

THE EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED RACIAL DISCRIMINATION ON
INTERPARENTAL CONFLICT AND CHILD EMOTIONAL
ADJUSTMENT IN WHITE, HISPANIC, AND
BLACK FAMILIES

by

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to My Lord, Jesus Christ. Thank You for Your wisdom and knowledge that made this possible. May my life be used by You to help others, through the vehicle of Your love and through this profession in which I was destined to serve.

“The fear of the LORD is the beginning of wisdom: a good understanding have all they that do His commandments: His praise endureth forever”.- Psalm 111:10

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ABSTRACT

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This study examined the effects of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment in a sample of White, Hispanic, and Black adults. Through the utilization of data from the United Way of Metropolitan Tarrant County (UWMTC) Community Needs Survey, this secondary analysis was based on a comprehensive literature review and principles of stress and coping, social learning, and emotional security perspectives.

Exploratory factor analysis was used as a validation technique for the constructs of Interparental Conflict and Child Emotional Adjustment, which were criterion variables in the study. T-tests examined the differences between interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment in respondents perceiving racial discrimination compared to respondents who did not. Regression analyses were also conducted and revealed that the percentage of variance explained by Interparental Conflict and Child Emotional Adjustment was greater in respondents who perceived racial discrimination compared to respondents who

did not. Following the data analysis, a discussion of findings and implications for Social Work policy, practice, and research were presented.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Contemporary literature provides evidence that discrimination continues to persist in society (Roberts, Swanson, & Murphy, 2004; Peters, 2006; Clark, 2006; Pieterse & Carter 2007). While discrimination manifests in varying forms, racial discrimination is one of the most prevalent forms of discrimination in the United States (Kessler, Mickelson, & Williams, 1999). In the Americans' Changing Lives Survey, 47% of Blacks, 12% of White Americans (Polish, Italians, and Hispanics), and 7% of what the authors refer to as "other" Whites responded affirmatively to questions about racial discrimination (Jackson, Williams, & Torres, 1997). In addition, empirical evidence suggests that 60% of Black adults encounter discriminatory experiences during their lives (e.g., Kessler, Mickelson, & Williams, 1999; Williams, Yu, & Jackson, 1997; Landrine & Klonoff, 1996).

A survey examining inequalities found that in Black respondents, 25% reported experiencing discrimination in obtaining education, 25% reported discrimination in obtaining housing, 39% in obtaining employment, and 41% in obtaining equal wages (Krieger & Sidney, 1996). In a survey by the National League of Cities (2004), a primary barrier to obtaining the American Dream (defined as financial stability and security) identified by young adults age 18-29, was racial and ethnic discrimination.

Studies of those affected by racial discrimination have increased knowledge about the effects of discrimination on its victims (Kessler, Mickelson, & Williams, 1999; Klonoff, & Ullman, 1999; Moradi & Risco, 2006; Noh, Beiser, & Kaspar, 1999; Utsey, Ponterotto, & Reynolds, 2000). Effects of racial discrimination have been shown to result in detrimental consequences to an individual's psychological well-being (Krieger, 2000; Finch, Kolody, & Vega, 2000; Sellers & Shelton, 2003). Specific psychological effects of racial discrimination include depression, anxiety, substance abuse, (Gibbons,

Gerrard, Cleveland, Willis, & Brody, 2004), lower self-esteem, (Shorey, Cowan, & Sullivan, 2002), and lower life satisfaction (Broman, 1997). A report from the U. S. Surgeon General (2001) found that repeated exposure to stressful, racist experiences produced emotions such as anger, anxiety, and depression in recipients. In addition, the nature of discriminatory practices contributes to feelings of inadequacy in individuals (Broman, Mavaddat, & Hsu, 2000; Cassidy, O'Connor, Howe, C., & Warden, 2004; Fisher & Shaw, 1999; King, 2005).

A growing body of research also examines the negative impact of racial discrimination on physical health. Studies reveal that racial discrimination affects physical health by causing hypertension, elevated blood pressure, poorer self-reported health, increased cigarette smoking, and lower birth weight (Collins, David, Symons, Handler, Wall, & Dwyer, 2000; Landrine & Klonoff, 1996; Williams, Yu, Jackson, & Anderson, 1997).

Emotional consequences of racial discrimination also negatively affect the quality of interpersonal relationships (Murry, Brown, Brody, Cutrona, & Simons, 2001). Experiences with racial discrimination in Black families, in particular, have been found to be negatively associated with the use of constructive communication, but positively associated with the use of destructive forms of communication (e.g., verbal aggression, physical violence) (La Taillade, Baucom, & Jacobson, 2000). In a longitudinal study comparing intimate partner violence by race, the incidence and recurrence of intimate partner violence was higher for Blacks and Hispanics when compared to Whites (Caetano, Field, Ramisetty-Milker, & McGrath, 2005).

Interparental conflict has been shown to contribute to emotional, interpersonal, and academic difficulties in children (Emery, 1999; Dunn & Davies, 2001). Additional empirical evidence suggests that a child's emotional well-being is negatively impacted when exposed to frequent interparental conflict (Caughy, O'Campo, & Mutaner, 2004; Gibbons, Gerrard, Cleveland, Wills, & Brody, 2004; Murry, Brown, Brody, Cutrona, & Simons, 2001). Specific types of interparental conflict include physical aggression and verbal aggression. Children witnessing these types of conflict are more likely to

experience psychological difficulties (Bolger & Patterson, 2003; English, Marshall, and Stewart, 2003; Pelcovitz, Kaplan, DeRosa, Mandel, & Salzinger, 2000; Sternberg, Lamb, Greenbaum, Dawud, Cortes, & Lorey, 1993).

Links between interparental conflict and child psychological problems are unfortunately more prevalent in depressive or alcoholic families (Cummings & Davies, 2002; El-Sheikh & Flanagan, 2001). Stressors incurred from racial discrimination are not only difficult to manage in the immediate context, but also negatively impact individuals, families, (Feagin & Sikes, 1994) and remain an ongoing negative life experience (Moody-Ayers, Stewart, Covinsky, & Inouy, 2005).

1.1.1 Purpose and Objectives of Study

The relationship between racial discrimination and its stressors is an area in need of additional empirical investigation (U. S. Department of Health, Surgeon General's Report, 2001). The study of specific physical and mental health consequences of racial discrimination is a relatively new area of research (Clark, Anderson, Clark, & Williams, 1999). Jones (1997) stated that "social psychologists have spent most of their scientific careers focusing on perpetrators of prejudice, rather than on how the recipients of prejudice react to and cope with it" (p. 261).

This introduction has demonstrated that current research posits that racial discrimination negatively affects the physical and psychological health of those experiencing it. The purpose of this study is to 1) extend the literature on discrimination by examining the effects of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment, and 2) building on previous research, evaluate differences and similarities in outcomes of the perceptions of racial discrimination experienced by White, Hispanic, and Black subjects.

1.1.2 Relevance to Social Work

The emotional consequences of racial discrimination result in ineffective problem-solving which jeopardizes healthy family functioning (Caughy, Campo, & Mutaner, 2004; Gibbons, Gerard, Cleveland, Willis, and Brody 2004; Murry, Brown, Curtona, & Simmons, 2001). The profession of Social Work has

pioneered interventions effective in family preservation which makes studying the impact of racial discrimination on families relevant to the profession.

The profession of Social Work also advocates for the equal treatment of individuals regardless of race or ethnicity. The dissolution of discrimination and the strengthening of families are areas in which Social Work has made significant contributions. This study will address the social problems of racial discrimination and unhealthy family functioning by studying perceived racial discrimination, interparental conflict, and child emotional maladjustment. The ultimate intent of this study is to expand the knowledge base in the area of negative consequences of racial discrimination on individuals and families.

Clark et al., (1999) calls for research that investigates the relationship between perceived racism and negative outcomes. The expansion of research on the effects of racial discrimination in families is imperative to Social Work knowledge, as both discrimination and familial conflict are areas in which Social Work practitioners provide interventions. An expansion of research in this area may also benefit the advancement of evidence-based Social Work practice.

Though various aspects of discrimination have been studied, knowledge in this area continues to lack a concise, agreed upon definition. Because of this, many conceptualizations are developed by researchers in an attempt to describe this phenomenon. An overview of definitions of racial discrimination and other variables of interest to this inquiry are discussed in the following section.

1.1.3 Definitions of Racial Discrimination

A report by the National Research Council (2004) discussed problems with the lack of a singular definition for racial discrimination. The Council proposed an intermediate definition of racial discrimination: “(1) differential treatment on the basis of race that disadvantages a racial group and (2) treatment on the basis of inadequately justified factors other than race that disadvantages a racial group.” The first form of discrimination refers to a racial group receiving negative treatment because of their race. The second form of discrimination refers to individual being discriminated against based on

characteristics other than race (e. g., age, gender, etc.).

Clark et al., (1999) define discrimination as “beliefs, attitudes, institutional arrangements, and acts that tend to denigrate individuals or groups because of phenotypic characteristics or ethnic group affiliation,” (p. 805). Feagin & Eckberg (1980) define racial discrimination as “actions or practices carried out by members of dominant racial or ethnic groups that have a differential and negative impact on members of subordinate racial or ethnic groups” (p. 1–2). Along with their definition of discrimination, Feagin & Eckberg (1980) describe four forms of discrimination: a) isolate discrimination, b) small group discrimination, c) direct institutionalized discrimination, and d) indirect institutionalized discrimination.

Isolate discrimination is characterized by harmful actions intentionally done by a member of a dominant racial group against members of a racial minority group without the support of other members of the dominant group in the immediate social or community context. Small group discrimination consists of harmful actions intentionally done by a small number of dominant group members in concert against members of racial minority groups without the support of the norms and most other dominant group members in the immediate social or community context. Direct institutionalized discrimination is defined as intentional organizational or community prescribed actions that have a differential and negative impact on members of racial minority groups. Indirect institutionalized discrimination consists of practices performed by members of dominant groups that have a harmful impact on members of minority groups though the organizationally or community prescribed norms guiding those actions are established with no intent to harm members of minority groups (Feagin & Eckberg, 1980; 1991). Regardless of the definition, the conceptualizations of discrimination indicate that, in essence, discrimination involves the exclusion of certain individuals or groups from other persons or resources. In this study, perceived racial discrimination is defined as an individual’s perception of unfair treatment of members of their racial group believed to be rooted in racial prejudice and ethnocentrism, occurring at micro, mezzo, and macro societal levels (Jackson, Kendrick, & Kirby, 1998).

Unhealthy family dynamics in this study were measured through the variables of interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment. Interparental conflict was defined as daily stressors occurring between parents ranging from minor disagreements and arguments to severe arguments or physical violence (McCloskey, Figuerido & Koss, 1995). Difficulty in child emotional adjustment was defined in this study as a child's inability to engage in appropriate relationships at school, with family and friends, or in recreational activities without exhibiting internalizing (e.g. depression, withdrawal, anxiety, somatic complaints, low self-esteem) or externalizing (e.g. aggression, delinquency, substance abuse) behaviors (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1987; Buehler, Anthony, Krishnakumar, Stone, Gerard, & Pemberton, 1997, p. 233-234; Lorian, Cowen, & Caldwell, 1975; Trotter, 1989). To support the definitions provided, an overview of theories relevant to the formation of the research question and hypotheses for this study will be discussed.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

1.2.1 Stress and Coping Perspective

In viewing perceptions of discrimination as a source of stress, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) conceptualized coping behaviors into a transactional model. Their perspective views discrimination as a stressor and posits that perceived discrimination negatively affects the well-being of those experiencing it.

According to Lazarus (1966, 1984), psychosocial stressors are socially derived, socially conditioned, and socially situated psychological processes that evoke distress in individuals. The concept of coping in Lazarus and Folkman's model is the process by which an individual attempts to manage internal or external demands they assess as exceeding the emotional resources they have to cope with them. The two phases of coping as defined by Lazarus and Folkman are referred to as the Primary and Secondary Appraisal phases. Both of these phases are believed to influence the coping and adjustment processes of individuals experiencing stressful situations (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The initial phase of the coping process—the Primary Appraisal phase—occurs when a person

assesses a situation in one of the following ways: (a) as posing a threat, (b) as one that may result in harm or loss to the individual, (c) as judged to be irrelevant, benign, or positive, (d) or judged as presenting a challenge to the individual. After an individual assesses his stressful situation by one of the factors of the Primary Appraisal phase, he then proceeds to the Secondary Appraisal phase of the coping process. In the Secondary Appraisal phase, the person determines if he is equipped with the resources needed to cope with the situation in a manner that will result in a reduction of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

In an effort to make Lazarus and Folkman's stress and coping model applicable to the study of individuals' experiences with racial discrimination, Frieda Outlaw (1993) modified their conceptual framework to understand the coping mechanisms of individuals faced with racial discrimination. In contrast to Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) stress and coping model, Outlaw (1993) eliminated the 'judging a situation as irrelevant, benign, or positive' phase of Lazarus and Folkman's model of stress and coping. After eliminating this phase, she posited that all encounters with racial discrimination are either viewed as: a) being a threat, b) resulting in harm/loss to the person, or c) perceived as challenging by those experiencing the racial discrimination. The modifications of coping behaviors of individuals confronted with racial discrimination by Outlaw (1993) are as follows: (a) person-in-environment interactions (b) primary appraisal (if the situation will result in harm/loss, threat, or challenge) and (c) secondary appraisal.

After a person makes a threat appraisal, anticipatory coping is the next phase in Outlaw's (1993) modification of Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) stress and coping model. This appraisal occurs after the Primary Appraisal phase and is the process by which the person determines whether he possesses the resources to cope with the stressors being encountered (Outlaw, 1993). This modification is useful to this study as it will help to determine if unsuccessful management of perceived racial discrimination results in conflicts with one's spouse/partner and reports problems in their children's emotional adjustment. It has been suggested that discrimination is experienced as a stressful event that threatens one's self-image, thus leading to decreases in personal self-esteem (Cassidy, O'Connor, Howe, & Warden, 2004). In this study,

perceived discrimination was conceptualized as the stressor. The way in which parents responded to discrimination was conceptualized as their coping mechanism.

In addition to the modification of the Lazarus and Folkman (1984) model by Outlaw, (1993), Clark, Anderson, Clark, and Williams (1999) also conceptualized racism by developing a biopsychosocial model. In their model, actions perceived as discriminatory lead to psychological and physiological stress responses, and over time, to physical and mental health problems if attempts at coping are unsuccessful. Additionally, the model shows that a variety of factors such as skin tone, socioeconomic status (e.g., education, income), self-esteem, sense of control, and expression or suppression of anger can influence the extent to which actions by others are perceived as racist. In addition, the researchers comment that the model could benefit from being expanded to represent other ethnic groups.

1.2.2 Mundane Extreme Environmental Stress Theory

A perspective with philosophical foundations rooted in symbolic interactionism that examines how discrimination is perceived is the Mundane Extreme Environmental Stress Theory (M.E.E.S.) (Carroll, 1998; Peters & Massey, 1983; Pierce, 1975). The term Mundane Extreme Environmental Stress, originally developed by Chester Pierce (1975), is used to describe the stressors incurred by Blacks on a daily basis that are perceived as discriminatory. Pierce (1975) states that Blacks live in an environment where discrimination is constant and mundane as compared to infrequent catastrophes experienced by members of society (hurricanes, floods, etc.) (Peters and Massey, 1983, p. 195). Carroll (1998) posits that the phenomenon of perceived discrimination operates in the consciousness of Blacks on a daily basis through the vehicle of any of the following social contexts: interactions with employers, service providers, property owners, police, and the media.

Carroll (1998) also refers to these daily stressors experienced by Blacks as “micro-aggressions,” which can consist of being denied service, being falsely accused, or being negatively singled out on basis of ethnicity. The culmination of micro-aggressions experienced has detrimental consequences on the physiological and psychological well-being of an individual. The stressors explained by the M.E.E.S.

theory differ from stressors incurred as a result of sudden catastrophes (tornado, war, death of loved one, etc.) in that stressors from M.E.E.S. theory consist of continued, ongoing oppression where intermittent, unpredictable stressful events and demands for sudden change regularly occur (Carroll, 1998, p. 279).

