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THE IMPACT OF DIVORCE ON HISPANIC MOTHERS: THE ROLE OF ACCULTURATION, SEX-ROLE ATTITUDES, AND SOCIAL SUPPORT

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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1999

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ABSTRACT

Based on a life events perspective in which divorce is seen as a major stressor event, and considering the ecological context of the Hispanic divorced mothers, the purpose of this study was to explore the relationship of divorce adjustment (emotional and role adjustment) with acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support (family and non-family). Multiple and multivariate regression analyses were used as main statistical instruments.

Eighty-six subjects who met the study criteria (i.e., Hispanic ethnicity, having been legally divorced, and the presence of children under age 18 at the time of the divorce) participated in the study. Results showed, for emotional adjustment, that highly acculturated better-adjusted individuals had higher non-family social support. Lower acculturated better-adjusted individuals had lower non-family social support. However, those low acculturated individuals who had higher non-family social support were still adjusted. On the other hand, highly acculturated individuals with lower adjustment had lower non-family social support.

Regarding role adjustment, results showed that highly acculturated better-adjusted individuals had more traditional sex-role attitudes, higher non-family social support, and lower family social support. However, they were still adjusted with higher family social support. Low acculturated better-adjusted respondents had less traditional sex-role
attitudes, higher family social support, and lower non-family social support. However, they were still adjusted if they had more traditional sex-role attitudes, lower or higher family social support (although they were better adjusted with lower family support), and higher non-family social support. Highly acculturated individuals with lower adjustment had less traditional sex-role attitudes; higher family social support; and lower non-family social support. Lower acculturated individuals with lower adjustment had lower family social support. It did not affect them adversely whether they had higher or lower non-family social support. Using years divorced as variable, highly acculturated individuals were better adjusted if they were divorced longer. The same applied for lower acculturated individuals. However, the mothers had better adjustment if they had lower non-family social support. On the other hand, what helped highly acculturated, recently divorced individuals to adjust better was having higher non-family social support.
Dedicated to my parents,

Gilberto and Leila,

Amor con amor se paga
ACNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to a great number of people who helped me to accomplish this phase of development. First, to my adviser, Dr. Patrick McKenry, who believed in me, encouraged, supported, and guided me since the beginning of my doctoral program. His patience and human sensitivity (especially with regard to my limitations with the English language) helped to keep me going.

My other advisors, Dr. Kimberlee Whaley and Dr. Maria Juliá, deserve also special thanks. Dr. Whaley provided guidance as my supervisor during my graduate associate days. She also provided emotional support and served as role model as I was trying to fulfill the roles as student and mother of two small children. In addition, her wise counsel from the general examination stage through the writing of the dissertation was most valuable. I thank Dr. Juliá for her encouragement and support when I needed them. I also thank her for serving on the committee and lending her remarkable expertise about Hispanic women to the project.

I thank Mr. Gerardo Colón and Dr. Abdín Noboa for helping me to identify social service agencies that work directly with the Hispanic population in the Cleveland metropolitan area. Mr. Colón and Dr. Noboa gave me information about nine agencies and twelve contact persons from these agencies. Mr. Colón also took time from his busy
schedule to introduce me personally to some of these persons and to collect some of the completed questionnaires.

To the human service workers that took some of their personal time to recruit potential subjects for the study, distribute, and collect questionnaires, my deepest thanks. These valuable helpers were: Ms. Dara Cardona, Ms. Carmen Colón, Ms. Madeline Corchado, Ms. Kimberly Cuthbertson, Ms. Ivonne Lladó, Ms. Eva Lozano, Mrs. Madeline Ocejo, Mrs. Betty Ortiz, Ms. Nidia Pérez, Ms. Lissette Quiñones, Mrs. Furgencia Ramos, Mrs. María Rodríguez, Ms. Osvalda Santiago, and Ms. Carmen Valentín. To those Hispanic divorced mothers who took their time to complete the questionnaires, thank you.

To Dr. Albert Davis and the Faculty of the Human Development and Family Science Department, a special thanks for the support which has brought me to the threshold of becoming the proud first Puerto Rican recipient of a doctorate from such a prestigious department. To my statistics consultant, David Klein, my gratitude for his valuable help. Dave's expertise in the area of statistics and his valuable suggestions made the final stages of this dissertation more manageable. His ideas, suggestions and optimism helped me to make this dissertation a reality.

To my valuable sources of informal social support, friends and family, a very special thanks. Tere Arroyo consistently came through for me since the beginning of this endeavor. What a joy it is to have been able to count on her as a best friend since our preschool days together. At various times throughout the project Jennifer Crankshaw, Cindy Rubenstrunk, and Jane Rutkoff offered valuable and greatly appreciated assistance. John and Wendy Garrity generously provided extraordinary social support during my
dissertation year, even at times when they had their own special needs and concerns. I was blessed with these and other friends, too numerous to personally name but from whom I received strength.

I already have too much to thank my parents Gilberto and Leila for upon the completion of this goal, because they taught me from my earliest days the priority of love of family, and they made countless sacrifices so I could have the best education possible. Then they came through with outstanding support during critical times in my academic career. This dissertation is for them a humble token of gratitude. To my brother Tito, I am grateful for his support, encouragement, and excellent sense of humor.

My present family shared all the struggles of this project with me; I am happy to thank them and share with them the joy of its successful completion. My two daughters, Edith Marie and Miriam, have seen me studying and working on degree requirements all their lives, and they always had the patience to wait for the opportunity for our "woman to woman" talks and playtime with me. As older daughter, Edith, even came through for me with help on many time consuming tasks. This dissertation is their achievement also, and I couldn't be prouder of such daughters. Last, but not least, I am grateful to my husband Edgar, who always believed in me. Without his encouragement I would not have started the doctoral program; without his practical help, I would not have successfully concluded it.
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Divorce in the Hispanic Community

Over the past 30 years, Hispanics have experienced the same trend toward marital instability that has characterized non-Hispanic White and African-American groups (Bean & Tienda, 1987 in Solís, 1995). During the 1980’s, Puerto Rican women along with African-American women have experienced the greatest changes in marital patterns. By 1990 both of these groups had the lowest rates of marriage and the highest rates of being single, divorced, widowed, or separated, as compared to other Hispanic and non-Hispanic Whites (Ortiz, 1995). Migrants from Puerto Rico have higher rates of divorced or separated families than other Hispanics or African-Americans (Muschkin & Myers, 1989).

This increase in divorce rate among Hispanics has contributed to an increase in single-parent households headed by women. During the 1980s, the proportion of Hispanic children living in single-parent families increased from 25 to 34 percent, largely as a result of increasing divorce rates (García, 1991). These Hispanic female-headed, single parent families are disproportionally poor. Of these Hispanic female heads of

1 “Puerto Rican” is being used here to designate mainland U.S. residents of Puerto Rican origin or descent, unless specifically applied to residents of Puerto Rico.
households, 56% are unemployed (Solís, 1995), contributing to almost 52% living below
the poverty level at a time when the poverty rate for non-Hispanic female headed
households was about 32%. Specifically, Puerto Rican families have the highest poverty
rate among Hispanic female headed households (García, 1991). One possible explanation
for this high rate of poverty is that Hispanics (except for Cubans) have the highest rate of
school drop out of any ethnic group (Ortiz, 1995; Solís, 1995).

