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THE EFFECTS OF WORLD VIEW ON ADAPTATION TO SINGLE PARENTHOOD

The Ohio State University

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THE EFFECTS OF WORLD VIEW ON ADAPTATION 
TO SINGLE PARENTHOOD

DISSERTATION
Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for 
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate 
School of The Ohio State University

By
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* * * * *

The Ohio State University  
1983

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Approved By
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To Eve and Schlomo, who had to endure my long hours at the typewriter.
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PUBLICATIONS


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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

In the last 10 to 15 years, single parenthood has become a major social phenomenon (Spanier & Glick, 1981), becoming increasingly prevalent in our culture, and challenging the nuclear family as the prototypical family structure.

Single parenthood has been perceived by most social scientists as a pathological family structure (Weiss, 1979a). Researchers, theoreticians, and practitioners have identified negative outcomes for single parents, their children, and the larger community. Specifically, it has been proposed that single parents face excess stress which retards their career development, that children have greater educational, social, and behavioral problems than do children from two-parent families, and that the larger community financially subsidizes single parents because they are economically less productive and more often collect welfare payments.

However, not all researchers have held this view. Some have suggested that only a minority of single parent families are dysfunctional and that most successfully meet the needs of their members (Mendes, 1979; Weiss, 1979a); others have claimed that the negative outcomes associated with some single parent families are not due to any inherent dysfunction, but rather due to insufficient social
support (Brandwein, Brown, & Fox, 1974; McLanahan, Wedemeyer, & Adelberg, 1981; Billingsley & Giovannoni, 1971); finally, a number have maintained that single parent families have several advantages not present in two-parent families (Peters & Deford, 1978; Weiss, 1979a, 1979b).

It is important for social scientists to further the understanding of the single parent experience and of those factors which facilitate successful adaptation to this arrangement. The research literature has suggested many factors which impact upon the psychological adjustment of single parents, affecting their self-esteem, level of depression and anxiety, and satisfaction with life. Factors identified include race, amount of support from the father, socioeconomic status, amount of childcare assistance from friends and relatives, length of time being a single parent, and the extent of involvement in organizations and groups.

One factor, "worldview," has not received much attention in the literature. "Worldview" is a complex interacting network of values, beliefs, and attitudes an individual holds about oneself and the world and which, in turn, guides behavior. While many typologies of worldview have been proposed, the extent to which one advocates an Afrocentric, as opposed to Eurocentric, belief system may be particularly important. It has been suggested that single parents who have a more Afrocentric worldview are more psychologically adjusted than are those with a more Eurocentric one.

The primary purpose of the present investigation is to study the extent to which worldview affects one's reactions to being a single
parent. In particular, the degree to which one adopts an Afrocentric, as opposed to Eurocentric, worldview will be related to the quality of adjustment to single parenthood. The study will also explore the extent to which the other factors identified above facilitate successful adjustment to the single parent experience.

Toward these purposes, Chapter 2 of this dissertation summarizes the literature in the area of single parenthood, while Chapter 3 presents a statement of the research questions and hypotheses which will be investigated. Chapter 4 describes the methodology employed, while the results are presented in Chapter 5 and discussed in Chapter 6.
In the past 25 years, single parent families\(^1\) have become an increasingly common family structure. In the general population, the percentage of families headed by one parent has increased from 12.5% in 1960, to 13.2% in 1970, and to 17.6% in 1980 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980). Approximately 90% of single parent families are headed by females (Defrain & Elrick, 1981).

There are considerable racial differences in the prevalence of single parent families, with the percentage being significantly higher among Blacks. Among Black families, the percentage has increased from 14% in 1960, to 20% in 1970, and to 40% in 1980. In the same time frame, the percentage in White families has increased from 5% in 1960, to 7% in 1970, and to 11.8% in 1980 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1981).

Increasing numbers of children live in single parent homes. In 1970, 8.4 million children, or 12.5% of children under 18 years of age lived in one-parent families; by 1980, 12.2 million, or 20%, lived in one-parent families. In a decade in which the number of children declined by over 12%, the number in one-parent families

---

\(^1\)For purposes of this study, a single parent is one who raises her children alone and has the major responsibility for child care.
increased by 44% (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980). It is estimated that 50% of all children will live in a single parent home at some time before they are 18 years of age (Glick & Norton, 1977; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980; Bane, 1979).

Approximately 74% of single parent families stem from divorce or separation, although 15% are due to the death of a spouse and 11% to never married parents (Glick & Norton, 1977). Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978), Bane (1979), and Spanier and Glick (1981) point out that the tremendous increase in the divorce rate in the last quarter century is the primary cause of the increase in the number of single parent families. Staples (1981) has noted that almost all of the increase in single parenthood among Blacks is due to the increase in divorce rates.

Traditional Views of Single Parenthood

For the most part, the single parent family has been perceived in the research literature as a pathological entity. This traditional view is aptly summarized by Weltner's (1982) perspective of single parenthood:

It is a by product of the family disintegration that characterizes the dominant culture.
(p. 203)

Single parenthood has been implicated as having negative effects on the single parent (Weiss, 1979a; LeMasters, 1970; Schlesinger, 1975; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1977), the children in the single parent home (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978; Ferri & Robinson, 1976; Biller, 1976), and on the society at
large (Vickery, 1978; Smith, 1980b). As Verzaro and Hennon (1980) have noted, negative effects on the children lie at the core of the implication against the single parent family. Consequently, the majority of studies in this area investigate the impact, particularly of father absence (Longfellow, 1979), on the children. Relatively fewer studies focus on the parents themselves.

Because many of the effects of single parenthood on children and the larger society are mediated through the impact on the single parent, this review will focus on the psychological experiences facing single parents and related factors. As the vast majority of single parents are female, the experiences of single mothers will be emphasized.

Most investigations of single parents reach remarkably similar conclusions. As a whole, they indicate that single parents, especially mothers, experience a complex array of problems. In particular, as noted by Jauch (1977) and Schlesinger (1966), these include a wide range of financial and social difficulties, which, as a result, lead to single parents being psychologically less well adjusted than are those from two-parent families. Specifically, brief survey studies have suggested that single parents are more depressed (Bachrach, 1975; Pett, 1980; Guttentag, 1980; Radloff & Rae, 1979; Keith & Schafer, 1982), more anxious (Bachrach, 1975; Guttentag, 1980), have lower self-images (Guttentag, 1980), and are less satisfied with their lives (Pett, 1980; Weiss, 1979a) than are mothers from two-parent families. In sum, single mothers experience more distress than do any other marital status group.
McLanahan, Wedemeyer, and Adelberg (1981) have suggested that causal explanations of the positive relationship between single motherhood and psychological distress can be categorized into one of three models:

1. **Social Selection Model:** This early model suggests that pre-existing personality deficiencies in the mother lead to divorce and distress (Burgess & Cottrell, 1939; Bergler, 1948; Terman & Wallin, 1949). No causal relationship is posited between single parenthood and maladjustment. Rather, weaknesses in the mother herself lead to both outcomes.

2. **Social Causation Model:** According to this view, the single mother is ill-equipped and, often times, prohibited from successfully performing her parental duties (Glasser & Navarre, 1964; Chilman & Sussman, 1964; Sussman, 1971; Brandwein, Brown, & Fox, 1974).

3. **Social Vulnerability Model:** This model maintains that single mothers are more vulnerable than others to stressful life experiences and common everyday strains because they have fewer personal and social coping resources (Pearlin & Johnson, 1977; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978; Brown & Harris, 1978; Kessler, 1978). Thus, while they may be no inherent difficulties in being a single mother, problems persist because the single mother does not have as much access to social support as do other parents. The model suggests that if such support was provided, single mothers would adapt as well as do mothers from two-parent families.

Several important studies have analyzed the experiences of single mothers in considerable depth. These studies have used
extensive interviews, behavioral observations, and written instruments. By doing so, they have been able to further our understanding of factors associated with the greater distress experienced by single mothers.

Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1977) have conducted one of the most intensive longitudinal investigations of the effects of divorce on single parents. Because their study only investigated the short-term effects of single parenthood, its generalizability to established single parents is limited. However, some of the experiences of the mothers reported are suggestive of what other single mothers face.

Consistent with the survey studies previously mentioned, Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1977) found significant differences between the self concepts and emotional adjustment of parents in divorced and intact (control group) families. In the first year following divorce, divorced mothers felt more anxious, depressed, angry, rejected, and incompetent. Although diminished, the differences were still present after the two years of the investigation. Mothers of boys had greater adjustment problems than did mothers of girls. Negative changes in self concept and identity problems were greatest among mothers who had been married longest.

Many divorced mothers experienced a lack of satisfaction in their social lives, finding it difficult to establish meaningful and intimate interpersonal relationships. Almost all noted that socializing in our culture is organized around couples and that being a single woman with children significantly reduced recreational opportunities. Several mothers described themselves as prisoners, feeling
"walled in" or "trapped." This trapped feeling was more characteristic of nonworking mothers, who did not have the social opportunities working mothers had.

Weiss (1979a) interviewed over 200 single parents and a smaller number of married couples. Although the subjects' experiences differed depending on the causes of their single parent status (divorced, separated, widowed, never married), he found that most described their situation as burdensome. Not only were the single mothers responsible for home maintenance and a portion of child care (as they were when they were married), but they were, in addition, responsible for earning a living and all child care duties. Performing all of these tasks successfully, as most single parents were able to do, was overwhelmingly stressful and left them with no time for themselves. Weiss describes the single parent home as understaffed, explaining that the duties of maintaining a family are more easily accomplished with two partners. Similarly, LeMasters (1970), in his review of the literature, found that single parents have a very difficult time performing their role effectively. With the added roles required of single parents, role overload was common.

A sense of loneliness was very common among the mothers Weiss (1979a) interviewed. While many reported feeling lonely at times during (and particularly towards the end of) their marriage, the loneliness experienced as a single parent was more intense and pervasive. The loneliness, often triggered by contact with married friends or family, was experienced by the subjects in differing ways; some as an incessant emptiness or hollowness, some as anxiety, some
as physical tension, and some as depression.

Smith (1980a, 1980b) analyzed survey data from a national sample of over 5,000 families in The Panel Study of Income Dynamics of the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center. The data set included economic, attitudinal, and behavioral items for these families over a six year period. His findings largely were consistent with those of Weiss (1979a). Single parents were generally socially isolated, feeling powerless and participating infrequently in community activities. In fact, while some investigators (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978; Weiss, 1975) have suggested that the isolation of single parents improves over time, Smith (1980a) found no evidence in support of such a "recovery period."

Using the same data set, Smith (1980b) found that single parent families had less than half the median income of two parent families. Over 50% of the single parent families had incomes below poverty levels, while only 14% of the two parent families had incomes below this level. Eighty-nine percent of the male heads and 44% of their wives in two-parent families were employed. Among single parents, only 63% were employed.

Single parent families typically had to supplement their limited income with transfer payments, in the form of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), alimony, child support, or social security payments. The form of transfer payment varied by single parent type. Unmarried and separated parents were the most likely to receive welfare, while divorced parents were most likely to receive alimony and child support payments. Very few reported receiving any
financial assistance from relatives.

Many investigators (Weiss, 1979a; Herzog & Sudia, 1971) have noted the significant positive relationship between single parenthood and poverty. Vickery (1978) found that 44% of single mother families were below poverty standards. She further found that this situation was exacerbated because many absent fathers did not fulfill their responsibilities to make support payments. This latter finding is consistent with claims by LeMasters (1970) and Goode (1956) that at least 40% of absent fathers are delinquent with support payments. It is noteworthy that the father's financial support is still important even after he leaves the family.

A number of important studies have been conducted in other Western countries. For the most part, the results from these studies have been consistent with those from investigations in the United States. Ferri (1976) and Ferri and Robinson (1976) interviewed single parents and their children in 168 British families, of which 93 were headed by females. The mothers had lived without their spouse for an average of eight years. As has been found in virtually every study of single parents, financial problems were very common. Almost half of the single-mother families received welfare and over half reported that their present income was insufficient. This problem persisted throughout the four year period of the study. As might be expected, the lower socioeconomic status of single mothers resulted in problems in finding and maintaining adequate housing. Over one-quarter of the mothers reported having difficulties in this area.
As the women faced the challenge of being both a "mother" and a "father," most reported experiencing considerable emotional stress. Over time, there was an increasing sense of loneliness and isolation, which exacerbated the single parents' doubts and insecurities. Without anyone to share this burden, increased worries about the children's health and welfare compounded their situation. This emotional trauma was so severe that a majority of the mothers (72%) had experienced health problems since the break in their family. Over two-thirds had illnesses severe enough to miss several days at work, while a majority (56%) spent some time in a hospital.

One of the most comprehensive investigations of single parent families was conducted in Great Britain (Finer, 1974). Once again, the most significant problems facing the single parents in this study were financial and housing difficulties. One of the main personal problems facing the single parents families was their social isolation and loneliness. One contributor to this isolation was the frustration of foregoing sexual/romantic relations so as to avoid the notice of children and neighbors. The sense of alienation experienced by the mothers in the study was compounded by the lack of daycare services for young children.

Guyatt (1971), reviewing the Canadian research literature, also found that financial problems were the major concerns facing single mothers. He concluded that single mothers generally felt distant from community life, resulting in a sense of social alienation. A lack of daycare was identified as contributing to these problems. Another Canadian study (Canadian Council on Social Development, 1971)
interviewed 113 single parents and had results very similar to those from the Guyatt (1971) review. In addition, as did Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1977), many single parents recalled the period immediately following the separation as extremely stressful. Many reported feelings of bewilderment, grief, anxiety, loss of self-esteem, and helplessness. Daycare for children was identified by many as their most critical need.

Alternative View of Single Parenthood

In the last few years, a new and more optimistic view of single parenthood has emerged. While proponents of this view do not deny that single parents have considerable hardship, they are more likely to consider the resources single parents have at their disposal to address their difficulties. Specifically, proponents do not accept the notion that single parenthood is inherently dysfunctional, but rather attend to the advantages and opportunities single parents have to lead more satisfying lives.

Before addressing the relevant research literature, it is interesting to note that much of the popular literature has adopted this alternative view of single parenthood. A number of recent books have proclaimed the benefits and advantages to being a single parent and have provided a number of helpful hints to aid single parents. Klein (1973), for example, views single parenthood as a revolutionary outgrowth of the traditional nuclear family. While recognizing the social and personal problems facing single mothers, she considers single motherhood to be a viable and liberating alternative to the
restricting and often times oppressive nuclear family. Atlas (1981) similarly suggests that:

Single parent families can be healthy and satisfying and they offer unique opportunities for personal growth for each member—provided we understand and base our efforts on the single parent family, rather than try to make our families identical to two parent families either through imitation or remarriage. (p. xi)

He has identified seven potential benefits to parents and children living in single parent homes:

--a reduction in tension, hostility, and discord within the family and an increase in family solidarity;
--parents have flexibility in planning quality time with the children;
--a democratic working together approach to problem solving and daily living;
--an opportunity for growth and sharing;
--children have benefit of experiences from two independent adults having different spheres of influence, assuming the father is an active parent;
--participation in the extended single parent community;
--the opportunity for young people to mature, gain independence, and feel needed and valued as contributing members of the household.

