986). These issues that reflect the present interest of social scientists and educators tend to epitomize the monocle vision of both current and traditional perspectives of poor Black American women (Curran, 1983; Lewis, 1966).

Accordingly, researchers consistently ignore the positive characteristics of Black American families. Billingsley argued, "The Negro family as an institution has been virtually ignored by students of group life in America . . . When they have treated the Negro family, they have done so in a negativistic and distorted fashion" (1968, p. 197). In addition, Nobles (1976) contended that Black families have been studied with three major orientations: 1) The poverty-acculturated studies; 2) The pathological studies; and 3) The victim-oriented studies.

The previous and present foci of research on Black families in the United States have ubiquitous inimical effects on Black family life. Federal and State legislation and policy-making that directly or indirectly impact the Black family have been germinated from questionable and misleading reports from social scientists of the Black family (Nobles, 1976; McAdoo, 1978; Staples, 1973; Willie, 1970). Accordingly, Nobles (1976) argued, "The nature of the Black family has been seriously misunderstood; consequently, we know very little about the impact or consequence of the Black family dynamic has on the psychological development and mental health of its members" (p. 180). It is maintained that Black American women who share a similar history, experience, and social condition need to be studied and understood in that context. Neither the historical factors of slavery nor contemporary factors of racism and sexism have annihilated the viability of the Black American family.

Therefore, it appears logical to propose that Black women who head families bear certain psychological traits that need further study (Hill, 1972; Nobles, 1976).

A major aim of this research is to build on previous findings and speculations that relate to Black women who are primarily poor heads of households. It is hypothesized that Black women who are poor do possess certain psychological strengths and that traditional methods and aims have been biased so as to yield stereotypical rather than prototypical results (Belle, 1982; Nobles, 1976; Staples, 1973).

In that the Black experience of Black women is notably different from white and upper socioeconomic classes, they are more likely to possess a different perspective about the world and exhibit different responses (Fine, Schwebel, & Myers, 1985). Therefore, the psychological status of Black poor women is most likely to be understood by investigating this population within a Black epistemological context (Nobles, 1976; Scanzoni, 1971; Willie, 1970).

This research shall emphasize the examination of the relationships of personal and familial characteristics that are believed to be related to the psychological status among Black women who head households. Based on the literature, it appears that Black American families bear certain traits that signify general psychological strengths (Willie, 1970). In 1985 (U. S. State Department of Labor) over 43% of Black families were headed by Black women and over one-half of them were living below the poverty line. This seems to

indicate that this population possesses a unique character that students of family life know little about. (Nobles, 1976; Pettigrew, 1964). In light of the relevant literature, several factors were hypothesized to be related to the psychological status of Black matrifocal families. They are: family of origin traits, education, religiosity, number of children or dependents, counselee orientation, and age (Billingsley, 1968; Dillard, 1983; Duffy, 1986; Martin & Martin, 1978; Scanzoni, 1971; Staples, 1973). These personal and familial factors were hypothesized to be related to several psychological phenomena (anxiety, depression, & self-esteem). Black women who possess an optimal amount of characteristics will likely possess a higher level of psychological strengths than those who do not.

Anxiety, depression, and self-esteem are considered to be pervasive and generally hidden from subjective observation (Rowe, 1989; Sturgeon, 1979). Previous studies have repeatedly claimed that Black American families that are poor tended to possess psychological weaknesses. That is, disportionately depressed, anxious, and lack normal self-esteem with little or no objectifiable or empirical data to substantiate these claims (Lewis, 1966; Rainwater, 1966; Sarbin, 1970). A chief assumption of this study is that objective techniques must be utilized to obtain more valid appraisals of the psychological status of this understudied population (Belle, 1982; Purkey, 1970). This study is not primarily aimed at the refutation of

research that has been conducted in this area. Since very few studies have focused on the psychological strengths of Black poor women, there is little need to address the scant work in this area. The previous models and designs that researchers have utilized appear weak. A chief notion of this study is that certain characteristics among Black matrifocal families are associated with specific psychological phenomena, and the theoretical model formulated from the literature plays an important role towards providing a comprehensive understanding of the poor Black matrifocal families in the United States. Furthermore, a chief reason as to why American Black families have been so often misunderstood is that very little attention has been devoted to theoretical development based on objective assessment techniques. Consequently, the Black American family has been misunderstood, misdiagnosed, and mistreated by the majority of social scientists (Lewis, 1966; Pettigrew, 1964; Nobles, 1976).

It was hypothesized that age, years of education, counselee orientation, religiosity, racial climate of community during childhood, and children would be predictors of specific psychological phenomena: self-esteem, anxiety, and depression. It was further hypothesized that a proportion of this sample would possess more optimal levels of self-esteem, depression, and anxiety if they reported: higher levels of education; fewer children or dependents; an appreciably higher level of interaction

relative to Black related experiences during childhood; older in age; reported higher levels of religiosity; and reported a higher counselee orientation than other women within the sample.

METHOD

Subjects

A quota sample (Johnson, 1959) of 50 Black single women was selected from 118 apartment numbers in a Federally subsidized multi-unit complex in Tulsa, Oklahoma. Of this sample: 1) 60% were never married; 2) 22% were separated; and 3) 18% were divorced.

Subjects' age range was 18 to 48 years, with a mean age of 30. Both mean and median years of education were 12., with a range of 9 to 16, and 4% of the sample reported college completion. Fifty-eight percent of these subjects reported Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) as a major source of income, 24% reported employment in primarily low paying service occupations (e. g., janitorial services), and 8% reported Social Security as a major source of income. The remaining 10% reported no major source of income. These latter subjects represented mostly new residents who were waiting on financial and material aid from relatives and welfare.

Instruments

A questionnaire composed of 16 items was constructed by the researcher based on the aim of this investigation in conjunction with a panel of judges of the graduate faculty

at Oklahoma State University. Education completed, marital status, type of income, and number of children or dependents presently living in the household, were basic demographic questions asked from the questionnaire. In that this sample was primarily poor, categorical income types were more descriptive than actual income dollars. Each response was recorded during the interview by the researcher.

Questions that related to "Family of Origin" traits were asked relative to the racial climate of the community. For example, "What was mostly the racial background of your community that you grew up in?" The focus of such questions was to assess the extent of Black related experiences. The subjects were asked to respond to one of the following:

1) "Mostly White"; 2) "Mostly Mixed"; and 3) "Mostly Black". Similar questions were asked regarding the racial identification of public school teachers and students in public schools.

Religiosity was assessed on a four point scale from "Very religious" to "Not at all religious". Subjects were asked to subjectively rate themselves due to the axiological nature of religiosity or spirituality (Fine, et al., 1985).

The questionnaire also included questions regarding the subjects' "Counselee Orientation". These questions were designed to obtain information regarding the subjects' value of counseling, receptivity or proneness to counseling, and the possible experiences that subjects may have had in the

counseling process. One example is, "Would you talk to a counselor, psychologist, or some other professional about a special problem that you may have?" The subjects were asked to state "yes" or "no" for these type questions. The final question was, "What do you feel to be your strengths as a Black woman?" Each response was recorded.

Four psychological inventories were administered to each subject. The State and Trait Anxiety Inventories, developed by Spielberger (1983), describes the anxiety emotional states of subjects. Each scale (State and Trait) has 20 items. The State scale assesses the present emotional degree of anxiety. After each statement, the subject was instructed to select one of four responses (Not At All to Very Much So).

The Trait scale instructs the subject to select one of four responses ("Almost Never" to "Almost Always"). An example from this scale is, "I feel like a failure". This anxiety inventory has been widely used and possesses statistical reliability of stability coefficients of .90 with adults.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1983) assesses attitudes, values, and beliefs of people. The subjects were instructed to choose each statement which are "like me" or "unlike me". The adult form consists of 25 items. Cronbach alpha reliabilities are reported for Black Americans with a range from .79 (males) to .83 (females).

The Depression Adjective Checklist developed by Lubin

(1981) measures "mood" states. The checklist is composed of 32 items. Ten of them are negative, and 22 are positive. The subjects were to check all items that apply to them "now". Lubin (1981) also reported concurrent validity significant at the .01 level with subscales of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and the Beck Depression Inventory.

Procedure

A list of apartment numbers, designated for single head of household residence was obtained from the managerial staff. Cover letters explaining the general nature and purpose of the study were mailed to 118 family units. Instructions in the letter indicated that each resident should return the bottom portion of the letter if they desired to participate in the study to the apartment office staff in the envelopes provided. Also, included in the letter was the statement that a \$10.00 participatory fee would be paid to each resident upon completion of the interview. Additionally, the letter stated that the investigator would contact them to set up an appropriate appointment time for an interview.

The management of the apartments provided office space to conduct the interviews. Subjects were scheduled as they returned their letters. The bottom section of the letter that subjects returned asked for: a) race; b) age; and c) marital status. This procedure provided screening out those residents who did not meet the criteria to be

participants in this study.

The general criteria were that subjects must be 18 to 54 years of age, single, and a Black American considered to be the head of the household. Of the 118 families contacted, 73 families responded. Three women were eliminated due to their inability to read. Two men also returned letters. This likely occurred due to incorrect apartment numbers. After the sample of 50 subjects had been interviewed, no other appointments were made.

Before starting the interviews, each subject was asked to read aloud a "consent form". This technique further aided in the screening process. Due to the nature of the interview, subjects needed to possess roughly an eighth grade reading level to complete the self-administered battery of psychological inventories.

After subjects demonstrated sufficient literacy to complete the entire interview, all questions were asked on the questionnaire form. After each response from the subjects, the investigator recorded them accordingly. The inventories were given after the completion of the questionnaire. The investigator asked the subjects to read with him the directions of each inventory. To further clarify the directions, each subject was asked if they understood the directions before answering the inventory. This was done with each inventory successively.

Variables

Two sets of factors (variables) were selected for this

study. The independent factors were: 1) education; 2) age;
3) the racial composition of the community; 4) number of
children or dependents presently living with subjects; 5)
counselee orientation; 6) and religious orientation.
Education was measured by number of years of education completed. Age was also determined by years. Composition of community characteristics included the racial
climate (proportion of races) that the subjects had
experienced. That is, the predominant racial groups of
students and teachers, and the general racial background
that the subjects had grown up in.

Dependent factors were measured by the psychological inventories: 1) State Anxiety; 2) Trait Anxiety; 3) Self-esteem; and 4) Depression. Each completed inventory was hand scored by scoring keys provided by the authors and designers of the instruments.

Data collected on other selected variables indicated that the mean for number of dependents living with the subjects was 2.8. The mean and median years of education was 12. Eighty-four percent of the subjects indicated that they grew up in a Black community, 52% indicated that they had mostly Black teachers in elementary school and 32% had predominantly Black teachers in high school. Marital status indicated 60% of this sample had never been married, 22% were separated, and 18% were divorced.

Only 12% indicated "not at all religious". Twenty-six percent indicated "not too religious", while 62% indicated

"somewhat to very religious". Seventy-two percent indicated that they would be willing to seek counseling from a professional counselor, however, only 28% reported having ever received counseling, and over one-half of these counseling sessions have been "church" related. In addition, only 6% reported involvement in some ongoing counseling.

The Multiple regression backward model was used to analyze the relationship between two sets of factors: the six predictor factors were 1) education by years, 2) family of origin traits, 3) number of children, 4) religiosity, 5) counselee orientation, and 6) age by years. The criterion factors for the four separate regression analyses were 1) state anxiety, 2) trait anxiety, 3) depression, and 4) self-esteem. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (1983) was utilized to analyze these factors.

Statistical analyses, in order of contribution to the equation indicated that counselee orientation, religiosity, number of children, and age were predictors of trait anxiety. The Multiple R value was .50. The four-variable model accounted for 25% of the variance, $F(4,45)=3.70, p < .01. \text{ The analyses further revealed that the counselee orientation and number of children were positively related to trait anxiety, while religiosity and age were negatively related to trait anxiety in this sample. Analyses in order of contribution to the equation indicated that counselee orientation, racial background of elementary teachers, years of education, religiosity, and age were$

predictors of self-esteem. The Multiple R value was .46. This five-variable model accounted for 21% of the variance, F(5,44)=2.36, p<.05. Education, religiosity, and age were positively related to self-esteem, while the racial background of elementary school teachers (i. e., more Black teachers), and counselee orientation were negatively related to self-esteem.

Subsequent analyses using the independent groups t-test indicated lower educated subjects (grades 9 to 12) were found to exhibit higher trait anxiety than subjects with higher levels of education (grades 12.5 to 16), t(49)=3.33, p < .001 (See Table 1). Higher levels of education were also shown to be associated with increased selfesteem, t(49)=3.17, p < .005, and lower depression, t(49)=2.47, p < .05. (See Table 1). However, state anxiety did not show a relationship as strong with education, although more educated subjects did evidence slightly lower state-anxiety scores, t(49)=1.84, p < .06). In each comparison, higher educated subjects demonstrated more positive psychological characteristics than subjects with lower educational levels.

Insert Table 1 About Here

Additionally, religiosity was related to self-esteem, $\underline{t(49)=2.14}$, \underline{p} < .05, depression, $\underline{t(49)=2.47}$, \underline{p} < .05, and trait anxiety $\underline{t(49)=2.63}$, \underline{p} < .01. These differences indicate that subjects who reported higher levels of

religiosity and education also indicated lower depression and trait-anxiety scores, and higher self-esteem scores as dependent variable measures that are similar to the normative sample scores provided by Lubin (1983), and Spielberger (1983). Means for these and other variables are shown in Table 1.

DISCUSSION

Education and religiosity were the variables most associated with psychological phenomena in this sample. State anxiety was not an appreciably major correlate in this study. A rationale for the lack of significance of state anxiety with other dependent variables in this sample is that these Black women do not generally feel anxious or uneasy in daily interactions, but tend to possess trait anxiety. It is speculated that education and religiosity may also provide such persons with the feeling of more control over their environment, personal and divine security, and adaptive responses to an oppressive reality. These inferences are supported by Nobles (1976).

These women verbally stated that their strengths were children (62%), God, Jesus, or church (46%), parents (24%), determination/coping (22%), work (16%), belief in self (14%), skills (10%), physical health (8%), friends (6%), and helping others (4%). These reportings by this sample are similar, to some extent, to the findings and propositions of Stinnett, Walters, and Kaye (1984). Of the six qualities of family strengths suggested by Stinnett et al.,

(1984), at least three of them appear to be similar to the strengths that these women reported such as

1) high level of religious orientation, 2) commitment to the family, 3) and the ability to deal with crises or coping. However, a chief difference between the findings of Stinnett et al., and the findings in this study is that that their findings were based primarily on white, middle-class, and married subjects, whereas this sample was Black, poor, and single (1984).

The findings in this study also lend support to much of the literature regarding the personal and familial strengths of Black American families (Billingsley, 1968; Dillard, 1983; Idler, 1987; Staples, 1981). For instance, relatives (children & parents) were the most consistent reporting of strengths by this sample. Religious and divine themes were also stated by this sample as major sources of strength. These responses provide support to much of the literature regarding the emotional and social support from families (McAdoo, 1978) and the religious orientation of Black families (Billingsley, 1968; Dillard, 1983). In conjunction, relatives and divinity have been historical strengths and have likely been generationally transmitted to continue to buffer, alter, and escape the inimical oppressions in the contemporary United States (Nobles, 1976; Symonds, 1969). In addition, those women who reported a higher religious orientation, also reported more optimal psychological levels on all dependent factor measures

with the exception of state anxiety.

Only 28% of the women in this study reported that they had ever received counseling. Several possible explanations are suggested regarding this disparity. First, Blacks are not well represented in counseling settings (Staples, 1981). Secondly, according to Rossi (1986), Blacks may be likely to seek out relatives, friends, and children to express personal issues. This perspective is also suggested by Brown and Manela (1979). Although women tend to enter counseling more often than men (Greenspan, 1983), this practice was not evidenced by this sample.

Racial community characteristics were not appreciably related to psychological phenomena in this sample. There are several plausible explanations for this disparity. This trend may suggest that racial community characteristics of this sample are not as meaningful to Blacks as perhaps the literature has suggested. Also, due to integration, Blacks have lost control over many local institutions, such as public schools, civic organizations, and to some extent, Blacks may be losing control over their families.

