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Black Adolescent Male Health:

A Bibliography, 1987-1991



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**BLACK ADOLESCENT MALE HEALTH:
A BIBLIOGRAPHY, 1987-1991**

By Jean W. Ross

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Introduction

This bibliography grew out of a symposium held in Columbia, South Carolina, on March 18-19, 1991, which was planned and conducted by The Center for Child and Family Studies, College of Social Work, University of South Carolina, and funded by Health and Human Services, Maternal and Child Health Bureau. The symposium was called in response to a growing concern for the well-being of black adolescent males, and it is documented in *Nurturing the Black Adolescent Male in the Family Context: A Public Health Responsibility* (Abramczyk, L., & Ross, J. W., Eds., The College of Social Work, The University of South Carolina, Columbia, 1992). *Black Adolescent Male Health: A Bibliography, 1987-1991* can be considered related to the symposium report in the sense that it was conceived and funded under the same grant and was produced, like the symposium and its report, by The Center for Child and Family Studies.

Black adolescent males are without doubt a seriously troubled segment of our population. Many authorities have called them an endangered species, and even the most optimistic observers cannot ignore the daily media reports of homicide, suicide, and other violence; the growing number of AIDS cases; drug abuse and drug trafficking; crime; unemployment and poverty; early sexual activity and teenage pregnancy; and the related problems from which this population is suffering.

Black Adolescent Male Health was designed to fill a need for social workers, medical professionals, and others who plan programs for and work with black youth, for students, for teachers, and for general readers with an interest in the topic. The bibliography includes books and book chapters; articles from professional journals and major newspapers; and materials from government reports.

Health issues are treated under broad categories in this bibliography. Citations are listed alphabetically by author under the following eight headings: Background and General Material; Homicide, Suicide, and Other Violence; Interventions; Mental Health; Poverty and Related Social Issues; Sexually Transmitted Diseases; Substance Abuse; and Teenage Parenthood and Early Sexual Activity.

The interrelationships among many of these issues pose a hardship in placing listings squarely within a single category. In instances in which an article is obviously and strongly identified with two categories, it has been annotated in the stronger of the two and cross-referenced in the other. The wise researcher, however, will consult any category that can possibly relate to the topic he or she is working on and will be likely to find other useful material in this way.

Citations span the years 1987-1991. Because there has been within very recent years a drastic increase in the incidence of sexually transmitted diseases, the number of homicides and suicides, the scope of drug use and trafficking, and the prevalence of poverty and related social problems, confining the bibliography to the last five years seemed a reasonable approach to making it as current as possible and keeping it a manageable size. This is not to deny that there is a mass of valuable earlier material, to which the reader can be guided by the reference sections in many of the articles cited.

Every effort has been made to do a thorough search and gather as much useful material as possible, under the direction of Jo Cottingham, Project Assistant, and with the able and imaginative help of Dr. Joan Altacruz, Professor of Preventive Medicine, University of South Carolina School of Medicine; University of South Carolina Medical Library reference librarian Loretta Westcott; and reference librarians Laurie Preston and Jens Holley, Thomas Cooper Library, University of South Carolina.

The creators and funders of *Black Adolescent Male Health* hope that the book will serve you well.

Jean W. Ross

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BACKGROUND AND GENERAL MATERIAL

Brunswick, A. F., & Merzel, C. R. (1988). Health through three life stages: A longitudinal study of urban black adolescents. *Social Science and Medicine*, 27(11), 1207-1214.

Using data obtained through in-home interviews with a representative sample of 426 urban black young people, contacted three times—at ages 12-17, 18-23, and 26-31—the authors conducted a study to determine the changes in perceived health status and morbidity at these successive life stages. Their results indicated a noteworthy increase in sickness between the first and second stages (some of the problems being musculoskeletal, dental, perceived emotional/nervous trouble, and high blood pressure), followed by greater stability in health in postadolescence and young adulthood. This phenomenon may be connected with urban stress in the black adolescent population, though the authors acknowledge a difficulty in gauging health symptoms with equal accuracy and sensitivity for the three stages they considered.

Gibbs, J. T., et al. (Eds.). (1988). *Young, black, and male in America*. Westport, CT: Auburn House.

Gibbs describes young black males as an endangered species in contemporary American society in at least a metaphorical sense, saying that “they have been miseducated by the educational system, mishandled by the criminal justice system, mislabeled by the mental health system, and mistreated by the social welfare system.” In an introduction to this book, she analyzes the social indicators for young black males—education, employment/unemployment, delinquency and crime, substance abuse, unwed teen parenthood, homicide and suicide—and examines historical, sociocultural, economic, and political contributing factors and implications. The remainder of the book follows her outline of indicators, with individual authors treating topics fully in separate chapters. In closing, Gibbs makes multiple recommendations for strategies to address the problems examined, and she warns that young black males will continue to follow a self-destructive path if they see their future as hopeless and feel they can have no meaningful roles in society.

Gladwell, M. (1991, April 4). Life expectancy of black males falls to 64.9. *Washington Post*, p. A5, col. 1.

As U.S. Health and Human Services Secretary Louis W. Sullivan noted in his annual report for 1991, life expectancy lengthened for most major groups, for the most part, during the 1980s. But for black males, it declined from 65.2 years in 1987 to 64.9 years in 1988, hitting its lowest point since 1981. Sullivan blamed AIDS and the rising murder rate for this “striking decline” over the '80s and ordered, among other initiatives to combat minority health problems, extending early care to children, focusing on educational programs on prevention, and making health professionals more available for the at-risk group. However, he cautioned, no expansion of government programs can replace personal responsibility, and he cited as concerns in this area poor diet, drug and tobacco use, lack of prenatal care, and infrequent exercise.

Jaynes, G. D., & Williams, R. M. (Eds.). (1989). *A common destiny: Blacks and American society*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

This book, composed of papers resulting from a four-year study conducted under the aegis of the Committee on the Status of Black Americans, offers a historical overview and a look at the current educational, political, and social status of blacks in American society, augmented with illustrations, graphs,

and tables. Overall it provides valuable general background material for anyone doing research on black adolescent male health issues. More specifically, it contains a chapter titled "Black Americans' Health" (pp. 391-450) that illustrates the differential in the rates of illness, disability, and death between white and black Americans. Contained in this chapter is a section on black youth in which it is noted that, although the leading cause of death for all adolescents in this country is injuries, homicide is the leading cause of death for black male youth.

Jones, B. (1990). Disproportionate health risks in minorities: Does medical education need to change? *Journal of the National Medical Association*, 82(6), 395-396.

In this guest editorial an Atlanta physician and public health clinician discusses the disproportionate health risks of the poor, especially the black poor, naming poverty as the single most important factor because it contributes to teenage pregnancy, drug use, and violence. Race and racism are also factors, she notes. In her work, she often sees another cause of disproportionate health risk among blacks: a pleasure-oriented attitude combined with a disregard for the future. It is especially prevalent among black males in sexually transmitted disease clinics, and she believes it is "born of hopelessness and disempowerment, or lack of control over one's destiny." Jones concludes that more and better medical care will not solve the problem; the medical community must explore the root causes and introduce solutions in "this struggle for the very future of our race and our nation."

Jones, R. L. (Ed.). (1989). *Black adolescents*. Berkeley, CA: Cobb & Henry.

This compilation of nineteen essays provides a research-based, broad look at the problems facing black adolescents. Topics covered are perspectives, youth in diverse settings, physical and mental health, psychosocial development and socialization, educational issues and programs, career development and employment, counseling and psychotherapy, pregnancy and parenting, substance use, and youth in the criminal justice system. Jones notes in his preface that the essays generally emphasize how race, socioeconomic status, and environmental forces shape the individual's development during the years of adolescence. He cautions that comparison studies of blacks and whites with whites implied as the norm (though they are useful for advocate groups, legislators, policymakers, and service providers) cannot provide all the information required to understand and address the problems of black adolescents; only "principles discovered through direct research" on young blacks can fill that need. A plus of this collection is that it treats black adolescents in their variety rather than as a monolithic population.

O'Hare, W. P., Pollard, K. M., Mann, T. L., & Kent, M. M. (1991, July). African Americans in the 1990s. *Population Bulletin*, 46(1).

This issue deals entirely with African Americans in the United States, who numbered some 30 million in 1991. The editors and authors note that while this population has progressed remarkably since the 1960s, economic and political factors during the 1980s have set much of it back and widened the gap between blacks and whites. Though the issue does not focus specifically on black adolescent males, its fine, detailed report on the population as a whole would serve as invaluable background for anyone concerned with black adolescent health issues.

Taylor, R. L. (1986-87). Black youth in crisis. *Humboldt Journal of Social Relations*, 14(1 and 2), 106-133.

According to research from a variety of sources, more black youth are now living in poverty, under-educated, unemployed, involved in crime and drug abuse, and having babies out of wedlock than was the case in the mid 1960s. The black underclass is increasing despite federal and community efforts to help. In this article Taylor examines the causes of these alarming trends; looks at their implications for the future if their course is not changed; and concludes that strategies to deal with them must be multi-dimensional, including not only the work of government but a range of public and private institutions, from the family to the welfare system. Such strategies must address job training and procurement; drug education; establishing more treatment and rehabilitation encompassing a wide range of services; and reconceptualizing sex education to include strategies for helping teens build problem-solving skills, gain self-confidence, and become motivated to postpone sexual activity. A sorely neglected problem in teen pregnancy, says the author, is the adolescent father, and programs to address this issue must actively promote sexual responsibility among black adolescent males.

Taylor, R. L. (1990, September). Black youth: The endangered generation. *Youth and Society*, 22(1), 4-11.

In this introduction to a special issue of *Youth and Society*, Taylor takes a look at the recent decline in the level and quality of life for some segments of the black youth population, covering in his overview unemployment and poverty, teenage pregnancy, delinquency and crime, substance abuse, and homicide and suicide. Some of these ills, he points out, are a result of shifting big-city demographics that "in turn, triggered a self-sustaining chain reaction" of social problems and produced what he calls a "sub-culture of disengagement." A recent increase in public recognition of the problems of black youth could produce the federal resources needed to address some of these problems, Taylor says, which "are qualitatively and quantitatively different from what they were two decades ago, when [black youths'] social and economic circumstances were more tractable."

West, C., et al. (1991, September-October). Black voices. *Utne Reader*, no. 47, 50-61.

In this compilation of excerpts from other publications, eight prominent African Americans offer their views on black life today. The editors call it "a portrait of tragedy and victimization but also of hope and determination to set things right" for this population. Essayist Bell Hooks confesses to a deep nostalgia for the "sense of place and belonging and togetherness" she had growing up in the segregated South. Dorothy Height laments the "internalizing by our young people of the negativism thrust upon them daily and the need to rely on the family and community for support, following the black tradition." Anthony A. Parker states that "growing up in 'integrated' America has established a pattern of cognitive dissonance among young blacks." Though the thoughts and recommendations in these excerpts are general, they have vast implications for young black males and any future they may aspire to.

HOMICIDE, SUICIDE, AND OTHER VIOLENCE

Baker, F. M. (1990). Black youth suicide: Literature review with a focus on prevention. *Journal of the National Medical Association*, 82(7), 495-507.

Charting black suicide rates between 1950 and 1981, with age and sex breakdowns that give a reading specifically for the adolescent male category, Baker examines the phenomenon in the contexts

of demographics, increase and decline, and comparison with white suicide rates. He also examines the literature on black suicide and its causes, related theories, and preventive strategies. In this last category he says that "primary preventive strategies involving black suicidal youth should focus on conflict resolution in the family and clarification of expectations in various relationships." Among other future research directions he recommends case studies that examine psychiatric history and psychosocial stressors to identify possible patterns for black suicide attempters; and he suggests that research efforts include a multisite, prospective study of black suicide attempts in at least five cities with large black populations.

Banks, J. (1987). A developmental perspective on black family violence. In R. L. Hampton (Ed.), *Violence in the black family: Correlates and consequences* (pp. 247-259). Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.

The developmental or life cycle model is used here as a perspective from which to examine family violence among blacks. For each stage of the cycle, Banks discusses issues that pertain specifically to black families and gives corresponding data. Her comments on Stage Five provide a useful elementary summary of the additional dangers facing black teens and the challenges those dangers present their families.

Bell, C. C. (1990). Black-on-black homicide: The implications for black community mental health. In D. S. Ruiz (Ed.), *Handbook of mental health and mental disorder among black Americans* (pp. 191-207). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Bell quotes Federal Bureau of Investigation statistics showing that in 1968 blacks accounted for more than 44 percent of the murder victims in the United States and that more than 90 percent of these black victims were killed by blacks. Furthermore, from 1976 to 1983, black male homicide victims knew their assailant in 58.3 percent of the cases—75 percent of the time as a friend or acquaintance. The author examines the "myths" about the problem—such as a belief that criminals are responsible for the high homicide rate among blacks—that place the burden of the solution on the criminal justice system rather than the community. He cites several other obstacles to solution of the problem, including racial/ethnic attitudes, blame-placing, and the "subculture of violence" theory. Following this analysis he proposes solutions, most of them based in black community action, and gives examples of community programs that have made a difference.

Colburn, D. (1990, December 18). The risky lives of young black men. *Washington Post*, p. WH7.

In 1989 homicide was the tenth leading cause of death in the United States; and, according to Centers for Disease Control reports, the homicide rate among black men ages 15-24 rose by two thirds during the five-year period ending in 1988, with death by gunfire accounting for almost the entire increase. Colburn has interviewed authorities and analyzed studies on the reasons for the increase. In this article he quotes Frederick P. Rivara, director of an injury prevention center in Seattle, Washington, on poverty, drug abuse, and access to guns as chief among the causes. Police data, however, show that the connection between drugs and killings is decreasing, says the author. Deborah Prothrow-Stith, Assistant Dean of the Harvard School of Public Health, believes that "most violence is acquaintance or family violence," though alcohol and guns are obviously involved in it, and that the risk factors are often behavioral. Therefore, we must change behaviors to effect solutions, she says.

Gibbs, J. T., & Hines, A. M. (1989, April). Factors related to sex differences in suicidal behavior among black youth: Implications for intervention and research. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 4(2), 152-172.

According to the 1987 census, suicide is the leading cause of death in the 15-24 age group; it peaks for black males in the 25-34 age group; and since 1960 it has doubled for black females and nearly tripled for black males. Gibbs and Hines examine rates and patterns of suicide among black youth, considering as possible causes of the discrepancy between black male and black female suicide rates the theories that black males use more foolproof methods than black females and that males and females respond differently to psychological and environmental stress, a factor that could cause females to use suicide attempts as a cry for help but cause males to view failed suicide attempts as unmasculine and shameful. The authors analyze in more depth three major conceptual approaches that have been applied to suicide among black youth—the sociological, psychological, and ecological perspectives—and treat family, school, peer, and community issues that place blacks more at risk. More clinical and epidemiological research is needed, they say, to clarify how these factors interact to result in suicidal behavior in blacks. The resulting knowledge would help in the development of programs to address the problem, along with strategies for assessment and early identification of suicidal behavior in this population.

Hampton, R. L. (1987). Family violence and homicides in the black community: Are they linked? In R. L. Hampton (Ed.), *Violence in the black family: Correlates and consequences* (pp. 135-156). Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.

Family violence is recognized as a serious social problem that can relate directly or indirectly to homicide, which is the leading killer of black adolescent males. In this essay Hampton reviews recent findings on race and child maltreatment, family violence, homicide and other violent behavior, and the links among all of these. In the sections on primary homicide and homicide and other violent behavior, he notes findings on discrepancies between black and white homicide rates and examines models that seek to explain them. Though this article does not concentrate on black adolescent males, it provides valuable background reading and a good bibliography.

Hawkins, D. F. (1987). Devalued lives and stereotypes: Ideological barriers to the prevention of family violence among blacks. In R. L. Hampton (Ed.), *Violence in the black family: Correlates and consequences* (pp. 189-205). Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.

According to this author, social researchers and policy makers dealing with family violence have concentrated too heavily on perfecting methodologies for identifying high-risk groups and individuals and assessing the effectiveness of intervention strategies. Hawkins supports the view that ideological problems must be reckoned with before black family violence can be decreased. He discusses three major ideologically based barriers: the tradition of nonintervention in domestic matters, the historical devaluation of black life in the United States, and the stereotyped view that violence is normal among blacks. Concentrating on the second and third of these factors, Hawkins gives a good basic discussion of biases underlying the way our society deals with black family violence, citing earlier research on the topic and appending a useful bibliography.