Other resources provide more direct advice for the single parent. Turow (1977) helps divorced parents communicate effectively with the children, Hallett (1974) applies a Transactional Analysis
approach to help single parents deal with the effects of death, divorce, and other losses, and Watts (1976) offers a Christian approach to fulfilling oneself as a single parent. More general suggestions are provided by Bel Geddes (1974) and Knight (1980), who offer helpful hints for single parents in a multitude of areas, including overcoming loneliness, dealing with sexual issues, maintaining the household, cutting expenses, accepting one's situation, improving one's self-image, finding employment and many others. In almost any imaginable area, these resources provide suggestions and helpful tidbits. Bel Geddes (1974) conclusions provide an accurate summary of the popular literature:

Single parenthood, in some ways, combines the disadvantages of both matrimony and the single life. A single parent has unavoidable familial duties and worries along with a certain amount of loneliness due to the lack of any live-in adult companionship.

However, that is only one way—the negative and destructive way to look at it. It would be equally true to say that single parenthood combines the advantages of both states of life, the gratification of parenthood along with the comparative freedom of singleness. (p. 292)

Much of the recent research literature has generated conclusions which closely parallel those in popular writings. In fact, while not denying that being a single parent is problematic, some (Billingsley & Giovannoni, 1971; Brandwein, Brown, & Fox, 1974) have claimed that many studies have, by nature of the methodology employed, had an inherent bias toward finding negative outcomes for single parent families. Smith (1980) has shown that many studies employ clinical populations as subjects, who because they are receiving services are
more likely to have significant problems. The same argument applies to those studies which employ lower socioeconomic subjects, who are more likely to have problems regardless of their family status.

Other traditional studies may have generated misleading findings by specifically studying the problematic features of single parent lives. Perhaps because the culture expects single parents to experience difficulties, both researchers and single parent subjects emphasize negative outcomes. Finer (1974) and Ferri (1976) based many of their conclusions on questions asking single parents to describe the major problems in their lives. Such a procedure does not provide results representative of the total single parent experience. Another study (Weiss, 1979a), while not limiting the investigation to the identification of problems, appears to devote a considerable portion of the assessment to difficulties. A final criticism levied at much of the traditional single parent research is that it fails to consider individual differences among single parents (Mendes, 1979; Billingsley & Biovannoni, 1971; Verzarro & Hennon, 1980). Conclusions from studies not recognizing this variability may be applicable to only a small subsample of single mothers.

With these cautions in mind, some researchers have built a case that single parenthood is not inherently pathological (Kadushin, 1968), and that, in fact, there can be advantages to being a single parent. In his study discussed earlier, Weiss (1979a) identified several benefits to being a single parent:

--It's better than a bad marriage.

--It's nice to be able to decide things for yourself.
Weiss (1979a) noted that several factors facilitated the single mother's ability to realize these benefits. Because the mothers' greatest difficulties were a lack of support, those receiving support from the other parent, from relatives, from friends, or formal groups or organizations had more positive experiences.

In addition, from interviewing adolescents living in single parent homes, Weiss (1979b) found that single parent homes were structurally and functionally different from two-parent families. In particular, two-parent households maintain a hierarchical structure which does not allow the children significant responsibility in household maintenance. By contrast, children in single parent homes have far greater responsibilities. Weiss suggests that the long range consequences for the children may be an early maturity. As a result, the single mother may have an improved relationship with her children.

From her professional experience, Mendes (1979) has challenged traditional assumptions that single parents have only one lifestyle characterized by inept attempts at being both mother and father to the children. She has developed a conceptualization of five distinct life-styles of single parents, which are described below:

**Type 1: Sole Executive**

In this lifestyle, the single parent is the only parent actively involved with the children. This most often occurs in families in which the father has died, but also occurs in families in which the
father has no contact with the family. With all of the parental responsibilities lying on her shoulders, emotional, physical, and social overload are a significant risk.

However, this risk is minimized to the extent that the single mother perceives her role as a "contributing coordinator." Such a mother contributes what she can without undue stress and then coordinates the allocation of other functions to competent individuals outside of the family. Families able to integrate themselves into an extrafamilial support system are more likely to function successfully within this lifestyle.

Type 2: Auxiliary Parent

This single parent shares one or more parental responsibilities with an auxiliary parent who does not live with the family. Typically, the auxiliary parent is the father who maintains some contact with the children following divorce or separation. This contact usually takes the form of visitation and child support. Less frequently, both parents take turns being auxiliary parents in co-custody arrangements.

While there are risks associated with this lifestyle (recreation of family conflict, establishment of false hopes of reconciliation by either parent or the children) it does allow the children the psychosocial support of both parents. It can also result in the parents having an increased appreciation of each other.

Type 3: Unrelated Substitute

In this situation, the single parent shares one or more parental responsibilities with an unrelated person, who may or may not live
with the family. Examples include friends, lovers, or housekeepers who functionally serve as surrogate parents.

The primary risk involved with this lifestyle is that the unrelated substitute may have no emotional attachment or commitment to the children or to their welfare. He may simply tolerate the children for the sake of a relationship with the mother. Child abuse is the extreme form of what may result from this lack of commitment. A further risk is that children may be exposed to a series of unrelated parental figures. This situation is damaging to the extent that the single parent and the children have developed close attachments to the unrelated parental figures, who then leave.

However, the lifestyle does provide the opportunity for the single parent to have some assistance in performing parental duties without the commitment to marriage. For example, some single parents who are pursuing a career have found that careful selection of a live-in housekeeper frees them to concentrate on their profession and their children without having to meet what for them are unwelcome demands of a marital relationship.

Type 4: Related Substitute

The related parental substitute is a blood or legal relative who assumes a parental role, although he or she is not the actual parent of the children. This role can be assumed by grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins, or siblings of the children.

The pre-existing relationship between the single parent and the related substitute constitutes a major risk associated with this life-style. Economic considerations, often force single parents to
return to their parents' homes. In this situation, the parent may revert to functioning like a child in regard to her own parents. There is also the possibility that there will be conflict concerning how to raise the children.

The presence of a related substitute does offer important opportunities and benefits to the family. Especially if the extended family system is cohesive, a stable support system can be established in which there is a lifelong commitment to the welfare of the children.

**Type 5: Titular Parent**

In this life-style, the single parent has, in effect, abdicated the parental role. Examples include single parents who are alcoholics, drug addicts, or psychotic. The single parent acts like one of the children. Frequently, there is anarchy in the family as each member struggles to have his or her needs met.

Mendes (1979) conceptualization illustrates the wide variety of lifestyles characteristic of single mothers. By showing that some lifestyles are likely to be more successful than others, she demonstrates that it is inaccurate to generalize that single parent families are necessarily dysfunctional. Supporting Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978) and Weiss (1979a), single parent families are likely to be effective to the extent that they access support from the father, relatives, and friends.

From their review of the literature, Verzaro and Hennon (1980) have challenged several myths relating to single parents. While recognizing the difficulties many single parents have (lack of social support systems, insufficient financial resources) they suggest there
are a number of potential strengths to this familial arrangement:

--provision for greater adult self-expression since accountability is limited only to the children;

--greater family nurturance than the previously unstable family experience;

--greater exposure of the children to a wide variety of potential socializing agents and models.

Racial Differences in Adaptation to Single Parenthood

It is generally accepted that single parent families are more common among Blacks than Whites (Moynihan, 1965; Jackson, 1973; Ryan, 1976). There are reasons to believe that Blacks and Whites may experience single parenthood differently, although the precise differences have yet to be confirmed empirically.

The impact of single parenthood on Black families has been a controversial subject in the research literature (Fine, Myers, 6 Schwebel, in preparation). Some have implicated the greater proportion of single parents among Black families as causally responsible for the lower socioeconomic status of Black Americans (Moynihan, 1965; Lewis, 1955; Rainwater, 1970), while others (Ryan, 1976; Billingsley, 1968; Hill, 1972; Stack, 1974) have claimed that the lower socioeconomic status of Black Americans is due to discrimination and oppression and not to any inherent problems among single parent families. These later investigators have challenged the assumption that single parent families are responsible for negative outcomes for its members.
Several studies have suggested that the negative effects of single parenthood may be less potent in Black families. While these investigations have primarily studied children and adolescents, they indirectly speak to the adjustment of single mothers. Hartnagel (1970) studied 113 Black and 162 White adolescents from both single and two parent families. His results indicated that adolescents from single parent Black families had significantly lower mean differences between their actual and ideal self-concepts than did White adolescents from single parent families. No racial differences were found among adolescents from two parent families. Hartnagel suggests that Black single mothers may be more effective than their White counterparts.

Nobers (1968) also investigated the relative effectiveness of Black and White single mothers. Using a sample of 48 lower class mothers and their adolescent sons equally divided by race and family status, he found that boys from single parent families were significantly more masculine than those from two-parent families. In addition, the Black mothers were more flexible than their White counterparts.

Hunt and Hunt (1975, 1977) analyzed survey data from 1,917 White and Black adolescents in the areas of personal identity and success goals. He found that single parenthood had damaging effects on White adolescents' self-images, but not on Black adolescents. In fact, Black male adolescents from single parent families had higher self-images than did Black males from two-parent families. These effects cut across social class. Similarly, Hurley (1972)
studied the vocational aspirations of 182 Black and White working class adolescents. At least in this area, there were no detrimental effects from living in a single parent family. Hurley suggests that society, and peer groups in particular, may provide compensation for father absence. In the same vein, in their study of 101 16 to 17-year old Black males living in single parent homes, Wilkinson and O'Connor (1977) found that the adolescents' social and academic competence was positively related to maternal emphasis on the development of social, educational, and community-oriented skills.

Several studies have suggested that support from other men in the community facilitates child development. Rubin (1974) administered a self-concept questionnaire to 280 Black fifth and sixth graders and found no self-concept differences between those from two-parent and single parent households. According to Rubin, the availability of male role models outside the home was important to these children. Morris (1977) studied professionally employed Blacks living in middle class neighborhoods who grew up in single parent families. These individuals did not feel that their homes were "broken" and reported that their father, although absent, was nevertheless still important. The community offered support in the form of surrogate or substitute fathers.

Those advocating the position that Blacks adapt more successfully to single parenthood (Jackson, 1973; Peters & Deford, 1978; Staples, 1978), typically have identified three factors as responsible for this more positive adaptation:
1) Greater Extended Family Support Systems

A number of investigators have documented the great importance of the extended family network in the Black community. Johnson (1934) found that over half of the households studied in Macon County, Alabama had other relatives living in the household. Powdertaker (1939) and Lewis (1955) found that extended family members were frequently present among all socioeconomic groups. In their longitudinal study of Black families in Mississippi, and Chicago, Shimkin, Shimkin and Frate (1978) documented the importance of the extended family. They found that such families, sometimes consisting of over 100 individuals, were quite adaptive in terms of survival and social mobility. Similarly, Stack (1974), Billingsley (1968), Aschenbrenner (1978) and McAdoo (1978) have found that the extensive extended family system was very adaptive, sometimes resulting in upward mobility for its family members. In terms of single parent families, the extended family allows them to perform the same functions as two parent families by accessing support from friends and relatives.

2) Greater Value Placed on Children

Nobles (1978), King (1976), and Aschenbrenner (1978) have suggested that Black culture places greater value on children than does White culture. Stemming from African cultures which are child-centered (Sudarkasa, 1980; King, 1976), advocates of this position (Staples, 1976) maintain that Black families perceive children, having value in themselves, as worthy of nurturance and love throughout their life regardless of achievement; while, among White families, children are often loved and supported only if they comply to parental
or social values. With reference to single parent families, the
great value placed on children would suggest that the necessary
commitment to children is not perceived as oppressive or as demanding
as it is among White mothers.

3) Greater Acceptance of Single Parenthood

Peters and Deford (1978) have claimed that single parenthood is
more accepted among Blacks than it is among Whites. Because such
families are more common in the Black community, because of extended
family support systems, and because of the suggested greater value
placed on children, the single parent home is considered by Blacks
to be a viable family structure. According to this view, the notion
that the intact nuclear family is the ideal arrangement is not as
accepted among Blacks.

World View as a Determinant of Adaptation to Single Parenthood

This review has previously identified several factors which may
facilitate successful adaptation to the single parent experience.
These include support from the father, regular help from friends or
other relatives with childcare, being employed, and having a sup­
portive social network.

However, researchers of single parenthood have generally not
sought to identify factors within the mother herself which may aid
in her adaptation to being a single mother. One such factor may be
the worldview or belief system which the mother endorses. As
deﬁned in this study, a worldview or belief system is "a highly
structured, complex, interacting set of values, expectations, and
images of oneself and others, which guide and in turn are guided by a person's perceptions and behavior and which are closely related to her emotional states and feelings of well-being" (Frank, 1977, p. 27). The more enduring features of one's world view become organized into attitudes with cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. Frank (1977) views the cognitions as organizing and guiding behaviors, which in turn are driven and activated by emotions. Consequently, worldview ultimately determines the course of reactions to the external environment. As a result, one would expect that one's world view would have considerable impact on one's adjustment.

This factor has been considered by several Black family researchers (Staples, 1976; Jackson, 1973; Nobles, 1978), who have suggested that remnants of an African world view have aided Black American families adapt to oppressive conditions. With respect to single parent families, they have proposed that advocating such a world view, perhaps more common among Blacks, may be related to more positive reactions to being a single parent.

Mbiti (1970), Dixon (1976), and Myers (1981) provide an overview of an African world view and describe how it differs from a Euro-American one. In particular, Myers (1981) and Dixon (1976) have described how these views differ in general and specifically in terms of ontology, the study of the nature of reality; axiology, the study of the values that one holds; epistemology, the study of the nature of knowledge; and logic, the study of how one reasons and organizes what one knows. These differences are depicted in Table 1 and described below.
Table 1

Major Differences in African-Oriented and Euro-American-Oriented World Views

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>World View</th>
<th>Euro-American</th>
<th>African</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ONTOLOGY</td>
<td>Materiality</td>
<td>Spiritual/Material as one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AXIOLOGY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human/Nature Relations</td>
<td>Man-to-Object (I-It)</td>
<td>Man-to-Person (I-Thou)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mastery over Nature</td>
<td>Harmony with Nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>Communalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highest Value in</td>
<td>Highest Value in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acquisition of Objects</td>
<td>Interpersonal Relationships Among</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Men/Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Future, Divisible</td>
<td>Past-Present, Continuous Felt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linear Clock</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Doing</td>
<td>Being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPISTEMOLOGY</td>
<td>Object-Measure Cognition</td>
<td>Affect-Symbolic Imagery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOGIC</td>
<td>Dichotomous</td>
<td>Diumital</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Segmentation versus Holism

The Euro-American view is a segmented one in the sense that aspects of the universe are often perceived as isolated and discrete. The individual is considered separate from other people, nature, and independent of other features of the universe. This sense of separateness distances the individual from the phenomenological world and, consequently, is manifested in the desire to control, master, and exploit nature and other people (Capra, 1975). By contrast, the African world view stresses the interrelatedness and interconnectedness of all entities. Human beings are in harmony with themselves, with others, and with nature. As such, there is no need to control or dominate in this communal view because to do so would be, in essence, to harm a part of oneself.

Examples of the differences between a segmented and holistic orientation can be found in their treatment of time. Within the Euro-American perspective, time is perceived as a quantifiable and divisible entity which is valued in itself as an important commodity. The present is valued only to the extent that it prepares one for a future which is anticipated to be better. In contrast, the African world view regards time simply as a composition of events that have occurred, which are taking place now, and those which are immediately to occur (Mbiti, 1970). Time has to be experienced to be real and, therefore, there can be no future because it has yet to be experienced. Time is not divisible into quantifiable units as on a clock, but by the nature of what is being experienced. Consequently, the
concept of lateness has no meaning because pre-planned activities do not take precedence over what is being experienced in the present.