There should be little doubt that Black poor matrifocal families need urgent and comprehensive study. The
urgency heralded is not simply to accumulate new data but
most importantly, to save lives. Although this study did
find psychological strengths among poor Black American
women, a major need, perhaps is to discover methods and
means by which to tap these strengths for this population

to enhance these strengths.

Future studies need to be more comprehensive regarding larger samples to obtain more reliable evidence that may support these findings. That is, Black poor women clearly do possess psychological strengths. Such strengths found among Black women who are heads of households in this study are clearly related to some college education and a high religious orientation. There is also evidence that this sample perceive children as a source of strength. This finding appears to be uniquely related to Black American women. In addition, this finding supports the speculations of Rossi (1986), and Brown and Manela (1979). For many Black American women, especially those who are poor and unmarried, children may be one of the few resources who will provide emotional support. The socio-cultural context in which most Black American women live provides little opportunity for interaction with other social groups. This perhaps, has been long realized by many Black women who are poor. It may be that only recently that social scientists have begun to recognize that Black poor women have the least opportunities for marriage or stable heterosexual relationships, and children are more likely to provide emotional support.

The future psychological status of poor Black American matrifocal families will also depend heavily on the educational fiber and opportunities afforded by the American educational system. A diversified educational system

to meet the ongoing needs of low income and welfare dependent women must be a major focus of American education in the 90's. The way the American system responds to this crucial need will affect over one-half of all Black American children, and may be critical to the promotion toward the enhancement of self-esteem among this group.

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Table 1

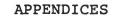
Mean Comparisons by Religiosity, Number of Children, Education, and Age on all Psychological Variables

			Criterion	Variables	
Predictors Variables	<u>n</u>	State Anxiety	Trait Anxiety	Depression	Self- Esteem
Religiosity					
Low	19	40.89	40.89	10.21	57.26
High	31	37.29	39.51**	6.16**	68.35*
Children					
Above Two	24	37.88	42.26	6.61	67.50
Below Two	26	39.50	43.04	8.87	60.50
Education					
9 to 12 Yrs	31	40.83	46.45	9.25	58.19
Above 12 Yrs	19	35.10	36.42**	* 5.15**	73.84**
Age					
Below 30	25	39.20	44.40	8.84	61.60
Above 30	25	38.12	40.88	6.56	66.68

P< .05*

<u>p</u> < .01**

<u>p</u> < .001***



APPENDIX A -

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction
The Historical Emergence of the Black
Matriarchy
The Contemporary Black Matrifocal Family
Conceptual Framework of Psychological
Strengths
Family of Origin Characteristics
Children
Religiosity
Education
Counselee Orientation
Age
Conclusion
References

Literature Review

The majority of previous research efforts and literature reviews have consistently and systematically depicted the American Black matrifocal family as naive, disorganized, dysfunctional, pathological and psychologically deficient (Frazier, 1968; Gehlbach, 1966; Moynihan, 1965; Rainwater, 1966; Sarbin, 1970). This morbid perception may be largely attributed to a confluence of historical and contemporary factors.

In this review of literature, an effort is put forth to note some of the major and marginal historical and contemporary factors that appear to be related to the present general psychological status among poor Black women who households. In that there is a paucity of research and literature relative to the psychological strengths of poor matrifocal families, it is thought that a review of literature should reflect a broad range of pertinent information encapsulating the thesis of the reality of Black experiences (Nobles, 1976; Scanzoni, 1971).

The possible cummulative effects of Black Americans, and Black women particularly, psychologically are likely to be most adequately understood and explained by examining Black experiences historically and in contemporary society. The manifold excruciating, inhumane, and debilitating conditions in which Black Americans have historically undergone may offer some insight into the current Black matrifocal psychological status (Willie, 1970).

Parenthetically, it is unlikely that social scientists can understand the full impact of historical antecedents that Black Americans have experienced. Furthermore, the residual effects of historical factors are inextricably tied to the present psychological status of Black American families (Kardiner & Ovesey, 1951).

It appears that all families, institutions, and major social systems are, to some relative degree, evolutionary caricatures of historic experiences. Hence, it appears most appropriate to submit a tenable ground on which to construct a reasonable thesis that the psychological strengths of poor Black matrifocal families are embedded within their personhood contextually (Nobles, 1976). And this context has historical and contemporary parameters that define the extent to which Black American families may be understood.

This review draws widely from Black experiences and attempts to edit salient and marginal aspects of Black families in the United States. Accordingly, a myriad of experiences shared by Black Americans appear to be important determinants relative to their psychological status (Nobles, 1976; Scanzoni, 1971; Willie, 1970).

This review is divided into three major subdivisions:

1) the historical emergence of the Black matriarchy; 2) the contemporary Black matrifocal family; 3) and, conceptual framework of psychological strengths.

The Historical Emergence of the Black Matriarchy

A historical account of the lives of Black Americans clearly indicates an era of systematic and dramatic disruption of the Black American family structure by external sources (Berlin, 1974; DuBois, 1961; Frazier, 1948; Nobles, 1976; Scanzoni, 1971; Staples, 1973). The genesis of this thread of family structure disruption appears to have been activated during the period of the violent and barbarous abduction of African people (Dubois, 1961; Frazier, 1948). Family structual disruption is maintained by contemporary racial, social, economic, and political oppressions (Kardiner and Ovesey, 1951; Scanzoni, 1971; Staples, 1973).

There appears to be reliable and substantial evidence that the Black African family was stable, intact, and viable prior to the debilitating impact of mass abduction on the coasts and inlands of West Africa (DuBois, 1928; Frazier, 1948). There may be, however, reason for further speculation relative to the various types of familial structures due to some depreciable reports concerning the mass abduction of African people from their native villages and general environment (Bennett, 1962; Dubois, 1961; Frazier, 1948). It is noted, however, by Frazier (1948) that the patriarchal institution of the family appeared to have been most dominant.

Not only was the family organization of the Black
Africans disrupted, Kardiner and Ovesey (1951) strongly
contend that the "culture was smashed" (p. 39). After Blacks
were abducted, traded, or sold en masse, there was little

possibility of maintaining a stable culture in chains.

African ties with social and familial institutions were

drastically destroyed. Furthermore, much of the Africans'

sense of uniqueness was lost (Frazier, 1948; Kardiner &

Ovesey, 1951). In addition, this process provided the

necessary conditions for slavery as an institution to work.

Blacks also lost essential relational ties. African families were uprooted and reimplanted in a foreign country. Thus, any possibility of transmitting cultural mores, norms, language, folkways, and familial structural patterns appear to be extremely unlikely (Bennett, 1962; Frazier, 1948). Therefore, the matrifocal family system in the United States is not likely to be an aboriginal type family structure with African origins, it is rather an adaptive function in response to the psychological, racial, political, social, and economic oppressions (Berlin, 1974 Billingsley, 1968; Frazier, 1948; Kardiner & Ovesey, 1951; Pettigrew, 1964).

Moreover, those Black Americans who share an African origin have undergone dynamic emotional and psychological adjustments to survive an inimical, onerous, social, and political system in the United States (Billingsley, 1968; Pettigrew, 1964; Staples, 1973; Willie, 1970). The poor matrifocal system among Black Americans is conceptualized as a response and adaptation to American white institutions.

The gradual emergence of Black matrifocal families appears to be in a state of augmentation resulting from a

myriad of cumulative historical factors. Additional discussion depicts some of the key social and political issues that seem to promote and foster the Black matriarchy. The first census in the United States in 1790 indicated that the Black American population was 757,181 of which 697,624 were considered slaves (Frazier, 1948). Although there was no breakdown by sex according to the census, there appears to be substantial evidence that during the initial settlement of Blacks on American soil, there was a disportionate number of Black males (Frazier, 1948).

According to several historians and social scientists (Bennett, 1962; DuBois, 1961; Frazier, 1948), Black men interacially married due to the scarcity of Black women. Another reason for this imbalanced ratio is that Black men were usually more marketable, and secondly, typically stronger physically to endure the Mid-Atlantic voyage from Africa to the United States. These factors are initially a starting place that provide some theoretical foundation relative to the understanding of how the Black matriarchy possibly gradually emerged to the present status, and to a degree, remains in this status.

DuBois (1961), Frazier (1948), and Bennett (1962) provide a graphic description of the excruciating conditions of African women who were frequently severed from their families, more particularly their husbands. Also, women with young children, (infants who were ill or disabled)

were, in some instances forced to leave them in Africa (Bennett, 1962; Haley, 1976; Frazier, 1948). Other African women who were pregnant during the Middle Passage had "to give birth to children in the scalding perspiration from the human cargo" (Frazier, 1948; p. 35).

There were rare instances that the husband was sold to the same slave buyer as the wife. In addition, when African couples were abducted together, there was only a minor chance for them to remain together as a family unit after having reached the harbors of the United States. The slave auction played an additional role in further familial separation.

Many Black women, after having been brought to the United States, were commonly used as "breeders" resulting from forced sexual cohabitation. It appeared to be a common function of Black mothers to re-enter the labor force with the men shortly after gestation. Some Black women were somewhat more fortunate to continue domestic house duties after childbirth. Frazier (1948) and Bennett (1962) remark that Black mothers were not only responsible for nursing, caring, and attending to their own children but also responsible for their owner's children.

Subsequently, this pattern and function of the Black woman developed an extraordinary attachment to children.

Maslow's (1951) notion of a need of belongingness may be an appropriate model as an additional lens viewing the Black mother/child bond. This appears to be more plausible considering the frequent historical absence of the Black father.

Further, it seems that the Black mother and her children (relatives, fictive kin) were more likely to remain together as a family unit than the father-husband with children. Frazier (1948) cites several advertisements from the City Gazette, a Charleston, South Carolina newspaper in 1825 where it appeared to be a common practice for slave owners to sell or trade Black mothers and their children as a unit or a matrifocal family and not Black men. Simultaneously, the Black slave-fathers were often sold to a different slave owner and in other instances the slave-father would make escapes to find refuge in a slave-free state, contemplating a return to reclaim his family (Bennett, 1961; Frazier, 1948; Haley, 1976; Nobles, 1976).

Black women during slavery appeared to have provided the owner with several domestic and conjugal functions. First, they provided the services of a nurse and caretaker for their owner's children and this included breastfeeding (Frazier, 1948). Secondly, Black women were often used as chattel in the reproduction of offspring as an agricultural business venture (Bennett, 1961; Haley, 1976). Additionally, these women were usually sexually abused.

Whether many of the Black women passively accepted or remonstrated these experiences, the psychological and social consequences may lie beneath the threshold of scientific excavation. Nobles (1976) comments, "the nature of the Black family has been seriously misunderstood . . . we know little about the impact or consequence of the Black dynamic has on the psychological development and mental

health of its members" (p. 180). Black women, during the slave era in the United States encountered systematic and severe physical, social, economic, and psychological abuse (Bennett, 1962, Frazier, 1948; Kardiner & Ovesey, 1951).

The remarkable strengths of Black families to survive may seem quite resilient. Accordingly, Black families, comparatively speaking, with other ethnic groups and minorities have fared quite well (Billingsley, 1968). Kardiner and Ovesey (1951) point to the fact that Black Americans historically lost all cultural heritage and had to recreate institutions, culture, identity, and family organization. They also argue that Black Americans differ in this respect when compared to Jewish Americans. Jewish culture and heritage was not destroyed, but, rather it was "transplanted to an environment" (1951, p. 41). Similarly, Native Americans who once freely roamed this country were primarily passive victims of an oppressive American social and economic system. Some (Kardiner & Ovesey, 1951) have suggested that Native Americans could be possibly approaching extinction due to ongoing economic, social, and psychological abuse in the United States.

Bennett (1962) indicated that during slavery many wives of slave owners sought divorce from their husbands because of the husband's sexual relations with Black women. Paradoxically, the practice of master-slave mistress status appeared to have played a licentious effect on the sexual behavior of white women. According to Bennett (1962) and

others (Frazier, 1948; Haley, 1976), white women who were free were active sexually with Black men who were slaves. Obviously, this practice was not sanctioned by the ruling class of white racists in Colonial America. However, these sexual practices condoned by a segment of white women appeared to be social statements to white men and Black women of resentment, anger, and rage. In conjunction, Haley (1976) suggests that Black women were sometimes verbally abused by white women or encouraged to marry a Black man or sold as quickly as possible.

These and other historical factors of slavery appeared to have accentuated the Black matrifocal status. The cumulative social status, for example, that Black women ascribed resulting from mothering their owner's children, also played a significant role in the emergence of Black mother-centered families in the United States (Bennett, 1962; DuBois, 1961; Frazier, 1948; Haley, 1976; Willie, 1970). The slave owners almost always gave special attention and interest to their half-black children (Frazier, 1948). This phenomenon provided additional impetus toward shaping and the crystallization of the Black matrifocal image.

However, this condition of Black women appeared to have created an awkward social position among the Black race at large (Bennett, 1962; DuBois, 1961; Frazier, 1948). This new social position produced, to some appreciable degree, racial and social isolation. In some instances Black women during slavery could not completely identify with

either race. Black women who bore racially mixed children were more likely esteemed by their white slave owners, and stigmatized and isolated by the general Black masses (Bennett, 1962; DuBois, 1961; Frazier; 1948). Black women who had borne a white man's child undoubtedly was placed in an arkward social and conjugal position. It was difficult to marry within their race due to the stigmatism of having borne a white man's child. Furthermore it was illegal and imprudent in most cases for a Black woman to marry a white man. In addition to the scarcity of Black elgible men, most Black women had very little opportunity for legal marriage and these factors also aided in paving the way towards the shaping of the Black matrifocal family (Haley, 1976).

Most Black women with children were "adopted" by the slave-owner and the family was engineered to become a matrifocal unit (Bennett, 1962; Frazier, 1948). In conjunction, this practice laid a foundation for the Black caste system due to the spectrum of skin pigmentation of white/Black offspring (Haley, 1976; Kardiner & Ovesey, 1951).

Ostensibly, many historical factors appear to be related to the emergence of the Black matriarchy. Regrettably, these factors have not been taken into consideration by many social scientists who have attempted to study the Black American family (Gehblach, 1966; Lewis, 1966; Sarbin, 1970). Researchers such as these have attempted to examine Black families without an epistemology. Consequently, they have studied the most conspicuous consequence of Black

adaptations to a rigid oppressive system and not the process of Black familial structural development.

Thus far, an attempt has been made to summarize some of the major historical factors that influenced and molded, to some extent, the Black matrifocal family. It would be impractical to attempt to exhaust the volumious works relative to the many aspects of slavery. These facts are presented to provide a broader understanding of the Black matrifocal family relative to its origin of development.

Based on this section of review of literature, it appears that slavery has profoundly impacted the social, economic, and psychological status of Black American families (Nobles, 1976; Staples 1973). Therefore, it is necessary to understand the historical factors of Black American families to scientifically assess them (Hill, 1972; Kardiner & Ovesey, 1951; Staples, 1973; 1981).

In an attempt to summarize some historical factors that confluenced the emergence of the Black matriarchy, a brief catena is presented.

- 1. Blacks were initially brutally severed from their family of origin by slave traders from Africa.
- 2. Black women, in many instances, were forced to leave their children in Africa that were infants or sickly.
- 3. Many Black African families suffered and died on voyages en route to the United States, and caused further familial separation and psychological impairment.
- 4. Blacks from various African tribes were unable to communicate effectively which augmented a lack of cohesion, transmission of cultural norms, language, customs, and institutions.

- 5. There was a disportionate number of Black males over females during the initial settlement of slaves in the United States.
- 6. Black women were sexually exploited by slave-owners.
- 7. The white slave-owners provided the Black slave-mistress and his children with provisions to live as a type of "adopted family".
- 8. The slave auction often separated Black men from their wives and children, in addition to run-a-ways, and murders of Black men.
- 9. Black women and children were more often sold, or traded together than Black men with children.

Theoretically, the Black matrifocal family in the United States has been transmitted via previous generations. The possible cummulative effects of slavery may continue to be manifested among Black American families. This manifestation may be seen, not only in the matrifocal family, but also in the psychological status or functioning of this structure (Staples, 1973; 1981).