In addition to stressors associated with poverty, cross-cultural studies suggest that
Hispanic divorced and separated women may adhere to cultural norms that make
recovery from divorce more difficult. Roman Catholicism is not only the strongest
religious tradition among Hispanics, but has also greatly influenced Hispanic cultural
“mores.” Its strong prohibition against divorce (Wagner, 1993; p. 140), along with a
narrow definition of women’s family role, increases the vulnerability of Hispanic women
to post-divorce emotional distress. Also, remarriage, dating, and/or cohabitation are not
openly accepted as options for Hispanic divorced women because traditionally the culture
believes that a woman should have only one marriage. Furthermore, because many
Hispanics are still adjusting and acculturating to another culture, divorce makes this
process more difficult (Vega, 1995). In addition to the process of acculturation to a new
culture, cultural values (such as sex-role attitudes and social support) might also have an
influence on divorce adjustment for Hispanic women. Further, despite the increasing rate
of divorce among Hispanics and the corresponding increase in female-headed, single
parent families living in poverty, there is a dearth of research focused on Hispanic
women’s adjustment to divorce. Taking into consideration that Hispanics will be the
largest ethnic minority group in the United States by 2010 (Gil & Vázquez, 1996), it is
important to understand the family transition of this particular minority ethnic group. Thus, the purpose of this study was to explore the impact of acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support on Hispanic women’s adjustment to divorce.

Ecological Perspective

According to the ecological perspective, individual development can best be understood in terms of “hierarchically embedded psychological, familial, social, and cultural contexts” (Kurdek, 1981; p. 856). If this definition is applied to the impact of divorce on families and the continued development of divorced individuals, then the level of functioning of single-parent families can be seen as the interaction between systems in which highly favorable circumstances in one area could be offset by unfavorable circumstances in other areas (Taylor, Hurley, & Riley, 1986). For example, among Hispanic single-parent families, where the head of household is usually the mother, a woman may receive abundant instrumental social support from her family but at the same time may not receive approval or expressive support by her family and the community because of strong opposition to divorce. Bilgé and Kaufman (1983) view single-parent family functioning from a similar standpoint. In their literature review, Bilgé and Kaufman conclude that mothers and children living in single-parent families will adjust positively depending on the attitudes toward divorce or single-parent families of the culture in which they live, their material resources, and their supportive social networks. The conclusion of these authors is that the one-parent family is not an inherently inferior, abnormal, and/or pathological family, but a “cover-up for the economic inequalities of our society” (Bilgé & Kaufman, 1983; p. 69). These authors note that in other societies whole communities have the responsibility of rearing children and providing emotional
support. The one-parent family, combined with the woman’s extended network of kin, “can offer more emotional support and offer more options to family members than an isolated nuclear family” (Bilgé & Kaufman, 198, p. 69). Many societies do not regard broken conjugal bonds as important, but instead provide support systems that are essential to divorce adjustment for mothers.

According to Bronfenbrenner’s (1977) and Kurdek’s (1981) ecological perspectives, there are five systems that influence individual development. The first system, “macrosystem,” involves cultural beliefs, values, and attitudes that either directly or indirectly influence the perception of divorce and behavior of the Hispanic divorced mother. According to the findings of some studies, because Hispanics are culturally Roman Catholic, the attitudes of the Church regarding sexuality and family life may have a direct impact on the attitudes and beliefs of the individuals (e.g., Jue, 1987 in Yep, 1995). These cultural beliefs that disfavor marital disruption may create some difficulties in divorce adjustment for the divorced individual because they contradict the Hispanic belief about the permanence of marriage and family.

Also, Hispanic cultural beliefs support clearly defined traditional roles for men and women, i.e., the supremacy of the male in the family and the submission of the female, who is taught that she must tolerate everything in order to maintain harmony and peace inside the family (Barkley & Salazar Mosher, 1995). According to the literature, traditional sex-role values have been attributed to the Catholic Church and to Spanish culture, both of whom are associated with a patriarchal family structure (Christensen, 1979; Ghali, 1982; Stycos, 1952; Torres-Matrullo, 1976).
Hispanic women deal with a cultural sexual bind which maintains a “Madonna or loose” dichotomy (Barkley & Salazar Mosher, 1995). If the Hispanic woman is submissive and sacrifices herself for her husband and children, she is considered a “saint” (Barkley & Salazar Mosher, 1995). Women’s behavior should be highly virtuous (Gil & Vázquez, 1996), and conversely it is expected that women who fail in this regard will be devalued to some extent by Hispanic society (Barkley & Salazar Mosher, 1995; Youssef, in Juliá, 1994). Hispanic culture also emphasizes that women should have only one intimate relationship over their lifespan. Thus, divorced women might be perceived as having “loose” sexual morals, unworthy, and selfish because they put themselves ahead of the wellbeing of their husbands and children. This rigid gender dichotomy may create some psychological distress for Hispanic divorced women, especially for mothers. In fact, Krause and Markides (1985) found that, among Hispanic divorced and separated women having young children at home, this gender dichotomy resulted in much guilt and was the strongest predictor of emotional distress.

Also, single or divorced women and/or widows might not be considered valuable in Latin American societies because their societal roles are limited to those of wives and mothers. The term “marianismo,” referring to the Virgin Mary, demands that women take care of their children and home and feel happy doing it. If women do not accomplish these expectations, society will stigmatize them (Gil & Vázquez, 1996).

The second system, exosystem, involves specific social structures, both formal and informal, that do not affect the person directly, but will influence what s/he will experience in an immediate context. These structures include the major institutions of the society such as work, neighborhood, church, and government agencies. Regarding
divorce, these factors refer to the amount of environmental change occasioned by the divorce as well as the formal and informal support systems available to the single-parent family. Some of the immediate environmental changes experienced by recently divorced individuals are changes in family composition, changes in roles, and in resources that will affect divorce adjustment (Ahrons, 1980; Bursik, 1991; Hampton, 1979; Jacobson, 1978). Also, it has been demonstrated that there are social network changes after divorce (e.g. Hughes, Good, & Candell, 1993; Ladd, 1995) that typically affect divorce adjustment (Kitson with Holmes, 1992). In Hispanic society, the main source of social support comes from the family, especially during times of crisis (Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988). Investigations of acculturation regarding social support and its impact on divorced mothers has found that social support is much less for first generation Hispanic divorced mothers than for second and third generation mothers because of a limited number of friends and family living close to them (Wagner, 1993). This may reduce women’s participation in the host culture, thereby making their adjustment more difficult (Miranda & White, 1993).