Ontology

The Euro-American ontology holds that what is material is real. What is observable with the five senses is reality. On the other hand, the African world view perceives reality to be spiritual and material at once (Myers, 1981). That is, information perceived through the five senses is considered to be a manifestation of universal spirit. Reality, then, is extrasensory (beyond the five senses).

Axiology

There is an important value difference between the two world views. Euro-American culture places highest value on acquisition of objects and the accumulation of material wealth. The Afrocentric view, on the other hand, places highest value on interpersonal relationships among men/women.

Epistemology

The Euro-American orientation emphasizes the acquisition of knowledge by measuring some aspect of objects in an external world. Because the self is separated from the phenomenological world, gaining knowledge requires that an "objective" stance be taken to analyze some aspect of the external world, typically by counting and measuring. By contrast, the African world view assumes self knowledge to be the basis of all knowledge. Self in this system
extends beyond the traditional concept to include all ancestors, the yet unborn, all of nature and the entire community (Nobles, 1972). Since everything is in essence spirit, the extended self is an image of and is symbolic of this spirit. Therefore, one knows about all things through symbolic imagery and rhythm. Rhythm is defined by Dixon (1971) as the way things, ideas, and human beings fit together to form the whole representative of spirit. This view is analogous to the dynamic view in modern physics that postulates a subatomic particle to exist only as a manifestation of the interaction between various processes of measurement. According to Pasteur and Toldson (1982),

Rhythm becomes an instrument of knowledge, in that Blacks only know, convincingly, be it person or object, when their instincts have seized the waves emanating from the other who represents the object of knowledge. (p. 72)

Logic

The Euro-American world view organizes information in a dichotomous fashion. All things fall into one category or another, but not into more than one category at the same time. This "either-or" logic is consistent with a separatist world view emphasizing the division between objects. The African world view, on the other hand, employs diunital logic. Diunital refers to the notion that things are alike and different or dynamic and static at the same time. Thus, an object or an entity can be viewed as constantly changing in one sense and as remaining the same in another sense. Thus, diunital logic emphasizes the unity that contains and
transcends all opposites.

As discussed earlier, several investigators have suggested that maintaining this Afrocentric world view has helped Black Americans adapt to oppression. They have argued that individuals who are less materialistic, who base their worth on internal criteria, who are cooperative, and who live in harmony with other people and nature are more able to successfully adjust to difficult circumstances, including single parenthood. Inherent in this argument is that all individuals (Black and White) would benefit from advocating such a belief system. With respect to single parenthood, one would expect that adjustment to single parenthood would be facilitated to the extent that Black and White mothers advocated an Afrocentric belief system.

While all individuals may benefit from advocating this belief system, investigators have primarily associated this Afrocentric world view with Black Americans. This is the case because investigators note that the Afrocentric world view is indigenous to traditional African culture and has been transmitted to Black Americans (Daniel & Smitherman, 1974; Walton, 1972). While Black Americans have to a large extent been socialized into Euro-American culture, several researchers (Nobles, 1978; King, 1976; Akbar, 1976; Dixon, 1976) maintain that this African cultural heritage is still expressed in Black American families. Thus, while it may be rare to find Blacks who adopt the Afrocentric world view in its entirety, there is general agreement that certain portions of this Afrocentric lifestyle are currently expressed among Blacks (King, 1976; Nobles,
1978; Staples, 1976). In fact, Staples has claimed that this Afro- centric expression is reflected in differing values between Black and White Americans (see Table 2). It should be noted, however, that there is some controversy regarding this latter conclusion. Stack (1974), Rodman (1971), and Kamii and Radin (1967) found that Blacks and Whites have similar values regarding educational and socioeconomic advancement.
Table 2
Comparison of Black and White Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Black</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Time</td>
<td>An element by which individual compulsively regulates his life. Punctuality is highest priority.</td>
<td>Flexible adherence to schedules. What is happening now is important and one must adapt to ranges in time rather than fixed periods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Emotions</td>
<td>To be under rigid control in order to maintain discipline and not reveal emotional weakness. Be very guarded in public settings and never to be fully released.</td>
<td>Expression of natural feelings in all settings, public and private. Spontaneity in response to events and gestures is common. Be uninhibited and loose in reactions to verbal and physical stimuli. Let your inner feelings show and exude warmth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Money</td>
<td>To be frugal in its use, saved for future purposes. To be accumulated even when not needed in order to possess the value it has. Often used to control persons who have little of it and limited access to its acquisition.</td>
<td>Used to further communalism. Money per se is not important, not the measure of human value. Wealth is consumptive rather than exploitative. How money is used more important than its acquisition. Property is collective asset.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Morals</td>
<td>Strongest ones relate to personal morals such as sexual behavior, belief in God, cleanliness, etc.</td>
<td>How you treat people is of highest priority. Helping people in need is important moral. Abstaining from harm to people or groups.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Black</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5) Status</td>
<td>Based on income, family background, cultural skills, amount of power over others.</td>
<td>Stem from personal qualities such as courtesy, compassion, friendliness, and naturalness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Children</td>
<td>Often extensions of parents. Loved and supported if conform to prental values. Love is withdrawn if deviate from certain social norms. Expected to achieve status similar to or higher than parents.</td>
<td>Seen as value in themselves, to be nurtured as a dependent being and loved throughout life regardless of achievement. Creativity and free expression are encouraged. Regarded as equals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) Individualism</td>
<td>Each person must compete for prestige, cultural goals. Rewards for competition are his alone, to be shared only with family. Those who have not achieved have only themselves to blame.</td>
<td>Concept of individual usually subordinate to group orientation. Group that is important and Black self is an incorporated part of social group. Cooperation through collective efforts is accepted means of achievement goals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adopted from Staples (1976).
CHAPTER 3

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The large and increasing number of single parents points to the need for research into those factors facilitating a successful adaptation to this arrangement. This study seeks to further our knowledge by addressing the relationship between a single parent's world view and the quality of her adjustment to single parenthood. In particular, the extent to which an Afrocentric, as opposed to Eurocentric, belief system facilitates successful adaptation to single parenthood will be explored. In addition, a number of other issues addressed in the literature will also be investigated. Because the overwhelming majority of single parents are female, this study will specifically address the experiences of single mothers.

This chapter is organized into three sections. The first section presents the major hypotheses. For each, a focused summary of the related literature will be provided. The second section considers the impact of several mediating variables which may impact on the adjustment of single mothers. Once again, supporting evidence related to the nature of the expected relationships will be summarized. Finally, the third section describes the dependent variables identified as important in the literature. For the purposes of this study, these dependent variables will serve as operationalized
Major Hypotheses

**Hypothesis 1**: Black mothers will have a more Afrocentric orientation than will White mothers.

There has been some controversy concerning racial differences in values and world view. Dixon (1976), Baldwin (1981), Staples (1976), Akbar (1976), and Nobles (1978) have suggested that because of their African cultural heritage, Black Americans have a differing world view and value orientation than do White Americans. Staples (1976) has made the most detailed presentation of proposed value differences between Blacks and Whites emerging from this Afrocentric orientation.

However, Kamii and Radin (1967), Rodman (1971), and Stack (1974) have claimed that Blacks share the same values as do Whites. These investigators have found that Blacks have the same goals (good education, good jobs, secure family life) as does mainstream society, but that they have less opportunity to achieve them.

**Hypothesis 2**: Single parent mothers will have less positive reactions to the motherhood experience than will mothers from two-parent families.

The literature has been quite consistent with respect to the psychological correlates of single parenthood. Researchers from both the traditional and alternative perspectives have clearly stated that single mothers are likely to experience more emotional distress than mothers from two-parent families. As compared with mothers from
two-parent families, single mothers are more depressed (Bachrach, 1975; Pett, 1980; Guttentag, 1980), more anxious (Bachrach, 1975; Guttentag, 1980), and less satisfied with their lives (Pett, 1980; Weiss, 1979a). These outcomes are considered to be the results of a number of financial, social, and personal stresses which they are more likely to experience than are mothers in two-parent families.

While this conclusion is shared by the vast majority of researchers, they differ with respect to the prospects for single parents and family members in coping with these stressors. The traditional work has emphasized that this psychological distress has long range negative impacts for parents and children in single parent families. Thus, the single parent structure is considered as undesirable and as less optimal than the nuclear family structure. By contrast, those from the alternative position maintain that the existence of these difficulties provides unique growth opportunities for all family members. Furthermore, they suggest that there are advantages to single parents that are not shared by nuclear intact families.

**Hypothesis 3:** Reactions to single motherhood will be more positive for those adopting a more Afrocentric, as opposed to Eurocentric, orientation.

Several researchers (Staples, 1976; Noble, 1978; King, 1976) have identified features of an Afrocentric world view as being causally responsible for the ability of Black Americans to adapt successfully to an oppressive environment. These investigators have maintained that certain characteristics of African culture, called
"African survivals," have persisted in contemporary Black culture. While perhaps not expressed in their original form, these characteristics are reflected in a variety of ways in the behavior of Black Americans. With respect to family life, it has been suggested (Peters & Deford, 1978; Jackson, 1973; Sudarkasa, 1980) that these African survivals have created a world view which has facilitated the successful adaptation of many Black single parent families.

The most complete descriptions of an African world view are provided by Mbiti (1970), Dixon (1976), and Myers (1981). While they have many similarities, Myers' (1981) is the most detailed. Her model will be employed in the present investigation.

**Hypothesis 4:** Black single mothers will have more positive reactions to the motherhood experience than will White single mothers.

A number of investigators (Sudarkasa, 1980; Jackson, 1973; Staples, 1976; Peters & Deford, 1978) have suggested that the negative effects of single parenthood may be less potent in Black families. Nobers (1968), Hartnagel (1970), Morris (1977), Hunt and Hunt (1975, 1977), Hurley (1972), and Rubin (1974) have found evidence that children in Black single mother families are not adversely affected. These authors maintain that Black mothers may be more effective than their White counterparts. In addition, many of these investigators (Morris, 1977; Rubin, 1974; Hurley, 1972) found that the absent fathers were still very important figures in these families and that Black children had a number of significant male role models in their lives.
There have been several explanations posited for the potentially more successful adaptation among Black single parent families:

1) In addition to the father's continued important role, Black families have greater extended family support systems (Johnson, 1934; Powdermaker, 1939; Shimkin, Shimkin, & Frate, 1978; Stack, 1974; Billingsley, 1968; McAdoo, 1978); 2) Black families may place greater value on children than do White families (Nobles, 1978; King, 1976; Aschenbrenner, 1978; Staples, 1976); and 3) Single parenthood is more accepted among Black families (Peters & Deford, 1978; Sudarkasa, 1980).

Mediating Variables

The literature has identified several variables as mediating the effects of single parenthood on family members. These variables have been shown to either enhance or inhibit the quality of adaptation to the single motherhood experience. These are discussed below:

Support from the Father

Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978), Weiss (1979), Mendes (1979), Morris (1977), Hunt and Hunt (1975, 1977), Hurley (1972) and Rubin (1974), have found that the amount of support from the father is a particularly important determinant of the quality of the single mother's adjustment. As a whole, these studies suggest that single mothers' adjustment is facilitated to the extent that the father provides support for her in her various functions. This could include help with daily activities, help with childrearing, financial
aid, and emotional support. It is expected in the present study that there will be a positive relationship between the amount of support from the father and the quality of adjustment to single motherhood.

**Amount of Time in the Present Family Arrangement**

Studies showing that reactions to single motherhood improve over time (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1977; Weiss, 1979a; Canadian Council on Social Development, 1971) suggest that the single mother's adjustment will be more positive the longer she has had to adapt to her present family situation. Given the time to realize her role, the single mother may begin to successfully coordinate the many activities necessary to manage a household.

While Smith (1980a) found that the isolation of single parents does not improve over time, the majority of studies showing that single parents can successfully adapt to their situation implicitly assume that adjustment improves over time. According to this view, mothers can establish a successful and stable single parent lifestyle to the extent that they have time to learn how to manage their situation. This perspective is consistent with notions from crisis theory that personal crises are initially viewed as traumatic and lead to disorganization, but, which eventually, result in adaptation, growth, and a newly developed ability to cope with difficult situations (Caplan, 1961; Finkel, 1975). Thus, it is predicted that there will be a positive relationship between the quality of adjustment to single motherhood and the number of years the mother has been
a single parent.

**Socioeconomic Status**

Virtually all studies (Weiss, 1979a; Smith, 1980b; Vickery, 1978; Ferri, 1976; Finer, 1974; Guyatt, 1971) have concluded that financial difficulties compound the single mother's dilemma. These researchers have suggested that financial problems lie at the core of the emotional distress that single mothers experience. A positive relationship between socioeconomic status and quality of adjustment to single motherhood is expected.

**Amount of Help from Relatives and Friends**

Support from extended family has been identified as facilitating adjustment for single parents (Aschenbrenner, 1978; Mendes, 1971; Sudarkasa, 1980; Stack, 1974; McAdoo, 1978; Jackson, 1973). These authors have suggested that extended family may fulfill certain functions usually assigned to the absent parent. Most often, this help involves child care. It is predicted in the current study that single mothers receiving more support from relatives and friends will have more positive reactions to single parenthood.

**Number of Children**

While this variable is not often identified, it seems consistent with the literature to assume that it would affect the single mother experience. In particular, the significant stressors facing single mothers would appear to be more potent the more children she
has. Since mothers with more than one or two children face a significantly greater managerial challenge than do mothers with fewer children, it is expected that they will have less positive reactions to the single motherhood experience.

**Dependent Variables**

Reactions to single motherhood have been shown to vary along a number of dimensions. Those most commonly identified are self-esteem (Pett, 1980), depression (Bachrach, 1975; Pett, 1980; Guttentag, 1980), anxiety (Bachrach, 1975; Guttentag, 1980), and dissatisfaction with life (Weiss, 1979; Pett, 1980). Consequently, these variables will be assessed in the current investigation. These constructs will collectively serve as operational definitions of adjustment to single motherhood.
CHAPTER 4
METODOLOGY

Subjects

Subjects were 146 mothers in Central Ohio living with at least one of their own children. The experimental group consisted of 40 White and 20 Black single mothers. The control group consisted of 54 White and 32 Black mothers living in two-parent families. The mean age of the participants was 35 years, with a range from 18 to 58 years. The mothers had a mean of 1.8 children living with them. With reference to socioeconomic status, 89% were employed at the time of the study, their average family income ranged from $16,000 to $24,000 per year, and the mean number of years of education was 13. Mothers from two-parent families had significantly higher family incomes than did their single counterparts. There were no other significant differences among the above mentioned groups on any demographic dimensions.

Recruitment was conducted to obtain a range of racial groups (Black and White), family status (single and two-parent), occupational status (employed and not employed), and income levels. Participants

2In the original design, subjects were to be recruited only from area churches. However, for a number of reasons, this method was not successful, necessitating the revised plan of subject identification and recruitment.
were contacted from the following sources:

1. **Ohio Bell** - Seventy-one (71) participants were recruited from administrative support staff at Ohio Bell in Columbus, Ohio.

2. **Parents Without Partners** - Seventeen (17) subjects were recruited from Central Ohio chapters of Parents Without Partners, a self-help support group for single parents.