Hawkins, D. F. (1990, June). Explaining the black homicide rate. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 5(2), 151-163.

High homicide rates among blacks, far from being solely a recent problem, have been documented

for more than half a century. This article provides a review and critique of the literature from 1932 to 1990 on black homicide, considering “external” factors (such as discrimination and oppression) and “internal” factors (such as the “subculture of violence” thesis) as they have been treated in the research cited and formulating questions to help present and future researchers consider the issue. While the article does not focus on young black males, it is valuable for its historical perspective.

Homicide among young black males—United States, 1978-1987. (1990, December 7). *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report*, 39(48), 869-873.

This report describes the homicide rates among young black males for the ten-year span between 1978 and 1987. The percentage increase was greater for 15- to 24-year-olds than for those in the 20-24 age bracket during these years, the report notes; and for adolescent black males, the homicide rate and the proportion of homicides attributable to firearms were highest in 1987. In an editorial note, the point is made that though homicides in this population declined during the early 1980s, from 1984 to 1987 they increased sharply and have continued to increase since. Tables and figures in the article show firearm- and nonfirearm-associated homicide rates for young black males during this ten-year period, homicide rates and ratios by race and sex, and homicide rates by geographical division. It is suggested that priority areas for research on this topic should be (1) causes of the described rise in homicide rates; (2) prevention of firearm-related death and injury; (3) better understanding of the role alcohol, drugs, and drug trafficking play in these homicides; (4) prevention of violent, aggressive behavior; and (5) identification of risk factors among urban youth that can be targeted for intervention.

Mann, C. R., & LaPoint, V. (1987). Research issues relating to the causes of social deviance and violence among black populations. In R. L. Hampton (Ed.), *Violence in the black family: Correlates and consequences* (pp. 207-235). Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.

A sociological and criminological emphasis on violence, as opposed to a psychological approach, characterizes this analysis of social crime and violence in the black population. Mann and LaPoint assess related theories and research from Emile Durkheim’s *Division of Labor in Society* (1893) through early studies on gang activity to present-day studies, quoting statistics on urban black males and relating them to the “subculture of violence” theory. The authors take a hard look at research methods and the resulting conclusions, then outline areas of need in future research, giving suggestions on how they can achieve objectivity and arrive at more unbiased and useful findings than past, flawed research has done.

McCall, N. (1991, January 13). Dispatches from a dying generation. *Washington Post*, p. C1.

McCall, a reporter for the *Washington Post*, gives in this article a first-person account of growing up on the “mean streets of home,” serving time for robbery, and turning his life around. Some of his peers, however, were not so fortunate, and he quotes in his introspective account a psychologist’s statement that “our fates are linked partly to how we perceive our choices in life.” Many of his friends felt they had no positive choices that would allow them to maintain their dignity; they opted therefore for the negative choices, such as robbery and drug dealing, that they felt spared them the fate of being looked down upon by whites as they would have been in the available jobs: “At least in the streets, the playing field is level and the rules don’t change.” There are no easy formulas, says McCall, to end black-on-black violence; it becomes all too easy to take another life when you feel your own has no value. And the younger generation, he cautions, is “meaner . . . more lost and alienated than we were—and placing even less value on life.”

Mitchell, M. A., & Daniels, S. (1989, November-December). Black-on-black homicide: Kansas City's response. *Public Health Reports*, 104(6), 605-608.

In 1983 homicide was the eleventh leading cause of death in the nation but the fifth leading cause of death for blacks ages 15-24, and 94 percent of black murder victims were killed by other blacks. The rate was escalating, with drug use cited as a cause. In 1977 a black community organization called the Ad Hoc Group Against Crime was formed to pursue unsolved murders of nine black women. Since then the organization, made up of about 200 volunteers from various professions and occupations, has devoted its attention and funds to other crimes, too. In the mid 1980s the group was instrumental in getting the police to form a black-on-black homicide force, which reported in 1987 on black-on-black homicide statistics and risk factors and came up with a hundred recommendations to address the problem, identifying twelve to focus on for the next year and helping to set up committees to work on them. The Ad Hoc Group is active in this effort. In closing, the authors comment on ways such a grass-roots organization can be of special help to the community, since it is directly in touch with the community's character and problems. They believe that these groups can be especially helpful in establishing joint efforts against violence with law enforcement and the courts while maintaining "a grassroots base with community support."

Oliver, W. (1989). Sexual conquest and patterns of black-on-black violence: A structural-cultural perspective. *Violence and Victims*, 4(4), 257-273.

Though the high rate of black-on-black crime has been documented for many years and constitutes a major health problem in the black population and thus in American society as a whole, there is little agreement among authorities on its cause. Oliver reviews a list of possible explanations—including lack of impulse control, acquired biological causes, and racial discrimination and displaced aggression—and finds them all inadequate. He proposes instead a structural-cultural perspective through which it can be seen that blacks fail to develop an Afrocentric cultural ideology and that, especially among the lower socioeconomic classes, they tolerate tough-guy and "player of women" images as "acceptable alternatives to traditional definitions of manhood." The "player of women" image shapes feelings about the sexes and relationships between them (and also male-male and female-female relationships) in a way that abets violence on many levels and further destabilizes the social fabric. To address the problem, Oliver supports stricter versions of traditional methods, such as gun control and drug laws; but nothing will work, he says, unless blacks "assume community ownership of these problems by committing themselves to the Afrocentric socialization of black youth."

Palley, H. A., & Robinson, D. A. (1988, July-August). Black on black crime. *Society*, 25(5), 59-62.

A chilling statistic often repeated in the black-on-black crime literature is that in 1977 more black males were murdered than were killed in the entire nine-year period of the Vietnam War; and in 1983, 94 percent of black homicides died at the hands of other blacks. The 15-24 age group is particularly at risk for black-on-black homicide, males far more than females. This discussion presents a historic and cultural look at black homicide and other black crime in this country, quoting such studies as Daniel Bell's *The End of Ideology* (1960), and concludes by calling for an in-depth look at the problem that would consider unemployment and underemployment as factors, gun control as a means of cutting down on the statistics, and the development of social policies that would give blacks the means for a better life and thereby decrease the frustration that is often vented through violence.

Pooley, E. (1991, August 5). Kids with guns. *New York*, 24(30), 22-29.

At the time of this article's publication, 50 children under the age of 17 had been shot to death in New York City during the year (a little more than half over), more than 270 had been wounded by gunfire, and more than 260 under the age of 16 had been arrested and referred to Family Court for gun possession. Most of these children were black or Hispanic, and Pooley quotes interview subjects as saying that having a gun is the norm; staying away from guns is abnormal. In this account the author gives a graphic picture of how these teens live, why and how they get guns, why they shoot each other, and such related social problems as drug dealing and fathering illegitimate children—the "Make a life, take a life" mentality.

Rose, H. M. (1987, November-December). Homicide and minorities. *Public Health Reports*, 102(6), 613-615.

Black homicides have been known to be disproportionately high since 1914, when statistics based on race were first compiled. Various reasons for this phenomenon have been cited through the years, including the "subculture of violence" theory and, recently, the behavior styles of young black males. In this brief overview Rose considers the current picture in terms of the character and composition of risk, variations in risk among sample communities, attenuated risk as a function of gender, and community status and risk. To lower risk in the black adolescent male population, he says, will require that researchers first make a careful assessment of the major risk factors, both individual and aggregate.

Rose, H. M., & McClain, P. D. (1990). *Race, place, and risk: Black homicide in urban America*. Albany: State University of New York Press.

The authors of this book, trained in geography and political science, examine black homicide in a sample of large, high-risk black communities in such major U.S. cities as St. Louis, Detroit, and Atlanta, among others. They consider the high incidence of violence as it relates to stress, cultural change, personality type, and alcohol and drug use; and they devote a chapter (pp. 103-139) to black males as the primary target of risk, looking closely at the patterns of growth and change in this phenomenon since 1914. In a postscript, Rose and McClain acknowledge that, since the book's completion, a new wave of violence has been set off by the proliferation of crack cocaine use.

Shakoor, B. H., & Chalmers, D. (1991). Co-victimization of African-American children who witness violence: Effects on cognitive, emotional, and behavioral development. *Journal of the National Medical Association*, 83(3), 233-238.

Shakoor and Chalmers report in this article the prevalence of violence and co-victimization among African-American youth in Chicago, incorporating police statistics on crime to illustrate the problem's magnitude and citing previous research to address the issue of developing intervention strategies. Of the 1,035 young people (ages 10-19) interviewed in the authors' study, 75 percent of the boys and 70 percent of the girls had witnessed the shooting, stabbing, robbing, or killing of another person. These young people are, by the authors' definition, co-victimized by the poverty and violence of the inner city, and this puts them at increased risk for further victimization, violent behavior, impaired school performance, impaired judgment, substance abuse, and emotional disturbance. Recommendations for intervention, based on the authors' study and previous research, are that schoolchildren be screened periodically, at-risk children be identified early to detect problems and offer support, and the cycle of violence in schools be broken through education on violence prevention and conflict resolution.

Taylor, P. (1991, March 14). Guns and youth: HHS's grim statistics. *Washington Post*, p. A1, col. 1.

In a speech given on March 13, 1991, U.S. Health and Human Services Secretary Louis W. Sullivan linked firearms, race, and family disintegration, citing the facts that more teenage boys die from gunshot wounds than from all natural causes combined, and a black male teenager is eleven times more likely than a white male teenager to be murdered with a gun. A total of 1,641 Americans ages 15-19 were such victims in 1988, 955 of them black males, compared to 453 white males, 98 black females, and 979 white females. In the related issue of family, Sullivan called "the collapse of the American family in the past few decades . . . historically unprecedented in the U.S., and possibly in the world," and noted that this trend is most apparent in the community "where 86 percent of children spend part of their childhood living in a mother-only family." Such children are five times more likely to be poor; twice as likely to drop out of school; and more at risk for criminal activity, substance abuse, ill health, and welfare dependency. For intervention Sullivan recommends no new government programs but more widespread community-based efforts to combat crime and help restore families.

Taylor, R. L., & Covington, J. (1990, June). Ecological change, changes in violence, and risk prediction. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 5(2), 164-175. Annotated under Poverty and Related Social Issues, p. 24.

Whitaker, C. J. (1990, April). Black victims. *Bureau of Justice Statistics special report* (NCJ-122562). Rockville, MD: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Adjusted homicide rates examined in this report show that for the period 1979-1986, the murder rate for blacks was nearly six times that for whites (31.2 versus 5.4 per 100,000), and homicide rates per 100,000 were highest for black males. The National Crime Survey cited, sponsored by the Bureau of Justice Statistics, gives figures and charts on types of crime, victimization rates (broken down into age, race, and location of residence), other victim characteristics, victim-offender relationships, and other categories related to homicide in the United States during the years covered by the study.

Wood, N. P., Jr. (1990, June). Black homicide—a public health crisis. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 5(2), 147-150.

Homicide has been identified as the leading cause of death among black males in the 15-24 age group, and the black homicide rate is disproportionately higher than that among white males in the same age group. The National Institutes of Mental Health, the Office of Minority Health, and the Johns Hopkins School of Hygiene sponsored a conference on black homicide that was held in Baltimore on March 23-24, 1987. This article broadly addresses the outcomes of that conference related to characteristics and causes of the problem, its seriousness, and strategies for prevention and intervention. The article serves as an introduction to a special section in the issue in which it appears.

INTERVENTIONS

Allen-Meaures, P. (1989). Adolescent sexuality and premature parenthood: Role of the black church in prevention. *Journal of Social Work and Human Sexuality*, 8(1), 133-142.

In this article Allen-Meaures presents facts, causes, and consequences of teenage parenthood, particularly among black adolescents. For many of these young parents the costs of childbearing may be

overwhelming not only in terms of immediate financial needs that will in many cases have to be met through public funding, but also for the future, because parenthood may preclude further education and thus sink the parents and later the child deeper into economic deprivation. The health risks too are great for both parents and child. Since many blacks have a connection with some church, the author calls for the black churches to take the lead in preventive education, drawing on community resources as necessary and equipping adolescents with the facts about sexual development and the advantages of postponing sexual activity, along with the skills to make wise choices about their sexual behavior.

Allen-Meares, P. (1990, May). Educating black youths: The unfulfilled promise of equality. *Social Work*, 35(3), 283-286.

The public schools, Allen-Meares says in this essay, have in the past been regarded as the institution through which integration most likely could be achieved, but they are falling short of meeting the challenge and are indeed engaging in practices that cause minority students to fail. From districting policies that keep black children out of the best schools to the practice of labeling inner-city black students "less able," the treatment of black and other minority students robs them of education. Social workers, always concerned about helping minorities get a good education, now are looking at frameworks through which our public school systems might become sensitized to the needs of minorities and reverse the trend of mediocrity, failure, and dropout among these students. Allen-Meares discusses some of these modes of analysis, which include a consideration of minority-related cultural, economic, social, and psychological factors and how these affect children's interaction with schools. Such a wide-ranging approach, she says, is missing in current calls for educational reform and must be incorporated not only into school planning but into all our social policies if the nation is not to allow "caste-like societal and educational systems to continue."

Arkin, E. B., & Funkhouser, J. E. (Eds.). (1990). Reaching families and youth from high-risk environments. In E. B. Arkin & J. E. Funkhouser (Eds.), *Communicating about alcohol and other drugs: Strategies for reaching populations at risk*. (OSAP Prevention Monograph Series, DHHS Publication No. ADM 90-1665, pp. 11-117). Rockville, MD: Office for Substance Abuse Prevention.

This opening chapter gives identifying characteristics and full discussions of youth and families at high risk for substance abuse, lists risk factors versus protective factors, assesses alcohol-related attitudes and awareness among American children, reviews existing sources of help, and makes recommendations for further work on the problem. These recommendations include increasing public and family awareness and support; supporting community action on all levels, from volunteer to professional; and developing programs especially for high-risk youth. An addendum to the chapter focuses on high-risk teenagers. This chapter does not single out black adolescent males for attention but does provide valuable information for understanding and treating the problem of alcohol and other drug abuse in that population.

Arkin, E. B., & Funkhouser, J. E. (Eds.). (1990). Reaching black inner-city youth. In E. B. Arkin & J. E. Funkhouser (Eds.), *Communicating about alcohol and other drugs: Strategies for reaching populations at risk*. (OSAP Prevention Monograph Series, DHHS Publication No. ADM 90-1665, pp. 121-161). Rockville, MD: Office for Substance Abuse Prevention.

In this treatment the authors list and discuss environmental and psychosocial characteristics of black inner-city youth at high risk of substance abuse, and they note that children in this population between the ages of 6 and 12 should be especially targeted for preventive interventions because of their vulner-

ability to the drug culture that in many cases surrounds them. Studies show that while younger black children may have a generally negative attitude toward the use of alcohol and other drugs, peer pressure and economic hardship can greatly change these attitudes as children go into the teen years. Black males are a special risk category. Recommendations for combatting alcohol and other drug abuse in this population include using television, radio, and billboards to broadcast antidrug messages; working through churches and other community agencies to plan and implement culture-sensitive interventions; and reaching out to black youth through celebrity figures, who can act as role models and convey antidrug messages.

Banks, I. W., & Wilson, P. I. (1989, Spring). Appropriate sex education for black teens. *Adolescence*, 24(93), 233-245.

Banks and Wilson report here on a year-long study of 277 black adolescents from low-income families. The purpose of the study was to gain insight into the sex education needs of black teenagers and determine what influence family members might have on their values and behavior related to sex. Contrary to many negative images of the black family recently presented by the media, this study suggests that healthily functioning black family units are being maintained, though they do not conform to the traditional standards of family. Banks and Wilson say that "understanding a black family as a network of caring relatives would seem to suggest the need to stress *family* involvement in the design of delivery systems" to influence young people's sexual attitudes and behaviors. Boys and girls, they found, seem to have more positive relationships with mothers, and far fewer with fathers, though the majority of them do rate their relationships with their fathers as positive. Girls are twice as likely as boys to learn about birth control from their parents, while boys are twice as likely to learn from older siblings; and a significant number report learning from teachers and counselors. This study, like many others, indicated that boys most often consider girls responsible for birth control. Mothers, the researchers conclude, could do more to shape children's values about sex, as could community-based agencies. Any education about sex, finally, must include solid information on birth control and must address the issues before children become old enough to date.