The third system, mesosystem, represents the interrelationship between settings (e.g., home, work, friends, etc.) and how these interrelationships will influence the behavior and development of the individual. Because of the stigma of divorce, the influence of the Catholic Church on Hispanic culture, and the fact that Catholicism is the main religious affiliation among Hispanics, there might be some negative consequences for the divorced person (even if the person is not Catholic). For example, the Catholic educational system in Puerto Rico (such as the Catholic University, Sacred Heart University, and Catholic schools) has a policy against hiring any divorced and remarried
Catholic unless the person has been granted an annulment of his/her marriage by the Catholic Church. Because Catholic educational institutions in Puerto Rico do not provide tenured positions, the divorced person who remarries knows that remarriage will probably result in the loss of his/her teaching position. Even if tenure is offered, it provides no guarantees. The Catholic University of Puerto Rico has been on the list of censured institutions of the American Association of University Professors since the late 1980s because of the firing of a tenured English professor who divorced and remarried. Such situations will increase the stress that a divorced individual experiences.

The fourth system, microsystem, consists of "interactive processes operative in the pre- and post-divorce family system" (Kurdek, 1981; p. 859). Research has described how women's interaction with their social network before and after divorce may impact their divorce adjustment. For example, it has been shown that social network and social support change after divorce, and many friendships that existed during marriage decline in importance after divorce (McKenry & Price, 1991). Also, research has shown that the establishment of new intimate relationships, as well as frequent social interaction with friends and relatives, is positively related to women's divorce adjustment (Ladd & Zvonkovic, 1995; McKenry & Price, 1991; Nelson, 1995).

For Hispanics the family plays the primary supportive role in the individual's life, and there typically are strong norms of reciprocity. These norms emphasize interdependence among the family members, which is based on the belief that individuals cannot do everything well and for that reason need the assistance of others. Fictive kin are part of the extended family that includes special groups of friends, godparents, and
"hijos de crianza" (informal adoption of children practiced by Puerto Ricans). This fictive kin carries the same privileges and obligations as members of the extended family of the Hispanic individual (Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988).

Because the Hispanic family is worshiped by its members, many authors who study Hispanic women “use the family as the point of departure, recognizing the critical role women play in Latin American family life” (Juliá, 1994; p. 67). The Hispanic family is the primary conditioning factor that dictates the roles for women. These roles and values, as well as the “thrust of the Catholic religion, remain an intrinsic part of people’s lives. Women are still enmeshed in ‘the net that ideology and culture have fabricated’ still powerfully conditioned by cultural expectations” (Juliá, 1995; p. 238). Some of the Hispanic cultural expectations are the double standard regarding gender and the dominance of the male in the family. Women’s roles traditionally are expected to be fulfilled around their home and children, even if they work outside the home (Becerra, 1988; Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988). Thus, if these cultural expectations are not fulfilled, psychological stress and mental health problems may result (Comas-Díaz, 1987).

The last system, the ontogenic system, represents the various competencies the individual has for dealing with stresses occasioned by the divorce (Kurdek, 1981). Individuals who initiate the process of divorce are better off because it seems that these individuals are motivated to maintain control over their environment, and this perceived control is usually beneficial to the individual (Asher & Bloom, 1983; Pettit & Bloom, 1984; & Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Sex-role attitudes also may be important to the psychological well being of the person (Berman & Turk, 1981; Chiriboga & Thunber, 1980; Richmond-Abbot, 1984). More androgynous gender roles or nontraditional sex-
role attitudes typically facilitate the transition from marriage to divorce (Keith & Schafer, 1982; Wedemeyer & Johnson, 1982). In addition, satisfaction with the types and extent of social support has been related to adjustment for divorced mothers (Ladd & Zvonkovic, 1995). Finally, acculturation also may be an important "skill" that might contribute to divorce adjustment for Hispanic women. It has been shown that highly acculturated Hispanic women tend to have nontraditional sex-role attitudes (Soto, 1983) and more social support (Wagner, 1993), both of which might positively impact their divorce adjustment. However, if the divorced individual has to deal with the stress of the acculturation process, which is manifested through lower levels of participation in the host culture (Miranda & White, 1993), it may compound the stress associated with divorce.

Divorce as a Stressor Event

Kitson and Morgan (1990) reported in their review of the literature that divorce has finally been recognized as one of the most stressful events in life. The impact of divorce is often pervasive and long-term. In fact, there is evidence which indicates that even four years after marital disruption, divorced persons continue to experience more stress than married individuals (Kitson, 1992).

Chiriboga, Brierton, Krystal, and Pierce (1982) maintain that these feelings experienced by recently divorced individuals derive from the stresses and general conditions surrounding the separation, rather than individual psychopathology. Individuals experience stress after a divorce because of the immediate changes in family composition, rules, roles, and resources, and the adjustment to a new lifestyle (Ahrons, 1980; Bursik, 1991; Hampton, 1979; Jacobson, 1978).
In her literature review, Pledge (1992) concludes that divorce is a "stressful time despite individual differences, or availability of resources" (p. 174). Some of the most common feelings experienced by recently divorced individuals are intense anger, depression, diminished self-esteem, heightened anxiety, and feelings of betrayal and abandonment (Dixon & Rettig, 1994; Pledge, 1992; Raschke, 1987; Veevers, 1991; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1990).

According to life events theory, the impact of a stressor event is moderated by a wide range of resources (McKenry & Price, 1994). Booth and Amato (1991) maintain that predivorce resources and perceptions influence the amount of stress experienced following divorce. In terms of resources, they found that individuals who experienced below median family incomes, no post-high school experience, and wives not in the labor force prior to divorce were at greatest risk. Researchers also have demonstrated that social support is a particularly important resource in the adjustment to divorce (Kitson & Morgan, 1990). Additionally, the adjustment to divorce has been found to vary in terms of other resources, including gender, education, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, cultural views regarding divorce, and sex-role attitudes (Booth & Amato, 1991; McKelvey, 1996; Pledge, 1992; Thiriot & Buckner, 1992; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1990). In terms of perception, Booth and Amato (1991) note that individuals who believe in the immorality of divorce experience heightened stress.
Women’s Sex Role Attitudes

Booth and Amato (1991) claim that the individual response to divorce will vary as a function of gender role perceptions of the individual. For example, Pledge (1992) concluded from her literature review that when women within the marriage have adopted traditional sex roles, their adjustment to divorce will be more difficult.

Another study of twenty-five white, upper-middle-class, single divorced mothers (mean age = 39) found that women’s adjustment to divorce was negatively related to age and length of marriage, and positively related to self-esteem, wife’s initiating divorce, family and community support, economic independence, and non-traditional sex-role orientation (Kurdek & Blisk, 1983). In a longitudinal study, Bloom and Clement (1984) found that over time women with more traditional sex-role attitudes continued to report poorer adjustment to divorce than women with less traditional sex-role attitudes. The study suggests that perhaps the mother with more traditional sex-role attitudes finds it more difficult to function in such traditionally male roles as head of the household, provider, and authority figure.