3. **Columbus Department of Health Well Child Clinics** - Five (5) subjects were identified from Well Child Clinics sponsored throughout the city by the Columbus Department of Health. These clinics are designed to provide preventive health care services to mothers and their children.

4. **Churches in the Columbus Area** - Thirteen (13) subjects were located from three Central Ohio churches, The Seventh Day Adventist Church, the St. Phillips Lutheran Church, and the Immaculate Conception Church.

5. **Health Care Facilities** - Twenty-three (23) participants were recruited from the staffs of two health care facilities, the Southwest Community Health Centers, Inc. in Columbus and the Bethesda Memorial Hospital in Zanesville. The former provides primarily mental health services and the latter primarily physical health services.

6. **Individuals** - Seventeen (17) subjects were individually recruited by researchers assisting in the administration of the instrument battery. These subjects were identified as being mothers who might be interested in participating in the study. None of these participants had any prior knowledge of the purpose of the study.
Instruments

Participants completed a series of five self-report instruments. Each is described below:

1. Belief Systems Analysis Scale - This scale (see Appendix A) was developed by Myers (1982) to measure the degree to which an individual structures his/her belief system in adherence to the Afrocentric model she has posited. The 20 items on this scale are designed to measure the degree to which an individual utilizes the philosophical assumptions and principles of the Afrocentric worldview, in contrast to a Eurocentric orientation, as the basis for constructing reality.

The 20 Likert-type items are each scored from 1 (never believe) to 5 (always believe). After adjusting for question wording, the total score can range from 20 to 100. To account for missing data, a mean score for the instrument was computed as the total score divided by the number of items completed. This mean score (which could range from 1 to 5) was used in the subsequent data analysis. The lower the average score, the more Eurocentric the belief system, while the higher the score, the more Afrocentric the orientation.

The instrument has not yet received thorough empirical testing. Thus, no psychometric properties can be assessed at this time. However, the questionnaire was field tested on a number of individuals, including both mothers and university students. Five mothers (1 Black single mother, 2 White single mothers, and 2 White mothers from two-parent families) familiar to the investigator but who had no prior knowledge of the study, were administered an earlier
version of the instrument. In addition, fifteen university students (mostly Black) in a class entitled "Mental Health in the Black Community" also were field tested. These field tests resulted in significant improvements in the final version of the instrument.

2. Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale - The Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) was developed to globally measure self-esteem. The paper and pencil inventory (see Appendix B) contains 10 items and takes only two or three minutes to complete. Items were specifically chosen that had good face validity and were worded to control for social desirability responding, acquiescence response set, and unnecessary interpretive difficulties. As noted by Wylie (1974), Rosenberg is one of the few investigators who used Guttman scaling to develop a unidimensional measure of global self-regard.

Rosenberg's instrument is subdivided into six subscales. The first three items comprise Scale I, the next two items comprise Scale II, the sixth item comprises Scale III, the seventh item comprises Scale IV, the eighth item comprises Scale V, and the last two items comprise Scale VI. Each scale is scored as either a 0 or a 1, with a 1 indicating low self-esteem and a 0 reflecting high self-esteem. A 1 is recorded if two out of three (Scale I), one out of two (Scales II and VI), or one out of one (Scales III, IV, and V) of the items are answered as agree or partially agree with the statement indicating low self-esteem. Thus, scores on the instrument can range from 0 to 6, with 6 reflecting extremely low self-esteem and 0 reflecting a high self-image. Rosenberg considered scores of 0 or 1 to be reflective of a high self-image, with scores
of 2 to 6 to be reflective of low self-esteem. Once again, a mean score was computed for this instrument. This score was calculated as the total score divided by the number of scales completed. The average score can range from 0 to 1.

As is true for instruments employing Guttman scaling, successive items represent differing degrees of strength of the hypothetical construct, which in this case is self-esteem. One index of reliability of such instruments is the consistency with which a subject responds. This estimate of reliability, called the coefficient of reproducibility, is based on the notion of "error." An error is a response by the subject to an item in a manner that is incongruent with the scale type to which he has been assigned. For example, if responses on other items indicate that the subject has high self-esteem, then a response indicating low self-esteem on an item is considered to be an error. An index of error for the entire scale can be obtained such that:

\[
\text{Reproducibility} = 1 - \frac{\text{total number of errors}}{\text{number of items} \times \text{number of subjects}}
\]

Rosenberg (1965) obtained a coefficient of reproducibility of 0.92 for 5,024 subjects in a New York high school. A two-week test-retest reliability coefficient of 0.85 was reported by Silber and Tippett (1965) in their study of 28 college students. Wylie (1974) points out that it is impressive that such high reliability is attainable with only 10 items.
Silber and Tippett (1965) correlated Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale scores from 44 college students with three other measures of self-esteem. The resulting validity coefficients are among the highest observed in cross-instrument correlations (Wylie, 1974):

1. Kelly Repertory Test, sum of (Self-Ideal) discrepancies, on 20 bipolar dimensions, \( r = 0.67 \).

2. Health Self-Image Questionnaire, sum of 20 selected items, \( r = 0.83 \).

3. Interviewers' ratings of self-esteem, \( r = 0.56 \).

Construct validity has been demonstrated by associating Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale scores with other measures to which self-esteem is theoretically expected to be related. From a number of studies, Rosenberg (1965) reports that high school students with lower self-esteem were more often rated as depressed, as having more anxiety and psychosomatic symptoms, were more interpersonally insecure, participated less in extracurricular activities, and were less often nominated by peers as leaders.

3. State-Trait Anxiety Inventory - The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (see Appendix C) was developed as a measure of anxiety by Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene (1970) to aid in distinguishing between transitory emotional states (state anxiety) and relatively stable personality dispositions (trait anxiety). The inventory contains 40 items written at a fifth or sixth grade reading level which generally can be completed in 15 minutes.

The instrument has two scales, each having 20 Likert-type items. On one scale, the examinee is instructed to respond to statements as she generally feels (trait anxiety), while, on the other, the
examinee is instructed to respond as she feels at the moment (state anxiety). Subjects rate themselves on a four point continuum for each item on each scale.

Scores on both forms range from 20 to 80, with 20 reflecting almost no anxiety and 80 reflecting a tremendous amount. Mean scores were computed for each scale by dividing the total score by the number of completed items on each scale. These mean scores can range from 1 to 4.

Kendall, Finch, Auerbach, Hooke, and Mikulka (1976) conducted a factor analysis of the principal components of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory and their analysis yielded three primary factors: one Anxiety-Trait factor, labelled as Cognitive Anxiety, and two Anxiety-State factors which were labelled as Negative and Positive Descriptors. Thus, there appears to be evidence that both the state and trait anxiety constructs are adequately assessed by the instrument.

Test-retest reliability coefficients for the Trait Anxiety scale vary between 0.86 and 0.73, while, on the State Anxiety scale, they vary between 0.54 and 0.27 for a retest period of 20 days and 104 days, respectively (Hedberg, 1971). In a more recent study, Metzger (1976) found the test-retest reliability to be 0.97 for the Trait Anxiety Scale. Inter-item consistency is quite high for both scales, as Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficients ranged from 0.83 to 0.92 (Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970).

In his review of the instrument, Hedberg (1972) asserts that validity data lend good support for the theoretical basis of the state and trait anxiety constructs. Construct validity is demonstrated by
the fact that state anxiety items consistently vary with different experimental states of stress, while trait anxiety items do not (Spielberger et al., 1970). Additional evidence of the construct validity of the inventory may be found in studies by Auerbach (1971), Spielberger, Lushene, and McAdoo (1977), Lushene (1970), McAdoo (1969), Edwards (1969), and Hall (1969). Consequently, the instrument appears to be a valuable research tool (Levitt, 1967; Spielberger, 1972).

4. Beck Depression Inventory - The Beck Depression Inventory (see Appendix D) was developed by Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock, and Erbaugh (1961) and has been very widely used as a research instrument in measuring depression. The test takes approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

The instrument contains 21 items measuring a variety of symptoms related to depression. Each item is scored from 0 to 3, with 0 being the least indicative of depressive symptomology and 3 being the most indicative. The total score, therefore, ranges from 0 (no evidence of depression) to 63 (extreme depression). For research purposes, Beck and Beamesderfer (1974) specified a score of 21 as indicative of "pure" depression. For detecting depression in normal populations, a score of 0 to 9 is considered to reflect a lack of depression, 10 to 15 indicates mild depression, 16 to 23 reflects moderate depression, and scores from 24 to 63 indicate severe depression (Schwab, Bialow, Clemmons, Martin, and Holzer, 1967). As with the other instruments, mean scores, ranging from 0 to 3, were computed as the total score divided by the number of items.
completed. This mean score was used in the subsequent data analysis.

With respect to the reliability of the instrument, Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock, and Erbaugh (1961) obtained a corrected split-half reliability coefficient of 0.93, based on a psychiatric sample of 409 patients. Using data from 48 patients who were tested twice within two to six weeks, reliability was inferred from the parallel between changes on the Beck Depression Inventory scores and clinical ratings of depression. Miller and Seligman (1973) reported a test-retest reliability coefficient of 0.74 for thirty subjects tested a three month interval.

Beck and Beamesderfer (1974) reported high item-total correlations on an item analysis of the Beck Depression Inventory. They also factor analyzed the instrument and found a general factor with significant positive loadings for every item. Beck and Beamesderfer also identified three additional factors. They were labeled "negative view of self and future," "physiological," and "physical withdrawal." Thus, the instrument appears to tap a general depression dimension and three more constructs related to specific depressive symptomatology.

The instrument appears to have considerable validity. Beck and his colleagues (1961) found a highly significant association between scores on the inventory and clinical ratings by psychiatrists of the depth of depression. In fact, the inventory successfully discriminated severely depressed from nondepressed patients with 91% accuracy. In discriminating individuals with milder forms of depression from nondepressed individuals, the accuracy was still
83%. Lukesch (1974) administered the instrument to thirty 20 to 53 year old depressed patients, thirty 23 to 55 year old matched nondepressed controls, and forty-two 20 to 30 year old psychology students. All 21 items differentiated the depressed patients from the other two groups. Similar findings have been reported by May, Urquhart, and Tarran (1969), Salkind (1969), and Metcalfe and Goldman (1965).

More recently, Bumberry, Oliver, and McClure (1978) investigated the utility of the inventory for survey use in a college population by determining its concurrent validity using psychiatric rating of depth of depression as the criterion. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between scores on the inventory and psychiatric ratings was 0.77, suggesting that the Beck Depression Inventory is a valid instrument to use in detecting depression in a normal population.

The Beck Depression Inventory has been found to be highly related to other self-report depression inventories, such as the MMPI-D, the Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale, and the Costello-Comprey Depression Scale, and to interviewer rating scales, specifically the Hamilton Rating Scale (Mayer, 1978). It appears that the Beck Depression Inventory has much in common with measures that assess a range of symptoms, regardless of whether the rater is the patient or the clinician.

In order to provide support for the construct validity of the instrument, Beck and Beamesderfer (1974) cited investigations that supported a variety of hypotheses concerning depression in which the
Beck Depression Inventory had been the criterion measure. Beck and Beck (1972) reported that the instrument had been used as the criterion measure in more than one hundred published studies.

In their reviews of the psychometric properties of the instrument, Woody (1980) and Fabry (1980) conclude that the inventory has sufficient psychometric properties to be a useful index of depression. In fact, Woody (1980) claims that the Beck Depression Inventory is the most consistently reliable self-rating measure of depression.

5. Reactions to Motherhood Survey - This instrument (see Appendix E) assesses the extent to which women have successfully adapted to the experience of being a mother. Because no adequate instrument was available, the present author developed this 30 item scale to measure three areas important in a woman's reaction to motherhood (demographic information, satisfaction with motherhood, family and social supports). The instrument was field tested on the same sample of mothers who completed early versions of the Belief Systems Analysis Scale. The suggestions and comments of these mothers greatly improved the final version of the instrument.

Demographic Information

Several questions gathered demographic data from subjects. Questions 1 to 7 assess the subject's age, the number and sex of her children, occupational status, years of education, income (on a scale ranging from 1 = less than $8,000 per year, 2 = $8,000 - 15,999 per year, 3 = $16,000 - 23,999 per year, and 4 = more than $24,000
per year), and sources of income. Questions 26 to 29 assess the present family status of the subject and how long this arrangement has lasted. Question 30 identifies the subject's race.

**Satisfaction with Motherhood**

To assess satisfaction with being a mother, several questions asked for information related to the motherhood experience. Questions 8 to 15 ask, on a 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely) rating scale, how satisfying, rewarding, stressful, and difficult the experience has been. Question 16 offers subjects the opportunity to give advice to a prospective mother concerning how readily she should pursue having a child. Finally, Questions 17 and 18 ask, in an open-ended fashion, what the most and least satisfying parts of being a mother are.

Items 8 through 16 were combined into a "Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale." After adjusting for question wording, the resulting scale scores can range from 9 to 44, with higher scores indicating greater satisfaction with motherhood. As with the other dependent measures, an average score was computed for this scale.

**Family and Social Supports**

Several items assess the degree to which certain family members, friends, or social groups have facilitated positive reactions to motherhood. Questions 19 and 20 assess the extent of the father's support, in terms of his assistance in conducting daily activities and the quality of his relationship with his children. These later
items were combined into a "Father Support Scale," consisting of a linear sum of the scores on these two items. A mean score was also computed for this scale.

Questions 21 and 22 identified the extent to which relatives or friends regularly helped with childrearing, while Questions 23 to 25 identified those groups or organizations which the subject was a member of and identified the degree to which these groups were helpful.

Procedure

The testing procedure varied somewhat based on the manner in which the subjects were recruited. To secure the cooperation of subjects, it was necessary to be responsive to the manner in which they desired to be tested. For example, the testing procedure used with Ohio Bell and Parents Without Partners was determined by the practical arrangements under which the agreement was established. The administrative procedures for each source of subjects is described below.

Ohio Bell

The investigator met with two supervisory managers at Ohio Bell to describe the purpose of the study and to explore the possibilities of securing the participation of some of their employees. The aim of the study was described as exploring the motherhood experience, the single motherhood experience, and factors which facilitate successful adaptation to these phenomena. The managers, noting that their employees had participated in several research
investigations, readily agreed to participate in the study.

It was suggested that a sealable envelope (for confidentiality purposes) be given to mothers by their immediate supervisor. Within the envelope were the instruments and a cover letter asking for their cooperation (see Appendix F). The completed instruments were returned in the sealed envelopes to the supervisory managers. When the completed instruments were returned to the supervisory managers, the principal investigator picked them up.

One hundred (100) envelopes were distributed. Of these, 71 were completed and returned. Following this period, the subjects were told by their immediate supervisors of the purpose of the study. As was also emphasized in the cover letter, subjects were further told that they would receive a brief summary of the results of the investigation.

Parents Without Partners

The four Central Ohio chapters of Parents Without Partners were contacted by the investigator concerning the possibility of making a presentation on the experiences of single parents. Each chapter was presented with the option of an evening presentation on the topic of single parenthood and factors which facilitate successful adaptation to this experience. As a part of the program, members would be asked to complete the series of questionnaires to help generate discussion and increase participant's sensitivity to their own experiences as a single parent.

All four chapters agreed to this arrangement. Two to three hour presentations were made by the investigator to chapters on the topic of single parenthood. Before the presentations, subjects
voluntarily completed the instruments in the presence of the investigator. Following this, participants were informed in more depth of the purpose of the investigation. They were told that the study was exploring how the experiences of single mothers was similar or different from those from two-parent families, and further, how one's world view was related to how well one reacted to this experience. The discussion that followed focused on these issues. All subjects were assured of confidentiality and that they would receive a copy of the results.