The residual effects of the manifold historical factors may be found in the current Black matrifocal family. These residual effects on the Black American family are likely to be further understood by examining the present condition and psychological status of Blacks. What appears to be likely transmitted, in conjunction to the matrifocal familial structure, is the psychological fiber of this population. A chief assumption regarding strengths in general is the ability to suffer. Without question, Black American families have systematically demonstrated this ability for the past four hundred years in the United States (DuBois, 1961).

The Contemporary Black Matrifocal Family

The most salient and contemporary factor that systematically describes the majority of Black women who head households in the United States is poverty (Beauford & Walker, 1980; Gilbert, 1984; Limmer, 1978; Lindblad-Goldberg & Dukes, 1985; Osmond & Grigg, 1975). The historical factors related to slavery of Black American families are inextricably connected the present economic conditions of Black matrifocal families (Bennett, 1962; Willie, 1970). Such conditions as inequitable wages, racism, denial of American freedom, social and political injustices, discriminatory legislation, and other inimic conditions have thwarted the development of Black families in the United States (Bennett, 1962; DuBois, 1961; Hill, 1972; Scanzoni, 1971; Staples, 1981).

Although slavery has been abolished over 120 years in the United States, the aftermath of slavery is clearly identified by ongoing racial oppression (Billingsley, 1968; Pettigrew, 1964). Moynihan (1965) poignantly expressed,

The Negro situation is commonly perceived by whites in terms of visible manifestations of discrimination and poverty, in past, because of the Negro protest no doubt, because these are the facts which involve the actions and attitudes of the white community as well. It is more difficult, however, for whites to perceive the effect that three centuries of exploitation have had on the fabric of Negro society itself. Here the consequences of the historic injustices done to Negro Americans are silent and hidden from view (p.5).

This view of American economic political and social conditions that Black families experience, as expressed by Moynihan (1965) somewhat encapsulates the saga of Black families in the United States. The prototypical conditions of slavery appear to continue manifestation in contemporary society in the United States.

The United States Department of Labor (1985) indicated that in 1970, 28.3% of all Black families were maintained by women. By 1984, 43.7% of all Black American families were headed by women. In conjunction, the United States Department of Labor (1985) issued statistics that over 53% of all Black women heading households fell below the poverty line. Accordingly, Whalen (1978) reported that 68% of all Black women have incomes less than \$5000 annually and that 78% of all aid to families with dependent children (AFDC) are single parent head of families. At the same time, the United States Department of Commerce (1979) reported the poverty level to be \$6191 annually.

There is systematic and substantial evidence that poverty and welfare are disportionately a woman's issue, more specifically, Black women (Lindblad-Goldberg & Dukes, 1985; Wodarski, Parham, Lindsey, & Blackburn, 1986). The matrifocal issues regarding poverty and welfare dependence are exacerbated by historical and contemporary reality of Black women (Billingsley, 1968; Bennett, 1962; Nobles, 1976; Scanzoni, 1971; Staples, 1973).

According to Wodarski, Parham, Lindsey, and Blackburn (1986), "In 1982, the number of persons living in poverty

reached the highest level in this country since 1965." The current economic conditions continue to further augment the present social and economic condition of Black families. Poverty has become and continues to remain an intricate debilitating phenomenon for most Black American families.

Although poverty, to a large extent, has been transmitted from previous generations, the crucial and current factors sustaining poverty appear to be related to the social, economic, and political climate in which Black Americans must function (Billingsley, 1968; Frazier, 1948; Osmond and Grigg, 1975; Scanzoni, 1971; Willie, 1970).

For Black Americans to escape poverty and welfare, opportunities for social and economic development must be a high priority on Federal, State, and Local legislative agendas. Attempts have been made to improve employment and training opportunities, but no appreciable amount of social programs targeted for Black Americans seem to have been effective (Dickinson, 1986; U. S. Department of Labor, 1985a). A recent report from the United States Department of Labor (1985b) indicated that major federal policy for equal employment opportunity for women needs further clarification and implementation. Some of these issues that relate to legislation include: more opportunities for women in services and apprenticeships; anti-discriminatory practices for pregnant workers; equity in salaries; child care for working parents; and vocational education (1985). These issues are crucial for Black matrifocal families

to obtain basic skills to exit from poverty and welfare in the United States. Black poor women who head families need massive support from Federal, and State levels of government to root out sexism and racism (Thompson, 1974). The fact that nearly 44% of Black American families are headed by women and disportionately poorer than any other single familial structure in the United States must be veiwed as political, social, and economic oppression (Pettigrew, 1964; Staples, 1981; Whalen, 1978).

The overwhelming odds against Black single women who head families have a remarkable similarity of the gamut of historical factors of slavery. Poor Black families appear to typify slave status due to the historical racial, social, and political dynamics of contemporary societal operations. This population continues to be controlled by oppressive and rigid systems; they continue to be mainly dependent on the state for sustenance and housing; they possess the least skills; they lack effective advocates for equality; they are typically sexually exploited; and they generally share a commonality of powerlessness economically and socially (Billingsley, 1968; Dickinson, 1986; Hill, 1972; Nobles, 1976; Sarbin, 1970; Scanzoni, 1971). The contemporary factors of racism are powerful determinants of poverty (Whalen, 1978).

When considering the overwhelming environmental factors that most Black Americans must encounter, clearly some degree of psychological strengths are essential for survival against the ominous effects of American racism.

Billingsley (1968) remarks,

Racism is deeply imbedded within the institutional fabric of American society. All of the major institutions including the political, economic, educational, social, and others have systematically excluded the Negro people in varying degrees from equal participation in the rewards of these institutions. None of them work as effectively in meeting the needs of Negro families as they do white families (p. 152).

The major institutions in American society must develop and implement strategies that will suppress racism and diminish poverty. The solutions toward the eradication of racism, sexism, and poverty are complex and costly. The indifference to these elements is more costly in terms of the loss of human lives and a lower quality of life for all American citizens. For example, Yankauer (1950) studied a New York City population in 1947 and found that among non-whites, the neonatal mortality rate was 52.7 per 1000 live births. Over the past forty years, the situation remains the same, and the Black infant mortality rate is still significantly higher than the national average (Salkind & Ambrose, 1985). Impoverished living conditions of poor Blacks reaches all levels, including these never given the chance for life.

Similarly, several social scientists conclude that poverty affects the mental health status of all races (Hill, 1972; Kardiner & Ovesey, 1951). The effects of poverty are far reaching and devastating for Black American families. Gehblach (1966) reported that the life expectancy for Black Americans is substantially shorter than for white Americans.

Various medical disorders, such a pulmonary tuberculosis, hypertension, diabetes and other medical conditions have been traditionally higher among Black American families than among whites (Gove, Hughes, & Styles, 1977).

However, when some conditions are controlled by socioeconomic status (Willie, 1970), there appears to be no appreciable differences among racial groups, specifically Black and white families. Hence, poverty is clearly a major correlate of physical and psychological pathologies. Black women who are divorced, widowed, separated, or never married appear to be at risk. For instance, Osmond and Grigg (1975) interviewed 561 subjects in four states who were married, divorced, separated, and widowed and concluded low income is highly correlated with marital dissolution.

Recently, Kniesner (1986) completed a 15 year analysis of family structure and concluded that separation, divorce, widowhood, and childbearing are key factors for women entering poverty. Kniesner (1986) further concluded that the poverty rate of female-headed families is 350% higher than intact families where the husband is present and that Black women have a divorce rate two times that of white women.

The manifold factors that influence and sustain poverty appear to affect Black matrifocal families dramatically more than other racial and ethnic groups in this country. Black females who head households in the United States clearly are at risk, primarily the poor (Kniesner, 1986; Osmond & Grigg, 1975; Staples, 1973).

The previous sections of this review suggest that the contemporary and historical factors relating to the emergence of the Black matrifocal family are real and not simply assumptions. Sufficient ground has been established to propose and develop a theoretical model towards the understanding of the psychological status of Black poor women who head households.

The study of the emergence of the Black matrifocal family in America provides a broader understanding and appreciation of the unique nature of Black American woman. There is little doubt that the historical and evolutionary factors that attribute to the emergence of Black matrifocal family have been explored by contemporary research efforts (Hays & Mindel, 1973; Hill, 1972; McAdoo, 1978; Moynihan, 1965).

From most past efforts, at explaining Black families, a distorted misrepresentation of Black American women has usually been the result. Previous research and literature reviews have consistently reflected the negative, dysfunctional, disorganization, and weaknesses of Black American families (Frazier, 1948; Lewis, 1966; Rainwater, 1966; Sarbin, 1970) with the most salient focus being the Black matrifocal family. Billingsley (1968) comments, "the Negro family as an institution has been virtually ignored by students of group life in America . . . When they have done so, it has been done in a negativistic and distorted fashion" (p. 197).

Similarly, Nobles (1976) contends that the Black family has been studied with three major orientations: 1) The Poverty-Acculturated studies; 2) The Pathological studies: 3) And the Victim-Oriented studies. In each orientation Blacks have not been studied to determine strengths. The previous trends of research efforts epitomizes the monocle vision that has likely hindered objective views of Black American families. Additionally, bias-free research is virtually impossible to locate, and the previous work found relative to Black family life may be distorted that much of what has been found, at best, is confounded with experimental designs problems. There is an emphasis that systematically identify weaknesses (Nobles, 1976). Simultaneously the identification of weaknesses have notably been based on bi-racial comparisons and socioeconomic differences. These comparisions do not reflect the epistemological context of Black American families and subsequently, do not present an accurate appraisal of Black American families (Crumidy & Jacobziner, 1966; Demo & Parker 1987; Hays & Mindel, 1973).

Also, there appears no appreciable research regarding the psychological strengths of poor Black matrifocal families. Although Hays and Mindel (1973), Hill (1972), McAdoo (1978), and others have attempted to acknowledge certain strengths of Black American families, these strengths have primarily been related to "extended family kinship ties", "social support systems", and "religion".

Concommitantly, others (Crumidy & Jacobziner, 1966; Demo & Parker, 1987; Sarbin, 1970; Symonds, 1969) have concentrated notably on racial differences, socioeconomic class comparisons, marital status (i. e., married compared with non-married), and some combination of these. In that the Black experience of Black women is different from that experience of their white counterpart, Black women are more likely to possess a different perspective about the world in which they live (Fine, Schwebel, & Myers, 1985). It is, therefore, logical to assume that the matrifocal family differs in response to society and cannot be adequately understood outside of it's own reality (Billingsley, 1968; Nobles, 1976).

The historical and contemporary factors of slavery and racism have had a most debilitating and lasting effect on Black American families. However, these onerous social conditions have not annihilated the viability of the Black family in the United States (Frazier, 1948; Hill, 1972; Nobles, 1976; Staples, 1973). These factors have undoubtedly forced the Black family structure to develop a resilient fiber that appears to be pronounced in the matrifocal family (Kardiner & Ovesey, 1951; Staples, 1973).

Thus, it is logical to assume that Black women who head families bear certain psychological characteristics due to a unique personal and familial structure. Conceivably, psychological characteristics are likely to be found by investigating Black families within their epistemological

context sharing a similar history and occupying a similar social condition.

Smith (1977) has argued that research on Black Americans has been disportionately distorted, misrepresented, and racist. In addition, Copeland (1977) has accused the white middle class structure of negative stereotyping Black Americans as a convention to ignore the critical psychological issues of Black women.

Summarily, the Black matrifocal family has existed for over four hundred years in the United States. It has undergone unyielding oppression, which appears to have had an impact in fostering its unique structure. Research that has been targeted at this population has thus far noted the weaknesses and differences based on bi-racial and socieconomic differences rather than studying the process of adaptation. A cardinal tenet that undergirds this thesis is that Black poor women who share a similar history, experience, and social condition need to be studied and understood within that context. A review of literature suggests that several factors have been found to be related to the psychological status of Black Americans.

The theoretical rationale for this research is formulated on the premise that an admixture of findings and speculations are germane to understanding of Black women. It appears to be most relevant to provide a conceptual framework for "psychological strengths". Due to the exploratory nature of this work, it is admitted that such a concept as

"psychological strengths" may be construed in a myriad of ways. In an attempt to define and clarify this concept, general trappings and notions of this phenomenon are found in various works of research and writings.

Conceptual Framework of Psychological Strengths

Jones and Rice (1987) more recently suggested a model composed of three major factors that are determinants of "health" which encompasses: 1) the physical health; 2) the mental health; 3) and the social wellbeing of individuals. According to Jones and Rice (1987), "health" is understood by combining these three areas. They also suggest that the absence of disease or illness does not indicate that person is healthy or strong (p.4).

Curran (1983), in <u>Traits of a Healthy Family</u>, also suggests that the absence of disease is not indicative of strong families. Curran (1983) argues that many "psudomutual" families may appear to be strong, but lack the dynamics that compose strong families.

In a similar vein, many individuals and families who appear to be healthy psychologically, in fact, may not be. Accordingly families that possess the external traits that project health and strength may in fact be disorganized, weak, fragile, and entropic (Curran, 1983). Additionally, American culture, to some extent has translated external wealth to psychological health (Curran, 1983). In that many Americans equate the mental well-ness and psychological

health or strength by economic power depicts the paucity of knowledge regarding strengths of families.

It is suggested that Black poor women who head households possess certain psychological strengths, among others. Although this assumption is empirically based (Frazier, 1948; Hill, 1972) much of the previous literature does not reflect this assumption. The chief reason for this lack of understanding appears to be related to the fallacy of poor people in general. What may be considered by society at large as unhealthy, may in fact be healthy in response to an unhealthy system (Hill, 1972). Succintly, Black poor women who head families are not to be understood as being weak psychologically because they occupy a lower social position (Hill, 1972; Staples, 1981). Hill states, "Many forms of deviation may, in fact, be normal, healthy responses to particular social environments" (1972; p. 21). He continues, "Strengths are those traits which facilitate the ability of the family to meet the needs of its members and the demands made upon it by systems outside the family unit. They are necessary for the survival and maintenance of effective family networks" (Hill, 1972; p. 3).

Black poor women in the United States have demonstrated strengths for several hundred years. They have continued to meet the needs of their families with little appreciable assistance from outside institutions and fathers of children (Frazier, 1948; Nobles, 1976). The literature suggests several factors that further aid in understanding

the psychological strengths of this population. Theoretically, psychological strengths refer to those abilities, qualities, attributes, and psychic characteristics that are resources for adaptation and survival (Billingsley, 1968; Coopersmith, 1983; Hill, 1972; Staples, 1981).

It is contended that Blacks, to some extent have acquired the necessary qualities, attributes, and psychic characteristics via the Black experience. The reality of Black Americans has played a vital role towards the development of such resources.

Six factors have been identified and selected from the literature that appear to be related to the psychological status of Black families in the United States:

- 1. Family of Origin in the Black Community
- 2. Education
- 3. Religion or Spiritual Orientation
- 4. Age
- 5. Number of Children or Dependents
- 6. Counselee Orientation

A discussion of each of these factors relative to psychological phenomena will conclude this literature review.

Although there are many types of psychological phenomena, this discussion will be primarily confined to these three phenomena: 1) anxiety; 2) depression; 3) and self-esteem.

Family of origin in the black community. Taylor (1976), in a comprehensive study of Black high school students

found that Blacks tend to have higher levels of self-esteem, especially if they had been raised in a Black community and attended predominantly Black populated public schools. Similarly, Moore (1986) compiled a list of positive experiences taken from 25 biographies of famous Black Americans and 25 interviews from successful Black educators, lawyers, physicians, and other professionals. Of the 11 common experiences shared by these 50 Black prominent Americans, two of them bear special attention to this study. Moore found: 1) that these Blacks were taught primarily by Black teachers in public schools; 2) and they were indoctrinated by parents and teachers of the Black community that education was a realistic way to escape poverty and oppression.

Billingsley (1968) suggests that the Black American community with its Black role models, such as teachers, ministers, and similar models have been major sources of strength for Black Americans. These type of models, within the Black community appear to have provided aspiration and hope to Black Americans that enabled them to dream beyond their "estateless" inheritance.

The interaction among Black people within the Black community seemed to have provided a relative sense of stability, security, and emotional support for younger Black Americans. The notion of Black enterprise and business likely transmitted some relative degree of control and strength to younger Blacks (Moore, 1986; Taylor, 1976).

