

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

UMI

A Bell & Howell Information Company
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor MI 48106-1346 USA
313/761-4700 800/521-0600

NOTE TO USERS

The original manuscript received by UMI contains pages with slanted print. Pages were microfilmed as received.

This reproduction is the best copy available

UMI

**Parental stress, personal authority,
and family environment of Puerto Rican women.**

by

Eduvigis Cruz Arrieta

A Dissertation,
submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Psychology,
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy,

The City University of New York.

1998

UMI Number: 9830696

Copyright 1998 by
Cruz Arrieta, Eduvigis

All rights reserved.

UMI Microform 9830696
Copyright 1998, by UMI Company. All rights reserved.

This microform edition is protected against unauthorized
copying under Title 17, United States Code.


UMI
300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, MI 48103

©1998
Eduvigis Cruz Arrieta
All Rights Reserved

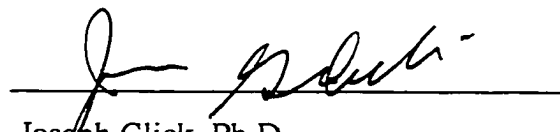
Approval Page

This manuscript has been read and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in Psychology in satisfaction of the Dissertation requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

February 26, 1998
date


Vera S. Paster, Ph.D.
Chair of Examining Committee

Feb 26 1998
date


Joseph Glick, Ph.D.
Executive Officer

William King, Ph.D.

Carmen Inoa Vázquez, Ph.D.

Anderson J. Franklin, Ph.D.

Ilene Cohen, Ph.D.

Supervisory Committee

THE CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

Abstract

Parental stress, personal authority, and family environment of Puerto Rican women.

by

Eduvigis Cruz Arrieta

Adviser: Vera S. Paster

The experience of parental stress (stress related to maternal characteristics such as sense of competence, isolation, and perceived restrictions imposed by the role of mother, its relation to the degree of personal authority within the families of origin --being connected and a part of the family of origin while acting from a differentiated position within it and the discrepancies in perception of the families of procreation vs. the families of origin of 126 Mainland and Island-born Puerto Rican women was examined. The participants' perceptions of three specific family characteristics: cohesion (the degree of commitment, help, and support family members provide for each other); conflict (the amount of openly expressed anger, aggression, and conflict among members); and expressiveness (the extent to which family members are encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly) were compared.

It was hypothesized that: a) parental stress was related to family environment and personal authority; b) there would be a discrepancy between women's perception of their family of origin and of procreation with respect to conflict, cohesion and expressiveness; and c) that parental stress would be related to this discrepancy. Subscales from three self-report measures (*Family Environment Scale*, *Parenting Stress Index*, and *Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire*) were used. The data obtained from the answers to 155 items were analyzed using correlational and multivariate analyses. Statistically-significant differences between the characteristics of the participants' families of origin and families of procreation were found, but no relation between these and parental stress could be established. Conflict in the family of procreation correlated moderately with parental stress. Personal authority was found to be a significant, moderate predictor of parental stress with the latter decreasing as personal authority increased. When considered together, the level of conflict in the family of procreation and the degree of personal authority were strong, significant predictors of parental stress. A trend toward less stress was evident when more social support was reported by the participants.

Acknowledgments

I must thank:

The following institutions for providing financial support at different stages of my doctoral studies without which I would not have completed this project: The City University Graduate School and University Center and the Minority Access to Graduate Networking (MAGNET) programs through the Office of Equal Educational Opportunities (under the direction of Dean Harrison); the City University of New York/University of Puerto Rico Academic Exchange Program under the direction of Antonio Lauria-Pericelli and most recently, Ramón Bosque-Pérez; the National Hispanic Scholarship Fund; and the National Institute of Mental Health.

The Office of the Puerto Rico Federal Affairs Administration and Hunter College's Centro de Estudios Puertorriqueños for facilitating access to resources.

Northside Center for Child Development for its flexibility as an employer and the 1199 National Health and Human Service Employees Union for encouraging and supporting my professional development as one of their members. Manhattan Country School's Dr. Michèlle Solá and the rest of the community for their enthusiasm and encouragement.

Those who guided my Spanish-encoded experiences and theoretical hunches, particularly my dissertation committee: Dr. Vera S. Paster, Dr. William King, and Dr. Carmen Vázquez. Dr. Anderson J. Franklin and Dr. Ilene Cohen for answering my calls when I desperately needed them.

Dr. Jill Harkavy-Friedman for her invaluable statistical assistance and dissertation "therapy" which greeted with extreme enthusiasm even the smallest of progress.

Dr. RoseMarie Pérez-Foster, Dr. Lillian Fernández, and Dr. Paul Wachtel for their kind words and "apoyo moral".

All the women who participated, asked questions, offer opinions, and shared life stories.

And lastly, my husband Geoffrey Armes for "understanding the culture" and sticking with it for eight years while challenging the traditional notions of what it means to be a man.

Table of Contents

	Page
Abstract	<i>iv</i>
Acknowledgements	<i>v</i>
List of Tables	<i>ix</i>
Chapter I: Introduction	1
Chapter II: Literature Review	5
<i>Women, roles, and family culture</i>	5
<i>Puerto Rican women and family roles</i>	8
<i>Self-in-Relation Theory</i>	14
<i>The motherhood myth</i>	17
<i>The study of families</i>	19
<i>Family Research</i>	20
<i>Personal authority</i>	22
<i>Parental stress</i>	24
Definition of terms	29
<i>Parental Stress</i>	29
<i>Personal Authority</i>	29
<i>Family Environment</i>	29
Hypotheses	30
Chapter III: Methodology	32
Participants	32
Instruments	33
<i>Parenting Stress Index</i>	33
<i>Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire</i>	37
<i>Family Environment Scale</i>	39
<i>Hollingshead Four Factor Index of Social Status</i>	42

	Page
Procedures	45
<i>Administration of instruments</i>	46
Design and data analysis	47
Chapter IV: Results	48
Characteristics of the participants	48
Reliability	54
Analyses	58
<i>Demographic Information</i>	58
<i>Hypothesis I</i>	59
<i>Hypothesis II</i>	60
<i>Additional findings</i>	60
Chapter V: Discussion	62
<i>Stress, family environment and personal authority</i>	65
<i>Limitations of the study</i>	70
Summary and conclusions	71
Appendixes	74
A: Consent Forms	74
B: Participant Information Forms/ Hollingshead Four-Factor Index	79
C: Family Environment Scale Subscales: English & Spanish Versions	86
D: Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire Subscales: English/Spanish Versions Author's permission for reproduction and translation	95
E: Parenting Stress Index Parental domain:English & Spanish Versions Author's permission for translation	107 108

	Page
F: Participant Recruitment Flyers	120
G: Institutional Review Boards Authorizations	122
H: Summary of demographics for PR-resident participants	129
I: Bargraphs of employment type and occupational categories	133
J: Author's note	136
References	137

List of Tables

Tables	Page
1. Composition of sample with respect to age, birthplace, country of residence and ethnic self-identification.	50
2. Education: Country, Level; and Language	51
3. Employment, household composition, and contact with mother	52
4. Income and social position	53
5. Measurements and reliability coefficients	56
6. Mean scores for Mainland U.S.A. and Puerto Rico subgroups of participants	57
7. Pearson Correlations Matrix	59
8. Multiple regression analysis of parental stress, personal authority and family environment characteristics.	61
9. Participants' type of employment	133
10. Participants' occupational categories	134

**Parental Stress, personal authority, and family environment of
Puerto Rican women.**

It is well documented that Hispanics¹ are the most rapidly growing minority population in the United States (Gil & Vázquez, 1996). According to the U.S. census figures for 1980, there were 14.6 million Latino persons; by 1990 that number had increased by 53% (Barringer, 1993) comprising nine percent (9%) of the general U.S. population. In July 1997, there were an estimated 29.2 million Hispanics in the United States, comprising 10.9 percent of the total population. The Latino population has grown 29 percent in the last seven years, while the non-Hispanic White population has increased three percent. These totals do not include persons living in Puerto Rico, whose estimated population on July 1, 1996 was 3.8 million (Bureau of the Current Population Survey 1997).

Because most of the Hispanic people are “younger, less educated, poorer, and more likely to live in inner-city neighborhoods than the general population” (Rogler, Malgady, Constantino & Blumenthal, 1987, p. 565), they are under general stress, and therefore, in need of psychological services. A report by the Citizens Committee for Children of New York (Fall 1990) confirmed the need for services. It estimated that a quarter of a million New York City children age 0-19 needed mental health services and fewer than one-fifth (50,000) actually receive them. About 70% of the children served in the mental health system were Asian, Black, Hispanic, or Native American.

In light of these numbers, the need for assisting families in performing their function to the best of their capacities is obvious-- particularly the necessity of helping the women in the family, as they carry most of the responsibility for caring for the young, as

¹ “Hispanic” as an ethnic label is the product of a decision by the Office of Management and Budget in 1978 to operationalize the label as “a person of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race” (Federal Register, 1978, p. 19269, in Marín and Marín-Vanoss, 1991, p. 20). In this study, we used Latino/Latina interchangeably for the same population groups and where possible, the specific group was named.

well as participating in other facets of public life (Forgays & Forgays, 1993; Brody, 1997).

In the late 1970's and early '80's, information regarding Puerto Rican families was limited to that obtained from studies lacking rigorous methodological procedures, large samples and randomization, clearly operationalized concepts, and hypotheses that reflected cultural issues (Bird & Canino 1982; Rogler, 1978; Rosado, 1980).

It is almost two decades since Rosado (1980) stated that "professional and ethical standards are violated when there is a failure to formulate....problems....within their sociocultural milieu" (p. 223). He expressed the necessity of being open to alternate forms of treatment that are more culturally adequate and reminded us of the oppressive nature of culture and class-bound therapeutic interventions. Guarnaccia, Good and Kleinman (1990) pointed out that the mental health status of Puerto Ricans in New York City is "still poorly understood" after almost 40 years of research.

There is evidence of the increase in the amount of research of psychological services to ethnic minority populations. Nevertheless, much remains to be done in terms of creating a cohesive framework to consider how different values, styles of interaction, and cultural expectations shape the way in which people-in-context live and then use this knowledge to improve the services provided to these groups (American Psychological Association's Board of Ethnic Minority Affairs, 1987; APA's Society for the Psychological Study of Ethnic Minority Issues, 1986).

The quality of psychological services available to ethnic minority peoples needs to be enhanced through clinical research directed to describe their needs and its translation into specific preventive strategies, adequate treatments, and modes of intervention. Of particular interest is the identification of elements that affect the efficacy of therapeutic interventions such as the roles of family members, community structures, hierarchies, values, and beliefs within the client's culture. Understanding the interaction of these factors in influencing people's behavior and needs is crucial.

Cultural practices such as sharing childrearing responsibilities with one's parents, or sending children to live with relatives --as in the African-American, Dominican, and Puerto Rican communities, -- create circumstances in which adults have to negotiate their different perspectives on many aspects of family life. Social problems such as unemployment, drug addiction, crime and their health and mental sequelae, interfere with the ability of mothers of all ages to perform their mothering role, requiring that grandmothers assume full responsibility for their grandchildren. Clinical experience provides numerous examples of how cultural role expectations about child rearing practices and parenting, shared by mothers of children who are referred for psychological treatment, are frequently at odds with those held by the mother's family of origin. Sometimes, a woman faces a situation that requires an action that may run counter to the behavior expected of her as a "good daughter". For example, because of the nature of the woman's work or geographical distance, her child stays with the grandmother during weekdays. The grandmother allows the child to miss school frequently, thus the woman has to insist that her child does not stay overnight at the grandmother's house, triggering complaints from the grandmother and her feelings of being "a bad daughter." The mother of the child may then fail to take action and/or sabotages her attempts at raising her children according to her "own style," in order to preserve her socially-prescribed role as a good daughter.

Miller (1986) stated that there were many other realms in which the assignment to women of the role of giver leads to problems. As wives, mothers, daughters, lovers, or workers, she said, women often feel that other people demand too much of them; and they resent it. Frequently, they cannot allow themselves to admit that they feel angry about these excess pressures. They have come to believe that they should want to respond at all times and in all ways. Consequently, they cannot let themselves limit these demands or even openly stop them. The limitations to do this, to resist control of their own lives in even ordinary ways, can result in many psychological complications or even somatic symptoms.

Such symptoms are often indirect ways of saying that they cannot give anymore, even though they feel that they are not allowed to stop.

Jordan, Surrey, and Kaplan (1991) pointed out that in clinical practice it is common to encounter women who are unable to experience the sense of self necessary for self-determined motivation outside the context of a primary dyadic relationship. These women may become anxious and severely depressed at the real or perceived loss of an important relationship. Puerto Rican women who are socialized to assume a traditional role in which they are expected to be submissive as an expression of their respect for their parents, but who hold other roles in which they are expected to be assertive, confront multiple instances that require their negotiating conflicting demands. In households shared by women and their mothers due to economic/social factors, this daughter/mother role negotiation occurs daily; and in some families, the women may experience an exaggerated lack of conflict between these two roles. For other women, geographical distance --some may say even death of their mothers--does not eliminate their "presence" in their daily lives. The study of Latina women in the roles of wife, mother, and daughter has been criticized as a carry-over stereotype from past conceptualizations of Latina women as mostly traditional. We believe that cultural dictates are an intrinsic part of women's self-definition even in the face of their ever-evolving nature.

Women's ability to order and direct their own thoughts and opinions regardless of social pressures and to establish clear boundaries to the self at will, in other words, their personal authority (Bray, Williamson, and Malone, 1984), may be what protects them from negative experiences in their mothering role. These negative self-perceptions may be triggered by real or perceived criticisms from their support network.

In summary, this investigation had the objective of increasing the understanding of Puerto Rican women in three-generational families by exploring if their perceptions of themselves as mothers and daughters were related to their family environment and to their

degree of personal authority. It attempted to look at whether women who had not achieved personal authority, and who perceived their current family of procreation as significantly different from their family of origin, experienced less satisfaction with their own maternal role, and thus reported higher levels of parental stress.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Women, roles, and family culture

The National Institute of Mental Health has identified five priority areas for the study of women's mental health needs: diagnosis and treatment of mental disorders, issues for older women, violence against women, and the effects of poverty and multiplicity of roles (Russo, 1990). The concept of role has been defined as "an individual function or part in a group or institution; the function or behavior *expected* (italics added) of an individual or characteristic of him" (Chaplin 1985, p. 403), and as the "function a person performs when occupying a particular position within a particular social context" (Shaw & Costanzo, in Etaugh (1990), p. 40). Research has indicated that multiple roles are associated with competing demands which can lead to role overload and the experience of strain, as measured by reports of somatization, depression, anxiety, obsessive-compulsiveness, discomfort, and hostility and dissatisfaction (McBride, 1990). Factors found to influence role strain are the structure of a person's social network, the person's coping style, the centrality of each role to the self and self-esteem.

The ability to cope with multiple role demands seems related to high income, job satisfaction, not marrying early, and being able to arrange time for family activities. The number of roles a person has may be less important than the effort associated with each of them (Valdez & Gutek, 1990). Pietromonaco, Manis and Frohardt-Lane (1986) studied the potential negative consequences of having multiple roles, using data collected from 500 employed women in a 1981 survey. They included questions concerning self-esteem,

satisfaction with careers, partners, and children; and perceptions of life stresses and pleasures. Higher self-esteem and job satisfaction were associated with holding more roles. However, neither marital nor parental satisfaction was consistently related to the number of roles held. Greenglass, Pantony and Burke (1988) studied the relationships between role conflict, work stress, and social support, as well as the psychological consequences of role conflict. They found role conflict to be higher among women and a greater interdependence between work and family spheres.

Current research provides supports for two competing hypotheses: the “scarcity” (women with competing demands suffer from overload and inter-role conflict because people have a limited amount of energy and time available to them) vs. the “enhancement” one (people gain greater self-esteem and social support from multiple roles and these outweigh the costs) (Clay, 1995). The impact of having multiple roles can be both positive and negative because of the underlying traditional gender role issues (e.g. second shift for women; childrearing tasks; and lack of society’s support of nontraditional arrangements such as father’s equal involvement in family life).

It is known that a large number of Hispanic women and their children live under the poverty level (Marín & Marín-Vanoss, 1991) and that the correlation between poverty and psychological disorders is one of the most well documented (Russo, 1990; Rogler, 1996). According to the Current Population Reports of the Bureau of the Census (1993), Hispanic families were more likely to live below the poverty level than were non-Hispanic families. In 1991, about 27 % of Hispanic families lived below the poverty level. The percentage for non-Hispanic families was 10.2% for that same year. One of every four Hispanic persons was living below the poverty line in 1989. Hispanic people in New York had poverty rates above the national average (30.5% and 25.3% respectively). Those with children under 18 years were more likely to be below the poverty level (33.7%) than Hispanic families without children under that age (9.8%). Hispanic females with no husband present, with

children under 18 years, had the highest poverty rate of all Hispanic groups (60.1%). In 1990, females financially supported 22% of Hispanic families. At each educational level, Hispanic females earned less than males. For example, Hispanic males with a bachelors degree earned \$32,900 dollars compared to about \$27,700 for their female counterparts with the same level of education. On the other hand, in 1992 the unemployment rate for Hispanic people was 11.3%, while that for non-Hispanics was 7.5 percent.

In light of these numbers, it is clear that Hispanic women are at greater risk for developing psychological problems, such as depression, as poverty undermines people's ability to fulfill important social roles (Rogler, 1996). Failures of role performance are the bridge between the experience of poverty and depression since they produce negative social role identification such as "bad mother, spouse or provider" (Belk, 1990). As McBride (1990) stated, "mothers feel responsible for the continuing success and happiness of their children and are often blamed when anything goes wrong in their children's lives" (p. 381).

The interaction between age, gender, marital status, care giving obligations, employment, socioeconomic status, and psychological disorders needs to be studied and understood as it varies with ethnicity (McBride, 1990; Russo, 1990). McBride proposed that theoretical models on the mental health effects of women's multiple roles should aim to explain how mental illness is caused by role conflict and how can it be prevented, limited or changed by specific interventions. These models should also be sensitive to the fit of macro and micro contexts in which women live their lives, e.g. the individual-in-the-family and the family-in-the-community fit. The advantages and disadvantages of multiple roles also require further exploration, preferably using a psychosocial approach to focus on relevant processes (McBride (1988) cited in Russo, 1990).

We would like to point out that Hispanic and/or Puerto Rican women are sometimes discussed in the research literature as if they constituted a homogeneous group. It is

important to be mindful of the intra- and inter-group heterogeneity of Hispanic people in general, and Puerto Rican women in particular, due to factors such as age, class, race, ethnic identity, and levels of education and acculturation (Marín & Marín-Vanoss, 1991). To the extent relevant to this study, we will attempt to distinguish amongst them.

Puerto Rican women and family roles

People of Puerto Rican origin constitute the second largest group of Latinos in the USA, with over 2.7 million counted in the 1990 census. According to the 1994 Current Population Survey of the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Puerto Ricans account for 10.4% of the U.S. Latino population. For Puerto Rican households with children under 18 years of age, the median family income is \$18,800 dollars, 48% live in poverty and 57% in single-parent households (IPR Datanote, 1996).

The average Puerto Rican household in the U.S. had an income of \$27,917 dollars in 1993; but their real median household income was \$24,906 dollars in 1996. Fifty-nine (59%) percent of those 25 years of age or older had a high school diploma or more, while ten (10%) percent had a bachelor's degree or more. Half of those surveyed reported being married (52%) and 44% described themselves as single female householders.

The poverty rate for Puerto Ricans is calculated at 39 percent. They comprise 2.7% of total amount of people living in poverty and 13% of the Latino poor (IPR Datanote, 1994). This group's unemployment rate is the highest when compared to non-Latino Blacks, and non-Latino Whites (14%, 13%, and 6% respectively). Puerto Ricans on the island had a poverty rate of 55% and their unemployment rate is 20%, both higher than those for the weakest states (Mississippi: 20% poverty rate; and Louisiana: 9% unemployment rate).

Comas-Diaz (1982) discussed how the situation for Puerto Rican women is complicated by the particularities of Puerto Ricans as an ethnic/racial group. For example, their cultural homogeneity, their racial integration, and their "revolving-door migration"

patterns (Rodriguez, 1989). Performing multiple roles also means exposure to multiple forms of discrimination and to the pressures of acculturation, as well as a higher degree of complexity of cultural expectations in their role as women, both coming from the North American culture and the Puerto Rican one. Regarding the multiple forms of discrimination, Comas-Diaz pointed out how Puerto Rican women are discriminated against based on their ethnicity, gender, class, race, and their culturally prescribed sex-role behaviors and how this leads to feelings of powerlessness.

On the subject of traditional sex-role behaviors, Comas-Diaz (1982) explained that these are clearly defined and that the process of socialization fosters a double sexual morality, encapsulated in the terms *machismo*² and *marianismo*. *Marianismo* is a term based on the cult of the Virgin Mary, which considers women as morally and spiritually superior to men. It was first used by Steven in 1973 and discussed thoroughly by S. Romero, Ramos-McKay, Comas-Diaz, and L. Romero (Gil & Vázquez, 1996). It also supposes women's capacity to endure suffering inflicted by men and reinforces the importance of being a self-sacrificing mother for the children's well being. Also of great importance to understand the complexity of Puerto Rican women's cultural role expectations is the concept of *hembrismo*. Comas-Diaz (1982) explained that it literally means femaleness, and traced its historical roots both in the matriarchal society of the aborigines in Puerto Rico, as well as in the history of African slavery and the dual oppression (due to gender and race) endured by Black women:

The hembrismo concept bears two connotations. First, the hembrista norm can pressure the woman to simultaneously fulfill all cultural expectations in a multiplicity of roles. This is reflected in the woman who attempts to be a dedicated wife, *self-sacrificing* mother, *obedient daughter*,³ full-time worker, and a

² Marin and Marin-Vanoos(1991) state that "the actual validity or prevalence of the stereotypic machismo is unknown" and point out the existing research that seems to indicate that male dominance in marital decision making is absent among Hispanic couples (p.17).

³ Italics by this author.

committed member of the mainland Puerto Rican community. This is a potentially stressful situation, especially if two or more roles are in conflict. However, *hembrismo* can also be seen as the moving force behind the psychological stamina of . . .(women). It can motivate the woman to achieve despite the cultural and sociopolitical barriers that the Puerto Rican reality might impose on her. The Puerto Rican woman, for example, has been described as “typically persevering, achieving, ambitious, and possessed of strong determination“ (Christensen, 1975). Such a description may, perhaps, reflect the power of *hembrismo* within the culture (p. 4).

One way in which *hembrismo* differs from women’s roles in general is in its connection with *marianismo*, and the potential for experiencing intense feelings of guilt when an important role in the woman’s life is not fulfilled. Gil and Vázquez (1996) wrote about specific ways of identifying positive aspects of the Latino culture as part of a self-empowering process that attempts to integrate the messages of the traditional culture and the demands of the modern world. Their focus is on “reparation and healing“ (Comas-Diaz, 1996) albeit from a middle-class, traditional point of view that more radical writers would question.

Comas-Diaz (1982, 1989) emphasized the need to evaluate if there is a conflict in role expectations, cultural behaviors and values --or a combination of these-- when treating Puerto Rican women for psychological problems. She presented clinical examples of how, when conflict between the roles is present-- that is, when a person occupies several positions which have incompatible demands (Beaux & Wrightsmend (1984) cited in Etaugh, 1990)-- there is a tendency for women to choose the role of mother above all others. We believe that to the extent to which a woman is unable to make this choice without feeling she is compromising her performance of other roles, specifically that of daughter, she will experience role conflict and stress. In some instances, the inability to

choose among these two important roles has been explained as a manifestation of the woman's underdeveloped sense of self, lack of individuation, and/or enmeshment in their families. The developmental concept of personal authority, to be discussed later, could be a mediating factor in this situation.

The value of familialism (or familism; *familismo* in Spanish) is crucial for understanding the role of significant others in the lives of Puerto Rican women. Marín and Marín-Vanoos (1991) reported a number of studies that support the notion of familialism as "one of the most important culture-specific values of Hispanic people" (p. 13). Inclán and Hernández (1992) described it as a core component of Hispanic identity. They defined it as:

a cultural value that involves individuals' strong identifications with and attachment to their nuclear and extended families, and strong feelings of loyalty, reciprocity, and solidarity among members of the same family (Triandis, Marín, Betancourt, Lisansky, & Chang, 1982). This value appears to help protect individuals against physical and emotional stress (Cohen, 1979; Grebler, Moore, & Guzman, 1970) by providing natural support systems (Cohen, 1979; Mannino & Shore, 1976; Valle & Martinez, 1980) (p. 13).

Puerto Ricans value the family's unity, welfare, and honor. Visits are frequent even if family members are not living in the same household and family ties and relationships are intense. (Mizio, 1974). Separations are cause for extreme grief, and reunions are cause for extreme joy. The emphasis is on the group rather than on the individual. There is a sense of family commitment, obligation, and responsibility. The family guarantees protection and caretaking for life as long as the person stays in the system. Leaving the system implies taking a grave risk (Papajohn & Spiegel, 1975). The focus is on the extended family system rather than the nuclear (García-Preto, 1982).

Familism consists of three types of value orientations. The first is described as the perceived obligation to provide support, both emotional and material, to members of the

extended family. The second, as the reliance on relatives for help and support; and the third, as the perception of relatives as behavioral and attitudinal referents (Marín & Marín-Vanoss, 1991). These expectations about family members caring for each other take special importance in old age. Mostly, sons help out financially, daughters by doing actual care giving. Some daughters take their mothers or mothers-in-law into their homes when they become widows; older women help out in the home, allowing daughters to go to school and/or work (McGoldrick, García-Preto, Moore Hines, & Lee, 1989).