Columbus Health Department Well Child Clinics

Cooperation from the Columbus Health Department was granted by the Director of Maternal and Child Health Services. Permission was given for the investigator to attend sessions of each of the Well Child Clinics located at three different locations around Columbus.

One session at each center was attended. While the mothers were waiting for their children to be served, mothers in the waiting rooms were approached, acquainted with the study, and asked if they would like to participate. If they agreed, the series of instruments were individually administered to each mother by the investigator. Following the administration, a more complete description of the investigation was provided. All subjects were assured of confidentiality.

Churches in the Columbus Area

Contacts were made at each of three Columbus area churches, St. Phillips Lutheran Church, Seventh Day Adventist Church, and Immaculate Conception Church. The ministers or church members
contacted were told of the purposes of the study and were asked for a list of names of mothers who might participate in the investigation. Lists were generated from each church.

Mothers on the lists were contacted individually by the investigator, told of the aims of the study, and asked if they wished to participate. If they agreed, home visits were arranged. During the home visits, the instruments were individually administered. Following the administration, a more detailed presentation of the study was made.

Health Care Facilities

Employees of Southwest Community Health Centers, Inc., in Columbus and Bethesda Hospital in Zanesville who were mothers were asked if they would like to participate in a study of the motherhood experience. After being informed of the purpose of the study and assured of confidentiality, those agreeing to participate were individually tested by the investigator. Following this, a further presentation of the aims of the study was provided.

Individuals

To assist in survey administration, several other researchers (faculty and graduate students) who were intimately aware of the purposes and testing procedures of the study, were trained in the administration of the instruments. They identified and tested mothers who were interested in participating in an investigation of the motherhood experience. The individuals they tested had no prior knowledge of the study.
Data Analysis

Three primary analyses were conducted. Each is described below:

Analyses of the Belief Systems Analysis Scale

Because of the Belief Systems Analysis Scale is a newly developed instrument, responses to the 20 items on the scale were factor analyzed in an attempt to assess and empirically define the underlying constructs which they measure. In addition, reliability data was generated. Measures of coefficient alpha and split-half reliability were calculated for the items on the scale.

Tests of the Primary Hypotheses

A two-factor between subjects analysis of variance was conducted to test Hypothesis 1. The two factors were race (Black and White) and family status (single and two-parent family). The dependent measure was the mean score on the Belief Systems Analysis Scale.

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were computed to test Hypotheses 2, 3 and 4. Five separate multiple regression analyses were performed, one for each of the following dependent measures assessing reactions to the motherhood experience: 1) Mean score from the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory; 2) Mean score from the Beck Depression Inventory; 3) Mean score from the State Anxiety Inventory; 4) Mean score from the Trait Anxiety Inventory; and 5) Mean score from the Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale.

Two sets of variables were entered sequentially into each of the regression equations. The first set contained three variables: 1) Race; 2) Family status; and 3) Worldview, measured by the mean
score on the Belief Systems Analysis Scale. These were entered first because the primary hypotheses in the investigation involved these variables. The second set of variables entered into the regression equations contained all possible interactions of the first three variables. Entering these second in the equation allows one (in exactly the same fashion as in classical analysis of variance) to assess the unique impact of the interactions of the three variables. By doing so, one gains the maximal amount of information related to the contribution of each of the three primary variables.

Tests of the Impact of Mediating Variables

To assess the extent to which several mediating variables impact upon adjustment to single motherhood, a simultaneous multiple regression analysis was performed. Separate simultaneous regression analyses were computed for each of the following criterion variables: 1) Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale; 2) Beck Depression Inventory; 3) State-Anxiety Inventory; 4) Trait Anxiety Inventory; and 5) Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale. For each of the separate regression analyses, the following predictors or mediating variables (see this chapter for explanation of scoring) were entered into the equation simultaneously: 1) Amount of support from father; 2) Age; 3) Number of Children; 4) Number of years in the present family arrangement; 5) Income; 6) Education; 7) Help from friends in childcare; and 8) Help from relatives in childcare.
CHAPTER 5
RESULTS

The results of this investigation will be presented in four sections. The first section describes analyses assessing the psychometric properties of the Belief Systems Analysis Scale. Second, the performance of the sample on the instruments assessing adjustment to single motherhood is presented. Third, the results of tests of the major hypotheses are presented. Finally, analyses assessing the impact of several mediating variables are describes.

Analyses of the Belief Systems Analysis Scale

Factor Analysis

To assess and empirically define the underlying constructs which the items on the Belief Systems Analysis Scale measure, the 20 items on the instrument were factor analyzed. An R-type factor analysis was performed using a principle axis extraction method with squared multiple correlations as communality estimates.

Table 3 presents the results of the factor analysis. Eigenvalues for the first 10 factors were 3.06, 2.06, 1.71, 1.53, 1.40, 1.12, 1.09, 1.03, .91, and .83. A scree test and an analysis of discontinuity (Rummel, 1970) suggested that five factors be retained,
Table 3
Factor Pattern for the 20 Items on the Belief Systems Analysis Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item**</th>
<th>Optimism</th>
<th>Holistic Orientation</th>
<th>Idealized Order</th>
<th>Internal Sense of Worth</th>
<th>Spirituality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BSAS1***</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>-0.046</td>
<td>-0.023</td>
<td>0.393*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS2</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.529*</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>-0.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS3</td>
<td>-0.156</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>1.002*</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS4</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>-0.231</td>
<td>0.228</td>
<td>-0.056</td>
<td>0.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS5</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>-0.356*</td>
<td>0.147</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.292*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS6***</td>
<td>-0.247</td>
<td>-0.045</td>
<td>-0.040</td>
<td>0.659*</td>
<td>-0.138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS7</td>
<td>-0.004</td>
<td>-0.368*</td>
<td>-0.073</td>
<td>-0.074</td>
<td>-0.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS8</td>
<td>-0.175</td>
<td>-0.469*</td>
<td>0.178</td>
<td>-0.282*</td>
<td>-0.178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS9</td>
<td>0.106</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.186</td>
<td>0.275*</td>
<td>-0.230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS10</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>-0.604*</td>
<td>-0.068</td>
<td>-0.066</td>
<td>-0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS11***</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.412*</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS12***</td>
<td>0.010*</td>
<td>0.314</td>
<td>0.135</td>
<td>-0.132</td>
<td>0.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS13</td>
<td>0.564*</td>
<td>-0.236</td>
<td>-0.049</td>
<td>0.193</td>
<td>0.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS14</td>
<td>0.671*</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
<td>-0.160</td>
<td>-0.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS15</td>
<td>0.599*</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>-0.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS16</td>
<td>0.421*</td>
<td>-0.119</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>-0.131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS17</td>
<td>0.548*</td>
<td>-0.035</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
<td>0.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS18</td>
<td>0.237</td>
<td>-0.061</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>-0.008</td>
<td>-0.412*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS19</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>-0.626*</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>0.140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSAS20</td>
<td>0.458*</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>-0.052</td>
<td>-0.029</td>
<td>0.064</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Items meeting criteria for inclusion on factor.
**See Appendix A for wording of items.
***To assure that higher scores were indicative of greater Afrocentrism, responses to these items were recoded in reverse order (5 = 1, 4 = 2, 2 = 4, 1 = 5).
these accounting for 48.9% of the variance. An oblimin oblique rotation\(^3\) was performed on these five factors.

As is standard practice (Rummel, 1970; Harmon, 1976), items which had high loadings\(^4\) on the rotated factors were assigned to those factors. In the present study, tests of the significance of the factor loadings (Harmon, 1976) indicate that one of .26 or greater is significantly greater than zero (p < .05). Consequently, items were assigned to factors if their loadings on the rotated factors were greater than or equal to .26. The items included on each factor are listed below in descending order of the magnitude of their loadings. All loadings are positive unless otherwise noted.

**Factor 1: Optimism:** (accounting for 15.3% of the variance)

The following six items comprise Factor 1:

- **Item 14:** My attitude is one of "expecting a miracle."
- **Item 15:** I believe everlasting happiness, peace, and well-being can be known starting now.
- **Item 13:** I seek a greater understanding of my relationship with God.
- **Item 17:** I believe that faith is substance.
- **Item 20:** To love is superior.
- **Item 16:** I love other people no matter what they do.

\(^3\)An oblique rotation was chosen for two reasons (Comrey, 1978; Rummel, 1970): 1) Oblique rotations provide more information concerning the relationships among factors than do orthogonal rotations. By allowing the factors to intercorrelate, the relationships among constructs can be investigated; and 2) Oblique rotations provide a solution more approximating the reality of the relationships among items and inferred constructs.

\(^4\)There are no clear guidelines prescribing how high an item's factor loading must be before it is included on a factor. Rather, interpretation of factor constructs is a subjective process. Rummel (1970) and Harmon (1976) advocate coupling an overall understanding of the data with the use of significance tests assessing whether the factor loadings are significantly greater than zero.
Factor 2: Holistic Orientation: (accounting for 10.3% of the variance)

Factor 2 is composed of the following six items. All except the last one (Item 12) load negatively on the factor.

Item 19: I believe that all things are interrelated and inter-connected.
Item 10: For every solution technology provides, another problem or two is created.
Item 8: Most things we think of as opposites are most often opposite sides of the same coin. They can be most properly understood as a single positive whole.
Item 7: I believe that some things are dynamic and static at the same time.
Item 5: I believe that nothing in the material world is ever perfect for any length of time.
Item 12: I am not a competitive person.

Factor 3: Idealized Order (accounting for 8.6% of the variance)

Factor 3 contains the following two items:

Item 3: Life is meant to be carefree.
Item 2: Everything is perfect.

Factor 4: Internal Sense of Worth (accounting for 7.7% of the variance)

Four items comprise Factor 4, with the third (item 8) loading negatively on the factor:

Item 6: My good and well-being are not in the hands of other people.
Item 11: My sense of worth is not based on my looks, socio-economic standing, or other external criteria.
Item 8: Most things we think of as opposites are most often opposite sides of the same coin.
Item 9: I am a positive thinker.

Factor 5: Spirituality (accounting for 7.0% of the variance)

Factor 5 is composed of three items. The first (item 18) loads negatively on the factor.
Item 18: I feel as though I am a contented observer of my own life.
Item 1: What is real cannot be known through the five senses alone.
Item 5: I believe that nothing in the material realm alone is ever perfect for any length of time.

These five factors are not highly interrelated. As shown in Table 4, factor intercorrelations are small. Only two items on the instrument (items 5 and 8) were assigned to more than one factor. Item 4 was not assigned to any of the five factors, indicating that the dimension it taps is not related to those assessed by the factors.

Reliability

Two measures of reliability were computed for the responses on the Belief Systems Analysis Scale. A coefficient alpha of .60 revealed that the instrument has poor to moderate internal consistency. The scale had a split-half reliability of .36.

Performance of Sample on Instruments

Table 5 reveals the means and standard deviations on each instrument for the sample as a whole and presented by race and family status. As the table shows, the mothers had a mean score of 1.31 on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. This mean score approximates Rosenberg's (1965) criterion (scores of 0 or 1) for high self-esteem. Single parents had lower self-esteem levels than did mothers from two-parent families.

The sample's mean score on the Beck Depression Inventory was 9.97, falling between Schwab et al.'s (1967) criterion for a lack of depression (scores of 0 to 9) and moderate depression (scores of 10
Table 4
Simple Correlations among Factors on the Belief Systems Analysis Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Optimism</th>
<th>Holistic Orientation</th>
<th>Idealized Order</th>
<th>Internal Sense of Worth</th>
<th>Spirituality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Optimism</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-0.130</td>
<td>0.167</td>
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<td>0.052</td>
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<td>0.044</td>
<td>1.000</td>
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<td>-0.024</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-0.078</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1.000</td>
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</table>
Table 5
Means and Standard Deviations on Instruments Assessing Adjustment to Motherhood

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
<th>Single Parent</th>
<th>Two-Parent</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale(^1)</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beck Depression Inventory(^2)</td>
<td>9.97</td>
<td>9.58</td>
<td>12.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State-Anxiety Inventory(^3)</td>
<td>37.64</td>
<td>12.30</td>
<td>39.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait-Anxiety Inventory(^3)</td>
<td>37.75</td>
<td>11.97</td>
<td>37.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale(^4)</td>
<td>30.44</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>30.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\)Higher scores indicate lower self-esteem.

\(^2\)Higher scores indicate greater depression.

\(^3\)Higher scores indicate greater anxiety.

\(^4\)Higher scores indicate greater satisfaction.
to 15). Single mothers, on average, reported greater levels of depression than did mothers from two-parent families.

The mothers had mean scores of 37.64 and 37.75 on the State and Trait Anxiety scales, respectively. Although no norms have been established for this instrument, these mean scores (on a scale having scores ranging from 20 to 80) may be considered to indicate moderate levels of anxiety. Single mothers reported experiencing more anxiety than their two-parent counterparts.

No norms have been established for the Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale. In general, the sample reported being very satisfied as mothers, scoring a mean of 30.44 out of a possible 44 total points. Mothers from two-parent families reported being more satisfied than single mothers. Among single mothers, Black mothers were more satisfied than their White counterparts.

Tests of the Major Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Black mothers will have a more Afrocentric orientation than will White mothers.

A two factor (race and family status) analysis of variance was computed to test the hypothesis. The dependent measure was the mean score on the Belief Systems Analysis Scale.

Table 6 presents the means and standard deviations from the analysis of variance, while Table 7 presents the results. As the tables reveal, significant main effects were found for race ($F = 8.31$, $df = 1,140$, $p < .01$) and for the race X family status interaction ($F = 5.67$, $df = 1,140$, $p < .02$). To explore the meaning of this
### Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations for the Mean Scores on the Belief Systems Analysis Scale by Race and Family Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Status</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean  SD</td>
<td>Mean  SD</td>
<td>Mean  SD</td>
<td>Mean  SD</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-Parent</td>
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<td>3.19  0.345</td>
<td>3.29  0.389</td>
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<tr>
<td>Single-Parent</td>
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<td>3.18  0.322</td>
<td>3.19  0.345</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.37  0.395</td>
<td>3.19  0.344</td>
<td>3.25  0.374</td>
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</table>

### Table 7

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Mean Score on the Belief Systems Analysis Scale

<table>
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<th>Source of Variance</th>
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<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
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<td>1.057</td>
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<td>0.319</td>
<td>2.507</td>
<td>.116</td>
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<td>Race x Family Status</td>
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<td>0.721</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Error</td>
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<td>0.127</td>
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</table>
significant interaction, separate one factor (race) analyses of variance were computed at each level of family status. The results indicated that Black mothers from two-parent families had significantly higher levels of Afrocentrism ($F = 11.77, df = 1,39, p < .001$) than did White mothers from two-parent families. No racial differences were present among single mothers.

Since the significant main effect for race was primarily the result of a significant difference in degree of Afrocentric orientation between Black and White mothers from two-parent families, the hypothesis is only partially confirmed.

**Hypothesis 2:** Single parent mothers will have less positive reactions to the motherhood experience than will mothers from two-parent families.

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were computed to test this hypothesis, as well as Hypotheses 3 and 4. Five separate multiple regression analyses were performed, one for each of the following dependent measures assessing reactions to the motherhood experience: Mean score from the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, the Beck Depression Inventory, the State Anxiety Inventory, the Trait Anxiety Inventory, and the Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale.