Thomas (1982) found that women with traditional sex-role attitudes reported feeling passive, decreased self-assurance, increased dependency, more shyness, and increased conformity following divorce than did men. Keith and Schafer (1982)’s study of 52 single, employed mothers indicated that nontraditional sex-role attitudes were related to lower levels of depression for divorced women. These women with a more traditional sex-role orientation also remarried more quickly as a result of more distress associated with divorce.
In the Hispanic culture, major societal institutions, including the family and the church, socialize individuals into accepting the supremacy of the man. Individuals are socialized into a double standard regarding gender with emphasis on modesty and virginity in women, sexual freedom among men, and the dominance of the male in the family (Acosta-Belén & Bose, 1995; Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988; Street Chilman, 1993; Youssef, in Juliá, 1994). Men are believed to be naturally superior in almost every respect, and this superiority is upheld by women as well as by men (Juliá, 1995). Men are the heads of the household, the major decision-makers, and the absolute power holders in the family (Becerra, 1988).

On the other hand, women traditionally are expected to follow the example of the Virgin Mary, in which motherhood is their primary role —“marianismo.” Women should be self-sacrificing, patient, forbearing, chaste, and virtuous, and their world should center on their household and children, even if they work outside the home (Becerra, 1988; Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988; Soto, 1983). According to Stevens (1973, in Gil & Vázquez, 1996), “there are no excessive sacrifices for Latin American women” (p. 7). Gil and Vázquez (1996) mention that the term “marianismo” is applied to women who attempt to live as conservatively as nuns living in a convent, with the exception that women outside the convent can have children and that their bridegroom is not Christ, but rather an imperfect man that the woman turns into the total object of her devotion for the rest of her life (p.7). Based on this traditional view of women vis á vis men in Hispanic culture, the Hispanic attitude toward divorce is generally negative, especially the perception of the divorced mother. In fact, “marital disruption affects not only the relationship between the
couple, but also the broader family system that had developed. It undermines the core value of ‘familia’ which is central to Hispanic culture and the Catholic religion” (Wagner, 1993; p. 139).

Although no research was found concerning Hispanic sex-role attitudes and divorce adjustment, it could easily be concluded that a woman with more conservative attitudes regarding women’s gender roles will be more likely to have a negative sense of herself as a divorced woman. There are studies of sex-role attitudes which have found a positive relationship between the Hispanic woman’s more liberal sex-role attitudes and (a) level of education and (b) level of acculturation — both of which have been found to be important resources for women negotiating divorce adjustment (Kranau, Green, & Valencia-Weber, 1982; Soto, 1983; Torres-Matrullo, 1974).

Social Support

It is well established that social support is an important influence on divorce adjustment. For example, Thiriot and Buchner (1992) found that friends and informal support were among the strongest predictors of divorce adjustment for women. In their literature review, Ladd and Zvonkovic (1995) concluded that social networks are highly related to the impact of divorce on mothers. Garvin, Kalter, and Hansell (1993) also found that social support and income are mediating factors that are strongly associated with divorce adjustment. In terms of factors influencing health behaviors of divorced mothers, Duffy (1995) found that social support was positively related to the practice of more healthy forms of behavior after divorce.

Previous research has found that less dense networks provide more support to women undergoing life transitions (Gerstel et al., 1985; Milburn, 1986; Wilcox, 1981;
Veevers, 1991). Divorced single mothers involved in a dense kin-filled network experience a lower quality of life and more conservative attitudes toward women’s roles than do women with fewer kin in their networks (Leslie & Grady, 1988). However, according to Stokes (1983), it is not density per se which makes a difference, it is the composition of the network, i.e., either fewer relatives in the social network or more clusters of friends who are not linked to relatives in the network. For example, among recently divorced women, it was found that friends, especially female friends, were the major source of support. Also, it was found that the most important and frequent type of support was availing (i.e., being available) (Duffy, 1993).

A number of studies have documented the high value that Hispanics of various national origins place on family support. Even highly acculturated Hispanics are much more family oriented than non-Hispanic Whites (Sabogal, Marín, & Otero-Sabogal, 1987). Keefe (1984) observed that despite high levels of acculturation, Hispanic Americans enjoy a close relationship with their extended family. Hispanics, in general, seek the family as a resource for dealing with problems. Thus, family support should be highly related to divorce adjustment among Hispanic women. According to Mindel (1980), kin networks among Hispanics are more likely to meet socio-emotional needs than instrumental ones. This social support which comes from the family appears to help protect individuals against physical and emotional stress (Marín & Marín, 1991).

Acculturation

According to Vega, Hough, and Romero (1983), “changing cultures is an adaptive process, and acculturation is also idiosyncratic, producing distinctive levels of change in individual family members. For instance, cultural values and behaviors as well as ethnic
identification may differ intergenerationally” (Keefe & Padilla, 1987; Szapocznik & Hernández, 1988) (in Vega, 1990; p. 1018). The immigrant’s attitudes and behaviors change toward those of the dominant cultural group as a result of exposure to the new cultural system (Rogler, Malgady, Gonstantino, & Blumenthal, 1987). This process involves the adaptation of the sociocultural norms of the country of origin to those of the host country (Garza-Guerrero, 1973; Grinberg & Grinberg, 1984).

Research has found that acculturation is related to health behaviors and education, in which highly acculturated individuals practice healthier behaviors and are more highly educated than those who are less acculturated (Marín, 1989); however, the acculturation process also has been found to be a predictor of psychological distress (Williams & Berry, 1991). Higher rates of drinking and deviant behavior (Graves, 1967; Neff, 1986), anorexia (Pumariega, 1986), depressive symptomatology, stress (Salgado de Snyder, 1987a), anxiety, and psychosocial dysfunction (Warheit, Vega, Auth, & Meinhardt, 1985) have been linked to the degree of adjustment to the new culture, ideally manifested as a resolution of the acculturation process. For example, Salgado de Snyder (1987b) found that subjects who remained highly loyal to the Mexican culture had significantly lower levels of self-esteem and higher levels of acculturative stress than subjects who scored lower on the loyalty scale. Also, Miranda and White (1993) found that Hispanics with lower levels of acculturation appear to manifest considerable isolation, manifested in lower levels of participation in the host culture.

Although the acculturation process can be stressful, studies have recognized the “buffering” effect of some variables such as family support and social support (Williams & Berry, 1991). In addition, some studies have provided evidence that participation in
more than one culture need not necessarily produce negative outcomes. Instead, they found that high level of adjustment and positive capabilities are associated with high levels of multiculturalism (Ramírez in Garza & Gallegos, 1995). Thus for divorced Hispanic women greater acculturation should be related to greater acceptance of divorce and more resources for coping with the changes associated with divorce.