Using the M.E.E.S. model, Murry, Brown, Brody, Cutrona, and Simons (2001) found that the psychological and emotional impact of perceived discrimination was more pronounced in relationships already feeling the strain of “stress-pileup” from a variety of other sources such as financial difficulties and health and job-related problems.

As this study seeks to examine the effects of perceived discrimination on familial relationships, it is imperative to include perspectives that examine how children cope with living in environments where they witness their parents’ frustration and disagreements, and the effects of this conflict on their emotional adjustment. Observational (Bandura, 1977, 1989) and social cognitive models (Crick & Dodge, 1994) are beneficial in accounting for the effects on children’s social behavior (Dodge, Bates, & Pettit, 1990), and provide the theoretical foundation for this study in the area of childhood emotional adjustment.

1.2.3 Social Learning Theory

In the Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1973; 1983), observational learning is viewed as being more influential in organizing a child’s behavioral responses than when a child is reprimanded. In the context of interparental conflict, the child develops methods of engaging in aggressive behavior by observing adults engaged in aggressive or hostile tactics (Davies, Harold, Goeke-Morey, Cummings, Shelton, & Rasi, 2002, p. 15). The child may exhibit greater hostility and aggression when exposed to aggressive conflict tactics between adults by imitating hostile behaviors that were displayed by the parents (Davies and Cummings, 1994; Margolin, Oliver, & Medina, 2001). Associations between interparental conflict and aggressive functioning in children have also been interpreted as providing evidence for social learning theory explanations of childhood emotional adjustment (Crockenberg & Langrock, 2001a; Emery & O’Leary, 1982).

1.2.4 Emotional Security Hypothesis

The Emotional Security Hypothesis, developed by Davies and Cummings, (1994) is a perspective that explains the manner in which a child's emotional security is compromised when exposed to interparental conflict. The authors postulate that a child's emotional security is placed at risk when one or more of the following indicators are present: 1) high levels of emotional reactivity or arousal-a disruption in a child's ability to regulate their emotions when exposed to frequent interparental conflict. Consequences of emotional reactivity or arousal result in children becoming easily distressed when faced with signs of conflict or other stressors. The implications for a child's functioning are determined by how much the child feels sadness, anger, and other emotional reactions, and how well the child can regulate the activation of such emotions. 2) Regulation of exposure to parent affect-children may behave in maladaptive ways to change the situation in the short term, regulate their negative affect, or both (e.g., by intervening in conflict, by withdrawing, or by conduct problems). Children from high conflict homes, therefore, are deemed more susceptible to developing insecure internal representations of family relations. 3) Negative internal representations of interparental relations-children's experiences with marital conflict may influence the development of their internal representations related to emotional security, such as representations of their parents' relationships and the predictability and controllability of their emotional environment, which can increase their susceptibility to emotional adjustment. Repeated exposure to interparental conflict increases emotional and behavioral reactivity in the face of stress and activates negative expectancies placing the child at risk for adjustment problems.

1.2.5 Summary

Theories of stress and coping reviewed provide explanations for the processes an individual takes when attempting to cope with stressors from discriminatory experiences. The social learning and emotional security perspectives reviewed explained how children observing adults' ability or inability to cope with stressors are affected. Together, these perspectives are beneficial in guiding this study as the purpose is to determine if stressors from racial discrimination are associated with interparental conflict

and emotional difficulties in children. Perceived racial discrimination has been shown to have negative impacts on individuals in a variety of ways and will be discussed in the following review of empirical literature.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Grounded in stress and coping, emotional security, and social learning perspectives, this review focuses on perceived racial discrimination, its effects on families, and the physical and psychological consequences of those experiencing it. Empirical literature examined includes studies that reference Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress and coping (Cassidy, et al. 2004; Landrine, et al. 2006; Romero & Roberts, 2003; Utsey et al. 2000). In terms of statistical procedures, studies included in this review utilized applications such as structural equation modeling (Buheler & Barber, 2003; Gibbons et al. 2004; Krishnakuman, Buehler, & Barber, 2003) and path analysis (Moradi & Risco, 2006; Phinney, Madden, & Santos, 1998). Regression analysis (Cassidy O'Connor, Howe, & Warden, 2004; Finch, Kolody, & Vega, 2000; Sellers & Shelton, 2003), multilevel modeling (Caughy, O' Campo, & Muntaner, 2004), and logistic regression (Alderete, Vega, Kolody, & Aguilar-Gaxiola, 1999) were statistical methods used by studies included in this review.

2.1.1 Method of Review

To ensure this inquiry builds on current knowledge in the area of effects of racial discrimination, this review includes articles published within the years of 1998 to 2008. A criterion for an article to be included in the review was that it had to be empirical in nature and reference the effects of racial discrimination.

Databases from the disciplines of Social Work, Psychology, Nursing, Public Health, and Sociology were consulted in constructing this review. In total, thirty-four articles were identified which met the criteria for inclusion in this review. Table 1 provides a brief summation of the articles reviewed in this inquiry.

Table 2.1 Comparison of Studies' Purpose, Method, Sample, and Size

Study	Purpose	Research Method	Sample Method	Sample Size
Klonoff, Landrine & Ullman (1999)	Examine the role of racial discrimination on psychological symptoms of Blacks.	Survey	Stratified Random Sampling	520
Cassidy, O'Connor, Howe, & Warden (2004)	Tested the relationship between perceived ethnic discrimination and psychological distress.	Survey, Interview	Stratified Sampling	154
Noh & Kaspar (2003)	To examine how coping behaviors moderate stress from perceived racial discrimination in Korean immigrants.	Survey	Purposive Sampling	180
Moradi & Risco (2006)	To examine the effects of perceived discrimination on the mental health of Latina/o individuals.	Survey	Purposive Sampling	128
Pieterse & Carter (2007)	Examined the relationship between general life stress, racism-related stress and psychological health.	Survey	Purposive Sampling	220
Martin, Tuch, & Roman (2003)	To examine the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and problem drinking.	National Survey	Random Sampling	2,368
Noh, Kaspar, & Wickrama (2007)	To examine the effects of racial discrimination on positive affect and depressive symptoms.	Survey, Interview	Purposive Sampling	180
Sellers, Copeland-Linder, Martin, & Lewis (2006)	To examine the effects of racial discrimination on the psychological functioning of Black adolescents.	Survey	Purposive Sampling	314
Roberts, Swanson, & Murphy (2004)	Examination of perceptions of racial discrimination among US workers.	National Survey	Random Sampling	1,728
Corrigan, Thompson, Lambert, Sangster, Noel, & Campbell (2003)	Examination of perceptions of racial discrimination in persons with several psychiatric disorders.	Questionnaire	Stratified Random Sampling	1,824
Phinney, Madden, & Santos (1998)	Examined the influence of psychological characteristics on perceived racial discrimination.	Survey	Purposive Sampling	164
Trivedi & Ayanian (2005)	Examination of the relationship between perceived racial discrimination in health care and use of preventative health services.	Telephone Survey	Random Sampling	54,968
Collins, David, Handler, Wall, & Andes (2004)	To examine the association between interpersonal racial discrimination and pregnancy outcomes.	Experimental	Purposive	104

Table 2.1 Continued

Study	Purpose	Research Method	Sample Method	Sample Size
Fang & Myers (2001)	To examine effects of racial stressors on cardiovascular responses.	Experimental	Purposive	62
Gee, Spencer, Chen, & Takeuchi (2007)	Examination of self-reported discrimination and health conditions in Asian Americans.	Survey-In depth interview	Random Sampling	2,095
Moody-Ayers, Stewart, Covinsky, & Inouye (2005)	Examination of frequency of perceived discrimination and coping responses in Black males with diabetes.	Survey	Purposive	42
Peters (2006)	To examine the effects of perceived racism and emotion focused coping on mental and physical health.	Survey, blood pressure readings	Convenience	162
Merritt, Bennett, Williams, Edwards, & Sellers (2006)	Evaluated the effect of perceived racism on cardiovascular reactivity.	Experimental	Purposive	73
Watson, Scarinci, Klesges, Slawson, & Beech (2002)	Examined the relationship between race, SES, and perceived racial/gender discrimination.	Survey	Purposive	460
Chen, Fryer, Phillips, Wilson, & Pathman (2005)	Examined the association between perceived racial discrimination in health care and racial preferences for physician.	Survey	Random	3,884
Karlsen & Nazroo (2002)	Examined the relationship between racism, social position, and health.	Survey	Random	5,196
Birzer & Ellis (2006)	Examined perceptions of discrimination based on race, gender, and sexual orientation.	Survey, Focus Groups	Random	1,624
Clark (2006)	Examination of the effects of perceived racism and vascular reactivity.	Quasi-Experimental, Survey	Purposive	110
Clark (2003)	Examination of effects of perceived racism and social support on blood pressure reactivity.	Quasi-Experimental, Survey	Purposive	64
Stuber, Galea, Ahern, Blaney, & Fuller (2003)	Examination of the association between experiences of discrimination and self-assessed mental and physical health.	Survey, Interview	Stratified Sampling	873
Mustillo, Krieger, Genderson, Sidney, McCreath, & Kiefe (2004)	Examination of the relationship between self-reported experiences of racial discrimination and preterm/low-birth weight deliveries.	Survey, Interview, Case Study	Stratified Random Sampling	352

Table 2.1 Continued

Guthrie, Young, Williams, Boyd, & Kinter (2002)	Examination of the relationship between perceptions of racial discrimination and smoking habits.	Survey	Purposive Sampling	105
Caughy, O'Campo, & Mutaner (2004)	Examine relationship between parental experiences of racism and their children's sociemotional development.	Survey, Case Study	Stratified Sampling	200
Caldwell, Kohn-Wood, Schmeelk-Cone, Chavous, & Zimmerman (2004)	Examine relationship between experiences with racial discrimination and violent behavior in Black youth.	Interviews, Survey	Stratified Sampling	325
Wakefield & Hudley (2005)	Examined situational influences on Black male adolescents' responses to racial discrimination.	Survey, Quasi-Experimental	Purposive Sampling	67
Gibbons, Gerrard, Cleveland, Brody, & Wills (2004)	Examination of relationship between perceived racial discrimination and substance use.	Focus Groups, Interview, Survey	Stratified Random Sampling	897
Nyborg & Curry (2003)	Examined relationship between perceived racism, behavior problems and internalizing symptoms in Black boys.	Survey	Purposive Sampling	84

2.1.2 Description of the Review Cohort

This review examines the purpose of each of the thirty-two studies, their theoretical foundations, and the methodologies used. The methodological section also includes the categories of research method, sample method, and sample size (Table 1.1). Following the methodological review, findings of the studies are presented and discussed.

2.1.3 Purpose of Studies

Studies included in this review examine the effects of perceived racial discrimination on its victims. Of the studies included in this review, the impact of racial discrimination on physical health was examined by researchers (Fang & Myers, 2001; Trivedi and Ayanian, 2005; Collins et al., 2005; Gee et al., 2007; Peters, 2006; Merritt et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2005; Karlsen & Nazroo, 2002; Clark, 2003; Moody-Ayers et. al 2005, and Clark, 2006. The relationship between low birth weight delivery and racial

discrimination has also been studied (Mustillo et al., 2002; Collins et al., 2004).

Researchers (Klonoff et al., 1999; Cassidy et al., 2004; Utsey et al., 2000; Stuber et al. 2003; King, 2005; Noh & Kaspar, 2003; Moradi & Risco, 2006; Pieterse & Carter, 2007; Noh et al., 2007; Sellers et al., 2006, and Corrigan et al., 2003) also examined the impact of racial discrimination on mental health. Studies on the relationship between racial discrimination and substance use were also included in the review (Martin et al., 2003; Guthrie et al., 2002). In addition, studies examining the effects of racial discrimination on children and adolescents were included (Sellers et al., 2006; Nyborg & Curry, 2003; Wakefield & Hudley, 2005; Caldwell et al., 2004; Guthrie et al., 2002).

In terms of racial composition, the majority of studies consisted of samples of Blacks (Caldwell et al., 2004; Wakefield & Hudley, 2005; King, 2005; Utsey et al., 2000; Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Klonoff et al., 1999; Pieterse & Carter, 2007; Martin et al., 2003; Sellers et al., 2006; Mattis et al., 2004; LaVeist, 2003; Merritt, et al., 2006; Clark, 2003, 2006; Peters, 2006; Moody-Ayers, 2005; Caldwell, 2004; Guthrie et al., 2002 and Caughy et al., 2004). Other minority groups in the articles included samples of Hispanic Americans (Moradi & Risco, 2006), Asian Americans (Gee et al., 2007), and Arab Americans (Moradi & Hasan, 2004). Minority groups from abroad in the articles were Asians in Britain, Scotland, and Canada (Karslen & Nazroo, 2002; Cassidy et al., 2004; Noh & Kaspar, 2003; Noh et al., 2007), Indians in Britain (Karslen & Nazroo, 2002), and Pakistanis in Britain (Karslen & Nazroo, 2002). Studies selected for inclusion in the literature review had sample sizes ranging from $n=62$ (Fang & Myers, 2001) to $n=54,968$ (Trivedi & Ayanian, 2005). The age of participants ranged from birth (Mustillo et al., 2002; Collins et al., 2004), to over age 80 (Klonoff et al., 1999; Moody-Ayers et al., 2005; Peters, 2006; Pieterse & Carter, 2007).

2.1.4 Theoretical Foundations of Studies in Literature Review

Several articles included in this literature review used theories of stress and coping (Moradi & Hasan, 2004; Utsey et al., 2000; Sellers and Shelton, 2003; Roberts et al., 2004; Noh & Kaspar, 2003; Pieterse and Carter, 2007; King, 2005; Cassidy et al., 2004; Nyborg & Curry, 2003). Articles were also

found that used the normative theory (Birzer & Ellis, 2006), attribution theory (Noh et al. 2007) and social identity theory (Moradi & Risco, 2006) to ground their studies.

Racial identity theory (Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Sellers et al., 2006; Wakefield & Hudley, 2005; Caldwell et al., 2004), and the main effect and stress buffering models (Clark, 2003; Clark, 2006) were used. Authors in the literature review also used theories of social support (Clark, 2003) and racial socialization (Caughy et al., 2004).

2.1.5 Methodological and Definitional Discussion

Several studies used standardized measures to assess racial discrimination in their samples. Standardized measures assessing racial discrimination used by articles include the following: The Daily Life Experience of Racism Scale (Harrell, 1997); The Schedule of Racist Events Scale (SRE) (Landrine & Klonoff, 1996b); the Perceived Racism Scale (McNeilly, Anderson, Robinson, McManus, Armstead, & Clark et al., 1996), the Perceived Racism Scale for Latina/os (Collardo-Proctor, 1999); the Perceived Racism-Child Scale (Nyborg, 2000); the Index of Race-Related Stress (Utsey & Ponterotto, 1996);

Many studies used unstandardized measures or modifications of existing measures to examine racial discrimination (Birzer & Ellis, 2006; King, 2005; Moradi & Hasan, 2004; Wakefield & Hudley, 2005), and some studies used questions referring to racial discrimination listed on national, state, or city surveys (Klonoff et al., 1999; Roberts et al., 2004; Noh & Kaspar, 2003; Noh et al., 2007; Caughy et al., 2004; Guthrie et al., 2002; Caldwell et al., 2004).

2.1.6 Research Design

The majority of the studies in this review used cross sectional research designs, though there were some that were able to conduct longitudinal studies (Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Mustillo et al., 2004; Caldwell et al., 2004). Survey research was used by the majority of studies, but interestingly, some were experimental and quasi-experimental in design (Clark, 2003; Clark, 2006; Merritt, 2006; Fang & Myers, 2001; Collins et al., 2004; King, 2005; Wakefield & Hudley, 2005).