Barnes, E. J. (1990). The black community as a source of positive self-concept for black children: A theoretical perspective. In R. L. Jones (Ed.), *Black psychology* (3rd ed.) (pp. 667-692). Berkeley, CA: Cobb & Henry. Annotated under Mental Health, p. 22.

Billson, J. M. (1988, Fall). Fostering nondeviant lifestyles against the odds: Toward a clinical sociological model of intervention strategies. *Adolescence*, 23(91), 517-532.

While such social problems as poverty, broken homes, crowded living areas, and poor parental example have been listed as reasons for deviant behavior among adolescents, many adolescents who suffer from these conditions do not behave violently or break the law. The concept of strategic styles, generated from interviews with 61 black adolescent males in Roxbury, Massachusetts, holds that youngsters are motivated by needs for power and affiliation to shape styles of coping in an often alienated and alienating environment and thereby create an identity for themselves. These styles, initiated through family messages and responses and later reinforced by selection of a peer group that accepts and reinforces them, are usually set before the teen years begin, and they determine how individuals function in the social system. Everyone has a primary style, but that is normally backed up by a secondary style, which can take over from the other when necessary. The ideal stance is a balance between power and affiliation, with each used positively. Through five case studies cited in this article, the author presents a discussion of intervention within the framework of the strategic styles concept.

Botvin, G. J., et al. (1989, November-December). A psychosocial approach to smoking prevention for urban black youth. *Public Health Reports*, 104(6), 573-582.

Because blacks generally and black men in particular, in comparison to whites, have a higher age-adjusted incidence and mortality rate of cancers that can be linked to smoking and drinking patterns, it is important to present smoking prevention programs in early adolescence, a period in which onset of smoking often occurs. Traditional approaches have often failed because they have not targeted psychosocial factors related to cigarette smoking. As smoking prevention programs are increasingly built on awareness of pertinent psychosocial factors (including whether or not parents, siblings, and friends smoke), they are having a greater success rate. The authors of this article piloted a smoking prevention program in a sample of 608 seventh-grade students, a group that was 87 percent black. In the program they taught information about the consequences of smoking and about its declining social acceptability, personal skills such as critical thinking and decision-making, techniques for coping with anxiety, and interpersonal skills such as communication and relating to the opposite sex. Indications are that the program was effective, reducing smoking among the students by 56 percent during one month. The authors call for more research and testing on social factors related to smoking and effective means of preventing it, and they believe that small-scale studies such as theirs are useful in refining intervention strategies and materials.

Bowen, S. P., & Michal-Johnson, P. (1990, December). A rhetorical perspective for HIV education with black urban adolescents. *Communication Research*, 17(6), 848-866.

The authors of this article, who work as health communication researchers with Blacks Educating Blacks About Sexual Health, address here the challenges of providing AIDS education to urban black adolescents. Approaching this issue from the rhetorical perspective set up by L. Bitzer (1968, work listed in references at the end of the article), they integrate into it findings from formative research on health, sexual health, and social interaction of the adolescents at risk. Before workers can help the population at risk, Bowen and Michal-Johnson maintain, they must understand their audience's sexual beliefs and behaviors; they must know also how these adolescents communicate so that they can devise the most effective ways of communicating with them. Such factors as fatalism about health and distrust of physicians, along with misinformation about means of practicing safe sex, must be dealt with realistically in any outreach to adolescents. Equally, educators must deal with their own attitudes and must be fully aware of the complexities of the issues. Specific techniques for increasing compliance are given here, as are channels for transmitting AIDS education and research needs. The authors believe that communications scholars, because of their training in research and presentation, can play an effective role in HIV-risk reduction among black adolescents.

Bowser, B. P., Fullilove, M. T., & Fullilove, R. E. (1990, September). African-American youth and AIDS high-risk behavior: The social context and barriers to prevention. *Youth and Society*, 22(1), 54-66. Annotated under Substance Abuse, p. 32.

Brisbane, F. L., & Wells, R. C. (1989). Treatment and prevention of alcoholism among blacks. In T. D. Watts & R. Wright, Jr. (Eds.), *Alcoholism in minority populations* (pp. 33-52). Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

"Constricting moral views and deficient alcoholism education," say these authors, are contributing to the escalation of alcoholism among blacks. Brisbane and Wells state that most blacks lack a clear perception of alcohol addiction, and many blame excessive drinking on such cultural factors as racism and

poverty. Among the recommendations made here for intervention are culture-specific strategies for treatment and, on the part of workers with alcoholics, bonding spiritually with clients whenever possible. Further, the success of any treatment requires that it involve the individual, the family, and the community. Finally, the authors call for prevention of alcoholism in the black community, which will require research specifically on black alcoholism and an educational effort to change values that permit and perpetuate excessive drinking in this population. Though this chapter does not focus on alcoholism among black male adolescents, it provides useful general material.

Coates, D. L. (1990). Social network analysis as mental health intervention with African-American adolescents. In F. C. Serafica, et al. (Eds.), *Mental health of ethnic minorities* (pp. 5-37). New York: Praeger.

How individuals cope with stress, a major determinant in physical and mental health, is inextricably related to their social network and how well they are able to rely on it for support. Black adolescents and their families are particularly at risk, Coates says, for experiencing stress that can negatively affect health, and the risk is compounded by the effects of racism on their environment. Because the socialization experiences of these individuals differ from those of white adolescents and of other minority groups, and because of such complicating factors as lower education and poorer general health, social network analysis and intervention approaches for this segment of the population should be tailored for it specifically. In this chapter Coates reviews pertinent studies and their implications for mental health intervention and future research directions.

Flaskerud, J. H. (1988). Prevention of AIDS in blacks and Hispanics: Nursing implications. *Journal of Community Health Nursing*, 5(1), 49-58.

AIDS is a health threat of growing concern to black adolescent males. In this article Flaskerud cites figures on the disproportionate number of AIDS cases in the black and Hispanic populations of the United States and gives basic facts on the means of transmission and risk factors, suggesting throughout how nurses can play roles in designing and implementing prevention programs for ethnic and racial minority groups. Education is the key, she believes, and the lack of it "will result in the deaths of large numbers of people, many of whom will be poor, urban, ethnic-racial minority populations, men, women, and children."

Foster, C. (1990, August 3). Programs put role models within reach of youth. *Christian Science Monitor*, p. 7, col. 3.

Role modeling is one of the primary recommendations of researchers and other professionals concerned with the problems of black adolescent males. This report from Seattle, Washington, describes mentoring programs such as Role Models Unlimited, in which older black professional men play basketball with black youths, and Black Achievers, a YMCA program that brings black professionals in to talk with and teach young males. These and similar but less formal community-level efforts are directed at reaching out to help young black males in a grass-roots way that is rapidly gaining favor and participants.

Goplerud, E. N. (Ed.). (1990). *Breaking new ground for youth at risk: Program summaries*. (OSAP Technical Report-1, DHHS Publication No. ADM 89-1658). Rockville, MD: Office of Substance Abuse Prevention.

This report summarizes demonstration grants funded by the Office for Substance Abuse Prevention

during 1987 to develop, test, and evaluate interventions for youth at high risk for substance abuse. The OSAP's hope is that it will help in sharing knowledge and strategies among all professionals in the field. In much of the report, useful information about black adolescents is tightly interwoven in the text. Project summaries are listed largely by specific ethnic/racial groups (Asian/Pacific Islanders, blacks, Hispanics, native Americans, and white Americans), but even those not specifically black may spur ideas for programs for black youth; and one category is multiethnic (minority). The general information contained in the introduction and in the chapters "Prevention Theory and Research Related to High-Risk Youth" and "Overview of the Grant Program" will be useful to anyone involved in planning and implementing strategies directed to black adolescent males.

Greene, D. (1991, September 22). Finding mentors for young black males. *New York Times*, p. WC3, col. 1.

All researchers and workers concerned with black adolescent males recommend community involvement in addressing threats to the health and well-being of that troubled segment of the population. This article, an interview with Westchester, Connecticut, resident Hugh D. Price, describes the efforts of the Westchester Clubmen, an organization of black businessmen headed by Price. This club, which has for 33 years been concerned with the problems of needy black youth, is beginning an intensive, long-term program called The Club, which will operate on the community level, in league with other agencies, to help boys ages 10-12 stay in school and get an education. This is a useful account of how volunteers can get involved and work through the community to help troubled and at-risk young people.

Haven, G., & Stolz, J. W. (1989, January-February). Students teaching AIDS to students: Addressing AIDS in the adolescent population. *Public Health Reports*, 104(1), 75-79.

Teenagers are at special risk of AIDS, former Surgeon General C. Everett Koop said, because they are exploring their own sexuality, they may be experimenting with drugs, and they often consider themselves immortal. Therefore they must be targeted for a major effort at AIDS education. The proposal described in this article was the prize-winner in a contest for the 1988 Secretary's Award for Innovations in Health Promotion and Disease Prevention. It calls for a program in which medical students would be trained to become AIDS educators in the schools, churches, and youth organizations of their local communities. A detailed description of this approach is given here, including what kinds of material would be used, how to get started, what kinds of exercises are to be used, and how to evaluate the results of the project. An address is given at the end of the article to which interested persons can write to purchase the manual, slide show, and video for the program.

Hendricks, L. E. (1988, Fall). Outreach with teenage fathers: A preliminary report on three ethnic groups. *Adolescence*, 23(91), 711-720.

Teenage fathers are receiving an increasing amount of attention and research these days, says the author, but there is too little documentation of information on how human services workers might most effectively conduct outreach efforts and how they can reach fathers of different ethnic backgrounds. Hendricks used data gathered from Anglo, black, and Hispanic teenage fathers in a study conducted in New Mexico to provide suggestions for reaching the populations represented. Some of the responses from young black fathers indicated that they love their children and their children's mothers, that they are as likely to depend on themselves to solve problems as to go to their mothers or friends, and that they are unlikely to go to a social service agency for help unless it would provide information about

their legal rights and those of their children. Hendricks acknowledges that needs vary according to cultural background but does offer some specific suggestions for helping young fathers from all the groups. These include the use of peer counselors, having counselors approach the young fathers or fathers-to-be in recreational settings, and offering rewards through the media to attract them to clinics for services. A list of ways the fathers may demonstrate the effectiveness of counseling could serve as a checklist for practitioners working with these young men.

Ireland, D. F. (1990, March-April). New attitude/new look: An African-American adolescent health education program. *Pediatric Nursing, 16*(2), 175-178.

The United States Department of Health and Human Services reported in 1985 that the life expectancy of Anglo-American males and females was greater than that of their African-American counterparts, and it identified six conditions that accounted for 80 percent of the disproportion: (1) cancer, (2) cardiovascular disease and stroke, (3) chemical dependency, (4) diabetes, (5) homicides (the leading cause of deaths among black male adolescents) and accidents, and (6) infant mortality. Some of these, the report noted, are related to life-style and behavior. Some hope for reversing these threats lies in health education programs, but these cannot be effective unless they are planned with cultural differences in view. Nurses, to whom this article is primarily addressed, are instrumental in planning and directing many health programs, and they must be especially aware of cultural needs and preferred means of communication. New Attitude/New Look, the program described here, is for black adolescent females, but it is based on principles that would apply equally to males and, as the author points out, could be easily adapted to help other minority groups "to excel in the dominant culture without abandoning their own cultural roots." Ireland also offers specific suggestions for dealing with health education issues of black males and other target populations.

Jenkins, K., Jr. (1990, January 18). Alexandria's 'untouchables' keep drugs at a distance. *Washington Post*, p. C5, col. 1.

This brief article gives an account of one teen group, the Untouchables of Alexandria, Virginia, made up of adolescents who are working together to fight drug use and, in that way and others, help strengthen their neighborhood. Begun as a black history group, it became a way to combat negative peer pressure and focus on ways for African-American males to do something positive.

Jones, B. (1990). Disproportionate health risks in minorities: Does medical education need to change? *Journal of the National Medical Association, 82*(6), 395-396. Annotated under Background and General Material, p. 2.

Kaplan, M. S., Becker, J. V., & Tenke, C. E. (1991, March). Influence of abuse history on male adolescent self-reported comfort with interviewer gender. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 6*(1), 3-11.

The authors, all clinical psychologists and research scientists, based this study on interviews with 264 inner-city adolescent males, 57 percent of them black, undergoing evaluation in an outpatient clinic for sex offenders. Subjects were questioned about preference of male versus female interviewers, and the authors found their responses to be conditioned by their abuse history. This article may be useful to professionals working directly with adolescents and also to those who are involved in planning programs and services for adolescents.

Lee, C. C. (1987, March). Black manhood training: Group counseling for male blacks in grades 7-12. *Journal for Specialists in Group Work*, 12(1), 18-25.

In his popular book *Roots* (1976), Alex Haley wrote about an African practice called manhood training, in which adolescent males were taken away from the village for a time and trained by older men of the tribe in the mental and physical skills of manhood, after the successful completion of which they would be formally declared men in the eyes of the tribe. With this custom as inspiration, a counseling model called Black Manhood Training has been developed in this country to help black adolescent males assume positive roles. The program, developed in a preventive rather than a rehabilitative mode, builds on such aspects of traditional black culture as music and dance, and it is aimed at boys in grades 7 through 12. In this article Lee describes the philosophy of the program and gives a model for conducting a counseling experience in it, with stated goals for each phase of the session and exercises to help participants reach these goals.

Maton, K. I. (1990). Meaningful involvement in instrumental activity and well-being: Studies of older adolescents and at risk urban teenagers. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 18(2), 297-320.

In a study of older adolescents enrolled in college and another on urban black males and pregnant females, the author sought to determine the links among social support, subjective well-being, and meaningful activity, the last defined here as task- or skill-related activity with positive significance or value to the individual involved. Maton found in the first study that meaningful activity was related positively to life satisfaction, independent of social support, and that meaningful activity was further related to self-esteem to a significantly greater extent among college males than among college females. Among the black male subsample in the second study, the partial correlation between meaningful activity and self-esteem for those still in school was significantly greater than that for dropouts, as was the partial correlation between social support from friends and self-esteem. These and other findings from the study raise questions for future research that can help indicate the influence of the social environment and determine the way intervention programs should be designed.

Mitchell, M. A., & Daniels, S. (1989, November-December). Black-on-black homicide: Kansas City's response. *Public Health Reports*, 104(6), 605-608. Annotated under Homicide, Suicide, and Other Violence, p. 7.

Moncher, M. S., et al. (1989). Microcomputer-based approaches for preventing drug and alcohol abuse among adolescents from ethnic-racial minority backgrounds. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 5(2), 79-93.

Recognizing positive results from computer-assisted instruction programs among adolescents in learning situations, Moncher and his colleagues designed a study to assess the potential of computer-based intervention with black adolescents from economically disadvantaged backgrounds. Their subjects were 26 black teenagers, ages 11 to 14, from New York City, and they were questioned and observed to determine their attitudes toward educational content in general and drug and alcohol education in particular. Though the researchers noted an overall positive subject response to computer-based instruction, subjects had a negative response to computer delivery of drug and alcohol information. Further research should be done to learn more about such teenagers' attitudes toward computers and to find out how to design hardware and software that would appeal to them and could be made available to them for effective instruction.

Nettles, S. M. (1989, April). The role of community involvement in fostering investment behavior in low-income black adolescents: A theoretical perspective. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 4(2), 190-201.

This article provides a look at community actions to improve the status of low-income black adolescents through the framework of community-based investment possibilities: investment in academics, in athletics, in social and personal relationships, in employment, and in life skills. Nettles notes that professionals working with children often use investments as a metaphor to convey the idea that their clients can make reasoned judgments as to the best use of their resources, weighing which options are feasible for them and will produce a good long-term return. Research on how well this approach works among black adolescents in different life settings has shown differences in appeal of the various types of investments, and the author believes that continuing efforts to define community involvement in such measurable terms can be useful to researchers, policymakers, advocates, and institutions working with low-income black adolescents.

Newport, J. P., Jr. (1989, December 18). Steps to help the urban black man. *Fortune*, 120(15), 164-172.