Such experiences provided the resources to function in the Black community as well as provide a place of refuge.

It appears that some relative degree of strengths psychologically were procured by Black Americans who were members of Black communities and shared a level of control of the community affairs (Billingsley, 1968; Frazier, 1948). The various social and civic organizations and institutions such as the YMCA, YWCA, Masonic Temples, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and similar groups seem to have been the pivotal organizations and institutions of Black Americans where Blacks obtained strengths in achievements. The Black church or religion of Black Americans is perhaps the most influential among such organizations and will be discussed more thoroughly later in this review (Bennett, 1962; Billingsley, 1968; Martin, 1978).

Martin and Martin (1978) suggest that the various organizations and institutions of Black Americans were extentions of the Black family. This observation can be explained by the coalition of relatives and non-relatives who attempted joint business ventures, or teachers, nurses, ministers, brickmasons, barbers, and other similar vocational endeavors were aided by someone closely connected to the family (Billingsley, 1968; Nobles, 1976; Martin & Martin, 1978).

Additional benefits were gained as a result of being in a predominately Black community (Billingsley, 1968).

According to some scholars and authors (Billingsley, 1968; Nobles, 1976; Staples, 1973) of the Black American family, older members of the Black community generally passed on knowledge and techniques to the next generation. This knowledge is believed to have played important roles towards the development of personal and familial identity (Martin & Martin, 1978). Additionally, psychological and emotional support were mediated through the Black community and provided networks for building and maintaining psychic resources. These resources become vital to Black American women, particularly when adverse economic conditions threaten the welfare and stability of the Black matrifocal family.

Billingsley (1968) examines three biographies of prominent Black Americans. He attributes this prominence of these Black Americans to the nurturance of the Black family and the Black community. Billingsley (1968) briefly traces the history of the Poindexter, Hughes, and King families. He comments regarding the inimical circumstances that one Black encountered, "These are the tremendous psychological resilience of the man" (p. 103).

The commonality that these Black Americans share who have been raised in a predominatedly Black community is that they seemed to have obtained unique social and psychological resources via the Black community experience. Also, it appears to be impossible for these types of experiences to have been acquired in any other setting (Hill, 1972).

Children. Several studies indicate negative psychological effects of women relative to the number of children or number of dependents (Lindblad-Goldberg & Dukes, 1985). For example, Lindblad-Goldberg and Dukes (1985) studied 126 urban Black matrifocal families. They found no significant difference between clinic mothers and non-clinic mothers in terms of previous events leading to the mother's single status. However, clinic mothers tended to have more biological children than non-clinic mothers. It is suggested that clinic mothers gave more emotional support to their children than they received (Rossi, 1986).

Amato and Partridge (1987) reported that large numbers of children tend to increase depressive effects among divorced, widowed, and married. These effects are likely the result related to the cumbersome task of parenting with limited resources. This problem is pronounced among poor Black matrifocal families (Belle, 1982).

Questions are often raised as to why this population continues to give birth to children, especially in light of social and economic conditions of most Black matrifocal families in this country. Rossi (1986) proposes that often Black women have out-of-wedlock children resulting from a personal choice. Children are preferred over a spouse.

Belle (1982) suggests that Black women do not try to mimic white middle class standards regarding maternity and therefore the pattern appears to be ethnic and not white. This appears to be particularly true regarding lower class Black

women in the United States (Belle, 1982; Rossi, 1986).

Lindblad-Goldberg and Dukes (1985) suggest that the trend of Black women giving birth to children out of marriage is not dysfunctional, but rather a method of sustaining a social support system. The gains and losses of poor Black mothers bearing children in general, is yet unclear. Children on one hand appear to mediate and buffer emotional stress and tension (Lindblad-Goldberg & Dukes, 1985). They also appear to create stress and tension for many mothers (Rossi, 1986).

The potential resource of children to some parents has substantial support (Belle, 1982). Some parents tend to rely on children for social and economic support in the later years (Belle, 1982). Conversely, evidence also suggest that children do cause tension, anxiety, and frustrations to parents, particularly when the number of children exceeds the adequacy of income (Gerstel, Riessman & Rosenfield, 1985). In addition, Broman (1988) found that non-parents reported higher levels of life satisfaction than parents.

In summary, it appears that children of Black mothers do play a vital role relative to their emotional status. During the younger years, children are more stressful for parents. The mothers may conceptualize this trying period of sacrifice as an investment in their personal future. This contextual norm among Black poor women may be granted more understanding and appreciation considering when most

Black lower-class women have lesser chances for marriage or stable heterosexual relationships (Staples, 1981).

Age. The ubiquitous influence of age may be related to the psychological status of Black matrifocal families. The maturation of women over time is likely to be an attribute of primarily poor Black women (Amato & Partridge, 1987; Eichorn & Clausen, 1981; Moody, 1986) in the United States.

In the investigation conducted by Eichorn and Clausen (1981), women were studied beginning at the teenage years up to the early 50's. These authors found that over this particular period of time, the women became more assertive and more analytical. Such acquired attributes suggest that, in this sample, women developed psychological traits that were likely dormant or previously non-existent. It may be speculated that women become more androgynous over time. Androgyny is associated with optimal levels of self esteem (Bem, 1981; MacDonald, et al., 1987). In additional, Amato and Partridge (1987) discovered that the age of mothers tends to be related to the general health among all marital statuses. Moody (1986) asserts that older women often become more interested in personal growth than credentials and degrees that tends to preoccupy younger Black women.

As age increases there appears to be a burgeoning effect on the lifestyles of Black women. They have likely gone through experiences, accumulated more wisdom, and learned beneficial lessons from old mistakes, which leads

to better choices. Older women appear have more interest in personal and psychological development than younger women (Gibson, 1986; Moody, 1986).

Several researchers (Beauford & Walker, 1980; Gibson, 1986; MacDonald, et al., 1987) report that age is related to the psychological status of women. Gibson (1986) suggests that Black Americans who are older tend to experience fewer personal problems, fewer interpersonal problems, and less likely to experience a nervous breakdown. In conjunction, older Black Americans are less likely to commit suicide than younger Blacks and more likely to use prayer as a coping source to mediate tension (Gibson, 1986). Additionally, Black women have the lowest suicide rate of all races, socioecomic and ethnic groups in the United States (Staples, 1981).

Broman (1988), in a sample of 2107 Black Americans found that older Blacks tended to be more satisfied with life than those who were younger. Although there was no breakdown of marital status or income types, the study, however, adds additional insight. Older women appear more adjusted to the social, economic, and political system in the United States. New methods of adapting to poverty, sexism and racism among older women are considered appreciable gains over young Black women. Accordingly, older women typically have completed much of their child bearing, attained more experiences in relationships and have likely established a larger and more stable support systems (Beauford & Walker, 1980; Hill, 1972; Scanzoni, 1971; Staples, 1981).

Education. Jeffries (1982-3) points out that during the past decade that the "most significant growth among Blacks in education was at the college level" (p. 10). He also stated that there was a 93% increase in enrollment, largely the result of Black women in the United States. Although more Black women are attending college at a higher rate than in the history of this country. Jeffries (1982-3) maintains that Black American are still underrepresented.

Purkey (1970) stated that educational achievements foster self-esteem. Education may also be viewed as having an ubiquitous positive effect on the family life of Black Americans. A direct consequence of education for most minorities is that it fosters the acculturation process into larger Anglo-oriented society (Staples, 1981). In addition, education provides persons with more personal and social options, employment opportunities, and enhances the ways in which individuals and groups may manipulate the environment, vis-a-vis, more control. In addition, Gilbert (1984) compared college and welfare samples of women and concluded that those women without college experience reported lower levels of self-esteem and less ego strengths than those who had some college experience. Broman (1988) found that Black Americans (N=2107) who were separated and better educated tended to report higher levels of life satisfaction than those who were poorly educated. Various findings throughout the literature suggest that education has had major positive impacts in the lives of Black Americans (Gilbert, 1984).

These impacts have not only been manifested in terms of social and economic gains, but they appear to have been also manifested in terms of psychological growth and development in many Black American families (Beauford & Walker, 1980; Jeffries, 1982-3; Purkey, 1970). Beauford and Walker (1980) found among 943 poor families in Georgia that alienation, powerlessness, helplessness, and dependency were negatively related to education. Higher educational attainments, at least at or above the high school level appears to be an important determinant of psychological wellness (Demo & Parker, 1987; Jeffries, 1982-3). Education has been an important and reliable predictor of mental health, socioeconomic status, employment, and other important factors family life (Demo & Parker, 1987; Gilbert, 1984; Jeffries, 1982-3; Purkey, 1970; Scanzoni, 1971).

Education appeared to have played a chief role in the remediation of issues and problems related to the poor (Amato & Partridge, 1987; Beauford & Walker, 1980; Ensiminger, 1980). According to Gilbert (1984) and Ensiminger (1980) it appears that the higher the educational level of women, the less likely they will develop poor self-images and enter or remain in poverty. Jeffries (1982-3) argued, "If Blacks are to escape from poverty, economic distress, and social ostracism, they must become seriously involved in the education process" (p. 11). These researchers and authors convincingly argue that the most effective tool against many of the socioeconomic conditions in the United States is through the utilization of a modern need-centered psychoeducational program.

Approach to Women and Therapy catalogued and indicated that most patients, and clients in the United States are women. Greenspan (1983) states that women represent about two-thirds of all adult counselees. Similarly, about 12 million of them who visit their medical physicians are referred to mental health professionals. Further, roughly 84% of all patients who seek treatment from private mental health professionals are women (Greenspan, 1983).

Greenspan (1983) attributes this plethora of women patient population to the sexist culture in America. She maintains that the symptoms are, primarily socially related. Perennially, women have been the larger sector of society who receive counseling in Western culture (Pakizegi, 1985; Schaef, 1981). Schaef strongly argues that women have "taught to be sick" by a white male oriented system (1981). Parenthetically, women often report more symptoms than do men, which may be indicative of openness regarding their personal affairs. There appears to be evidence, however, that women do discuss their personal affairs more often than men, subsequently leading to greater proportions of symptom reduction (Rossi, 1986). Rossi (1986) suggests that women seek out confidants such as relatives, friends, and children to express their more personal concerns. However, this assessment is likely more applicable to Blacks than whites. Whites tend to seek out more professionals than Black Americans (Colletta & Lee; 1983; Dillard, 1983).

In a longitudinal investigation, Bloom and Caldwell (1981) found more psychological maladjustments among women during premarital separation than men. However, during the post-separation period, men were more psychologically impaired than women, and more likely to be at a higher risk than women. These authors assert that women are more likely to admit more of their symptoms than men, and in conjunction seek counseling more often than men.

If these findings and speculations are accurate, women are more likely to seek counseling and more likely to benefit from the experience than men. Brown and Manela (1979) suggest that although women may need professional counseling, but may find self-help groups focused on their specific needs. Black Americans may elect this option first before seeking professional help (Dillard, 1983; Staples, 1981).

Interestingly, Gilbert (1984) developed a model to treat primarily poor women. She suggests that counseling may include "rap sessions", this informal type of counseling model is essentially "group therapy". Gilbert argues that mothers who are on welfare can learn and implement techniques that lead to reduction in tension, anxiety, and depression. In a similar vein, welfare women should be counseled to cope "with separation and surviving on welfare" (1984, p. 52). Although Black family dynamics appear to be changing, professional therapy has not been the traditional means by which most Black Americans have sought the alleviation of psychological symptoms. They have more often sought relatives, children or religious leaders (Dillard, 1983).

Religiosity. Religion has traditionally played a vital role in the lives of most Black American families. It has been found to be a major source of strength for many Blacks in the United States (Billingsley, 1968; Dillard, 1983; Symonds, 1969). Symonds (1969) suggests that Blacks tend to participate in religious activities to escape the rigors of an oppressive reality. Similarly Dillard comments

Religion is one of the fundamental strengths of American Blacks. Religion plays a significant role in the lives of most Black people, with the church functioning as the central meeting place in the community—the place to attain the emotional inspiration needed for adaptation to social and economic conditions (1983; p. 146).

Hill (1972) attributes religion as a strength that Black Americans relied heavily upon throughout American history. From slavery to the civil rights' movements in the decades of the 50's and 60's, religion and religious practices have provided Blacks with psychological benefits. Hill (1972) states, "religion served as a stimulant" (p. 146).

Interestingly, Idler (1987) found that religious involvement to be associated with decreases in physical and psychological risk factors. For example, Idler (1987) discovered that among an elderly sample, those who reported higher levels of religious involvement also reported higher levels of physical and mental health. Idler (1987) suggests that those persons who refrain from alcohol consumption, sexual coitus, tobacco usage, and similar behaviors tend to possess higher levels of health and depressive symptoms are markedly decreased.

In addition, Curran (1983) obtained data from 551 respondents relative to family strengths. Among 56 traits reported by these repondents, sharing religion ranked number 10. Curran points to the fact that many organized and non-organized religious groups acquire strengths as a result of some level of belief. A similar finding is reported by Stinnett, Walters and Kaye (1984).

Scanzoni (1971) argues that religion is not as widely practiced by Blacks today as was traditionally. However, religion appears to remain an intricate aspect of most Black Americans (Thompson, 1974). Scanzoni (1971) believes that religion has served the Black community as an instrument to create social cohesion and mutual support. Perhaps the first institution that Blacks have actually controlled was the Black church. This control likely yielded psychological benefits by the way of achieving recognition, power, and a sense of autonomy.

Thompson (1974) remarks, "Since perennially, the Black community has been powerless, next to the family the Black church has had the greatest influences in the social, cultural, and psychological maturation of Blacks" (p. 124). The ubiquitous and lasting effects of religious influence in the lives of Black Americans have affected most Blacks directly or indirectly (Bennett, 1962; Fraizer, 1948; Nobles, 1976; Staples, 1973; 1981). Religion seems to continue to provide Blacks with sources of hope, aspiration, escape from oppression, and provides most Blacks with vehicles for psychic development and expression.

Conclusion

An attempt has been made to demonstrate that Black women who are primarily poor and head households do possess certain familial and personal characteristics that are related to specific psychological strengths, according to the literature. It must be pointed out that the historical experiences that Blacks have encountered have been influential and catalytic regarding the structural process and development of Black American families that have African origins (Bennett, 1962; DuBois, 1961).

Furthermore, the conditions of previous generations of Black Americans have been largely transmitted onto the contemporary Black family in the United States. Stages of transmissibilty of personal and familial characteristics are clearly evidenced by a myriad of Black experiences in African and American antecedents. It is observed that the matrifocal structure is, in part, the result.

The historical issues that have thwarted family life are continuing to further fragment Black American families. Issues, such as poverty, racism, sexism, and other social and political injustices that Black families experience must be viewed as oppression. An oppressive evironment in which Blacks must function continues to limit their familial development and undermines the ideology of the American family. In conjunction, Black matrifocal families that are poor, and lack availibity to necessary assistance are at the greatest disadvantages, and will suffer the

greatest losses than any other major social and ethnic group in the United States (Nobles, 1976).

In addition, the literature has provided evidence that Black Americans who are poor do acquire certain psychological strengths through their family of origin, religiosity, children, age, education, and counselee orientation. These strengths may be viewed in terms of adaptations (Bilingsley, 1968) to an inimical environment as opposed to weaknesses, pathologies and disorganization (Sarbin, 1970). Social and economic deprivity have perennially been the chief experiences of most Black families in the United States. Research has demonstrated, however, that certain strengths are found among the most deprived Black Americans. The Black poor matrifocal family in the United States continues to herald this fact by their continued existence and marginal gains with no appreciable acknowledgement from social scientists or students of family life (Billingsley, 1968; Hill, 1972; Staples, 1973; 1981; Willie; 1970).

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APPENDIX B - INSTRUMENTS

Depression Adjective Checklist State-Trait Anxiety Inventories Self-Esteem Inventory Questionnaire

The Depression Adjective Checklist

The Depression Adjective Checklist (DACL) was developed by Lubin (1981). The DACL is designed to be a self-administered instrument that measures "mood" states. Reliability coefficients are reported by Lubin to range from .83 to .92 for males and .80 to .93 for females (p. 10).