2.1.7 Sampling

Of the thirty-seven articles included in this review, sixteen studies used probability sampling methods (Karslen & Nazroo, 2002; Chen et al., 2005; Birzer & Ellis, 2006; Gee et al., 2007; Trivedi & Ayanian (2005); Roberts et al., 2004; Martin et al., 2003; King, 2005; Gibbons et al., 2004; Caldwell et al., 2004; Caughy et al., 2004; Mustillo et al., 2004; Stuber et al., 2003; Corrigan et al., 2003; Cassidy et al., 2005; Klonoff et al., 1999), and twenty one used non-probability sampling methods. Non-probability sampling methods used included purposive sampling (Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Utsey et al., 2000; Noh & Kaspar, 2003; Noh et al., 2007; Moradi & Risco, 2006; Pieterse & Carter, 2007; Sellers et al., 2006; Collins et al., 2004; Fang & Myers, 2001; Moody-Ayers et al., 2005; Merritt et al., 2006; Watson, et al., 2002; Clark 2003; Clark, 2006; Guthrie, et al., 2002; Wakefield & Hudley, 2005; Nyborg & Curry, 2003; Sellers et al., 2006). Another non-probability sampling method used by an article in this study was convenience sampling (Peters, 2006).

Because of generalizeability, probability sampling is typically viewed as having greater reliability than non-probability sampling methods (Rubin & Babbie, 2001). Probability sampling also has greater generalizeability to the entire population than non-probability sampling methods. While not as reliable or generalizable as probability sampling, non-probability sampling is useful in studying phenomenon where little or no previous research exists.

2.1.8 Data Collection

Surveys were the primary mechanism used by most articles to collect data. Some studies used a combination of surveys and interviews (Cassidy et al., 2004; Caldwell, et al., 2004; Noh et al., 2007; Gee et al., 2007; Stuber et al., 2003; Mustillo, et al., 2004). Some studies also used focus groups in their data collection (Gibbons et al., 2004; Birzer & Ellis, 2006).

Articles in this review (Guthrie et al., 2002; Caughy, et al., 2004) also used the case study method of data collection. In some studies, data were collected on the relationship between discrimination and physical health by the use of medical devices, such as in obtaining blood pressure

readings (Peters, 2006; Clark, 2003; Merritt et al., 2006; Peters, 2006; Fang (Rubin & Babbie, 2001). Myers, 2001; Clark, 2006).

2.2 Review of the Findings

For this literature review, three primary effects of perceived racial discrimination were found in empirical studies, and are categorized as: 1) effects of perceived racial discrimination on physical health, 2) effects of perceived racial discrimination on psychological health, and 3) effects of perceived racial discrimination on family functioning.

2.2.1 Physical Effects of Perceived Racial Discrimination

Contemporary studies of racial discrimination examine its effects on the physical and psychological health of its recipients (Krieger, 1996; 2000). Studies have shown that associations exist between racial discrimination and physical health problems such as hypertension, diabetes, and low infant birth weight (Trivedi & Ayanian 2005; Collins, et al, 2004; Fang & Myers , 2001; Moody-Ayers, et al., 2005; Merritt, et al., 2006; Clark 2003, 2006; Stuber, et al, 2003; Mustillo, et al, 2004). Research on racial discrimination has been argued to have greater negative impact on the health of Blacks in the areas of diabetes, cardiovascular heart disease, hypertension and stroke than in other racial or ethnic groups in the United States (Mays, Cochran, & Barnes, 2007).

The relationship between racial discrimination and cardiovascular disease is addressed in a significant number of studies (Clark, 2003; Clark, 2006; Fang & Myers, 2001; Peters, 2006; Merritt et al., 2006). Specifically, associations have been found between discrimination and increased rates of hypertension, poorer self-reported health, and more days spent unwell in bed. (Krieger, 2000). In addition, individuals who responded passively or internalized their experiences of racial discrimination experienced greater risks of elevated blood pressure than those who responded to the discrimination by talking to confidants or taking direct action (Krieger, 1990; Williams, 1994; Krieger, 2000).

Perceptions of racial discrimination have also been found to influence the utilization of health services, as evidenced in a recent study (Trivedi & Ayanian, 2006). Results of the study by Trivedi and

Ayanian (2006) revealed that racial minorities, women, persons of lower socioeconomic status, with poorer health, uninsured individuals, and Medicaid enrollees were more likely to report discrimination when attempting to utilize health care.

In addition to the effects of discrimination on a person's cardiovascular health, research also demonstrates that discrimination can negatively affect reproductive health. Collins et al., (2004) examined exposure to racial discrimination in a case-control study of Black women who delivered low birth-weight, preterm infants and controls who delivered normal birth weight infants. Results of the study indicated that lifetime exposure to racial discrimination was associated with low birth weight. Further studies of discrimination on reproductive health include an inquiry by Mustillo et al., (2004) who examined racial discrimination in a sample of Black and White women (n=352) who had recently given birth. Results of their study found that women who experienced lifetime discrimination were five times more likely to deliver low birth weight infants than those who had not experienced discrimination.

This emerging area of research posits that women, particularly minorities, who have stressors from racial discrimination face more complications during childbirth. Collins et. al (2004) concluded that "lifelong accumulated experiences of racial discrimination in Black women constitute an independent risk factor for preterm delivery" (p. 2132).

It is apparent, based on current knowledge of health consequences of racial discrimination, that the effects of discrimination are not only damaging to the psyche, but also manifest in poor physical outcomes. Implications from these findings are important in addressing issues to promote health and longevity in adults, and to ensure risk-free deliveries for those yet to be born.

2.2.2 Psychological Effects of Perceived Racial Discrimination

In addition to the physical effects of racial discrimination, empirical evidence suggests that experiences of discrimination are a major source of psychological stress for individuals (Clark et al., 1999; Klonoff & Landrine; Cassidy et al., 2004; Williams et al., 2000). Specifically, perceived racial discrimination has been found to be associated with depressive symptoms (Noh & Kaspar, 2003) and

problem drinking (Martin, Tuch, & Roman, 2003), particularly in minorities. In addition, emotional consequences of racial discrimination include lower self-esteem, lower life satisfaction (Broman, 1997), and lower levels of subjective well-being (Williams, et al., 1997). Experiencing racial discrimination has also been associated with somatization, obsessive-compulsive disorder, depression, and anxiety disorders (Klonoff, et al., 1999).

In a study of discrimination and life satisfaction, individuals reporting racial discrimination had lower scores on a life satisfaction measure (Broman, 1997). Emotional consequences of racial discrimination can also affect individuals in the workplace. Bhui et al., (2005) examined the effects of racial discrimination on the mental health of employees and found that racial minorities reported higher rates of perceived racial discrimination and were at higher risk to develop mental disorders.

Stuber et al., (2003) conducted a study on the association between perceived racial discrimination and self-reported mental and physical health in a sample of Black and Latino adults. Results of their study revealed an association between experiences of discrimination and poor mental health but no association between discrimination and physical health.

As it appears that many are unable to cope with perceived racial discrimination effectively, research using stress and coping theories to counteract stressors of discrimination have been conducted (Outlaw, 1993; Peters & Massey, 1983; Clark et al., 1999). For example, Lewis-Coles et al. (2006) explored the degree to which racism-related stress predicted the use of coping strategies in a sample of Black adults. Results of their study indicated that Black women were better able to cope with racial discrimination than their Black male counterparts. In addition, Cassidy et al., (2004) tested Lazarus and Folkman's stress and coping theory and the self-esteem theory of depression in a sample of Chinese, Indian, and Pakistani respondents. Results of their study revealed that the stress and coping method as posited by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) mediated the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and psychological distress.

The majority of research on perceptions of racial discrimination has been conducted using

samples primarily consisting of Black respondents. Studies are emerging, however, on the impact of other groups' experiences with racial discrimination (Noh & Kaspar, 2003; Finch, et. al, 2000). Examples include the study by Moradi and Risco (2006) on the effects of perceived discrimination on the psychological well-being of Hispanic individuals. Results of their study revealed that racial discrimination was related to greater psychological distress and lower self-esteem. Additionally, studies of the effects of racial discrimination in Hispanic persons reveal that discrimination-related stressors are associated with depression (Alderete et al., 1999; Finch et al., 2000).

As perceptions of racial discrimination are not limited to any particular ethnic group, studies are emerging on the experiences of racial discrimination in ethnicities other than African Americans. One example is a study by Phinney et al., (1998). This study examined a variety of environmental predictors of racial discrimination in Armenian, Mexican American, and Vietnamese adolescents. Results of their study revealed that intergroup competence and depression were associated with perceptions of racial discrimination in these groups.

Another example of stress and coping discrimination research with diverse ethnicities is a study by Sanders-Thompson (2006). In the study, the relationship between contextual factors, coping, and responses to discrimination was examined in a sample of White, Hispanic, Asian, and Black respondents. Results of the analysis revealed that members of different racial groups utilize varying coping mechanisms to handle stressors incurred from discriminatory experiences such as logical analysis and cognitive avoidance. The author also infers that because of the differences of coping based on ethnicity, the report of emotional symptoms may also vary.

Results of these studies reveal that other ethnic groups experience psychological effects from racial discrimination similar to those experienced by Black respondents. Additional research using comparisons in minority groups' coping mechanisms for dealing with racial discrimination would also be of benefit to discrimination research.

2.2.3 Effects of Perceived Racial Discrimination on Family Functioning

The manner in which individuals are able to manage stress from experiences of racial discrimination can affect the emotional well-being of children. It has been demonstrated that one way adults cope with stress from racial discrimination unfortunately involves substance abuse (Gibbons et al., 2004). Likewise, as adults use unhealthy coping mechanisms, their behavior can also influence the behavior of their children, as evidenced in a study by Gibbons et al., (2004). In the study, the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and substance abuse was examined in a sample of Black parents and their children. Results indicated an association between racial discrimination and substance abuse that is mediated by some psychological disorders. Effective parenting strategies were found, however, to serve as a buffer to children abusing substances. These kinds of studies reiterate the importance of expanding research to help parents cope with these stressors without negatively affecting their children's development.

Additionally, stress from experiences of racial discrimination also impact intimate relationships as evidenced by Murry et al., (2001), who studied the effects of racial discrimination on psychological, intimate partnership, and child-parent-relationship quality of adults. Results of their inquiry revealed that parents reporting stress from racial discrimination also reported an amplification of other stressors in their relationships with their children and with their intimate partners (p. 923). This research further demonstrates that an inability to cope with stress from racial discrimination is not only damaging to parents, but also to children.

2.2.4 Strengths and Limitations of Literature Review

Literature reviewed demonstrates that racial discrimination continues to persist in society and is detrimental to the healthy functioning of individuals and families. One limitation of the literature reviewed is that discrimination research tends to primarily focus on one ethnic group, particularly Black respondents. While more research studying the effects of racial discrimination in diverse ethnicities (Noh & Kaspar (2003; Finch, et. al, 2000; Alderete et al., 1999) is developing, research is still limited in this

area.

Many studies on racial discrimination examine it from its end result: negative physical and emotional outcomes. Increased attention is needed to address the specific processes of stress from racial discrimination that result in negative outcomes. While stress and coping theories have helped to describe the processes of discrimination, additional empirical evidence is needed to support those theories. As stated by King (2005): “Most of the research examining the associations between discrimination and health outcomes is correlational and does not provide explanations of the process by which members of disadvantaged groups perceive and respond to discrimination and how this influences mental and physical health” (p. 203).

Research on children’s perceptions of racial discrimination has flourished in recent years (Nyborg & Curry, 2003; Sellers et al., 2006; Caughy et al., 2004), but research on the specific effects of discrimination on parent-child relationships is in need of expansion. Another limitation in the review is that many studies used small sample sizes and convenient sampling, which limits the generalizability of findings. The intent of this study, consisting of a random sample of Tarrant County, Texas residents, is to produce results that are at least generalizable to residents in Tarrant County, Texas.

2.2.5 Summary

Research reviewed on the effects of racial discrimination primarily involves examining its effects from an individual’s perspective. Recent literature demonstrates that the effects of perceived racial discrimination are not only internalized as stress, but manifest in detrimental physical, mental, and interpersonal outcomes to a person and family (Gibbons et al., 2004; Murry et al., 2001).

When faced with a situation perceived as discriminatory, an individual may use coping mechanisms to diffuse the internal stress. If the person, however, is unable to effectively cope with the discriminatory experience, the stress becomes internalized and contributes to discord or unbalance in other areas of his life. Though this study examines the effects of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment, supporting research on the specific relationship

between stress from racial discrimination and its negative impact on family functioning is sparse. Therefore, many of the studies reported examined discrimination's negative effects from an individual's perspective and not its effects on the entire family system.

Due to the aforementioned discussion, this study seeks to expound on the currently available research on the effects of discrimination, while addressing the current gaps in the literature to gain a deeper understanding of racial discrimination and family functioning in general. The overarching research question of this study was: "Does perceived racial discrimination have a negative impact on the relationship between interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment in White, Hispanic and Black families?"

Using the theories and literature as a guide, a model was developed as a visual depiction of the effects of discrimination on family functioning of White, Hispanic, and Black individuals:

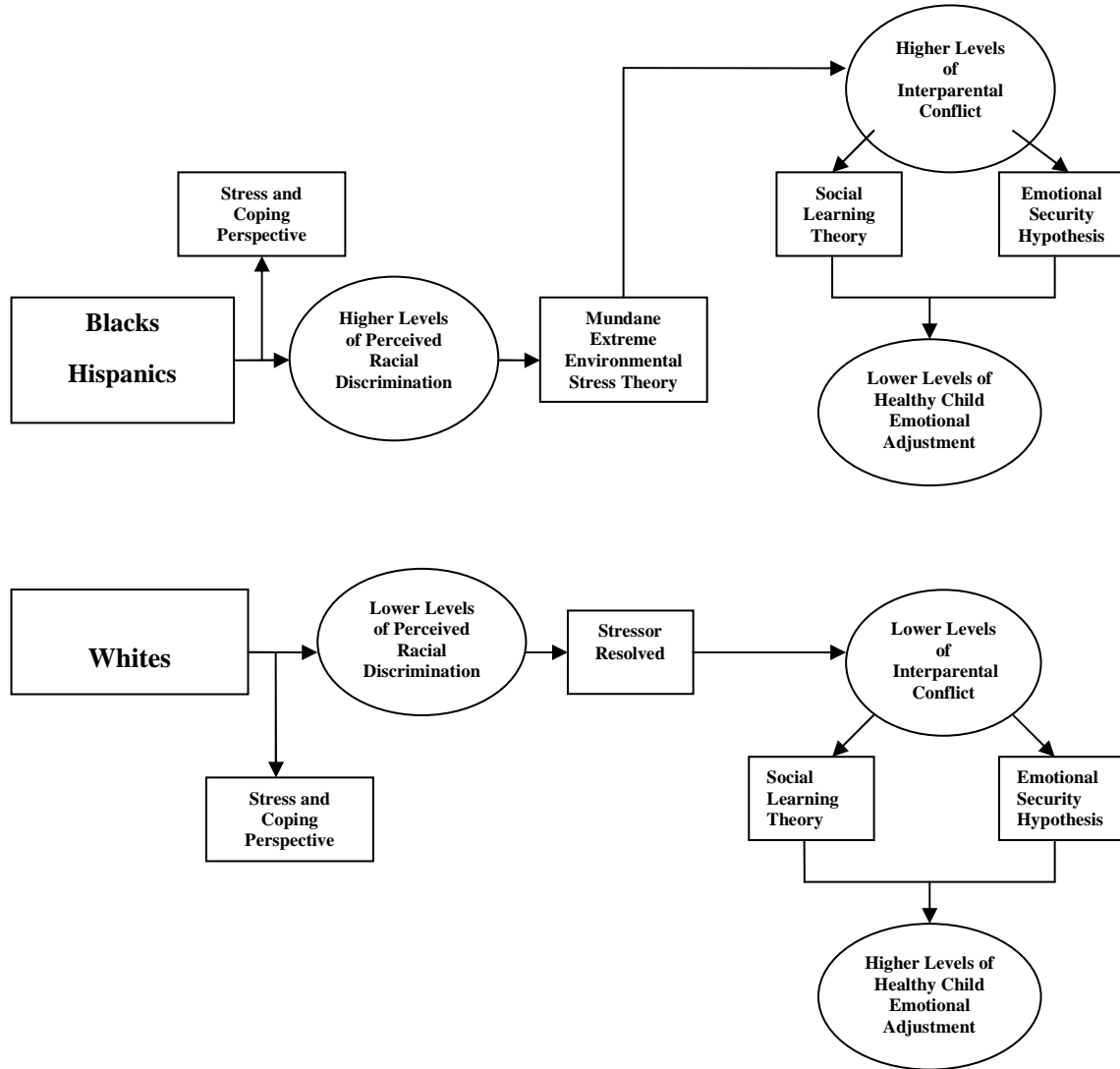


Figure 2.1 Hypothesized Model

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment in White, Hispanic, and Black families. This chapter describes the methods used for conducting this secondary data analysis using the United Way of Metropolitan Tarrant County (UWMTC) 2005 Household Survey dataset. In addition, this section provides a detailed description of the population of interest, sample participants, and materials used by UWMTC to collect the data. The chapter concludes with a description of the plan for analysis of the data. Secondary data analysis is beneficial for the objectives of this study and is the method of choice over primary data collection for the following reasons: the data collected by United Way adequately represents the demographics of Tarrant County residents and because the sample is expansive and would not only present financial challenges to obtain, but would also be time consuming. In addition, the UWMTC dataset contains questions that focus on the variables of interest to this inquiry.