Across this country an angry, frustrated black community is looking at the destruction that drugs, crime, and family disintegration are causing in the inner cities and at the frightening statistics that tell the story, such as the fact that, as of the publication date of this article, the death rate for young black men was a major factor in a three-year decline in the life expectancy of blacks as a whole. Though many blacks are doing well financially and are increasingly serving in political office, the economic prospects of poor black men have become worse in recent years, feeding the drug trade and the sense of futility that leads to an increase in the number of illegitimate children born to this population. Newport interviewed 50 people for this article, from professionals to poor black men, and almost every one of them named negative self-image as a crucial obstacle for young black males. But there is hope in the form of a variety of programs designed to keep young blacks in school, to educate them for jobs, and to rehabilitate those who have been convicted of crimes. All of these efforts are aimed at preparing young black males for jobs and ensuring that they have work. In closing, the author quotes the warden of the Cook County jail, who says, "The black segment of society must be held accountable . . . It's our problem."

Overbea, L. (1988, April 7). Boys will be boys . . . but they can be responsible, too. *Christian Science Monitor*, pp. 3-4.

In two related articles Overbea describes the New Orleans Black Manhood Training Program, one of more than a hundred such projects sponsored by the National Urban League to foster responsible sexual behavior among young black males with the goal of decreasing the birth rate among black teenagers; enhancing parenting skills; and, over the long term, strengthening the black family. Quotes in these articles attest to the programs' efficacy for some of their participants, and the informative and upbeat nature of the writing encourages the establishment of other such programs.

Oyemade, U. J., & Brandon-Monye, D. (Eds.). (1990). *Ecology of alcohol and other drug use: helping black high-risk youth* (OSAP Prevention Monograph-7, DHHS Publication No. ADM 90-1672). Rockville, MD: Office of Substance Use Prevention.

This book documents the Human Ecology Forum held at Howard University on October 26-27, 1987, and subtitled "The Ecology of Alcohol and Other Drug Use: Toward Primary Prevention among

High Risk Youth.” Papers and panel discussions during this conference considered a range of issues including cocaine and alcohol use; cigarette smoking and its relationship to diseases that kill disproportionate numbers of blacks; drug dealing; AIDS; homicide and other violent crime; and such social ills as poverty and crowding in urban areas, teen pregnancy, truancy and school dropout, and gang involvement. All of the material here applies to black adolescent males, though not exclusively, and constitutes a good overview of professional thinking on broader health risks to black youth and what can be done to address them. There must be a recognition, as these participants make clear, of how the problems in this segment of the population relate to the social environment in which they flourish and what the population’s special needs are. With that understanding, they can be tackled to some extent through such community-level bodies as organizations of young people and their families, professional groups that work in mentoring and role modeling programs, churches, and other civic groups. Beyond that level, industry and government are also called upon to provide models and strategies. Besides papers and panel reports, this collection contains almost nine pages of resources: written, filmed, and videotaped materials; organizations that work directly with issues covered by the forum; and grants and other funding opportunities.

Reid, A. (1989, April 2). The education of the black male. *Boston Globe*, p. 21B, col. 4.

In this brief article, *Globe* staffer Alexander Reid describes recent media attention to the problems of black adolescent males and presents the views of Leroy Keith, president of Atlanta’s Moorhouse College, on education as an antidote to social ills. Moorhouse is an all-male school, predominantly black, that strives to change “diamonds in the rough to polished jewels” by promoting such traditional ideas as the cohesive family unit through which children can learn moral values and acquire a positive self-image. Other prominent black males are also quoted here on the importance of grass-roots efforts to keep young black males out of trouble and in school.

Schilling, R. F., et al. (1989, January-February). Developing strategies for AIDS prevention research with black and Hispanic drug users. *Public Health Reports*, 104(1), 2-11.

These authors point out, along with other AIDS statistics, that among blacks and Hispanics with AIDS, 37 percent are heterosexual intravenous drug users, compared with 6 percent among heterosexual non-Hispanic whites with AIDS; and in New York City, Hispanics and blacks account for 86 percent of intravenous drug users with AIDS. In this article Schilling and his colleagues examine drug use patterns, cultural determinants of intravenous drug use, and cultural aspects of sexuality. In this last category they say that though the link between intravenous drug use and homosexuality is known to be a contributing factor in the spread of AIDS, little attention has been given to the relationship between these risk factors. It is imperative that professionals who are involved in planning and implementing interventions be aware of cultural characteristics such as the importance of the family as a support group in the black culture. Workers must understand too how universal principles of working with groups can be tailored to meet the special needs of ethnic minorities. Not least, they must develop means of fostering interagency cooperation on mutual goals, find ways to reach untreated addicts, and offer continuing support to recovering drug users, who in turn may be trained to help reach others at risk.

Schinke, S. P., Holden, G. W., & Moncher, M. S. (1989). Preventing HIV infection among black and Hispanic adolescents. *Journal of Social Work & Human Sexuality*, 8(1), 63-73.

At the time this article was written, 25 percent of the reported adult AIDS cases in this country and 58 percent of the pediatric AIDS cases involved black Americans, though blacks made up only 12 per-

cent of the country's population. Among pediatric AIDS cases, black children had an incidence 15.1 times that of white children. Factors contributing to this disproportion were dirty and shared needles used in injecting drugs, and sexual activity in which one of the partners was an intravenous drug user. Citing the Center for Disease Control's admonition that "education and prevention programs may be less effective in reaching minority populations unless specifically designed for those groups," the authors stress the importance in prevention strategies of considering cultural orientation, social learning theory regarding cognitive and behavioral skills, and tapping support networks to help reinforce youths' efforts to reduce HIV infection.

Schinke, S. P., et al. (1990). African-American and Hispanic-American adolescents, HIV infection, and preventive intervention. *AIDS Education and Prevention*, 2(4), 305-312.

AIDS is a major health threat for minority youth, yet this segment of the population is not easily reached by attempts at intervention that appeal to other audiences. Schinke and his colleagues discuss in this article the need for culturally sensitive HIV prevention interventions that are founded on ethnic pride; focused on behavioral risk rather than on the contraction of AIDS; and developed to teach young people skills for problem solving, personal coping, and communicating effectively with others. The writers give a broad outline here for an illustrative skills curriculum and its delivery; and they acknowledge finally the need for further research on HIV infection among black and Hispanic adolescents and on ways to plan effective interventions for these and other groups at risk.

Schinke, S. P., Gordon, A. N., & Weston, R. E. (1990). Self-instruction to prevent HIV infection among African-American and Hispanic-American adolescents. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 58(4), 432-436.

African-American and Hispanic-American youth are particularly at risk for AIDS, together accounting at the time this article was written for 70 percent of all cases of AIDS among heterosexual men, 70 percent of all AIDS cases among women, and 58 percent of pediatric cases. Using a group of 60 adolescents enrolled in an urban job-training program, the authors of this article tested the efficacy of self-instruction in these two ethnic groups in reducing avoidable AIDS risks related to drug use and sexual activity. The self-instruction material used in the test was written in a comic book format with brief passages of text presented in rap music verse. The test results led the researchers to conclude that self-instruction presented in a culturally sensitive form is "acceptable, replicable, and engaging" and that this type of intervention can help these ethnic groups reduce their risk for AIDS. Though the test sample was small, the conclusions were based on self-reporting, and there was a lack of follow-up assessment, the authors believe their experiment indicates that self-instruction can provide effective AIDS prevention instruction to high-risk adolescents.

Smith, L. A. (1988, May-June). Black adolescent fathers: Issues for service provision. *Social Work*, 33(3), 269-271.

Smith notes that adolescent pregnancy and parenthood are of great concern to the black community and are costly to society. Until fairly recently, she says, service providers have regarded black adolescent fathers only as a cause of the problem or a source of financial provision for the children they have fathered, and services have largely been designed accordingly. As a result, young black fathers are likely to shun the social services agencies. To reach these fathers and help them function more fully as parents requires an understanding of their problems, outlooks, and needs; and this understanding would grow out of more qualitative research, a community-based approach to finding solutions, and a

shift of attitude on the part of much of the social service profession back to "its traditional role as advocate of the least advantaged."

Smothers, R. (1989, May 4). Parley aims at nurturing black youths. *New York Times*, p. A19, col. 1.

This article reports on a conference held in New Orleans in early May 1989 to examine six programs (in Chicago, Detroit, Houston, Sacramento, St. Louis, and Tampa) aimed at fostering learning, pride, and responsibility in young black males and to help volunteers establish similar programs in other cities. The programs described here emphasize building a strong self-image based on cultural heritage. Program volunteers are working hard to increase participation of young black males through involving more black men who can serve as positive and attractive role models.

Taylor, R. L. (1990, September). Improving the status of black youth: Some lessons from recent national experiments. *Youth and Society*, 22(1), 85-107.

In this wrap-up to a special issue of *Youth and Society* devoted to black youth, Taylor reviews the inauguration, during the 1960s, of federal initiatives against the social problems of the underclass; considers the design and efficacy of specific recent programs designed to address these problems; and outlines ideas for new directions in intervention.

Terry, D. (1989, April 16). Tug-of-war for black youths' hearts. *New York Times*, p. A26, col. 1.

This article describes a Washington, D.C., mentor program started by Ernest White, public affairs director of WDCU Radio, for black males 8-13 years old. The program offers weekend tutoring sessions, workshops for parents, and outings for the boys, most of whom were selected for the program by the administration of a local elementary school because of disruptive behavior and poor school attendance. Both children and parents are responding positively to the program, the primary goal of which is to "capture the boys before the streets do."

Thomas, P. (1990, December 31). Talking it over man to man. *Washington Post*, p. A1, col. 2.

In response to the decreasing quality of life and rising mortality rates among black adolescent males, black professional men are forming community-level organizations to provide role models and mentoring programs for these young people. This article provides an account of several such organizations, comments from people active in them, and some reports on their efficacy.

Thompson, T., & Simmons-Cooper, C. (1989). Alcohol dependency treatment and black adolescents. In R. Wright, Jr., & T. D. Watts (Eds.), *Alcohol problems of minority youth in America* (pp. 35-49). Lewiston, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press.

Thompson and Simmons-Cooper point to evidence that abuse of alcohol and other drugs is a major health problem in black communities, and they view it as "an enormous challenge to the process of child development and adolescent growth." Looking at alcohol dependency treatment for black adolescents, the authors consider such culture-sensitive issues as the need for professionals to accept differences in language and cultural values, to understand coping behaviors, and to be sensitive to clients' emotions and help them learn to express them positively. Finally, they stress the importance of continuing care after therapy.

Tucker, C. (1991, June 12). The secret to turning at-risk youth around. *Atlanta Constitution*, p. A13, col. 5.

A brief, upbeat report of one strategy that has worked against the odds on school dropout rates, this account of Project Success, sponsored by a civic group called 100 Black Men of Atlanta, shows that individual attention can keep young men in high school and get them to college. The project emulates the idea of New York millionaire Eugene Lang, who since 1981 has been funding a college education for high school graduates. Of the 35 students in Project Success, 34 graduated; 27, at the time of this writing, were planning to go on to college; and 5 others were headed for postsecondary training.

White, J. L., & Johnson, J. A., Jr. (1991). Awareness, pride and identity: A positive educational strategy for black youth. In R. L. Jones (Ed.), *Black psychology* (3rd ed.) (pp. 409-418). Berkeley, CA: Cobb & Henry.

Urban black children from low-income families are often labeled deficient in schools because of cultural differences that are not accounted for in existing institutional norms. Compensatory education has failed to address the resulting problems, say these authors; proof lies in the still high rate of dropouts among black children. Another problem pertinent to this issue is "folklore" about how black children learn. White and Johnson examine four elements of this folklore: (1) relationships between research methodology and outcomes of schooling; (2) relationships between teacher expectations and outcome of schooling; (3) relationships between learning and achievement motive; and (4) relationships between language and learning. In closing they recommend the following: (1) taking a closer look at the interaction between black children and schooling agents from a bicultural frame of reference; (2) bringing more black role models into education; (3) providing educators with the capability to create and utilize culturally sensitive data; (4) helping educators value and use the experience bases black children bring to schooling; and (5) reorganizing delivery systems in such a way that black children can develop areas of mastery, self-confidence, self-recognition, and a sense of belonging.

MENTAL HEALTH

Aries, E., & Moorehead, K. (1989, August). The importance of ethnicity in the development of identity of black adolescents. *Psychological Reports*, 65(1), 75-82.

The achievement of identity begins in early childhood and continues throughout life, but adolescence is one of the most crucial times in the process because it bridges past and future. Individuals are considered to have achieved identity when they have undergone a period of questioning and resolving life issues and have made a commitment to a course of action in the areas of occupation and ideology. For this study 20 male and 20 female black adolescents were questioned about their commitments in the areas of occupation, religion and politics (ideology), sexual-interpersonal attitudes, and ethnicity. For almost a quarter of the sample, none of the four areas was the primary determinant in defining identity. Of the remainder, however, almost half had defined their identity primarily by ethnicity. Reasons for this may be the traditional closeness of the extended black family and its role in supporting its members. Aries and Moorehead acknowledge the facets of identity formation unexamined by their study and call for new study methods based on black rather than white models of development.

Barnes, E. J. (1990). The black community as a source of positive self-concept for black children: A theoretical perspective. In R. L. Jones (Ed.), *Black psychology* (3rd ed.) (pp. 667-692). Berkeley, CA: Cobb & Henry.

During the 1960s and the 1970s, the civil rights movement and the black consciousness movement gave rise to a new breed of black youth. Barnes notes that, though a new kind of black pride arose during these years, the black family is presented very negatively in the current literature, and the black child is described as manifesting self-hatred in the early years that carries over into adolescence in such self-destructive behaviors as shooting dope, pimping, and producing illegitimate children. The author insists that these portrayals do not tell the whole story and examines the theory and approaches that he feels have given a skewed picture of the black family and black youth. He concludes that "a primary factor in developing strategies to save black children is the power to define and determine one's group, roles, and values," a necessary step to understanding "the process by which societal racism is transformed into personal terms."

Brown, D. R. (1990). Depression among blacks: An epidemiologic perspective. In D. S. Ruiz (Ed.), *Handbook of mental health and mental disorder among black Americans* (pp. 71-93). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Because traditional European psychiatry, from which the American tradition derives, has generally associated depression with middle- and upper-class patients, blacks suffering from depression in the United States have often been misdiagnosed by white clinicians as having psychotic or antisocial disorders. Brown explains the difficulties this phenomenon has posed for research and treatment; compares several community surveys of depression with black samples; and then discusses depression among blacks in relation to age, sex, income, education, stress, general health, and sociocultural factors. Because black males between the ages of 18 and 44 are particularly prone to depression, this article is useful in placing that age group in the general picture of depression among blacks and pinpointing some of the variables associated with it.

Coates, D. L. (1990). Social network analysis as mental health intervention with African-American adolescents. In F. C. Serafica, et al. (Eds.), *Mental health of ethnic minorities* (pp. 5-37). New York: Praeger. Annotated under Interventions, p 13.

Danforth, J. S., et al. (1990). Exercise as a treatment for hypertension in low-socioeconomic-status black children. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 58(2), 237-239.

The relationship of hypertension to heart disease, stroke, and renal disease in adults makes it imperative to consider hypertension in children, when it can be treated before it becomes a more serious risk factor. Since the prevalence of hypertension in black children is twice that seen in white children and is apparently compounded by low socioeconomic status and educational levels, these authors have studied the effects of a closely monitored aerobic exercise program in 11 hypertensive black children ages 8-12, with a mean age of 11 years 6 months. The results indicated that vigorous exercise can reduce hypertension, and the authors believe that the degree of change effected may be considered significant in terms of public health. Though this study was conducted on preadolescents and early adolescents, it has obvious implications for the later adolescent years and adults as well.

Franklin, A. J., & Jackson, J. S. (1990). Factors contributing to positive mental health among black Americans. In D. S. Ruiz (Ed.), *Handbook of mental health and mental disorder among black Americans* (pp. 291-307). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Without positive mental health, blacks cannot hope to address the multiple health problems they face and must overcome to ensure their survival. This essay focuses on the psychological strengths that form the foundation of mental health, first defining the term *mental health* as a relative concept intrinsic to the definition of normality, then considering concepts relevant to the achievement of mental health, including self-esteem; autonomy and control; environmental mastery; perception of reality; and growth, development, and self-actualization. The authors note that black men are prime targets of white racism and "frequently develop unconscious levels of rage and indignation from being treated as invisible entities." They suggest athletics as one example of an area in which blacks excel but point out that the idea of professional sports as the only end goal can give young blacks a narrow view of success that limits sports as a field for nurturing self-esteem. "Evolving models of positive mental health among blacks must be responsive to internal and external sources of stress and satisfactions," the authors say in their conclusion.