The DACL is composed of 32 items. Twenty-two items are positive adjectives and ten of them are negative. The DACL has been used by a diversified sampling of subjects, e.g., normal male and female, and psychiatric patients. Also, Lubin reported concurrent validity significant at the .01 level with subscales of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and the Beck Depression Inventory (p. 25).

Lubin further states that the DACL is suitable for subjects with at least an eighth grade reading level. Lubin also reported that education and depression is consistently inversely related (from 8 to 19 years of education, respectively).

CHECK LIST

DACL FORM C

By Bernard Lubin

	Nar	ne			_Age	_ Sex
	Dat	eHig	hest (grade	completed in se	chool
	and of t you	ECTIONS: Below you will find words feelings. Check the words which deshe words may sound alike, but we want feelings. Work rapidly and check at today.	cribe it you	How to ch	You Feel Now - neck all the wor	- Today. Some ds that describe
1.		Cheerless	17.		Buoyant	
2.		Animated	18.		Tormented	
3.		Blue	19.		Weak	
4.		Lost	20.		Optimistic	
5.		Dejected	21.		Low	
6.		Healthy	22.	\Box	Deserted	
7.		Discouraged	23.		Burdened	
8.		Bad	24.		Wonderful	
9.		Despondent	25.		Crushed	
10.		Free	26.		Somber	
11.		Despairing	27.		Interested	
12.		Uneasy	28.	oʻ	Joyless	
13.		Peaceful	29.		Crestfallen	
14.		Grim	30.		Lucky	
15.		Distressed	31.		Chained	
16.		Whole	32.		Pessimistic	

DAC 003 COPTEIGHT ® 1965 by EDUCATIONAL & INCUSTRIAL TESTING SERVICE, EAN BINGO, CALINGENIA 97187 EEPRODUCTION OF THIS FORM BY ANY INCAMS STRICTLY PROMISITED

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI), developed by Spielberger (1983) has been widely used in research and in clinical settings. Spielberger states that the STAI has been used in over 2,000 studies that include, "medicine, dentistry, education, psychology, and other social sciences" (1983, p. 2).

The instrument is designed to assess state and trait anxiety levels. According to Spielberger, state anxiety is described as an "emotional state . . . at a given moment in time and at a particular level of intensity" (p. 1). Trait anxiety is understood and defined by inherent predispostions within the personality. It is relative to one's world view, likely stemming from childhood.

Spielberger (1983) reported reliability coefficients based on a sample of 210 females from ages 19 to 39 at .93 for state-anxiety and .92 for trait-anxiety. On two other samples of adults with age range of 40 to 49 years of age; and ages 50 to 69 years of age, both state and trait reliability coefficients ranged from .89 to .94.

The questionnaire consists of 40 statements. Items are designed to elicit reports from respondents as to how they feel "right now" (state) and how they "generally feel" (trait). Spielberger also reported correlations of the STAI and the Mooney Problem Checklist on two samples. Among several problem area, "Finances, Living Conditions, and Employment" and the STAI was significantly correlated at .01 and .05 levels.

SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Developed by Charles D. Spielberger in collaboration with R. L. Gorsuch, R. Lushene, P. R. Vagg, and G. A. Jacobs

STAI Form Y-1

Name Date			- 9 -	
Age Sex: M F			T.	
DIRECTIONS: A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then blacken in the appropriate circle to the right of the statement to indicate how you feel <i>right</i> now, that is, at this moment. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe your present feelings best.	Mann Mann	41/1/s	Mit.	() () ()
1. I feel calm	11	(3 -	131	4
2. I feel secure	:10	12	731	•4
3. I am tense	111	. 3	· i	.4
4. I feel strained	·i·	ίį.	i	į.
5. I feel at ease	1.	ż	· i ·	4
6. 1 feel upset	,	.1	1.	4
7. I am presently worrying over possible mistortunes	iı	i	i·	•
8. I feel satisfied	•	2	1.	4
9. I feel trightened	٠,	2	1	4
10. I feel comfortable		. 3	i	4
11. I feel self-confident	Ε,.	2	1.	4
12. I feel nervous	i.	'1	'n.	i
13. I am jittery	•	.3	j.	i.
14. I feel indecisive	i-	ż	ĵ,	4
15. I am relaxed	'i'	ż	٠į٠	4
16. I feel content	1.	1	. 1	•
17. I am worried	į.	2	. 1	•
18. I feel confused	•	· i	,	4
19. I feel steady	.1.	2	1	•
90 I feel pleasant		2	1	

SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

STAI Form Y-2

NameD	ate _				
DIRECTIONS: A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then blacken in the appropriate circle to the right of the statement to indicate how you <i>generally</i> feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe how you generally feel.	lass, 1	Sent I	W _s	is, un	(1)3.
21. I feel pleasant		·i.	11	:ā·	4
22. I feel nervous and restless		·i·	2	:3	·i
23. I feel satisfied with myself		æ	·i	·i·	4
24. I wish I could be as happy as others seem to be	•••	4.	.3	3	٠.
25. I feel like a failure		•	. 1	13 ·	4
26. I feel rested		.11	2	.3	4
27. I am "calm, cool, and collected"	• • • •	·	2	3	4
28. I feel that difficulties are piling up so that I cannot overcome the	111	.,	. 1	٠,	4
29. I worry too much over something that really doesn't matter		.1.	.1	1	
30. I am happy		1	. 2	. 1	
31. I have disturbing thoughts		10	2	,	
32. I lack self-confidence		٠,	,	: 1	
33. I feel secure:		•	,	3	à
34. I make decisions easily		•	2	,	4
35. I feel inadequate		,	2	,	i
36. I am content		i.	. 2	.1	
37. Some unimportant thought runs through my mind and bothers i	nc	1	2	.3.	i
38. I take disappointments so keenly that I can't put them out of	m				
_ mind		1.	2	3	
39. Il am a steady person		. 1	2	1	4
40. I get in a state of tension or turmoil as I think over my recent conce	TUS				
and interests		•	12	٠,	•

Self-Esteem Inventory

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) (1983) has been widely used over 20 years. The SEI assesses attitudes, values, and beliefs according to the author. The adult form consists of 25 items composed of short statements which ask subjects to choose the statements that are "like me or unlike me."

The SEI is self-administered in design and is suited to be used in an interview. It has been extensively used with a cross section of children but not as widely with adults. The author (1983) states that "all socioeconomic groups are represented" (p. 12).

Using Cronbach Alpha, Coopersmith reports reliability ranges from .78 to .85 on an adult population with an age range from 20-34 years of age. Cronbach Alpha reliabilities are reported for Blacks: .79 for males and .83 for females. Coopersmith (1983) reports construct validity based on two large samples of 7600 school children, grades 4 through 8. He reports concurrent validity based upon previous research using the SEI and the SRA Achievement Series; the SEI and the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test, and obtained significant correlation coefficients at .01 levels. Coopersmith reports predictive validity with the SEI and subscales of the Miller's Analogy Test that indicated a correlation at the .01 level.

ADULT FORM

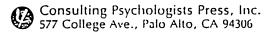
Please Print

SEI

Coopersmith Inventory

Stanley Coopersmith, Ph.D. University of California at Davis

Name	Age
nstitution	Sex: M F
Occupation	Date
•	
Directions	
On the other side of this form, you will find a list of feelings. If a statement describes how you usually column "Like Me." If a statement does not descrifeel, put an X in the column "Unlike Me." There are answers. Begin at the top of the page and mark al	feel, put an X in the be how you usually re no right or wronj
	*.
	r r



Like Me	Unlike Me
	1. Things usually don't bother me.
	2. I find it very hard to talk in front of a group.
	3. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.
	4. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.
	5. I'm a lot of fun to be with.
	6. I get upset easily at home.
	7. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.
	8. I'm popular with persons my own age.
	9. My family usually considers my feelings.
	☐ 10. I give in very easily.
	11. My family expects too much of me.
	12. It's pretty tough to be me.
	13. Things are all mixed up in my life.
	14. People usually follow my ideas.
	15. I have a low opinion of myself.
	16. There are many times when I would like to leave home.
	17. I often feel upset with my work.
	☐ 18. I'm not as nice looking as most people.
	19. If I have something to say, I usually say it.
	20. My family understands me.
	21. Most people are better liked than I am.
	22. I usually feel as if my family is pushing me.
	23. I often get discouraged with what I am doing.
	24. I often wish I were someone else.
П	25. I can't be depended on.

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THE STRENGTH OF BLACK FAMILIES

The interviewer will ask the participants to respond to the following questions:

1)	What is your date of birth? Month DayYear
2)	What is your marital status? How long in this status?
	1) Single, never married a)
	2) Married, but separated a)
	3) Divorced a)
	4) Legally separated a)
	5) Widowed a)
3)	What is your highest level of education completed?
	1) 0-8 years
	2) 9-12 years
	3) 13-14 years
	4) 15-16 years
	5) Above 16
1)	What was mostly the racial background of your community that you grew up in?
	a)Mostly White(1) b) Mostly Mixed(2) c)Mostly Black(3)
5)	During your school years, what race were most of the teachers that taught
	you in elementary school: a) Mostly White_(1) b) Mostly Mixed(2)
	c) Mostly Black(3)
	Highschool? a) b) c) (same code)

6)	The sch	∞l(s) that you at	tended, what was	the race of most o	of the students
	in elem	entary school?			
	in High	a) Mostly White_ School?	_(1) b) Mostly Mi	xed(2) c) Most	sly Black(3)
		a)	b)	c)	_
7)				pports you and you	-
	a) AFDC	or ADC	b) Social Securi	ty c) Child	Support
	d) Emplo	oyment What is	your occupation?		(if applicable`
8)	What is	your religious pr	reference or denom	ination?	
,					
	~/				
9)	-	think about bein al would you say	-	iritual, how relig	gious or
		ligious Somewha	at Religious Not 3	too Religious Not 2	at all Religious
	(Circle	one)(Code by weig	pht)		
10)				in this apartment son, nephew, brot	
		Relationship		Age	
1)					
3)					
4)		·····			
			-	· ————————————————————————————————————	
7)					

11) How long have you lived in this :

APPENDIX C - RAW DATA

18 JUL 18:05:			PSYCHO									WOME BM 30			MVS/X	(A 2	. 1 . 1						
V 1 A	V2	v3	V4	V5	v6	٧7	v8	٧9	V 10	V 1 1	V 1 2	V13	V 1 4	V 15	V 16	V 1 7	V18	V 19	V20	V2 1	V22	V23	V24
1	31	1	13	1	1	1	1	3	4	1	3	2	G	15	29	1	1	1	0	4	24	30	92
2 3	35 48	3	14 12	3	3	3	3	3	0	1	4	1	2 6	2 41	2 41	1	1	1	0	17 6	26	44	52
4	33		13	3	3	2	3	2	1	3	4	5	î	21	32	1 2	2	1	0	1	35 25	33 37	72 84
Š	29	4	11	3	1	ī	2	3	i	1	2	2	5	 5	21	2	2	2	ŏ	7	32	50	60
6	35	3	14	3	3	3	3	3	4	2	4	2	13	13	30	2	1	1	0	4	50	52	48
7	38	2	12	3	3	2	3	2	4	7	4	4	1	6	36	2	2	1	0	2	45	37	84
8 9	18 36	1	12	3	1	1	3	2	1	6	4	1	9	9	18	1	2	1	0	22	60	66	28
10	26	2	12 11	3	3	1 2	3	2	1	6	3	7 7	7	12 10	33 25	2	2	2	0	24 15	61 59	64 65	36 44
11	23	2	13	3	3	3	1	3	ż	1	i	4	5	23	23	2	i	· i	ő	12	46	46	76
12	33	3	11	3	3	1	3	1	4	1	2	0	2	27	32	1	1	1	Õ	10	35	40	48
13	39	3	16	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	3	3	12	7	19	2	1	1	0	5	29	36	72
14	28	1	11	3	1	1	3	3	1	4	2	4	1	27	27	2	1	!	0	8	52	47	64
15 16	24 28	1	14	3	2	1	3	1	4	!	3	1	2	23	23 26	2	1	!	0	. 2	36	40	64
17	33	i	12	1	i	i	i	1	·	- i	. 4	2	2	10	31	2	2	- }	0	14	40 55	50 39	40 76
18	34	3	13	i	1	i	i	1	4	2	3	ã	ã	14	14	î	i	i	ŏ	ő	23	25	99
19	27	2	13	3	3	3	2	3	1	1	3	1	1	23	23	2	1	1	0	5	32	32	72
20	19	1	13	3	2	2	3	3	!	5	1	2	1	18	18	2	1	1	0	4	33	40	72
21 22	28	1	9	3	3	. 2	2	2	1	. 1	2	4	1	27 30	27 30	2	1	!	0	3	23 34	35	92
23	36	i	- ; ;	3	3	3	3	ŝ	1	i	2	2	5	35	35	2	- ;	- ;	Ö	9	37	32 57	88 28
24	45	3	10	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	43	43	2	i	i	ŏ	2	23	20	76
25	25	2	12	3	1	3	2	. 2	1	5	2	1	0	5	21	2	1	1	1	22	36	48	44
26	31	1	11	2	1	2	2	3	0	!	4	1	15	15	17	2	2	1	0	0	29	27	72
27 28	23 35	1	13 9	3 2	3	1 2	1	3	2	- }	4	4	3 6	21 34	2 1 3 4	1 2	1 2	!	0	7	33 46	38 51	88 52
29	41	3	16	3	3	â	3	3	i	i	3	3	1	41	41	2	1	i	0	3	38	40	88
30	21	2	12	3	1	3	2	3	1	1	2	2	ò	21	21	2	2	i	1	16	51	54	56
31	20	1	11	3	2	3	3	3	0	7	1	3	5	19	19	1	1	1	0	6	26	47	56
32	20	- 1	13	3	3	3	2	3	1	1	3	2	2	27	27	2	1	1	0	11	42	25	52
33 34	26 27	1	14	3	3	1 2	3	1 2	1	7	3	1	0	24	24 20	2	2	1	0	2	32	25	88
35	20	i	12	3	3	2	3	2	i	ż	2	3	Ö	- 6	11	1 2	,	;	0	2 8	30 42	25 45	88 48
36	21	1	12	3	2	1	3	2	4	1	3	ō	1	20	20	1	i	1	ŏ	12	42	61	52
37	32	1	11	3	3	2	3	3	1	2	3	3	1	32	32	2	2	1	0	3	25	32	56
38 39	43 31	3	12	3	3	2	3	2	2	1	4	2	2	24	41	2	2	2	0	7	34	57	60
40	29	3	13	3	2	2	3	1 2	1	6	3	2	0	3 28	25 28	2	2	1	0	5 2	38 29	45 35	68 76
41	35	1	13	3	3	2	3	2	ö	1	4	2	2	35	35	2	i	i	ö	4	62	41	76
42	43	2	10	2	1	3	2	3	1	7	3	7	2	32	42	1	1	1	ŏ	5	27	39	76
43	33	1	12	3	1	1	1	1	1	5	1	2	1	17	17	2	1	1	0	15	55	42	64
44 45	28 33	1	11	3	3	3	3	3	1 2	1	2	3 4	1 2	27 31	27 31	2	1	1	0	12	40 53	42 62	88
46	22	i	10	3	3	2	2	2	4	i	3	5	1	27	27	2	1	1	0	14	47	57	52 36
47	35	i	13	1	1	2	ī	ā	i	1	3	4	ó	27	27	2	ż	1.	ŏ	7	44	40	48
48	27	2	11	3	3	2	2	3	4	1	2	5	1	15	25	1	1	1	0	9	45	52	48
49	24	1	13	3	1	3	3	3	1	1	2	1	17	23	23	1	1	1	0	12	33	41	68
50	25	1	10	3	2	2	2	2	1	5	2	2	2	5	5	2	1	1	0	8	39	44	40

NUMBER OF CASES READ . 50 NUMBER OF CASES LISTED . 50

0130 5113 011113413026 0015 029 011104243092 0234 6314 033332114011 501 501 5011117264452 0347 7112 033333013006 0041 041 011106353372 0432 9113 033232134051 0021 032 022101253784 0528 5211 031123112025 005 0021 022207325060 0635 1314 0333334240213 013 030 021104505248 0737 9212 033232474040 506 0036 022102453784 0818 2112 031132164019 009 0018 012122606628 0935 6212 033132463077 0012 033 022224616436 1025 8211 033233141070 5010 025 021115596544