Two sets of variables were entered sequentially into each of the regression equations. The first set contained three variables: race, family status, and worldview, as measured by the mean score on the Belief Systems Analysis Scale. These were initially entered because the primary hypotheses in the investigation involved them. The second set of variables contained all possible interactions of
the three variables described above.

Table S reveals the means and standard deviations on the dependent measures broken down by family status and race. The results of the regression analyses are presented in Tables 8-12. As the Tables reveal, differences in the expected direction were found on every dependent measure. Significant differences were found on the State Anxiety Inventory \((F = 7.35, df = 1,107, p < .01)\), the Trait Anxiety Inventory \((F = 4.42, df = 1,107, p < .05)\), and the Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale \((F = 16.6, df = 1,107, p < .001)\).

A significant family status X race interaction \((F = 5.38, df = 1,103, p < .025)\) was found on the Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale. To analyze meaning of this interaction, separate one factor (race) analyses of variance were computed at each level of family status. The results indicated that Black single mothers are significantly more satisfied with being mothers \((F = 5.44, df = 1,24, p < .025)\) than are White single mothers. In fact, Black single mothers are as satisfied as are White and Black mothers from two-parent families. Thus, as a group, White single mothers are significantly less satisfied than the other groups studied.

A significant family status X race X worldview interaction \((F = 4.50, df = 1,103, p < .05)\) was found on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. To explore the meaning of this interaction, a separate multiple regression analysis was computed with the data from single mothers. The results indicated that, for those single mothers having a more Afrocentric orientation, Black mothers have lower self-esteem than White mothers. On the other hand, for those single mothers
having a more Eurocentric orientation, Black mothers have higher self-esteesms than their White counterparts.

As a whole, the findings indicate that the hypothesis is confirmed.

**Hypothesis 3:** Reactions to single motherhood will be more positive for those adopting a more Afrocentric, as opposed to Eurocentric, orientation.

Tables 8-12 present the results of the multiple regression analyses testing this hypothesis. As the tables illustrate, differences in the expected direction were found on every dependent measure. The differences were significant on the Beck Depression Inventory ($F = 4.99, \text{df} = 1,107, p < .025$), the Trait Anxiety Inventory ($F = 6.66, \text{df} = 1,107, p < .025$), and the Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale ($F = 6.65, \text{df} = 1,107, p < .025$). No significant interactions were found involving the worldview dimension. Therefore, single mothers (as well as those from two-parent families) who were more Afrocentric had more positive reactions to the motherhood experience. Thus, the hypothesis is confirmed.

**Hypothesis 4:** Black single mothers will have more positive reactions to the motherhood experience than will White single mothers.

Table 5 presents the means and standard deviations for the dependent measures broken down by race and family status. The results of the regression analysis are illustrated in Tables 8-12. A significant race X family status interaction was found on the Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale ($F = 5.38, \text{df} = 1,103, p < .025$). As discussed
under Hypothesis 2, the interaction illustrates that Black single mothers were significantly more satisfied with the motherhood experience than were White single mothers. One factor (race) analyses of variance computed from the data from the single mothers revealed no significant racial differences on the other dependent measures.5

Thus, the hypothesis is partially confirmed.

Tests of the Impact of Mediating Variables

Before discussing the impact of the mediating variables on the adaptation of single mothers, it is important to consider how single mothers and mothers from two-parent families compare on these measures. The means and standard deviations for measures of the mediating variables, presented by race and family status, are shown in Table 13.

As the table shows, there are significant (p < .0001) differences between single mothers and mothers from two-parent families on three measures; the amount of support from the father, income, and number of years in the present family arrangement.

On the father support scale, possible scores range from 2 to 14. While mothers from two-parent families were at the midpoint of the range (M = 7.76), single mothers reported receiving very little support from the fathers (M = 3.59). On the income measure (1 = less

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5 It is interesting to note that significant or near significant main effects for race were found on the Beck Depression Inventory and the Trait Anxiety Inventory. Separate one factor (race) analyses of variance computed at each level of family status revealed that these main effects were due to racial differences among mothers from two-parent families.
than $8,000 per year; 2 = $8,000-15,999 per year; 3 = $16,000-23,999 per year; 4 = more than $24,000 per year), mothers from two-parent families had significantly higher incomes ($\bar{M} = 3.36$) than did single mothers ($\bar{M} = 2.53$). In addition, mothers from two-parent families had lived in their present family arrangement for a significantly longer period of time ($\bar{M} = 12.14$ years) than had single mothers ($\bar{M} = 4.80$ years).

While no other differences across family status reached significance, mothers from two-parent families had slightly more children, more education, and a greater number had regular childcare assistance from friends or relatives than did single mothers. It is also noteworthy that few of the 146 mothers reported receiving help from friends (44) or relatives (21) on a regular basis.

There were no significant racial differences on the mediating variables. However, Black mothers had slightly lower family incomes, slightly higher educational levels, and slightly more children than did the White mothers.

To assess the impact of these mediating variables on adjustment to single motherhood, simultaneous multiple regression analyses were performed with the data from the single mothers. Separate simultaneous regression analyses were computed for each dependent variable assessing the quality of adaptation to single motherhood; self-esteem, depression, state-anxiety, trait-anxiety, and satisfaction with motherhood. In each equation, the mediating variables discussed above were simultaneously entered.
As shown in Table 14, the eight variables collectively did not account for a significant portion of the variance on any dependent measure. The proportion of variance collectively accounted for by the mediating variables ranged from a low of 5% on the Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale to a high of 27% on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory.

Only two mediating variables accounted for a significant portion of the variance on any dependent measure. The amount of time in the present family arrangement accounted for a significant or near significant portion of the variance on two dependent measures: the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (F = 6.05, df = 1,33, p < .025) and the Trait Anxiety Inventory (F = 3.14, df = 1,33, p < .10). In both cases, the effect was in a direction opposite to that expected. Mothers who had been single parents the longest had lower self-esteem and higher reported levels of trait anxiety. The number of years of education accounted for a significant portion of the variance on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (F = 4.51, df = 1,33, p < .05). Single mothers having more education had higher self-esteem. No other mediating variable accounted for a significant portion of the variance on any dependent measure.
Table 8
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis
of Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables in Equation</th>
<th>Multiple R</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
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<td><strong>Step 1</strong></td>
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<td>Worldview</td>
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Table 9
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Beck Depression Inventory

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<th>Variables in Equation</th>
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<th>F</th>
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Table 10
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of State Anxiety Inventory

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Variables in Equation</th>
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<th>F</th>
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Table 11
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Trait Anxiety Inventory

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<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
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<td><strong>Step 2</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Family Status</td>
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<td>0.05</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worldview</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Status x Race</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>.60</td>
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<tr>
<td>Family Status x Worldview</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Race x Worldview</td>
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<td>1.28</td>
<td>.025</td>
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<tr>
<td>Race x Family Status x Worldview</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>0.367</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
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<td></td>
<td>103</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
### Table 12

Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables in Equation</th>
<th>Multiple R</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Family Status</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.60</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Worldview</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>0.446</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.86</td>
<td>.001</td>
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<td>Residual</td>
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<td>107</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 2</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
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<td>0.23</td>
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<tr>
<td>Family Status</td>
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<td>0.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worldview</td>
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<td>1.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Family Status $\times$ Race</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>.025</td>
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<tr>
<td>Family Status $\times$ Worldview</td>
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<tr>
<td>Race $\times$ Worldview</td>
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<tr>
<td>Race $\times$ Family Status $\times$ Worldview</td>
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<tr>
<td>Model</td>
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<td>0.239</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>Residual</td>
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<td></td>
<td>103</td>
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</tr>
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</table>
## Table 13
Means and Standard Deviations on Items Assessing Mediating Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mediating Variable</th>
<th>Family Status</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support from Father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3.6*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Years of Schooling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.53*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Years in Present Family Arrangement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>4.8*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Relatives Helping with Childcare</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Friends Helping with Childcare</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Father Support Scale scores ranged from 2 to 14.
2 Income was coded as follows: 1) less than $8,000 per year; 2) $8,000 to 15,999 per year; 3) $16,000 to 23,999 per year; 4) Over $24,000 per year
3 Numbers are raw totals of numbers of mothers reporting at least one person as helping with childcare.

*p < .0001
### Table 14

**Summary of Simultaneous Multiple Regression on All Mediating Variables Combined**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Measure</th>
<th>All Mediating Variables Combined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Multiple R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale</td>
<td>0.521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beck Depression Inventory</td>
<td>0.405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Anxiety Inventory</td>
<td>0.380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait Anxiety Inventory</td>
<td>0.389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Motherhood Scale</td>
<td>0.214</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>1</sup>The effect is insignificant at $p < .05$. 
CHAPTER 6
DISCUSSION

This chapter is organized into four sections. The first discusses the results relating to world view and its effects on adjustment to single motherhood. The second considers findings related to the psychological adjustment of single mothers. The third and fourth suggest implications for future research and for psychological and community interventions to improve the adjustment of single mothers.

World View and its Effects on Single Motherhood

Effects on Adaptation to Single Motherhood

The present investigation has provided support for the argument that holding an Afrocentric, as opposed to Eurocentric, belief system is positively associated with the quality of adaptation to the single mother experience. Specifically, mothers who advocated a more Afrocentric orientation (as measured by the Belief Systems Analysis Scale) had higher levels of self-esteem, lower amounts of depression, lower levels of anxiety, and were more satisfied with being mothers. Thus, the results partially confirm the findings of Nobles (1978), Staples (1976), Sudarkasa (1980), and Myers (1981) that maintaining an Afrocentric world view facilitates adaptation to
difficult and challenging environmental circumstances, such as single motherhood.

To understand the relationship between degree of Afrocentrism and quality of adaptation to single motherhood, it is important at this point to consider the specific constructs which characterize the Afrocentric belief system as measured in this study. The Belief Systems Analysis Scale assesses a wide variety of beliefs, which, in combination, form a broad measure of world view. Several items were constructed to measure the degree to which an individual adheres to the philosophical tenets of an Afrocentric belief system, including degree of optimism, level of self-confidence, internal-external locus of control, competitiveness, materialism, spirituality, and religious involvement. The results of the factor analysis of the scale generally confirm that these key constructs are assessed, or, specifically, that the instrument taps five relatively unrelated constructs: 1) Optimism; 2) Holistic orientation; 3) Idealized order; 4) Internal sense of worth; and 5) Spirituality. Accordingly, it is apparent that those women who are more optimistic, more self-confident, have an internal locus of control, have a more holistic orientation, who are less competitive, more spiritual, and less materialistic, are generally less depressed, less anxious, have higher self-esteem, and are more satisfied with being mothers than are their counterparts.

It appears reasonable to assume that holding attitudes and beliefs such as these would be psychologically helpful for single

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6The psychometric properties of the Belief Systems Analysis Scale used to measure Afrocentrism are considered below.
mothers. To understand this relationship, it is helpful to consider the two alternative world views discussed in this investigation. According to Myers' (1981) model, a Eurocentric orientation, which determines an individual's worth by external criteria, is more materialistic and competitive. Maintaining such a belief system would lead the single mother to a sense of worth which is continually threatened and in a state of flux. Because there are always more material goods to acquire and more individuals to compete with, she is seldom satisfied with her current status. By contrast, an Afrocentric orientation, which considers self-worth to be intrinsic in being, is characterized by a spiritual-material unity and less competitiveness. As a result, advocating an Afrocentric belief system leads to more stability and satisfaction with life. To the extent that one is not consumed with material acquisitions and social status, feels worthy merely by being alive, and feels that life is perfect and meant to be carefree, one is likely to be more satisfied. For these reasons, it makes sense that an Afrocentric orientation would be associated with more positive mental health for the single mother. In fact, advocating an Afrocentric world view also appears to be related to successful adjustment for individuals in other roles, as mothers from two-parent families who had more Afrocentric belief systems also had more positive reactions to the motherhood experience.

This latter finding—that the effect of world view on adaptation to motherhood was equally strong for both single mothers and those from two-parent families—was not expected. Because single
mothers, in contrast to those from two-parent families, have less social support, lower socioeconomic status, and greater levels of distress, it had been anticipated that the positive effects of an Afrocentric worldview would be more potent for them. Evidently, these positive effects transcend a mother's level of stress. Mothers from two-parent families, even having the advantage of support from their spouses, still benefit from advocating an Afrocentric belief system to the same degree as do single mothers.

**Racial Differences in Afrocentrism**

Investigators have disagreed as to whether Blacks and Whites have differing values. In support of Staples (1976), King (1976), Akbar (1976), Nobles (1978), and Sudarkasa (1980), it was found that Black mothers tend to be more Afrocentric than White mothers. This difference was completely due to Black mothers from two-parent families being more Afrocentric than their White counterparts, as there were no racial differences among single mothers. Evidently, while Black mothers, particularly single ones, have been socialized into Euro-American culture, some have maintained some features of an Afrocentric worldview.

The fact that differences were found—at least among mothers from two-parent families—appears to be inconsistent with the findings of Rodman (1971) and Stack (1974), who found that Blacks share the same mainstream values as do Whites. A possible reconciliation is that, while those studies primarily assessed values in the areas of education, standard of living, and ideal family arrangements, this investigation measured other, more intrinsic beliefs and values.
Specifically, the present measure of worldview (Belief Systems Analysis Scale) may assess qualitatively different, more basic and fundamental beliefs than did the other investigations.

The subgroup of Black individuals studied may be another possible explanation of the fact that some authors claim that Blacks and Whites share similar values while others maintain that there are racial differences. While Rodman (1971) and Stack (1974) studied primarily lower class, Staples (1976), King (1976), Akbar (1976), and Nobles (1978) have tended to investigate middle class Black individuals. As this study investigated a middle class Black population, it makes sense that the present findings are consistent with these latter authors.

It is particularly noteworthy that Black mothers from two-parent families emerged as the most Afrocentric, while White single mothers, Black single mothers, and White mothers from two-parent families all had similar lower levels of Afrocentrism. The lack of any racial differences among single mothers may be due to the fact that the significant stress and difficulties they experience renders them less optimistic, less likely to believe that life should be carefree, less likely to feel that everything is perfect, less spiritual, and, in general, less able to advocate a nonmaterialistic, noncompetitive, more hopeful belief system. These mothers, because meeting their material needs is a constant challenge, may not have the "opportunity" to be Afrocentric. This may eliminate any racial differences in degree of Afrocentricity that may have existed at one time.
By contrast, mothers from two-parent families may have greater opportunity to advocate an Afrocentric view. In such a case, racial differences, if they were originally present, would be more likely to still be apparent. When a mother's material needs are more easily met, she is more likely to be able to maintain an alternative belief system. If Blacks, because of their African heritage, generations ago originally advocated such a belief system, one would expect the present finding that Black mothers from two-parent families would be more Afrocentric than other mothers.

This explanation is consistent with Maslow's (1968) concept of a "hierarchy of needs." According to his view, individuals who have to struggle to meet their material needs (i.e., single mothers) are at lower levels of the hierarchy, while individuals who easily meet their basic needs (i.e., mothers from two-parent families) are at higher levels. Maslow views the former group as unable to self-actualize because they are preoccupied with other challenges, while the latter have the opportunity to reach their full potential as individuals because they need not worry about meeting their basic needs. In this case, single mothers may be operating at lower levels on the hierarchy than are mothers from two-parent families and, consequently, are less able to maintain an alternative belief system.