These aspects are believed to remain significant regardless of people's generational histories and/or the number of years individuals have lived in the United States. "... the sacredness of motherhood and the important role of children, appear to remain relatively unchanged, despite increased acculturation" (Rosario, 1982, p. 13). This seems to explain the evidence that for Puerto Ricans, the family is a dominant institution, which extends beyond the boundaries of the nuclear family and includes the extended families of both parents as well as fictive kin (close family friends who are given the status of relatives) (Bernal & Flores-Ortiz, 1982; Canino, Early, & Rogler, 1980; Inclán & Hernández, 1992).

Hispanic women are traditionally expected to care for the home and children and to keep the family together, if necessary, sacrificing self in pursuit of this goal. This sacrificial role is, therefore, deeply admired. When a mother puts her children's welfare above everything else and protects them at all costs, she is positively reinforced for doing so. There is a feeling of sisterhood among Hispanic females in their families. They rely on other women within the extended family for support and strength, and for assistance with child rearing and domestic tasks, "since husbands are not expected to share these responsibilities" (McGoldrick et al., pp. 178-179). Women's support of each other facilitates maintaining gender roles within the culture. Without the extended family, women may feel overwhelmed and request their husband's help. This, in turn, can lead to problems between couples who adhere to traditional gender roles. Inclán and Hernández

(1992) noted that, in clinical practice, they frequently meet Puerto Rican patients who express an interest in more egalitarian sex roles and family relationships, but whose affective values remain consistent with the traditional roles. These descriptions can be questioned by Rogler and Santana-Cooney's (1984) observation that parental help in intergenerational Puerto Rican families was a responsibility exercised jointly by the mother and the father. They identified a matriarchal form of intergenerational interactions in which the responsibility for helping was strongly centered upon the mother in the parent generation at the exclusion of the father's help. This is congruent with the descriptions made by McGoldrick, García-Preto, Moore Hines, and Lee (1989); and Inclán and Hernández (1992).

Mothers and daughters have close relationships that are more reciprocal in nature than other relationships within the family; traditional mothers teach daughters how to be respectable mothers and wives. These young women try to emulate their mothers and grandmothers and may feel guilty when they see themselves as failing. In families where teenage pregnancy occurs and young women are not prepared for the emotional and concrete demands of motherhood, their own mothers assume the bulk of the responsibility for childrearing (Hagestad, 1985). "The extended caretaker role is not necessarily assumed because this is their preference, but because children's needs are presumed to be more important than their own" (McGoldrick et al., 1989, p. 190). Young mothers function more like older sisters and their children are likely to develop stronger ties with their grandmothers. This can lead to conflicts about reclaiming the children when they mature or when circumstances demand it. McGoldrick et al. noted that concepts such as "baby-sitting" sometimes are experienced as a cause of discomfort because they are culturally-dissonant.

Latina grandmothers rarely experience an empty nest, remaining as important figures in their grandchildren's lives, providing stability when the parents' circumstances

do not permit them to do so. Within their cultural context, grandmotherhood carries the additional benefit of being a higher power role: they are “two times mother” (“madre dos veces”).

McGoldrick et al. pointed out that Hispanic women seem raised to be dependent on males for protection, but also to be strong and to take care of their (and the men’s) emotional needs. Also, they mentioned how many Hispanic women have always worked in or outside the house to support it (Ortiz, 1996) and what a strong force in politics and academia they have been. Negotiating these multiple responsibilities add more circumstances in which conflict among one or more roles may develop. Particularly if society makes it hard for them to meet the responsibilities attached to each role when their financial circumstances are difficult, and there is no support available (Fuchs-Epstein, cited in Cassidy, 1993). There is also a high incidence of somatic complaints and depression among Hispanic women (Comas-Diaz, 1982; 1989). The relationship between these and the levels of stress experienced by Hispanic women needs to be studied. Despite a recent survey in which 63% of 15,000 working women stated that they are positively stimulated by stress and pressure, and that the more life roles women have, the less depressed they are (Baruch & Barnett, 1993, quoted in Cassidy, 1993), it is not clear if and how the responses of Hispanic women in its sample are represented by these results.

Self-in-Relation Theory

Not enough attention has been given to the values of caring, attachment and interdependence, as well as to the importance of context in the female developmental literature. Latina women’s experiences of growth, change and as “active meaning-makers” of their realities are thus under-emphasized (Margarida-Juliá, 1989; McGoldrick, 1987). McGoldrick (1987) discussed, as Benedeck (1959) did before, that the relevance of children in redefining adult identity has also been neglected. Perhaps because of the importance placed on individualism by the dominant culture, and because the notion of

continuing connections has been relegated to the background.

Jordan, Kaplan, Miller, Stiver and Surrey (1991) criticized traditional models of human development and began to outline the Self-in-Relation theory of women's development. As other authors (Chodorow, 1978; Gilligan, 1982; Miller, 1986), they pointed out the limitations of theories such as Freud's, Erikson's, Mahler's, Kohlberg's, Piaget's, and Kohut's which explain women's development as parallel, equal and/or inferior to men's'. Concepts and values such as self-reliance, independence, autonomy, self-actualization, listening and following one's dream, destiny, and fulfillment, are highly valued within these frameworks. In contrast, the Self-in-Relation theory emphasizes connection as necessary for the development of the self.

Jordan et al. posited that women experience the self in a way that is not addressed by these current psychoanalytic and developmental theories. Surrey (1991) defined self as the organization of a person's experience and construction of reality that informs the purpose and directionality of behavior. She understood the self as relational in nature. This means that it is organized and developed in the context of important relationships throughout the life span. Other lines of self-development (e.g. competence, agency, and initiative) emerge in this context. "It is probable that for women at all life stages, relational needs are primary and that healthy, dynamic relationships are the motivating force that propels psychological growth" (p. 37).

The Self-in-Relation theory is highly relevant when describing the experience of women from cultures where the group, not the individual, is of primary importance, such as in Puerto Rican society. Despite changes in traditional values related to the 99 years of colonial association with the United States, the constant exchange of information between the two countries, and the impact of the sociopolitical climate on second and following generations of Puerto Ricans in the mainland, the importance of the group, the family, and the interdependence amongst its members remains paramount (Cashmore, 1996).

In summary, the preceding section attempted to present some of the socio-cultural factors operating in Puerto Rican women's definition of themselves as members of their families. It is because of these particularities that the possibility for intrafamilial role conflict exists to a higher degree than perhaps in groups where the extended family is of less importance, the focus is on the nuclear family, and on the self-reliance and independence of each member. As in the diaspora of many groups, some Puerto Ricans in the Continental U.S.A. may hold themselves to a more rigid value system than do their peers in the island.

Finally, it is important to note that the above description of traditional Puerto Rican sex-role behavior in regards to the family have been criticized as stereotyped by various researchers (Andrade, 1982; Ayala Santos, 1988; Bird & Canino, 1982; G. Canino, 1982a, 1982b; Crespo, 1991). Puerto Ricans, due to the ever-changing nature of culture, have expanded their definitions of gender roles to include a wider range of acceptable behavior among genders.

Quiñones (1996) questions most Latina women's gender roles studies' emphasis on traditional definitions, that is, that the women have been studied in their roles as wives and mothers. She argues that this reflects a bias in the literature that "conceptualizes latin as mostly "traditional", rigid in their approach towards life, and more driven by the "marianista" standard" (p. 37). Gil and Vázquez (1996) described *la nueva marianista*, the new "marianista" as a concept that integrates both traditional and non-traditional aspects of female roles for Latinas. We concur with the notion that the *marianista* concept prevails in Puerto Rican women's value system and that it extracts a toll on the very basic fact that they cannot live it out.

The next section will outline general ethnographic aspects of the mothering role and will describe Puerto Rican women's roles as nurturers vs. discipline-enforcers.

The motherhood myth

The importance of parenthood as a powerful generator of personal development needs to be emphasized (Benedek, 1959). According to Braverman (1987) mothering is a culturally determined role. Its objectives differ from generation to generation, and to the social and economic realities of the time for a particular group.

There is ethnographic evidence of the varieties of childcare arrangements and the ideologies that justified them. Braverman (1987) cited various examples of cultures where mothering was not the primary function of women, (e.g. 17th century France, colonial America) in part due to the lack of clear-cut divisions between home and work and the existence of an agrarian economy that required that women and children shared the workload with men. At the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, child labor continued to be common, but when more and more men faced the need to seek employment, off the farms and out of their shops in order to provide for their families, child competitors were gradually removed from the labor force.

As the Industrial Revolution moved production away from the home, childcare was among the few functions left. These changes in social and economic systems led to placing the mother at the center of children's care and the home maintenance. The idealization of women and of these roles served as a reinforcement for them to continue assuming these responsibilities. The 20th century, said Braverman (1987), witnessed the transformation of motherhood into a profession for middle-class women. Psychology, medicine, and education experts contributed to psychologize it in the extreme, accounting in this way for the numerous examples of mother blaming in psychological writings. A direct consequence of this process is that women who did not live the myth felt guilty. Guilt can be considered one of the most powerful forms of social control (Debold, Wilson & Malavé, 1993).

Borrás (1989) asserted that Puerto Rican mothers' performances as providers of love and affection within the family are more significant than that of discipline enforcer (p.

202). They are socialized to be allies of their children, intermediaries between them and the father, who exercises the discipline and control. The mothers themselves, as well as the daughters, are expected to remain obedient, submissive, and respectful. Borrás explained that 20th century post-migratory and other changes in family life circumstances led to modifications in child rearing practices which included women's need to carry out the roles of both mother and father under stressful circumstances. Puerto Rican mothers thus experience out-of-role conflict when they are left to enforce discipline. They fear losing their children's affection. One can extrapolate that when child discipline issues arise within the context of adult woman-grandmother family interactions, Puerto Rican women may feel conflicted if their opinions differ from that of their mothers. This seems applicable to both single and non-single mothers. As Surrey (1991) explained, the centrality of the mother-daughter relationship in the development of women's sense of self, and in particular of self-esteem, is pertinent to the situation of Puerto Rican women. If they feel unable to experience mutuality in their relationship with their mothers, by behaving in culturally-similar ways, they may experience guilt and shame.

It is the contention of this study that the Puerto Rican family is currently still experiencing the effects of traditional ways of being, despite women's improved circumstances at home and in society at large that contribute to redefine their multiple roles. Therefore, the exploration of how women in Puerto Rican families negotiate their roles and their demands within their cultural context is relevant to inform clinical interventions and maximize their effectiveness.

The following sections will discuss family theory, personal authority, and parental stress.

The study of families

The study of families from a psychological/systemic perspective and the development of family therapy go hand in hand. Of particular interest for this investigation are the works of Murray Bowen, Salvador Minuchin, and Donald Williamson, family therapy pioneers.

Bowen (1978) emphasized the transgenerational transmission, down the maternal line, of emotional-intellectual interactions within the family. According to Bowen, the fully developed adult achieves a more intellectually-based relatedness that is one aspect of personal differentiation. That is, the ability to be self-directed notwithstanding the family's emotionality. Bowen was interested in assessing two levels of the family system. First, he noticed the degree of enmeshment among the members versus their ability to differentiate. Second, he identified the tendency to "triangulate" a child or other member of the family when there is conflict between two other people. This is evident in the mothers' 'over-investment' in children in order to manage stressful relationships with their spouses, or by their collecting from their children the emotional debts accumulated by their own parents' pattern of care.

The transmission of significant relationship patterns is understood as occurring through a process of social modeling within the family. According to Boszormenyi-Nagy and Ulrich (1981), the patterns are maintained out of a sense of loyalty and emotional debts incurred by, and owed to, the preceding generation (Williamson & Bray, 1988; Boszormenyi-Nagy & Ulrich, 1981).

These models have been criticized for their emphasis on the maternal line of transmission of pathological, multigenerational influences; the pathologizing of maternal over investment in children and by their scant mention of fathers' role (Walsh & Scheinkman, 1989). Bowen emphasized the need for separate but connected family members, a concept that Bowenian family therapists sometimes failed to keep in mind. The

need is to achieve a balance between pathologizing emotions and closeness, and overvaluing the notion of an autonomous self at the expense of connection.

Salvador Minuchin's theory (1974) addressed some of these issues. It focused on the organization of the family: its significant alliances, the splits among members, the hierarchies of power, the quality of boundaries between generations, and its tolerance for conflict, within a socioeconomic and cultural context. In "normal" families, a balance between the differentiation and interdependence of family members occurs. Canino and Canino (1980) posited that the Puerto Rican family could be placed towards the enmeshed range of Minuchin's continuum of family patterns which range from disengaged to enmeshed. Enmeshment is characterized by overinvolvement of the members, dependence, and discouragement of self-differentiation. This is evident in an extended and frequent mother-child interaction; the discouragement of autonomous behavior in females; extended kinship ties; and the perception of a member's illness as a family, not a personal problem. However, many patterns criticized as "enmeshment" in the Mainland culture are not only culturally approved, but considered an ideal model of interaction for Puerto Rican families. This difference highlights the cultural bias of these family theories: separation and non-emotional independence as ideals vs. closeness and interdependence across and between the generations in Latino cultures.

In contrast, the emerging women's development theory of self-in-relation (Walsh, 1991; Jordan, Kaplan, Miller, Stiver, & Surrey, 1991) bring together the cultural ideals of connectedness found in Puerto Rican families and permits their discussion from a health perspective rather than as an atypical, pathological occurrence.

Family research

The McMaster Model of Family Functioning proposes that family behavior be described along the functional dimensions of problem solving, communication, roles (repetitive patterns of behavior by which individuals fulfill their functions), affective

responsiveness, involvement and behavior control (Copeland & White, 1991). Especially for research purposes, this is a useful way of avoiding the cultural biases embedded in theories like Bowen's and Minuchin's.

Another mode of family research includes the study of adults' perception of the social environments of their families of origin in comparison to their family of procreation, "and the way in which the family of origin may influence the individual's conjugal family environment" (Moos & Moos, 1986, p. 33). It seems that the comparisons that people make between their retrospective descriptions of their families of origin and those of their current families of procreation, indicate that the family of procreation is rated as higher in cohesion, expressiveness, independence, and intellectual and recreational orientation. It is also seen as lower on conflict, organization, and control. This pattern is similar to the differences between parents and their adolescent children in their perceptions of the family environment. Carpenter (1994) explains that retrospective ratings are characterized by memories of parental control and dominance.

The impact of the past family history on the present, has also been studied from a family perspective using the Family Environment Scale. Carson, Gertz, Donaldson and Wonderlich (1990) examined the past and current family relationships of 40 female incest victims. This study differs from Moss et al.'s in that it emphasizes the influence of the past in the present, as opposed to comparing family environments in the here and now. They found that some of the patterns of relationships these women had in their families of origin were also evident in their families of procreation. For example, the high levels of conflict, the lack of expressiveness of the members, and their limited participation in cultural/recreational events outside the home.

These research findings supported our interest in studying women in their family context, as they engage in the repetitive patterns of behaviors by which people fulfill their functions. On the whole, the importance of people's family life and characteristics on their

relationships with others is unquestionable, regardless cultural variations of what is “healthy” or “normal”. The literature points to the repetition of family patterns learned from one generation to another, with the majority of people behaving similarly to their parents even when they state to be doing otherwise.

Personal Authority

Williamson (1991) avoided the extremes of idealizing or pathologizing patterns of dependence, relatedness, and separation within families by developing the concept of personal authority, central to Personal Authority in the Family System (PAFS) theory. He referred to the wish for emotional freedom and self-determination while simultaneously sharing ideas, feelings, beliefs, hopes, values, fears, monies, and homes with significant others as the “intimacy paradox”. He asked if it were possible to leave the parental home psychologically but still remain there emotionally. He questioned how do people do it and considered if there was an irreconcilable logical and psychological conflict between these two goals.

Williamson combines the concept of personal authority with the notion of connection with families of origin and the individuals’ own sense of differentiated direction. It consists of patterns of ability:

- to order and direct one’s own thoughts and opinions;
- to choose to express or not express thoughts and opinions regardless of social pressures;
- to make and respect one’s own personal judgment to the point of considering it as justification for action;
- to take responsibility for the whole of their experiences in life;
- to initiate, receive, or decline intimacy voluntarily;
- to establish clear boundaries to the self at will; and
- to experience other people as peers in the experience of being

human (Bray, Williamson, & Malone, 1984, p. 168).

This is seen as a developmental task for individuals and their families that is reached when the individuals are between 30 and 45 years of age. It implies patterns of behavior that characterize an integrated and differentiated self, as well as the resolution of intrapsychic conflicts, relational issues, achievement, and intimacy conflicts generated by transgenerational mandates and loyalties. It means being connected and a part of the family of origin while acting from a differentiated position within it.

Williamson (1991) explained that Personal Authority in the Family System theory and therapy evolved through trial and error practice with 400 families over the last twenty years. Its six basic assumptions are: 1) the indivisibility of well-being; 2) that psychological integrity results from the merging of various aspects of the self; 3) its recognition of the role of the unconscious in how people manage most of their lives; 4) that the integration of the self is defined as harmony between conscious and unconscious aspects of the self within the family of origin and social contexts; 5) that healthy family organization involves the renegotiation of family politics in the fourth decade of life; and 6) that the essence of this psychological and political change is giving up of the “parents as parents”, relinquishing the need to be parented.

In personal authority work, the individual adults are prepared to talk to their parents about everything important, without fear. The therapeutic goal is for the person to transform the emotionality of the intergenerational relationship so that generosity, compassion, and good will is in control of the behavior of all family members most of the time.

Walsh (1991) offering a feminist analysis of the personal authority in the family system theory points out that, contrary to past criticism targeted to systems theory and family therapy for ignoring gender differences and their sociopolitical nature, PAFS can be gender-sensitive both in its theory and its mode of family therapy practice. It posits that

gender differences are significant and that they are socially constructed in a historical context. The objective of achieving personal authority and intimacy with parents and peers is the same for men and women, with each person approaching the process in ways that are gendered and individualized.

This investigation looked at personal authority as a factor in women's capacity to have a positive but independent relationship with their mothers, in regards to their own sense of being a mother in the pattern valued in their families of origin. Dissatisfaction with how they 'mother' may be indicative of some conflict between how they see themselves versus how they feel they should be. Developing this capacity for differentiated behavior includes the idea that they can be different from their mothers and still feel good about it. Therefore, it should contribute to prevent negative stress reactions.

Parental Stress

Due to the importance attached to the mothering role by *marianista* dictates, it is conceivable that the performance of this role for women of Puerto Rican background is an arena in which tensions and anxieties would be manifested. The experience of stress is more likely to emerge in an area of vulnerability, such as women's' subjective feelings related to the responsibilities of being mothers, particularly within a cultural context in which the traditional definition of the self is directly linked to this role.

Stressors are stimuli from within or from without that challenge or are perceived to challenge, the homeostatic balance necessary for people's competent internal and external functioning (Paster, 1994). Pérez (1989) studied maternal depression, social support, and coping mechanisms, as factors of parental stress. She explained how stress has been a focal concept in many disciplines. As such, it has been considered as a possible unifying concept for fields such as medicine, psychology, and sociology. Despite its extensive study, Pérez reckoned that there was a lack of an agreed-upon definition of the concept.

We believe that the concept has been clearly defined and that the lack of clarity referred to by Pérez was primarily manifested in earlier research operational definitions that failed to distinguish between stressors and stress reactions. It has been defined as any demand or change that triggers an attempt to adapt or respond; as people's reactions to an upset in their equilibrium; or as events that result in deterioration of performance or health.

According to Pérez (1989), the common denominator in the various definitions used to study stress is the presence of a stimulus which produces a reaction -physiological or psychological--, which upsets the person's equilibrium. She pointed out that a significant relationship between stressful life events and physical and psychological symptomatology has been found, and lists several studies indicating the various physiological processes affected by stress, such as cardiac functioning, gastric functioning, dermatitis, and candidiasis.

A confounding variable in the study of stress is individual variability in reactions to stress as a function of the individual's subjective perception of the situation. While an event may elicit a strong reaction in some people, others may react little, if at all, to the same event; an event defined by most as benign, may cause emotional stress for others. This relationship between stressful life events and the subjective experience of stress may be further mediated by the coping resources of the individual (Chan, 1977; Mechanic, 1983) (Pérez, 1989, pp.11-12).

Studies in biological psychology at the University of Stockholm indicated that women's physiology plays an important role in their ability to process stress (Clay, 1995). For example, mothers who worked overtime at their paid employment had more stress, as measured by levels of epinephrine, over the weekend than did fathers despite the fathers having worked more overtime. This was due to the interaction of conditions at home and at work that determine women's experience of stress. As opposed to men's more selective responses to situations at work. Once at home, they are able to relax more easily. Perhaps

fathers feel a sense of responsibility to be at home on weekends, while the mothers feel more responsible for work.

Within the familial context, most parents experience stresses which could result in dysfunctional parenting, depending upon the number and intensity of the stressors, and the parents' available coping resources. Abidin (1990, 1995) stated that the total stress a parent experiences is a function of certain salient child characteristics, parental characteristics, the interaction between parents and children, and situational variables which are related to the role of being a parent. Factors associated with levels of parenting stress in the literature include: social support, psychological well-being of the mothers, and employment status.

A child's birth, though a positive event in most cases, is the second most stressful period in the family life cycle because of the various life changes it brings: greater financial expense, decrease in leisure time, altered daily routines, temporary job and/or income loss for some women, and a great sense of responsibility in undertaking parenting. Dyer (1976) (as reported by Pérez, 1989) found that 91% of couples interviewed after the birth of their first child experience a moderate to severe crisis state. Ventura (1987) examined written summaries of stresses encountered by mothers and fathers during the first five postpartum months and noticed the emergence of four categories of stress: a) demands of parent, spouse, and worker roles; b) infant care; d) interactions with spouse; and e) *interactions with other family members* (italics added). Mouton and Tuma (1988) found that the higher the levels of parental stress, the less satisfactory the parental role is experienced, and that mothers from a clinic sample are more likely to exhibit higher levels of parenting stress, more external locus of control, and less satisfaction in their parenting role than non-clinic mothers.

Lewis (1988) researched perceptions of parental role strain reported by 489 African-American mothers (age 18+) of minor-aged children, focusing on the extent to which utilization of traditional African-American networks altered reports of role strain.

The availability of supportive current partners, number of minors living in the home, and the availability of relatives were significantly related to role strain reports of the participants. The level of reported role strain was inversely proportional to the degree of support received from significant others and the number of children in the family.

Koeske and Koeske (1990) examined the role of support on the parenting experiences of 125 mothers of children aged nine months to 14 years. They found that parental stress was associated with lower role satisfaction and maternal self-esteem and with higher psychological and somatic symptomatology for those participants with less social support. More highly educated participants were less negatively affected by parental stress.

Similarly, Pérez (1989) detected an inverse relationship between depression and stress as the level of social support increased for Puerto Rican mothers of clinic latency age boys. The mothers who were less depressed and experienced lower levels of parenting stress had more sources of support available to them. She also found education and income as negatively related to parenting stress and depression.

Solis and Abidin (1991) found that Hispanic mothers of handicapped children reported more parenting stress than those of non-handicapped ones. She attributed this to their level of social isolation resulting from being the mother of a child with special needs.

Antonovsky's salutogenic model (1979) and his concept of "generalized resistance resources" (p. 99) are helpful to understand the connection between personal authority and parental stress pursued in this investigation. These generalized resistance resources are personality characteristics (cognitive and processing skills needed to interpret the world; emotional resources, people's sense of self, coherence, flexibility and connection to their cultural context) and external supports that strengthen people against the various kinds and intensities of stressors. Antonovsky denominates these "salutogens", in contrast to "pathogens", which create resources to resist dysfunction in the person's internal and

external self-management. When considered within Antonovsky's model, personal authority is a construct that addresses a set of behaviors that are helpful to diffuse negative reactions to stress. It does so by allowing people to remain connected to their families in clearly defined ways that respond to their individual needs. Also, it helps to answer the model's unaddressed questions, as Quiñones (1996) pointed out, regarding assessment and operationalization of the concepts of health and well-being. It does so by permitting its translation into observable events that can be researched objectively.

In short, no studies were found that looked specifically at parenting stress as a function of family characteristics, such as level of conflict, cohesion, or independence among members of a family and its relationship with individuals' style of interaction with significant others in their families. Research focusing on ethnic minority women and this group of variables was also not found.

Given the information presented so far, it seemed possible that women in three-generational families who perceived their current family of procreation as different from their current family of origin, and who also valued the role of mother above all others, experienced stress when the performance of their maternal duties interfered with their culturally prescribed role as daughters. The present study proposed that contrary to current beliefs (Vega, Kolody, Valle, & Weir, 1991), the availability of the extended family (as represented by the grandmothers) could also be a stressor for some women. Not only because grandmothers may compete with the grandchild for their daughters attention, but more likely for criticizing or controlling the daughters' parenting. Particularly, if they were not able to appropriately negotiate mutually satisfactory boundaries between themselves and their mothers. We believe that the importance of these cultural prescriptions on women's behavior is still relevant. It raises the following questions in the Puerto Rican context: does the concept of personal authority prevail for Puerto Rican women? How does it affect the level of stress experienced by the younger women when she becomes a mother herself? Is

it a stressor or can it be a source of support for her to maintain a “correct” relationship with her own mother and still parent in her own style? Would they express less satisfaction with their roles as mothers and report higher levels of parental stress? Or is their ability to do so without undue stress a factor of their ability to develop personal authority?

Definition of Terms

Parental stress

In this investigation, parental stress was defined as the degree of stress related to maternal characteristics and family context variables which impact upon mothers’ ability to function competently as caregivers, such as sense of competence, isolation, and perceived restrictions imposed by the role of mother (Abidin, 1990, 1995). It was operationalized as the total score obtained by the participants in the Parent domain subscale of the *Parenting Stress Index (PSI)* (Abidin, 1995).

Personal Authority

The ability to engage in topics of conversation which require intimate interactions with a parent, while maintaining an individuated stance (Bray, Williamson & Malone, 1984) is Personal Authority (Williamson, 1991). The degree of intergenerational intimidation, or how much influence parental opinion exerts on the person’s action, is an aspect of personal authority. Personal authority was operationalized as the scores obtained both in the Personal Authority and the Intergenerational Intimidation subscales of the *Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire (PAFS-Q)* (Bray et al., 1984).