3.1.1 United Way of Metropolitan Tarrant County Community Needs Assessment

Versions 1 and 2 of the UWMTC surveys were designed by the ETC Institute, a research firm that assists non-profit agencies with data collection and analysis, to determine the needs identified as areas of concern for Tarrant County residents. The UWMTC Assessments involved both primary and secondary research procedures. The primary research procedures involved the design and administration of surveys to residents and community leaders of Tarrant County, Texas. The secondary research procedures involved the collection of data from over 300 primary data points across 64 subject areas. To address the research question and hypotheses of this study, primary research from the data actually collected from residents of Tarrant County by the ETC Institute were used by this researcher.

3.1.2 Design, Instrumentation, and Data Collection Procedures

The UWMTC surveys Version 1 and 2, developed by the ETC Institute were cross-sectional and administered to a stratified random sample of 4,710 Tarrant County residents during the months of April and May 2005. The format of both surveys involved the administration of a core set of questions, with additional questions that were unique to each version. Questions 1-14, and questions in the Demographics section of both surveys were the same. Questions which differed on the surveys were as follows: Version 1, Q15-Q40, consisted of inquiries relating to housing/basic needs, family/individual problems, health and health care, and Version 2, Q15-Q30, consisted of questions relating to employment/job skills, dental care, family conflict, caregiving, older adults, parenting, youth problems and child care.

For this study, Version 2 of the UWMTC survey was used because it contained items of relevance in addressing the research question and hypotheses of this study. Version 2 of the survey consisted of 48 items, with question styles varying from Likert-style format, contingency format, open-ended question format, and matrix format.

During the original data collection, the sample of the UWMTC surveys were stratified by ETC to ensure the completion of at least 266 surveys in each of the 16 planning areas designated by the UWMTC. The survey was then administered by mail and phone and took approximately 20 minutes to complete. The original results of the survey were weighted based on the population of each of the 16 planning areas. The overall results of the household survey have a precision of at least +/-1.5% at the 95% level of confidence (UWMTC, 2005).

3.1.3 Statistical Power

To ensure that measures were taken to decrease the probability of making a Type I error, statistical power analyses was conducted on the dataset, as sufficient sample size is needed to minimize the risk of incorrectly rejecting or accepting a null hypothesis (Vogt, 1999; Rubin & Babbie, 2001, 2001). The statistical power of a study is influenced by the size of the effect, the sample size, the probability

level chosen, and the homogeneity of the sample (Cohen, 1992). Increasing the sample size is the most common way to increase the statistical power of a study, but is often limited by resources of time and money. Secondary analyses of the UWMTC dataset were beneficial in this regard as the sample size was adequate and did not result in financial or time constraints. By convention, in social science research, the level of significance, or alpha is set at .05, which means that the null hypothesis has a 5% probability of being true.

An element that corresponds with power analysis is the alpha level. The alpha for this study has been set at .05, (Rubin & Babbie, 2001). The probability of committing a Type II (or beta) error is obtained after the probability of committing Type I (or alpha) was also established. Referred to as the statistical power of a test, it represents the chance of detecting statistically significant difference in the sample. A common level of beta used in the social sciences is 0.20. For this study, the level of power has been set at .80 (1.0 – Beta, or .20), which means that there is an 80% chance of detecting the hypothesized difference in the sample (Vogt, 1999; Rubin & Babbie, 2001).

3.1.4 Human Subjects

The Human Subjects Review Board of The University of Texas at Arlington granted approval and clearance to conduct this dissertation. As an assurance of the anonymity of participants, all identifying information (names, addresses, telephone numbers) were excluded prior to the United Way giving the data to this researcher in CD-ROM format.

3.1.5 Variables

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment in White, Hispanic, and Black families. Variables under examination in this study include Demographic Characteristics, Perceived Racial Discrimination, Interparental Conflict, and Child Emotional Adjustment. The use of these variables were influenced by the literature review as well as stress and coping, social learning, and emotional security hypotheses. The following section explains how the criterion and predictor variables were operationalized in this study.

3.2 Predictor Variables

3.2.1 Race

The race of the respondents was used as both a predictor and control variable in this study. In the survey, subjects were given the choice to respond to the category which best described their ethnicity: 1.00 – ‘Asian/Pacific Islander;’ 2.00 – ‘White;’ 3.00 – ‘American Indian/Eskimo;’ 4.00 – ‘Black/Black;’ or 5.00 – ‘Other Race/Ethnicity.’

If respondents selected the ‘Other Race/Ethnicity’ category, they were then asked to write in their specific racial/ethnic group, which was recorded in the dataset as a string variable. In order to select Hispanic respondents out of the string variable responses, persons identifying Latin or Hispanic descent were selected out and recoded into a numeric variable. After the recoding of Hispanic responses from a string to numeric variable, respondents with racial identities of White, Black, were also selected out and the three groups recoded as 1.00 – Whites, 2.00 – Blacks, and 3.00 – Hispanics. All other racial/ethnic groups were eliminated.

When race is used in the regression analyses, because it was categorical, the Race variable was dummy coded. The Race variable was also recoded to address the hypotheses, which posited that minorities would report more racial discrimination than White respondents. The following explains how the Race variable was dummy coded for this study: .00 – ‘White’, and 1.00 – ‘Non-White’.

3.2.2 Income

Respondents’ income was also used as both a predictor and control variable in this study. Income was operationalized on the UWMTC survey by subjects being given the choice to choose one of seven income categories, coded on the original survey as follows: 1.00 – ‘Under \$10,000,’ 2.00 – ‘\$10,000-\$19,999,’ 3.00 – ‘\$20,000-\$29,999,’ 4.00 – ‘\$30,000-\$39,999,’ 5.00 – ‘\$40,000-\$49,999,’ 6.00 – ‘\$50,000-\$74,999,’ and 7.00 – ‘Over \$75,000.’

In the univariate and bivariate analyses of this study, income was left as originally coded on the survey, which was as an ordinal level variable. When income was treated as a predictor variable in

regression analyses in Chapter 4, the midpoint values of each level of income were taken and the variable treated as an interval/ratio level variable.

3.2.3 Employment

Respondents' employment status was used as a predictor, criterion, and control variables in this study. On the original survey, status of employment was coded as follows: 1.00 – 'Full-Time Employment,' 2.00 – 'Part-Time Employment,' 3.00 – 'Unemployed/Seeking Work,' 4.00 – 'Retired,' 5.00 – 'Student,' 6.00 – 'Homemaker,' and 7.00 – 'Disabled/Ill.' The original coding format of this variable was used in the univariate and bivariate analyses. When the variable was used in the regression analysis as a control variable, employment status was recoded into the following dummy variable: .00 – 'Unemployed,' and 1.00 – 'Employed.'

3.2.4 Education

The level of education of the respondents was treated as a criterion variable in the univariate and bivariate analyses, and was treated as a predictor variable in the multivariate analysis of this study. Respondents' level of education was coded on the original survey as follows: 1.00 – 'Less than High School,' 2.00 – 'High school/GED,' 3.00 – 'Some Technical School,' 4.00 – 'Technical School Certification,' and 5.00 – 'College Graduate or More.' When used in the regression analyses of this study, due to the samples' higher levels of education, education was recoded into the following dummy variable: .00 = 'No College,' and 1.00 = 'College'.

3.2.5 Marital Status

Respondents' marital status was treated as a criterion variable in the bivariate analyses of this study. On the original UWMTTC survey, the marital status of respondents was coded as follows: 1.00 – 'Married,' 2.00 – 'Separated,' 3.00 – 'Widowed,' 4.00 – 'Living with Partner,' 5.00 – 'Divorced,' and 6.00 'Never Married.'

3.3 Criterion Variables

3.3.1 Perceived Racial Discrimination

Perceived Racial Discrimination was used as a criterion variable in this study, and was operationalized by Question 8 on the UWMTC survey. In Question 8, subjects who responded affirmatively to experiencing discrimination in Question 7 were asked to choose one of 14 areas (race, age, physical disability, etc) that they felt was the primary reason for the discrimination experienced. Subjects who selected race as the primary reason for discrimination in Question 8 was used to operationalize the Perceived Racial Discrimination variable. In addition, the Perceived Racial Discrimination variable was recoded to be dichotomous for this study in the following manner: 1.00 – ‘Racial Discrimination’ and .00 ‘No Racial Discrimination’.

3.3.2 Interparental Conflict

For this study, a measure of interparental conflict was created from the UWMTC dataset to operationalize the dependent variable. On the UWMTC survey, respondents were asked a series of four questions about verbal and physical conflict in their homes (items 19a through 19d). Reliability analysis of these items produced a coefficient alpha of 0.786. Items 19a, 19b, 19c, and 19d each represented a different area of interparental conflict and were operationalized by the following four items: 1) Do disagreements with spouse/partner cause major, minor, or no problems in your relationship? (coded as Major Problem, Minor Problem, or No Problem); 2) During the past year, when you and your partner disagreed over something, was someone ever physically threatened? (coded as Yes, No, or Don't Know); 3) During the past year, when you and your partner disagreed over something, was someone ever pushed, grabbed, or shoved? (coded as 1=Yes, 2=No, or 9=Don't Know); and 4) In the past year, has anyone in your family missed work or school because of family violence? (coded as 1=Yes, 2= No, or 9=Don't Know).

For the purpose of this study, Question 1 of the items was recoded to 1=No Problem, 2=Minor Problem, and 3=Major Problem. Questions 2 through 4 were then recoded to match the sequence of

Question 1, as follows: 1=No, 2=Don't Know, and 3=Yes.

The four items were then summed to produce a composite measure of Interparental Conflict, with scores of 4 or higher indicating interparental conflict. Scores for the four areas of interparental conflict were then averaged to obtain a scale score for the variable Interparental Conflict scale. The use of interparental conflict as a variable was influenced by the stress and coping (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984) and mundane extreme environmental stress perspectives (Carroll, 1998; Peters and Massey, 1983; Pierce, 1975). These perspectives posit that as an individual experiences a stressor, in this case racial discrimination, they can either effectively or ineffectively cope with the stressor resulting in emotional disruption, which negatively affects family functioning.

3.3.3 Child Emotional Adjustment

In addition, a measure was created to operationalize the criterion variable of child emotional adjustment. Subjects with children between the ages of 6-18 were instructed to answer these questions. This scale consisted of UWMTC survey items 22a through 22h. Reliability analysis of these items produced a coefficient alpha of 0.912. On the UWMTC survey, respondents were asked a series of Likert-format questions: 4=Major Problem, 3=Minor Problem, 2=Not A Problem, or 1=Don't Know to the following problems their child may have experienced: Bullied/harassed by other children; Involved in a gang; Threatened/hurt by gang members; Threatened/hurt by non-family members; Expressing aggressive/angry behavior toward others; Failing at school; Overweight; Serious emotional problems; Running away from home overnight or longer; Trouble with the law; Drinking alcohol; Teenage pregnancy; Using illegal drugs; Making sexual advances toward other children. To construct a scale, the items were recoded to 1=Minor Problem, 2=Major Problem, and 0=Not a Problem. The items were then summed to produce a composite measure of Child Emotional Adjustment, with scores of 2 or higher indicating problems with their child's emotional adjustment.

The use of Child Emotional Adjustment as a variable is supported by the Emotional Security Hypothesis (Davies and Cummings, 1994) and the social learning theory (Bandura 1973; 1983). These

theories postulate that children develop aggressive or maladaptive behaviors when exposed to these behaviors in adults, particularly parents or guardians. In addition, these theories suggest that a child's emotional security is jeopardized when exposed to parental conflict, which causes children to act out or develop unhealthy ways of expressing their emotions.

3.4 Factor Analysis

In order to examine whether the Interparental Conflict and Child Emotional Adjustment items of the survey were sufficient for a scale, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted using principal-axis factoring in SPSS (Version 13.0). A threshold of 0.30 was set as the minimum factor loading to be considered significant. To determine the number of factors to retain, Kaiser's (1960) eigenvalues-greater-than-one rule was applied in this analysis. The first factor, Interparental Conflict, included four items that represented verbal and physical conflicts experienced by couples. The second factor, Child Emotional Adjustment, included 14 items that represented problems faced by their children, per the parents' report. Factor scores were then computed for the two factors. Internal consistency of each of the three factors was assessed by computing Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the items with loadings greater than 0.40 in each factor.

3.4.1 Interparental Conflict

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy yielded an acceptable value of 0.748. Principle components analysis was used because the primary purpose was to identify and compute composite scores for the factors underlying the Interparental Conflict Scale. The initial Eigen values showed that the first factor explained 64% of the variance, the second factor 17% of the variance, the third factor 12% of the variance, and the fourth factor explaining 6% of the variance. Specific item loadings are shown in Table 3.1. The coefficient alpha for the four items loading on the Interparental Conflict scale was 0.786.

3.4.2 Child Emotional Adjustment

Specific item loadings for the Child Emotional Adjustment Scale listed in Table 3.2, which together accounted for 61.6% of the variance. The initial Eigen values showed that the first factor

explained 53% of the variance, the second factor 8% of the variance, and a third factor 7% of the variance. The remaining eleven factors had Eigen values of just over one, and explained the remaining 32% of the variance. After the Principal axis factoring with Varimax rotation, two components of factors were extracted. In addition, the 14 items loading on this factor had a coefficient alpha of 0.912.

Table 3.1. Factor loadings based on principle components analysis for 4 items to measure Interparental Conflict

Interparental Conflict Scale	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's α
Q19a Disagreements with Spouse/Partner	.751	
Q19b Physically Threatened by Spouse/Partner	.908	0.786
Q19c Pushed, Grabbed, or Shoved by Spouse/Partner	.854	
Q19d Missed Work/School Due to Violence	.686	

Table 3.2. Factor loadings based on principle components analysis for the 4 items to measure Child Emotional Adjustment

Child Emotional Adjustment Scale	Factor Loadings <i>Component 1</i>	Factor Loadings <i>Component 2</i>	Cronbach's α
Q22a Being harassed or bullied by other children	0.599	0.439	
Q22b Involved with a gang	0.823	-0.168	0.912
Q22c Being threatened or hurt by gang members	0.750	-0.148	
Q22d Being threatened or hurt by other non-family members	0.674	0.174	
Q22e Expressing aggressive or angry behavior toward others	0.719	0.327	
Q22f Failing at school	0.641	0.349	
Q22g Being overweight	0.564	0.366	
Table 3.2 Continued			
Q22h Having serious emotional problems	0.675	0.405	
Q22i Running away from home overnight or longer	0.845	-0.215	
Q22j Trouble with the law	0.889	-0.234	

Table 3.2 Continued

Q22k Drinking alcohol	0.883	-0.247
Q22l Teenage pregnancy	0.710	-0.254
Q22m Drug use	0.795	-0.370
Q22n Sexual advances from other children	0.614	-0.123

Table 3.3 Descriptive statistics for Interparental Conflict and Child Emotional Adjustment factors

	No. of items	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Kurtosis	α
Interparental Conflict Scale	4	4.63	1.04	.20	.72
Child Emotional Adjustment Scale	14	1.25	2.11	.43	.63

These analyses indicated that four distinct factors were underlying the sample’s responses to the Interparental Conflict scale and fourteen factors underlying the Child Emotional Adjustment Scale. Items for both of these factors were found to be internally consistent, thus indicating that the data are well suited for parametric statistical analyses.