POVERTY AND RELATED SOCIAL ISSUES

Simons, R. L., & Gray, P. A. (1989, February). Perceived blocked opportunity as an explanation of delinquency among lower-class black males: A research note. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 26(1), 90-101.

Sampling youth in grades 7 through 12 in a cross section of cities, the authors of this article sought to test the findings of a 1960 study by Cloward and Ohlin that the relationship between perceived occupational opportunity and delinquency was rather strong among lower-class blacks, somewhat less strong among lower-class whites, and small to insignificant among higher-status whites and blacks. They note that critics of opportunity theory have tended to oversimplify the findings of the earlier study by interpreting them to mean that perceived lack of occupational opportunity causes delinquency rather than taking into account such factors as variations in degrees of expectation among classes and variations in expected opportunity. Findings in the study done by Simon and Gray supported those in the earlier study, showing a moderate relationship between perceived occupational opportunities and delinquency in lower-class blacks but not in any of the other groups, including lower-class whites.

Sum, A. M., & Goff, W. N. (1991). The adolescent poor and the transition to early adulthood. In P. B. Edelman & Joyce Ladner (Eds.), *Adolescence and poverty: Challenge for the 1990s* (pp. 37-109). National Policy Press. (Distributed by University Press of America, Lanham, MD.)

Noting that in early 1988 nearly one of every five adolescents was a member of a family with an income below the poverty line, the authors examine trends in the size, demographics, and family characteristics of this adolescent population. The issues the authors deem critical, education and employment, are outlined here with tables that give in some instances a breakdown by race; and a closing section calls for specific new directions for employment policy.

Taylor, R. L. (1988-89, Summer-Winter). African-American inner city youth and the subculture of disengagement. *Urban League Review*, 12(1-2), 15-24.

In this article Taylor reviews two major opposing explanations for the disconnectedness of young

black people in the inner city: the shift in demographic trends because of economic changes affecting urban areas and the deterioration in values among black youth—the “self-perpetuating culture of the ghetto”—with a concomitant increase in destructive behavior to self and others. Neither view on the surface is enough, Taylor says. We must consider the complexities of each, such as the poverty that has resulted from a lack of jobs, which in turn was caused partly by the move of industry to outlying areas; and we must consider the “synergistic” relationship among all the causes. Then we can begin to put into place long-term solutions, “sustained over generations, not abandoned with changes in the national administration.”

Taylor, R. L., & Covington, J. (1990, June). Ecological change, changes in violence, and risk prediction. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 5(2), 164-175.

Researchers have confirmed several correlations between the nature of communities and disorder levels. Cross-sectional investigations have linked community economic levels and minority populations with violence levels. As neighborhoods change—either toward further deterioration or toward gentrification—so does the degree of violence, with faster and more extreme changes in either direction appearing to result in increased violent activity. The authors of this article examine this phenomenon through a look at several clusters of neighborhoods, relate their findings, and suggest ways in which the ecological approach may be used to predict and possibly ameliorate future violence.

Taylor, R. L. (1991). Poverty and adolescent black males: The subculture of disengagement. In P. B. Edelman & Joyce Ladner (Eds.), *Adolescence and poverty: Challenge for the 1990s* (pp. 139-162). National Policy Press. (Distributed by University Press of America, Lanham, MD.)

Inner-city deterioration in the United States, brought about at least in part by structural shifts in the economy from manufacturing to service industries and a resulting decentralization and relocation of industrial plants, has wrought destructive changes in the black community. Those who cannot follow the exodus to the suburbs and adjust to the changed economy face “disintegrating institutions, social isolation, and spatial concentration”; and, the author says, “a *subculture of disengagement* from the wider society appears to be surfacing among some segments of inner-city youths.” Taylor discusses the needs of these youths, including more positive role models, more parental support, fathers in the home to act both as models and as disciplinarians, a less stereotyped and more supportive school environment, and “sheltering experiences” to replace peer groups that provide identity and recognition but in a negative fashion.

Wilson, W. J. (1987). *The truly disadvantaged: The inner-city, the underclass, and public policy*. Chicago & London: University of Chicago Press.

This book, an outgrowth of the author’s controversial *The Declining Significance of Race* (1978), offers a comprehensive analysis of the problems of the ghetto underclass and a critical examination of those problems. Wilson says in the preface that his book “challenges liberal orthodoxy . . . establishes a case for moving beyond race-specific policies to ameliorate inner-city social conditions to policies that address the broader problems of societal organization . . . and advances a social democratic public-policy agenda designed to improve the life chances of truly disadvantaged groups . . . by emphasizing programs to which the more advantaged groups of all races can positively relate.” Especially relevant to black adolescent males are the discussions of changes in the age structure, pp. 36-46, and the effects of joblessness, pp. 81-84 and figures 3.1-3.3, following. An appendix by the author and R. Aponte reviews the literature on urban poverty in this country and at the same time outlines its history.

SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED DISEASES

Aruffo, J. F., Coverdale, J. H., & Vallbona, C. (1991, March-April). AIDS knowledge in low-income and minority populations. *Public health reports*, 106(2), 115-119.

In the United States today, the number of blacks and Hispanics who contract AIDS is disproportionately high in relation to the percentage of the population they constitute. This number is also greater than those cases among male homosexuals and bisexuals in the total population. In a convenience sample of 587 subjects, the authors conducted a survey to determine the level of knowledge about AIDS among blacks and Hispanics. Respondents of all groups were discovered to know that people can get AIDS from a blood transfusion at a hospital, by sharing needles with a drug user who has AIDS, and by having sexual intercourse with someone who has AIDS. Beyond that, there was a notable difference in knowledge between blacks, Hispanics, and whites, with their cumulative scores being, respectively, 68 percent, 61 percent, and 78 percent correct. A regression analysis showed education and racial groups to be factors, but not age and sex. The authors recommend that AIDS information be disseminated in a form understandable to minorities and that community clinic workers, including physicians, use their contact with minority patients to educate them about AIDS.

Bowen, S. P., & Michal-Johnson, P. (1990, December). A rhetorical perspective for HIV education with black urban adolescents. *Communication Research*, 17(6), 848-866. Annotated under Interventions, p. 12.

Bowser, B. P., Fullilove, M. T., & Fullilove, R. E. (1990, September). African-American youth and AIDS high-risk behavior: The social context and barriers to prevention. *Youth and Society*, 22(1), 54-66.

To develop information for AIDS prevention, the authors of this article did two studies. The first was an ethnographic study of Bayview-Hunter's Point, the largest African-American community in San Francisco and one in which 60 percent of the homes are owner-occupied, despite isolated pockets of poverty. In the second they interviewed 222 self-identified crack users, ages 15 to 19, in Oakland and San Francisco. All of these subjects were knowledgeable about drug use among young people. Correlating the two studies, they determined some larger community implications of crack use and the risk of sexually transmitted diseases and some of the community-based and sexual barriers to prevention. Their strategies for intervention include community-based efforts to gain control of the streets, more sensible government housing policies, and planned after-school activities that would appeal to young people and offer recognition for successful completion of projects. In a section on community control and morale, specific suggestions are given to help communities in rapid decline take proactive measures to restore good quality of life.

Brundage, J. F., et al. (1990). *Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome*, 3(12), 1168-1180.

From October 1985 through September 1989, more than 2.3 million applicants for U.S. military service were screened for antibody to HIV. This report lists age-specific seroprevalences with breakdowns for age, race/ethnicity, geographic distribution, sex, and other factors. Among the demographically defined subgroups screened, black males had the highest seroprevalence and the highest estimated infection rate, and the infection rate among black women appeared to accelerate during the first three years of the screening period. Among these individuals screened, prevalence and infection rates were estimated to be at least sixfold higher among black men and women than among whites. Data overall, say the authors, support findings of other studies that black communities, especially in large cities, are dispro-

proportionately affected with HIV-associated morbidity and mortality. The article concludes with an affirmation of the value of tracking infection epidemics, particularly among adolescents and young adults, so that therapeutic and prevention alternatives can be used effectively as they become available.

Day, N. A., Houston-Hamilton, A., Deslondes, J., & Nelson, M. (1988, April-June). Potential for HIV dissemination by a cohort of black intravenous drug users. *Journal of Psychoactive Drugs*, 20(2), 179-183.

The number of AIDS cases is rising, the disease is spreading into the community, and blacks and Hispanics are disproportionately affected. Since there is as yet no known cure for AIDS, a great deal of effort must be concentrated on preventing its spread. Noting that intravenous drug use is one of the primary means by which the AIDS-causing virus, HIV, is transmitted, the authors of this article interviewed a randomly selected sample of 400 black adults (18 and older) in the San Francisco area over a six-week period and found that 27 of them (6.8 percent) admitted to intravenous drug use and another 17 probably injected drugs but refused to admit they had. Of the 27 who admitted intravenous drug use, 17 reported that they had shared a needle. Further, those who shared needles were somewhat more likely than nonsharers to use drugs daily. Needle sharers were more likely to be bisexual, and they reported a mean number of 3.6 sexual partners in the year before the survey. They were also more likely to have sexual partners who were at risk of HIV infection. Though the at-risk figures arrived at through extensions of these findings must be considered indicative rather than conclusive, the researchers believe they amply demonstrate that black needle-sharers with HIV-infection are a major potential means of spreading the infection between intravenous drug users and nonusers and between homosexuals and heterosexuals. Because drug use so often begins in adolescence, this article has implications for the black adolescent male population.

Distribution of AIDS cases, by racial/ethnic group and exposure category, United States, June 1, 1981-July 4, 1988. (1989, January 13). *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 261(2), 201-205.

This report presents an analysis of the 65,133 cases of AIDS reported to the Centers for Disease Control between June 1, 1981, and July 4, 1988, in which racial/ethnic group was specified. This figure represents 99.8 percent of the cases reported in the United States during that period, of which blacks and Hispanics accounted for 70 percent of the cases among heterosexual men. In seven tables the report outlines cases of AIDS by sexual orientation (heterosexual or homosexual), race, gender, and exposure category. Two of the conclusions of this useful look at the data on AIDS for the period covered is that AIDS patients are disproportionately black and Hispanic and that intravenous drug use as related to AIDS is far greater in these groups than it is among whites.

Duh, S. V. (1991). *Blacks and AIDS*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Blacks are disproportionately represented in the number of AIDS cases in the United States, accounting for 28 percent of the 152,126 cases reported from June 1981 to September 1990, even though they made up only 12 percent of the country's population in that period. Even more significant is the fact that the percentage of cases among blacks is growing. Samuel Duh, a physician with both clinical and research experience on AIDS, provides in this book an in-depth look at the phenomenon, addressing among other questions the idea that the high AIDS rate among blacks could have a genetic basis and considering more generally the psychosocial, socioeconomic, and cultural bases of the health status of blacks. Through chapters dealing with the health status of black Americans, the history and epidemiology of the disease, genetics versus environment, AIDS in the perspective of black health problems across the board, and AIDS control, the author presents a good basis for understanding this growing threat to the health of black adolescent males.

Fullilove, M. T., & Fullilove, R. E., III. (1989, September-October). Intersecting epidemics: Black teen crack use and sexually transmitted disease. *Journal of the American Medical Women's Association*, 44(5), 146-147, 151-153.

Crack has heavily influenced black teen culture, Drs. Fullilove confirm, and they report in this article on a three-part study in which they interviewed health and legal services providers; interviewed crack users about the drug's effects; and surveyed teenage users on their sexual activity, history of sexually transmitted disease, and drug use. One of the points made by health care providers is that the medical community is ill equipped to deal with the crack epidemic, and drug treatment centers cannot meet the need it has created. Black teenage users of the drug (a sample of 222 was interviewed, ages 13-19, 63 percent male) gave as primary reasons for crack use "to have a good time with friends," "to get away from my problems," "to experiment," and "because of anger." Almost all were sexually active (with an average first-intercourse age of 12.8) and used condoms erratically. Many of them reported large numbers of sexual partners, and about half reported that they had combined crack use with sexual activity. The authors examine the effects of the crack epidemic on poor communities and recommend that researchers and health care providers respond rapidly with strategies based on additional information on crack and its effects on human physiology, a recognition that crack thrives on economic as well as physiological sources, and an understanding of how it challenges "traditional beliefs and attitudes that have enabled black and other poor neighborhoods to survive in previous generations."

Fullilove, R. E., Fullilove, M. T., Bowser, B. P., & Gross, S. A. (1990, February 9). Risk of sexually transmitted disease among black adolescent crack users in Oakland and San Francisco, Calif. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 263(6), 851-855.

The easy availability of crack cocaine and its growing use have been associated with increases in sexually transmitted diseases including syphilis, gonorrhea, and AIDS. The Centers for Disease Control in Atlanta reported a 35 percent increase in gonorrhea cases in San Francisco between 1987 and 1988 among teenagers 15 to 19, with a disproportionate number of blacks represented among them. Because crack use is so recent, however, there is inadequate research on the link between it and these diseases. In the study reported in this article, 222 (140 male, 82 female) self-identified black crack users 13 to 19 years old, all living in the Oakland-San Francisco area, were asked questions that related drug use to criminal activity and sexual behavior. The primary aim of the survey was to determine the prevalence of behaviors promoting the spread of HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases among crack users. Respondents in the study reported (1) a higher number of sex partners than the number reported by the general population; (2) inadequate use of condoms; (3) a high degree of sexual activity under the influence of crack; (4) a high degree of risk behaviors among the crack users who also reported intravenous drug use; and (5) exchange of sexual favors for crack, a possible factor in HIV infection among prostitutes and in the recent increase in sexually transmitted disease among black adolescents. The researchers believe that there is at least one element of hope in their findings: The adolescents who report that their sexual activity is spontaneous when they are under the influence of crack also report more worry about the consequences, so widespread distribution of condoms could offer some hope that they would modify their behavior and practice safer sex than they are currently doing.

Goodman, E., & Cohall, A. T. (1989, July). Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome and adolescents: Knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors in a New York City adolescent minority population. *Pediatrics*, 84(1), 36-42.

In the study reported in this article, 196 inner-city adolescents (ages 14-20 years) in New York were

assessed through a 29-item self-report questionnaire on their knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors about AIDS. The researchers found, among other things, that risk behaviors in this sampling centered on sexuality; that male adolescents were more sexually active than females and black teenagers more than Hispanics; and that unprotected sexual intercourse was more common than protected intercourse. These and other findings are presented in four tables. Though Goodman and Cohall acknowledge that their survey is too limited in scope to produce generalized conclusions, they believe its results to be informative and to suggest that related studies on a larger scale would be useful. Comparisons of their findings with those of earlier studies, some of which differ significantly, raise issues that would be of particular interest in future research.

Haven, G., & Stolz, J. W. (1989, January-February). Students teaching AIDS to students: Addressing AIDS in the adolescent population. Annotated under Interventions, p. 14.

Holmes, K. K., Karon, J. M., & Kreiss, J. (1990, July). The increasing frequency of heterosexually acquired AIDS in the United States, 1983-88. *American Journal of Public Health*, 80(7), 858-863.

Between 1983 and 1988, the number of AIDS cases in the United States caused by heterosexual contact increased from 1 percent to more than 4 percent, and the incidence among black men was ten times greater than for white men. This analysis is based on the 88,510 cases of AIDS among adults reported to the Centers for Disease Control in the period covered by the study. Tables and a figure in the article show breakdowns of cases by racial and ethnic group, gender, and risk factors associated with contraction of the disease; figures on men with Kaposi's sarcoma; and trends (reported quarterly) in the percentage of cases of AIDS in the U.S. classified as heterosexually acquired. The authors note phenomena in inner-city indigent populations that could interact to promote the heterosexual transmission of AIDS, including patterns of sexual activity with prostitutes and the increasing use of drugs; and they call for "culturally sensitive, age-specific social and health educational programs, endorsed by community leaders and beginning in early adolescence, if not sooner. . . ."

Hopkins, D. R. (1987, November-December). AIDS in minority populations in the United States. *Public Health Reports*, 102(6), 677-681.