Family environment

Finally, family environment was conceptualized as the participants’ perceptions of three specific family characteristics:

-cohesion: the degree of commitment, help, and support family members provide for each other;

-conflict: the amount of openly expressed anger, aggression, and conflict among members; and

-expressiveness: the extent to which family members are encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly. The scores corresponding to the cohesion, conflict, and expressiveness subscales (Relationship dimensions) of the *Family Environment Scale (FES)* comprised the operational definitions in this investigation (Moos & Moos, 1986) (see Appendix D).

The participants examined these characteristics in their families of origin (the ones in which they are the daughters or **FO**) and their families of procreation (the ones in which they are the mothers, or **FP**). It was assumed that the characteristics of their families of procreation would reflect the parenting style of the mothers and the grandmothers' style would be represented in the women's views of their families of origin.

Hypotheses

The focus of interest in this investigation was the relationship of women's stress in their role as mother to their daughters, in comparison to their view of the ideal maternal role -as defined by their perception of their own mother's role- and their degree of personal authority within the Puerto Rican culture. The literature points to the idealization of the marianista model, which includes the predominance of the grandmother as a behavioral and attitudinal referent for many Latinas. The grandmother retains her authority with her adult children including in reference to her daughters' mode of childrearing in exchange for her dedication of her life to their well-being and that of other family members. Adult Puerto Rican women's relationship with their mothers include the self-demand to follow their lead. When their own attitudes differ, especially concerning their own motherhood behavior, they experience conflict which could be measured as "parental stress". Depending on the adult women's degree of personal authority, which gives them the right to independent attitudes in relation to their parents (here grandmothers), the stress versus conflict equation

will vary. The more personal authority, the less conflict expressed by the mothers.

Accordingly, the following hypotheses were tested:

I. The degree of stress experienced by mothers of Puerto Rican background would be directly related to the discrepancy between these mothers' perceptions of their families of origin and their own families of procreation, in regard to:

a) level of family cohesion, b) degree of family conflict and c) amount of expressiveness;

II. The level of parental stress reported by mothers of Puerto Rican background would vary inversely with their degree of personal authority.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

Participants

The participants were solicited primarily throughout the New York and San Juan, Puerto Rico's Metropolitan areas via flyers, ads in two C.U.N.Y. campuses' newspapers and a health care workers union's newsletter, letters and faxes to Puerto Rican/Latino organizations, and visits to various sites. In New York City, this researcher visited: four C.U.N.Y. campuses to request students' participation in ten classrooms; a Puerto Rican women's conference, two child care centers, and a health fair at a community hospital in East Harlem. In San Juan, Puerto Rico, visits to one child care center, a dance school, three small department stores, and two classrooms at the University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras Campus were made. Additional interest was generated outside the New York/San Juan areas due to a call for participants posted on an internet bulletin board to which interested women sent electronic mail, and/or phoned this investigator offering to participate. This researcher would then phone them to explain the nature of their participation and to confirm that they met the selection criteria before mailing them a questionnaire packet.

In addition, a Puerto Rican research assistant recruited women throughout her community in a predominantly Puerto Rican neighborhood in New York City. In multiple instances, prospective participants would request more than one questionnaire to pass on to other women they knew. All these represent an opportunistic approach to gathering data (snowballing procedure).

Over 200 women responded to the call for participation. Upon completion of the recruitment phase, they were selected based on the following criteria: 1. being employed and/or studying; 2. having at least one daughter (this corresponded to literature trends that showed that grandmothers tend to be more involved with their granddaughters than with

their grandsons (Tobin, 1994; Wilson & Tolson, 1988); and 3. having frequent contact with their own mothers. Their participation was anonymous and confidential. Only 130 returned the questionnaires. The final sample population consisted of 126 women of Puerto Rican background whose characteristics are summarized in the **Results** section.

Instruments

The following measures were used to examine the constructs of interest in this study:

1. *Parenting Stress Index (PSI)*

The PSI is a screening and diagnostic test designed by Abidin (1995) to identify parent-child systems under stress and at risk for dysfunctional parenting. It yields a measure of the relative magnitude of perceived stress in the parent-child dyad and identifies sources of stress (McKinney & Peterson, 1987). It is used clinically in medical centers, school systems, mental health clinics, and preschool programs to predict both the presence and the likely development of emotional and behavioral pathology in children (Abidin, 1990; 1995). The PSI can be completed by parents of children under 12 years. McKinney and Peterson (1984) found “certain advantages in using it with mothers with children under three years of age” (p. 50). It requires a fifth grade reading level and can be answered in approximately 20 to 30 minutes.

The questionnaire is also available in Spanish (Solis, 1990). Solis assessed the psychometric properties of the Spanish version in a study with 223 Hispanic mothers recruited at a major medical center in New York City. Her results support the cross-cultural validity of the PSI, as well as its ability to assess three factors: child characteristics, parent characteristics, and child-parent interactions. She recommends that clinicians and researchers working with urban Hispanics, similar to the sample of her study, score the Spanish version of the PSI based on the three-factors mentioned above. Abidin (1995) provides information regarding transcultural research that suggest that the PSI is “a robust

diagnostic measure that maintains its validity with diverse non-English speaking cultures“ (p. 3).

This 120-item self-administered questionnaire consists of scores for three main source domains of stressors: Child Characteristics Domain, Parent Characteristics Domain, and an optional Life Stress Scale. The Child Domain is divided into six subscales: distractibility/hyperactivity; adaptability; reinforces parents: demandingness; mood; and acceptability. For this study, Abidin's (1995) parent domain subscales and norms were used. These subscales were selected because they succinctly and reliably assess important physical, psychological, and interactional components of the mothering experience.

A revised version of the original Solis Spanish PSI was used. This revision was requested from a professional translator from the University of Puerto Rico by this author and approved by Abidin.⁴ It was believed that the syntactic, typographical errors, and omissions in Solis' standardized version would be distracting and/or misunderstood by the participants.

The Parent Domain consists of the following seven subscales (for a total of 54 items) (see Appendix F):

1. Sense of Competence: parents' perceived degree of competence in fulfilling the parental role;
2. Isolation: degree of isolation from peers, relatives, and other emotional support systems;
3. Attachment: emotional closeness to the child and ability to understand the child's feelings and/or needs;
4. Parental Health: general health of the parent;
5. Role Restriction: degree to which the parents experience their parental role as restricting freedom and frustrating their attempts to maintain their

⁴ Another Puerto Rican translation was found (Harbison Robles, 1988) but not used due to questions regarding its reliability and Abidin's objections to some of the translated items.

identity;

6. Depression: feelings of guilt, unhappiness, and depression; and

7. Relationship with Spouse: emotional and active support in the relationship.

There is also a defensive responding score which was validated to detect deception among child abusers. Although not used in this study, the Life Stress Domain provides an index of the amount of stress outside the parent-child relationship, which the parent is experiencing, measured by a checklist of recent life events. Pérez (1989) added some items to this scale that she thought relevant when assessing low SES parents for research purposes, such as “eviction”.

Scoring of the PSI can be done by hand following guidelines in the test manual that yield raw scores, which are then converted into percentile ranks on a profile sheet. This allows comparisons of the individual’s scores to the normative group. The profile also facilitates analysis of the relationship among the scores.

The PSI was normed on 2,633 parents producing norms for children ages one to 12, in one year intervals. Parents’ ages ranged from 18 to 65. A wide range of family income was represented. Hispanic norms were based on a sample of 233 parents of children one to 10 years of age, predominantly of Puerto Rican origin. Abidin (1990) warns researchers of the limitations of the Spanish norms due to the low level of acculturation of the low SES sample used, which resulted in high means on all stress scores.

The normal stress score range is identified as within the 15th to 75th percentile rank. Total, domain, and subscale scores above the 75th and below the 15th percentile are interpretable for clinical use. High stress level is defined as scores at the 80th percentile and above.

Reliability and validity data come primarily from unpublished studies which are presented in the manual. The research covers such topics as: at risk, attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder, birth defects, child abuse, conduct disorders, chronic disease, forensic evaluations, normal families, and intervention effects. Internal consistency alpha reliability coefficients ranged from .70 to .83 for the Child Domain subscales; and from .70 to .84 for the Parent Domain subscale. The reliability coefficients for the two domains and the Total Stress scale were .90 or greater. Test-retest reliabilities ranged from .55 to .96 in a number of studies (Abidin, 1995) indicating a moderate to high range of reliability. But its overall moderate to high reliability over time has been demonstrated.

In Pérez' (1989) study of maternal depression, social support and coping mechanisms as factors of parental stress in mothers of latency-age boys, the reported subscale, domain, and total stress scores' alpha reliability coefficients were higher than those found by Abidin in 1983. She also noted that the PSI discriminated between clinical and nonclinical samples.

Results from content and factor validity studies suggest that the PSI measures an important aspect of parent perceptions which are related to child characteristics, parent stress, and child rearing problems. However, the PSI has some conceptual problems. It seems to be measuring a combination of stressors and stress response. For the purpose of stress research, stressors should be defined independently of stress reaction (Mckinney & Peterson, 1984). In this study only the stress reactions were considered via the parent domain scale.

Overall, the PSI fills a need by addressing parent-child interaction problems from a stress conceptualization rather than from child and/or parent psychopathology conceptualization. That is, it conveys information about factors related to the child characteristics, the parents' experience and external events and situations that contribute to

the relationship between parent and child, as opposed to only explaining difficulties in the parent-child dyad in terms of mental illness and/or deficits.

2. Personal Authority In The Family System Questionnaire (PAFS-Q):

According to its developers, Bray, Williamson, and Malone (1984a), the *PAFS-Q* is a self-report instrument designed to assess important relationships in the three-generational family system, as perceived by each individual in the family. A person describes current relationships with relevant family members in both the family of origin and the nuclear family, or a dyadic relationship. It is the only published instrument that measures intergenerational family relationships for research and clinical purposes (Grotevant & Carlson (1989) cited in Bray, 1991). The *PAFS-Q* operationalizes aspects of current intergenerational family theories, such as Bowen's (1978), Boszormenyi-Nagy and Ulrich's, (1981) and Williamson's, (1981, 1982b). Within this framework, current relationships are more important than historical viewpoints and memories of relationships (Bray, 1991). There are three versions of this instrument including the one for adults with children used in this investigation.

Personal Authority in the Family System is conceptualized as a life cycle stage, and is operationally defined as:

a pattern of abilities to: (1) order and direct one's thoughts and opinions; (2) choose to express or not to express one's thoughts and opinions regardless of social pressures; (3) make and respect one's personal judgments as justification for action; (4) take responsibility for the totality of one's experience in life; (5) initiate or receive (or to decline to receive) intimacy voluntarily, in conjunction with the ability to establish clear boundaries to the self--at will; (6) experience and relate to all other persons without exception, including former parents, as peers in the experience of being human (Williamson, 1982b, p. 311) (Bray, Williamson & Malone, 1984, p. 1).

PAFS is not viewed as a personality construct, but as a set of interpersonal skills, interactional behavior patterns, and a way of being that is observable in interpersonal interactions with family and other significant people.

The original questionnaire contains 132 items -rated on a 5-point Likert scale- in eight, non-overlapping scales (see Appendix E). The Spanish version was completed by a professional translator from the University of Puerto Rico, at the request of this author, for participants who preferred to read in Spanish. A back translation into English by a bilingual mental health professional was conducted to ensure its accuracy, according to proper instrument translation procedures (Marín & Marín-Vanoos, 1991).

Six of the scales are: Spousal Fusion/Individuation; Intergenerational Fusion/Individuation; Spousal Intimacy; Intergenerational Intimacy; Nuclear Family Triangulation; and Intergenerational Triangulation.

The Intergenerational Intimidation (INTIM) scale, which measures the degree of personal intimidation experienced by an individual in relation to his /her parents, is one of two measures of personal authority used in this study. Its items are scaled so that larger scores indicate less intimidation. Lastly, the Personal Authority (PerAut) scale, which measures the intergenerational aspects of personal authority as defined by Williamson (1982b), was also used. Items in this scale reflect topics of conversation which require an intimate interaction with a parent, while maintaining an individuated stance. They are scaled so that larger scores indicate more Personal Authority. Together they comprised a total of 47 items.

Scoring of the instrument is performed manually. It yields a separate score for each subscale for comparison to normative scores shown in the manual.

The *PAFS-Q* was standardized on nonclinical (N =100 to 712) and clinical (N= 62 and 83) samples (Bray, 1991). Alpha reliability coefficients for the *PAFS-Q* ranged from good to excellent (from .80 to .95), as reported by Bray, Williamson, and Malone (1984).

Reliability coefficients ranged from .55 to .95, with a mean of .74 test-retest reliability. Bray, Harvey, and Williamson (1987) obtained internal consistency reliability coefficients ranging from .75 to .96, all in the acceptable range, except for the Intergenerational Fusion/Individuation scale.

Anecdotal information obtained by the authors indicated that answering this questionnaire served as an intervention which produced change in individual's perceptions of their relationship with their parents.

Bray (1991) describes the *PAFS-Q*'s correlation with other measures of family functioning (such as the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales (FACES) and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) as moderate, and explains that it also reflects unique aspects of family functioning.

Among the limitations of the questionnaire are the absence of families in extreme socioeconomic groups and the lumping together of black and Hispanic families. According to Bray (1991), more extensive norms for clinical and nonclinical couples and families are under development.

3. *Family Environment Scale (FES)*

The *Family Environment Scale (FES)* is one of nine scales developed by Rudolph and Bernice Moos at the Social Ecology Laboratory, Stanford University, and the V.A. Medical Center in Palo Alto, California. It is a 90-item true-false instrument designed to measure the social-environmental attributes of various kinds of families. It contains ten subscales designed to appraise these attributes and assess three underlying domains: the Relationship dimensions, the Personal Growth dimensions, and the System Maintenance dimensions. These domains were structured after Murray's beta-press concept. Press was defined as the power that objects, including people, in the environment have to benefit or harm an individual. "Beta-press is an individual's subjective perception of this existing power, as opposed to alpha press, the objective potential in the environment for benefit or

harm” (Caldwell, 1984, p. 270).

The *FES* has three forms: the Real, the Ideal, and the Expectations Forms. The Real Form (Form R) --which was used in this investigation-- measures people’s perceptions of their conjugal or nuclear family environments.

All three subscales from the Relationship dimension were administered: Cohesion, Conflict, and Expressiveness. These scales were designed to assess the degree of commitment, help, and support family members are perceived as providing for one another, the amount of overtly expressed anger, aggression, and conflict among family members, and the extent to which family members are encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly (Moos & Moos, 1994). All three scales combined sum up to 27 items (see Appendix D).

The *FES* can be administered to individuals and groups, provided the respondents are at least ten years old with a reading proficiency at the sixth grade level. It is available in eleven languages including Spanish. The full version can be completed in approximately 20 minutes. The scale has been normed on over 1,100 normal and 500 distressed families. The authors provide norms for sub-samples of families: families with one member over 60; black families; Mexican-American families; single-parent families; and families of different sizes (two to six or more members).

Despite the inclusion of ethnic minority families in the normative sample, the authors suggested that results are interpreted with caution since the samples were small, they were drawn mostly from upwardly mobile middle-class populations, and the groups were not matched on family background variables such as size and socioeconomic status (Moos & Moos, 1994). The scale has been used to study multigenerational families; relationships between family characteristics and child rearing attitudes; adults’ perceptions of the social milieu of their families of origin and the correlation between those and that of the person’s nuclear family environment.

In addition, although not used in this study, this scale allows researchers to compare the extent to which a pair of family members disagree about their family background. Moos and Moos (1994) developed the Family Incongruence Score since they understood experienced differences within families as an important characteristic of families.

Internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha), for each of the ten *FES* subscales are satisfactory (ranging from .61 to .78). Test-retest reliabilities are also adequate (.52 to .89 for a 12 month interval). Finally, profile stability correlations demonstrate adequate stability (Moos & Moos, 1994). However, the *FES*' weakest psychometric characteristic is its validity, which is not discussed in the 1986 manual except for one reference to construct validity (Caldwell, 1986). Predictive validity is absent from the discussion and external validity data are lacking in the original manual, although the latter was corrected in the third edition of the manual.

The criticisms that have been directed to the TAT and similar projective methods, particularly that of unsatisfactory predictive validity, are also applicable to the *FES*. Moos (1990) clarified this issue by stating that there are approximately 150 studies that document the instrument's construct, concurrent, and predictive validity.

Roosa and Beals (1990a,b) found that the *FES*' reliability coefficients were lower than those originally reported by its developers. Their study examined the internal consistency reliabilities of five subscales in a sample of 311 stressed and 74 control families. However, Moos (1990) stated that Roosa and Beals' conclusions about the *FES* were erroneous and provided results from three projects which supported that this instrument is reasonably internally consistent, stable, and valid when applied to moderately diverse samples.

Scoring of the *FES* is facilitated by the use of a template designed so that each column of responses constitutes one of the subscales. A score for the whole family's view

can be computed by calculating the average of all responses made by each family member in each subscale. This raw score is then converted into a standard score. Individual and/or family profiles can be graphed to display the scores obtained.

4. *Hollingshead Four-factor Index of Social Status:*

This index –used herein to explore and describe the sample- combines information on sex, marital status, education, and occupation to determine the social status of an individual or a nuclear family unit (Hollingshead, 1975; see Appendix C). Individuals or couples receive scores on levels of school completed and on the occupational factor. In this study, only data from the women’s educational and occupational factors were used to calculate their social position.

The Four Factor Index of Social Position takes into consideration that social status is a multidimensional concept. Its premise includes three areas: that an unequal status structure exists in our society, that the primary factors indicative of status are occupation and education, sex, and marital status, and that these factors may be combined so that the status positions that individuals and families occupy in our society could be estimated.

The version used in this study included other descriptive information thought relevant for this study such as: ethnic/language background, number of children, and maternal information.

The educational factor is scored using the following seven-point scale:

Levels of School Completed	Score
-less than seventh grade	1
-junior high school (9th grade)	2
-partial high school (10th, 11th grade)	3
-high school graduate (including private, parochial, trade, or public)	4
-partial college (at least one year or	

specialized training)	5
-standard college or university graduation	6
-graduate professional training (graduate degree)	7

The occupational factor is scored using the occupational titles described by the United States Census in 1970. The nine-point scale assigns one of the following scores to an individual (and/or spouse):

Score 9	Higher executives, Proprietors of large businesses, and Major Professionals
Score 8	Administrators, Lesser Professionals, Proprietors Medium Sized Business
Score 7	Smaller Business Owners, Farm Owners, Managers, Minor Professionals
Score 6	Technicians, Semiprofessionals, Small Business Owners
Score 5	Clerical and Sales Workers, Small Farm and Business Owners
Score 4	Smaller Business Owners, Skilled Manual Workers, Craftsmen, and Tenant Farmers
Score 3	Machine Operators and Semiskilled Workers
Score 2	Unskilled Workers
Score 1	Farm Laborers, Menial Service Workers, Welfare Dependents, Unemployed.

The status score of an individual is calculated by multiplying the scale value for occupation by a weight of five, and the scale value for education by a weight of three. The products are then added and averaged. Computed scores range from eight to 66, with

individuals or couples obtaining high scores assumed to have a higher social status.

The Index of Social Position or Social Class is obtained by matching the combined score to the social class category listed herein.

Social Class	Range of Combined Scores
I. Executives, major professional, graduate education	55-66
II. Business managers, lesser professionals, college education	40-54
III. Clerical, technicians, partial college, high school, junior hs graduate	30-39
IV. Skilled manual employees, partial high/junior high school graduate	20-29
V. Unskilled employees, unemployed, less than 7 yrs. of education	8-19

It is presumed that individual or families will be members of the social class determined by the Four-Factor Index of Social Position. The author assumes that class position and social behaviors are meaningfully related.

Hollingshead (1975) evaluated the validity of this measure by comparing scores derived from the Four-Factor Index of Social Status on 1970 census data with prestige scores developed by the National Opinion Research Center -NORC- (1974), which had been evaluating occupations and occupational groups for 130 years. Hollingshead's nine step occupational scale has been shown to be highly related to the NORC prestige scale. It is considered "a reliable, valid, and quick estimate of socioeconomic status" (Gottfried, 1985, p. 92).

This index has also been used to develop other socioeconomic indexes in different sociocultural contexts (Pascual, de Galperín & Bornstein, 1993). It has been found valid for use in other countries, such as Argentina.

Procedures

Puerto Rican women were recruited through targeted departments/organizations at City University of New York colleges where higher numbers of Hispanic women are concentrated: Hunter College, City College, Baruch College, and Hostos Community College. Statistics compiled by the Office of Equal Opportunities (City University of New York, 1992) helped in identifying such departments: for example, education, nursing, Latino studies. College professors were contacted in advance, flyers were posted in student and personnel bulletin boards, and ads were placed in campus publications/internet bulletin board, for volunteers to contact or be contacted by the investigator (see Appendix G). Latina/Puerto Rican women organizations throughout the metropolitan area were also contacted in an effort to broaden the demographic characteristics of the sample. A research assistant recruited participants in the East Harlem community. Finally, participant recruitment was also conducted at several sites in Puerto Rico as previously listed. This sampling procedure was not random or stratified, but represented an opportunistic approach to gathering the data.

Upon the initial contact, the women were informed of the investigator's goal of obtaining information to better understand Puerto Rican women family life and roles. After this contact, a consent form (see Appendix A) was presented to them in their preferred language (51 in English; 72 in Spanish of which 33 were participants in Puerto Rico and 39 Mainland U.S.A. respondents) as part a complete packet. All participation was voluntary. In exchange for the women's participation, the opportunity to ask the investigator for information related to mental health services, women's and/or children's organizations, or any other subject was offered.

After the consent form was read and signed, the women completed the packet containing the instruments in the order in which they were to be answered.

The packet consisted of:

- An informed consent sheet
- a demographic/SES questionnaire (Hollingshead Four-Factor Index);
- two *Family Environment Scales -FES-* one to be completed about their perceptions of their family of origin, the one in which the women are the daughters; the second, for those of their family of procreation;

-the *Personal Authority in the Family System-Q -PAFS-Q-*

(Personal authority and Intergenerational Intimidation subscales); and

-the *Parenting Stress Index -PSI-* Parent domain scale.

A total of 155 items comprised all three measures.

In addition, the participants were offered a debriefing session and/or the opportunity to receive a summary of the results of the investigation, and a list of community resources for women.

Administration of instruments:

The order of completion of the measures was as follows:

First, the Hollingshead Index; second, the *FES* to describe their families of origin, and their families of procreation, as they saw them. Third, the *PAFS-Q*; fourth, the *FES* focusing on the other *FES*. Lastly, the *PSI*.

The information yielded by the two *FES* permitted comparisons between the mother's perceptions of her family of origin and her family of procreation (between-families comparison, two scores from the same person).

The order of the *FES*, *PAFS-Q*, and the *PSI* was also alternated when collating the packets to decrease possible order effects. Alternating the *PAFS-Q* and the *PSI* between the first and second administration of the *FES* allowed the participants time to adjust to the two

different tasks asked through the same instrument.

Design and data analysis:

The demographic characteristics of the sample were described with frequencies and percentages. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were computed for all measures used.

In this study, the criterion variable was parental stress. The predictor variables were family environment (three levels) and personal authority (two levels).

The relationship between the three variables: parental stress, personal authority, and family environment was assessed through correlational analyses, (Pearson's Product Moment), a repeated measures analysis, and multiple regression analyses. To compare the participants' perception of their families of origin and their families of procreation a t test for dependent samples was used. A multiple regression procedure was used to determine if there were any interactions between characteristics of the family of procreation and personal authority in relation to parental stress. This measured the collective contribution of family environment and personal authority to parental stress.

CHAPTER IV

Results

Characteristics of the participants:

The ages of the 126 women ranged from 19 to 55 years, with a mean of 34 years ($SD= 8.1$). They were born either in the Mainland USA (36%) or Puerto Rico (62%). Eighteen percent (18%) were born in Puerto Rico, but were raised in the Mainland USA, versus five percent (5%) born in the Mainland, but raised on the island. Forty-four (44%) were born and raised in Puerto Rico vs. 32% in the Mainland, USA. The majority (75%) resided in the Continental USA at the time of completing the survey, predominantly in the New York City area. With regard to ethnic self-identification, they grouped around the Puerto Rican and Hispanic categories: 84% vs. 8% respectively.

(Insert **Table 1** here.)

Most participants had secondary education or above (85%), having completed all or most of it in the United States or Puerto Rico (43% vs. 40% respectively).

(Insert **Table 2** here).

Spanish was the preferred language for use at home, writing, reading and/or speaking. These women were employed primarily full time (54%), and 13% described themselves as students or homemakers (12%) only (see Appendix I for a graphic summary).

Table 3 presents information about the participants' employment, household composition, and frequency of contact with their mothers. The majority reported being married and having one or two children, although half of them did not live with the father of their daughter. The average age for their daughters was 7.6 years ($SD = 4.49$). Only 10% cohabited with a domestic partner. Their living arrangements included sharing the household with their daughters, other children, their mothers or roommates. Eighty (80%) percent had contact with their mothers five days a week or more; thirty-six percent (36%) had daily contact.

Half of the participants reported annual incomes higher than \$30,000 dollars, while the rest listed annual incomes of \$20,000 or less. Their reported annual income had a bimodal distribution with the modal incomes falling within the \$50,000 or more, or \$20,000-29,000 range. The group's socioeconomic status was determined by the *Four Factor Index of Social Class* (Hollingshead, 1975).

Their social positions grouped around the II and IV positions, which correspond to the lower to upper middle level of social status. Most of the participants were in social position index II. **Table 4** shows the participants' social position levels, numbers, and percentages for each level.

Separate frequency tables were obtained for the 31 participants recruited in Puerto Rico (see Appendix H for a summary). They had a mean age of 34.6 ($SD = 1.642$). They grouped around the Puerto Rican and North American categories: 87% vs. 10% respectively with regard to ethnic self-identification. Most (94%) had secondary education or above. These women were employed primarily full time (54%); 13% described themselves as students or homemakers (12%) only.