Research Questions

In spite of very high divorce rates in recent years and the corresponding increase in female-headed, single parent families living in poverty, very little research has focused on Hispanic women's adjustment to divorce. From an ecological perspective, there are aspects of the Hispanic culture (acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support) that might serve as particularly salient mediators in the relationship between the stressor event of divorce the adjustment process. Also, based on the general divorce adjustment literature, it is proposed that the relationship between and among these variables might vary as function of the time since the divorce. In an exploration of these relationships, the following research questions are addressed:

1) What is the relationship between acculturation, sex-role attitudes and social support?

2) How are acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support related to divorce adjustment?

3) Are the relationships of acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support with divorce adjustment additive and independent of the level of the other variables, e.g., is acculturation related to divorce adjustment the same for people with traditional and non-traditional sex-role attitudes?
4) Because divorce adjustment should increase over time, are the relationships of acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support with divorce adjustment the same across time or are they evident only at certain periods or perhaps even reversed at different periods of time since the divorce?

Constitutive Definitions of Study Variables

Hispanic: In the United States, Hispanics are those that from birth or origin come from Spain or Latin America (Portes, 1989). It is a term used by the Bureau of Census as an ethnic label, yet one that does not denote race because most Hispanics are racially mixed, including combinations of European Caucasian, African Black, and American Indian (Marín & Van Oss Marín, 1991).

Social Support: Social support is a resource provided by social network relationships. There are different types of social support provided by social support networks: emotional support, instrumental support, informational support, and appraisal support.

Sex Role Attitudes: Sex-role attitudes refer to the predisposition to act in a consistent way according to the person’s gender, which is learned and filled with emotion (Rush, 1971 in Martí Coll de Purcell, 1987). Traditional male roles can be defined in terms of power, aggressiveness, competence, objectivity, dominance, and prestige, in which it is expected that work is more important than being a husband and/or a parent (Steinmann & Fox, 1966). On the other hand, the traditional female role can be defined in terms of passivity, subjectivity, submissive, sensibility, and caring—characteristics that conform to the expectation of being a wife, mother, and housewife (Acosta Belén, 1980; Hernández Rivera, 1982).
Acculturation: Acculturation refers to “a process of change experienced by members of a minority group toward the adoption of the majority group’s culture.” This process of change is frequently viewed as a form of adaptation (Berry, 1980; Mena, Padilla, & Maldonado, 1987 in Negy & Woods, 1992; p. 224).

Adjustment to Divorce: Kitson and Holmes (1992) define adjustment to divorce as “being relatively free of symptoms of psychological disturbance, having a sense of self-esteem, and having put the marriage and former partner in enough perspective that one’s identity is no longer tied to being married or to the former partner” (p. 20).

Operational Definitions of Study Variables

Social Network: The variable “social network” consisted of two subscales measuring the extent of social support from (a) family (i.e., mother, father, siblings, children, in-laws, and other relatives) and (b) nonfamily (i.e., friends, neighbor, co-worker, and others).

Sex-Role Attitudes: Sex-role attitudes refers to scores on three subscales of The Sex-Role Modernity Scale (Scanzoni, 1978): (a) Position of Wife, (b) Position of Husband-Father and, (c) Position of Mother.

Acculturation: Acculturation is the extent of adoption of characteristics descriptive of the majority culture as measured by the General Acculturation Index (Balcazar, Castro, & Krull, 1995) and the Cuellar Acculturation Scale (Cuellar, Harris, & Jasso, 1980).

Divorce Adjustment: Divorce adjustment is the extent of social and emotional recovery from the losses associated with divorce as measured the Postdivorce Problems and Stress Scale (PPSS) (Raschke in Touliatos, Perlmutter, & Strauss, 1990).
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Women and Divorce Adjustment

Although both men and women may experience acute emotional stress as a result of divorce (Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1990), women are thought to experience greater distress (Pledge, 1992). Using a sample of 45 divorced parents with joint or sole custody of their school-age children, Clarke-Stewart and Bailey (1990) found that men were better adjusted than women in the three years after divorce. Women were having more financial problems, had less stable and unsatisfying jobs, and experienced more psychological stress and more dissatisfaction than men. Women who were better adjusted were more likely to own or rent their home alone rather than with their ex-spouse, had moved away after the divorce, and felt that they had received more social support from friends and family after the divorce.

In a literature review, Pledge (1992) similarly concluded that women seem to experience greater stress than men at the time of separation. According to Ladd and Zvonkovic (1995), the first year following divorce is the most difficult in terms of emotional crisis, accompanied by high levels of depression, hostility, and the inability to form intimate contacts, especially for women who have custody of their children. Other
research has found that divorced women have higher rates of anxiety and depression than any other marital status group (McLanahan, Wedemeyer & Adelberg, 1981; McCubbin, Joy, Cauble, Comeau, Patterson, & Needle, 1980).

Several studies have found that age and the related factor, length of marriage, are key predictors of women's adaptation to divorce (Kitson & Raschke, 1981). Many studies have demonstrated that the ending of longer marriages produces more traumatic effects and more problematic adjustment (e.g., Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978) and that older women experience a more difficult period of adjustment than do younger women (Bursik, 1991).

Women's sex-role attitudes may also be important predictors of their adjustment to separation and divorce. Bursik (1991), for example, conducted a study to clarify those factors related to successful adjustment at different times during the divorce process. A longitudinal research design (one year duration) was used to study three diverse samples of women in the process of adaptation: (a) 36 women without children, (b) 35 women with young children, and (c) 33 women with adult children. Findings indicated that sex-role attitudes, social isolation, and inter-spouse acrimony emerged as stronger correlates of adjustment.

Thus, women with traditional sex-role attitudes appear to experience less positive adjustment and report higher levels of psychological distress. On the other hand, nontraditional sex-role attitudes appear to facilitate adjustment to divorce (Booth & Amato, 1991; Bursik, 1991; Pledge, 1992; Thiriot & Buckner, 1992).
Several studies have found that social support from family and friends is an important predictor of divorce adjustment as well as adaptation to many life events. Members of the extended family and friends may give emotional and instrumental support, and the mere perception that these types of support are available may help divorce adjustment (e.g., Duffy, 1995; Ladd & Zvonkovic, 1995; Thiriot & Buckner, 1992). On the other hand, Thornton (1985) concluded that women who have greater potential for financial independence outside the family and who have more exposure to non-familial values are more accepting of divorce.

Some studies also have found that the relationship with the former spouse also appears to be a key predictor of divorce adjustment for divorced women, especially when the former spouse continues to share childrearing responsibilities (Bursik, 1991). For example, Thiriot and Buckner (1992) examined multiple factors related to satisfactory post-divorce adjustment of 204 single custodial parents. Using multiple regression, they found among other things that relationship with the noncustodial parent was a significant predictor of post-divorce adjustment. Conversely, other studies have found that a relationship with the former spouse that is hostile or strained is a predictor of maladjustment to divorce (Bursik, 1991; Stewart & Clarke, 1995).