3.5 Hypotheses

The primary research question of this study is “*Does perceived racial discrimination negatively impact interparental relationships of adults and contribute to emotional maladjustment in their children?*” The following hypotheses were formulated to address the research question:

1. ***Black and Hispanic subjects are more likely to report higher instances of racial discrimination compared to White subjects.***
2. ***Subjects reporting racial discrimination are more likely to report higher instances of interparental conflict compared to those who do not report racial discrimination.***
3. ***Subjects reporting racial discrimination are more likely to report higher instances of difficulties in the emotional adjustment of their children compared to those who do***

not report racial discrimination.

4. *There is a significant relationship between perceived racial discrimination and interparental conflict.*
5. *There is a significant relationship between perceived racial discrimination and child emotional adjustment.*

3.6 Data Analysis

Data from the United Way of Metropolitan Tarrant County survey were statistically analyzed to test the study hypotheses. Prior to running statistics on the variables previously discussed, only cases with respondents identifying White, Hispanic, or Black as their racial backgrounds were selected. The rationale for this selection is that these individuals comprise the ethnicities of focus for this inquiry. In order to test the relationships of the independent variables with the dependent variables, variables were coded or recoded as dichotomous or continuous variables. In addition, negatively worded items were reverse scored so that higher values indicated more positive scores.

Variables that were recoded to be dichotomous were as follows:

- 1) Ethnicity-recoded to 0=White and 1=non-White (Black and Hispanic)
- 2) Education-recoded to 0=no college and 1=college
- 3) Racial Discrimination-recoded to 0=racial discrimination and 1=no racial discrimination

3.6.1 Univariate Analysis

In this study, the univariate statistical procedures used were frequencies and percentages. Frequencies were run in SPSS to examine several demographic variables including age, gender, race, level of education, employment status, and level of income.

3.6.2 Bivariate Analysis

The chi-square test was used to test for statistical significance among dichotomous variables. The chi-square value resulting from the analysis was compared to the critical value set at the .05 level of significance and degrees of freedom. In addition, t-tests were conducted to determine if there were

statistically significant differences between continuous predictor variables and dichotomous criterion variables.

3.6.3 Multivariate Analysis

To determine possible differences between group means and to examine whether significant relationships between variables existed, t-tests and ANOVA statistical procedures were used. Differences between mean scores of the sum variables were studied using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's post-hoc multiple comparisons (Vogt, 1999). P-values of <0.05 were interpreted as statistically significant. Simple linear and multiple regression analyses were also used to examine the variables of interest in this study. In the regression analyses, several predictor variables were used to control for other effects of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment.

3.6.4 Summary

Data from the United Way of Metropolitan Tarrant County (UWMTC) Community Assessment was used for secondary analysis in this inquiry. The UWMTC is a representative, probability sampling of residents of Tarrant County, Texas and allows for the examination of variables of interest in this study. The variable of perceived racial discrimination was obtained from respondents who answered Question 8a of the survey as the primary reason for discrimination being due to race. The dependent variable, Interparental Conflict, was created from a set of items asking respondents questions about verbal and physical disagreements between themselves and their partners. The dependent variable, Child Emotional Adjustment, was created from a set of questions that asked parents about physical and emotional difficulties they believed their children experienced.

Univariate analyses were then conducted on all the variables of interest, using their original coding from the United Way survey. In addition, bivariate and multivariate analyses were conducted to address the research question and hypotheses of this study, and are examined in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this secondary data analysis was to examine the effects of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment in White, Black, and Hispanic families. The primary variables of interest in this study were perceived racial discrimination, interparental conflict, and child emotional adjustment.

4.1.1 Demographics of Sample

In the original sample of those completing Version 2 of the survey, the sample size was $n = 2368$. After selecting out White, Hispanic, and Black respondents, the sample was reduced to 2237 subjects, which was used for the analysis of all variables in this study. Approximately 72% ($n = 1598$) of the sample were White, 16% ($n = 361$) were Hispanic, and 12.4% ($n = 248$) were Black. Race and other demographics are included in Table 3.1.

The majority of the sample for this study were female ($n = 1358$, 60.8%); with male respondents making up 39.2% of the sample ($n = 877$). Over half of the sample were married or had a live-in partner ($n = 1344$, 60.2%); followed by those who were divorced ($n = 306$, 13.7%), widowed ($n = 265$, 11.9%) never married ($n = 181$, 8.1%) or separated ($n = 37$, 1.7%).

The mean age of the sample completing Version 2 of the survey was 51.95 years ($SD = 16.182$), and the median age was 51.00, indicating a relatively middle-aged group of respondents. Of concern was that the sample appeared older than expected, so the mean age of the entire sample was computed, which came out to be 52.17 years ($SD = 16.39$) indicating that the entire sample was of middle age range. Data from the 2006 U.S. Census American Community Survey was consulted to determine the age of the typical Tarrant County resident and revealed the median age for Tarrant County residents was 33.2 ($SD = 0.2$). Based on these findings, it appears that the age of the sample completing the survey was older than the majority of residents of Tarrant County.

In addition, the majority of the sample of Version II were fairly well educated, in that nearly 68% had at least some college education. The majority of the sample were either employed full time ($n=1182$, 3.2%), or were retired ($n=524$, 23.6%), which is consistent with the age of the sample.

In terms of the income composition of the sample, most respondents had middle '\$50,000-\$74,999' ($n= 394$, 20.2%) to upper 'Over \$75,000' ($n=536$, 27.5%) incomes. The other respondents' incomes were distributed relatively equal across the remaining income groups.

Table 4.1. Demographics of Sample

Variable	N	%
	2237	
<u>Age</u>		
<u>M</u> - 51.95		
<u>SD</u> - 16.182		
<u>Gender</u>		
Male	877	39.2
Female	1358	60.8
<u>Race</u>		
White	1598	71.4
Hispanic	361	16.2
Black	278	12.4
<u>Marital Status</u>		
Married	1344	60.2
Separated	37	1.7
Widowed	265	11.9
Living with Partner	102	4.6
Divorced	306	13.7
Never Married	181	8.1

Table 4.1 Continued

<u>Education</u>		
Less than High School	157	7.1
High School Diploma or G.E.D.	470	21.2
Some College or Technical School	606	27.3
Technical School Certification	91	4.1
College Graduate or more	896	40.3
<u>Employment</u>		
Full-Time	1182	53.2
Part-Time	187	8.4
Unemployed	96	4.3
Retired	524	23.6
Student	16	0.7
Homemaker	137	6.2
Disabled or too Ill	81	3.6
<u>Household Income</u>		
Under \$10,000	133	6.8
\$10,000-\$19,999	197	10.1
\$20,000-\$29,999	193	9.9
\$30,000-\$39,999	235	12.0
\$40,000-\$49,999	264	13.5
\$50,000-\$74,999	394	20.2
Over \$75,000	536	27.5

Table 4.2. Comparison of White, Black, and Hispanic Subjects on
3.Nominal and Ordinal Demographic Variables

Variables	<u>Whites</u>		<u>Hispanics</u>		<u>Blacks</u>		χ^2	df
	n	%	n	%	n	%		
							107.785***	12
<u>Marital Status</u>								
Married	994	62.2	243	67.3	107	38.6		
Separated	18	1.1	10	2.8	9	3.2		
Widowed	200	12.5	11	4.2	54	19.5		
Living w/ Partner	73	4.6	20	5.5	9	3.2		
Divorced	206	12.9	40	11.1	60	21.7		
Never Married	106	6.6	37	10.2	38	13.7		
							199.846***	8
<u>Education</u>								
Less than H.S.	67	4.2	67	18.7	23	8.3		
H.S. Diploma/ GED	268	16.9	116	32.4	86	31.2		
Some College/ Tech. School	442	27.9	84	23.5	80	29.0		
Tech. School Cert.	64	4.0	16	4.5	11	4.0		
College Graduate	745	47.0	75	20.9	76	27.5		
							155.782***	12
<u>Income</u>								
Under \$10,000	67	4.8	19	5.8	47	19.7		
\$10,000-\$19,999	118	8.5	38	11.6	41	17.2		
\$20,000-\$29,999	129	9.3	32	9.8	32	13.4		
\$30,000-\$39,999	148	10.7	57	17.4	30	12.6		
\$40,000-\$49,999	177	12.8	54	16.5	33	13.9		
\$50,000-\$74,999	297	21.4	69	21.1	28	11.8		

Table 4.2 Continued

Over \$75,000	451	32.5	58	17.7	27	11.3	
<u>Employment</u>							100.280*** 12
Full-Time	807	50.8	238	65.9	137	50.2	
Part-Time	142	8.9	28	7.8	17	6.2	
Unemployed	58	3.7	18	5.0	20	7.3	
Retired	423	26.6	29	8.0	72	26.4	
Student	11	0.7	3	0.8	2	0.7	
Homemaker	102	6.4	32	8.9	3	1.1	
Disabled	46	2.9	13	3.6	22	8.1	

*p = <.05
 **p = <.01
 ***p = <.001

Further analyses were conducted on the demographic variables by race. These comparisons are summarized in Table 4.2. Chi-square analyses revealed a statistically significant difference between subjects' marital status by race ($\chi^2 = 107.78, p < .001$). Although the majority of respondents in each racial group were married, a higher percentage of Blacks were either widowed or divorced (41%).

There were also statistically significant differences in levels of education between the three racial groups ($\chi^2 = 199.84, p < .001$). Among the three groups, White respondents were more educated in that a higher percentage of them were college graduates ($n=745, 47%$). The majority of Blacks were high school graduates ($n=86, 31.2%$), or had some college attendance ($n=80, 29.0%$). Similar results were found for Hispanic respondents, with higher numbers of those possessing a high school diploma ($n =67, 18.7%$), followed by having some college attendance ($n=84, 23.5%$).

Chi-square analyses were also conducted to investigate the annual income of respondents based on race. A statistically significant difference also found in this analysis ($\chi^2 = 155.782, p < .001$). Whites held higher annual incomes compared to the two other groups. Inversely, Blacks had more incomes in

the \$10,000 or less category than other racial groups ($n=47$, 19.7%). In addition, Black respondents comprised the majority of incomes between the \$10,000-\$19,000 range ($n=41$, 17.2%).

Respondents' employment status also produced statistically significant results ($\chi^2=100.280$ $p<.001$) between the three racial groups. The majority of each racial group were worked full-time (Whites, 51%; Hispanics, 66%; and Blacks, 50.2%), followed by being retired (Whites, 26%; Blacks, 26%). Interestingly, very few Hispanic respondents reported being retired (8.0%).

To measure the mean differences in age of the respondents by race, an ANOVA was conducted. There was a statistically significant difference between the mean ages of the racial groups in the sample ($F= 71.57$, $p<.001$). Table 4.3 lists the results of the ANOVA analyses for respondents' race by age. Note from the table that respondents of Hispanic decent were slightly younger ($M=43.06$, $SD=13.6$), compared to Black ($M=54.78$, $SD=16.27$) and White ($M=53.66$, $SD=16.06$) respondents in the sample.

Table 4.3. ANOVA Results for Racial Groups and Age

	White			Hispanic			Black			F	df
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD		
Age	1596	53.66	16.1	361	43.06	13.6	277	54.78	16.2	71.57***	2

*** $p<.001$

4.1.2 Summary of Sample Demographics

Overall, the sample used in this study was primarily female, and were primarily in the middle adulthood age group, though Hispanics were nearly ten years younger than both their White and Black counterparts. In addition, the majority of the sample across all racial groups was married or had a partner, with Blacks being more likely to be divorced or never married. In terms of education, both Blacks and Hispanics had higher percentages of high school graduates, while White respondents' highest percentages were as college graduates. The income composition of respondents indicated that more White respondents had more incomes of over \$75,000 annually, Hispanics had more incomes in the middle to

upper income range, and Blacks had incomes similar across all income ranges, with the highest percentage being of those earning less than \$10,000 annually. Over half of all three racial groups were employed full time, with Whites and Blacks having nearly a third of their groups retired at the time of the survey.

4.1.3 Perceived Racial Discrimination

As perceptions of racial discrimination were of paramount interest, analyses were conducted to measure the manner in which racial discrimination was perceived. In the entire sample, 12.8% of the respondents reported perceiving discrimination based on race, as shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Perceptions of Racial Discrimination in Sample

Variable	N	%
<u>Perceived Racial Discrimination</u>	2237	
Yes	286	12.8%
No	1951	87.2%

When chi-square analyses were conducted on respondents positively indicating perceived racial discrimination, a statistically significant result was yielded ($\chi^2 = 86.955$, $p < .001$), with Black ($n=77$, 71.3%) and Hispanic ($n=102$, 70.8%) respondents having nearly equal percentages. In contrast, White respondents indicated a lower percentage ($n=111$, 32.4%) of racial discrimination compared to the other two groups. A statistically significant result was also yielded in the chi-square analysis of perceived racial discrimination and employment status ($\chi^2 = 17.219$, $p < .001$). Results of the analysis revealed that regardless of employment status, most respondents did not perceive racial discrimination ($n=1163$, 85%)-those employed, and ($n=777$, 91%)-those not employed.

In addition, when a chi-square was performed to determine if there were differences between those reporting racial discrimination based on level of education, statistically significant results were obtained ($\chi^2 = 14.270$, $p < .001$). Regardless of postsecondary education, both groups, those who

graduated from a 4 yr. institution (n=85, 9.5%) and those who did not (n=199, 15%) had low percentages of perceived racial discrimination.

When income was examined to determine if there were differences in racial discrimination based on lower (less than \$30,000/yr) or higher (\$30,000/yr or more) incomes, statistically significant results were not produced ($\chi^2 = 2.101$, $p=.157$). As the chi-square was not significant, there were no significant differences in perceived racial discrimination based on income, whether relatively low or high. Results for these demographic analyses are included in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Chi-Square Analyses of Perceived Racial Discrimination by Race

Variables	<u>Perceived Racial Discrimination</u>		<u>No Perceived Racial Discrimination</u>		χ^2	df
	n	%	n	%		
					86.96***	12
<u>Race</u>						
White	111	32.4	232	67.6		
Hispanic	102	70.8	42	24.2		
Black	77	71.3	31	28.7		
					48.684***	6
<u>Employment Status</u>						
Full-Time	179	63.3	1003	51.7		
Part-Time	27	9.5	160	8.2		
Unemployed	22	7.8	74	3.8		
Retired	25	8.8	499	25.7		
Student	0	0.0	16	0.8		
Homemaker	17	6.0	120	6.2		
Disabled	13	4.6	68	3.5		
					18.351**	4
<u>Education</u>						
Less than H.S.	28	9.9	129	6.7		
H.S. Diploma/ GED	62	21.8	408	21.1		

Table 4.5 continued

Some College/ Tech. School	92	32.4	514	26.5
Tech. School Cert.	17	6.0	74	3.8
College Graduate	85	29.9	811	41.9
<u>Annual Income</u>			23.709**	6
Under \$10,000	24	9.0	109	6.5
\$10,000-\$19,999	21	7.9	176	10.4
\$20,000-\$29,999	36	13.5	157	9.3
\$30,000-\$39,999	35	13.2	200	11.9
\$40,000-\$49,999	41	15.4	223	13.2
\$50,000-\$74,999	64	24.1	330	19.6
Over \$75,000	45	16.9	491	29.1

*p = <.05
 **p = <.01
 ***p = <.001

For the research hypotheses using the continuous data of the Interparental Conflict and Child Emotional Adjustment scales, independent t-tests were conducted. The purpose of the t-tests were to determine if there were statistically significant differences between respondents' reports of racial discrimination and mean scores on the two scales.

Table 4.6. Results of Interparental Conflict Score and Perceived Racial Discrimination

	<u>N</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t</u>
Perceived Racial Discrimination	201	4.9104	2.96230	-4.084***
No Perceived Racial Discrimination	1282	4.4913	1.84771	

*p = <.05
 **p = <.01
 ***p = <.001

In the t-test analyses, of note is the decrease in the N of the sample size with the Interparental Conflict scale. This decrease in N was because only respondents who were married or had a partner were instructed to complete the Interparental Conflict questions. Similarly, there was a decrease in the N of the sample with the Child Emotional Adjustment Scale, as only respondents with children between the ages of 6-18 were instructed to complete the Child Emotional Adjustment questions.