The majority (68%) reported being married and having two children or more . Twenty-five (25%) percent had contact with their mother at least weekly; sixty-one (61%) percent five days a week or more.

This subgroup of participants' annual income had a bimodal distribution with the modal incomes falling within the \$30,00-49,999, or \$12,000-15,000 range. Of these 31 women, 14 (or 47%) reported annual incomes below \$15,000 dollars. Their social position grouped around the II position which corresponds to the middle social status level .

TABLE 1. COMPOSITION OF SAMPLE WITH RESPECT TO AGE, BIRTHPLACE, COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE AND ETHNIC SELF-IDENTIFICATION.

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age of Participants	124	34	8.1
Missing ^a	2		
<hr/>			
BIRTHPLACE	N	Percent^b	
PR Born & Raised	55	43.7	
USA Born & Raised	40	31.7	
PR Born USA Raised	23	18.3	
USA Born PR Raised	6	4.8	
Missing	2	1.6	
 COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE			
	N	Percent	
Mainland USA	93	75.0	
Puerto Rico	31	25.0	
Missing	2	1.6	
 ETHNIC SELF-IDENTIFICATION			
	N	Percent	
Puerto Rican	103	83.7	
Hispanic	10	8.1	
North American	6	4.9	
Latina	1	.8	
Hispanic/Black	1	.8	
Hispanic/Asian	1	.8	
Hispanic/Puerto Rican	1	.8	
Missing	3	2.4	

a = Number of respondents who did not provide this information.

b = Do not equal 100 if missing percentage is added.

TABLE 2. EDUCATION: COUNTRY, LEVEL; AND LANGUAGE

COUNTRY OF EDUCATION		
	N	Percent^b
All or almost all Mainland USA	54	43.5
All or almost all in Puerto Rico	50	40.3
Half in PR, half in M.USA	8	6.5
Mostly in M. USA	7	5.6
Mostly in PR	5	4.0
Missing ^a	2	1.6
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL		
	N	Percent
Less than 7th grade	3	2.4
Junior high school	4	3.3
Some high school	11	8.9
High school graduate	27	22.0
Some college	36	29.3
College graduate	27	22.0
Graduate school	15	12.2
Missing	3	2.4
Language Used at Home		
	N	Percent
Spanish	59	47.6
English	52	41.9
English/Spanish	13	10.5
Missing	2	1.6
Language Preferred for Reading/Writing		
	N	Percent
Spanish	49	42.2
English	47	40.5
English/Spanish	20	17.2
Missing	10	7.9
Language Preferred for Speaking		
	N	Percent
Spanish	55	45.5
English	29	24.0
English/Spanish	37	30.6
Missing	5	4.0

a = Number of respondents who did not provide this information.

b = Not equal to 100 if missing percentage is added.

**TABLE 3. EMPLOYMENT, HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION,
AND CONTACT WITH MOTHER.**

EMPLOYMENT		
	N	Percent^b
Full time	67	54.5
Student	16	13.0
Homemaker	15	12.2
Part time	13	10.6
Half time	11	8.9
Retired	1	.8
Missing ^a	3	2.4
HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION		
	N	Percent
Legal husband	62	55.9
Child(ren) only	29	26.1
Domestic partner	11	9.9
Grandmother	7	6.3
Relatives	1	.9
Other	1	.9
Missing	15	11.9
NUMBER OF CHILDREN		
	N	Percent
1	42	33.9
2	45	36.3
3	22	17.7
4	10	8.1
5	4	3.2
9	1	.8
Missing	2	1.6
FREQUENCY OF CONTACT WITH MOTHER		
	N	Percent
Daily	41	36.0
Weekly	34	29.8
5 days/wk	16	14.0
Monthly	15	13.2
Biweekly	3	2.6
Bimonthly	2	1.8
Other	3	2.6
Missing	12	9.5

a = Number of respondents who did not provide this information.

b = Not equal to 100 if missing percentage is added

TABLE 4. INCOME AND SOCIAL POSITION

INCOME		
	N	Percent^b
\$50,000 or more	23	18.7
\$30,000-49,999	16	13.0
\$20,000-29,999	22	17.9
\$15,000-19,999	12	9.8
\$12,000-14,999	14	11.4
\$11,000-11,999	3	2.4
\$10,000-10,999	5	4.1
\$9,000-9,999	4	3.3
\$8,000-8,999	7	5.7
\$7,000-7,999	5	4.1
\$6,000-6,999	1	.8
\$5,000-5,999	1	.8
\$4,000-4,999	3	2.4
\$3,000-3,999	1	.8
\$2,000-2,999	2	1.6
\$1,000-1,999	2	1.6
\$0001-999	2	1.6
Missing ^a	3	2.4
SOCIAL STANDING INDEX		
	N	Percent
I. Executives, major professionals, graduate education	17	13.5
II. Business managers, lesser professional, college education	46	36.5
III. Clerical technicians, partial college, high school graduates	16	12.7
IV. Skilled manual employees, partial high school, junior high school graduate	26	20.6
V. Unskilled employees, unemployed, less than 7 years of education	19	15.1
Missing	2	1.6
a = Number of respondents who did not provide this information.		
b = Not equal to 100 if missing percentage is added		

Reliability:

Cronbach's Alpha reliability Coefficients were calculated as a measure of internal consistency for each of the scales used in this study. **Table 5** summarizes this information. **Table 6** compares the mean scores of the participants subgroups from Mainland U.S.A. and Puerto Rico separately.

The sample's mean scores obtained in the Parenting Stress Index (**PSI**) *Parental domain* were in the 65th percentile rank, indicating the participants' normal stress level in the role of mother when compared to the group sampled by Abidin (1995). They also scored in the normal range of stress (45th percentile) when compared with Hispanic norms reported by Solis (1990). Only the *attachment* subscale was relatively high (indicating low monitoring of children), although within the average range. The **PSI Parental Domain** scale showed a **.94** reliability coefficient. The subscales that comprise the parental domain produced the following reliability coefficients: *competence*: .78; *isolation*: .76; *attachment*: .73; *health*: .72; *role restriction*: .80; *depression*: .84; and *spouse*: .76.

The Family Environment Scales' (**FES**) subscales mean scores obtained for both the participants' perception of their families of origin (**FO**) and their families of procreation (**FP**) were all in the average range. This indicates the participants' perception of average involvement with people in their family and the openness with which they express both positive and negative feelings. The **FES** subscales of *Cohesion*, *Conflict* and *Expressiveness* for the participants' **FO** obtained coefficients of **.74**, **.65**, and **.31** respectively. Those for the participants' **FP** are **.69**, **.49**, and **.30** for the same subscales. None of the items was deleted.

Almost all of the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were significant, but for two exceptions. They represent a high to moderate reliability of the scales, except for the *Expressiveness* subscale of the FES which had low reliability. One factor that may account for this is the restricted range in this specialized sample: since the primary components of Cronbach's Alpha are the item and subscale variances, subscales alphas necessarily vary in line with the characteristics of the sample (Moos & Moos, 1994).

The sample's mean scores in the Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire's (**PAFS-Q**)'s subscales were within the average range when compared to those reported by Bray, Williamson & Malone, 1984.

Thus indicating the participants' view of themselves as moderately able to carry intimate interactions with their parents while maintaining an individuated stance, without feeling too intimidated by their parents. The alpha coefficients for the **PAFS-Q** *personal authority* and *intergenerational intimidation* subscales were **.91** and **.88** respectively.

TABLE 5. MEASUREMENTS AND RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS¹

Measures	N=	Mean	Standard Deviation	Alpha Coefficients
PSI	98	128.8	31.3	0.94
Competence	115	30.0	7.6	0.78
Isolation	120	13.0	4.2	0.76
Attachment	120	14.8	4.9	0.73
Health	119	12.7	4	0.72
Role Restriction	121	19.2	5.7	0.80
Depression	125	20.8	6.6	0.84
Spouse	120	17.6	5.7	0.76
PAFS-Q				
Personal Autho.	112	39.5	9.1	0.91
Intergen. Intim.	118	105.8	18.8	0.88
FES				
FO: Cohesion	119	6.17	2.29	0.74
FP: Cohesion	121	6.63	2.03	0.69
FO: Expressiveness	120	5.11	1.71	0.31
FP: Expressiveness	114	5.96	1.56	0.30
FO: Conflict	119	3.73	2.18	0.65
FP:Conflict	120	3.10	1.85	0.50

¹ **Note:** **PSI**= Parenting Stress Index, **PAFS-Q**= Personal Authority Questionnaire, **FES**= Family Environment Scale, **FO**=family of origin, **FP**= family of procreation.

Table 6: Mean scores for Mainland U.S.A. and Puerto Rico subgroups of participants.

MEASURES	N =	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
Parenting Stress Index			
Mainland USA	92	127.3	37.1
<i>Puerto Rico</i>	31	131.3	26.0
PAFS-Q			
Personal Autho.			
Mainland USA	93	40.41	5.9
<i>Puerto Rico</i>	31	40.32	7.3
Intergen. Intim			
Mainland USA	93	104.3	19.9
<i>Puerto Rico</i>	30	98.67	19.3
FES			
FO: Cohesion			
Mainland USA	89	6.16	2.4
<i>Puerto Rico</i>	31	6.03	2.2
FP: Cohesion			
Mainland USA	90	6.70	2.2
<i>Puerto Rico</i>	31	6.42	1.7
FO: Expressiveness			
Mainland USA	89	5.03	1.8
<i>Puerto Rico</i>	31	5.26	1.6
FP: Expressiveness			
Mainland USA	89	5.76	1.7
<i>Puerto Rico</i>	31	6.03	1.4
FO: Conflict			
Mainland USA	89	3.91	2.3
<i>Puerto Rico</i>	31	3.10	1.7
FP: Conflict			
Mainland USA	89	3.10	1.9
<i>Puerto Rico</i>	31	3.00	1.7

Note: PAFS-Q: Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire, FES= Family Environment Scale, FO= Family of origin FP= Family of procreation.

Analyses:

Given a sample of 126 Mainland or Island born Puerto Rican women, the chance to detect a medium effect size (.30), at a significance level of .05, was greater than .90 for all analyses (Buchner, Faul & Erdfelder, 1996; Cohen, 1989; 1992).

Demographic Information:

Pearson Product Moment and Spearman Rank correlations were calculated in order to determine whether there were any significant correlations between the demographic information (age, education, number of children, income, frequency of contact with their own mothers, and years in the USA) and any of the independent variables. Weak statistically-significant correlations were found between: age, education, and parenting stress ($r = -.199, p < .03$); and $r = -.279, p < .002$ respectively); education, intergenerational intimidation ($r = .205, p < .02$) and family of procreation's degree of cohesion ($r = .239, p < .008$); number of children and family of procreation's cohesion ($r_{pb} = .241, p < .008$); income and intergenerational intimidation ($r_s = .290, p < .001$), parental stress ($r_s = -.290, p < .001$), family of procreation's expressiveness ($r_s = .199, p < .03$); and frequency of contact and personal authority ($r_s = .304, p < .001$), family of origin's degree of expressiveness ($r_s = .201, p < .035$), family of procreation's conflict level ($r_s = -.240, p < .011$).

Despite their statistical significance, these correlations were not included in the correlational and multiple regression analyses because they did not reach a moderate level of association (.4 or above).

Using Pearson Moment Correlations, the mean scores of the **PSI** Parental domain, the *personal authority* and *intergenerational intimidation* subscales of the **PAFS-Q**, and the *cohesion*, *conflict*, and *expressiveness* subscales of the **FES** were compared to ensure the independence of the constructs under study (see **TABLE 7**).

**TABLE 7. PEARSON CORRELATIONS MATRIX
(N= 116)**

	PS	PERAUT	INTIM	FOCOH	FOCON	FOEXP	FPCOH	FPCON	FPEXP
PS	1.00								
PERAUT	.355	1.00							
INTIM	-.172	.069	1.00						
FOCOH	-.245	.216	.209	1.00					
FOCON	.353	-.257	.174	-.591	1.00				
FOEXP	-.164	.187	.053	.324	-.195	1.00			
FPCOH	-.249	.047	.061	.505	-.194	.141	1.00		
FPCON	.410	-.172	.028	-.311	.489	-.228	-.475	1.00	
FPEXP	-.092	.075	.083	.228	-.128	.202	.362	-.268	1.00

Note: PS= Parental stress PERAUT= Personal authority INTIM= Intergenerational Intimidation FO=family of origin FP= family of procreation COH= cohesion CON= conflict EXP= expressiveness. Light color = $p < .05$.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 stated that the degree of stress experienced by mothers of Puerto Rican background would be directly related to the discrepancy between the perceptions of their families of origin (FO) and their own families of procreation (FP) in regards to *cohesion*, *conflict*, and *expressiveness*. This hypothesis would be supported by significant differences between the three means of the FES scores and by significant correlations between the discrepancies between these mean scores and the PSI scores.

A paired t test was used to compare all three family environment characteristics at once. The results obtained pointed to a statistically-significant difference between the mean scores of the FO and the FP *cohesion* ($t = -2.78$, $df = 118$, s , $p < .006$), *conflict* ($t = 3.28$, $df = 117$, s , $p < .001$) and *expressiveness* subscales ($t = -4.02$, $df = 117$, s , $p < .001$). In other words, the participants perceived their families of origin and procreation as different in these three family characteristics.

Pearson's correlations were then computed between the parental stress mean score and the discrepancy between the perception of family of origin and of procreation with respect to the three family environment's characteristics (cohesion, conflict, and

expressiveness). The results indicated that there were no significant correlations among the level of **PS** and the three **FES** discrepancies scores (cohesion: $r = -.025$, *ns*, $p > .05$; conflict: $r = .015$, *ns*, $p > .05$; expressiveness: $r = -.067$, *ns*, $p > .05$). Therefore, this hypothesis was not sustained.

Hypothesis II stated that the level of parental stress reported by mothers of Puerto Rican background would be inversely related to their degree of personal authority. This hypothesis would be confirmed by a significant correlation between the parental stress and personal authority scores.

Pearson's correlations of the mean scores of the personal authority, intergenerational intimidation and parental stress' scales were computed. Although weak in magnitude, the results obtained indicated that a statistically-significant, negative correlation between parental stress and personal authority ($r = -.345$, $df = 122$, s , $p < .05$) and intergenerational intimidation ($r = -.235$, $df = 121$, s , $p < .05$) could be established. Sustaining our hypothesis that the greater the degree of personal authority reported by the participants, the smaller the degree of parental stress that they would experience.

Additional findings

A stepwise multiple regression was estimated to try to predict parental stress from personal authority, intergenerational intimidation, and the three *FES* scores. This explored the contribution of these mothers' degree of *personal authority* and the characteristics of their families of procreation, (*cohesion, conflict and expressiveness*) to current levels of parental stress.

The scores of the parental stress scale were predicted from the total scores of the *personal authority, intergenerational intimidation, and conflict* scales only. Six cases were deleted due to missing data. The criteria for entering and removal were set at .05 and .10 respectively. The results showed that personal authority, intergenerational intimidation, and conflict are significant, strong predictors of parental stress when considered together. Twenty-nine percent (29%) of the variance in the analysis could be explained by these three factors ($R^2 = .288$, $F = 15.68$, $df = 3, 116$, $p < .05$). The experience of parental stress that mothers of Puerto Rican background reported is best understood by examining the degree of conflict expressed in their families of procreation and their levels of personal authority. The greater the level of conflict reported, the greater the level of stress experienced; the

greater the degree of personal authority, the smaller the degree of parental stress reported.

A summary of this final model is presented in **Table 8**.

TABLE 8. Multiple regression analysis of parental stress, personal authority, and family of procreation characteristics.

N= 120

VARIABLE	BETA	t	P
Constant	.000	9.796	.000
Personal Authority	-.288	-3.606	.000*
Intimidation	-.196	-2.490	.0142*
Conflict	.341	4.280	.000*
R =	.537		*p<.05
R ² =	.288		
ADJ. R ² =	.270		
F =	15.681		
df =	3, 116		
p =	.0000		

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

This study examined the experience of stress related to maternal characteristics and family context variables that impact upon mothers' ability to function competently as caregivers. Some of these maternal characteristics were the sense of competence, the degree of isolation, and the perceived restrictions imposed by the role of mother (Abidin, 1995). We asked if women whose self-definition was influenced by *marianista* pressures embedded in the Latino culture experienced stress in their maternal role when they behaved in more individuated ways, perhaps in accordance to non-traditional standards. The relation between parental stress defined in this way and the women's degree of personal authority within their families of origin --being connected and a part of it while acting from a differentiated position within it (Williamson, 1991) was considered. This was explored in the context of the differences in perceptions of their families of procreation vs. their families of origin held by these women.

The subjective experiences and perceptions of 126 women of Puerto Rican background regarding their traditional gender roles as daughters and mothers in their current family contexts were explored through self-reports. Specifically, the participants' opinions about the degree of commitment, help, and support family members provide for each other or their family cohesion; the amount of openly expressed anger, aggression, and conflict among members; and the extent to which family members are encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly (Moos & Moos, 1994).

The demographic findings showed that a wide range of socioeconomic and educational levels was represented by the participants in this study. Homemakers, unemployed women on public assistance or work/employment programs, junior, and senior college students, teachers, childcare workers, administrators, dancers, social workers, a physician, and clerical and sales workers were among those who volunteered. The participants' curiosity about themselves and their families was evident during the process of requesting or returning the questionnaire packets. They shared anecdotes of both positive and negative interactions with their mothers and daughters, asked questions about how to do a better job as members of their families, and expressed a desire to share their

experiences as women of Puerto Rican background, so that “others would understand them” and/or prevent difficulties that they had encountered.

As a group, they were educationally and financially successful. Half of the participants reported annual incomes higher than \$30,000 dollars, while the rest listed annual incomes \$20,000 or less. Eighteen (18%) percent of the participants were in the same income level as the average Puerto Rican household in the USA for 1993, the lowest for all Latino groups (\$27,917) although higher than the New York median income of \$15,800 dollars for Puerto Ricans in this state. On the other hand, 19% percent reported an average in the \$50,000 or more range, which approximates that of non-Latino White households (\$51,471) for the same year (Bureau of the Census, 1994). Forty-three (43%) percent listed incomes below \$15,000, less than the average poverty threshold for a family of four (\$16,036; \$15,800 for single-headed households) in the U.S. These numbers were all higher than the average household income in Puerto Rico.

The participation in this study of women in the lower end of the socioeconomic range, who received some form of government subsidy, coincided with the nationwide implementation of “workfare” programs as part of the Federal Welfare Reform. Some expressed their hesitation to participate as they felt under scrutiny and pressure from various social services agencies. What Rogler (1984) called “a functional sociopsychological response to the conditions of urban life among people with a ... culture different from....[that] of the host society” (p. 32) was in operation: distrust.

In addition, personal beliefs about what constitutes appropriate information to share outside the family or friendship networks may have also affected the participants’ responses regarding their marital status. Most waived their right to receive a mailed copy of the summary of the results or to participate in a group or individual debriefing session.

The experimenters, one of which was very familiar with the East Harlem community where some participants were recruited, reassured women of the confidentiality of their responses. Those participants who did not feel comfortable were reminded that they could withdraw their participation at any time. Regardless, it is possible that those who harbored doubts, but chose to be in the study, may have not reported marital status information accurately.

Their preference for ethnic self-description as Puerto Ricans (84% of all respondents), regardless of generational and migration history, was to be expected given the specific call for the participation of Puerto Rican women instead of requesting Latina or Hispanic women. However, this is also congruent with the literature on Puerto Ricans in the United States that describes Puerto Ricans' proclivity not to abandon their culture, language, and identity. With regard to language use, for example, the participants' stated preference for the use of Spanish in their daily lives alongside English reflect the trends identified by Rodríguez (1989) regarding acculturation effects both in the Mainland and the Island. Rodríguez described data on the high level of English proficiency of bilingual Puerto Ricans when compared to other Hispanic groups. She pointed out that there exists a wide allegiance to maintaining Spanish as "a marker of cultural, social, and political identity" (p. 17). For the women in this study, their use of Spanish irrespective of their degree of proficiency represents their interest in retaining their Puerto Rican heritage, even when some of them were not born in Puerto Rico and had little connection with the island and its present culture (Rodríguez, 1989).

For participants who live in Puerto Rico, the presence of the English language in the environment is a given as it is taught all throughout the educational system. Earlier in the century, English was the official language of instruction. Due to political and economic factors, its presence continued to be an integral part of society even though it has never been the language of Puerto Rico "in daily life, in literature, or in education, notwithstanding the efforts to promote English and the policy of bilingual education that has caused a chain of pedagogical changes ..." (Babín, 1983 p. 320). A resurgence of its presence reached a peak in the early 1980's when English entered the living rooms of Puerto Ricans who had never visited an English speaking country, and who had only basic elementary English knowledge, via cable television services. Maintaining the Spanish language as the official language is presently a high priority issue linked to the island's political status and to the relationship with the rest of Latin America. In this sense, it is also an integral part of the cultural, social, and political identity.

It follows that women with such a strong connection to their cultural roots would experience *marianista* pressures. The degree of power that *marianismo* exerts in their daily

lives is however connected to their level of traditionalism. The extent of its impact in the participants' lives is one unanswered question in this study, as the concept of traditionalism is only indirectly addressed here. It can be argued that given the freedoms afforded by higher levels of socioeconomic positions, the value system of the women in this investigation fluctuates from one end of the traditional/non-traditional continuum addressed by Gil & Vázquez (1996) to the other. They do so as they reshape values from the home country in their negotiating their present mother-daughter role demands.

In summary, the sample in this study by way of their educational, marital, and financial status, adds some balance to psychological research with ethnic minorities which tends to focus on inner-city, working poor persons, mental health clinic clients, or college students (Pérez, 1989; Solis, 1991; Quiñones, 1996). It depicts a picture of Puerto Rican women compatible with sociological and oral-historic literature descriptions (Ortiz, 1996; Justiniano, 1994) of how they have surmounted adverse circumstances.

Stress, family environment, and personal authority

Older, better-educated, and financially stable women with fewer children reported lower levels of stress (parenting stress and age: $r = -.199$, $p < .03$; and education: $r = -.279$, $p < .002$; and income: $r_s = -.290$, $p < .001$). These trends are congruent with the body of research about the negative correlation between the experience of stress and socioeconomic status.

Most of the participants reported being married (56%) and only ten percent (10%) declared living with a domestic partner. They had less than three children and kept contact with their mothers more than once a week. Rogler (1984) described this intergenerational interdependence exemplified by fast paced weekly contacts between parents and their adult offspring. Cortés (1995) focused on how familistic beliefs operate within 400 Puerto Ricans representing 100 intergenerational (parent-child) families living in New York City. Education appeared to be the strongest variable affecting familistic beliefs in both family generation groups. In addition to this, age of arrival in the US affected familism among those in the parent generation. Findings from her study suggested that processes affecting traditional beliefs among family-related individuals might be different even when they share

the same family environment. Nevertheless, there was found to be an on-going connection between the participants and their mothers which fits the literature's description of *familism* (Ayala Santos, 1988; Marín & Marín-Vanoos, 1991; Inclán & Hernández, 1992) as a still important traditional value in Puerto Rican families.

The participants' description of their stress in the mothering role was in the normal range expected for Hispanic and non-Hispanic parents (mean =128.8, SD 31.3) (Abidin, 1995; Solis, 1990, 1991). Their frequent contact with their mothers, the availability of a spouse, and their small number of children partially explains this average level of reported parental stress, as the availability of social support has been found to buffer people from stress (Paster, 1994; Nitz, Ketterlinus & Brandt, 1995; Vega, Kolody, Valle, & Weir, 1991).

The participants' normal scores in the **PSI** tended to be close to the cutoff point for clinical significance related to low levels of monitoring and vigilance of their daughters' behavior. It may be that opportunities for disagreements between mothers and grandmothers over childrearing issues decrease during the middle childhood years, if the women are busy at work and have a limited amount of time for interacting both with their daughters and the extended family. Or simply that these average scores reflected the mothers' comfort with entrusting their daughters to the grandmother's care and therefore felt a small need to exert close supervision.

For the women in this investigation, a tendency toward doing things differently from their families of origin's style was detected. This coincided with the group's moderate level of personal authority. We can theorize that perhaps this indicated some dissatisfaction as well as an interest in expanding the families' repertoire of behavior, characteristics, etc. However, the discrepancies in their perceptions of their family environments were not related to the participants' level of parental stress, contrary to the investigator's expectations. Instead, the current family environment characteristics were more important to understand women's parental stress. Sixteen (16%) percent of the variance in parental stress could be explained by how openly and frequently anger, aggression, and conflict was expressed by family members. In other words, their experience of stress in the role of mother was not so much affected by how they were able and willing to create families

different from the ones in which they were the daughters, but by the actual degree of difficult interactions with others in their nuclear families.

The Family Environment Scales' (*FES*) subscales mean scores obtained for both the participants' perception of their families of origin (**FO**) (cohesion: mean = 6.17 SD 2.29; expressiveness: mean = 5.11 SD 1.71; conflict: mean = 3.73 SD 2.18) and their families of procreation (**FP**) were all in the average range (cohesion: mean = 6.63 SD 2.03; expressiveness: mean = 5.96 SD 1.56; conflict: mean = 3.1 SD 1.85).

This shows the participants' perceptions of average involvement with people in their family and the openness with which they express both positive and negative feelings. It is important to note that the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients for the *FES* subscales, although within the acceptable range, were all lower than those reported by Moos & Moos (1994). Also, they were lower for the family of procreation's *FES* when compared to those obtained for the family of origin of the participants. This is consistent with Roosa and Beals's (1990a) findings of lower reliability indexes than those reported by Moos et.al. We believe that order effects are partially responsible for the lowering of the internal consistency reliability coefficients in the present study.