In addition, difficulties with single childrearing, career planning, housing, and homemaking make adjustment to divorce more stressful for women (Bloom, Hodges, Kern, & McFadden, 1985; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1990). Booth and Amato (1992) used a national sample of married persons interviewed in 1980 and again in 1983 and 1988, to assess the impact of divorce on residential change. They concluded that divorce
has profound effects “on the probability of moving, the number of moves, and in the
likelihood of shifts in owner status, dwelling type, and housing quality” (p. 205),
especially if the quality of housing declines, which often occurs for custodial mothers
because of their economic condition.

**Women's Socioeconomic Status, and Education**

Income and education seem pivotal to women's ultimate recovery from the
change associated with divorce. Income per se has a profound impact on women's
adjustment to divorce, which correlates negatively with legal stressors and number of
children, and positively with women's remarriage, income during marriage, educational
level, and employment.

Furthermore, divorce often results in a dramatic decline in the economic well-
being of mothers with custody of children. Females head one-half of poor families, and
half of those families are headed by divorced or separated females (Bianchi, 1995).
Research has suggested that, three years after divorce, men are better adjusted than
women. Men’s better post-divorce adjustment is thought to be a result of their improved
financial status, less psychological stress, and more psychological satisfaction (Clarke-

Duffy (1995) assessed the health behaviors of women who were divorced single
parents and identified facilitators of and deterrents to healthy behaviors. Data were
collected from 148 women with children by questionnaire and telephone interview one
year after divorce. Categories of perceived health behavior facilitators and deterrents
were, among other things, material resources, social support, and control over time.
Because of the time demands of full-time work and full-time parenting, role strain after divorce is another major factor in custodial mothers’ greater post-divorce distress. According to Weitzman (1985), divorced women with custody of children experience intense stress because of inadequate time and money.

Garvin, Kalter, and Hansell (1993), using a sample of 56 divorced mothers, examined individual differences in exposure and response to stress. Through a 20 minute telephone interview, a week-long diary, and a 2 ½ hour home visit, information was collected on various kinds of stressors (major life events, daily hassles, and divorce specific stressors), potential mediators (social support), and adjustment outcomes (social adjustment, psychiatric symptoms, and daily health and mood). The study concluded that one of the strongest factors in the adjustment to divorce is social support and income.

Moreover, Dixon and Rettig (1994), using multiple regression analyses, found that after two years income adequacy for women after divorce was positively associated with total number of weekly work hours, personal resources of age and education, and perceptions of financial solvency. The sample for this study was composed of 209 single women responding to the second phase of a longitudinal divorce study. In fact, according to Kitson and Morgan (1990), education may facilitate adjustment partially through increasing a person’s income-earning potential. Well-educated individuals may also have better cognitive coping responses, a stronger sense of control, and a better social support network for coping with divorce than individuals with less education.
Hispanic Families

Sociodemographic Trends

Hispanic Americans constitute 19.4 million, or 8.1% of the population of the United States (Slonim, 1991). According to 1992 data, the total population of Hispanic origin was 64% Mexican, 11% Puerto Rican, 4.7% Cuban, and 14% Central and South American, with 6.3% classified as “other” (García, 1993). Hispanics under the age of 21 are almost 40% of the total Hispanic population; Mexicans and Puerto Ricans have the highest concentration of individuals under the age of 21, followed by Central and South Americans (Solís, 1995). Hispanic immigrants outnumber Hispanics born in the United States (65% versus 35% respectively) (Hurtado, Hayes-Bautista, Valdez, & Hernández, 1992).

Hispanic families are still larger than non-Hispanic families. For example, 42% of non-Hispanic families consist of two members, whereas only one fourth of Hispanic families consist of only two members. By 1988, more than one-fourth of Hispanic families consisted of five or more persons, whereas only 13% of non-Hispanic families were this size. The median number per family is 3.7 for Hispanic families and 3.13 for non-Hispanic families (García, 1991).

Whereas Hispanic families are larger than non-Hispanic families, the proportion of Hispanic female-headed families with no husband present have increased from 22% in 1982 to 23% in 1989, largely as a result of increasing divorce rates, which might account for the almost 52% of these Hispanic families living below the poverty level in contrast to 32% of non-Hispanic female households (García, 1991). In addition, 56% of these
Hispanic female heads of households are unemployed (Solís, 1995), which might be the result of inadequate educational background. In fact, in terms of education, Hispanics in general remain far behind non-Hispanics (García, 1991).

While 23% of Hispanic households are female-headed families, the rate for African-American households is 43% and for non-Hispanic White households 13% (Solís, 1995). Among Hispanic groups, female-headed families were most common among Puerto Ricans (44%), followed by Central and South Americans (24%), then Mexicans (19%), and finally Cubans (16%) (Duany & Pittman, 1990).

**Hispanic Women and Divorce**

Although divorce has increased drastically in the Hispanic population, and there is also an increase of Hispanic female-headed families, there is very little direct research on these topics. Some research has concluded that the trend toward divorce among Hispanic families has increased in the same proportion as among African-Americans and non-Hispanic Whites in the last three decades (e.g., Solís, 1995).

The rate of divorce among Hispanics varies considerably among Hispanic subgroups. For example, Mexican-Americans and Cuban-Americans have greater marriage stability than those of whites (Frisbie, 1986), while migrant Puerto Ricans have higher rates of divorced or separated families than other Hispanics or African-Americans (Muschkin & Myers, 1989). In fact, divorce in Puerto Rico is considerably higher than in the mainland (Santiago-Borrero & Valcarcel, 1994). Several reasons have been offered to explain this occurrence. Since Puerto Rico has experienced fast social change since 1950, moving from an agricultural to an industrialized society has affected marital
stability by changing the traditional role of women. This change in women’s roles was the result of (1) a need for increased income due to a decrease in household production and a change in consumption patterns, (2) greater employment opportunities for women outside the home, and (3) greater educational level of the population, which also contributed to an increase in women’s employment (Canabal, 1990; McKenry & Price, 1995).

Carver and Teachman (1993) examined the impact of women’s employment histories on divorce in Puerto Rico and concluded, among other things, that women’s work in wage-paying jobs increases union disruption in comparison to the case of women who do not work and women who work in more home-oriented occupations. Past research agrees that these changes result in conflict between the expected gender roles of a traditional patriarchal society and the presence of women in a breadwinner role. Other factors include the migration of the population from rural to urban areas and the broad and successful campaign by private groups and the government in promoting the use of contraceptives and sterilization (Canabal, 1990; McKenry & Price, 1995).