As opposed to this situational interpretation of differences in Afrocentrism between single mothers and those from two-parent families—that differences in environmental stress result in differences in Afrocentrism—an alternative explanation posits a contrasting causal relationship. That is, those individuals who are more
Afrocentric may be more interpersonally skilled and able to develop and maintain satisfying marital relationships. Thus, Afrocentric individuals would be less likely to experience divorce or separation which in turn would render their lives as parents as less stressful and more satisfying.

While statistically significant racial differences were found, in practical terms, the scores of Black ($\bar{M} = 67.4$) and White ($\bar{M} = 63.8$) mothers on the Belief Systems Analysis Scale were similar. There are several possible explanations. On the one hand, Blacks may be socialized into Euro-American culture to almost the same extent as are Whites. Consequently, much, but not all, of their original African belief system may have been eradicated in favor of a Eurocentric one. On the other hand, it may be that Blacks and Whites are similarly Afrocentric in orientation. If this is true, one might assume that Afrocentrism is somewhat universal, as African culture has been identified as fostering Western civilization (Diop, 1974; Jackson, 1970; Sanford, 1938). This plausible reconciliation posits that features of an Afrocentric belief system are also those of other world views. One might expect that some of the Afrocentric beliefs measured in this study are also characteristic of optimistic, religious (particularly Christian), and holistic individuals. Thus, Afrocentrism may be a belief system whose components are shared by other systems not specifically addressed in this investigation. If this is the case, perhaps it would be desirable to change the name of the belief system to encompass the broad range of beliefs addressed by these different systems. Examples might include a "natural" or
"holistic" belief system.

Future research needs to address a number of issues related to the precise nature of an Afrocentric belief system. For example, research might further study what types of individuals are more Afrocentric in their orientation, whether the world view construct (Afrocentric vs. Eurocentric) is unidimensional as was assumed in this study, how Afrocentrism is related to other belief systems, what the behavioral correlates of such a world view are, and the extent to which there are racial differences in degree of Afrocentrism. Answering these questions might necessitate investigating American and African individuals to compare/contrast their world views and how their belief systems impact upon their everyday functioning.

Psychological Adjustment of Single Mothers

This study has demonstrated that single mothers experience greater distress than do mothers from two-parent families. In particular, single mothers have lower self-esteem, are more depressed, are more anxious, and report being less satisfied with the motherhood experience. These findings are consistent with the majority of investigations conducted in this area (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978; Weiss, 1979a; Smith, 1980a; Ferri & Robinson, 1976; Finer, 1974; Guyatt, 1971) and further substantiate many conclusions previously drawn from the literature.

While these results have documented the psychological distress associated with single motherhood, they do not provide evidence that
single mother families are pathological or dysfunctional. Put another way, although single mothers have poorer psychological adjustment than do mothers from two-parent families, they are still functioning within essentially normal ranges. The only possible exception to this is that single mothers were, on average, at the lower bounds of moderate depression.

In addition, there was considerable variability among single mothers in terms of their psychological adjustment. As is generally the case when two groups are compared, many single mothers were more adjusted than were those from two-parent families. Consequently, while the "average" single mother was more distressed than was the "average" mother from a two-parent family, there were meaningful individual differences. This finding supports Mendes (1979) and Billingsley and Giovannoni (1972), who have claimed that there is considerable variability in single parent lifestyles.

**Racial Differences in Adjustment**

The results support the notion that Black single mothers are more satisfied with being mothers than are their White counterparts. This finding is consistent with Jackson (1973), Staples (1976), and Peters and Deford (1978) who have suggested that Black families adjust more successfully to single parenthood than do White families. The present data furthers the understanding of this more successful adjustment by showing that Black single mothers cognitively perceive their experience as a single mother in a more positive fashion than do White mothers. This difference may be related to the more positive adjustment of parents and children in Black single mother

One other difference between Black and White mothers was found that relates to adjustment and the argument that Black culture places great value on children (Staples, 1976; Nobles, 1978; Sudarkasa, 1980). In contrast to White mothers, substantially fewer Black single mothers reported that the least satisfying part of being a mother is the total time commitment necessary to be a single parent and discipline problems with children. Black single mothers were more likely than White mothers to report that the least satisfying part of motherhood was worrying about the well-being of the children. While the exact meaning of this finding is unclear, it may indicate that Black mothers feel less personally strained by their everyday concerns a single mother, but worry more about their children's welfare in today's society.

While there were differences in satisfaction with motherhood, Black and White single mothers had similar levels of self-esteem, depression, and anxiety. This is noteworthy, because these adjustment measures are more basic, fundamental, and intrapsychic than is the measure of satisfaction with motherhood. It may be that although Black mothers perceive the motherhood experience more positively, Black and White mothers intrapsychically adjust to single motherhood in similar ways.
Factors Facilitating Successful Adaptation to Single Motherhood

As previously mentioned, two factors, race and worldview, were found to be related to meaningful individual differences in the quality of adjustment to single motherhood. In addition, the impact of a variety of other factors (number of years as a single mother, amount of support from the father, number of children, age, income, number of years of education, amount of assistance from relatives and friends in childcare, and extent of participation in social groups and organizations) was assessed. Two were related to the quality of adjustment. First, the number of years as a single mother was negatively related to self-esteem and anxiety. Those mothers who had been single parents for longer periods of time had lower self-esteem and higher levels of anxiety. This unexpected finding is consistent with Smith (1980a), who found no evidence of a "recovery period" following the initiation of single parent status. Evidently, to some extent, distress among single mothers compounds over time. Second, the number of years of education was positively associated with self-esteem. Those single mothers who had more education had higher self-esteem. Perhaps more education provides single mothers, as well as other individuals, with opportunities for more esteem-building and satisfying social and occupational experiences.

It was surprising that the other mediating variables, which were selected because they were identified in the literature as important, did not, individually or grouped together, successfully predict the quality of adjustment to single motherhood. As discussed later, this
may be due to the possibly imprecise manner in which these variables were assessed. To the extent that the mediating variables were not measured in a reliable or valid manner, the likelihood that they would be significantly associated with adjustment was reduced. In statistical terms, the power of the investigation (in finding significant effects which actually were present in the population) was reduced. Power may have been further reduced by the nature of the constructs (self-esteem, depression, anxiety) assessing adjustment to single motherhood. These personality constructs are substantially affected by a number of other factors (not assessed in this study) which are not directly related to the single mother experience. For example, self-esteem levels are affected by personality dispositions before acquiring single mother status, the quality of one's relationship with the children, the success of current romantic relationships, etc. Given that these type factors were not assessed, the likelihood of finding significant relationships between the mediating variables and adjustment is correspondingly reduced. For example, the level of support from the father may have been important to a single mother in the sample. However, the fact that she has just "fallen in love" (and this was not assessed) may have minimized the statistical association between father support and self-esteem, anxiety, and depression.

**Causes of Distress Among Single Mothers**

This investigation has provided support for the general consensus in the field (Weiss, 1979a; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1977; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; Jauch, 1977) concerning the causes of
the special distress experienced by single mothers. These causes include financial difficulties and lack of social support.

Although 89% of the single mothers in the study were employed, they still had significantly lower family incomes than those in two-parent families. This was partly because only 60% of the single mothers reported receiving financial payments from the father.

The single mothers in the sample reported receiving very little support from the fathers, other relatives, or friends. Indicative of this lack of social support from the father was the rarity of father-child contact in single mother families. Over 60% of the mothers reported that their children see their father less than once a month, while less than 20% report that the fathers see their children once a week or more often. Even fewer fathers assisted the single mothers in conducting their daily activities.

In contrast to claims that many single mother families (particularly Black) receive substantial support from extended families (Nobles, 1978; Staples, 1976; Aschenbrenner, 1978; Billingsley, 1968; Jackson, 1973), only 33% of the single mothers reported receiving regular assistance from relatives and 14% reported receiving such help from friends. As discussed later, this lack of help may be due to the largely middle class status of this sample. These mothers may have been able to access assistance in other ways.

Financial problems and lack of social support lead to greater levels of role-strain, overload, and distress. As evidence, over half of the single mothers reported that the worst part of being a mother was the 24-hour a day commitment. The responsibilities and
time commitments required for working, maintaining the home, raising
the children, and sustaining a social life are indeed all-consuming.
It is not surprising that single mothers experience more psychological
distress in performing these various activities than do mothers
from two-parent families.

Implications for Future Research

This study used a newly developed instrument to assess worldview,
the Belief Systems Analysis Scale (BSAS). The instrument, which
assesses the extent to which an individual advocates an Afrocentric,
as opposed to Eurocentric, belief system, has five relatively un-
related subscales. These include an Optimism subscale, a Holistic
Orientation subscale, an Idealized Order subscale, an Internal Sense
of Worth subscale, and a Spirituality subscale. The results that
Black and White mothers differed significantly on the instrument pro-
vides evidence for contrasted group validity. Although the instru-
ment has moderate to poor internal consistency at this stage of its
development, it appears worthy of use in future research.

Further development of the instrument might fruitfully proceed
along a number of different lines. First, the psychometric proper-
ties of the scale need to be further investigated on a different
sample of subjects. The instrument is intended for use with groups
of individuals from a variety of backgrounds, not just mothers.
Second, upon further administrations of the instrument, the under-
lying factor structure of the items needs to be reassessed. The
underlying constructs, or subscales, derived from the present factor
analysis may only apply to the specific sample studied, that is, middle class mothers. If the same underlying constructs are identified from factor analyses in future administrations, one can have relatively more confidence in the reliability and validity of the instrument. Third, steps should be taken to improve the internal consistency of the scale. This might be done by adding new items which seem to have the potential of measuring the world view construct and by deleting those items which were not included on any of the five subscales. Fourth, the validity of the instrument may be improved by correlating the scores on this instrument or on subscales of this instrument with those from other instruments measuring related constructs. Examples might include the Protestant Ethics Scale (Mirels & Garrett, 1971), measuring the extent to which one advocates a "protestant" work and achievement ethic, the Need for Achievement Scale, developed by McClelland (1961), Rotter's (1966) Internal-External (I-E) Locus of Control Scale, the Experiencing Scale (Gendlin & Tomlinson, 1967), measuring the quality of an individual's experience of himself, and scales measuring degree of religious involvement and political ideology. Examination of these relationships would more precisely identify the constructs assessed by the instrument. Fifth, the instrument needs to be validated against an independent criterion measure of world view as defined in this investigation. Such a criterion measure might include ratings from structural interviews or behavioral observation. By exploring the nature of the relationship between scores on the instrument and the criterion measure, the construct validity of the
instrument would be improved.

The use of self-report written instruments completed only by the mothers necessarily provides a rather limited behavioral sample upon which to draw inferences regarding the nature of life in single parent families. As Anastasi (1976) has noted, self-report inventories are essentially crude instruments whose application is limited because their validity can be affected by the subject's literacy, cooperation, and concentration. Self-report questionnaires are also prone to social desirability response sets, which may have systematically altered the results of this study. In the present investigation, it is conceivable that mothers from two-parent families presented themselves in a more favorable light because they were complying with the social norm that intact nuclear families are the ideal family arrangement. On the other hand, single mothers may have presented themselves in a less favorable light because they were complying with social expectations that single parent families have an overwhelming number of problems resulting in negative outcomes for its members. To minimize the likelihood that results are affected by social desirability responding, behavioral observation and interview techniques, as discussed above, might be employed.

It is important to realize that the constructs employed as measures of quality of adaptation to motherhood (self-esteem, depression, anxiety, satisfaction with motherhood) are only measures of psychological adaptation. They only provide indicators of the psychological correlates of single motherhood. They are not measures of the success or abilities of these mothers in managing their
families. For assessing success in coordinating a family, one would have to employ other assessment strategies.

Consequently, future research needs to employ different assessment strategies. To gain a more complete understanding of single motherhood, single mothers could be thoroughly interviewed in either a structured or open-ended format. In addition, children or other significant others in single parent homes might be interviewed to assess their perceptions of their mothers experiences. To acquire more behavioral measures, parent-child interaction in either the laboratory or home setting might be observed and rated. When supplemented with interviews and observation, the self-report instruments may be more informative.

Further investigations in this area need to systematically explore the impact of the mediating variables on the quality of adjustment to single parenthood in a more precise manner. The mediating variables in this study were measured by questions and combinations of questions whose psychometric properties are as yet unknown. For these reasons, one must place relatively less confidence in the interpretation of the present results as they relate to the impact of the mediating variables. Future research might fruitfully assess the validity of these measures of the mediating variables by relating them with other measures of the same constructs.

To assess the mediating variables more precisely, a number of techniques might be employed. Although subject to limitations discussed earlier, written instruments specifically designed to assess social support could be administered. Examples include Swift's
Social Network Inventory (1977) and the Personal Resource Questionnaire (PRQ), developed by Brandt and Weinert (1981). Interviews with mothers and/or children in single parent families may provide more complete information regarding the amount of support received from the fathers, other relatives, and friends. In this vein, even more direct data could be gathered from the father, relatives, or other friends regarding their support of the single mother. Within these interviews, questions which assessed the amount of support in specific situations, rather than in just global terms, may be more effective. Similar procedures could be used to assess changes in socioeconomic status. The present study gathered only a static measure of family income and did not assess how family income has changed since single parent status began. It is likely that the impact of financial difficulties is related both to current levels of socioeconomic status and to how this level compares to status before single parenthood.

A further limitation of the current study is that it provides no clues about the stages through which the single mother passes from the time she became a single parent until the present. The present author has frequently referred to the changes single mothers must undergo following the initiation of single parent experience, but this investigation provides only a static measure of the effects of single parenthood on mothers. Therefore, future studies might use longitudinal or cross-sectional designs to acquire a dynamic understanding of the effects of single parenthood. In the same vein, the use of case studies to supplement information gained from group
design studies might substantially add to our knowledge of the individual variability in reactions to being a single mother.

Another important research issue relates to the ways in which the experiences of divorced, separated, widowed, and never married mothers are different. In the present study, as is consistent with national averages, 72% of the single mothers were separated or divorced, 8% were widowed, and 20% were never married. However, there were not enough widowed and never married single mothers to permit comparisons across these groups. Future research needs to address the unique experiences of these different single mothers.

Investigators in this area also need to study the effects of single parenthood on different socioeconomic groups of single mothers. The single mothers in this study, while representing a wide range of racial, cultural, and ethnic groups, were primarily middle class. Their average family income exceeds $16,000-$20,000 per year, they average one year of schooling beyond high school, and 86% are currently employed. The small amount of socioeconomic variability among such a sample may have substantially affected the results. In particular, in a more heterogeneous sample, it is likely that several of the mediating variables, including education, income, amount of support from friends and relatives, and amount of father support, would have been more related to the quality of adjustment to single motherhood. For example, the middle class mothers in the present study did not to any extent access friends and relatives as supports in managing their households. These mothers may have the fiscal resources to purchase daycare services. Lower socioeconomic
status mothers may by necessity acquire more support from friends and relatives.

It is important to note that this study only addressed the experiences of single mothers. It is likely that single fathers have differing experiences. Therefore, to acquire a more complete understanding of the single parent experience, single fathers need to be investigated.

In conclusion, more work needs to explore factors facilitating successful adaptation to single parenthood. While much is known of the stresses facing these families, relatively less is known about how they do and could access resources to cope more effectively with their situation.