The participants saw their **FO** and **FP** as different in the family relationship characteristics examined. They felt that a relatively greater degree of commitment, help, and support was provided to others in the family in which they were the mothers. In contrast, they considered their family of origin as more openly expressing anger, aggression, and conflict. This finding parallels previous investigations in which retrospective ratings of the family of origin are high in conflict and low in expressiveness (Carpenter, 1994; Moos & Moos, 1994). An interesting discovery since the participants were asked to rate their families as they saw them presently. Perhaps, it is not possible to rate one's family of origin via the *FES* without using all the information accrued over the years. Also, those women who saw their mothers more frequently described their families of procreation as less conflicted. This is consistent with research findings that support the concept of social support as a protective factor in peoples' lives (Paster, 1994). Nitz, Ketterlinus & Brandt (1995) found that social support, as exemplified by mothers of primiparous African-American adolescent mothers, moderated the effects of interpersonal conflict in the family.

This connection was even stronger when the conflicted networks were large.

Conclusions about the extent to which family members are encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly are more difficult to reach. The *Expressiveness* subscale of the FES had low reliability. The sample's scores in the *Expressiveness* subscale had limited variability. The restricted range in this specialized sample partially explains this result since the primary components of Cronbach's Alpha are the item and subscale variances, and the subscales alphas necessarily vary in line with the characteristics of the sample (Moos & Moos, 1994, p. 21). However, this explanation is not consistent with the adequate reliabilities obtained in the other two subscales.

The use of the same instrument to measure the same constructs for the participants' family of origin and of procreation posed other problems. Despite efforts to clarify instructions and to cue participants visually via the use of different font styles for the *FES*, some of them failed to complete one of the two versions of the *FES* several times. They thought that they had answered it already or that it was a mistake by the researcher. In most circumstances, the investigator succeeded in obtaining the missing *FES* immediately or within a few days. This experimental error in conjunction with possible learning effects in the repeated measures design (e.g. habituation to questions) may have affected the validity of the obtained scores in this scale.

An alternative explanation for the low reliability of the *expressiveness* subscales is the influence of the cultural meaning of the items for Puerto Rican mothers on the degree of social acceptance or rejection of the behaviors described by Moos et al., (e.g. "we say anything we want to around home"). Perhaps some of the items were not relevant for families with younger children. Since the young are expected to "show respect" for the old, statements such as the previous one may be discouraged in this family context. On the other hand, the trend toward limited monitoring and vigilance of the daughters' behavior that the responses of the participants reflected may also imply a family milieu in which parental authority is not to be challenged. The concept of *respeto*, respecting others, would be considered to be more important than the person's right to assert her own point of view.

As stated earlier, the notion of how dissimilar the women perceived their families to be was thought to be relevant to understand their mothering role experiences, particularly

the stress in negotiating competing demands coming from their own mothers and daughters. At the University of Puerto Rico, Martinez Mejias (1993) used Bowlby's attachment theory as the framework for studying childrearing patterns in two-generational Puerto Rican families in a exploratory study of 10 Puerto Rican women participating in the WIC program on the island. She emphasized that the legacy of previous experiences of mothers with their own mothers --as well as their quality-- was essential to the performance of the mothering role. The participants in her sample were socioeconomically similar, but varied in educational level. All were first time mothers. Results from her content analysis of interviews indicated that mothers refer to their own childhood experiences with their mothers and fathers as a framework for raising their own children. They actively attempted to replicate, improve, or change the patterns learned from their earlier experiences, depending on whether they considered those as positive or negative. If they described their experiences as positive, they tried to replicate them and/or improve them. If negative, they focused on changing them by parenting differently. However, Martinez Mejias emphasized that sociocultural, economic, and political issues impacted childrearing practices of mothers. Therefore, intergenerational transmission of childrearing practices could not explain women's parenting practices by itself.

Personal authority is believed to be achieved during the fourth decade of life (Williamson, 1991). The mean age of the participants was 35, placing their moderate ability to carry intimate interactions with their parents while maintaining an individuated stance, without feeling too intimidated by their parents right on schedule, as indicated by their average *PAFS-Q*'s subscales scores. Income and educational level had some mild effects on these women's experience of feeling intimidated by their parents, with less intimidation reported by those with more education and earning power. As a group, the patterns of behavior measured by these scales were characteristic of women with an integrated and differentiated self, with partially resolved intrapsychic conflicts, relational issues, achievement, and intimacy conflicts generated by transgenerational mandates and loyalties. The majority of the participants felt connected as a part of their family of origin while at the same time they acted from a differentiated position to a moderate degree.

There was a weak trend indicating that the higher the level of personal authority, the less parental stress was experienced by the women. Personal authority explained 12% of the variation in parental stress. Even though weak in statistical significance, this trend has interesting clinical significance since personal authority skills can be developed (Williamson, 1991).

The strongest findings in this study pertain to the contributions of personal authority, intergenerational intimidation, and conflict in the family of procreation to parental stress. Twenty-nine percent (29%) of the changes in parental stress scores could be explained by changes in these three factors. Specifically, this suggested that when the participants reported being less able to interact intimately with their parents and feeling intimidated by them, while experiencing open and frequent anger, aggression, and conflict in their nuclear family, their levels of parental stress were higher.

Limitations of the study

The participants in this study were richer and better educated than would be expected given the demographics for this group both in New York and Puerto Rico. This was due to the effects of self-selection of participants. Some such bias in subject selection is a common occurrence when utilizing volunteers solicited through the media, mail, and/or opportunistic approaches to gathering data, such as participants recruiting friends, relatives, or acquaintances to complete self-report inventories.

A frequent problem in self-report inventories' research is the tendency for positive self-portrayal of those completing them. A measure of social desirability would have provided an index of this phenomenon.

Lastly, Quiñones (1996) recommended that "aspects of acculturation [such as] attitudes, coping skills, and biculturalism" should be included to fully examine the complex relationships among gender-related attitudes expressed by Latina participants in research. Inclusion of other instruments, for example a measure of acculturation, would have addressed these issues.

Summary and Conclusions

This study looked at the experience of stress of 126 Mainland and Island-born Puerto Rican mothers, its relation to their degree of personal authority (Williamson, 1991) and the differences in perception of their families of procreation vs. their families of origin. Particularly, the participants' perceptions of the degree of commitment, help, and support that the members provide for each other in their families; the amount of openly expressed anger, aggression, and conflict among members; and the extent to which family members are encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly were studied.

It was hypothesized that these three variables were related. Specifically, that a) there would be a discrepancy between the women's perception of their families of origin and their families of procreation with respect to conflict, cohesion, and independence and that this discrepancy would be related to the reported level of stress; and b) that the stress level would be inversely related to the degree of personal authority.

Statistically-significant differences between the characteristics of the participants' families, as described by these mothers, were found, but no relation between these and parental stress could be established. Conflict in the family of procreation correlated moderately with parental stress. Personal authority was found to be a significant, moderate predictor of parental stress with the latter decreasing as personal authority increased. When considered together, level of conflict in the family of procreation and degree of personal authority were strong, significant predictors of parental stress.

Given the results of this study, it can be inferred that intergenerational bonds retain their strength despite the divisive influences associated with the disparity between the generations and the migration experiences, as Rogler (1984) had already noted. They showed that for women of Puerto Rican background similar to those who participated, being connected to their family of origin while maintaining autonomous behavior contributes to less experience of stress in the role of mother. Differences in how the women perceive their families of origin and their families of procreation were not found to impact their levels of stress. They were more likely to experience stress in fulfilling their maternal role when their families of procreation were reported to be highly conflicted. A trend toward less stress was evident when more social support was reported by the participants,

as represented by the frequent contact with the grandmothers. This seems to highlight the perpetual influence of familism and *marianismo* in these women's life.

Since the majority of the participants also worked or study (87%), the results of this investigation could be placed within the "enhancement" hypothesis of the effects of multiple roles in women. This hypothesis states that the benefits derived from multiple roles outweigh the costs (Clay, 1995). Understood from a "salutogenic" perspective (Antonovsky, 1979), these findings depict a group of women who are being effective in negotiating multiple demands despite potentially undermining forces in their environment.

Further research in this area would benefit from including higher specificity of demographic information (for example, exact number of years of education); larger numbers of participants from all five social positions; the concurrent study of other important family members, e.g. grandmothers and granddaughters; and a qualitative exploration of the phenomenology of women's experiences within both of their family contexts.

Other lines of research could explore how women of Puerto Rican background benefit from ongoing positive connections to their families, and particularly to their mothers. Second, whether the support that their mothers offer contributes to their general well-being, providing an emotional anchor that allows them to negotiate other demands in their families of procreation. If this can be understood as a "salutogen" and third, which combination of external and internal factors determine the experience of stress in the maternal role.

Questions regarding what other "salutogens" exist in the lives of women of Puerto Rican background, how can they be maximized and utilized fully are raised by these results. Can women identified as being at high risk for parenting stress be helped to establish the foundations necessary to acquire the skills synonymous with personal authority earlier in their development? Do preventive psychological interventions help decrease women's negative stress in the role of mother by assisting women in modifying their circumstances, therefore affecting the level of conflict they experience in their families?

Exploration of the effectiveness of therapeutic approaches that increase women's personal authority is needed. Particularly, how can parental stress be decreased by strengthening women's capacity to withstand conflict --which in and of itself does not need to be avoided at all times--. Expanding their ability to reach solutions, overcoming obstacles created by poverty and discrimination, as well as facilitating their access to opportunities available to them is also necessary. Efforts to continue improving relationships among all women, and particularly among daughters and mothers should be maximized in the context of the therapeutic relationship. These type of research would inform clinical practice in how to help women "(reassess) their relationships, bury antagonisms, and become allies in revolutionizing how girls grow up" (Debold, Wilson, Malavé, 1993).

Appendix A: Consent Forms

INFORMED CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

To participants in this study:

I am a doctoral student at the City University of New York Graduate School and University Center. I am interested in studying family environment, women's roles, and stress. To that effect, I am interviewing Puerto Rican women (or descendants of Puerto Ricans). This material will be used to try to better understand the views of women on family life, roles, and the demands these place on them.

Participation in this project is voluntary and confidential. It will not affect your employment and/or student status in any way. There are no known risks for participation in this study. It includes procedures which may not give immediate benefits to you, but it is hoped that the knowledge gained will be of benefit to others in the future.

You are one of approximately 100 participants. As part of this study, I am asking you to participate in one interview of approximately 30 minutes duration. The interview will consist of answers to three questionnaires. You will answer questions about your family of origin, the family in which you are the daughter, about your current family (the one in which you are the mother) and about yourself as a parent.

As part of the project, I may compose profiles based on your answers; and use some of the interview material for academic and/or publication purposes. Your name and other identifying information will be kept confidential.

You may at any time withdraw your consent during the interview process.

In signing this form, I commit myself to: facilitating your understanding of the information presented above; providing you with a summary of the results of the investigation once it is completed; and facilitating any additional information of benefit to you and your family.

I, have read and understood the above statement and agree to participate under the conditions stated herein.

Participant

Eduvigis Cruz Arrieta, M.Phil.
Researcher

Date 1996/97

Consentimiento informado para participar en la investigación

A las participantes en este estudio:

Soy candidata a un grado doctoral en City University of New York Graduate School and University Center. Como parte de mi proyecto de tesis, me interesa estudiar el ambiente familiar, y los roles de la mujer y el estrés que le ocasionen los mismos. Con este fin, estoy entrevistando a mujeres puertorriqueñas (o descendientes de puertorriqueños). Analizaré el material recopilado para tratar de entender mejor la visión que tienen las mujeres de su vida familiar, sus roles y las demandas que éstos imponen sobre ellas.

La participación en este proyecto es voluntaria y confidencial, y de ninguna manera afectará su empleo o su estatus de estudiante. No existe ningún riesgo conocido por participar en este estudio. Incluye procedimientos que tal vez no le brinden un beneficio inmediato, pero se espera que el conocimiento adquirido sea beneficioso para otros en el futuro.

Usted es una de aproximadamente 100 participantes. Como parte de este estudio, le pido que participe en una entrevista de media hora de duración. La entrevista consistirá en que responda a tres cuestionarios. Contestará preguntas acerca de su familia de origen (la familia en la que usted es la hija), sobre su familia actual (en la que usted es la madre) y acerca de su rol de madre.

Como parte del proyecto, puede que prepare "perfiles" usando sus contestaciones, y que utilice parte del material de la entrevista para fines académicos y/o de publicación. Su nombre y cualquier otra información que la identifique se mantendrá confidencial.

Podrá retirar su consentimiento en cualquier momento durante el proceso de entrevista.

Al firmar este consentimiento, me comprometo a : ayudarla a entender la información antes mencionada; proveerle un resumen de los resultados de la investigación, una vez completada; y facilitar cualquier información adicional que sea beneficiosa para usted y su familia.

He leído y comprendido lo expuesto anteriormente, y estoy de acuerdo en participar en este estudio conforme a las condiciones establecidas más arriba.

Participante

Eduvigis Cruz Arrieta, M.Phil.
Investigadora

_____ de 1997.
Fecha

Nombre:

Dirección:

Teléfonos: Día: Noche:

Mejor hora para llamar:

Circle:

Me gustaría tener una reunión para discutir mis impresiones acerca del estudio y el proceso de entrevista. No me gustaría

- Envie resultados. No me envíe un resumen de los

Desprenda y quédese con esta sección.

¡¡GRACIAS POR PARTICIPAR!!!!!!!!!!!!!!

Si desea obtener más información acerca de este estudio, comuníquese con

Eduvigis Cruz Arrieta

En Nueva York:

C/O
Northside Center
Psychology Dept.
1301 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York 10029
212 426 3437

En Puerto Rico:

(787) 726 3111

o via Email:

PRstudy@aol.com

Appendix B: Participant Information Forms
Hollingshead Four-Factor Index

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

LOCATION _____ Date: _____, 1997

1. Your age: _____
2. Age(s) of your daughter(s): _____
3. Birth order of your daughter(s) 1st _____ 2nd _____ 3rd _____
4. Has your daughter been referred for treatment of emotional or behavioral problems? _____ yes _____ no
5. If you have other children, how many do you have? _____
6. Language used for:
 - a. speaking: English _____ Spanish _____
 - b. reading and writing: English _____ Spanish _____
7. Which language is spoken more in your home? English _____ Spanish _____
8. I was born and raised in Puerto Rico: _____ yes _____ no
9. I was born in Puerto Rico, but came to the U.S. as a child: _____ yes _____ no
- 9a. Born in U.S. but raised in PR _____ yes _____ no
10. I was born and raised in the U.S.: _____ yes _____ no
11. How long have you lived in the U.S.?: _____ years
12. Do you consider yourself and your family as: American _____ Hispanic _____ Puerto Rican _____ Other _____
13. Your mother's age: _____ years
 - a. Birthplace _____
 - b. If not continental USA born, indicate number of years here: _____ years
14. Frequency of contact with her:

daily	S days/wk	weekly	monthly	other: _____
-------	-----------	--------	---------	--------------

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

25. What is his/her highest level of education:

- _____ less than seventh (7th) grade
- _____ junior high school (9th) grade
- _____ some high school (10th, 11th)
- _____ high school graduate
- _____ vocational training
(what kind? _____)
- _____ some college
- _____ college graduate
- _____ graduate school
(highest degree _____)

26. Approximately, what is the annual income in your house?

- \$ 0001- 999 _____
- \$ 1,000-1,999 _____
- \$ 2,000-2,999 _____
- \$ 3,000-3,999 _____
- \$ 4,000-4,999 _____
- \$ 5,000-5,999 _____
- \$ 6,000-6,999 _____
- \$ 7,000-7,999 _____
- \$ 8,000-8,999 _____
- \$ 9,000-9,999 _____
- \$ 10,000-10,999 _____
- \$ 11,000-11,999 _____
- \$ 12,000-14,999 _____
- \$ 15,000-19,999 _____
- \$ 20,000-29,999 _____
- \$ 30,000-49,999 _____
- \$ 50,000-More _____

- \$ _____

INFORMACION DE LA PARTICIPANTE

FECHA: _____ DE 1997

LUGAR _____

1. Edad: _____

2. Edad(es) de su(s) hija(s):

3. Orden de nacimiento de su hija(s)

1ra____ 2nda____ 3ra____ _____

4. ¿Han referido a su hija para tratamiento de problemas emocionales o de comportamiento?

_____ si _____ no

5. ¿Cuántos(as) hijos(as) tiene?

6. Idioma preferido al:

Inglés_____ Español_____

a. hablar:

Inglés_____ Español_____

b. leer y escribir:

7. ¿Qué idioma se habla más en su casa?

Inglés_____ Español_____

8. Nació y creció en Puerto Rico:

_____ si _____ no

9. Nació en Puerto Rico, pero se mudó a los EEUU de niña:

_____ si _____ no

9a. Nació en EEUU, pero creció en PR

_____ si _____ no

10. ¿Cuánto tiempo lleva en los EEUU?:

_____ años

11. Nació y creció en los EEUU:

_____ si _____ no

12. Se considera usted y a su familia:

Norteamericanos_____

Hispanos_____

Puertorriqueños_____

Otro_____

13. Edad de su madre:

_____ años

a. Lugar de nacimiento

b. Si no nació en los EEUU, cuántos años lleva ella aquí:

14. Frecuencia de contacto con su madre:

diario 5 días/semana

semanal mensual otro: _____

INFORMACION DE LA PARTICIPANTE

24. ¿Cuál es la edad de éste?: _____

25. Marque el grado de educación más alto que completó:

- _____ menos de séptimo (7mo) grado
- _____ séptimo (7mo) grado
- _____ años de escuela superior
- _____ graduada de escuela superior
- _____ escuela vocacional
(¿qué estudió? _____)
- _____ algunos años de universidad
- _____ graduada de Universidad
- _____ escuela graduada
(Diploma en _____)

26. Aproximadamente, ¿cuál es el ingreso anual en su hogar?

- \$ 0001 - 999 _____
 - \$ 1,000-1,999 _____
 - \$ 2,000-2,999 _____
 - \$ 3,000-3,999 _____
 - \$ 4,000-4,999 _____
 - \$ 5,000-5,999 _____
 - \$ 6,000-6,999 _____
 - \$ 7,000-7,999 _____
 - \$ 8,000-8,999 _____
 - \$ 9,000-9,999 _____
 - \$ 10,000-10,999 _____
 - \$ 11,000-11,999 _____
 - \$ 12,000-14,999 _____
 - \$ 15,000-19,999 _____
 - \$ 20,000-29,999 _____
 - \$ 30,000-49,999 _____
 - \$ 50,000- ó mas _____
- \$ _____

**Appendix C: Family Environment Scale Subscales:
English & Spanish Versions**

FES¹

INSTRUCTIONS

There are 27 statements about families. You are to decide which of the statements are true of your family and which are false. Think of the family which you are the DAUGHTER.

If you think a statement is True or mostly true of your family, mark with an **X** over the **T** (True).

If you think a statement is False or mostly false of your family, mark with an **X** over the **F** (False).

You may feel that some of the statements are true for some family members and false for others. Mark T if the statement is true for most members. Mark F if the statement is false for most members.

Remember, we would like to know what your family seems like to You. Give us your general impression of your family for each statement.

1.	Family members really help and support one another.	T	F
2.	Family members often keep their feelings to themselves.	T	F
3.	We fight a lot in our family.	T	F
4.	We often seem to be killing time at home.	T	F
5.	We say anything we want to around home.	T	F
6.	Family members rarely become openly angry.	T	F
7.	We put a lot of energy into what we do at home.	T	F
8.	It's hard to "blow off steam" at home without upsetting somebody.	T	F
9.	Family members sometimes get so angry they throw things.	T	F
10.	There is a feeling of togetherness in our family.	T	F
11.	We tell each other about our personal problems.	T	F
12.	Family members hardly ever lose their tempers.	T	F
13.	We rarely volunteer when something has to be done at home.	T	F
14.	If we feel like doing something on the spur of the moment we often just pick up and go.	T	F
15.	Family members often criticize each other.	T	F
16.	Family members really back each other up.	T	F
17.	Someone usually gets upset if you complain in our family.	T	F
18.	Family members sometimes hit each other.	T	F
19.	There is very little group spirit in our family.	T	F
20.	Money and paying bills is openly talked about in our family.	T	F
21.	If there's a disagreement in our family, we try hard to smooth things over and keep the peace.	T	F
22.	We really get along well with each other.	T	F
23.	We are usually careful about what we say to each other.	T	F
24.	Family members often try to one-up or out-do each other.	T	F
25.	There is plenty of time and attention for everyone in our family.	T	F
26.	There are a lot of spontaneous discussions in our family.	T	F
27.	In our family, we believe you don't ever get anywhere by raising your voice.	T	F

**Escala de Clima Social
(FES)¹**

INSTRUCCIONES:

PIENSE EN LA FAMILIA EN LA CUAL USTED ES LA HIJA

Por favor, lea las frases de este impreso. Usted tiene que decir si le parecen verdaderas o falsas en relación con su familia.

Si usted cree que, respecto a su familia, la frase es Verdadera o casi siempre verdadera, marcará con una **X** el espacio correspondiente a la V (verdadero o cierto).

Si cree que es Falsa o casi siempre falsa, marque con una **X** el espacio correspondiente a la F (falso). Si considera que la frase es cierta para unos miembros de la familia y para otros falsa, marque la respuesta que corresponda a la mayoría.

Recuerde que se pretende conocer lo que piensa usted sobre su familia; no intente reflejar la opinión de los demás miembros de ésta.

¹ Autor: R.H. Moos.

Derechos Reservados. 1984. TEA Ediciones. S.A., c/Fray Bernardino de Sahagún, 24, Madrid-16. Adaptado con permiso.

1.	En mi familia nos ayudamos y apoyamos realmente unos a otros.	V	F
2.	Los miembros de la familia guardan, a menudo, sus sentimientos para si mismos.	V	F
3.	En nuestra familia reñimos mucho.	V	F
4.	Muchas veces da la impresión de que en casa sólo estamos "pasando el rato".	V	F
5.	En casa hablamos abiertamente de lo que nos parece o queremos.	V	F
6.	En mi familia casi nunca mostramos abiertamente nuestros enfados.	V	F
7.	Todos nos esforzamos mucho en lo que hacemos en casa.	V	F
8.	En mi familia es difícil "desahogarse" sin molestar a todo el mundo.	V	F
9.	En casa a veces nos enfadamos tanto que golpeamos o rompemos algo.	V	F
10.	En mi familia hay un fuerte sentido de unión.	V	F
11.	En mi casa comentamos nuestros problemas personales.	V	F
12.	Los miembros de mi familia casi nunca mostramos nuestros enfados.	V	F
13.	Cuando hay que hacer algo en casa, es raro que se ofrezca algún voluntario.	V	F
14.	En casa, si a alguno se le ocurre de momento hacer algo, lo hace sin pensarlo más.	V	F
15.	Las personas de nuestra familia nos criticamos frecuentemente unas o otras.	V	F
16.	Las personas de mi familia nos apoyamos de verdad unas o otras.	V	F
17.	En mi familia cuando uno se queja siempre hay otro que se siente afectado.	V	F
18.	En mi familia a veces nos peleamos a golpes.	V	F
19.	En mi familia hay poco espíritu de grupo.	V	F
20.	En mi familia los temas de pagos y dinero se tratan abiertamente.	V	F
21.	Si en la familia hay desacuerdo, todos nos esforzamos para suavizar las cosas y mantener la paz.	V	F
22.	Realmente nos llevamos bien unos con otros.	V	F
23.	Generalmente tenemos cuidado con lo que nos decimos.	V	F
24.	Los miembros de la familia estamos enfrentados unos con otros.	V	F
25.	En mi familia se concede mucha atención y tiempo a cada uno.	V	F
26.	En mi casa expresamos nuestras opiniones de modo frecuente y espontáneo.	V	F
27.	En mi familia creemos que no se consigue mucho elevando la voz.	V	F

FES¹

INSTRUCTIONS

There are 27 statements about families. You are to decide which of these statements are true of your family and which are false. Think about the family in which **you are the MOTHER.**

If you think a statement is True or mostly true of your family, mark with an X over the T (True).

If you think a statement is False or mostly false of your family, mark with an X over the F (False).

You may feel that some of the statements are true for some family members and false for others. Mark T if the statement is true for most members. Mark F if the statement is false for most members.

Remember, we would like to know what your family seems like to **You.** Give us your general impression of your family for each statement.

Appendix C: Family Environment Scale

92

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| 1. Family members really help and support one another. | T | F |
| 2. Family members often keep their feelings to themselves. | T | F |
| 3. We fight a lot in our family. | T | F |
| 4. We often seem to be killing time at home. | T | F |
| 5. We say anything we want to around home. | T | F |
| 6. Family members rarely become openly angry. | T | F |
| 7. We put a lot of energy into what we do at home. | T | F |
| 8. It's hard to "blow off steam" at home without upsetting somebody. | T | F |
| 9. Family members sometimes get so angry they throw things. | T | F |
| 10. There is a feeling of togetherness in our family. | T | F |
| 11. We tell each other about our personal problems. | T | F |
| 12. Family members hardly ever lose their tempers. | T | F |
| 13. We rarely volunteer when something has to be done at home. | T | F |
| 14. If we feel like doing something on the spur of the moment we often just pick up and go. | T | F |
| 15. Family members often criticize each other. | T | F |
| 16. Family members really back each other up. | T | F |
| 17. Someone usually gets upset if you complain in our family. | T | F |
| 18. Family members sometimes hit each other. | T | F |
| 19. There is very little group spirit in our family. | T | F |
| 20. Money and paying bills is openly talked about in our family. | T | F |
| 21. If there's a disagreement in our family, we try hard to smooth things over and keep the peace. | T | F |
| 22. We really get along well with each other. | T | F |
| 23. We are usually careful about what we say to each other. | T | F |
| 24. Family members often try to one-up or out-do each other. | T | F |
| 25. There is plenty of time and attention for everyone in our family. | T | F |
| 26. There are a lot of spontaneous discussions in our family. | T | F |
| 27. In our family, we believe you don't ever get anywhere by raising your voice. | T | F |

FES

2

Escala de Clima Social
(FES)¹

INSTRUCCIONES:

PIENSE EN LA FAMILIA EN LA CUAL USTED ES LA **MADRE**

Por favor, lea las frases de este impreso. Usted tiene que decir si le parecen verdaderas o falsas en relación con su familia.