Because Hispanic families, as well as minorities in general, are much more likely to be poor, even with two parents present, marital dissolution does not have as large a detrimental effect on the economic status as it does on Anglo mothers. Moreover, because of the family values and the social support that comes from Hispanic culture, the feminization of poverty does not have the same meaning for Hispanic female headed households and social support often serves as a buffer.
Although social support may serve as a buffer for Hispanic divorced mothers, literature has not yet established the effect of acculturation on divorced Hispanic mothers. The process of acculturation along with divorce can be difficult for the Hispanic divorced mother’s adjustment. Furthermore, Hispanic culture reinforces traditional gender roles, and it has been found that these are related adversely to divorce adjustment (Pledge, 1992). For example, Krause and Markide (1985) found that among full-time employed, divorced and separated Hispanic women, the presence of young children at home was the strongest predictor of mental distress. In addition, because Hispanics are culturally Roman Catholic, the attitudes of the Church regarding sexuality and family life are important factors that play an important role in divorce adjustment among Hispanic people (Yep, 1995). Also, the Catholic Church maintains strong resistance to divorce because marriage is seen as a sacred and indissoluble sacrament (Mackin, 1984). The Catholic Church only accepts the annulment of marriage when one or both of the members have given defective consent. It is very important to realize that the Church does not consider annulment as a divorce; rather the Church makes a judgment that a Christian marriage never existed. The Church’s position makes adjustment to divorce more difficult because the very act of divorce, whether justified or not, is not accepted by the Church and is thus seen in a negative light. According to Booth and Amato (1991), individuals who believe that divorce is a morally unjustified choice experience heightened stress in their adjustment to divorce.
Family Values

The vast majority of Hispanics are Roman Catholic (Jue, 1987, in Yep, 1995); therefore the attitudes of the Church, in particular those regarding sexuality and family life, have a significant impact on the attitudes of Hispanic people toward marriage and family. Although Hispanics may vary in terms of history and culture, family customs, socioeconomic status, age, geographic location, and time since migration to the United States, families of Hispanic descent in the United States tend to share many beliefs that can be attributed to the influence of the Catholic religion. These Catholic-inspired beliefs include: the integral nature of the family in daily living; functional dominance of males, complemented by a traditional role for women; reinforcement of sex-role distinctions through childrearing practices; strong kinship bonds; centrality of children, repression of feminine attributes in males, and males as head of the household (Wilkinson, 1987).

For the traditional Hispanic family, the word “familia” (family) means an extended, multigenerational group of persons that includes godparents and very close friends (Becerra, 1988). Hispanic families have been found to maintain strong and frequent interaction among kin. There is a strong emphasis on familism, in which ties go beyond the nuclear family, and there are extensive and reciprocal rights and duties associated with the extended family (Vega, 1995). Each individual has a deep sense of family obligation, which extends to the mother’s and father’s family of origin (Padilla, 1987).

Researchers agree that the family is the most important institution for Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cuban Americans, and Central and South Americans (Soriano, 1991).
This is manifested by the practice of Hispanic families of using two last names, indicating the father’s last name as well as the mother’s last name. It is very normal for the Hispanic married woman to retain her parental names, and if she wants to use her husband’s last name, this is done by specifying through the use of the article “de” (“of”) that this is her married name (Parrillo, 1985).

The family is monogamous and strongly patriarchal. However, two contrasting images of fathers’ roles in Hispanic families are found in the literature. The traditional view describes the Hispanic father as a dominant, authoritarian figure in the family, and a disciplinarian (Slonim, 1991). An alternative view of the Hispanic father suggests a more egalitarian approach to decision making and greater levels of father involvement in childrearing (Powell, 1995).

It is fundamental for Hispanic families to have a close relationship with maternal and paternal grandparents. The family is viewed by Hispanic people as a warm and nurturing institution, offering support throughout the lifespan. The family is seen as the major support system, in which the individual may turn for help in times of stress or need; however, this reliance on the family is stronger among lower-income Hispanic families. When one member of the family suffers a negative experience, the entire family is typically highly involved (Becerra, 1988; Rueschenberg & Buriel, 1995; Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988; Slonim, 1991; Soriano, 1991; Vega, 1995). In addition, Hispanics usually want to consult other family members before making important decisions.

The extended family may include non-blood relatives, such as “compadres” (godparents of one’s children), who have the same rights and obligations as if they were
part of the family, and “hijos de crianza” (children informally adopted, something commonly practiced among Puerto Ricans). The cultural practice of informal adoption of children is more common during family crises (Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988), in which the extended family, such as grandparents, aunts or uncles, assume responsibility for the children. Usually economic difficulties motivate the extended family to take on this task, such as the economic problems that follow divorce, death of a parent, and/or childbirth out of wedlock.

The social life of Hispanic people centers on the family and nonblood relatives (fictive kin). Because the family fulfills most individual needs, a high level of interdependence characterizes Hispanic families. However, this interdependence is not related to lower self-esteem, nor does it conflict with self-reliance and independence (Padilla, 1987).

**Childrearing Practices**

In Hispanic families, the parent-child dyad is often considered more important than the marital dyad, which reflects the values of a child-centered culture. Consequently, childrearing is likely to be the responsibility of parents, aunts, uncles, grandparents, and godparents. These members of the family not only care for the basic needs of children, but also are responsible for their cultural socialization (Dilworth-Anderson & Marshall, 1996).

Through childrearing practices then, Hispanic families teach their children the value of their culture (Queen, Habenstein, & Quadagno, 1985). For instance, it has been found that, compared to non-Hispanic White adolescents, Mexican-American youth
appear more inclined to adopt the religious and political beliefs, as well as the occupational preferences, of their parents, regardless of socioeconomic status (Abraham, 1986). Through childrearing practices, biculturalism is also taught to Hispanic children (Dilworth-Anderson & Marshall, 1996). According to Dilworth-Anderson and Marshall (1996), when Hispanic children are encouraged to speak Spanish at home and at the same time become proficient in English at school, parents are fostering in their children the basics of a bicultural life.

Recent descriptive studies describe Hispanic childrearing practices as “warm, nurturing, and affectionate, with emphasis on traditional respect for males and the elderly” (Martínez, 1993; p. 191). Also, recent studies of the father-child relationship indicate that fathers are respected and deferred to, especially in traditional families, but they are also warm and affectionate with their children (Julian, McKenry, & McKelvey, 1994).

Hispanic Gender Roles

In Hispanic families there remains a rather strict dichotomy between the sexes, with women’s major functions designated as childbearing and managing the household. Men are conceptualized as the main economic providers, heads of the household, major decision-makers, and absolute power holders. In the absence of the husband/father, this power position falls to the oldest son, and every member of the household is expected to follow his orders. Women have a status subordinate to men, and there is supremacy of male authority in husband-wife relations. Wives are still socialized to be patient and forbearing in their relationships with men (Becerra, 1988; Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988).
Women are expected to remain innocent and unaware of sexual practices until their husbands provide this education (Nyamathi & Vásquez, 1995). In fact, Mexican-American adolescents believe that females should be virgins until marriage, but that it is significantly less important for males (Aneshensel, Becerra, Feilder, & Schuler, 1990; Padilla & Baird, 1991; Solís, 1995). These traditional sex-role values have been attributed to the Catholic Church and to Spanish culture, both of which are associated with a patriarchal family structure (Christensen, 1979; Ghali, 1982; Stycos, 1952; Torres-Matrullo, 1976). "Familism may in fact reinforce the gender subordination of women by placing a disproportionate burden on them, especially as they grow older" (Hurtado, 1995; p. 50). However, the increasing numbers of Hispanic families headed by females may increase egalitarian gender participation in families, posing a direct challenge to male dominance (Vega, 1995).