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1123 3213 0333132110405 023 023 021112464676
1232 6311 0331314120002 027 032 011110354048
1339 3315 5333331130312 007 019 021105293672
1417 8111 031133142040 5027 027 021108524764
1524 1114 032131413011 5023 023 021102364064
1627 6110 031113111030 5026 026 022114405040
1732 5112 0111110140202 010 031 021109553976
1834 0313 0111114230308 014 014 011100232599
1926 6213 0333231130101 023 023 021105323272
2018 9113 0322331510201 018 018 021104334072
2127 8109 0322221120401 027 027 021103233592
2231 6111 0331324140401 030 030 021103343288
2336 0111 033333112024 5035 035 021109375728
2444 6310 0333334340403 043 043 021102232076
2525 0212 031322152010 2505 021 021122364844
2631 0111 0212230140115 015 017 022100292772
2722 6112 5311112140403 021 021 011101333888
2834 8109 0232331130306 034 034 022107465152
2941 4316 033333113030 7541 041 021103384088
3021 2212 031323112020 2521 021 022116515456
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3119 5111 0323330710305 019 019 011106264756
3219 5113 0333231130202 027 027 021111422552
3325 6114 031131113010 2524 024 022102322588
3426 6113 0332321730303 020 020 011102302586
3520 2112 033232172030 2506 011 012108424548
3620 8112 0321324130001 020 020 011112426152
3732 2111 033233123030 5032 032 022103253256
3842 5312 033232214021 5024 041 022207345760
3930 5211 0122311130201 003 025 022105384568
4029 0313 032232164030 2528 028 011102293576
4135 2113 0332320140202 035 035 021104624176
4242 5210 0213231730702 032 042 011105273976
4332 5112 031111151020 5017 017 021115554264
4427 6111 033333112030 5027 027 021104404288
4533 1112 0332332120402 031 031 021112536252
4622 1110 0332224130501 027 027 021114475736
4734 6113 011213113040 1027 027 022107444048
4826 6211 0332234120501 015 025 011109455248
4924 0113 0313331120117 023 023 011112334168
5024 8110 032222152021 5005 005 021108394440
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APPENDIX D - SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

GROUPS t-TEST FOR HIGH AND LOW YEARS OF AGE BY SELF-ESTEEM

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF	SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES		F PROB
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	322.	5800	322.5800	.9512	.3343
WITHIN GROUPS	48	16277.	4400	339.1133		
TOTAL	49	16600.	0200			
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD	DEVIATION	STANDARD	ERROR
BELOW 30	25	61.6000	18.	6548	3.73	10
ABOVE 30	25	66.6800	18.	1721	3.63	44
TOTAL	50	64.1400	18.	4059	2.60	30

GROUPS t-TEST FOR HIGH AND LOW YEARS OF AGE BY TRAIT ANXIETY

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF	SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	F PROB
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	154.8	300	154.8800	1.2067	.2775
WITHIN GROUPS	48	6160.6	400	128.3467		
TOTAL	49	6315.5	200			
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD	DEVIATION	STANDARD	ERROR
BELOW 30	25	44.4000	11.	4091	2.2	818
ABOVE 30	25	40.8800	11.	2484	2.2	497
TOTAL	50	42.6400	11.	3529	1.6	055

GROUPS t-TEST FOR HIGH AND LOW YEARS OF AGE BY STATE-ANXIETY

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF	SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE		F PROB
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	14.58	00	14.5800	.1192	.7314
WITHIN GROUPS	48	5872.64	00	122.3467		
TOTAL	49	5887.22	00			
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD !	DEVIATION	STANDARD	ERROR
BELOW 30	25	39.2000	9.5	960	1.9	192
ABOVE 30	25	38.1200	12.3	535	2.4	707
TOTAL	50	38.6600	10.9	612	1.5	501

GROUPS t-TEST FOR BELOW AND ABOVE TWO CHILDREN BY SELF-ESTEEM

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF	SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES		F PROB
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	611	.5200	611.5200	1.8359	.1818
WITHIN GROUPS	48	15988	.5000	333.0937		
TOTAL	49	16600	.0200			
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD	DEVIATION	STANDARD	ERROR
BELOW 2	24	60.5000	16.	4845	3.36	49
ABOVE 2	26	67.5000	19.	7368	3.87	07
TOTAL	50	64.1400	18.	4059	2.60	30

GROUPS t-TEST FOR BELOW AND ABOVE TWO CHILDREN BY TRAIT ANXIETY

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF	SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	F PROB
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	7.	4463	7.4463	.0567	.8129
WITHIN GROUPS	48	6308.	0737	131.4182		
TOTAL	49	6315.	5200			
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD	DEVIATION	STANDARI	ERROR
BELOW 2	24	43.0417	11.	1764	2.28	314
ABOVE 2	26	42.2692	11.	7220	2.29	89
TOTAL	50	42.6400	11.	3529	1.60)55

GROUPS t-TEST FOR HIGH AND LOW RELIGIOSITY BY DEPRESSION

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF	SQUARES	MEAN	SQUARES	F RATIO	F PROB
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	193.1	486	193.	1486	6.1181	.0170
WITHIN GROUPS	48	1515.3	514	31.	5698		
TOTAL	49	1708.5	000				
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD	DEVIA	TION	STANDARD	ERROR
LOW	19	10.2105	4.	8141		1.10	04
HIGH	31	6.1613	6.	0504		1.08	37
TOTAL	50	8.1859	5	432		1.09	95
	3.0					_ • •	-

GROUPS t-TEST FOR HIGH AND LOW YEARS OF EDUCATION BY DEPRESSION

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF	SQUARES	MEAN	SQUARES	F RATIO	F PROB
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	198.0	0382	198	.0382	6.2933	.0155
WITHIN GROUPS	48	1510.4	1618	31	.4680		
TOTAL	49	1708.5	5000				
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD	DEVI	ATION	STANDARD	ERROR
LOW	31	9.2581	6.	1317		1.10	013
HIGH	19	5.1579	4.	6099		1.09	576
TOTAL	50	7.7000	5.	9049		.8:	351

GROUPS t-TEST FOR HIGH AND LOW RELIGIOSITY BY SELF-ESTEEM

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF	SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	F PROB
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	1449.2	390	1449.2390	4.59	.0372
WITHIN GROUPS	48	15150.78	810	315.6413		
TOTAL	49	16600.0	200			
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD	DEVIATION	STANDARD	ERROR
LOW	19	57.2632	16.	7090	3.8	33
HIGH	31	68.3548	18.	3715	3.30	00
TOTAL	50	62.8090	17.	5389	3.56	56

Table 10 103

GROUPS t-TEST FOR HIGH AND LOW YEARS OF EDUCATION BY TRAIT-ANXIETY

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF S	SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	F PROB	
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	1185.21	110	1185.2110	11.0890	.0017	
WITHIN GROUPS	48	5130.30	090	106.8814			
TOTAL	49	6315.52	200				
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD	DEVIATION	STANDARD	ERROR	
LOW	31	46.4516	11.	6300	2.088	8	
HIGH	19	36.4211	7.	7195	1.771	0	
TOTAL	50	42.6400	11.	3529	1.605	5	

GROUPS t-TEST FOR HIGH AND LOW RELIGIOSITY BY TRAIT-ANXIETY

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF	SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	F PROB
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	796.0	939	796.0939	6.9233	.0114
WITHIN GROUPS	48	5519.4	261	114.9880		
TOTAL	49	6315.5	200			
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD	DEVIATION	STANDARD	ERROR
LOW	19	47.7368	7.	723	1.7	72
HIGH	31	39.5161	12.	173	2.1	86
TOTAL	50	43.6264	9.9	948	1.9	79

GROUPS t-TEST FOR HIGH AND LOW YEARS OF EDUCATION BY SELF-ESTEEM

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF S	SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	S F RATIO	F PROB
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	2884.6	550	2884.6500	10.0955	.0026
WITHIN GROUPS	48	13713.30	650	285.7368		
TOTAL	49	16598.0	200			
GROUP	COUNT	ME AN	STANDARD	DEVIATION	STANDARD	ERROR
LOW	31	58.1935	17.	7039	3.1	797
HIGH	19	73.8421	15.	4785	3.5	510
TOTAL	50	64.1400	18.	4059	2.60	030

GROUPS t-TEST FOR HIGH AND LOW YEARS OF AGE BY DEPRESSION

SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF	SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	F PROB
BETWEEN GROUPS	1	64	.9800	64.9800	1.8978	.1747
WITHIN GROUPS	48	1643	.5200	34.2400		
TOTAL	49	1708	.5000			
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD	DEVIATION	STANDARD	ERROR
BELOW 30	25	8.8400	6.0	0600	1.21	20
ABOVE 30	25	6.5600	5.6	5353	1.12	71
TOTAL	50	7.7000	5.9	9049	.83	51

```
LISTWISE DELETION OF MISSING DATA
EQUATION NUMBER 1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE.
                                           V22 STA ANX SCOR
BEGINNING BLOCK NUMBER 1. METHOD: ENTER
VARIABLE(S) ENTERED ON STEP NUMBER
                                          VIG
                                                    TIM/LIV/OK
                                          V 7
                                                    RAC/BACGR/TE/HIG
                                    2 . .
                                   З.,
                                          V 12
                                                    RELIGIOUSITY
                                    4 . .
                                          V ?
                                                    V C.E
                                                    TIM/LIV/TUL
                                    5 . .
                                          V 15
                                     ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
MULTIPLE R
                     .39311
                                                                SUM OF SQUARES
                                                                                    MEAN SQUARE
R SQUARE
                     . 15453
                                                        () F
ADJUSTED R SQUARE
                     .05846
                                    REGRESSION
                                                         5
                                                                     909.76594
                                                                                      181.95319
                                    RESIDUAL
STANDARD ERROR
                   10.63597
                                                        4 1
                                                                    4977.45406
                                                                                      113.12396
                                              1.60844
                                                            SIGNIF F = . 1778
----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----
VARIABLE
                               SE B
                                         BETA
                                                      T SIG T
                .630243
                            . 287431
                                      .507488
                                                  2.193 .0337
V16
٧7
              -2.117588
                           1.997825
                                     -. 153613.
                                                 -1.0GO
                                                         . 2950
              -1.667925
                           1.727360
                                     -.149219
                                                  -.966 .3395
V12
               -.412749
                            . 295582
                                     -.268314
                                                 -1.396 .1696
V 2
               -.331001
                           . 201789
                                      -.318907
                                                  -1.640 .1081
V 15
              50.468236
                           7.502108
                                                  6.727 .0000
(CONSTANT)
```

END BLOCK NUMBER 1 ALL REQUESTED VARIABLES ENTERED

MULTIPLE R

R SQUARE

EQUATION NUMBER 1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. V22 STA ANX SCOR BEGINNING BLOCK NUMBER 2. METHOD: BACKWARD VARIABLE(S) REMOVED ON STEP NUMBER 6.. V12 RELIGIOUSITY .36962 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE . 13662 DF SUM OF SQUARES MEAN SQUARE ADJUSTED R SQUARE STANDARD ERROR .05987 REGRESSION 804.29276 201.07319

45

F = 1.78013 SIGNIF F = .1495

· · · · MULTIPLE REGRESSION · · · ·

	VARIAB	LES IN THE	EQUATION				VARIABLES NOT IN	THE EQUATIO	N	
VARIABLE	В	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T	VARIABLE	BETA IN PARTIAL	MIN TOLER	Ţ	SIGT
V16 V7 V2 V15 (CONSTANT)	.604100 -1.837554 502237 307763 48.174765	.285938 1.975178 .280466 .200198 7.110834	.486437 133299 326486 296518	2.113 930 -1.791 -1.537 6.775	.0402 .3572 .0801 .1312 .0000	V12	149219144050	. 358710	-,966	. 3395

5082.92724

112.95394

SIGNIF F . . 1144

VADIABLE(C)	DEMOVED	ON CIE	MILIMOFO	7	V.7	DAC/BACCD/TE/UIC

RESIDUAL

10.62798

MULTIPLE R	.34643	ANALYSIS OF	VARIANCE		
R SQUARE	. 12001		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.06262	REGRESSION	3	706.53092	235.51031
STANDARD ERROR	10.61243	RESIDUAL	46	5180.68908	112.62368

2.09113

	VARIAB	LES IN THE	EQUATION				VARIABLES NOT IN	THE EQUATION	
VARIABLE	В	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T	VARIABLE	BETA IN PARTIAL	MIN TOLER	T SIG T
V16 V2 V15 (CONSTANT)	.630728 546006 339688 45.751032	.284085 .276087 .196947 6.606708	.507878 354939 327276	2.220 -1.978 -1.725 6.925	.0314 .0540 .0913 .0000	V 12 V 7	125441121232 133299137370	. 36 13 16 . 36 192 1	819 .4169 930 .3572

13

LISTWISE DELETION OF MISSING DATA

EQUATION NUMBER 1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. V24 SELFEST SCOR

BEGINNING BLOCK NUMBER 1. METHOD: ENTER

VARIABLE(S) ENTERED ON STEP NUMBER

2. V19 COUNSELING NOW

3. V6 RAC/BACGR/TE/ELEM

4. V4 YRSED

4.. V4 YRSE 5.. V2 AGE

MULTIPLE R .46020 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE MEAN SQUARE R SQUARE SUM OF SQUARES .21178 DF . 12221 ADJUSTED R SQUARE REGRESSION 5 3515.54713 703.10943 STANDARD ERROR 297.37438 17.24455 RESIDUAL 44 13084.47287

= 2.36439 SIGNIF F = .0551

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----VARIABLE SE B BETA V12 2.840849 2.828593 . 151355 1.004 .3207 V19 -15.845789 10.505431 . 1386 -.206530 -1.508 -3.907199 . 1761 ٧6 2.841683 -.191797 -1.375 V4 2.812120 1.732350 .225245 1.623 . 1117 V2 .635708 .397256 .246102 1.600 . 1167 (CONSTANT) 28.888923 24.737385 1,168 . 2492

END BLOCK NUMBER 1 ALL REQUESTED VARIABLES ENTERED.

EQUATION NUMBER 1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. V24 SELFEST SCOR

VARIABLE(S) REMOVED ON STEP NUMBER 8.. V19 COUNSELING NOW

MULTIPLE R	.34679	ANALYSIS OF V	ARIANCE		
R SQUARE	. 12026		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.08283	REGRESSION	2	1996.40046	998.20023
STANDARD ERROR	17.62712	RESIDUAL	. 47	14603.61954	310.71531

3.21259

	VARIA	BLES IN THE E	QUATION				VARIABLES NOT IN	THE EQUATION		
VARIABLE	В	SE B	BETA	• T	SIG T	VARIABLE	BETA IN PARTIAL	MIN TOLER	T	SIG T
V4 V2 (CONSTANT)	3.305005 .543109 8.198627	1.710543 .353913 22.731465	.264724 .210254	1.535	.0594 .1316 .7200	V6 V19 V12	188108192455 203919212543 .151109 .143086		-1.330 -1.475 .981	

SIGNIF F - .0492

VARIABLE(S) REMOVED ON STEP NUMBER 9.. V2 AGE

MULTIPLE R	.27602	ANALYSIS OF VA	RIANCE		
R SQUARE	.07619		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.05694	REGRESSION	1	1264.68545	1264.68545
STANDARD ERROR	17.87418	RESIDUAL	• 48	15335.33455	319,48614

F • 3.95850 SIGNIF F • .0523

	VARIA	BLES IN THE E	QUATION				VARIABLES NOT I	NOITAUDS 3HT N		
VARIABLE	8	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T	VARIABLE	BETA IN PARTIAL	MIN TOLER	т	SIG T
(CONSTANT)	3.446009 22.787887	1.732013 20.937311	.276018	1.990 1.088	.0523 .2819	V2 V6 V19 V12	.210254 .218436 116018120481 152912158827 .213590 .215336	.996670	832 -1.103	. 1316 . 4096 . 2757 . 1373

END BLOCK NUMBER 2 POUT . . 100 LIMITS REACHED.