Si usted cree que , respecto a su familia, la frase es Verdadera o casi siempre verdadera, marcará con una **X** el espacio correspondiente a la V (verdadero o cierto).

Si cree que es Falsa o casi siempre falsa, marque con una **X** el espacio correspondiente a la F (falso). Si considera que la frase es cierta para unos miembros de la familia y para otros falsa, marque la respuesta que corresponda a la mayoría.

Recuerde que se pretende conocer lo que piensa usted sobre su familia; no intente reflejar la opinión de los demás miembros de ésta.

¹ Autor: R.H. Moos.

Derechos Reservados, 1984. TEA Ediciones, S.A., c/Fray Bernardino de Sahagún, 24, Madrid-16. Adaptado con permiso.

FES

1.	En mi familia nos ayudamos y apoyamos realmente unos a otros.	V	F
2.	Los miembros de la familia guardan, a menudo, sus sentimientos para si mismos.	V	F
3.	En nuestra familia reñimos mucho.	V	F
4.	Muchas veces da la impresión de que en casa sólo estamos "pasando el rato".	V	F
5.	En casa hablamos abiertamente de lo que nos parece o queremos.	V	F
6.	En mi familia casi nunca mostramos abiertamente nuestros enfados.	V	F
7.	Todos nos esforzamos mucho en lo que hacemos en casa.	V	F
8.	En mi familia es difícil "desahogarse" sin molestar a todo el mundo.	V	F
9.	En casa a veces nos enfadamos tanto que golpeamos o rompemos algo.	V	F
10.	En mi familia hay un fuerte sentido de unión.	V	F
11.	En mi casa comentamos nuestros problemas personales.	V	F
12.	Los miembros de mi familia casi nunca mostramos nuestros enfados.	V	F
13.	Cuando hay que hacer algo en casa, es raro que se ofrezca algún voluntario.	V	F
14.	En casa, si a alguno se le ocurre de momento hacer algo, lo hace sin pensarlo más.	V	F
15.	Las personas de nuestra familia nos criticamos frecuentemente unas o otras.	V	F
16.	Las personas de mi familia nos apoyamos de verdad unas o otras.	V	F
17.	En mi familia cuando uno se queja siempre hay otro que se siente afectado.	V	F
18.	En mi familia a veces nos peleamos a golpes.	V	F
19.	En mi familia hay poco espíritu de grupo.	V	F
20.	En mi familia los temas de pagos y dinero se tratan abiertamente.	V	F
21.	Si en la familia hay desacuerdo, todos nos esforzamos para suavizar las cosas y mantener la paz.	V	F
22.	Realmente nos llevamos bien unos con otros.	V	F
23.	Generalmente tenemos cuidado con lo que nos decimos.	V	F
24.	Los miembros de la familia estamos enfrentados unos con otros.	V	F
25.	En mi familia se concede mucha atención y tiempo a cada uno.	V	F
26.	En mi casa expresamos nuestras opiniones de modo frecuente y espontáneo.	V	F
27.	En mi familia creemos que no se consigue mucho elevando la voz.	V	F

Appendix D: Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire
Subscales: English/Spanish Versions; Author's permission for
reproduction and translation

**PAFS¹
QUESTIONNAIRE**

Directions:

The following questions ask about your **current** relationships with your parents, your spouse and your children. Please select the answers which best reflect your **current** relationships with these people.

There are no right or wrong answers.

Remember: Give the answer that best applies to you.

If you are currently not married answer the following questions as they would apply to your relationship with your most important, current significant other (i.e. mate, steady friend, lover). If you do not have a significant other, then answer the questions as they might apply to your most likely or most recent significant other.

If one or both of your parents are deceased, then answer the questions about your deceased parent(s) in terms of how you remember or imagined your relationship(s) to be.

Please answer all questions as best you can.

¹ ©1984 James E. Bray.

Adapted and reproduced with permission from the author.

	much less	less	same	more	much more
How does your job success and satisfaction compare to your parents' job success and satisfaction?					
1. Mother's financial success	1	2	3	4	5
2. Mother's emotional satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5
3. Father's financial success	1	2	3	4	5
4. Father's emotional satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5
How often do you think of yourself as your mother and/or father's "little girl"?	all the time	most of the time	half the time	occasionally	never
5. mother	1	2	3	4	5
6. father	1	2	3	4	5
7. How reluctant are you to do anything that would elicit an intense emotional response from your parents, such as anger, hurt, shock, or embarrassment?	1	2	3	4	5
8. How often do you seek parental approval (for example, how you should handle a personal problem or make an important decision, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5

	extremely important 1	very important 2	moderately important 3	a little important 4	not at all 5
9. How necessary is it to meet your mother's expectations concerning your work?	1	2	3	4	5
10. How necessary is it to meet your father's expectations concerning your work?	1	2	3	4	5
11. How necessary is it to meet your mother's expectations concerning your marriage?	1	2	3	4	5
12. How necessary is it to meet your father's expectations concerning your marriage?	1	2	3	4	5
13. How necessary is it to meet your mother's expectations concerning your parenting?	1	2	3	4	5
14. How necessary is it to meet your father's expectations concerning your parenting?	1	2	3	4	5
15. How necessary is it to meet your mother's expectations concerning your appearance?	1	2	3	4	5
16. How necessary is it to meet your father's expectations concerning your appearance?	1	2	3	4	5
17. How necessary is it to meet your mother's expectations concerning your life style?	1	2	3	4	5
18. How necessary is it to meet your father's expectations concerning your life style?	1	2	3	4	5
	all the time	most of the time	half the time	occasionally	never
19. How often do you feel you must modify your behavior to meet your mother's expectations concerning your work?	1	2	3	4	5
20. How often do you feel you must modify your behavior to meet your father's expectations concerning your work?	1	2	3	4	5
21. How often do you feel you must modify your behavior to meet your mother's expectations concerning your marriage?	1	2	3	4	5
22. How often do you feel you must modify your behavior to meet your father's expectations concerning your marriage?	1	2	3	4	5
23. How often do you feel you must modify your behavior to meet your mother's expectations concerning your parenting?	1	2	3	4	5

	all the time	most of the time	half the time	occasionally	never
24. How often do you feel you must modify your behavior to meet your father's expectations concerning your parenting?	1	2	3	4	
25. How often do you feel you must modify your behavior to meet your mother's expectations concerning your appearance?	1	2	3	4	
26. How often do you feel you must modify your behavior to meet your father's expectations concerning your appearance?	1	2	3	4	
27. How often do you feel you must modify your behavior to meet your mother's expectations concerning your life style?	1	2	3	4	
28. How often do you feel you must modify your behavior to meet your father's expectations concerning your life style?	1	2	3	4	
	very comfortable	comfortable	neutral	uncomfortable	ve. uncomf.
29. How comfortable are you having sexual relations in the privacy of your own bedroom when your parents are in your home?	1	2	3	4	
30. How comfortable are you talking to your mother and father about the private and personal story of growing up in his/her family of origin and extended family (i.e. talking about perceptions, thoughts, and feelings about their relationships with father, mother, siblings, aunts, uncles, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	
31. How comfortable are you talking to your mother and father about family secrets both real and imagined, and about skeletons in the family closets?	1	2	3	4	
32. How comfortable are you talking to your mother and father about specific mistakes or wrong decisions which he/she made in the past and would like to do again differently (e.g. marriage, marriage partner, occupation, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	
33. How comfortable are you talking to your father about the fact that he is no longer the #1 love in your life?	1	2	3	4	
34. How comfortable are you talking to your mother to declare openly the ways in which you are different from her in your beliefs, values, attitudes, and behavior?	1	2	3	4	

PAFS-Q

3

Appendix D: Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire 100

	very comfortable	comfortable	neutral	uncomfortable	very uncomfor.
35. How comfortable are you talking to your mother and father as peers and equals to say goodbye to him and her as "daddy" and "mommy" and goodbye to yourself as a dependent "little girl"?	1	2	3	4	5
36. How comfortable are you talking face to face to your mother and father to make explicit with them that you are not responsible for his/her survival or happiness in life, and that you are not working to meet goals and achievements in life which have been passed on from them (or prior generations) to you?	1	2	3	4	5
37. How comfortable are you talking to your mother and father about his/her sexuality and sexual experience?	1	2	3	4	5
38. How comfortable are you talking to your mother and father about her/his approaching death, as to when, where, how, and with what attitude and feelings each of them anticipates this inevitability?	1	2	3	4	5
Have you discussed the following topics with your parents:	Have discussed		Have not discussed		
39. Their personal story of growing up in their family of origin and extended family.			1	2	
40. Family secrets and skeletons in the closet.			1	2	
41. Mistakes or wrong decisions which he/she made in the past and would like to do again differently			1	2	
42. With your father about the fact that he is no longer the #1 love in your life.			1	2	
43. With your mother about the ways in which you are different from her in your beliefs, values, attitudes, and behavior.			1	2	
44. Talked to them as peers and equals to say goodbye to him and her as "daddy" and "mommy" and goodbye to yourself as a dependent "little girl".			1	2	
45. About not being responsible for their survival or happiness in life, and that you are not working to meet goals and achievements in life which have been passed on from them (or prior generations) to you.			1	2	
46. Their sexuality and sexual experiences.			1	2	

47. Their approaching death: when, where, how, and with what attitude and feelings each of them anticipates this inevitability.	Have discussed	Have not discussed
	1	2

CUESTIONARIO SOBRE
LA AUTORIDAD PERSONAL EN EL SISTEMA FAMILIAR
(PAFS, *Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire*)

POR
Donald S. Williamson, Ph.D., James H. Bray, Ph.D., Paul E. Malone, Ph.D.

El siguiente cuestionario contiene preguntas sobre su relación actual con sus padres, su cónyuge y sus hijos. Por favor, seleccione las respuestas que mejor reflejen su relación actual con estas personas. No hay contestaciones correctas o incorrectas.

Recuerde: seleccione la contestación que mejor aplique a su situación.

Si no está casada actualmente, conteste las preguntas a continuación según apliquen a su relación con su ser querido más importante en este momento (ej. pareja, enamorado(a), amante). Si no tiene un ser querido, entonces conteste las preguntas según aplicarían a su ser querido más reciente o al que tiene más posibilidades de serlo.

Si uno de sus padres o ambos fallecieron, entonces conteste las preguntas sobre su(s) padre(s) fallecido(s) desde el punto de vista de cómo recuerda o imagina usted que era su relación.

Por favor, conteste todas las preguntas como mejor pueda.

©1984 James H. Bray
Adaptación y revisión con permiso del autor.

	mucho menos	menos	igual	más	mucho más
¿Cómo comparan el éxito y la satisfacción que usted ha obtenido en su trabajo con los obtenidos por sus padres?					
1. Éxito económico de la madre	1	2	3	4	5
2. Satisfacción emocional de la madre	1	2	3	4	5
3. Éxito económico del padre	1	2	3	4	5
4. Satisfacción emocional del padre	1	2	3	4	5
	todo el tiempo	la mayor parte	la mitad del tiempo	ocasionalmente	nunca
5. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia se considera usted como la "pequeñina" de mamá?	1	2	3	4	5
6. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia se considera usted como la "pequeñina" de papá?	1	2	3	4	5
7. ¿Cuán renuente está usted a hacer algo que provoque una reacción emocional intensa de sus padres, como coraje, dolor, conmoción o vergüenza?	1	2	3	4	5
8. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia busca usted la aprobación de sus padres (por ejemplo, cómo manejar un problema personal o tomar una decisión importante, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
	extremadamente importante	muy import.	moderadamente importante	poco import.	nada import.
9. ¿Cuán necesario es para usted satisfacer las expectativas de su madre en lo que respecta a su trabajo?	1	2	3	4	5
10. ¿Cuán necesario es para usted satisfacer las expectativas de su padre en lo que respecta a su trabajo?	1	2	3	4	5
11. ¿Cuán necesario es para usted satisfacer las expectativas de su madre en lo que respecta a su matrimonio?	1	2	3	4	5
12. ¿Cuán necesario es para usted satisfacer las expectativas de su padre en lo que respecta a su matrimonio?	1	2	3	4	5
13. ¿Cuán necesario es para usted satisfacer las expectativas de su madre en lo que respecta a la crianza de los hijos?	1	2	3	4	5
14. ¿Cuán necesario es para usted satisfacer las expectativas de su padre en lo que respecta a la crianza de los hijos?	1	2	3	4	5
15. ¿Cuán necesario es para usted satisfacer las expectativas de su madre en lo que respecta a su apariencia personal?	1	2	3	4	5
16. ¿Cuán necesario es para usted satisfacer las expectativas de su padre en lo que respecta a su apariencia personal?	1	2	3	4	5
17. ¿Cuán necesario es para usted satisfacer las expectativas de su madre en lo que respecta a su estilo de vida?	1	2	3	4	5
18. ¿Cuán necesario es para usted satisfacer las expectativas de su padre en lo que respecta a su estilo de vida?	1	2	3	4	5

PAFSQ

1

	todo el tiempo 1	la mayor parte 2	la mitad del tiempo 3	ocasionalmente 4	nunca 5
19. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia siente usted que debe modificar su conducta para satisfacer las expectativas de su madre en lo que respecta a su trabajo?:					
20. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia siente usted que debe modificar su conducta para satisfacer las expectativas de su padre en lo que respecta a su trabajo?:	1	2	3	4	5
21. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia siente usted que debe modificar su conducta para satisfacer las expectativas de sus madre en lo que respecta a su matrimonio?:	1	2	3	4	5
22. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia siente usted que debe modificar su conducta para satisfacer las expectativas de sus padre en lo que respecta a su matrimonio?:	1	2	3	4	5
23. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia siente usted que debe modificar su conducta para satisfacer las expectativas de sus madre en lo que respecta a su crianza de los hijos?:	1	2	3	4	5
24. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia siente usted que debe modificar su conducta para satisfacer las expectativas de sus padre en lo que respecta a su crianza de los hijos?:	1	2	3	4	5
25. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia siente usted que debe modificar su conducta para satisfacer las expectativas de sus madre en lo que respecta a su apariencia personal?:	1	2	3	4	5
26. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia siente usted que debe modificar su conducta para satisfacer las expectativas de sus padre en lo que respecta a su apariencia personal?:	1	2	3	4	5
27. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia siente usted que debe modificar su conducta para satisfacer las expectativas de sus madre en lo que respecta a su estilo de vida?:	1	2	3	4	5
28. ¿Con cuánta frecuencia siente usted que debe modificar su conducta para satisfacer las expectativas de sus padre en lo que respecta a su estilo de vida?:	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D: Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire 105

		muy cómoda	cómoda	neutral	incómoda	muy incómoda
29.	¿Cuán cómoda se siente usted de tener relaciones sexuales en la intimidad de su cuarto cuando sus padres están en su casa?	1	2	3	4	5
30.	¿Cuán cómoda se siente usted de hablar con sus padres sobre la historia íntima y personal de cómo creció en su familia de origen y en la familia extendida (ej. hablar sobre las percepciones, los pensamientos y los sentimientos ligados a la relación con su padre, madre, hijos, tías, tíos, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
31.	¿Cuán cómoda se siente usted de hablar con sus padres sobre los secretos familiares, tanto reales como imaginarios, y las vergüenzas familiares?	1	2	3	4	5
32.	¿Cuán cómoda se siente usted de hablar con sus padres sobre errores específicos o decisiones incorrectas cometidos por ellos en el pasado y que les gustaría repetir, pero de manera diferente (ej. matrimonio, cónyuge, ocupación, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
33.	¿Cuán cómoda se siente usted de hablar con su padre sobre el hecho de que él ya no es el amor número 1 en su vida?	1	2	3	4	5
34.	¿Cuán cómoda se siente usted de hablar abiertamente con su madre sobre las diferencias que tiene con ella con respecto a sus creencias, sus valores, sus actitudes y su comportamiento?	1	2	3	4	5
35.	¿Cuán cómoda se siente usted de hablar directamente con sus padres como compañeros e iguales y dejar de ser la "pequeñina" que depende de "papito" y "mamita"?	1	2	3	4	5
36.	¿Cuán cómoda se siente usted de hablar frente a frente con sus padres para hacerles entender claramente que usted no es responsable de su supervivencia ni de su felicidad en la vida, y que su intención no es alcanzar las metas o los logros en la vida que ellos (o generaciones anteriores) le hayan heredado?	1	2	3	4	5
37.	¿Cuán cómoda se siente usted de hablar con sus padres sobre la sexualidad y la experiencia sexual de ellos?	1	2	3	4	5
38.	¿Cuán cómoda se siente usted de hablar con sus padres sobre la proximidad de la muerte de ellos, respecto a cuándo, dónde, cómo y con qué actitud y sentimientos anticipan este hecho inevitable?	1	2	3	4	5

PAFSQ

3

Appendix D: Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire 106

Por favor indique si usted ya ha discutido o no ha discutido los siguientes temas con sus padres:	Ya ha discutido	No ha discutido
39. Las historias íntima y personales de cómo crecieron en sus familias de origen y en la familia extendida (ej. hablar sobre las percepciones, los pensamientos y los sentimientos ligados a la relación con sus padres, madres, hermanos/as, tías, tíos, etc.)	1	2
40. Los secretos familiares y las vergüenzas familiares.	1	2
41. Errores específicos o decisiones incorrectas cometidos por ellos en el pasado y que les gustaría repetir, pero de manera diferente	1	2
42. El hecho de que su padre ya no es el amor número 1 en su vida	1	2
43. Las diferencias que tiene con su madre con respecto a sus creencias, sus valores, sus actitudes y su comportamiento.	1	2
44. El ser compañeros e iguales y no la "pequeñina" que depende de "papito" y "mamuta".	1	2
45. No ser responsable de su supervivencia ni de su felicidad en la vida, y que su intención no es alcanzar las metas o los logros heredados de sus padres o de generaciones anteriores.	1	2
46. La sexualidad y la experiencia sexual de ellos.	1	2
47. La proximidad de la muerte de ellos: cuándo, dónde, cómo y con qué actitud y sentimientos anticipan este hecho inevitable.	1	2

- **Appendix E: Parenting Stress Index**
- **Author's permission for translation**
- **Parental Domain Subscale: English & Spanish Versions**

PAR Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.

Mailing Address: P.O. Box 998/Odessa, Florida 33556
Street Address: 16204 N. Florida Ave./Lutz, Florida 33549

Telephone (813) 968-3003
Telefax (813) 968-2598

March 15, 1996

Ms. Eduvigis Cruz-Arrieta
420 East 20th Street, Apt. 9D
New York, NY 10009

Dear Ms. Cruz-Arrieta:

In response to your recent request, permission is hereby granted to you to reproduce up to 50 copies of the Spanish Parenting Stress Index for use in your research entitled "Parental stress, personal authority and family environment of Puerto Rican Women".

This Agreement is subject to the following restrictions:

- (1) Any and all material will contain the following credit line:

"Adapted and reproduced by special permission of the Publisher, Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc., Odessa, FL 33556, from the Parenting Stress Index by Richard R. Abidin, Ed.D., Copyright 1990 by PAR, Inc.. Further reproduction is prohibited without permission from PAR, Inc."

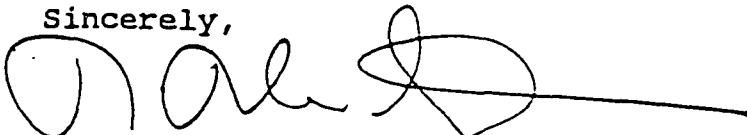
- (2) None of the material may be sold, given away, or used for purposes other than those described above.
- (3) Payment of a royalty/license fee of \$.51 per copy (\$25.50 for 50 copies). This fee includes a 40% research discount.
- (4) One copy of any of the material reproduced will be sent to the Publisher to indicate that the proper credit line has been used.

Customer Satisfaction is our Most Important Product™

Ms. Eduvigis Cruz-Arrieta
March 15, 1996
Page 2

BOTH COPIES of this Permission Agreement should be signed and returned to me, along with your check for \$25.50 to cover the royalty/license fee, to indicate your agreement with the above restrictions. This proposed Agreement will expire if it is not signed and returned to PAR within 30 days. I will return a fully executed copy to you for your records.

Sincerely,




R. BOB SMITH III, Ph.D.
President

RBS/bv

ACCEPTED AND AGREED:

ACCEPTED AND AGREED:

BY: 
MS. EDUVIGIS CRUZ-ARRIETA

BY: 
R. BOB SMITH III, PH.D.

DATE: 3-19-96

DATE: 3/21/96

PSI
ADMINISTRATION BOOKLET
Richard R. Abidin
Institute of Clinical Psychology
University of Virginia¹

Directions:

The questions on the following pages ask you to mark an answer which best describes your feelings. While you may not find an answer which exactly states your feelings, please mark the answer which comes closest to describing how you feel.

YOUR FIRST REACTION TO EACH QUESTION SHOULD BE YOUR ANSWER.

¹ Adapted and reproduced by special permission of the Publisher, Psychological Assessment Resources Inc., Odessa, FL 33556, from the Parenting Stress Index by Richard R. Abidin, Ed.D., Copyright 1990 by PAR Inc. Further reproduction is prohibited without permission from PAR, Inc.

Appendix E: Parenting Stress Index

111

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. When my daughter came home from the hospital, I had doubtful feelings about my ability to handle being a parent.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Being a mother is harder than I thought it would be.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel capable and on top of things when I am caring for my daughter.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I can't make decisions without help.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have had many more problems raising children than I expected.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I enjoy being a mother.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel that I am successful most of the time when I try to get my daughter to do or not to do something.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Since I brought my last child home from the hospital, I find that I am not able to take care of this child as well as I thought I could. I need help.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I often have the feeling that I cannot handle things very well.	1	2	3	4	5
10. When I think about myself as a parent I believe:					
					<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I can handle anything that happens. 2. I can handle most things pretty well. 3. Sometimes I have doubts, but find that I can handle most things without any problems. 4. I have doubts about being able to handle things. 5. I don't think I handle things very well at all.
11. I feel that I am:					<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. a very good mother. 2. a better than average mother. 3. an average mother. 4. a person who has some trouble being a mother. 5. not very good at being a mother.
12. What were the highest level in school or college you and your daughter's father have completed? You:					<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 1st-8th grade 2. 9th-12th grade 3. Vocational or some college 4. College graduate 5. Graduate or professional school
13. The father:					<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 1st-8th grade 2. 9th-12th grade 3. Vocational or some college 4. College graduate 5. Graduate or professional school
14. How easy is it for you to understand what your daughter wants or needs?					<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. very easy. 2. easy. 3. somewhat difficult. 4. it is very hard. 5. I usually can't figure out what the problem is.

Appendix E: Parenting Stress Index

112

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
15. It takes a long time for parents to develop close, warm feelings for their children.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I expected to have closer and warmer feelings for my daughter than I do and this bothers me	1	2	3	4	5
17. Sometimes my daughter does things that bother me just to be mean.	1	2	3	4	5
18. When I was young, I never felt comfortable holding or taking care of children.	1	2	3	4	5
19. My daughter knows I am her mother and wants me more than other people.	1	2	3	4	5
20. The number of children that I have now is too many.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Most of my life is spent doing things for my daughter.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I find myself giving up more of my life to meet my children's needs than I ever expected.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I feel trapped by my responsibilities as a mother.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I often feel that my daughter's needs control my life.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Since having this daughter I have been unable to do new and different things.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Since having a daughter I feel that I am almost never able to do things that I like to do.	1	2	3	4	5
27. It is hard to find a place in our home where I can go to be myself.	1	2	3	4	5
28. When I think about the kind of parent I am, I often feel guilty or bad about myself.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I am unhappy with the last purchase of clothing I made for myself.	1	2	3	4	5
30. When my daughter misbehaves or fusses too much I feel responsible, as if I didn't do something right.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I feel every time my daughter does something wrong it is really my fault.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I often feel guilty about the way I feel towards my daughter.	1	2	3	4	5
33. There are quite a few things that bother me about my life.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I felt sadder and more depressed than I expected after leaving the hospital with my baby	1	2	3	4	5
35. I wind up feeling guilty when I get angry at my daughter and this bothers me.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E: Parenting Stress Index

113

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
36. After my daughter had been home from the hospital for about a month, I noticed that I was feeling more sad and depressed than I had expected.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Since having my daughter, my spouse (or partner) has not given me as much help and support as I expected.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Having a daughter has caused more problems than I expected in my relationship with my spouse (or partner).	1	2	3	4	5
39. Since having a daughter, my spouse (or partner) and I don't do as many things together.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Since having my daughter, my spouse (or partner) don't spend as much time together as a family as I had expected.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Since having my last child, I have had less interest in sex.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Having a daughter seems to have increased the number of problems we have with in-laws and relatives.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Having children has been much more expensive than I had expected.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I feel alone and without friends.	1	2	3	4	5
45. When I go to a party I usually expect not to enjoy myself.	1	2	3	4	5
46. I am not as interested in people as I used to be.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I often have the feeling that other people my own age don't particularly like my company.	1	2	3	4	5
48. When I run into a problem taking care of my children I have a lot of people to whom I can talk to get help or advice.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Since having children I have a lot fewer chances to see my friends and to make new friends.	1	2	3	4	5
50. During the past six months I have been sicker than usual or have had more aches and pains than I normally do.	1	2	3	4	5
51. Physically, I feel good most of the time.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Having a child has caused changes in the way I sleep.	1	2	3	4	5
53. I don't enjoy things as I used to.	1	2	3	4	5
54. Since I've had my daughter					

1. I have been a sick a great deal.
2. I haven't felt as good.
4. I haven't noticed any change in my health.
5. I have been nealthier.