Implications for Intervention

The present results suggest several implications for intervention. Clearly, the finding that single mothers report greater levels of psychological distress than do mothers from two-parent families indicates that both clinical and systemic intervention could be beneficial. Specifically, these could include clinical work with single mothers and their families and attempts at changes within social systems interfacing with single parent families.

At the clinical level, psychotherapists should be sensitive to the unique problems and circumstances facing single parents. Therapists realizing that the distress experienced by many single parents is due to their role overload, financial difficulties, and lack of social support are likely to be more successful. These
therapists should work towards designing and implementing interventions which would help single parents cope with and, when possible, change these circumstances.

Towards this end, therapeutic work designed to help mothers adopt a more Afrocentric belief system would be appropriate. Along these lines, Myers (1980) has developed a therapeutic model (Belief Systems Analysis) designed to help individuals adopt a more Afrocentric belief system. The present study suggests that therapy like that described by Myers would be beneficial to single mothers. Of course, therapy aimed at altering beliefs and values is not new. Several psychotherapists (Beck, 1976; Meichenbaum, 1979; Ellis, 1962) have used "cognitive restructuring" techniques to improve their clients' functioning. While these latter techniques are similar in that they attempt to change beliefs in the hope of improving functioning, they differ from Myers' (1980) model in the types of beliefs which are emphasized. Her model is aimed at the examination of beliefs which are of a more basic and fundamental level (spiritual/material unity, interdependence of all things, etc.) than are those targeted by the latter authors (functioning improves when one expects to succeed; when one fails, it is not a disaster, etc.). The former model attempts a more radical cognitive change by targeting worldview and belief system, while the latter models attempt narrower band modifications within the present belief system.

In addition, the goals of therapy differ across these models. In fostering an Afrocentric belief system, Myers' model works towards reducing dependence on external criteria (socioeconomic status,
appearance, social contacts) in the hopes of achieving an internalized sense of worth. By contrast, the cognitive restructuring models attempt to work within a Eurocentric belief system to foster a sense of competence. To help individuals achieve this increased sense of worth, cognitive therapists often help people work towards achieving higher socioeconomic status. Thus, as is consistent with a Eurocentric worldview, the increased sense of worth is achieved by external criteria.

To impact upon situational constraints single mothers face, efforts at systems change are necessary. This study, in addition to many others (Weiss, 1979a; Smith, 1980b; Vickery, 1978; Ferri, 1976; Finer, 1974) has demonstrated that single mother families, in contrast to two-parent families, have lower family incomes, receive less support from the fathers, receive less childcare assistance from friends and relatives, and have existed in their present form for shorter lengths of time. The present conception of the single mother family as "understaffed" is consistent with the notion that some distress experienced by single mothers is due to the effects of this lack of support. Because there are fewer adults able to contribute to the tasks necessary to maintain a household, single mother families need more, rather than less, support from family, friends, and social institutions. Consequently, many investigators (Finer, 1974; Schlesinger, 1975; Ferri & Robinson, 1976) have recommended increasing financial benefits for single mother families. Several possibilities have been proposed, including income maintenance programs, housing subsidies, changing laws to increase child
support payments, and greater enforcement of child support laws. In addition, as noted by Vickery (1978), social benefits need not be restricted to financial support. Public support which provides the single mother with the time she needs to develop and sustain a career would also be helpful. This support, including subsidized or free daycare and babysitting services, might prevent the latter exacerbation of psychological distress. The results of this study lend further support to those recommending these social changes.

In particular, because the vast majority of single mothers have experienced divorce or separation, systemic change aimed at ameliorating the detrimental effects of divorce is a particularly important strategy. It has been argued elsewhere (Moreland, Schwebel, Fine, & Vess, 1982) that post-divorce mediation counseling may lead to more cooperative arrangements between ex-spouses. Towards this end, perhaps the most effective way to secure mutual support from both parents may be a co-custody arrangement, in which both parents have legal custody of the child. Such an arrangement may ease the role strain on single mothers. Should the benefits of co-custody continue to gain empirical support, efforts at changing the legal system to grant more of these arrangements would be helpful.

Furthermore, interventions designed to help children from single parent homes adjust to their changing circumstances would ease the strain on single mothers. Examples include psychoeducational presentations on single parenthood to children in the schools and the formation of support groups of children living in single parent families. Towards the same end, interventions with noncustodial
parents designed to help them cope with their new situation and to improve their relationships with their children might improve the chances that the ex-spouses can cooperatively raise their children together. These can include workshops helping noncustodial parents learn to more effectively communicate with and manage the behavior of their children. In summary, to the extent that all family members can be helped to successfully adjust to single parenthood, single parents can lead more satisfying lives.
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BELIEF SYSTEMS ANALYSIS SCALE

The statements below represent beliefs that people have. Please indicate your belief by circling the number which reflects how much of the time you believe what each statement says. Circle 5 if you *always believe* that the statement is true. Circle 1 if you *never believe* that the statement is true. The score range is weighed as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Always believe</th>
<th>Most of the time</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
<th>Rarely or Seldom</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample Items

1. People need to eat.  
   - Circle: 5

2. People can fly.  
   - Circle: 1

3. What is real can be known through the five senses (sight, touch, hearing, smell and taste) alone.  
   - Circle: 5

4. Everything is perfect.  
   - Circle: 5

5. Life is meant to be carefree.  
   - Circle: 5

6. True knowledge increases by depth of understanding and insight rather than by adding new and different information.  
   - Circle: 5

7. I believe that nothing in the material realm alone is ever perfect for any length of time.  
   - Circle: 5

8. My good and well-being are in the hands of other people.  
   - Circle: 5

9. I believe that some things are dynamic (always changing) and static (constant) at the same time.  
   - Circle: 5

10. Most things we think of as opposites (good and evil, night and day) are most often opposite sides of the same coin. They can be most properly understood and identified as a single positive whole.  
    - Circle: 5

11. I am a positive thinker.  
    - Circle: 5

12. For every solution technology provides, another problem or two is created.  
    - Circle: 5
11. My sense of worth is based on my looks, socioeconomic standing, or other external criteria.  5 4 3 2 1
12. I am a competitive person.  5 4 3 2 1
13. I seek a greater understanding of my relationship with God.  5 4 3 2 1
14. My attitude is one of "expecting a miracle."  5 4 3 2 1
15. I believe everlasting happiness, peace, and well-being can be known starting now.  5 4 3 2 1
16. I love other people no matter what they do.  5 4 3 2 1
17. I believe that faith is substance.  5 4 3 2 1
18. I feel as though I am a contented observer of my own life.  5 4 3 2 1
19. I believe that all things are interrelated and interconnected.  5 4 3 2 1
20. To love is superior.  5 4 3 2 1
APPENDIX B

ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE
PLEASE NOTE:

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These consist of pages:

122
124-127
APPENDIX C

THE BECK DEPRESSION INVENTORY
APPENDIX D

STATE-TRAIT ANXIETY INVENTORY
SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE
STAI FORM X-1

DIRECTIONS: A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then blacken in the appropriate circle to the right of the statement to indicate how you feel right now, that is, at this moment. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe your present feelings best.

1. I feel calm. ........................................... 1 2 3 4
2. I feel secure. .......................................... 1 2 3 4
3. I am tense .............................................. 1 2 3 4
4. I am regretful ........................................ 1 2 3 4
5. I feel at ease .......................................... 1 2 3 4
6. I feel upset ............................................ 1 2 3 4
7. I am presently worrying over possible misfortunes. 1 2 3 4
8. I feel rested .......................................... 1 2 3 4
9. I feel anxious ........................................ 1 2 3 4
10. I feel comfortable .................................... 1 2 3 4
11. I feel self-confident .................................. 1 2 3 4
12. I feel nervous ....................................... 1 2 3 4
13. I am jittery ........................................... 1 2 3 4
14. I feel "high strung" .................................. 1 2 3 4
15. I am relaxed ......................................... 1 2 3 4
16. I feel content ........................................ 1 2 3 4
17. I am worried ........................................ 1 2 3 4
18. I feel over-excited and "rattled". ................. 1 2 3 4
19. I feel joyful ........................................ 1 2 3 4
20. I feel pleasant ...................................... 1 2 3 4
SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

STAF FORM X-2

DIRECTIONS: A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then blacken in the appropriate circle to the right of the statement to indicate how you generally feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe how you generally feel.

21. I feel pleasant .......................................................... 1 2 3 4
22. I tire quickly................................................................. 1 2 3 4
23. I feel like crying ......................................................... 1 2 3 4
24. I wish I could be as happy as others seem to be .... 1 2 3 4
25. I am losing out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough ........................................ 1 2 3 4
26. I feel rested ............................................................... 1 2 3 4
27. I am "calm, cool, and collected". .............................. 1 2 3 4
28. I feel that difficulties are piling up so that I cannot overcome them ........................................... 1 2 3 4
29. I worry too much over something that really doesn't matter. .............................................................. 1 2 3 4
30. I am happy ................................................................. 1 2 3 4
31. I am inclined to take things hard ............................... 1 2 3 4
32. I lack self-confidence ................................................ 1 2 3 4
33. I feel secure .............................................................. 1 2 3 4
34. I try to avoid facing a crisis or difficulty ........................................ 1 2 3 4
35. I feel blue ................................................................. 1 2 3 4
36. I am content ............................................................. 1 2 3 4
37. Some unimportant thought runs through my mind and bothers me .................................................. 1 2 3 4
38. I take disappointments so keenly that I can't put them out of my mind ........................................ 1 2 3 4
39. I am a steady person .................................................. 1 2 3 4
40. I get in a state of tension or turmoil as I think over my recent concerns and interests .................. 1 2 3 4
APPENDIX E

REACTIONS TO MOTHERHOOD SCALE
REACTIONS TO MOTHERHOOD SCALE

Please answer the following questions as honestly and as completely as you can.

1. How old were you on your last birthday? _____

2. How many children of yours live in your household? _____

3. Would you please list them, their ages, and their sex?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Name</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Boy or Girl</th>
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<tr>
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4. Are you currently employed?
   _____ I am currently employed.

   The work I do is ______________________________________
   ______________________________________
   ______________________________________

   _____ I am not currently employed.

5. How many years of schooling have you completed
   (middle school graduate=8 years, high school
   graduate=12 years, college graduate=16 years)? _____

6. We would like to get an estimate of your income. How much does your
   family household receive (weekly, monthly, or yearly)? Please circle
   by the correct figure.

   a. Under $8,000 per year which is $667 per month or $154 per week.
   b. $8,000 to $15,999 per year which is $668 to $1,333 per month or
      $155 to $307 per week.
   c. $16,000 to $23,999 per year which is $1,334 to $1,999 per month
      or $308 to $461 per week.
   d. More than $24,000 per year which is $2,000 per month or $462 per week.
7. What percent of your total family income comes from the following sources? Please fill in the correct percentage for each source.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Income</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jobs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Public Assistance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Payments from father of child (if not living with him)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatives</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. How satisfied are you with being a mother? (1=not at all, 5=extremely).

9. How stressful has it been for you to be a mother? (1=not at all, 5=extremely).

10. How rewarding has it been for you to be a mother? (1=not at all, 5=extremely).

11. How difficult has it been for you to discipline your children? (1=not at all, 5=extremely).

12. How difficult has it been for you to maintain your home (cooking, yardwork, cleaning)? (1=not at all, 5=extremely).

13. How satisfied are you with your social life? (1=not at all, 5=extremely).

14. How satisfied are you with your standard of living? (1=not at all, 5=extremely).

15. If you are working, how satisfied are you with your present job? (1=not at all, 5=extremely). (If not working, skip this question).
16. If a friend of yours was considering becoming a mother, what advice would you give her? (Circle only one please).
   a. "Having a child is the greatest thrill you'll ever experience and is something you'll never regret. Have the child now!"
   b. "Having a child can be very rewarding, but you have to make sure you're ready to assume the responsibilities."
   c. "Having a child is a mixed blessing and they're hard to raise now than they've ever been. Wait a couple of years."
   d. "Having a child is a tremendous burden. Women can fulfill themselves in other ways. It might be best to never have children."
   e. Other _____________________________________________________________

17. In your opinion, what is the best part of being a mother?

18. In your opinion, what is the worst part of being a mother?

19. In general, how supportive has the father of your child(ren) been to you in carrying out your daily activities? (1=not at all, 5=extremely).

20. How would you rate the quality of your child(ren)'s relationship with their father? (1=extremely low, 5=extremely high).
21. Do any relatives of yours regularly help you take care of your children?

- No (skip to question 22)
- Yes (Please list these relatives, their relation to you, how many hours a week they help, and the type of help they provide).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Name</th>
<th>Relation to You</th>
<th>Hours/Week of Help</th>
<th>Type of Help</th>
</tr>
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22. Do any friends of yours regularly help you take care of your children?

- No (skip to question 23)
- Yes (Please list these friends, how many hours a week they help, and the type of help they provide).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Name</th>
<th>Hours/Week of Help</th>
<th>Type of Help</th>
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</table>
23. What groups or organizations do you belong to? Please list them, describe the type of group it is, how often you participate in the group, and how helpful the group has been for you?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Group</th>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>Number of times attend meetings of group in an average month?</th>
<th>How helpful is group to you? (1=not at all, 5=extremely)</th>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24. Of these groups and organizations, which has been most helpful to you?

25. In what ways has this particular organization or group been most helpful?

26. What is your present status in your family? (Circle only one).
   a. I am married to and live with the father of my child(ren).
   b. I am separated or divorced from the father of my child(ren).
   c. I was never married to the father of my child(ren) and I do live with him.
   d. I was never married to the father of my child(ren) and I do not live with him.
27. If your children are not currently living with their father, how much regular contact do they have with him? (If your children do live with their father, skip this question).
   a. Less than one year.
   b. One to eleven times a year.
   c. Once a month.
   d. Two to three times a month.
   e. Once a week.
   f. Two to six times a week.
   g. Every day.

28. What is the current status of your household? (Circle only one).
   a. I am married and living with my husband.
   b. I am separated or divorced from my husband.
   c. I am not married and live with a male spouse or partner.
   d. I am not married and live with roommate(s).
   e. I am not married and live with my parent(s).
   f. I live alone with my children.
   g. Other. Please explain: ________________________________

29. How many years have you lived under this arrangement?
   ______ years

30. What racial group do you consider yourself to be a member of?
   a. Black
   b. White
   c. Oriental
   d. Hispanic
   e. Native American
   f. Other (Please describe: ________________)
APPENDIX F

LETTER TO SUBJECTS
Dear Mothers,

Hello! My name is Mark Fine and I am a doctoral candidate in Clinical Psychology at the Ohio State University. I am currently working on my dissertation.

I am studying the motherhood experience. In these times of rapidly changing family structure, I feel that it is important to understand how mothers of today think about the world, of themselves, and the experience of being a mother.

I have accumulated a series of questionnaires that I am administering to mothers who are currently living with at least one of their children. The questionnaires take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

I am asking your cooperation in completing the enclosed survey. If you agree to participate, you may complete the survey, enclose it in the envelope, and give it back to your supervisor. Please be assured that your answers will be strictly confidential. Your supervisor will merely give me the enclosed and sealed envelope. If it is possible within your busy schedule, time deadlines for my study require that the questionnaires be returned to your supervisor by November 19.

When I am finished with the study, copies of a brief summary of the results will be distributed to your supervisors, who in turn will give them to you. These summaries will hopefully be ready within three months.

Thank you very much for your cooperation. If you have any questions, please feel free to call me at 274-7000.

Sincerely,

Mark Fine

Mark Fine