On the Interparental Conflict scale, results of the t-test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference $t = (-4.084; p < .001)$ between the mean scores of respondents who had experienced racial discrimination ($M=4.91$), and those who had not experienced racial discrimination ($M=4.59$). In other words, respondents reporting higher levels of interparental conflict also reported perceptions of racial discrimination.

To compare the mean scores of the Child Emotional Adjustment Scale to determine if perceived racial discrimination would make a difference in the scores, an additional independent samples' t-test was conducted. Results of the second t-test analysis revealed that on the Child Emotional Adjustment scale, there was also a statistically significant difference $t = (-3.614; p < .001)$ between the mean scores of respondents who had experienced racial discrimination ($M=1.92$), and those who had not experienced racial discrimination ($M=1.11$). This result indicates that respondents reporting higher levels of problems with their child's emotional adjustment conflict also reported perceptions of racial discrimination.

Table 4.7. Results of Child Emotional Adjustment Score and Perceived Racial Discrimination

	<u>N</u>	Mean	<u>SD</u>	T-Value
Perceived Racial Discrimination	106	1.9245	2.96230	-3.614***
No Perceived Racial Discrimination	479	1.1127	1.84771	

*p = <.05

**p = <.01

***p = <.001

To examine the effects of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment by race, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted using the Interparental Conflict and Child Emotional Adjustment scales as dependent variables, and the race of respondents independent variables.

The ANOVA conducted to examine the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and interparental conflict produced statistically significant results ($F=7.467$, $p<.000$). Table 4.8 contains the results of this test, which measured the means of reports of interparental conflict for Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics. Statistically significant differences in reports of interparental conflict were revealed across each racial group (Whites $M= 4.57$, $p<.000$, Blacks, $M =4.82$, Hispanics $M =4.80$).

To measure the differences in mean scores on the Child Emotional Adjustment scale by respondents' race, an additional ANOVA analysis was conducted, as shown in Table 4.9. Results indicate that the mean scores of child emotional adjustment scores by race were not statistically significant ($F=2.219$, p value of .110).

Table 4.8. ANOVA Results for Interparental Conflict Scale by Race

Ethnicity	Mean	SD	F	df	p
White	4.57	0.94	7.467	2	.000*
Black	4.82	1.09			
Hispanic	4.80	1.03			

*p = <.05
 **p = <.01
 ***p = <.001

Table 4.9. ANOVA Results for Child Emotional Adjustment Scale by Race

Ethnicity	Mean	SD	F	df	p
White	1.33	2.08	2.219	2	.110
Black	1.52	2.30			
Hispanic	0.95	2.10			

*p = <.05
 **p = <.01
 ***p = <.001

4.1.4 Presented Hypotheses and Supporting Data Analyses

In this section, each of the hypotheses and relevant statistical analyses are presented.

Additionally, an overview of relevant theories and literature that supports the hypotheses are discussed.

H1: Black and Hispanic subjects are more likely to report higher instances of racial discrimination compared to White subjects.

According to the results of the chi-square analysis, there was a statistically significant difference in perceptions of racial discrimination reported by Black and Hispanic subjects, when compared to White subjects in the sample. The specific differences in percentages by race on the chi-square analysis were similar between Blacks (71.3%) and Hispanics (70.8%) and were lower in their White counterparts (32.4%) which supports the hypothesis.

H2: Subjects reporting racial discrimination are more likely to report higher instances of interparental conflict compared to those who do not report racial discrimination.

This independent samples t-test analysis indicated that those who had experienced racial discrimination ($n=201$) had a mean score of 4.9104 on the Interparental Conflict Scale, and that the respondents reporting no racial discrimination ($n=1282$) had a mean score of 4.4913. Overall, there was a statistically significant between the comparison of those who report experiencing racial discrimination having higher mean scores of interparental conflict. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

H3: Subjects reporting racial discrimination are more likely to report difficulties in the emotional adjustment of their children compared to those who do not report racial discrimination.

A statistically significant result was found between the mean scores of respondents on the Child Emotional Adjustment Scale in the t-test analysis. Respondents who reported they had perceived racial discrimination had higher mean scores on the Child Emotional Adjustment scale ($M = 1.92$), $t = (-3.614)$ $p < .001$, compared to those who had not perceived racial discrimination. Respondents who reported not perceiving racial discrimination had lower scores on the Child Emotional Adjustment Scale ($M = 1.11$). Based on this analysis, Hypothesis 3 was supported as well.

H4: There is a significant relationship between perceived racial discrimination and interparental conflict.

To examine this hypothesis, a three-step linear regression analyses process was used and is included in Table 4.10. In the first step, a regression analysis was done to determine whether Interparental Conflict was influenced by racial discrimination. For this regression equation, racial discrimination was dummy coded as .00 – no racial discrimination and 1.00 – racial discrimination. The R^2 value was .011, and the overall relationship found to be statistically significant ($p < .001$; $\beta = .106$). This indicates that about 1.0% of the variance in the Interparental Conflict score was accounted for by the variable of perceived racial discrimination.

Table 4.10. Regression Analyses with Interparental Conflict as the Criterion Variable

<i>Predictor</i>	Overall Model				Coefficients		
	R²	F	Df	p	B	t	p
Racial Discrimination	.011	17.702	1	.000***	.106	4.08	.000***

*p = <.05

**p = <.01

***p = <.001

In the second step of the linear regression analysis, the race of respondents was added as an additional predictor variable to the equation. Results of the analysis are included in Table 4.11. Building upon the regression analysis with Interparental Conflict as the dependent (criterion) variable, and Perceived Racial Discrimination as the independent (predictor variable), the component of race was added to the equation as a control variable. Prior to inclusion, the race variable was dummy coded (.00 – White, 1.00 – non-White). Results of the analyses revealed a statistically significant relationship between the variables.

When Interparental Conflict was predicted between the two variables, it was found that perceived racial discrimination ($p < .001$, $\beta = .084$) and race of respondents ($p < .05$, $\beta = .078$) remained significant predictors of interparental conflict. The R^2 value (.017) indicated that though minimal, slightly more of the variance (2%) in Interparental Conflict was explained by perceived

racial discrimination and the addition of race into the regression equation.

Table 4.11. Regression Analyses with Interparental Conflict as the Criterion Variable

<i>Predictors</i>	Overall Model				Coefficients		
	R²	F	Df	P	β	t	p
	.017	12.595	2	.000***			
Racial Discrimination					.084	2.904	.004**
Race					.078	3.140	.002**

*p = <.05

**p = <.01

***p = <.001

The final step of the regression analysis was to include demographic variables found to be statistically significant in previous descriptive and bivariate analyses. With Interparental Conflict as the criterion variable, perceived racial discrimination, race, employment, education, and income were added as predictor variables. Race maintained the same recode sequence, and education was recoded to 00 – ‘No College’ for those with H. S. diploma or less, and 1.00 – ‘College’ for those who reported any postsecondary education experience. Employment was also recoded to 00 – ‘Not Employed’ for those disabled, retired, homemakers, students, unemployed, and 1.00 – ‘Employed’ for those with full or part-time jobs. In order to make income an interval variable for inclusion in the regression, income was recoded to include midpoint values. For example, the midpoint value for those with incomes between \$10,000 and \$19,999 was \$14,999.50. The results of this regression equation for each predictor variable were that racial discrimination ($\beta = .059$; $p < .05$), race of respondent ($\beta = .067$; $p < .05$), employment status of respondent ($\beta = -.085$; $p < .001$), and income of respondent ($\beta = -.139$; $p < .001$) were statistically significant predictors of interparental conflict. Education of respondent ($\beta = .012$; $p = .698$) was not found to be statistically significant. The overall model fit for this regression equation was $R^2 = .035$. With the inclusion of the additional variables, the R^2 value increased, indicating that about 3.5% of the variance in Interparental Conflict was explained by the variables of racial discrimination, race, employment, and income. The direction of the influence was positive for racial discrimination and race of

respondent and negative for employment of respondent and respondent's annual income.

Table 4.12. Regression Analyses with Interparental Conflict as the Criterion Variable

<i>Predictors</i>	Overall Model				Coefficients		
	R²	F	df	P	B	t	p
	.035	9.365	5	.000***			
Racial Discrimination					.059	2.058	.040*
Race					.067	2.184	.029*
Employment					-.085	-2.878	.004**
Education					.012	.389	.698
Income					-.139	-4.341	.000***

*p = <.05

**p = <.01

***p = <.001

Based on the regression analyses, Hypothesis 4, which posited that there would be a significant relationship between perceived racial discrimination and interparental conflict, was supported. With the inclusion of each variable, the percentage of variance explained in Interparental Conflict increased.

H5: There is a significant relationship between perceived racial discrimination and child emotional adjustment.

To test this hypothesis, a three-step linear regression analyses process was also used, the results of which are included in Table 4.13, to predict the effect of the dependent (criterion) variable of Child Emotional Adjustment on the independent (predictor) variable of racial discrimination. As in the first set of regression analyses, racial discrimination was dummy coded as .00 – no racial discrimination and 1.00 – racial discrimination. Results of the first regression analysis for Child Emotional Adjustment revealed an R-square value was .022, and the overall relationship was found to be statistically significant ($\beta = .148$, $p < .001$). As a result, about 2.2% of the total variance in Child Emotional Adjustment criterion variable was explained by whether a person perceived he or she had experienced racial discrimination.

Table 4.13. Regression Analyses with Child Emotional Adjustment as the Criterion Variable

<i>Predictor</i>	Overall Model				Coefficients		
	R²	F	df	p	β	t	p
Racial Discrimination	.022	13.060	1	.000***	.148	3.614	.000***

*p = <.05
 **p = <.01
 ***p = <.001

To further test this hypothesis, a second linear regression analysis was conducted. Results are presented in Table 4.14. Building upon the regression analyses with Child Emotional Adjustment as the dependent (criterion) variable and Perceived Racial Discrimination as the independent (predictor variable), the race of respondents was also added to the equation as a control variable. The same recoding sequence used to analyze Hypothesis 4 was also used in the regression equations for this hypothesis. When Child Emotional Adjustment was predicted between the two independent variables, it was found that perceived racial discrimination ($p < .001$, $\beta = .174$) and race of respondents ($p < .05$, $\beta = -.095$) were significant predictors of interparental conflict. The R² value (.030) increased from the first regression, indicating that 3% of the variance in Interparental Conflict was explained by the variables perceived racial discrimination and race of respondent.

Table 4.14. Regression Analyses with Child Emotional Adjustment as the Criterion Variable

<i>Predictors</i>	Overall Model				Coefficients		
	R²	F	Df	p	β	t	p
	.030	9.065	2	.000***			
Racial Discrimination					.174	4.094	.004***
Race					-.095	-2.232	.02*

*p = <.05
 **p = <.01
 ***p = <.001

The final step of the regression analysis for the Child Emotional Adjustment variable included demographic variables found to be statistically significant in previous descriptive and bivariate analyses. In the third regression equation analysis, Child Emotional Adjustment was the dependent (criterion) variable and income, perceived racial discrimination, race, employment, and education, were the independent (predictor) variables. Results of this analysis revealed that income ($\beta = -.183$; $p < .001$), racial discrimination ($\beta = .163$; $p < .001$), and race ($\beta = -.175$; $p < .001$) were statistically significant predictors of child emotional adjustment. The employment status ($\beta = -.033$; $p = .459$), and education ($\beta = -.076$; $p = .115$) were not found to be significant. The overall model fit for this regression equation was $R^2 = .071$, which demonstrates an increase in the amount of variance explained by the variables in the Child Emotional Adjustment Scale to 7.1%. The information for regression models with Interparental Conflict as the criterion variable is shown in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15. Regression Analyses with Child Emotional Adjustment as the Criterion Variable

<i>Predictors</i>	Overall Model				Coefficients		
	R²	F	df	P	β	t	p
	.046	6.109	4	.000***			
Income					-.183	-3.637	.000***
Racial Discrimination					.163	3.622	.000***
Race					-.175	-3.624	.000***
Employment					-.033	-.742	.459
Education					-.076	-1.581	.115

*p = <.05
 **p = <.01
 ***p = <.001

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this inquiry was to contribute to discrimination research by examining the effects of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment in White, Hispanic, and Black families. Stress and coping theoretical perspectives (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Outlaw, 1993; Carroll, 1998; Peters & Massey, 1983; Pierce, 1975) along with social learning perspectives (Bandura, 1973; Davies & Cummings, 1994, 2002; Margolin et al, 2001; Davies, Crockenberg & Langrock, 2001a; Emery & O'Leary, 1982) were used to guide the study and to develop hypotheses.

The original data collected by the United Way of Tarrant County was used to assess community needs. The dataset was relevant for use in this study as it included questions about racial discrimination, intimate relationships, and child emotional problems. Based on existing discrimination literature, it was assumed that both interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment would be significant predictors of perceived racial discrimination.

This chapter will provide a discussion of this study in the following areas: 1) a summation of the findings, 2) limitations, and 3) implications for Social Work practice, policy, and research.

5.1 Discussion of Findings

5.1.1 Perceived Racial Discrimination

Findings from this study revealed that minority respondents reported higher instances of perceived racial discrimination compared to their White counterparts. This finding is consistent with current racial discrimination research, which suggests that minorities perceive higher levels of racial discrimination (Corrigan et. al, 2003, Kessler et al., 2003; Martin et. al, 2003; Moradi & Risco, 2006;

Klonoff & Landrine, 1999).

5.1.2 Interparental Conflict

Findings of this study also revealed a significant relationship between perceived racial discrimination and interparental conflict. Respondents who experienced racial discrimination had higher mean scores on the Interparental Conflict scale. This finding was also significant in the regression equation when other variables (income, education, race) were held constant. This finding is consistent with literature suggesting an association between the emotional consequences of perceived racial discrimination and psychological stress (Clark et al., 1999; Landrine & Klonoff, 1996) which can impact a person's relationship with his spouse or partner. The stress and coping theories also support this finding, as a person's inability to effectively cope with stress from racial discrimination can contribute to psychological problems (Outlaw, 1993; Carroll, 1998; Peters & Massey, 1983) such as anger and lower self-esteem (Solorzano, Ceja, & Yosso, 2000). Additional support for this finding suggests that stress from racial discrimination can influence a partner's response to violent behavior (Campbell, Campbell, King, Parker & Ryan, 2001).

5.1.3 Child Emotional Adjustment

Perceived racial discrimination and parental reports of child emotional maladjustment were also a major finding of this study. Literature suggests that parents experiencing stress are likely to have limited coping resources which contributes to an inability to effectively care for the emotional needs of their children (Johnson and L'Esperance, 1984). When stress from discrimination contributes to interparental conflict, children witnessing the conflict may be placed at heightened risk for emotional problems. Though not in the context of racial discrimination, literature indicates that children who witness violence between their parents are at risk for adverse physical and psychological reactions (Lewandowski, McFarlane, Campbell, Gary, & Cathleen Barenski, 2004), and that male children who witness violence are more likely to become perpetrators of violence (Browne, 1997; Groves-McAlister & Zuckerman, 1997). This finding is also consistent with the emotional security and social learning theories

perspectives discussed in Chapter 2.

5.2 Limitations

There were several limitations to this study that must be considered. Due to the nature of the data being collected for purposes other than were the focus of this inquiry, there were restrictions in the manner in which the data could be manipulated. While the UWMTC dataset was a generally effective vehicle for examining the variables of interest, a primary limitation of the dataset involved the question that asked respondents about their racial/ethnic group (Question 43). The option to choose “Hispanic” as a response was not included in the question that asked respondents to select their race which caused Hispanic respondents to resort to selecting the ‘Other’ category. Fortunately, respondents of Hispanic/Mexican descent wrote their racial/ethnic group in the ‘Other’ category, which allowed for the selection and recoding of the variable from string to numeric format.