At the time this article was written, blacks made up 12 percent of the population of the United States and accounted for 24 percent of the AIDS cases reported; Hispanics made up 7 percent of the population and accounted for 14 percent of the AIDS cases. Of cases in persons younger than 13 diagnosed with AIDS, 54 percent were among blacks; and of cases among women, 52 percent were among blacks. In this article Hopkins gives figures on the ways the virus causing AIDS is most often transmitted in these populations, naming intravenous drug use as the major cause; reviews some of the programs already under way to combat AIDS in these at-risk populations; and considers relevant differences in black and Hispanic communities and how they should be factored into shaping interventions. Specific recommendations include using channels of communication to reach blacks and Hispanics that are different from those used to reach whites, urging people to be voluntarily tested, and promoting greater cooperation among treatment facilities. Working to combat AIDS, Hopkins says, can also greatly reduce intravenous drug abuse, other sexually transmitted diseases, and teenage pregnancy.

Mays, V. M., & Cochran, S. D. (1987, March-April). Immunodeficiency syndrome and black Americans: Special psychosocial issues. *Public Health Reports*, 102(2), 224-231.

Mays and Cochran review the statistics on black Americans and AIDS, noting the disproportionate number of cases among blacks and pointing out that the impact of the disease on this population has unique considerations including differences in patterns of infection, effectiveness of prevention approaches, and psychosocial issues. On the topic of reducing infection rates, the authors analyze risks to black homosexual and bisexual men, intravenous drug users, and incarcerated persons. Psychological issues in dealing with AIDS, they say, include the "fighting stance in the face of adversity" that the authors relate to the Southern tradition of "I can do" instilled in many blacks, though this sense of independence may also hinder relationships with caretakers outside the family or community. Among other sociocultural issues that may relate to the adaptation of black AIDS patients is the revelation of socially stigmatized behaviors such as homosexuality and drug abuse, which could result in the alienation of family members. Such an event can be especially devastating for blacks because of their tradition of family support. Mays and Cochran also consider issues in medical care, and they recommend more culturally specific studies and preventive measures.

Minority issues in AIDS. (1988, November). *Public Health Reports*, 103, Supplement No. 1, Report of the Second Public Health Service AIDS Prevention and Control Conference, pp. 91-94.

Recognizing that HIV infection in minorities presents special challenges to the United States Public Health Service, the writers of this report give background outlining the minority perspective, which includes numbers of AIDS cases in minority groups, figures related to means of transmission with regard to minorities (80 percent of the AIDS cases attributed to intravenous drug use have been reported in these groups), and an assessment of the inadequacy of intervention. Overarching issues presented after this perspective include (1) expanding human resources; (2) expanding the knowledge base; (3) developing culturally sensitive communications; (4) alleviating HIV-related discrimination; and (5) strengthening community networks. This report constitutes a good general overview of its topic.

Moran, J. S., et al. (1989, November-December). The impact of sexually transmitted diseases on minority populations. *Public Health Reports*, 104(6), 560-565.

Blacks and Hispanics now have a disproportionately high incidence of syphilis and gonorrhea, but the authors of this article point out that whites also once had such high rates. The higher rates of syphilis among minorities, they say, "reflect a failure to attain the same level of control of STD [sexually transmitted disease] among minorities that has been achieved among whites." Using figures and charts, Moran and his colleagues analyze here the incidence of several sexually transmitted diseases by race and ethnicity, race differences among groups, the correlation of incidence and poverty, and how the increase in syphilis may predict HIV transmission. Though the reasons and cures for the disproportionate incidence of these diseases among blacks are not obvious, the authors say, public health authorities in the 1990s "need to duplicate for minorities the revolution in STD control that was achieved in the white population of the United States in the first half of this century."

Peterson, J. L., & Bakeman, R. (1989, Winter). AIDS and IV drug use among ethnic minorities. *Journal of Drug Issues*, 19(1), 27-37.

Citing studies that report different patterns and a higher incidence of AIDS for blacks and Hispanics than for whites, these authors take data from AIDS Public Information Data Set from the Centers for

Disease Control and list the number of AIDS cases in males and females among blacks, Hispanics, and whites; males and females; heterosexuals and homosexuals-bisexuals; intravenous drug users; general geographical regions; and some combinations of categories. Findings indicate that relative AIDS risks for blacks and Hispanics are higher in those groups because of the prevalence of needle sharing among intravenous drug users, their greater inability to obtain clean needles, and their lower health status. Implications for prevention of further transmission of the disease include the need to develop appropriate AIDS prevention programs in methadone treatment centers in minority communities, the necessity of motivating those at risk to change their behavior (possibly through teaching them social skills and helping them get social supports), the idea of using rehabilitated addicts as outreach workers, and finding ways to provide AIDS education to sexual partners of intravenous drug users. All of these approaches must be comprehensive and culturally sensitive, the authors caution, and they state in closing that "it remains unclear whether the spread of the AIDS virus can be sufficiently reduced before irreversible consequences occur among ethnic minorities in the United States."

Schilling, R. F., et al. (1989, January-February). Developing strategies for AIDS prevention research with black and Hispanic drug users. *Public Health Reports*, 104(1), 2-11. Annotated under Interventions, p. 18.

Schinke, S. P., Holden, G. W., & Moncher, M. S. (1989). Preventing HIV infection among black and Hispanic adolescents. *Journal of Social Work & Human Sexuality*, 8(1), 63-73. Annotated under Interventions, p. 18.

Schinke, S. P., et al. (1990). African-American and Hispanic-American adolescents, HIV infection, and preventive intervention. *AIDS Education and Prevention*, 2(4), 305-312. Annotated under Interventions, p. 19.

Schinke, S. P., Gordon, A. N., & Weston, R. E. (1990). Self-instruction to prevent HIV infection among African-American and Hispanic-American adolescents. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 58(4), 432-436. Annotated under Interventions, p. 19.

SUBSTANCE ABUSE

Amuleru-Marshall, O. (1989-90). Substance abuse among America's urban youth. *The Urban League Review*, 13(112), 93-98.

"White flight" to the suburbs, Amuleru-Marshall notes here, has increased the percentage of minority youth in urban areas, where they suffer particular economic and social hardships. More than 80 percent of African-American youth live in families that fall below the federal poverty level, and they experience approximately a 40 percent unemployment rate. The results are often gang activity, crime, violence, teenage pregnancy, and drug use and trafficking. Though substance abuse professionals recognize the drug problem in urban minority populations, they fail to place it in proper context, understand the reasons for it, and address it from an effective sociocultural and historical perspective. Amuleru-Marshall believes the likelihood of intervention in drug trading to be very small, and, as in the other chapter annotated here, proposes that decriminalization be considered as a feasible alternative.

Amuleru-Marshall, O. (1991). African-Americans. In J. Kinney (Ed.), *Clinical manual of substance abuse* (pp. 146-154). St. Louis, MO: Mosby-Year Book.

In this chapter, Amuleru-Marshall deals with alcoholism among black Americans, noting that, though the data on drinking patterns are inconclusive, black men especially experience comparatively excessive rates and problems related to drinking—among the more tragic being the rate of cirrhosis and esophageal cancer. The author also discusses drug use (particularly that of heroin, cocaine, marijuana, and PCP) and implications for prevention and for health care professionals. To treat substance abuse among black Americans, he says, requires “the willingness and ability to address the peculiar themes of the African-American condition.” In a special section of the chapter he discusses black urban youth and the social factors related to substance abuse in this population, makes observations on prevention efforts, and comments on intervention strategies. “Unfortunately,” he notes, “the harsh realities of life for many American adolescents create conditions that predispose their involvement in many aspects of the lucrative drug trade.” This situation, he says, makes the question of legalization a legitimate and timely issue for debate.

Arkin, E. B., & Funkhouser, J. E. (Eds.). (1990). Reaching families and youth from high-risk environments. In E. B. Arkin & J. E. Funkhouser (Eds.), *Communicating about alcohol and other drugs: Strategies for reaching populations at risk*. (OSAP Prevention Monograph Series, DHHS Publication No. ADM 90-1665, pp. 11-117). Rockville, MD: Office for Substance Abuse Prevention. Annotated under Interventions, p. 10.

Arkin, E. B., & Funkhouser, J. E. (Eds.). (1990). Reaching black inner-city youth. In E. B. Arkin & J. E. Funkhouser (Eds.), *Communicating about alcohol and other drugs: Strategies for reaching populations at risk*. (OSAP Prevention Monograph Series, DHHS Publication No. ADM 90-1665, pp. 121-161). Rockville, MD: Office for Substance Abuse Prevention. Annotated under Interventions, p. 10.

Atkins, B. J., Klein, M. A., & Mosley, B. (1987). Black adolescents' attitudes toward the use of alcohol and other drugs. *The International Journal of the Addictions*, 22(12), 1201-1211.

The authors of this article studied a sample of 44 black students enrolled in four alternative schools in a central Midwest city in 1985 to determine their attitudes toward the use of alcohol and other substances, their level of use, and whether or not there was a relationship between substance use and participation in alternative activities. These subjects reported very low levels of alcohol use, with percentages that the authors compare to those produced in certain other studies. Attitudes, the researchers found, were closely related to the use of substances, with a positive attitude toward a substance relating to a greater use of it; and strong correlations were found between the use of certain substances and entertainment, social, and vocational activities. These findings support the use of peer-group activity against substance abuse. The sample for this study was small, was 66 percent female and 15 percent male, and was taken from culturally sensitive schools that provide opportunities for individual attention. However, the authors argue, the large percentage of reported negative attitudes toward drug use has significance. They call for further work to clarify the role of alternative activities and better assess the cultural importance of alcohol and other drug use, which would provide information pertinent to planning prevention efforts.

Botvin, G. J., et al. (1989, November-December). A psychosocial approach to smoking prevention for urban black youth. *Public Health Reports*, 104(6), 573-582. Annotated under Interventions, p. 12.

Bowser, B. P., Fullilove, M. T., & Fullilove, R. E. (1990, September). African-American youth and AIDS high-risk behavior: The social context and barriers to prevention. *Youth and Society*, 22(1), 54-66.

To develop information for AIDS prevention, the authors of this article did two studies. The first was an ethnographic study of Bayview-Hunter's Point, the largest African-American community in San Francisco and one in which 60 percent of the homes are owner-occupied, despite isolated pockets of poverty. In the second they interviewed 222 self-identified crack users, ages 15 to 19, in Oakland and San Francisco. All of these subjects were knowledgeable about drug use among young people. Correlating the two studies, they determined some larger community implications of crack use and the risk of sexually transmitted diseases and some of the community-based and sexual barriers to prevention. Their strategies for intervention include community-based efforts to gain control of the streets, more sensible government housing policies, and planned after-school activities that would appeal to young people and offer recognition for successful completion of projects. In a section on community control and morale, specific suggestions are given to help communities in rapid decline take proactive measures to restore good quality of life.

Brisbane, F. L., & Wells, R. C. (1989). Treatment and prevention of alcoholism among blacks. In T. D. Watts & R. Wright, Jr. (Eds.), *Alcoholism in minority populations* (pp. 33-52). Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas. Annotated under Interventions, p. 12.

Brook, J. S., Gordon, A. S., Brook, A., & Brook, D. W. (1989, August). The consequences of marijuana use on intrapersonal and interpersonal functioning in black and white adolescents. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs*, 115(3), 349-369.

Though marijuana use has decreased among high-schoolers in recent years, some research suggests it is still quite high, and studies over the past 20 years link it with such problems as short-term memory impairment, immune system impairment, and lack of motivation. Few studies, these authors note, have examined marijuana's effects on interpersonal relations in families. The purpose of their own study, which is reported in this article, was to consider the consequences of marijuana use on adolescent development and more specifically how it affects intrapersonal and interpersonal function. They were able to document in the study sample the drug's detrimental effects on personality, attitudes, behaviors, perceived relationships with parents, and perceived peer factors. Though the impact of marijuana use on relationships between subjects and their parents and between subjects and their peers was similar for blacks and whites, whites were more adversely affected in achievement motivation, rebelliousness, and tolerance of deviance. Since the entire sample was predominantly middle-class, the researchers speculated that students in the black sample, "which had managed to achieve middle-class status in a society that still limits opportunities for minorities, had some inner strengths that made them less vulnerable to the effects of marijuana use," though they caution that their results and interpretations should be qualified by the fact that they used the self-assessment method of ratings in comparing the racial groups.

Brounstein, P. J., Hatry, H. P., Altschuler, D. M., & Blair, L. H. (1990). *Substance use and delinquency among inner city adolescent males*. (Urban Institute Report 90-3). Washington, DC: The Urban Institute Press.

This book outlines the findings of a study conducted in 1988 on 387 minority male ninth- and tenth-graders, 96 percent of them black, in economically distressed sections of Washington. Looking at the subjects in four categories—those who only used drugs, those who only sold drugs, those who did both, and those who did neither—the authors note differences among the categories and report on the relationship between drug use and crime; patterns of drug involvement and criminal behavior; relationships between drug use and family; personality, attitudes, and perceptions about drug-related risk; and school and media services and programs. They point out that, despite the shocking statistics on drug use, drug sales, and related criminal activity, which is on the increase, the majority of adolescents in the study areas are not drug users or sellers. Recommendations for addressing the problem include a broad-based strategy involving the school, the home, the media, the community, and local government.

Brown, F., & Tooley, J. (1989). Alcoholism in the black community. In G. W. Lawson & A. W. Lawson (Eds.), *Alcoholism and substance abuse in special populations* (pp. 115-130). Rockville, MD: Aspen.

This essay provides an examination of factors associated with alcoholism among blacks. While it does not concentrate on any age group, it does give some facts about drinking among black adolescents as compared to white adolescents; and it is enlightening in its analysis of the historical, cultural, and psychological issues relating to alcoholism in the black population overall, thus setting a context for readers wanting to proceed to a look at alcohol abuse specifically among black male adolescents.

Cummings, K. M., Giovino, G., & Mendicino, A. J. (1987, November-December). Cigarette advertising and black-white differences in brand preference. *Public Health Reports*, 102(6), 698-701.

Interested in the differences in types of cigarette ads targeted to blacks and those targeted to whites, between June 1984 and May 1985 Cummings and his colleagues reviewed full-page cigarette ads appearing in seven popular magazines, three widely circulated to blacks and four read primarily by whites. To assess brand preferences, they interviewed the two populations of smokers. They found on the first question that three brands of menthol cigarettes accounted for nearly 60 percent of the advertising in the magazines popular with blacks, and when a brand was available in both menthol and regular, the words "available in menthol and regular" were included in the ads and the menthol pack was prominently displayed. In ads in the magazines read primarily by whites, nonmentholated cigarettes were more heavily advertised, the words "available in regular and menthol" were included (reversing the order of the ads for black readers), and the regular packs were prominently displayed. The researchers also found that a higher percentage of black smokers preferred mentholated cigarettes, though they cannot be sure it is because of the advertising. Nevertheless, their findings may be useful to professionals planning antismoking campaigns, especially those directed to young black smokers or potential smokers, though more research would be needed to determine beliefs and attitudes of black and white smokers to understand why they prefer the brands they do.

Dawkins, M. P. (1989). Alcoholism prevention and black youth. In R. Wright, Jr., & T. D. Watts (Eds.), *Alcohol problems of minority youth in America* (pp. 25-33). Lewiston, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press.

Observing that the causes of alcohol abuse among black youth are both internal to black communities (such as negative values and role modeling) and external to them (such as racism and oppression

that bring about economic woes), Dawkins calls for an understanding of these causes as crucial to developing and implementing effective preventive measures. He cites from a 1985 study three broad categories of preventive measures: restricting supply and drinking sites, promoting new attitudes and practices involving alcohol use, and considering ways to make drinking safer. Like several other writers, Dawkins believes one of the main problems concerning alcohol use among blacks is the black community's failure to understand its seriousness. The black community itself, he says, should be mobilized to launch a full-scale "war" against alcoholism and other drug abuse, and black youth should be involved in this effort.

Escobedo, L. G., et al. (1990, September 26). Sociodemographic characteristics of cigarette smoking initiation in the United States. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 264(12), 1550-1555.

The study reported in this article was based on analysis of smoking histories of young adults (ages 18-35) as reported in the 1987 National Health Interview Survey and the Hispanic Health and Nutrition Examination Survey of 1982-84. Its purpose was to provide information on smoking initiation in relation to key social factors, with the goal of determining areas of priority for smoking prevention. The authors found that among white, black, and Hispanic subjects questioned, the onset of smoking increased rapidly after age 11 and reached a peak around 17-19. During the 1970s smoking prevalence and initiation rates were higher among blacks than among whites, but blacks have recently made more progress in reducing their smoking initiation rates. Black and Hispanic men had higher smoking initiation rates during childhood and adolescence than black and Hispanic women, and black men tended to start smoking later than white men. Higher smoking rates are associated with lower educational status in all the groups. A panel convened by the National Cancer Institute recommended that smoking prevention programs include all grades, and these writers concur, citing research findings that support their position. They also believe that smoking prevention programs should emphasize the needs of persons of low socioeconomic status.