EQUATION NUMBER 1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. V24 SELFEST SCOR

BEGINNING BLOCK NUMBER 2. METHOD: BACKWARD

VARIABLE(S) REMOVED ON STEP NUMBER 6.. V12 RELIGIOUSITY

MULTIPLE R	.44013	ANALYSIS OF	VARIANCE		
R SQUARE	, 19371		DF	SUM OF SOUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	. 12204	REGRESSION	. 4	3215.59024	803.89756
STANDARD ERROR 17	7.24621	RESIDUAL	45 45	13384.42976	297.43177

F • 2.70280 SIGNIF F • .0422

VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION							VARIABL	ES NOT IN	THE EQUATIO	N	-
VARIABLE	В	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T	VARIABLE	BETA IN	PARTIAL	MIN TOLER	T SIG	r
V19 V6 V4 V2 (CONSTANT)	-15.865997 -3.897739 3.239038 .787246 27.064451	10.506425 2.841942 1.679551 .367522 24.672973	206794 191332 .259440 .304767	-1.510 -1.372 1.929 2.142 1.097		V12	. 151355	. 149703	.757425	1.004 .320	,

VARIABLE(S) REMOVED ON STEP NUMBER 7.. VG RAC/BACGR/TE/ELEM

STANDARD ERROR 17.41058 RESIDUAL 46 13943.90693 303.12841	MULTIPLE R R SOUARE ADJUSTED R SQUARE STANDARD ERROR	.40001 .16001 .10522 17.41058	ANALYSIS OF REGRESSION RESIDUAL	OF 3	SUM OF SOUARES 2656.11307 13943.90693	MEAN SQUARE 885.37102 303.12841
---	---	--	---------------------------------------	---------	---	---------------------------------------

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION ---------- VARIABLES NOT IN THE EQUATION -----VÄŘIABLE SE B BETA T SIG T VARIABLE BETA IN PARTIAL MIN TOLER T SIG T -.191332 -.200308 .150668 .146004 .885111 -1.372 .1770 .788791 .990 .3275 V19 -15.645441 10.605319 -.203919 -1.475 .1470 ٧6 V4 3.130385 1.693672 .250737 V12 .788791 1.848 .0710 .649858 .356977 .251580 1.820 .0752 (CONSTANT) 23.678114 24.783097 .955 .3444

F • 2.92078 SIGNIF F • .0439

LISTWISE DELETION OF MISSING DATA

EQUATION NUMBER 1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. V23 TRA ANX SCOR

BEGINNING BLOCK NUMBER 1. METHOD: ENTER

VARIABLE(S) ENTERED ON STEP NUMBER 1.. V12 RELIGIOUSITY
2.. V19 COUNSELING NOW
3.. V13 NO CHILD

4.. V2 AGE

MULTIPLE R .49751 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE R SQUARE .24752 SUM OF SQUARES MEAN SQUARE DF ADJUSTED R SQUARE . 18063 REGRESSION 1563.20859 390.80215 STANDARD ERROR 10.27652 RESIDUAL 45 4752.31141 105.60692

F = 3.70054 SIGNIF F = .0109

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----. T SIG T VARIABLE SE B BETA V12 -2.581581 1.653012 -.222989 -1.562 .1254 .358618 V 19 16.971164 6.282452 2.701 .0097 V13 .897470 1.051 .2990 .942975 . 139684 -.325708 .232313 -.204426 -1.402 .1678 ٧2 (CONSTANT) 4.512 .0000 38.918347 8.624697

END BLOCK NUMBER 1 ALL REQUESTED VARIABLES ENTERED.

• • • • MULTIPLE REGRESSION • • • •

EQUATION NUMBER 1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. V23 TRA ANX SCOR

BEGINNING BLOCK NUMBER 2. METHOD: BACKWARD

VARIABLE(S) REMOVED ON STEP NUMBER 5.. V13 NO CHILD

MULTIPLE R	.47860	ANALYSIS OF V	ARIANCE		
R SQUARE	. 22906		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	. 17878	REGRESSION	3	1446.62094	482.20698
STANDARD ERROR	10.28813	RESIDUAL	46.	4868.89906	105.84563

F = 4.55576 SIGNIF F = .0071

	VARIAB	LES IN THE I	EQUATION				- VARIABL	ES NOT IN	THE EQUATION		
VARIABLE	В	SE B	BETA	. T	SIG T	VARIABLE	BETA IN	PARTIAL	MIN TOLER	T	SIG T
V12 V19 V2 (CONSTANT)	-2.844731 17.685273 284667 40.278823	1.635774 6.252636 .229265 8.536579	245719 .373707 178667	-1.739 2.828 -1.242 4.718	.0887 .0069 .2207	CIV	. 139684	. 154743	.786540	1.051	.2990

VARIABLE(S) REMOVED ON STEP NUMBER 6.. V2 AGE

MULTIPLE R	.45080	ANALYSIS OF	VARIANCE		
R SQUARE	. 20322		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	. 16931	REGRESSION	. 2	1283.43840	641.71920
STANDARD ERROR	10.34725	RESIDUAL	47	5032.08160	107.06557
					•

F = 5.99370 SIGNIF F • .0048

	VARIAB	LES IN THE	EQUATION				VARIABL	ES NOT IN	THE EQUATION		
VARIABLE	В	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T	VARIABLE	BETA IN	PARTIAL	MIN TOLER	т	SIG T
V12 V19	-3.650045 16.208522	1.510327	315280 .342502	-2.417	.0196	V 13 V2	. 108345		.973658 .809422	.818 -1.242	.4175
(CONSTANT)	35.533092	7.676992	.342302		.0000	V-2	-,178067	180073	.005422	-1.272	.2207

END BLOCK NUMBER 2 POUT . 100 LIMITS REACHED.

LISTWISE DELETION OF MISSING DATA

EQUATION NUMBER 1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. V21 DEPRESS SCORE

BEGINNING BLOCK NUMBER 1. METHOD: ENTER

 VARIABLE(S)
 ENTERED ON STEP NUMBER
 1...
 V12
 RELIGIOUSITY

 2...
 V19
 COUNSELING NOW

 3...
 V6
 RAC/BACGR/TE/ELEM

 4...
 V4
 YRSED

 5...
 V2
 AGE

MULTIPLE R .45009 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUM OF SQUARES MEAN SQUARE R SQUARE . 20258 DF ADJUSTED R SQUARE . 11197 REGRESSION 346.11447 69.22289 RESIDUAL 1362.38553 30.96331 STANDARD ERROR 5.56447

F = 2.23564 SIGNIF F = .0674

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----VARIABLE SE B BETA T SIG T V12 -1.523645 .912730 -.253034 -1.669 . 1022 . 27 17 17 1.973 .0548 V 19 6.688042 3.389891 -.009 .9929 ٧6 -.008193 .916954 -.001254 V4 -.118996 .558995 -.029710 -.213 .8324 V2 -.178746 . 128 186 -.215695 -1.394 .1702 (CONSTANT) 11.620348 7.982256 1.456 .1526

END BLOCK NUMBER 1 ALL REQUESTED VARIABLES ENTERED.

EQUATION NUMBER 1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. V21 DEPRESS SCORE

BEGINNING BLOCK NUMBER 2. METHOD: BACKWARD

VARIABLE(S) REMOVED ON STEP NUMBER G.. V6 RAC/BACGR/TE/ELEM

MULTIPLE R	. 45009	ANALYSIS OF	VARIANCE		
R SQUARE	20258		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	13170	REGRESSION	4	346.11200	86.52800
STANDARD ERROR	5.50230	RESIDUAL	45	1362.38800	30.27529

F • 2.85804 SIGNIF F • .0341

	VARIAB	LES IN THE	EQUATION				VARIABL	ES NOT IN	THE EQUATION		
VARIABLE	В	SE B	BETA	T	SIGIT	VARIABLE	BETA IN	PARTIAL	MIN TOLER	т	SIG T
V12 V19 V4 V2 (CONSTANT)	-1.523672 6.688506 119220 179033	.902528 3.351625 .552191 .122701 7.853474	253038 .271735 029766 216041	-1.688 1.996 216 -1.459	.0521 .8300	V6	001254	001347	. 757425	009	.9929

VARIABLE(S) REMOVED ON STEP NUMBER 7.. V4 YRSED

MULTIPLE R	.44917	ANALYSIS OF	VARIANCE		
R SQUARE	.20176		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	. 14970	REGRESSION	3	344.70072	114.90024
STANDARD ERROR	5.44498	RESIDUAL	46	1363.79928	29.64781

F • 3.87551 SIGNIF F • .0149

	VARIAB	LES IN THE	EQUATION			VARIABLES NOT IN	THE EQUATION	
VARIABLE	В	SE 8	BETA	T SIG T	VARIABLE	BETA IN PARTIAL	MIN TOLER	T SIG T
V12 V19	-1.571563 6.737178	.865731 3.309200	260992 .273713	-1.815 .0760 2.036 .0475	V4 V6	029766032168 002595002790	.788791 .759122	216 .8300 019 .9852
V2	178046	.121338	214851	-1.467 .1491				

. .

EQUATION NUMBER 1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE.. V21 DEPRESS SCORE

VARIABLE(S) REMOVED ON STEP NUMBER 8.. V2 AGE

MULTIPLE R	. 40545	ANALYSIS OF VARI	ANCE		
R SQUARE	. 16439		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	. 12884	REGRESSION	2	280.86506	140.43253
STANDARD ERROR	5.51137	RESIDUAL	47	1427.63494	30.37521
		F = 4.6232	6 S	SIGNIF F0147	

	VARIAB	LES IN THE	EQUATION				VARIABLES NOT	N THE EQUATION		
VARIABLE	В	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T	VARIABLE	BETA IN PARTIAL	MIN TOLER	τ	SIG T
V 12 V 19	-2.075249 5.813539	.804463 3.288395	344640 .236188	-2.580 1.768	.0131	V2 V4	214851211457 022272023542		-1.467 160	. 1491 . 8738
(CONSTANT)	7 265337	4 089093	.230100	1 777	0821	VE	- 051019 - 055354		376	

END BLOCK NUMBER 2 POUT . . 100 LIMITS REACHED.

APPENDIX E - SUMMARY TABLES

MAIN SOURCE INCOME

		VALUE FF	REQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
OTHER		0	5	10.0	10.0	10.0
AFDC		1	29	58.0	58.0	6 8. 0
SOC SEC		2	4	8.0	8.0	76.0
EMPLOYMENT		4	12	24.0	24.0	100.0
		TOTAL	50	100.0	100.0	
MEAN	1.700	STD ERR	.194	MEDIAN	1.000	
MODE	1.000	SID DEA	1.374	VARIANCE	1.888	
KURTOSIS	703	S E KURT	.662	SKEWNESS	.915	
S E SKEW	.337	RANGE	4.000	MINIMUM	.000	
MAXIMUM	4.000	SUM	85.000			

YEARS OF EDUCATION COMPLETED

					VALID	CUM
	V	ALUE	FREQUENC	Y PERCENT	PERCENT	
		9	2	4.0	4.0	4.0
		10	5	10.0	10.0	14.0
		1 1	12	24.0	24.0	38.0
		12	12	24.0	24.0	62.0
		13	1	2.0	2.0	64.0
		14	12	24.0	24.0	88.0
		13	4	8.0	8.0	96.0
		16	1	2.0	2.0	98.0
		16	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Т	OTAL	50	100.0	100.0	
MEAN	12.000	STD 8	ERR	.208 MED	IAN 13	2.000
MODE	11.000	SID (DEV	1.474 VAR	IANCE 2	2.173
KURTOS1S	.402	SE	KURT	.662 SKE	INESS	.299
S E SKEW	.337	RANGE	Ε .	7.000 MIN	IMUM 9	7.000
MUMIXAM	16.000	SUM	60	0.000		

MARITAL STATUS

		VALUE FR	EQUENCY	PERCENT	VAL I D PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
NEVER MARR	IED	1	30	60.0	60.0	60.0
SEPARATED		2	10	20.0	20.0	80.0
DIVORCED		3	9	18.0	18.0	98.0
LEGALLY SE	PARATEI	0 4	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
		TOTAL	50	100.0	100.0	
MEAN	1.620	STD ERR	.12	1 MEDIAN	1.000	
MODE	1.000	STD DEV	85	5 VARIAN	CE .730	
KURTOSIS	192	S E KURT	.66	2 SKEWNE	SS 1.040	
S E SKEW	.337	RANGE	3.00	O MINIMU	M 1.000	
MAXIMUM	4.000	SUM	81.00	0		

NUMBER OF CHILDREN LIVING IN HOUSEHOLD

					VALID	CUM
		VALUE	FREQUENC	Y PERCEN	T PERCEN	I PERCENT
		0	3	6.0	6.0	6.0
		1	8	16.0	16.0	22.0
		2	13	26.0	26.0	48.0
		3	11	22.0	22.0	70.0
		4	9	18.0	18.0	88.0
		5	3 /	6.0	6.0	94.0
		7	3	6.0	6.0	100.0
		TOTAL	50	100.0	100.0	
MEAN	2.780	STD	ERR	.238 MED	IAN 3.	000
MODE	2.000	STD	DEV 1	.682 VAR	IANCE 2.	828
KURTOSIS	.581	SE	KURT	.662 SKE	WNESS .	711
S E SKEW	.337	RANG	E 7	.000 MIN	IMUM .	000
MAXIMUM	7.000	SUM	139	.000		

TIME LIVING IN APARTMENT BY YEARS

	V	ALUE FR	EQUENCY	PERCENT	VAL I D PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
		0	1	2.0	2.0	2.0
		o	5	10.0	10.0	12.0
		1	7	14.0	14.0	26.0
		1	1	2.0	2.0	28.0
		1	9	18.0	18.0	46.0
		2	4	8.0	8.0	54.0
		2	6	12.0	12.0	66.0
		3	3	6.0	6.0	72.0
		5	1	2.0	2.0	74.0
		5	3	6.0	6.0	80.0
		6	3	6.0	6.0	86.0
		7	1	2.0	2.0	88.0
		8	1	2.0	2.0	90.0
		9	1	2.0	2.0	92.0
		12	1	2.0	2.0	94.0
		13	1	2.0	2.0	96.0
		15	1	2.0	2.0	98.0
		17	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
	тот	TAL	50	100.0	100.0	
MEAN	3.202	STD ERR		565 MEDI	AN 1	.500
MODE	1.000	STD DEV	з.	998 VARI	ANCE 15	.985
KURTOSIS	3.493	S E KUR	т.	662 SKEW	NESS 1	.962
S E SKEW	.337	RANGE	16.	900 MINI	MUM	.100
MAXIMUM	17.000	SUM	160.	100		

TIME LIVING IN CITY BY YEARS

VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
2	1	2.0	2.0	2.0
3	1	2.0	2.0	4.0
5	3	6.0	6.0	10.0
6	2	4.0	4.0	14.0
7	1	2.0	2.0	16.0
9	1	2.0	2.0	18.0
10	2	4.0	4.0	22.0
12	1	2.0	2.0	24.0
13	1	2.0	2.0	26.0
14	1	2.0	2.0	28.0
15	3	6.0	6.0	34.0
17	1	2.0	2.0	36.0
18	1	2.0	2.0	38.0
19	1	2.0	2.0	40.0
20	2	4.0	4.0	44.0
21	3	6.0	6.0	50.0
23	4	8.0	8.0	58.0
24	2	4.0	4.0	62.0
26	1	2.0	2.0	64.0
27	7	14.0	14.0	78.0
28	1	2.0	2.0	90.0
30	1	2.0	2.0	82.0
31	1	2.0	2.0	84.0
32	2	4.0	4.0	86.0

TIME LIVING IN CITY (cont.)