Another limitation of the study involved the coefficient of determination (R^2) in the regression analyses. The relatively low R-square values of the models suggest the need for incorporating additional factors into future racial discrimination models to improve its explanatory utility in the context of family functioning. As stated by Lewis-Beck (1980), a low R^2 still reveals that the predictor variable is significant in accounting for a percentage of variance, though that amount is small (p. 24). Despite the actual magnitude of the effect being small, all regression models were statistically significant and are Social Work practice significant because they provide information that an association exists between perceived racial discrimination, interparental conflict, and child emotional adjustment. In addition, there may be a myriad of other factors unique to minority families that were not included in this model, or on questions of the survey. Another limitation of this study common to many social science research inquiries involves threats to internal and external validity, which are discussed.

5.2.1 Validity

One threat to internal validity that was uncontrolled for in this study was that of social desirability bias. For example, subjects may have felt uncomfortable about reporting how many actual

verbal or physical conflicts they have had with their spouses/partners, or the severity of the emotional/behavioral problems experienced by their children. Therefore, the frequencies reported by the respondents in these areas may not have been completely accurate.

In addition, of question is how relevant the findings will be to persons beyond those in the sample. Since the UWMTC survey used probability-sampling methods, it can be assumed that the sample is representative of the target population. However, given the difference between the mean and median age of the sample and the median age of Tarrant County residents, findings from this study should be generalized to residents of Tarrant County, Texas with caution.

Theoretical perspectives of Social Learning (Davies & Cummings 1994; Bandura, 1973; 1983; Davies et al., 2002; Margolin et al., 2001; Crockenberg & Langrock, 2001a; Emery & O'Leary, 1982) and Emotional Security Hypothesis (Davies and Cummings (1994) were used support the construct validity of the Interparental Conflict and Child Emotional Adjustment measures created.

Another validity concern involved the ambiguity of responses. In order to minimize this threat, several variables were used as control variables in the multivariate statistics, to examine the effects of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment, while variables that could otherwise influence the relationship (age, gender, income, and level of education) were held constant.

Another validity limitation of this study involves the correlational nature of the study. Correlational studies have been critiqued due to their inability to definitively establish causality between variables (Rubin & Babbie, 2001). Though significant associations between perceived racial discrimination and family functioning were found, variables other than those used as controls could have influenced the significance of the relationships.

5.2.2 Reliability

In terms of reliability, the limitation in the study was that the measures used to operationalize Interparental Conflict and Child Emotional Adjustment were not established, standardized measures, but subsets of items grouped together to measure each of the constructs. To control for this reliability issue, a reliability analysis was conducted on each of the measures and revealed alphas that were statistically significant. This method of controlling for reliability issues is also supported by Rubin and Babbie, (2001), who state, “in contemporary social research, the coefficient alpha is the most common and powerful method to calculate the internal consistency of a scale,” (p. 193). Despite these limitations, the study provided evidence of the negative correlates of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment in a sample of Tarrant County, Texas residents.

5.3 Implications

5.3.1 Social Work Policy

Results of this study indicate that stressors from perceived racial discrimination have a negative impact on families. Federal funding to support continued research in the area of family preservation can provide evidence-based practice to strengthen Social Work practice in this area. In addition, results of this study indicate a relationship between racial discrimination and unhealthy family dynamics which could compromise the family unit. Policies to ensure that individuals and families have access to preventative mental health and counseling services is a social policy issue of concern, for if families receive appropriate tools to cope with stress from discrimination, family conflict may be dissolved keeping the family unit intact. Since studies have found that disproportionate percentages of Blacks have no health insurance or a usual source of health care (Smedley et al., 2002; HHS, 2003), the provision of health care insurance is vital in this regard. In addition, the US Surgeon General (1999) found that Hispanic persons also underutilize mental health services. Since this underutilization has been acknowledged at the governmental level, advocating for the development and access to culturally sensitive programs to help families is imperative.

As empirical evidence continues to emerge showing that racial discrimination not only affects adults, but children as well (Sellers, et al., 2006; Caughy, et al., 2004; Wakefield & Hudley, 2005; Nyborg & Curry, 2003), additional emphasis is needed in the development of programs designed to help children experiencing emotional problems to provide the encouragement and support they may not receive from parental figures. Children experiencing difficulties should be identified by adults that see them regularly and notice changes in their behavior (teachers, coaches, etc) for referral to such programs for assistance. The encouragement of funding for such non-profit programs can help deter children from detrimental outcomes and these findings support the importance of funding in this area.

The implementation of programs that address racial discrimination and family violence such as the Boston, Massachusetts Public Health Commissions' "Father Friendly Initiative" domestic violence prevention program are needed. With governmental funding from the Family Violence Prevention Fund, this program developed two psycho-educational prevention curricula for Black and Latino fathers to increase knowledge and skills to develop non-violent, supportive relationships with their children and partners (Family Violence Prevention Fund, 2006).

The development of social justice initiatives to decrease the prevalence of racial discrimination in the United States is also needed. A major undertaking to address the problem of racial inequalities formed by President Clinton in 1997 was "The President's Initiative on Race." This one-year initiative was a national dialogue on race relations that studied areas in which racial disparities are significant. Though the program was successful in opening dialogue in this area, little research on the long-term outcomes of the initiatives of the program are evident in recent studies.

As racial discrimination continues to be a social problem, and though some programs from the initiative continue to function (e.g., the Network of Alliances Bridging Race and Ethnicity; the Structural Racism Caucus,) more programs need to be implemented on a long-term basis at the national level. Social Workers, who strive for the equal distribution of justice, should endeavor to renew society's awareness of discrimination by developing political action committees designed to make the study of race

relations an ongoing initiative to help with eliminating racial discrimination in all ethnic groups.

5.3.2 Social Work Practice

Results of this study support previous literature that suggests the effects of racial discrimination are detrimental to family functioning. While there is a prevalence of research that focuses on the resiliency of minority families coping with racial discrimination, empirical evidence suggests that there are negative emotional consequences of racial discrimination (Corrigan et al., 2003; Stuber, et al., 2003; Moody et. al., 2005; Sellers et al., 2006; Noh, et al., 2005; Sellers et al., 2006; Peters, 2006; Nyborg & Curry, 2003) which should not be discounted. The perception of race-related psychological stress is important because it serves as a precursor for health problems including physical and mental illness (King, 2005; Williams, Neighbors, & Jackson, 2003).

Family preservation, a foundational principle among Social Work methods, also presents important implications for this inquiry. As Social Workers, we should endeavor to understand the pathways to culturally specific stressors when providing therapeutic interventions to families. As this study and theoretical perspectives (Clark et al., 1999, Carroll, 1996; Outlaw, 1993) suggest, Black families live in a dormant state of stress from perceived racial discrimination that affects their daily lives.

In addition, parents must understand that their children can sense when they are having emotional difficulties and that this can compromise a child's emotional security. The implementation of effective parenting strategies in child rearing was found to serve as a buffer to children experiencing emotional problems (Gibbons et al., 2004) and must be expanded.

As discussed in Chapter 2, the stress and coping theory (Lazarus & Folkman 1984) suggests that the experience of stress in the individual or family is a reflection of the transaction between the person and the environment (including other family members) when stressors outweigh the emotional resources an individual has to deal with them. As the goal of family preservation is to maintain the family unit, more evidence based practice on stressors related to perceived racial discrimination can assist Social Workers in helping clients restore healthy family functioning. Although findings drawn from the stress

literature point to a positive relationship between stressful life events and psychological distress (Kessler, 1997), only relatively recently have scholars started to view race-related events or non-dominant social status as life stressors for some individuals (Allison, 1998).

5.3.3 Social Work Research

Implications in Social Work research for this study involve the inclusion of more diverse racial groups in samples of future studies (Williams et al., 1997; Clark et al., 1999). Results of this study indicate that in addition to Hispanic and Black respondents, perceived racial discrimination is stressful and counterproductive to family functioning in White respondents. Given the historicity of racial discrimination in the U.S., prior knowledge in this area has primarily focused on studies with Black respondents as the population of interest. While important to note that a growing number of empirical studies on discrimination have been conducted within recent years, the relatively obscure and perhaps overlooked area of racial discrimination research involving White respondents can contribute to knowledge in this area.

The expansion of perceived racial discrimination research in the qualitative arena with diverse ethnic groups could be paramount to developing perspectives that describe the phenomenon of perceived racial discrimination in groups not traditionally viewed as being affected by it. In addition, a wealth of knowledge could result from an in-depth, phenomenological analysis of how stressors from perceived racial discrimination affect the family functioning of White, Hispanic, Black, Asian, and other diverse groups.

Another implication for research is that the majority of discrimination research focuses on adults or children individually. A sequential analysis of stress from perceived racial discrimination in the parent with the perspectives of the children and spouse/partner would be an asset to Social Work research in evidence-based practice. Another promising area of discrimination research is the use of pre- and post-testing of persons complaining of stress from perceived racial discrimination to determine whether receiving culturally sensitive treatment to help them manage the stress is effective.

5.4 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of perceived racial discrimination on interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment in White, Hispanic, and Black families. Supported by stress and coping, social learning, and emotional security perspectives, this study produced results indicating that a significant relationship between perceived racial discrimination, interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment exists. Specifically, the present study indicated that perceptions of racial discrimination and being of minority status were associated with higher instances of interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment.

This inquiry indicated that racial discrimination, race, employment status, and income of the respondent were significant predictors of interparental conflict in the sample of White Black, and Hispanic respondents. Despite the variables in this study accounting for small percentages of the variance in interparental conflict and child emotional adjustment, the study's results should not be minimized. The percentages explained in this study may be indicators that the factors in this study may need to be further addressed to have a significant impact on strengthening family functioning.

Discrimination in any form is difficult for its victims to manage. Discrimination based on race, in particular, has been studied throughout the decades and has led to an increased understanding of its effects on physical and emotional well-being of individuals. Though national agencies, such as the U.S. Department of Education Office of Civil Rights and the U.S. Equal Employment Division, have been established, their services are typically available only after an individual has already experienced discrimination and may already be suffering from stress related to it.

A foundational principle of Social Work involves the healthy functioning and development of family systems. This is important because the family system is where norms, values, and prejudices are learned by children intentionally or unintentionally.

Because of the importance of family functioning in whether or not racial discrimination continues to persist, it is crucial that evidence-based practices designed to counteract racial discrimination

be developed. While a daunting task indeed, a global education and appreciation of diversity is needed to combat the problem of racial discrimination and must begin at the most basic of societal units—the family.

APPENDIX A
RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

United Way of Metropolitan Tarrant County Planning Survey

Please take a few minutes to complete this important survey. By taking time to complete this survey, you will be helping others even if you do not use services and programs funded by the United Way. If you have questions, please call Marilyn Nappier at 817-258-8101. Your responses will be kept completely confidential.

Neighborhoods & Quality of Life Issues

1. Please indicate whether each of the following are a MAJOR PROBLEM, MINOR PROBLEM, or NOT A PROBLEM in your neighborhood. (circle the corresponding number)

	Major Problem	Minor Problem	Not a Problem	Don't Know
A. Burglary or other property crimes	3	2	1	9
B. Teen/Youth Crime	3	2	1	9
C. Gangs	3	2	1	9
D. Child abuse	3	2	1	9
E. Family violence	3	2	1	9
F. Sexual assault	3	2	1	9
G. Illegal drug use	3	2	1	9
H. Homelessness	3	2	1	9
I. Streets need repairs	3	2	1	9
J. Abandoned buildings	3	2	1	9

2. In your neighborhood, is the overall physical condition and quality of the housing excellent, good, fair or poor?
 ___(1) Excellent ___(2) Good ___(3) Fair ___(4) Poor ___(9) Don't Know

3. Regarding the house, apartment, or dwelling that you live in, would you say that its physical condition and quality are excellent, good, fair or poor?
 ___(1) Excellent ___(2) Good ___(3) Fair ___(4) Poor ___(9) Don't Know

4. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements (circle your response)

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
A. The neighborhood where I live is a good place to live	4	3	2	1	9
B. I am able to influence decisions affecting my neighborhood	4	3	2	1	9
C. My neighborhood has a group that gets together to take care of our interests	4	3	2	1	9
D. I rarely feel isolated or alone	4	3	2	1	9

5. Do you take part in any of the following activities? (circle your response)

A. I look after my neighbors' homes when they are out of town.	Yes	No	Don't Know
B. I alert my neighbors when I see anything suspicious.	Yes	No	Don't Know
C. I call the police if I see anything suspicious in the neighborhood.	Yes	No	Don't Know

6. Without concern for price, which TWO of the following are the most important factors to you in selecting where you live? (check up to 2 items)

- | | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| ___(1) Quality of housing | ___(6) Location close to work |
| ___(2) Feeling of community | ___(7) Location close to shopping |
| ___(3) Strong neighborhood association | ___(8) Location close to school(s) |
| ___(4) Safe and healthy environment | ___(9) Other: _____ |
| ___(5) Availability of public transportation | |

7. In the past five years, have you or any members of your household experienced discrimination in any of the following ways? (circle your response)

A. In your employment	Yes	No	Don't Know
B. From police/law enforcement	Yes	No	Don't Know
C. In getting a bank or car loan	Yes	No	Don't Know
D. In buying or renting a home	Yes	No	Don't Know
E. In restaurants or retail stores	Yes	No	Don't Know
F. Getting medical care	Yes	No	Don't Know
G. Getting help from a government or public agency	Yes	No	Don't Know
H. Other:	Yes	No	Don't Know

8. [Answer Q#8 only if you answered YES to any items in Q#7] What was the primary reason for the discrimination? (check one)

- (01) Race or ethnicity (06) Physical disability (11) Personal appearance
 (02) Male/female (07) Mental Health problem (12) Poor/Economic status
 (03) Too old (08) Not being a U.S. citizen (13) Smoking
 (04) Too young (09) Religious preference (14) Other: _____
 (05) Weight (10) Sexual preference

9. Please answer the following questions. (circle your response)

A. Have you contacted the city you live in, Tarrant County or some other government agency about a problem, request for service, or for information in the past 12 months?	Yes	No	Don't Know
B. Are you aware that if you need help there is a 2-1-1 service to call that provides information about community resources?	Yes	No	Don't Know
C. Have you or another member of your household ever called 2-1-1 for information about community resources?	Yes	No	Don't Know
D. Is there one person that you can depend upon to help you in an emergency? (for example, your husband/wife or friend)	Yes	No	Don't Know
E. During the past 12 months, have you or anyone in your household given any donations to any religious organizations?	Yes	No	Don't Know
F. During the past 12 months, have you or anyone in your household given any donations to any non-profit/charitable groups other than religious organizations?	Yes	No	Don't Know
G. Have you received help from a government or public agency?	Yes	No	Don't Know
H. During the past 12 months, have you or anyone in your household participated in any volunteer activities?	Yes	No	Don't Know

10. How important do you think health and social services are to the well-being and quality of life in Tarrant County?

- (1) Extremely Important (2) Very Important (3) Important (4) Not Important (9) Don't Know

11. If health and social services were no longer funded, do you think the well-being and quality of life in Tarrant County would decline, stay the same or improve?