Feigelman, W., & Gorman, B. (1989, July-September). Toward explaining the higher incidence of cigarette smoking among black Americans. *Journal of Psychoactive Drugs*, 21(3), 299-305.

Federally financed studies in 1985 showed that 41 percent of black males smoke compared to 32 percent of white males, with comparable trends in females of both races. Further, the declines in smoking rates have been much sharper among whites than among blacks. Higher rates of smoking in the black population are believed to contribute to its poorer health and lower life expectancy. Using 1987 General Social Survey data, the authors of this article investigated the question whether race is related to such established factors in smoking as age, social class, and occupational stress or whether it is an independent determinant in smoking. They concluded that the bivariate relationships between smoking and stress, smoking and prestige, and stress and prestige remain the same for both races and that the race differences in smoking may be spurious. Though age categories beginning with 18 were considered and age was factored out of the study relatively early, this article could be helpful to other researchers who are dealing with smoking among adolescents.

Flaskerud, J. H. (1988). Prevention of AIDS in blacks and Hispanics: Nursing implications. *Journal of Community Health Nursing*, 5(1), 49-58. Annotated under Interventions, p. 13.

Forney, P. D., Forney, M. A., and Ripley, W. K. (1988, May). Alcohol and Adolescents: Knowledge, attitudes, and behavior. *Journal of Adolescent Health Care*, 9(3), 194-202.

The survey reported in this article was done on students from the sixth, eighth, tenth, and twelfth grades in six South Carolina and Georgia school districts to determine the subjects' knowledge, attitudes, and behavior regarding alcohol use and the correlations among them. The authors found that school-based alcohol education programs have a significant impact on students' knowledge level and attitudes toward alcohol but effect only modest to insignificant changes in their alcohol use. Among demographic findings were these: Males drink more than females, white students drink more than black students, and alcohol use increases with age. They found in addition that white students gain knowledge about alcohol at a greater rate than minorities and whites have a more liberal attitude toward alcohol use. In a breakdown of the responses into five age groups, white students scored significantly higher in the knowledge test in all five.

Friedman, S. R., et al. (1987). The AIDS epidemic among blacks and Hispanics. *Milbank Quarterly*, 65(2), 455-499.

Not only do a disproportionate number of blacks and Hispanics have AIDS, but members of minority groups survive for a shorter period than whites after being diagnosed as having AIDS. In this article the authors present a thorough and well-outlined examination of the racial/ethnic distribution of AIDS in the National Surveillance data, gender distribution, a breakdown on how the disease was contracted in the population represented in the surveillance figures, data on the impact of AIDS on different races, racial variation in AIDS-related knowledge and behavior, risk factors, and recommendations. These last include targeting education at minority groups, encouraging and supporting minority community outreach and support groups, and working to get more financial aid from both government and private institutions. In all of these categories they stress a culturally sensitive approach.

Fullilove, M. T., & Fullilove, R. E., III. (1989, September-October). Intersecting epidemics: Black teen crack use and sexually transmitted disease. *Journal of the American Medical Women's Association*, 44(5), 146-147, 151-153. Annotated under Sexually Transmitted Diseases, p. 27.

Fullilove, R. E., Fullilove, M. T., Bowser, B. P., & Gross, S. A. (1990, February 9). Risk of sexually transmitted disease among black adolescent crack users in Oakland and San Francisco, Calif. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 263(6), 851-855. Annotated under Sexually Transmitted Diseases, p. 27.

Gillmore, M. R., et al. (1990). Racial differences in acceptability and availability of drugs and early initiation of substance use. *American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse*, 16(3-4), 185-206.

Though alcohol and other drug use continues to be a health concern among adolescents, relatively little is known about racial and ethnic differences in substance use in this population, and it appears to be rising. Looking at three groups—white, black, and Asian-American adolescents—Gillmore and her colleagues investigated whether or not rates of use differ among them, whether differences in use relate to differences in exposure to certain risk factors for each group, and whether the predictive power of examined risk factors varies among the groups. Contrary to popular notions, the authors say, alcohol and other drug use is apparently more prevalent among white adolescents than among minority youth, though there are exceptions such as documented disproportionate heroin and cocaine use among blacks and Hispanics, and there is concern because minorities tend to have more social problems re-

lated to drug use. In measuring risk factors, the authors considered perceived substance availability, acceptability of drug use, and peer use of drugs. They found that subjects did not differ by peer use but did differ by race and sex on the issues of availability and several measures of use acceptability. Males felt drug use among peers to be more acceptable than females did and were found to believe that drug use helped them make friends. At the beginning of this study, subjects were in first grade; they were questioned again when they were in the fifth grade and were typically 10 or 11 years old. Though this age group is considered preadolescent by most researchers, the problems related to such early substance use may become full-blown in adolescence, and implications for intervention include a better understanding of risk factors among minorities at this period in their lives so that they can be targeted for early culturally sensitive approaches.

Goplerud, E. N. (Ed.). (1990). *Breaking new ground for youth at risk: Program summaries*. (OSAP Technical Report-1, DHHS Publication No. ADM 89-1658). Rockville, MD: Office of Substance Abuse Prevention. Annotated under Interventions, p. 13.

Harper, F. D. (1989). Alcoholism and blacks: An overview. In T. D. Watts & R. Wright, Jr. (Eds.), *Alcoholism in minority populations* (pp. 17-31). Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

This chapter provides a historical look at alcoholism among blacks from slavery to the present; an examination of the relationship of alcoholism to the family; a discussion of prevention, treatment, and socioeconomic dynamics; and recommendations including more government-funded research on drinking among blacks and a mass educational campaign to provide information and change attitudes and values about alcohol and health. Sections of the chapter deal specifically with alcohol and black youth, for whom studies on drinking patterns are inconclusive as to the effects of race on differential drinking behavior, though some do indicate that black adolescent males are overrepresented in urban area statistics.

Hawkins, D. F. (1989). Alcohol and black youth: An overview. In R. Wright, Jr., and T. D. Watts (Eds.), *Alcohol problems of minority youth in America* (pp. 13-24). Lewiston, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press.

This chapter presents an overview of research (which the author notes is very limited), theory, and issues related to alcohol use among black youth. The best of the studies of urban black youth closely linked heavy drinking among them to heavy drinking in their families and neighborhoods. Among other theories or assumptions Harper names the following: black youths who drink seem to imitate the drinking behavior of black adults; black youths have lower drinking rates than white youths and black adults; and black youths are heavily influenced by a lack of knowledge about the consequences of drinking and by racially oriented advertising. Listed as factors in black adolescent drinking are the "empty-home situation" that exists in many single-parent black families, the prevalence of liquor stores in many urban black neighborhoods, and the influence of the street culture in urban areas. Hawkins calls for adult leadership in working especially with high-risk black youth to plan and offer alternatives to alcohol abuse.

Headen, S. W., Bauman, K. E., Deane, G. D., & Koch, G. (1991, July). Are the correlates of cigarette smoking initiation different for black and white adolescents? *American Journal of Public Health, 81*(7), 854-858.

Because most research on adolescent smoking has dealt only with white subjects or has not compared smoking among blacks and whites, the authors of this study examined the correlates and possi-

ble causes of adolescent smoking for effects of race, taking their data from a field experiment designed to evaluate the influence of a mass media campaign on the onset of adolescent smoking. In a sample of 1,277 12- to 14-year-olds who initially were nonsmokers, 24 percent of whites and 14 percent of blacks began smoking within the two-year period of the study. Further, it was determined, whites were more likely to start smoking at age 12 and blacks at age 14; smoking initiation more than doubled with age among blacks but increased only slightly with age among whites. Peer smoking increased the odds of starting to smoke among white teens but had no effect among blacks. There were also some relationships between parent-child interaction and smoking and between socioeconomic background and smoking. The researchers conclude in part that smoking prevention programs should be implemented in the elementary grades to deter smoking among whites and should continue into middle school to deter smoking among blacks. More research is needed, however, to determine distinctive cultural and environmental factors in shaping behavior among black adolescents.

Jackson, M. S. (1988). Drug use and delinquency in the black male adolescent: A descriptive study. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH.

Delinquency in American society, long a problem but compounded in recent years by the dramatic increase in drug use among adolescents, is manifest currently in part in the number of related cases in the juvenile justice system. For this dissertation, Jackson conducted a study on a randomly selected sample of 248 incarcerated black males, ages 12 to 20, in Ohio, surveying them on alcohol and other drug use, examining the relationship of that use to the offenses for which they were incarcerated, and gathering their qualitative impressions and those of the staff working with them. Tables demonstrate the findings on such issues as offenses resulting in current incarceration; criminal severity of committing offenses; total number of incarcerations; age of first drug use; frequency of drug use; felony level in relation to frequency of drug use; and frequency of drug use in relation to parental awareness, family intactness, and church attendance. Jackson believes from the qualitative information she gathered that the subjects of her study were often involved in illegal activity as a means of proving themselves "good" at something and that peer pressure and substance availability are major factors in their behavior.

Jenkins, K., Jr. (1990, January 18). Alexandria's 'untouchables' keep drugs at a distance. *Washington Post*, p. C5, col. 1. Annotated under Interventions, p. 15.

Maton, K. I., & Zimmerman, M. A. (1988). Psychosocial predictors of substance use among urban black male adolescents. In J. E. Trimble, C. S. Bolek, et al. (Eds.), *Perspectives in ethnic minority drug abuse research, special edition of Drugs and Society*. Rockville, MD: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institute on Drug Abuse/Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Using a sample of 150 black adolescent males in Baltimore, most of them school dropouts, the authors conducted a study to assess the effects of variables in life-style, social supports, stress, and well-being on the frequency of drug use. Prevalence of drug use was higher among this sample than the national average, with 61 percent of the sample reporting some substance use during the six months before the final interview (61 percent used alcohol, 39 percent used marijuana, and 16 percent used hard drugs); and the most frequently used hard drugs were reported to be cocaine, smack, and depressants. The researchers found that in-school status, low self-esteem, and parental support were factors not only in the frequency of drug use among the teens but also in their choice of drugs; low self-esteem, for example, was related to increased marijuana use, and support and stress variables had a

bearing on the amount of alcohol use. In closing, the authors discuss implications of their findings for further research and preventive intervention.

Moncher, M. S., et al. (1989). Microcomputer-based approaches for preventing drug and alcohol abuse among adolescents from ethnic-racial minority backgrounds. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 5(2), 79-93. Annotated under Interventions, p. 16.

Okwumabua, J. O., Okwumabua, T. M., Winston, B. L., & Walker, H., Jr. (1989, April). Onset of drug use among rural black youth. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 4(2), 238-246.

There is a growing concern about rising drug use among adolescents in rural areas. Though it appears to be related to some of the same factors that are associated with adolescent drug use in urban areas (peer pressure, social change, poverty, family breakdown, lack of job opportunity, and inadequate education), there is little information on why it is increasing. The study described in this article was done on a sample of 362 seventh- to twelfth-grade black students in rural Alabama to determine the age of beginning of alcohol and other drug use, periods of risk for drug use, and patterns of multiple drug use. The study showed that children began using alcohol, cigarettes, and smokeless tobacco as young as age 5 (showing alcohol to be the "entry drug" for this sample); solvents and marijuana use began by ages 7 and 8, respectively; and the use of cocaine began by age 11. In contrast to findings from similar studies, in this sample females showed a higher rate of initiation into alcohol use than males. More research needs to be done, the authors conclude, to determine how revelations of this study are specific to blacks, how environmental factors and family influences affect alcohol-related issues, and other questions.

Oyemade, U. J., & Brandon-Monye, D. (Eds.). (1990). *Ecology of alcohol and other drug use: helping black high-risk youth* (OSAP Prevention Monograph-7, DHHS Publication No. ADM 90-1672). Rockville, MD: Office of Substance Use Prevention. Annotated under Interventions, p. 17.

Ringwalt, C. L., & Palmer, J. H. (1990). Differences between white and black youth who drink heavily. *Addictive Behaviors*, 15(5), 455-460.

Though it was well established by research at the time of this writing that white adolescents drink more alcohol and experience more drunkenness than black adolescents, the authors point out that the need still exists to target black youth for alcohol abuse prevention activities because of the link in this population between alcohol use and criminal behavior, the tendency among blacks who drink to drink heavily, and the elevated risk of cirrhosis among blacks. Ringwalt and Palmer studied a sample of 1,533 seventh- through twelfth-grade students in North Carolina, all classified as high-risk because of their self-reported drinking patterns, to examine how several variables influence black adolescent drinkers as compared to white adolescent drinkers. The approach of the researchers was to question the subjects on reasons not to drink. Among other findings, they determined that whites are more likely to consider their friends' disapproval as a reason not to use alcohol, whereas blacks are more likely to consider their parents' and other adults' disapproval as important in this decision. Also, blacks are more likely to perceive occasional drinking as a health risk and to rate as important the potential for addiction to alcohol. One of the study's implications for intervention is that programs targeted to blacks need to be built not so much on peer interactions as on helping black young people communicate better with the adults whose approval is important to them, who should in turn be helped to make their disapproval of alcohol abuse clear.

Thomas, S. M., Fick, A. C., Henderson, J., & Doherty, K. (1990, April). Tobacco, alcohol, and marijuana use among black adolescents: A comparison across gender, grade, and school environment. *Journal of the Louisiana State Medical Society*, 142(4), 37-42.

The study reported in this article was designed to measure tobacco, alcohol, and marijuana use among black adolescents. Using a self-report instrument in a sample of 2,748 black adolescents in grades seven through twelve, the researchers found that the proportion of students who had tried any of these substances increased with a rise in grade (with an especially noteworthy difference between junior and senior high schoolers); that the use of alcohol among males did not vary greatly from that among females; and that males were more likely to have tried smokeless tobacco, smoked marijuana, and used combinations of substances. They also found a correlation between cigarette smoking in this group and smoking among their parents and friends. School environment too was found to be a factor. The authors note that blacks have higher cancer prevalence and mortality rates than nonminorities, one of several potential consequences of cigarette smoking, and that primary prevention efforts should be aimed at adolescents, since that is a period of life during which initiation into smoking often occurs. Further, they suggest, smoking prevention programs should also include marijuana, since the strongest multiple use correlation shown in this study involved cigarettes and marijuana.

Thompson, T., & Simmons-Cooper, C. (1989). Alcohol dependency treatment and black adolescents. In R. Wright, Jr., & T. D. Watts (Eds.), *Alcohol problems of minority youth in America* (pp. 35-49). Lewiston, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press. Annotated under Interventions, p. 20.

Watts, W. D., & Wright, L. S. (1990, Spring). The relationship of alcohol, tobacco, marijuana, and other illegal drug use to delinquency among Mexican-American, black, and white adolescent males. *Adolescence*, 25(97), 171-181.

This article reports on a study designed to examine the relationship between minor and violent delinquency and the use of drugs among Hispanic, black, and white adolescent males. The study was conducted on two groups: male delinquents in a Texas facility for violent and repeat offenders and male high school students not identified as delinquents or drug users. The researchers found a strong relationship in all the ethnic groups between delinquency and frequent use of the drugs investigated and concluded that delinquents are much more likely than nondelinquents to use and abuse the substances named. The study was not designed to produce answers about causal primacy with regard to drug use and delinquency. The researchers theorize that peer pressure and the wish to project a "tough-guy" image are factors in drug use in the delinquent population, as are parental rejection, the wish to escape from painful reality, and an abnormally high need for stimulation. These speculations raise even more questions, which Watts and Wright say should be the focus of additional research.

Wright, R., Jr., & Watts, T. D. (1989). Alcohol and minority youth. In R. Wright, Jr., & T. D. Watts (Eds.), *Alcohol problems of minority youth in America* (pp. 1-9). Lewiston, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press.

Although this chapter introduces a book that deals not only with black youth but also with Hispanic and Native American youth, it is useful for its discussion of the realities of being young, a member of a minority, and an alcohol user in America and how society views these realities. It also points out the societal forces leading to alcohol abuse among minority youth (poverty and fewer educational and employment opportunities, for example) and shows that alcoholism cannot be viewed apart from these forces.