		34	1	2.	0	2.0	90.0
		35	2	4.	Ċ	4.0	94.0
		41	2	4.	o	4.0	98.0
		43	1	2.	o i	2.0	100.0
	ro)TAL	50	100.	υ ,	100.0	•
MEAN	20.910	STD ERR		1.494	MEDIA	Ν	22.000
MODE	27.000	STD DEV		10.561	VAR1A	NCE	111.527
KURTOSIS	650	S E KURT		.662	SKEWN	ESS	.009
S E SKEW	.337	RANGE		41.500	MINIM	⊔M	1.500
MAXIMUM	43.000	SUM	10	45.500			

RELIGIOUSITY

		VALUE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VAL I D PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
NOT AT ALL	RELIGIO	US 1	6	12.0	12.0	12.0
NOT TOO RE	LIGIOUS	2	13	26.0	26.0	38.0
SOMEWHAT R	ELIGIOUS	3	18	36.0	36.0	74.0
VERY RELIG	lous	4	13	25.0	26.0	100.0
		TOTAL	50	100.0	100.0	
MEAN	2.760	STD ERR	.139	MEDIAN	3.000	
MODE	3.000	STD DEV	.981	VARIANCE	.962	
KURTOSIS	880	S E KUR	.662	SKEWNESS	302	
S E SKEW	.337	RANGE	3.000	MINIMUM	1.000	
MAXIMUM	4.000	SUM	138.000			

AGE

MEAN	29.978	STD ERR	1.008	MEDIAN	29.750
MODE	26.600	STD DEV	7.125	VARIANCE	50.772
KURTOSIS	310	S E KURT	.662	SKEWNESS	.395
S E SKEW	.337	RANGE	29.500	MINIMUM	18.200
MAXIMUM	47.700	SUM	1498.900		

COUNSELING RECEIVED

	VAL	UE	FREQUEN	CY PE	CENT	VALU PERCE		CUM ROENT
NO		1	36		72.0	72.	0 7	72.0
YES		2	1 4	2	28.0	28.	0 10	0.0
	TOT	AL	50	10	00.0	100.	0	
MEAN	1.280	STD	ERR	.064	MEDI	AN	1.000	
MODE	1.000	STD	DEV	.454	VAR	ANCE	.206	
KURTOSIS	-1.021	S E	KURT	.662	SKE	INESS	1.011	
S E SKEW	.337	RAN	3E	1.000	MINI	MUM	1.000	
MAXIMUM	2.000	SUM		64.000	MINI	MUM	1.000	

COUNSELING NOW

		VALUE	FREQUENC	Y PER	CENT F	VAL I D PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
ИО		1	47	9	4.0	94.0	94.0
YES		2	3		6.0	6.0	100.0
		TOTAL	50	10	0.0	100.0	
MEAN	1.060	STD 8	RR	.034	MEDIAN	1.000	
MODE	1.000	מדט נ	DEV	.240	VAR1ANCE	.058	
KURTOSIS	13.124	SEF	KURT	.662	SKEWNESS	3.821	
S E SKEW	.337	RANGE	1	.000	MINIMUM	1.000	
MAX1MUM	2.000	SUM	53	.000			

RACIAL BACKGROUND IN COMMUNITY

		VALUE FF	REQUENCY	PERCENT	VAL I D PERCENT	CUM PERCENT
WHITE		1	5	10.0	10.0	10.0
MIXED		2	3	6.0	6.0	16.0
BLACK		3	42	84.0	84.0	100.0
		TOTAL	50	100.0	100.0	
MEAN	2.740	STD ERR	.08	9 MEDIAN	3.00	Ċ.
MODE	3.000	STD DEV	.63	ARIAN E	NCE .40	0
KURTOSIS	3.558	S E KURT	.66	2 SKEWNE	SS -2.25	0
S E SKEW	.337	RANGE	2.00	O MINIML	JM 1.00	0
MAX I MUM	3.000	SUM	137.00	O		

	RIABLE V24 RIABLE V5		FEST SCOR /BACGR/COMM					
			ANALYSIS	OF VARIANCE				•
•	SOURCE	. D.F.	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SOUARES	F RATI	F O PROB.		
BETWEEN (GROUPS	2	911.6771	455.8386	1.365	6 . 2652		
WITHIN G	ROUPS	47	15688.3429	333.7945	•			
TOTAL		49	16600.0200					
			•					
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	MUMINIM	MAXIMUM	95 PCT CONF	INT FOR MEAN
Grp 1	5	76.6000	20.1941	9.0311	48.0000	99.0000	51.5262 TO	101.6738
Grp 2 Grp 3	. 3 42	66.6667 62.4762	12.8582 18.2973	7.4237 2.8233	52.0000 28.0000	76.0000 92.0000	34.7248 TO 56.7743 TO	98.6086 68.1780
·	•							
TOTAL	50	64.1400	18.4059	2.6030	28.0000	99.0000	58.9091 TO	69.3709

VARIABLE V24 BY VARIABLE V9

SELFEST SCOR RAC/BACGR/STU/HIG

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

•								
	SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	F PROB.		
BETWEE	EN GROUPS	2	1009.9912	504.9956	1.5224	. 2287		
WITHIN	N GROUPS	47	15590.0288	331.7027				
TOTAL		49	16600.0200					
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	MINIMUM	MAX I MUM	95 PCT CONF INT	FOR MEAN
Grp 1	8	74.3750	16.6127	5.8735	48.0000	99.0000	60.4865 TO	88.2635
Grp 2	16	61.5000	22.0968	5.5242	28.0000	92.0000	49.7255 10	73.2745
Grp 3	. 26	62.6154	15.9175	3.1217		92.0000	56.1862 TO	69.0446
TOTAL	50	64.1400	18.4059	2.6030	28.0000	99.0000	58.9091 70	69.3709

VARIABLE V23 BY VARIABLE V5

	SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	F PRUB.		
BETWEEN	GROUP S	2	322.1486	161.0743	1.263	1 .2922		
WITHIN G	ROUPS	47	5993.3714	127.5185				
TOTAL		49	6315.5200					
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM	95 PCT CONF INT	FOR MEAN
Grp 1 Grp 2 Grp 3	5 3 42	35.8000 39.0000 43.7143	8.1056 12.0000 11.5215	3.6249 6.9282 1.7778	25.0000 27.0000 20.0000	45.0000 51.0000 66.0000	25.7358 TO 9.1900 TO 40.1239 TO	45.8642 68.8100 47.3046
TOTAL	50	42.6400	11,3529	1.6055	20.0000	66.0000	39.4135 TO	45.8665

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

TRA ANX SCOR RAC/BACGR/COMM

32	
Table	

	VARIABLE	v23	TRA ANX SCOR
ВΥ	VARIABLE	ν9	RAC/BACGR/STU/HIG

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	SOURCE	D.F.	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARES	F RATIO	F PROB.		
BETWEEN GROUPS		2	408.4815	204.2408	1.6251	. 2078		
WITHIN GROUPS		47	5907.0385	125.6817				•
TOTAL		49	6315.5200					
GROUP	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	MINIMUM 1	44XIMUM	95 PCT CONF INT	FOR MEAN
Grp 1 Grp 2 Grp 3	8 16 26	36.7500 45.5000 42.6923	7.5546 12.2909 11.3869	2.6709 3.0727 2.2332	25.0000	15.0000 66.0000 55.0000	30.4342 TO 38.9506 TO 38.0930 TO	43.0658 52.0494 47.2916
TOTAL	50	42.6400	11.3529	1.6055	20.0000	6.0000	39.4135 TO	45.8665

APPENDIX F - COVER LETTER AND CONSENT FORM FOR RESIDENTS



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY RELATIONS
AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT
COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74076-03,37 241 HOME ECONOMICS WEST (405) 624-5057

Dear Resident:

Your help is urgently needed. The Oklahoma State University Department of Family Relations and Child Development is conducting an important study on the SINENGIN OF BLACK FAMILIES.

You have been selected to participate in this very important study. All information collected from the many families participating in this study will be strictly confidential and no names are to be given, and no names shall appear on any information collected.

This vital information that you and many others throughout Northeast Oklahoma report will be solely used for research purposes and to SINEXCHIEN BLACK FAMILIES. Also we want to pay you a fee of \$10.00 for your interest and cooperation if you should decide to take part in this study. The interview and questions will take about an hour to complete.

Participation is voluntary and you can choose not to participate. However, if you would like to take part in this study, we encourage you to fill out the bottom portion of this letter and enclose it in the envelope provided for you and return your sealed envelope to the Senior Manager (Mrs. Glenda Love) or one of the other staff persons in the Central Office of the Apartment Couplex. Only personnel from Oklahom State University has access to your decision that will appear on the bottom portion of this letter.

If you should have any questions about this research, you may call the Department Head of Family Relations and Child Development at Oklaham State University at 405-624-6897 or Troy Daniels at 918-428-1476.

If you should indicate an interest to participate in this research, a staff member from Oklahoma State University will contact you to set up the best time possible for you to conduct an interview with you.

Sincerely, Justice Troy V. Daniels
Principal Investigator

Address:	Age: / / / YFAIR Race:
Please place a check mark to indicate your decision.	Marital Status:
I would like to participate in this re	esearch
I would not like to participate in this	s research



Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY RELATIONS AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078-0337 241 HOME ECONOMICS WEST (405) 624-5057

VOLUNTEER CONSENT FORM

As a participant in this research on the STRENGTH OF BLACK FAMILIES, I KNOWINGLY AND WILLFULLY volunteer to participate in this research. Further, I also understand that this research is strictly confidential and will only be used for research and educational purposes.

I further acknowledge that I will receive a \$10.00 (ten dollar) fee for my participation in this research upon completion of this interview.

Signature:	Date:	



APPENDIX G - LETTER OF

CORRESPONDENCE

North Central Church Of Christ

linister roy L. Daniels, M.Ed.

Office: 918 / 428 - 484.

Mrs. Glenda Love, Senior Manager c/o Vernon Manor Apartments 550 East 32nd Street North Tulsa, Oklahoma 74106

November 19, 1987

Re: Research Project

Dear Mrs. Glenda Love:

Permit me to express my gratitude to you for your invaluable time and effort regarding the research strategy which we discussed on November 12, 1987.

Issues involving Black women have long been an interest of mine. Hopefully, as a result of the expected cooperation from the Vernon Manor residents, important and useful information may be disseminated to other institutions and agencies that shall enable optimal living conditions for all disadvantaged citizens of North Tulsa.

I will be contacting you by phone within a few days to discuss other preliminary planning for residents to participate in this very timely project.

Sincerely,

Troy L. Daniels

APPENDIX H - BUDGET FOR PROJECT

An Estimated Budget For This Project

\$1000.00

Participatory Fee	\$500.00
Testing Material	30.00
Printing Cost	150.00
Postage	25.00
Computer Usage	200.00
Envelopes	20.00
Automobile Use	30.00
Telephone Use	15.00
Misc.	30.00

Total

APPENDIX I - ABBREVIATIONS FOR VARIABLE CODES

APPENDIX I - ABBREVIATIONS FOR VARIABLE CODES

THE ABOVE DATA LIST STATEMENT WILL READ 1 RECORDS FROM FILE INLINE .

VARIABLE	REC	START	END	FORMAT	WIDTH	DEC
VIA	1	1	4	F	4	0
V2	1	5	8	F	4	0
V3	1	9	9	F	1	0
V4	1	10	13	F	4	0
V5	1	14	14	F	1	0
V6	1	15	15	F	1	0
V7	1	16	16	F	1	0
V8	1	17	17	F	1	0
V9	1	18	18	F	1	0
V10	1	19	19	F	1	0
V11	1	20	20	F	1	0
V12	1	21	21	F	1	0
V13	1	22	23	F	2	0
V14	1	24	27	F	4	0
V 15	1	28	31	F	4	0
V16	1	31	35	F	5	0
V 17	1	36	36	F	1	0
V 18	1	37	37	F	1	0
V 19	1	38	38	F	1	0
V20	1	39	42	F	4	0
V21	1	43	44	F	2	0
V22	1	45	46	F	2	0
V23	1	47	48	F	2	0
V24	1	49	50	F	2	0

END OF DATALIST TABLE.

```
O 00000140 VARIABLE LABELS
                                VARIABLE LABELS
V1A 'ID NUMBER' V2 'AGE'
V3 'MAR STA' V4 'YRSED'
V5 'RAC/BACGR/COMM' V6 'RAC/BACGR/TE/ELEM'
V7 'RAC/BACGR/TE/HIG' V8 'RAC/BACGR/STIJ/FLEM'
V9 'RAC/BACGR/STIJ/HIG' V10 'MAIN SOURCE INCOME'
V11 'RELIGIOUS PREF' V12 'RELIGIOUSITY' V13 'NO CHILD'
V14 'TIM/LIV/APT' V15 'TIM/LIV/TUL' V16 'TIM/LIV/DK'
V17 'COUNSELING WILLING' V18 'COUNSELING RECIEVED'
V19 'COUNSELING NOW' V20 'COUNSELING LENGTH'
V21 'DEPRESS SCORE' V22 'STA ANX SCOR'
V23 'TRA ANX SCOR' V24 'SELFEST SCOR'
VALUE LABELS
 8 0 00000150
9 0 00000160
       0 00000170
11
       0 00000180
       0 00000190
12
        0 00000200
14
       0 00000210
        0 00000230
17
        0 00000240
        0 00000250
18
       20
21
22
23
25
       0 00000330
26
28
        O 00000350 LIST
```

THERE ARE 493360 BYTES OF MEMORY AVAILABLE.
THE LARGEST CONTIGUOUS AREA HAS 493360 BYTES.

960 BYTES OF MEMORY REQUIRED FOR LIST PROCEDURE. 168 BYTES HAVE ALREADY BEEN ACQUIRED. 792 BYTES REMAIN TO BE ACQUIRED. APPENDIX J - COMPOSITION TABLE OF VERNON MANOR RESIDENTS

COMPOSITION OF VERNON MANOR APARTMENT RESIDENTS

Type of Families	Number of Families	Percentages
Black Women Heads (age:18 - 54)	118	62.1
Black Elderly		
(age: 55 -older)	34	17.9
Black Married	25	13.2
Black Men Heads	8	4.2
Single Black Handicapped	3	1.6
White Women Heads	2	1.0
Total	190	100

APPENDIX K - APARTMENT NUMBERS OF VERNON MANOR RESIDENTS

LIST OF SUBJECTS' APARTMENT NUMBERS

VERNON MANOR APAI	RIMENTS		5054
	STREET NORTH		525A
TULSA, OK. 74106		585D	525B
MANACEDIS OFFICE	400 0500	587B	525C
MANAGER'S OFFICE	420-2009	587C	525D
	514C	587D	526B ·
542D	514D	501A	526C
545A	515A	501B	FOCD
545B	515B	501C	52GD
545C	515C	501D	527D
545D	0200	30 <u>m</u>	529B
	515D	502B	529C
546A	517A	502B	529D
546B	517B	502D	5800
546C	517D	3021	530B
546D	518A	503D	5301)
547A	51011	505A	533C
547B	518C		533D
		505C	534A
547C	518D	50 GA	5 3 4B
547D	519A	5/JGD	
551A	5198	50GD	534C
551C	519C	507A	535A
551D	519D	509A	535B
5 53 A		509D	535C
	521A	51 0A	535D
5 53 B	521B	5100	538A
55 3 C	521C	510B	
553D	522A	510C	538C
555B	5228	511A	538D
559C		513A	539C
577B	522C	513C	541A
577C	522D	5400	541B
	523A	513D	5/1C
577D	523B	514A	
5 79A	523C	514B	541D
6050	52311		5421

VITA $^{\gamma}$

TROY L. DANIELS

Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: PSYCHOLOGICAL STRENGTHS AMONG BLACK WOMEN WHO HEAD HOUSEHOLDS

Major Field: Home Economics

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Greer, South Carolina, January 29, 1951 to Garfield and Dora Daniels.

Education: Graduated from Linclon High School of Taylors, South Carolina, in May, 1968; received the Bachelor degree in Bible from Freed-Hardeman College in 1979; received the Master of Education degree in Community Counseling from Mississippi State University in 1981; post graduate work in Counseling and Allied Services at The University of Tulsa in 1983; completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree at Oklahoma State University in July, 1989.

Professional Experience: Minister for the church of Christ from 1979 to 1988; Psychiatric therapist for the Tulsa Psychiatric Center in Tulsa, Oklahoma and Star Community Mental Health from 1983 to 1986; research and teaching assistant, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University from 1986 to 1988; presently the chairman of the Home and Consumer Economics Department at Freed-Hardeman College, Henderson, Tennessee.