- (1) Decline (2) Stay the Same (3) Improve (9) Don't Know

Transportation Issues

12. Is public transportation available in your neighborhood? Yes No Don't Know

13. Do you or members of your household have trouble getting transportation to go to: (circle your response)

A. Work (or look for a job)	Yes	No	Don't Know
B. The grocery store	Yes	No	Don't Know
C. Shopping (other than groceries)	Yes	No	Don't Know
D. A doctor or medical clinic	Yes	No	Don't Know
E. School	Yes	No	Don't Know
F. Social agencies	Yes	No	Don't Know

14. How often do you use public transportation?

___(1) Often ___(2) Sometimes ___(3) Rarely ___(4) Never ___(9) Don't Know

14a. What changes in public transportation would encourage you to use it or use it more often in the future? (check all that apply)

___(1) Stops/stations closer to home or work ___(4) Other: _____
 ___(2) Buses or trains that run more frequently ___(5) Nothing will get me to use public transportation
 ___(3) More services for the disabled

14b. Where do you (or would you) go most often using public transportation? (check ONE)

___(1) Work or school ___(4) Social service appointments
 ___(2) Grocery store/other shopping ___(5) Recreation or social activities
 ___(3) Medical appointments ___(6) Other: _____

15. Employment and Job Skills (circle your responses)

A. Have you been employed continuously for the last two years?	Yes	No	Don't Know
B. In the past year, has any adult in your household been out of work & looking for a job?	Yes	No	Don't Know
C. Does your household have a <u>teenager</u> who has had a difficult time finding employment during the past year?	Yes	No	Don't Know
D. Does your household have an adult over age 55 who has had a difficult time finding employment during the past year?	Yes	No	Don't Know
E. Does your household have <u>anyone with disabilities</u> who has had a difficult time finding employment during the past year?	Yes	No	Don't Know
F. Does your household have <u>anyone with a prison record</u> who has had a difficult time finding employment during the past year?	Yes	No	Don't Know
G. Does your household have an adult past retirement age who wants or needs to work?	Yes	No	Don't Know
H. Have any members of your household had a difficult time finding employment during the past year due to a lack of skills or training?	Yes	No	Don't Know
I. Do any adult members of your household need training in basic reading skills?	Yes	No	Don't Know
J. Do any adult members of your household need training to improve their English?	Yes	No	Don't Know

Dental Care

16. In the past year, was there a time when anyone in your household

needed dental care but did not get it? Yes No Don't Know

16a. If YES to Q#16: What were the primary reasons this person was unable to get the dental help needed in this situation? (check all that apply)

___(01) It cost too much ___(08) No transportation
 ___(02) Not covered by insurance ___(09) Could not get off work
 ___(03) Managed care hassles ___(10) Couldn't find doctor who accepts Medicaid/CHIP
 ___(04) No one to take care of children ___(11) Wait too long at dentist's office/clinic
 ___(05) Could not get an appointment ___(12) Couldn't find dentist who speaks my language
 ___(06) Don't know good dentist/clinic ___(13) Other, specify: _____
 ___(07) Too nervous or afraid

16b. **If YES to Q#16:** Would you say that the dental situation that this person could not get care for was serious, somewhat serious, or not serious at all?

___(1) Serious ___(2) Somewhat serious ___(3) Not serious at all ___(9) Don't Know

17. **How often do your children see a dentist?**

___(1) Every 6 months ___(3) Only when there is a problem ___(9) Don't Know/NA
 (2) Every year (4) Never

18. **Has your school-aged child missed school because of a dental problem/dental pain?**

___(1) Yes ___(2) No ___(9) Don't Know/Not Applicable

19. Family Conflicts (circle your responses)				
Answer the following ONLY if you are living with a spouse or adult partner; otherwise go to Q#20				
A.	Would you say disagreements with your spouse or partner cause no problems in your relationship, a minor problem, or a major problem?	No Problem	Minor Problem	Major Problem
B.	During the past year, when you and your partner disagreed over something, was someone ever physically threatened?	Yes	No	Don't Know
C.	During the past year, when you and your partner disagreed over something, was someone ever pushed, grabbed or shoved? If YES to 19c: were any children present during any of these instances?	Yes	No	Don't Know
		Yes	No	Don't Know
D.	In the past year, has anyone in your family missed work or school as a result of family violence?	Yes	No	Don't Know

20. Caregiving (circle your responses)				
A.	Are you or another member of your household the full-time caregiver and/or legal guardian for a person who is older than 65?	Yes	No	Don't Know
B.	Are you or another member of your household the full-time caregiver and/or legal guardian for a person who is younger than 65 but mentally or physically impaired? If YES to #20a or #20b, Answer C-E below, otherwise go to Q#21 (below)	Yes	No	Don't Know
C.	Do any members of your household sometimes need help with caregiving duties?	Yes	No	Don't Know
D.	Do any members of your household receive help with caregiving duties?	Yes	No	Don't Know
E.	Do you or another adult in your household pay for caregiving services?	Yes	No	Don't Know
F.	If YES to 20e: How much? _____ per hour/week/month/year			

21. Older Adults (circle your responses)				
Answer the following ONLY if a person age 65 or older lives in your household; otherwise go to Q#22.				
A.	Do any adults age 65 or older in your household need help with daily activities such as preparing meals, taking medication or shopping?	Yes	No	Don't Know
B.	Do any adults age 65 or older in your household receive help with daily activities such as preparing meals, taking medication or shopping?	Yes	No	Don't Know
C.	Do any adults age 65 or older in your household need adult daycare services?	Yes	No	Don't Know
D.	Do any adults age 65 or older in your household use adult daycare services?	Yes	No	Don't Know
E.	Do any adults age 65 or older in your household need special arrangements for transportation, like a special van? If YES to 21e: does your household use MITS (Fort Worth Transportation Authority's Mobility Impaired Transportation Service)?	Yes	No	Don't Know
		Yes	No	Don't Know
F.	Does your household regularly have meals delivered to your home for someone age 65 or older?	Yes	No	Don't Know
G.	Can your household afford to make home repairs as needed for older adults in your home?	Yes	No	Don't Know

22. Parenting (circle your responses)
 Answer the following **ONLY** if you have primary responsibility for raising a child or children age 6-18.
 Otherwise, **skip to Q#24**.

A.	Are you able to resolve difficulties or arguments with your children on your own?	Yes	No	Don't Know
B.	Have you attended parent-teacher conferences to discuss your child's performance and behavior at school during the past year?	Yes	No	Don't Know
C.	Is a grandparent or are grandparents currently responsible for most of the basic needs of any grandchild(ren) under the age of 18 who live(s) in this house or apartment?	Yes	No	Don't Know
D.	Do your children participate in an organized physical education program?	Yes	No	Don't Know
E.	Do your children need out-of-school programs? (<i>after school or during the summer</i>)	Yes	No	Don't Know
F.	During the last month did any of your children take care of themselves or stay alone with their brother or sister who is under 13 years old on a regular basis even for a small amount of time?	Yes	No	NA/ Don't Know
G.	Are your children home schooled?	Yes	No	Don't Know
H.	Do any of your children need special education of any kind?	Yes	No	Don't Know

23. Youth Problems Answer the following **ONLY** if you have primary responsibility for raising a child or children age 6-18.
 Otherwise, **skip to Q#24**.
 (circle the number that corresponds to your response)

Please indicate whether the following are a MAJOR PROBLEM, MINOR PROBLEM, or NOT A PROBLEM for your children:		Major Problem	Minor Problem	Not a Problem	Don't Know
A.	Being harassed or bullied by other children	4	3	2	1
B.	Involved with a gang	4	3	2	1
C.	Being threatened or hurt by gang members	4	3	2	1
D.	Being threatened or hurt by other non-family members	4	3	2	1
E.	Expressing aggressive or angry behavior toward others	4	3	2	1
F.	Failing at school	4	3	2	1
G.	Being overweight	4	3	2	1
H.	Having serious emotional problems	4	3	2	1
I.	Running away from home overnight or longer	4	3	2	1
J.	Trouble with the law	4	3	2	1
K.	Drinking alcohol	4	3	2	1
L.	Teenage pregnancy	4	3	2	1
M.	Drug use	4	3	2	1
N.	Sexual advances from other children	4	3	2	1

24-30. Childcare Issues
 Answer Questions 24-30 **ONLY** if you have primary responsibility for raising a child or children under age 6. Otherwise, **skip to Q#31 (DEMOGRAPHICS)** on the next page.

- 24. Do you use any of the following to care for your children?** (check all that apply)
- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> (1) Licensed daycare center | <input type="checkbox"/> (5) Friend or relative |
| <input type="checkbox"/> (2) Day care run from someone's home | <input type="checkbox"/> (6) Babysitter in your home |
| <input type="checkbox"/> (3) Head Start program | <input type="checkbox"/> (7) Babysitter outside your home |
| <input type="checkbox"/> (4) Preschool | <input type="checkbox"/> (8) Parent as the full-time caregiver |

25. Without concern for price, what are the two most important factors to you in defining quality childcare? (check up to 2 items)

- (1) Quality of daycare equipment
- (2) Low caregiver-to-child ratios
- (3) Active parental involvement
- (4) State accreditation of center or facility
- (5) Price of care
- (6) Safe and healthy environment
- (7) Location close to home
- (8) Training of caregivers
- (9) Other: _____

26. Please indicate whether the following are a MAJOR PROBLEM, MINOR PROBLEM, or NOT A PROBLEM for your household: (check the corresponding number)

	Major Problem	Minor Problem	Not a Problem	Don't Know
A. Finding quality child care	4	3	2	1
B. Finding child care for children with special needs	4	3	2	1
C. Finding affordable child care	4	3	2	1
D. Finding child care during the hours you need it	4	3	2	1
E. Finding child care convenient to your home or work	4	3	2	1

27. At what age do you think it is important to begin reading to a child? (check one)

- (1) Before birth
- (2) Birth
- (3) 6 months old
- (4) 1 year old
- (5) 18 months old
- (6) 2 years old
- (7) more than 2 years old
- (8) Other: _____

28. In a typical week, how much time do you spend reading with your child? _____ hours per week

29. How much do you pay for all of your children's childcare arrangements and programs used in a typical month?

Approximately \$_____ per month

30. Do you get any assistance in paying for your childcare from public service agencies, employers, family or friends? (check all that apply)

- (1) Public service agency (including government)
- (2) Nonprofit agency
- (3) Employer
- (4) Family/Friends
- (5) Other: _____

DEMOGRAPHICS: Please provide the following information to help us better understand the needs of people in our community. ALL INFORMATION WILL BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL.

31. How many years have you lived in Tarrant County? _____ years

32. How many years have you lived at your current address? _____ years

33. Your gender: (1) Male (2) Female

34. What is your age? _____ years

35. Do you own or rent your home? (1) Own (2) Rent (3) Don't know/NA

36. Do you live in subsidized housing? (1) Yes (2) No

37. What is your monthly rent payment or house payment? About \$ _____ per month

37a. If you DO NOT have a monthly payment, why not?

- (1) Own home, don't have a payment
- (2) Live in a rent free situation
- (3) Other

38. What is your monthly cost for all utilities not including a phone bill? about \$ _____ per month

39. **Are you presently...**
 (1) Employed full-time (5) Student
 (2) Employed part-time (6) Homemaker
 (3) Unemployed – seeking work (7) Disabled or too ill to work
 (4) Retired
40. **What language is spoken most often in your home?**
 (1) English (2) Spanish (3) Vietnamese (4) Other: _____
41. **Do you have a working computer at your home?**
 (1) Yes – **If YES: Do you have Internet access on your home computer?** YES NO
 (2) No
42. **How many years of education have you completed? (check the highest level)**
 (1) Less than high school (4) Technical school certification
 (2) High school graduate/GED (5) College graduate or more
 (3) Some college/technical school
43. **Which of the following best describes your race/ethnicity? (check all that apply)**
 (1) Asian/Pacific Islander (4) Black/African American
 (2) White (5) Other: _____
 (3) American Indian/Eskimo
44. **Are you or any other members of your household of Hispanic, Latino, or other Spanish ancestry?** (1) Yes (2) No
45. **Which of the following best describes you:**
 (1) Married (3) Widowed (5) Divorced
 (2) Separated (4) Living w/partner (6) Never married
46. **How many members of your household (counting yourself), are?**
Under age 6 _____ Ages 19-24 _____ Ages 45-54 _____ Age 75+ _____
Ages 6-12 _____ Ages 25-34 _____ Ages 55-64 _____
Ages 13-18 _____ Ages 35-44 _____ Ages 65-74 _____
47. **Into which of the following ranges does your total annual household income fall?**
 (1) Under \$10,000 (4) \$30,000 - \$39,999 (6) \$50,000 - \$74,999
 (2) \$10,000 - \$19,999 (5) \$40,000 - \$49,999 (7) Over \$75,000
 (3) \$20,000 - \$29,999
48. **Have you or anyone in your household experienced a major problem in the past year that was not included in this survey? Yes No Don't Know**
48a. **If YES, what was that problem?** _____

Your responses will remain **Completely Confidential**. The address information printed on this survey will **ONLY** be used to help identify which areas of the County need new or expanded services.

Your United Way Thanks You.

Please Return Your Completed Survey in the Enclosed, Postage-Paid Envelope, Addressed to:
ETC Institute, 725 W. Frontier Circle, Olathe, KS 66061

APPENDIX B
IRB APPROVAL



THE UNIVERSITY
OF TEXAS
AT ARLINGTON

Office of
Research Administration
Box 19181
202 E. Border St., Suite 201
Arlington, Texas
76019-0181
T 817.272.3723
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<http://www.uta.edu/research>
Expertise at UT Arlington
www.uta.edu/expertise

February 1, 2008

Kim Rich Rice
Debra Woody, Ph.D.
Social Work
Box 19129

TITLE: *The Effects of perceived Racial Discrimination on Interparental Conflict and Child Emotional Adjustment in White, Black and Hispanic Families*

Re: Exempt Approval Letter

IRB No.: 08.353e

The UTA Institutional Review Board (UTA IRB) Chair (or designee) has reviewed the above-referenced study and found that it qualified as exempt from coverage under the federal guidelines for the protection of human subjects as referenced at Title 45--Part 46.101(b)(4). You are therefore authorized to begin the research as of February 1, 2008.

Please be advised that as the principal investigator, you are required to report local adverse (unanticipated) events to this office within 24 hours. In addition, pursuant to Title 45 CFR 46.103(b)(4)(iii), investigators are required to, "promptly report to the IRB any proposed changes in the research activity, and to ensure that such changes in approved research, during the period for which IRB approval has already been given, are **not initiated without IRB review and approval** except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject."

All investigators and key personnel identified in the protocol must have documented *CITI Training* on file with this office. The UTA Office of Research Administration Regulatory Services appreciates your continuing commitment to the protection of human research subjects. Should you have questions or require further assistance, please contact Jan Parker by calling (817) 272-0867.

Yours sincerely,

Patricia Turpin, PhD, RN, CNA, BC
Associate Clinical Professor
UTA IRB Chair

APPENDIX C

APPROVAL TO USE THE
UNITED WAY OF METROPOLITAN TARRANT COUNTY
COMMUNITY NEEDS ASSESSMENT DATA

February 26, 2006

Kim Rice
6735 Meadowcrest Drive
Arlington, TEXAS 76002
February 28, 2006

The Double Advantage
c/o Marlyn Nappier
6387-B Camp Bowie Blvd., m #322
Fort Worth, TEXAS 76116

Dear: Members of the Double Advantage Group:

My name is Kim Rice, a student at the University of Texas at Arlington School of Social Work Ph.D. Program. I have a primary interest in the study of communities with homelessness as an issue of concern, and am interested in doing additional analysis on the data collected and used to develop the United Way Community Assessment Reports. If able to use this data for my dissertation research, I plan to perform additional analysis on the data with specific interests to communities that identified homelessness as a problem. Any information resulting from the inquiry will be forwarded to your agency for any use you deem beneficial. As a resident of Tarrant County and one with experience in working with the homeless population, I would be very grateful to perform additional analysis on the data for additional information that may be obtained.

If you have any questions, please feel free to reach me at: (817) 557-1510 or (214) 533-6242. Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Kim Rich-Rice, LMSW
School of Social Work,
University of Texas at Arlington

From: "Chris Tatham" <ctatham@etcinstitute.com>
To: "Kim Rice" <psalm124@sbcglobal.net>
Subject: RE: [1] Resend-United Way Survey
Date: Wed, 28 Jun 2006 09:57:29 -0500

Kim,

The codebook for version 2 along with a copy of the survey instrument are attached. I have also provided an Excel file that contains the data for Version 2 (Version B) only.

Responses to your other questions are provided below. The database is a large file, so please confirm receipt and let me know if you need anything else.

Chris Tatham
913-829-1215

From: Marilyn Nappier [mailto:mnappier@thedoubleadvantage.com]

Sent: Friday, March 17, 2006 3:08 PM

To: 'Rich-Rice, Kim'

Subject: UW Assessment data

Kim:

I got all of the obstacles cleared for the United Way Assessment data. I'm attaching the household survey results in two Excel files (we had two survey versions). They are large files so I would appreciate it if you let me know if they come through the email system okay.

Please note that we are NOT providing the weighted database since those data were only used for the overall results. We want to prevent someone for accidentally using the weighted database for subanalysis.

Thanks for being so patient.

Let us know what your research reveals. Good luck.

mrn

Marilyn Nappier, MSSW
The Double Advantage, LLC
P.O. Box 101493
Fort Worth, TEXAS 76185-1493
Phone: 817.271.4121
Fax: 1-866-651-6445
mnappier@thedoubleadvantage.com

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