TEENAGE PARENTHOOD AND EARLY SEXUAL ACTIVITY

Alexander, C. S., et al. (1989, November-December). Early sexual activity among adolescents in small towns and rural areas; race and gender patterns. *Family Planning Perspectives*, 21(6), 261-266.

Reported in this article is a survey on sexual activity of 758 eighth-grade students from three rural counties in Maryland, with gender and race composition (53 percent male and 37 percent black) closely resembling that of the entire eighth grade population in the counties. The issues that concerned the authors were "(1) finding out the magnitude of racial and gender differences in sexual activity after adjustments were made for other developmental, individual, academic, and behavioral factors; and (2) within gender-race groups, what factors are associated with early sexual activity, and how do they differ across these groups?" Sexual activity was defined as intercourse; the use of cigarettes, alcohol, marijuana, and/or other drugs within the month preceding the survey was considered problem behavior. Peer problem behavior and frequent cruising (riding around in cars for entertainment) were also behavior factors. More than half of the adolescents questioned reported having had sexual intercourse, and the odds that black eighth-graders had engaged in sexual intercourse were more than five times those of the white students. However, rates of sexual activity among white students in this study, the authors point out, are higher than those reported by other researchers. Cruising was highly associated with sexual activity. Three tables outline the findings of this study, from which the authors have concluded that there is need for further research on factors influencing early sexual behavior among rural youth so that more appropriate services can be offered to address their needs.

Allen-Meares, P. (1989). Adolescent sexuality and premature parenthood: Role of the black church in prevention. *Journal of Social Work and Human Sexuality*, 8(1), 133-142. Annotated under Interventions, p. 9.

Banks, I. W., & Wilson, P. I. (1989, Spring). Appropriate sex education for black teens. *Adolescence*, 24(93), 233-245. Annotated under Interventions, p. 11.

Christmon, K. (1990, November). Parental responsibility and self-image of African American fathers. *Families in Society*, 71(9), 563-567.

The growing rate of illegitimate children born to black teenagers has prompted corresponding attention, but few studies, according to Christmon at the time he published this article, had investigated the willingness of the adolescent fathers to assume responsibility as parents. In his study, done on a sample of 43 African American urban unwed fathers, the author used a questionnaire to measure parental responsibility in relation to self-image. He found that his subjects' parental behavior was influenced most strongly by their feelings and attitudes toward their families of origin and second most strongly by their level of comfort with their own sexuality. Environmental coping was another factor in how fathers in this sample interacted with their children. Practice implications of the study include providing support and services to adolescent males before they become fathers to help them learn appropriate role behavior, which would involve distinguishing nurturing roles from stereotypical feminine or masculine behaviors. Psychological counseling and vocational-educational counseling are also indicated for adolescent fathers. For an article based on the same study and having similar conclusions, see also Christmon, K. (1990, Fall). Parental responsibility of African-American unwed adolescent fathers. *Adolescence*, 25(99), 645-653 (not annotated in this bibliography).

Dash, L. (1989). *When children want children: The urban crisis of teenage childbearing*. New York: William Morrow and Company.

This book, an enlargement of a six-part *Washington Post* series that was a finalist for the Pulitzer Prize, is a controversial journalistic account of what Leon Dash learned about the reasons for teenage pregnancy during the nearly eighteen months he spent in one of the poorest inner-city sections of the nation's capital. Often through the words of the teenagers he interviewed, Dash tells how these young people feel about their lives, their pregnancies, their children, and their future. In his prologue he says that his beginning assumptions about teenage pregnancy were proved wrong: it became clear to him in time that, in the poor neighborhood from which he drew his report, a baby is for a girl a "tangible achievement in an otherwise dreary and empty future." For a boy, fathering a baby is a rite of passage and a means of announcing his manhood.

Franklin, D. L. (1988, July). Race, class, and adolescent pregnancy: An ecological analysis. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 58(3), 339-354.

Though there was a decrease in adolescent childbearing outside of marriage among blacks and an increase among whites between 1970 and 1981, there is still a variance between the rate in the two groups large enough to warrant great concern. Franklin points out, however, that considering the data only by race obscures the factor of low socioeconomic class. The author outlines here an ecological framework for analyzing and addressing the problem of early sexual activity and pregnancy on (1) the individual level (looking, for example, at correlates to early sexual activity, such as smoking, drinking, and drug use; considering peer pressure as a factor); (2) the family level (parental economic status, family size and makeup, family behavior patterns and expectations); (3) the sociocultural level (poverty, dependency on welfare, size of community, community values); and (4) the sociostructural level (the role of major societal institutions in influencing adolescents' decisions about childbearing). Franklin presents findings from earlier research on all these levels. She concludes that, though there is a difficulty in knowing how much to weigh factors at each level, all the levels are important, and the ecological approach is the most comprehensive one for understanding and planning interventions for the problem under discussion.

Hendricks, L. E. (1988, Fall). Outreach with teenage fathers: A preliminary report on three ethnic groups. *Adolescence*, 23(91), 711-720. Annotated under Interventions, p. 14.

Jemmott, L. S., & Jemmott, J. B., III. (1990, July). Sexual knowledge, attitudes, and risky sexual behavior among inner-city black male adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 5(3), 346-369.

Two major consequences of early sexual activity and insufficient use of contraceptives, these authors note, are high rates of unintended pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases. In a sample of 200 inner-city black male junior- and senior-high students, they examined knowledge, attitudes, and risky behavior associated with sex and found that 78 percent had had sexual intercourse at least once, 78 percent reported not using any contraceptive during initial intercourse, and 54 percent reported not using any contraception during their most recent occasion of intercourse. The authors also found a notable lack of knowledge about sexual practices as related to the risk of conception and negative attitudes toward using contraception. Both of these conditions were related to risky sexual behavior. The older, more experienced adolescents were more likely to report engaging in protected intercourse, though it was usually their partners who took the responsibility for this. Jemmott and Jemmott list issues from their study that need clarification, and they suggest further areas of study, since a scientific understanding of black adolescent male sexuality is in the early stages.

Jones, B. A. (1990). An epidemiologic study of the relationship between psychosocial factors and contraceptive behavior in black adolescents. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

In her study of 294 black ninth- through twelfth-graders in a rural South Carolina county, Jones sought to determine relationships between their contraceptive behavior and other factors including family structure, communication between adolescents and other family members, knowledge about contraception, attitudes toward planned sex and contraceptive use, females' responsibility in contraception, peer pressure, age at first intercourse, and personal aspirations. According to her results, intact family structure proved to be a positive factor contributing to responsible contraceptive behavior among females; intact families fostered better communication of ideas, values, and guidelines about contraception than families headed by a single mother; and responsible contraceptive behavior among males was related most strongly to grade level and ease of communication with fathers. Jones says that father-son talk about sexuality may be more important than was previously believed and deserves further study. In addition, the findings on positive contraceptive behavior as related to educational level provide an impetus to encourage black males to complete high school.

Leonard, J., Jr. (1988, June-July). Contraceptive knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors of black adolescent males attending a predominately black university. *Health Education*, 19(3), 22-26.

This article is a report on a study in which Leonard questioned 107 black males between the ages of 16 and 20 on their sexual knowledge, attitudes, and behavior. The goal of the study was to gather information that could be used in designing programs to help reduce the number of teenage pregnancies, especially interventions involving adolescent males in contraceptive planning. On a scale to rate the relative efficacy of several forms of contraception, 37 percent rated the pill highest, and 24 percent believed the condom most effective. Subjects were not knowledgeable about the fertility cycle of the female, but 62 percent believed that contraception was a shared responsibility. Eighty-five percent of the subjects used some form of contraception, but 11.2 percent were using no method at all at the time of the study. As Leonard says, early pregnancy may be attributable to the fact that people are becoming sexually active at younger ages now, and "unfortunately, teenagers have not allowed their level of sense of responsibility to keep up with their early and increased rate of sexual activity." The positive attitudes reported by the young men who participated in this study may have been shaped by increased media attention and parental guidance. They could be helped further with information on the female fertility cycle, the efficacy of birth control devices, and encouragement toward using condoms continuously throughout their sexual experience.

Marsiglio, W. (1989, April). Adolescent males' pregnancy resolution preferences and family formation intentions: Does family background make a difference for blacks and whites? *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 4(2), 214-237.

Attitudes about paternal responsibility for children, particularly those conceived out of wedlock, have changed dramatically in recent decades, and marriage is no longer considered the only or "right" solution in most of these cases. In the study reported in this article, Marsiglio examined how parental education influenced pregnancy resolution and family formation among young black males and young white males. The results suggested that blacks and whites have similar views, on the average; but with a parental control factor, blacks are relatively homogeneous in their views and whites are not. Blacks whose parents have a lower educational background may be more likely to favor a living arrangement that includes the child than would blacks from better-educated families, however. Conclusions are tentative because of the small number of blacks in the study, but one possible interpretation of the data is

that black males involved in a serious relationship may be more interested in making a family formation than was previously believed. In any case, the author concludes, "understanding and facilitating young males' involvement in the lives of their child, and sometimes partner, should be a priority for researchers and policymakers interested in adolescent pregnancy and fertility issues."

McAdoo, J. L. (1990). Understanding African-American teen fathers. In P. E. Leone (Ed.), *Understanding troubled and troubling youth* (pp. 229-245). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

This article explores the literature on married and unmarried black teenage fathers. The author considers development theories lacking in historical and cultural context and proposes instead choice and exchange theory as a conceptual framework for understanding why black males choose to become fathers. According to this theory, they choose fatherhood because they lack other social rewards such as good jobs and higher education. McAdoo reviews research on economic and educational problems of the black population and concludes that they are major obstacles to the black adolescent father. He cites studies that suggest, consistent with choice and exchange theory, that the greater the economic resources, the more likely adolescent fathers of all ethnic backgrounds are to provide economic and emotional support for their children. Further, he cites several studies of fathers' participation in parenting and support of their children and summarizes that evidence shows many black adolescent fathers marry the mothers of their children and some are able to provide nurturance and other supports as well as older fathers. He notes, however, that teens have trouble making the transition to parenthood because of emotional immaturity, peer pressure that leads in other directions, and low self-esteem. McAdoo reviews some of the major programs that have been developed to address the needs of these fathers and their partners and children, suggests ways service barriers may be overcome, and reemphasizes the basic need to remove economic and educational obstacles for black males so that they will be better able to provide material and emotional support to their families.

Nix, L. M., Pasteur, A. B., & Servance, M. A. (1988, Fall). A focus group study of sexually active black male teenagers. *Adolescence*, 23(91), 741-751.

Philadelphia's Temple University provides services to pregnant adolescents, adolescent parents, and their children and families, along with pregnancy prevention help, in a model program operating under the National Institute for Adolescent Pregnancy and Family Services. One of the means the Institute used for developing appropriate services was to gather information from the population it set out to serve. This report centers on part of a focus group study the authors conducted to ascertain needs clients wanted addressed. One of the questions they wanted answers to was: What did the subjects think about dating and whether or not sexual activity was an expected part of dating? The 20 young men in the study not only believed dating and sexual activity to be synonymous but, with one exception, believed birth control to be the responsibility of the woman rather than their own. Services they wanted from the Institute included job training and placement for teenage fathers, vocational counseling, educational and medical services, nutritional information, child care, parenting skills training, recreational activities, and family planning and general counseling. The researchers concluded that the focus group method of gathering information to be used in developing services is indeed a viable technique in the Institute's field.

Oliver, W. (1989). Sexual conquest and patterns of black-on-black violence: A structural-cultural perspective. *Violence and Victims*, 4(4), 257-273. Annotated under Homicide, Suicide, and Other Violence, p. 7.

Scott, C. S., et al. (1988, Fall). Hispanic and black American adolescents' beliefs relating to sexuality and conception. *Adolescence*, 23(91), 667-688.

A basic understanding of the facts about sexuality and contraception is necessary to making responsible choices about sexual behavior. For this report, the authors conducted a study of Hispanic and black adolescents in inner-city Miami to determine their knowledge and beliefs about genitalia and contraceptives. Their method was to present the adolescents with drawings outlining the female and male bodies and ask them to label anatomical parts associated with sex, birth control, and reproduction, using both a word they thought a doctor would use and a word they and their friends would use, then telling what each part is for. Based on responses to this method, the researchers found the level of knowledge low among males and females of both ethnic groups on both anatomy and birth control, with the pill being the only birth control method identified by a majority of all four groups, the condom named only by a majority of the males, and confusion about the diaphragm and the IUD. Hispanic males scored higher in knowledge than black males, and Hispanic females scored lower than black females. There was a great deal of misinformation about contraception. Most of the subjects had erroneous beliefs about methods (a common one being the belief that the pill kills sperm), but 73 percent of the black teenagers did believe that contraception is good because it prevents pregnancy, compared to 41 percent of the Hispanics. Implications for teaching include the need to determine the level of knowledge among these adolescents and to treat them with respect when they talk about the subject.

Smith, L. A. (1988, May-June). Black adolescent fathers: Issues for service provision. *Social Work*, 33(3), 269-271. Annotated under Interventions, p. 19.

Vinovskis, M. A. (1988, Fall). Teenage pregnancy and the underclass. *The Public Interest*, no. 93, pp. 87-96.

This article is a response to William Julius Wilson's influential book *The Truly Disadvantaged: The Inner City, the Underclass, and Public Policy* (1987), in which Wilson describes the social and demographic deterioration of the black underclass as attributable in large part to the decreasing number of marriageable black males and the large rise in out-of-wedlock births and households headed by females and blames much of their situation on economic changes in the inner cities. Vinovskis challenges Wilson's interpretation of the data on unwed pregnancies and his conclusions on the reasons for unwed parenthood in the black adolescent population, citing changes in both black and white Americans' convictions and beliefs about family, children, and personal responsibility and obligation. Examples of such changes are that people generally marry later now than they did in the 1950s and that there is a negative attitude toward marriage currently, compared with the attitude in the '50s. Vinovskis believes that the gap between black and white premarital births has not only socioeconomic causes but also cultural ones, including a higher tolerance among blacks for out-of-wedlock births. Policy implications include making efforts to prevent teenage pregnancy and encouraging teenage parents to consider the option of marriage more seriously. Finally, the author says, we should help the married couple who try to raise their children together, not forgetting the specific needs of another "truly disadvantaged" person—the "young man who accepts responsibility for fathering a child by marrying the adolescent mother and helping to rear the child."

Watson, B. J., Rowe, C. L., & Jones, D. J. (1988-89, Summer-Winter). Dispelling myths about teenage pregnancy and male responsibility: A research agenda. *The Urban League Review*, 12(1-2), 91-100.

The authors of this article blame recent books, articles, and television productions for what they label misconceptions about (1) the nature and magnitude of teenage pregnancy, and (2) the relationship of teenage pregnancy to poverty. As a result of such misconceptions, which come partly from a misinterpretation of raw data, they say interventions are often misguided and effective help is forestalled. These "myths" include the beliefs that teenage pregnancy is increasing and that teenage pregnancy is the major cause of the large number of female-headed households among African-Americans. In addition to listing ten myths about teenage pregnancy, Watson, Rowe, and Jones address the question of involved males and familial responsibility, naming three more myths: that African-American males do not pay child support, that they do not pay alimony, and that they abandon their children. More research and more careful analysis and reporting are needed on all these issues, they conclude, so that workable interventions may be designed around the attitudes and motivations of the target group and the effects of demographics and personal factors on it.

Weber, F. T., et al. (1989, December). Early sexual activity of delinquent adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Health Care*, 10(5), 398-403.

The authors of this article report on sexual experiences of 1,255 adolescents, ages 10-19, admitted to a juvenile detention facility. Among other findings, they discovered that males commonly begin volitional sexual experiences before the age of 10; this was true in 40 percent of blacks and 20 percent of nonblacks. Black males were more likely to report sexual intercourse within the week and month prior to the questioning, but they did not differ significantly on this point from black females. The authors of this article conclude that more surveys on prepubertal sexual activity are needed, and they stress the importance of such studies in designing and implementing sex education programs.

Williams, C. W. (1991). *Black teenage mothers* (pp. 7-37). Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.

Many black community leaders have declared teenage pregnancy the greatest threat to the black community's long-term stability and health. Two especially pertinent chapters in this book, "Facts about Teenage Pregnancy" and "What We Think about Teenage Pregnancy," document the crisis, comparing black and white teenage pregnancy rates, citing studies on the subject, and pinpointing its causes—among them black male unemployment, a problem to which teenagers are particularly susceptible.