Indice de Estrés Paternal/Maternal¹
(Parenting Stress Index- Spanish Version)
Richard R. Abidin
Institute of Clinical Psychology
University of Virginia

CUESTIONARIO

=====

INSTRUCCIONES

En cada una de las siguientes preguntas, por favor, indique la respuesta que mejor describa sus sentimientos. Si no encuentra una respuesta que describa sus sentimientos exactamente, indique la que más se parezca.

DEBE RESPONDER DE ACUERDO CON LA PRIMERA REACCION QUE TENGA DESPUES DE LEER CADA PREGUNTA.

¹ Adaptado y reproducido del Indice de Estrés Paternal de Richard R. Abidin, Ed.D. Derechos reservados en 1990 por P.A.R., Inc., mediante permiso especial de la casa publicadora, Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc., Odessa, FL 33556.
Traducción revisada por Blanca I. Paniagua, M.A., Member American Translators Association, 1995.

	Muy de acuerdo	De acuerdo	No estoy segura	En desacuerdo	Muy en desacuerdo
1. Cuando traje a mi hija del hospital, tuve dudas acerca de mi capacidad para ser madre.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Ser madre es más difícil de lo que creía.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Me siento capaz y en control de las cosas cuando estoy cuidando a mi hija.	1	2	3	4	5
4. No puedo tomar decisiones sin ayuda.	1	2	3	4	5
5. He tenido más problemas criando a mis hijos(as) de lo que yo esperaba.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Me gusta ser madre.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Pienso que tengo éxito, la mayor parte del tiempo, cuando trato de que mi hija haga o no haga algo.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Desde que traje mi último(a) hijo(a) a la casa del hospital, encuentro que no puedo cuidarlo tan bien como yo creía. Necesito ayuda.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Muchas veces siento que no puedo manejar las cosas muy bien.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Cuando pienso en mí como madre:					
			1. creo que puedo manejar todo lo que pasa.		
			2. creo que puedo manejar la mayoría de las cosas bastante bien.		
			3. que aunque a veces tengo dudas, puedo manejar la mayoría de las cosas sin ningún problema.		
			4. creo que tengo algunas dudas con respecto a poder manejar las cosas.		
			5. no creo que manejo las cosas nada bien.		
11. Siento que:					
			1. soy muy buena madre.		
			2. soy una madre mejor que el promedio.		
			3. soy una madre promedio.		
			4. soy una persona que tiene dificultad siendo madre.		
			5. no soy muy buena como madre.		

¿Cuáles fueron los últimos grados escolares o universitarios que usted y el padre de su hija completaron?:

12. Madre:

1. enseñanza primaria
2. enseñanza secundaria
3. escuela técnica o cursos
4. graduado de universidad
5. cursos superiores

13. Padre:

1. enseñanza primaria
2. enseñanza secundaria
3. escuela técnica o cursos
4. graduado de universidad
5. cursos superiores

14. ¿Cuán fácil es para usted comprender lo que su hija necesita o quiere?

1. muy fácil
2. fácil
3. algo difícil
4. muy difícil
5. usualmente no puedo comprender cuál es el problema.

	Muy de acuerdo	De acuerdo	No estoy segura	En desacuerdo	Muy en desacuerdo
15. A los padres les toma mucho tiempo desarrollar sentimientos de apego (cariño) hacia sus hijos(as).	1	2	3	4	5
16. Había esperado tener una relación más estrecha y cálida con mi hija de la que tengo y esto me molesta.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Algunas veces mi hija hace cosas que me molestan, por el mero hecho de molestarme.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Cuando era joven, nunca me sentí bien sosteniendo niños en mis brazos ni cuidándolos.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Mi hija sabe que yo soy su madre y me quiere más que a nadie.	1	2	3	4	5
20. La cantidad de hijos que tengo ahora es demasiada.	1	2	3	4	5
21. La mayor parte de mi tiempo la paso haciendo cosas por mi hija.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Me encuentro dando más de mi vida para satisfacer las necesidades de mi hija de lo que esperaba.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E: Parenting Stress Index

	Muy de acuerdo	De acuerdo	No estoy segura	En desacuerdo	Muy en desacuerdo
23. Me siento atrapada con las responsabilidades de ser madre.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Muchas veces siento que las necesidades de mi hija controlan mi vida.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Desde que mi hija nació, no he podido hacer cosas nuevas o diferentes.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Desde que tuve a mi hija encuentro que casi nunca puedo hacer las cosas que desearía hacer.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Es difícil encontrar un lugar en la casa donde pueda estar a solas.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Cuando pienso en cómo soy como madre, muchas veces me siento mal o culpable.	1	2	3	4	5
29. No estoy contenta con la ropa que me compré la última vez.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Cuando mi hija se comporta mal, se queja o se encapricha demasiado, me siento responsable, como si no hubiera hecho algo bien.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Siento que cada vez que mi hija hace algo mal, en realidad es mi culpa.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Muchas veces me siento culpable de los sentimientos que tengo hacia mi hija.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Hay bastantes cosas que me molestan acerca de mi vida.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Me sentí más triste y deprimida de lo que esperaba cuando salí del hospital con mi bebé.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Cuando me enojo con mi hija termino por sentirme culpable y esto me molesta.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Cuando mi bebé se encontraba en la casa después de un mes, noté que me sentía más triste y deprimida de lo que esperaba.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Desde que mi hija vino al mundo, mi esposo/compañero(a) no me ha dado la ayuda y el apoyo que esperaba.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E: Parenting Stress Index

	Muy de acuerdo	De acuerdo	No estoy segura	En desacuerdo	Muy en desacuerdo
	1	2	3	4	5
38. Tener una hija ha causado más problemas de lo que esperaba en mi relación con mi esposo/compañero(a).	1	2	3	4	5
39. Desde que mi hija nació, mi esposo/compañero(a) y yo no hacemos muchas cosas juntos.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Desde que mi hija nació, mi esposo/compañero y yo no pasamos tanto tiempo juntos como familia como esperaba.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Desde que mi último(a) hijo(a) nació, he perdido el interés por el sexo.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Haber tenido a mi hija parece haber aumentado los problemas con los suegros y demás familiares.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Tener un hijos(as) ha sido mucho más costoso de lo que esperaba.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Me siento sola y sin amigos(as).	1	2	3	4	5
45. Cuando voy a una fiesta, usualmente no espero divertirme.	1	2	3	4	5
46. No estoy tan interesada por la gente como solía estar.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Muchas veces siento que a las personas de mi edad no les gusta mi compañía.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Cuando confronto un problema de mi hija, tengo mucha gente con quien hablar para obtener ayuda y consejo.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Desde que los(as) hijos(as) nacieron, tengo muchas menos oportunidades de ver a mis amistades y de hacer amigos(as)nuevos(as).	1	2	3	4	5
50. Durante los últimos seis meses he estado más enferma de lo normal, o he tenido más dolores y aflicciones que antes.	1	2	3	4	5
51. Me siento físicamente bien la mayor parte del tiempo.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Tener un(a) hijo(a) ha causado cambios en mi manera de dormir.	1	2	3	4	5
53. No disfruto tanto de las cosas como antes.	1	2	3	4	5

54. Desde que tuve a mi hija:

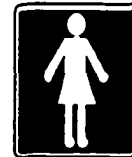
1. He estado enferma muchas veces.
2. No me he sentido tan bien como antes.
3. No he notado ningún cambio en mi salud.
4. Me he encontrado mejor de salud.

Appendix F: Participant Recruitment Flyers

CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK
Graduate School & University Center Clinical
Programa Doctoral en Psicología Clínica Psychology Doctoral Sub-Program

SE SOLICITAN
MADRES
PUERTORRIQUEÑAS

PUERTO RICAN
MOTHERS
WANTED FOR STUDY



(nacidas en los E.E.U.U. o en la
Isla) para participar en una
investigación

(MAINLAND U.S.A.- OR ISLAND-
BORN)

SI USTED :

IF YOU:

- TIENE UNA HIJA MENOR DE
13 AÑOS DE EDAD
- TIENE CONTACTO CON SU MADRE A
MENUDO

- Have a DAUGHTER YOUNGER THAN
13 YEARS OLD
- HAVE FREQUENT CONTACT WITH
YOUR MOTHER

POR FAVOR, COMUNIQUESE CON:

PLEASE CONTACT :

Sa. Eduvigis Cruz, M. Phil.
(212) 426 3437

Ms. Eduvigis Cruz, M. Phil.
(212) 426 3437

PARA OBTENER UN CUESTIONARIO!

TO GET A QUESTIONNAIRE!

email: PR study@aol.com


url: <http://members.aol.com/prstudy>

Appendix G: Institutional Review Boards Authorizations

HUNTER COLLEGE

OFFICE OF RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION
695 PARK AVENUE
NEW YORK, NY 10021
(212)772-4020 FAX (212)772-4941

Equigis Cruz-Arrieta
c/o Vera Paster
CCNY

Robert J. Buckley 

9/20/96

Human Subjects Review

"Parental Stress, Personal Authority and Family Environment of Puerto Rican Women"

Hunter College Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects has approved your work with one proviso. The Committee requests the consent form be amended -- modify the paragraph that starts "In signing this form, you are also...". The Committee's tone should be softened. Please use the attached samples as guides. If your work is still running twelve months after the date of this memo, please be advised that we want an update for our files. Please send the revised consent form to Carolyn Julien, Research Administration, 695 Park Avenue, New York, NY 10021.

Good luck with your work!

Appendix G: Institutional Review Boards Authorizations

FEB-14-1997 12:01 FROM RESEARCH ADM.

TO

94:27561 P.22

FILE
Case No. 0925-063

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS ASSURANCE/CERTIFICATION/DECLARATION <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> ORIGINAL <input type="checkbox"/> FOLLOWUP <input type="checkbox"/> EXEMPTION (previously undesignated)	<input type="checkbox"/> GRANT <input type="checkbox"/> CONTRACT <input type="checkbox"/> FELLOW <input type="checkbox"/> OTHER <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> New <input type="checkbox"/> Continuing contribution <input type="checkbox"/> Noncompeting continuation <input type="checkbox"/> Supplemental
	APPLICATION IDENTIFICATION NO. (if known)

POLICY: A research activity involving human subjects that is not exempt from HHS regulations may not be funded unless an Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed and approved the activity in accordance with Section 478 of the Public Health Service Act as implemented by Title 48, Part 48 of the Code of Federal Regulations (45 CFR 48—as revised). The applicant institution must submit certification of IRB approval to HHS unless the applicant institution has designated a specific exemption under Section 48.101(b) which applies to the proposed research activity. Institutions with an assurance of compliance on file with HHS which covers the proposed activity should submit certification of IRB review and approval with each application. (In exceptional cases, certification may be accepted up to 60 days after the receipt date for which the application is submitted.) In the case of institutions which do not have an assurance of compliance on file with HHS covering the proposed activity, certification of IRB review and approval must be submitted within 30 days of the receipt of a written request from HHS for certification.

1. TITLE OF APPLICATION OR ACTIVITY

Parental stress, personal authority and family environment of Puerto Rican Women

2. PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR, PROGRAM DIRECTOR, OR FELLOW

Eduvigis Cruz-Arrieta,
Dr. Vera S. Paster

3. FOOD AND DRUG ADMINISTRATION REQUIRED INFORMATION (see reverse side)

4. HHS ASSURANCE STATUS

This institution has an approved assurance of compliance on file with HHS which covers this activity.

M-1111-XM Assurance identification number 4XM IRB identification number

No assurance of compliance which applies to the activity has been established with HHS, but the applicant institution will provide written assurance of compliance and certification of IRB review and approval in accordance with 45 CFR 48 upon request.

5. CERTIFICATION OF IRB REVIEW OR DECLARATION OF EXEMPTION

This activity has been reviewed and approved by an IRB in accordance with the requirements of 45 CFR 48, including its relevant Subjects. This certification fulfills, when applicable, requirements for certifying FDA status for each investigational new drug or device. (See reverse side of the form.)

9/12/96 Date of IRB review and approval. (If approval is pending, write "pending." Followup certification is required.)
(month/day/year)

Full Board Review Expedited Review

This activity contains multiple projects, some of which have not been reviewed. The IRB has granted approval on condition that all projects covered by 45 CFR 48 will be reviewed and approved before they are initiated and that appropriate further certification (Form HHS 596) will be submitted.

Human subjects are involved, but this activity qualifies for exemption under 48.101(b) in accordance with paragraph _____ (insert paragraph number of exemption in 48.101(b), 1 through 6), but the institution did not designate that exemption on the application.

6. Each official signing below certifies that the information provided on this form is correct and that each institution assumes responsibility for assuring required future reviews, approvals, and submissions of certification.


APPLICANT INSTITUTION	COOPERATING INSTITUTION
NAME, ADDRESS, AND TELEPHONE NO. The City College of The City Univ. of NY- jointly with-Research Foundation of CUNY Convent Avenue @ 138th St. New York, NY 10031 (212) 650-5418	NAME, ADDRESS, AND TELEPHONE NO.
NAME AND TITLE OF OFFICIAL (print or type) <u>Leslie Masterson</u> <u>9/12/96</u>	NAME AND TITLE OF OFFICIAL (print or type)



Baruch College
The City University of New York
17 Lexington Avenue
New York, New York 10010

Grants Office, Box D-0803
Phone 212-802-2850
Fax 212-802-2902

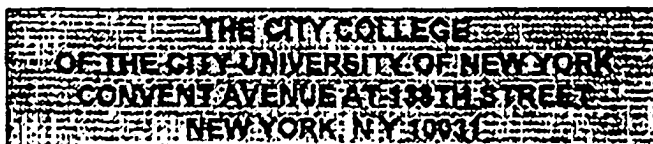
MEMORANDUM

To: Eduvigis Cruz Arrieta
From: Betty A. Farbman 
Subject: Human Subjects Committee Approval: Parental stress, personal authority and family environment of Puerto Rican women
Date: November 8, 1996

The August 1, 1996 protocol related to the above named subject has been approved.

Please call this office if you have any questions.

cc: David O'Brien, Chair, Human Subjects Committee



OFFICE OF RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION

FACSIMILE TRANSMITTAL

DATE: 2/14/97

TO: NAME: Ms. Edwige Cruz Arrieta

ORGANIZATION: _____

DEPARTMENT: _____

FAX NUMBER: 212-480-7561

NUMBER OF PAGES INCLUDING COVER SHEET: 3

DESCRIPTION: IRB Approval for your project "Parental Stress, Personal Authority and Family Environment. . . ."

This is good for 1yr. from date of approval 9/12/96

UPON RECEIPT, PLEASE RESPOND BY TELEPHONE () YES NO

ORIGINAL WILL FOLLOW BY MAIL () YES NO

FROM: Ethel Buckley

FAX NUMBER (212) 650-7906
TELEPHONE NUMBER (212) 650-5418

it is somewhere in Clinical Psychology.

Any problems - Call me.

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS ASSURANCE/CERTIFICATION/DECLARATION <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> ORIGINAL <input type="checkbox"/> FOLLOWUP <input type="checkbox"/> EXEMPTION (previously undesignated)	<input type="checkbox"/> GRANT <input type="checkbox"/> CONTRACT <input type="checkbox"/> FELLOW <input type="checkbox"/> OTHER <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> New <input type="checkbox"/> Competing continuation <input type="checkbox"/> Noncompeting continuation <input type="checkbox"/> Supplemental APPLICATION IDENTIFICATION NO. (if known)
--	--

POLICY: A research activity involving human subjects that is not exempt from HHS regulations may not be funded unless an Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed and approved the activity in accordance with Section 474 of the Public Health Service Act as implemented by Title 48, Part 48 of the Code of Federal Regulations (45 CFR 48—as revised). The applicant institution must submit certification of IRB approval to HHS unless the applicant institution has designated a specific exemption under Section 48.101(b) which applies to the proposed research activity. Institutions with an assurance of compliance on file with HHS which covers the proposed activity should submit certification of IRB review and approval with each application. (In exceptional cases, certification may be accepted up to 60 days after the receipt date for which the application is submitted.) In the case of institutions which do not have an assurance of compliance on file with HHS covering the proposed activity, certification of IRB review and approval must be submitted within 30 days of the receipt of a written request from HHS for certification.

1. TITLE OF APPLICATION OR ACTIVITY

Parental stress, personal authority and family environment of Puerto Rican Women

2. PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR, PROGRAM DIRECTOR, OR FELLOW

Eduvigis Cruz-Arrieta,
Dr. Vera S. Paster

3. FOOD AND DRUG ADMINISTRATION REQUIRED INFORMATION (see reverse side)

4. HHS ASSURANCE STATUS

This institution has an approved assurance of compliance on file with HHS which covers this activity.

M-1111-XM Assurance identification number 4XM IRB identification number

No assurance of compliance which applies to this activity has been established with HHS, but the applicant institution will provide written assurance of compliance and certification of IRB review and approval in accordance with 45 CFR 48 upon request.

5. CERTIFICATION OF IRB REVIEW OR DECLARATION OF EXEMPTION

This activity has been reviewed and approved by an IRB in accordance with the requirements of 45 CFR 48, including its relevant Subparts. This certification fulfills, when applicable, requirements for certifying FDA status for each investigational new drug or device. (See reverse side of this form.)

9/12/96 Date of IRB review and approval. (If approval is pending, write "pending." Followup certification is required.)
(month/day/year)

Full Board Review Expedited Review

This activity contains multiple projects, some of which have not been reviewed. The IRB has granted approval on condition that all projects covered by 45 CFR 48 will be reviewed and approved before they are initiated and that appropriate further certification (Form HHS 506) will be submitted.

Human subjects are involved, but this activity qualifies for exemption under 48.101(b) in accordance with paragraph _____ (insert paragraph number of exemption in 48.101(b), 1 through 5), but the institution did not designate that exemption on the application.

6. Each official signing below certifies that the information provided on this form is correct and that each institution assumes responsibility for assuring required future reviews, approvals, and submissions of certification.

APPLICANT INSTITUTION	COOPERATING INSTITUTION
NAME, ADDRESS, AND TELEPHONE NO. The City College of The City Univ. of NY- jointly with-Research Foundation of CUNY Convent Avenue @ 138th St. New York, NY 10031 (212) 650-5418	NAME, ADDRESS, AND TELEPHONE NO.
NAME AND TITLE OF OFFICIAL (print or type) <u>Regina Masterson</u> <u>9/12/96</u>	NAME AND TITLE OF OFFICIAL (print or type)
SIGNATURE OF OFFICIAL LISTED ABOVE	SIGNATURE OF OFFICIAL LISTED ABOVE

3a. INVESTIGATIONAL NEW DRUG EXEMPTION (If more than one is involved, list others below under NOTES):

SPONSOR NAME

DRUG NAME

DATE OF END OF 30-DAY EXPIRATION OR WAIVER	NUMBER ISSUED

3b. INVESTIGATIONAL DEVICE EXEMPTION:

SPONSOR NAME

DEVICE NAME

Unless notified otherwise by FDA, under 21 CFR 812.2(b) (ii) a sponsor is deemed to have an approved IDE if: (1) the IRB has agreed with the sponsor that the device is a nonsignificant risk device; and (2) the IRB has approved this study. (Check applicable box.)

- The IRB agrees with the sponsor that this device is a nonsignificant risk device.
- OR
- The IDE application was submitted to FDA on (date) _____ Number issued _____.

NOTES:

Appendix H: Summary of demographics for PR-resident participants

N= 31

Age

Mean 34.613 Std dev 9.142
 Minimum 19.000 Maximum 55.000

Number of children

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Two or more	19	61.3	61.3	61.3
One only	12	38.7	38.7	100.0
Total	31	100.0	100.0	

Mean .387 Std dev .495

Valid cases 31 Missing cases 0

Marital Status

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Single	2	6.5	6.5	6.5
Married	21	67.7	67.7	74.2
Separated	3	9.7	9.7	83.9
Divorced	4	12.9	12.9	96.8
Other	1	3.2	3.2	100.0
Total	31	100.0	100.0	

Valid cases 31 Missing cases 0

Frequency of contact with their mothers

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
bimonthly	2	6.5	7.1	7.1
monthly	2	6.5	7.1	14.3
weekly	7	22.6	25.0	39.3
5day/wk	2	6.5	7.1	46.4
daily	15	48.4	53.6	100.0
	3	9.7	Missing	
Total	31	100.0	100.0	

Valid cases 28 Missing cases 3

Ethnic Identification

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent	Percent
North American	3	9.7	9.7	9.7
Puerto Rican	27	87.1	87.1	96.8
Hispanic/Puerto Rican	1	3.2	3.2	100.0
Total	31	100.0	100.0	

Valid cases 31 Missing cases 0

Education

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent	Percent
junior high school	1	3.2	3.2	3.2
10th grade or above	1	3.2	3.2	6.5
high school graduate	2	6.5	6.5	12.9
some college	12	38.7	38.7	51.6
college graduate	10	32.3	32.3	83.9
graduate school	5	16.1	16.1	100.0
Total	31	100.0	100.0	

Valid cases 31 Missing cases 0

Income

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent	Percent
1-999	2	6.5	6.7	6.7
1,000-1,999	1	3.2	3.3	10.0
4,000-4,999	1	3.2	3.3	13.3
8,000-8,999	2	6.5	6.7	20.0
9,000-9,999	1	3.2	3.3	23.3
10,000-10,999	2	6.5	6.7	30.0
12,000-14,999	5	16.1	16.7	46.7
15,000-19,999	4	12.9	13.3	60.0
20,000-29,999	2	6.5	6.7	66.7
30,000-49,999	6	19.4	20.0	86.7
50,000 or more	4	12.9	13.3	100.0
	1	3.2	Missing	
Total	31	100.0	100.0	

Valid cases 30 Missing cases 1

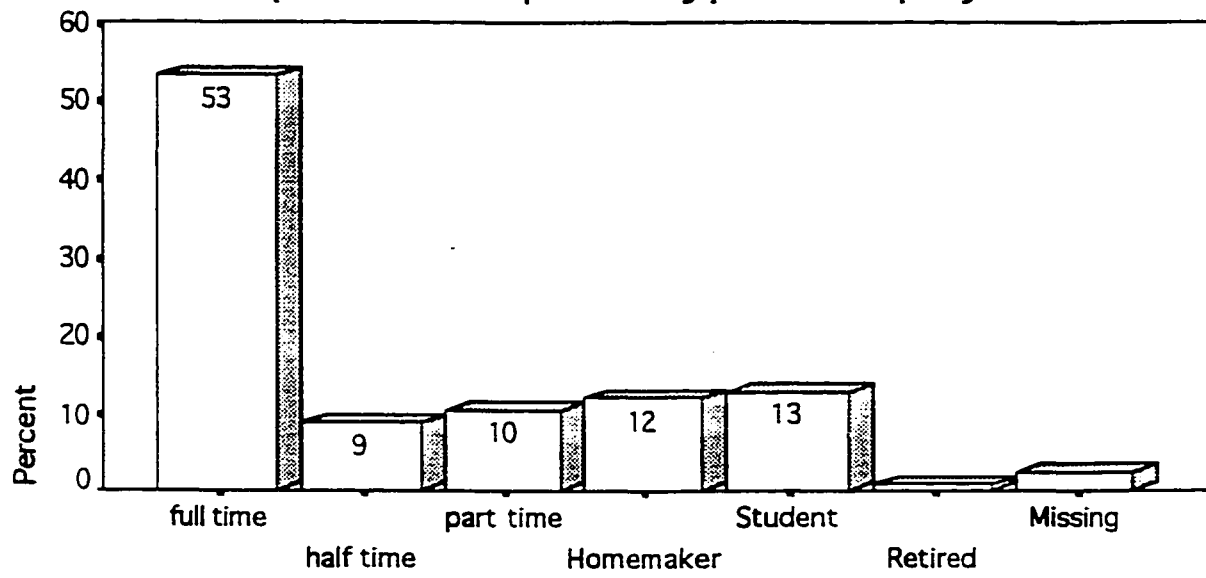
Appendix H: Summary of demographics for PR-residents
Social Standing Index

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
I	4	12.9	12.9	12.9
II	12	38.7	38.7	51.6
III	5	16.1	16.1	67.7
IV	9	29.0	29.0	96.8
V	1	3.2	3.2	100.0
	-----	-----	-----	
Total	31	100.0	100.0	

.

I: Bargraphs of employment type and occupational categories

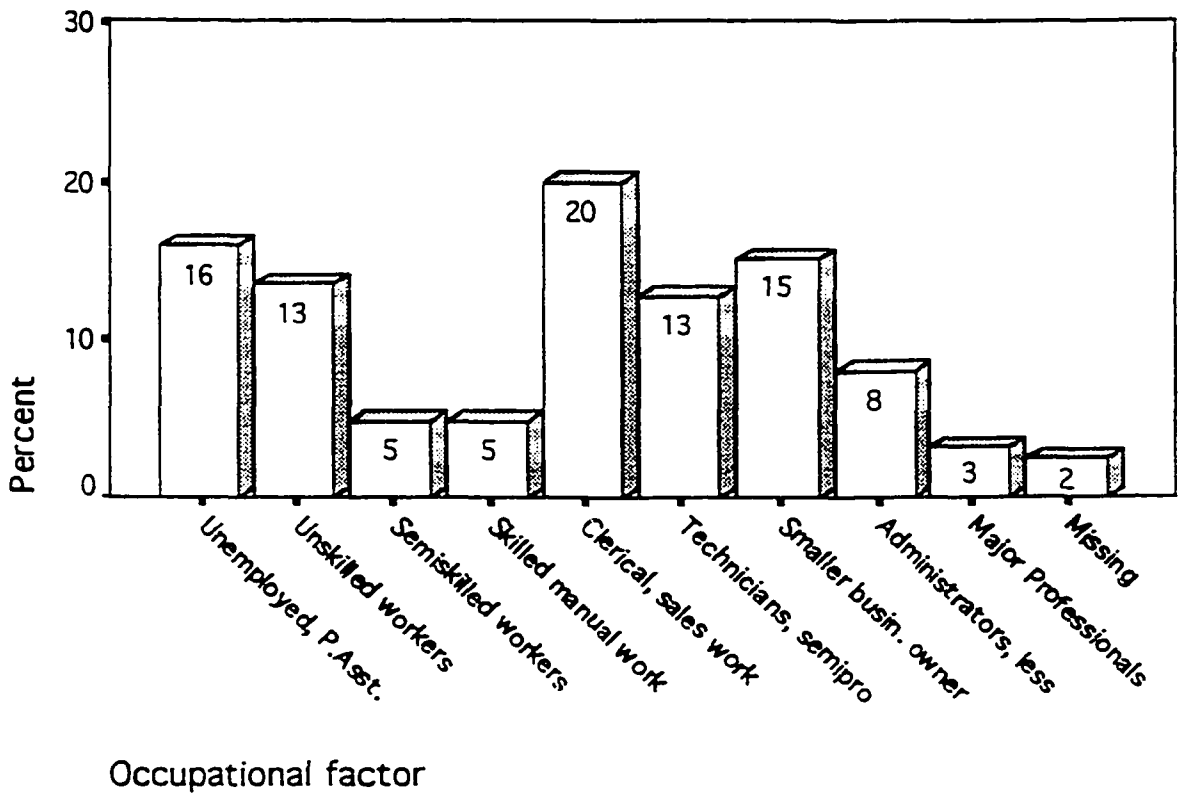
Graph 1. Participants' type of employment.



Employment: FT = 35 hrs/HF = 20 hrs./PT < 20 hrs.

Graph 2. Participants' occupation classification.

(Hollingshead, 1975)



J: Author's note

My interest in this topic originated from experiences during my clinical training with Latino families in New York City, as well as from questions regarding women's roles resulting from my own upbringing in a non-traditional family.

Before arriving in New York City in 1988 to start the Ph.D. program for which this dissertation was completed, I had lived in Puerto Rico all my life. There I pursued my studies in psychology at the bachelor's and master's levels at the University of Puerto Rico, while performing with *Ballets de San Juan*, the 40 year-old national classical ballet company.

I am the mother of a five and a half year old daughter-Constanza- and I speak to my mother and sister once a month by phone, weather and moods permitting!

Questions and/or comments can be sent to:

Eduvigis Cruz Arrieta
c/o Lic. Olga I. Nigaglioni Cruz
Ave. Ponce de León #268
Home Mortgage Plaza
Suite 1019
Hato Rey, Puerto Rico 00918
1 787 764 3279

or via email to: prstudy@aol.com

References

- Abidin, R. (1990) *Parenting stress index*. Charlottesville, VA: Pediatric Psychology Press.
- _____ (1995) *Parenting stress index*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.
- American Psychological Association (1987) *Guidelines for psychological practice with ethnic and culturally diverse populations*. Board of Ethnic Minority Affairs.
- _____ (1986) Society for the Psychological Study of Ethnic Minority Issues.
- Andrade, S. (1982) Family roles of Hispanic women: stereotypes, empirical findings, and implications for research. In R. E. Zambrana, (Ed.) (1982) *Work, family and health: Latina women in transition* (pp. 95-106). Hispanic Research Center Monograph No. 7. New York: Fordham University, Hispanic Research Center.
- Antonovsky, A. (1979) *Health, stress, and coping*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Ayala Santos, A.D. (1988) *La construcción de la familia y las relaciones intimas familiares en un grupo de familias puertorriqueñas*. Unpublished master's thesis: University of Puerto Rico.
- Babín, M.T. (1983) A special voice: the cultural expression. In A. Morales Carrión (1983) *Puerto Rico: A political and cultural history* (pp.320-352) New York: Norton.
- Barringer, F. (1993, June 6) Minorities on the move, often unpredictably. *The New York Times*, p. 4.
- Belk, D. (1990) Poverty and women's mental health. *American Psychologist*, 45, 3, 385-387.
- Benedek, T. (1959) Parenthood as a developmental phase. *Journal of the American Psychoanalytic Association*, 7, 389-417.
- Bernal, G., Flores-Ortiz, Y. (1982) Latino families in therapy: engagement and evaluation. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, 8, 357- 365.
- Bird, H., Canino, G. (1982) The Puerto Rican family: some cultural factors and family intervention strategies. *Journal of the American Academy of Psychoanalysis*, 10, 2, 257-258.

- Borrás, V. A. (1989) Dual discipline role of the single Puerto Rican woman head of household. In C. García-Coll & M. Mattei (Eds.) (1989) *The psychosocial development of Puerto Rican women* (pp. 200-213). New York: Praeger.
- Bowen, M. (1978) *Family therapy in clinical practice*. New York: Aronson.
- Boszormenyi-Nagy, I. & Ulrich, D. (1981) Contextual family therapy. In A. Gurman & D. Kniskern (Eds.) *Handbook of family therapy* (pp. 159-186). New York: Brunner/Mazel.
- Brody, J. (1997, June) Health watch: women under stress. *The New York Times Women's Health: Special edition*. [Online serial] Available on: <http://www.nytimes.com/partners/aol/special/women/warchive/970611970.html>
- Braverman, L. (1987) Beyond the myth of motherhood. In M. McGoldrick, C. Anderson, & F. Walsh (Eds.) *Women in families: a framework for family therapy* (pp. 227-243) New York: Norton.
- Bray, J., Harvey, D. S., Williamson, P.E. (1987) Intergenerational family relations: an evaluation of theory and measurements. *Psychotherapy*, 24, 516-528.
- Bray, J., Williamson, D. S., Malone, P.E. (1984) *PAFS: Personal authority in the family system questionnaire manual*. Texas: Baylor College of Medicine.
- Bray, J.H., Williamson, D. S., Malone, P.E. (1984) Personal authority in the family system: development of a questionnaire to measure personal authority in intergenerational family process. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, 10, 2, 167-178.
- Bray, J. (1991) The personal authority in the family system questionnaire: assessment of intergenerational family relations (Ch. 18). In D. Williamson (Ed) *The intimacy paradox: personal authority in the family system*. NY: Guilford.
- Buchner, A., Faul, F., Erdfelder, E. (1996) *G Power: A priori, post hoc, and compromise power analyses for the Macintosh (version 2.1.)* [Computer program] Trier, Germany: University of Trier.
- Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P23-183, *Hispanic Americans Today*. U.S. Government Printing Office. Washington, D.C. 1993.
- _____ (1997 Sept) Income improves, poverty levels stabilizes, health

- insurance coverage slips, census bureau reports (Press release) *The Official Statistics*. [Online serial] Available on: <http://www.census.gov/Press-Release/cb97-162.html>.
- _____ (1997 Sept) Census facts for Hispanic Heritage Month [Online serial] Available on: CB97-FS.10 <http://www.census.gov/population/estimates/nation/intfile3-1.txt>
- Caldwell, J. R. (1985) Family environment scale. In D. Keyser & R. Sweetland, (Eds.) (1986) *Test Critiques: Volume II* (pp. 263-274) MI: Test Corporation of America, Westport Publishers Inc.
- Canino, G. (1982a) Transactional family patterns: a preliminary exploration of Puerto Rican female adolescents. In R. E. Zambrana, Ed. (1982) *Work, family and health: Latina women in transition* (pp. 27-35). Hispanic Research Center Monograph No.7). New York: Fordham University, Hispanic Research Center.
- _____ (1982b) The Hispanic woman: sociocultural influences on diagnoses and treatment. In R. M. Becerra, M. Karno, & J. Escobar (Eds.) *Mental health and Hispanic-Americans: some clinical perspectives* (pp. 117-138.) New York: Grune & Stratton.
- Canino, I.A. , Canino, G. (1980) The impact of stress on the Puerto Rican family: treatment considerations. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 50, 3, 535-541.
- Canino, I., Early, B., Rogler, L. (1980) The Puerto Rican child: stress and mental health (Hispanic Research Center Monograph No.4) New York: Fordham University, Hispanic Research Center.
- Carpenter, P. (1994) The use of intergenerational family ratings: Methodological implications of shared versus distinct perceptions of the family in early adolescence. *New Directions for Child Development*, 40, 505-512.
- Carson, D., Gertz, L., Donaldson, M., Wonderlich, E. (1990 Jun) Family or origin characteristics and current family relationships of female adult incest survivors. *Journal of Family Violence*, 5, 2, 153-171. (From PsycLIT Database, 1990, Abstract Number 78-04253)
- Cashmore, E. (1996) *Dictionary of race and ethnic relations 4th Edition*, pp. 292-293.

London: Routledge.

Cassidy, A. (1993, Nov.) The stress test. *Working Mother*, 28-33.

Chaplin, J. (1985) *Dictionary of psychology*, p. 403. New York: Dell Publishing Co.

Chodorow, N. (1978) *The reproduction of mothering*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Citizens Committee for Children of New York, Mental Health Committee, (1990, September) Fact sheet on New York City's Children and Youth.

City University of New York (1992) *Affirmative Action Summary Data by college, sex, and ethnicity Vol. I: Instructional staff*. University Affirmative Action Office, Office of Faculty and Staff Relations.

_____ *Affirmative Action Summary Data by college, sex, and ethnicity Vol. II: Classified staff*. University Affirmative Action Office, Office of Faculty and Staff Relations.

Clay, R. A. (1995, Nov) Working mothers: happy or haggard? *APA Monitor*, p.1.

Cohen, J. (1988) *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (Ch.1, 8). NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Press.

_____ (1992) A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112, 1, 155-159.

Comas-Diaz, L. (1982) Mental health need of Puerto Rican women in the United States. In R. E. Zambrana, Ed. (1982) *Work, family and health: Latina women in transition* (pp.1-11). Hispanic Research Center Monograph No.7 Bronx, NY: Fordham University, Hispanic Research Center.

_____ (1989) Puerto Rican women's cultural transitions: developmental and clinical implications. In C. García-Coll & M. Mattei (Eds.) (1989) *The psychosocial development of Puerto Rican women* (pp. 167-199). New York: Praeger.

Copeland, A., White, K. (1991) *Studying families*. Applied Social Research Methods Series, Vol. 27. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Cortés, D. E. (1995 May) Variations in familism in two generations of Puerto Ricans. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Science*, 17, 2, 249-255.

Crespo, E. (1991) Changing conceptions of femininity among Puerto Rican women. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. State University of New York, Binghamton.

- Debold, E., Wilson, M.C., Malavé, I. (1993) *The mother-daughter revolution : from good girls to great women*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Etaugh, C. (1990) Women's lives: images and realities. In M. A. Paludi & G.A. Steurnagel (Eds.) (1990) *Foundations for a feminist restructuring of the academic disciplines* (pp. 39-68). New York: Haworth Press.
- Forgays, D. K., Forgays, D. G. (1993) Personal and environmental factors contributing to parenting stress among employed and nonemployed women. *European Journal of Personality*, 7, 107-108.
- García-Preto, N. (1982) Puerto Rican families. In M. McGoldrick, J. K. Pearce, & J. Giacomo (Eds) (1982) *Ethnicity and family therapy* (ch.8). New York, NY: Guilford.
- Gil, R. M., Vázquez, C. I. (1996) *The Maria paradox: how latinás can merge old world traditions with new world self-esteem*. NY: Putnam.
- Gilligan, C. (1982) *In a different voice: psychological theory and women's development*. MA: Harvard University Press.
- Greenglass, E., Pantony, K., Burke, R. (1988) A gender-role perspective on role conflict, work stress and social support. Special Issue: Work and family: theory, research, and applications. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 3, 4, 317-328. (From PsycLIT Database, 1990, Abstract Number 76-30989)
- Guarnaccia, P., Good, B., Kleinman, A. (1990) A critical review of epidemiological studies of Puerto Rican mental health. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 147, 11, 1449-1456.
- Gottfried, A. W. (1985) Measures of socioeconomic status in child development research: data and recommendations. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 31, 1, 85-92.
- Harbison Robles, L. (1988) *Traducción , adaptación, y estudios iniciales de confiabilidad y validez del Parenting Stress Index*. Unpublished master's thesis: University of Puerto Rico.
- Hagestad, G. (1985) Continuity and connectedness. In V. L. Bengston & J. F. Robertson (1985) *Grandparenthood* (pp. 31-48). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Hollingshead, A. B. (1975) *Four factor index of social status*. Unpublished working

- paper. CT: Yale University.
- Inclán, J. (1983- Oct.) Psychological symptomatology in second generation Puerto Rican women of three socioeconomic groups. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 11, 334-345.
- _____, Hernández. M. (1992) Cross-cultural perspectives and codependence: the case of poor Hispanics. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 62, 2, 245-255.
- Institute for Puerto Rican Policy (1996 July) *The status of Puerto Rican children in the U. S.* IPR Datanote No. 18 (abridge version).
- _____. (1994 Aug.) *Puerto Ricans and other Latinos in U.S.: March, 1994.* IPR Datanote No. 17 (abridge version).
- Jordan, J. V. , Kaplan, A. J. , Miller, J. B., Stiver, I. P., Surrey, J. L. (1991) *Women's growth in connection: writings from the Stone Center.* NY: Guilford.
- Justiniano, C.L. (1994) *Con valor y a como dé lugar: Memorias de una jíbara puertorriqueña.* Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico: Editorial Universidad de Puerto Rico.
- Koeske, G. F. , Koeske, R. D. (1990, July) The buffering effect of social support on parental stress. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 60, 3, 440-451.
- Lewis, E. (1988, Fall-winter) Role strengths and strains of African-American mothers. Special Issue: Prevention strategies in the problems of women. *Journal of Primary Intervention*, 9, 1-2, 77-91.
- Margarida-Juliá, M. (1989) Developmental issues during adulthood: redefining notions of self, care, and responsibility among a group of professional Puerto Rican women. In C. García-Coll & M. Mattei Eds. (1989) *The psychosocial development of Puerto Rican women* . New York.: Praeger.
- Marín, G., Marín-Vanoss, B. (1991) *Research with Hispanic populations.* Applied Social Research Methods Series, Vol. 23. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Martinez Mejias, S. (June, 1993) *Análisis de la transmisión intergeneracional de los patrones de crianza en un grupo de madres puertorriqueñas.* Unpublished master's thesis: University of Puerto Rico.

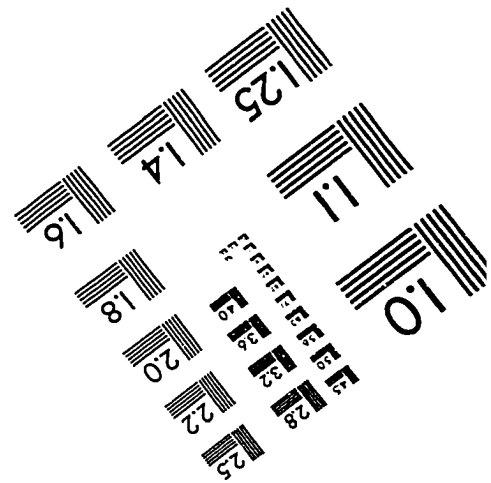
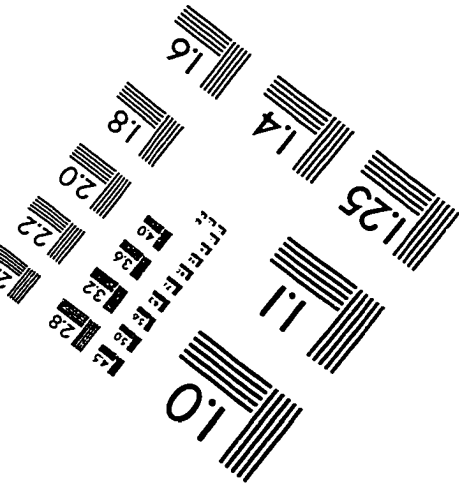
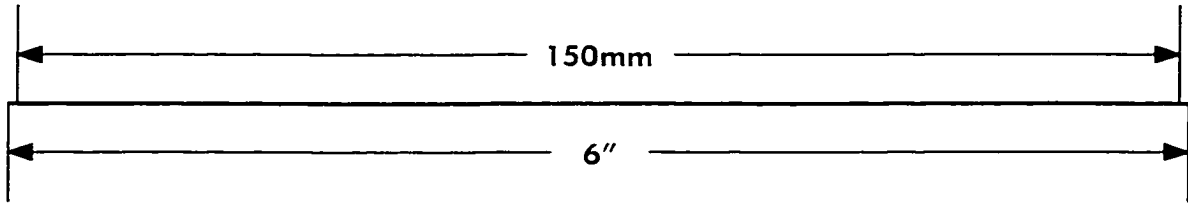
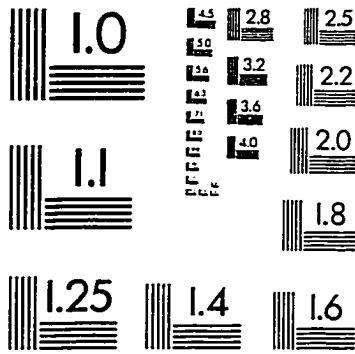
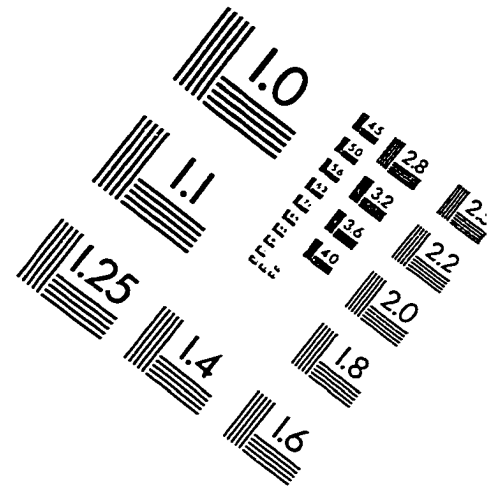
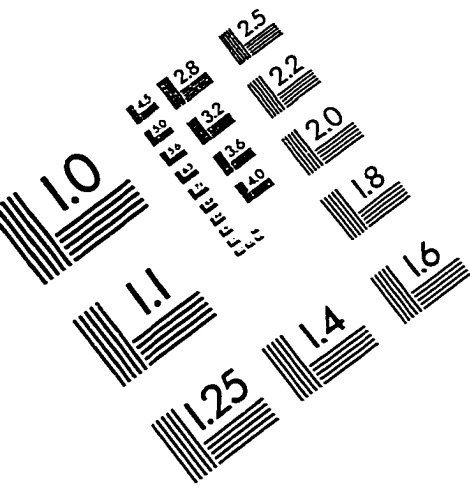
- Mattei, M. (1989) A contradiction in ties: autonomy and social networks of adult Puerto Rican women. In C. García-Coll & M. Mattei Eds. (1989) *The psychosocial development of Puerto Rican women* (pp. 215-242) New York: Praeger.
- McBride, A. B. (1990) Mental health effects of women's multiple roles. *American Psychologist*, 45, 3, 381-384.
- McGoldrick, M. (1987) Women through the family life cycle. In M. McGoldrick, C. Anderson, & F. Walsh (Eds.) *Women in families: a framework for family therapy* (pp. 200-226.) New York: Norton.
- McGoldrick, M., García-Preto, N., Moore Hines, P., Lee, E. (1989) Ethnicity and women. In M. McGoldrick, C. Anderson, & F. Walsh (Eds.) *Women in families: a framework for family therapy* (pp. 169-199). New York: Norton.
- Mckinney, B., Peterson, R. A. (1987) Predictors of stress in parents of developmentally disabled children. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*, 12, 133-150.
- Mckinney, B., Peterson, R. A. (1984) Parenting stress index. In D. Keyser & R. Sweetland (Eds.) (1984) *Test Critiques: Volume I* (pp. 504-510) MI: Test Corporation of America, Wesport Publishers Inc.
- Miller, J. B. (1986) *Toward a new psychology of women 2nd Edition*. Boston: Beacon Press.
- Minuchin S. (1974) *Families and family therapy*. Cambridge: Harvard Uni. Press.
- Moos, R. (1990, June) Conceptual and empirical approaches to developing family-based assessment procedures: resolving the case of the Family Environment Scale. *Family Process*, 29, 199-208.
- Moos, R., Moos, B. (1994) *Family environment scale manual: development, applications, research*. Third Edition. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychology Press.
- _____ (1986) *Family environment scale manual: development, applications, research*. Second Edition. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychology Press.
- Mouton, P., Tuma, J. (1988) Stress, locus of control, and role satisfaction in clinic and control mothers. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 17, 3, 217-224.

- Nitz, K., Ketterlinus, R. D., Brandt, L. J. (1995 July) The role of stress, social support, and family environment on parenting behavior. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 10, 30, 358-382.
- Ortiz, A. (Ed.) (1996) *Puerto Rican women and work*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Papajohn, J., Spiegel, J. (1975) *Transactions in families: a modern approach for resolving cultural and generational conflicts* (pp. 46-96). California: Jossey Bass.
- Pascual, L., de Galperín, C. Z., Bornstein, M. H. (1993) Medición del nivel socioeconómico y la psicología educativa: el caso argentino. *Revista Interamericana de Psicología*, 27, 1, 59-74.
- Paster, V.S. (1994) The psychosocial development and coping of black male adolescents: clinical implications. In R. G. Majors & J.U. Gordon (Eds.) *The American Black male: his present status and his future* (pp. 216-229). Chicago: Nelson-Hall Publishers.
- Pérez. L. L. (1989) *Maternal depression, parenting stress, social support, and coping mechanisms: a comparison of Puerto Rican women of clinic and non-clinic latency age boys*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. New York University: New York.
- Pietromonaco, P., Manis, J., Frohardt-Lane, K. (1986, Dec.) Psychological consequences of multiple social roles. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 10, 4, 373-381.
- Quiñones, M.E. (1996) *Latina college students: the relationship among ethnic identity, acculturation, gender roles, and psychological well-being*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Graduate School and University Center, City University of New York: New York.
- Rogler, L. (1996) Increasing socioeconomic inequalities and the mental health of the poor. *The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*. 184, 12, 719-722.
- _____ (1978) Help patterns, the family, and mental health: Puerto Rican families in the United States. *International Migration Review*, 12, 2, 248-259.
- Rogler, L., Malgady, R. G., Constantino, G., Blumenthal, R. (1987) What do culturally sensitive mental health services mean?: the case of Hispanics. *American Psychologist*, 42, 6, 565-570.

- Rogler, L.H., Santana Cooney, R. (1984) *Puerto Rican families in New York City: intergenerational processes*. Hispanic Research Center Monograph No. 11. New York: Fordham University, Hispanic Research Center.
- Rodríguez, C. (1989) *Puerto Ricans: born in the U.S.A.* Boston, MA: Unwin Hyman.
- Roosa, M. W., Beals, J. (1990a, June) Measurement issues in family assessment: the case of the Family Environment Scale. *Family Process*, 29, 191-198.
- _____ (1990b, June) A final comment on the case of the Family Environment Scale. *Family Process*, 29, 209-211.
- Rosado, J. (1980) Importance of psychocultural factor in the delivery of mental health services to lower-class Puerto Rican clients: a review of recent studies. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 8, 215-226.
- Rosario, L. (1982) The self-perception of Puerto Rican women toward their societal roles. In R. Zambrana (Ed.) (1982) *Work, family, and health: latina women in transition* (Ch. 11) New York: Hispanic Research Center, Fordham University.
- Russo, N. F. (1990) Overview: forging research priorities for women's mental health. *American Psychologist*, 45, 3, 368-373.
- Solis, M. L., Abidin, R. (1991) The Spanish version PSI: a psychometric study. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 20, 4, 372-378.
- Solis, M. L. (1990) *A cross-cultural comparison of patterns of stress*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Virginia, Charlottesville.
- Surrey, J. (1991) The "Self-in-Relation": a theory of women's development. In J. V. Jordan, A. J. Kaplan, J. B Miller, I. P. Stiver, J. L. Surrey (1991) *Women's growth in connection: writings from the Stone Center* (Ch. 3). NY: Guilford.
- Tobin, J. E. (1994) *Relations of parental locus of control, value of paternal involvement, and gender of the child to perceived paternal involvement in child care in dual-earner families*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. New York University: New York.
- Valdéz, R., Gutek, B. (1990) Family roles: a help or a hindrance for working women? . In J. Eckenrod & S. Gore (Eds) *Stress between work and family* (Ch 9). NY: Plenum Press.

- Vega, W., Kolody, B., Valle, R., Weir, J. (1991) Social networks, social support, and their relationship to depression among immigrant Mexican women. *Human Organization*, 50, 2, 154-162.
- Ventura, J. (1987) The stresses of parenthood reexamined. *Family Relations-Journal of Applied Family and Child Studies*, 36, 1, 26-29.
- Walsh, L. M. (1991) Personal authority and gender differences: typecasting. In D. Williamson (1991) *The intimacy paradox: personal authority in the family system* (Ch. 16) NY: Guilford.
- Walsh, F., Scheinkman, M. (1989) (Fe)male: the hidden gender dimension in models of family therapy. In M. Mc Goldrick, C. Anderson, & F. Walsh (Eds.) *Women in families: a framework for family therapy* (Ch.2). New York: Norton.
- Williamson, D. (1991) *The intimacy paradox: personal authority in the family system* (Chs. 1, 2, 3,13) NY: Guilford.
- Williamson, D. (1981) Personal authority via termination of the intergenerational hierarchical boundary: A "new" stage in the family cycle. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, 7, 446-457.
- Williamson, D. (1982b) Personal authority in the family experience via the termination of the intergenerational hierarchical boundary: Part III. Personal authority as defined as the power to play in the change process. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, 8, 309-323.
- Williamson, D. S. & Bray, J. H. (1988) Family development and change across the generations: An intergenerational perspective. In C. J. Falicov, (Ed.), *Family transitions: Continuity and change over the life cycle* (pp. 357-384). New York: Guilford.
- Wilson, M., Tolson, T. (1988) Single-parenting of three generational Black families. In E.M. Hetherington & J.D. Arasteh, (Eds.) (1988) *Impact of divorce, single parenting, and stepparenting on children* (pp. 215-241). Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.

IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



APPLIED IMAGE, Inc
1653 East Main Street
Rochester, NY 14609 USA
Phone: 716/482-0300
Fax: 716/288-5989

© 1993, Applied Image, Inc., All Rights Reserved