**Hispanic Women's Sex-Role Attitudes**

Studies of Hispanic women have found, in general, that there is a relationship between sex-role attitudes, education, and level of acculturation. For example, Soto (1983) found that generation (first versus second) and education were significantly related to sex-role traditionalism, with second generation and better-educated Hispanic women being less traditional in regard to sex roles. Similarly, Kranau, Green, and Valencia-Weber (1982), examined the relationship between acculturation and attitudes toward women and sex roles in a group of Hispanic women (mostly Mexican-American)(n = 60). Kranau et al. found that those who had more liberal attitudes toward women were more acculturated to U.S. norms, had more education, and were younger than their less
acculturated counterparts. This study also indicated that marital status, education, and age were important factors. For example, highly acculturated women were less likely to be married, divorced, or widowed, and more likely to be young and better educated than their less-acculturated counterparts. Also, other studies have found that young, educated, and employed Hispanic women in the United States, with a less traditional sex-role orientation and higher levels of acculturation and socioeconomic status, experience a more positive adaptation process to mainstream culture and manifest less adaptive psychological stress (Espin, 1987; Soto & Shaver, 1982; Torres-Matullo, 1980). However, Ginorio (1976) claimed that Hispanic females' sex-role traditionalism is affected by education more than by generation. Similarly, Torres-Matullo (1974) reported a negative relationship between education and sex-role traditionalism among Hispanic women living in the United States. In fact, educational attainment is inversely related to the number of children that Hispanic mothers have (Frisbee, 1986). Other research studies, which have not included Hispanics, have found that greater androgyny or nontraditional sex role attitudes seem to be a factor in smoother transitions through the divorce process (Keith & Schafer, 1982; Wedemeyer & Johnson, 1982 in Thiriot & Buckner, 1992), especially for women (Pledge, 1992).

Although there is some inconsistency in the study findings, research suggests that Hispanic women have a more liberal sex-role orientation than in the past (De León, 1990; Del Valle, 1990). However, when Hispanic Americans are compared to Anglos, Hispanics still maintain more traditional sex-role attitudes. For example, Saenz, Goudy, and Lorenz (1989) have found that Hispanics have more positive views of housewives
than Anglos, which may be related to the greater proportion of Mexican-American women employed in low-wage, low-prestige, and repetitive jobs. Regarding their satisfaction with their marriages, both Anglo and Mexican-American women were more satisfied and less depressed when husbands contributed to the maintenance of domestic tasks.

Social Networks and Social Support

According to Kitson and Holmes (1992), social support is defined as “help that people receive in performing the activities required or permitted by their social roles” (p. 222). Milardo (1988) defines social network as “a collection of individuals who know and interact with a particular target individual or couple” (p. 20).

Literature on social support has demonstrated that having a supportive social network promotes better adjustment and health. It has been demonstrated that increased social support can be a buffer against psychological distress, and linked with positive mental health outcomes such as lower rates of depressive symptoms, lower stress, decreased loneliness, and positive self-image (Ryan & Solky, 1996).

According to the literature, there are different types of social support provided by social support networks: (a) emotional support (provides empathy and concern to a person); (b) instrumental support (provides material, financial or physical assistance); (c) informational support (provides information, guidance or training that can help a person to solve a problem); and, (d) appraisal support (helps a person to evaluate his/her own performance). In the area of divorce, it seems that not all of these types of support are related to psychological adjustment. For example, Hughes, Good, and Candell (1993)
examined the impact of social support on the psychological adjustment of divorced mothers. Divorced mothers provided social network information and psychological adjustment profiles at two months and six months following divorce. Results indicated that assistance with basic needs (instrumental support) had little to do with the psychological well-being of divorced mothers. Providing emotional support was only minimally related to the divorced mothers' psychological adjustment, and providing information only (i.e., informational support) was related to poor adjustment of divorced mothers (Hughes, Good, & Candell, 1993).

Moreover, in a literature review, Ryan and Solky (1996) examined autonomy support as an element within relationships that is important to their functioning as a psychological support for the individual, especially when the individual is in distress. Autonomy support was defined as the support for an individual's self-regulation, and it involves respect for another's feelings, values, and perspective. Autonomy support differs from relationships in which others take an evaluative and judgmental stance or control, pressure, or impinge upon one's behavior and experience. According to Ryan and Solky (1996), autonomy support enhances personal well-being; facilitates development, expression, and integration of the self; and offers a buffer from negative outcomes during distress.

In terms of social network, research evidence (e.g., Granovetter, 1976; Craven & Willman, 1973 in Milburn, 1986) suggests that different types of social networks provide different forms of support. For example, less dense networks with loose ties provide support in the form of new information, often more helpful support, and allow for the
personal growth of women undergoing life transitions (i.e., divorce) (Gerstel, Riessman, & Rosenfield, 1985; Milburn, 1986). In contrast, more dense networks with strong ties are found to be more effective in terms of on-going assistance that is often necessary to cope with chronic conditions such as mental or physical illness (Milburn, 1986).

Also, there is evidence that social networks change following marital separation and divorce (Rands, 1988). For example, for recently divorced individuals, there is a relatively high turnover in social network. Most of the change is in relationship with in-laws. Also, a large number of friends tend to be replaced, usually with unmarried same-sex ones (Rands, 1988).

Divorced Women and Social Support

Women consistently seem to rely on supportive social networks than do men, minimizing in that way some of their psychological distress at separation (Veevers, 1991). On the other hand, these social involvements may also increase their exposure to more conflictual or negative interactions within the social network (Turner, 1994). In addition, the availability of social support often diminishes during marital separation and divorce. Social support availability during marriage may become shattered following marital separation and divorce, resulting in less support when it more is actually needed (Kitson with Holmes, 1992). While these networks often decrease in size during separation and immediately after divorce, as time progresses, they typically are rebuilt (Leslie & Grady, 1988; Nelson, 1995).

Analyzing data from the National Survey of Families and Households, Duran-Aydintug (1998) examined the extent to which men and women rely on informal and
formal sources for emotional support sources. Similar to other studies, it was found that both men and women rely on their friends for emotional support more than on any other sources; friends are followed by parents in the extent of social support given. Also Duran-Aydintug (1998) found that, compared to men, women obtain more support from both informal and formal sources.

Women's perception of social support seems also to help them adjust to divorce. Using a sample of separated women with at least one school-aged child, Stewart and Clarke (1995) tried to identify among other things (a) components of social support which related to perceived social support and (b) components of social support with satisfaction with single status. Mailed questionnaire data were collected, and results indicated that perceived social support was related to appraisal, self-esteem, and belonging. The implications of these findings were that separated women need to be assisted in maintaining and establishing supportive social networks which can promote self-esteem and facilitate adjustment to their single status.

Similarly, Waggener and Galassi (1993) investigated the relationship of social support and adjustment to marital separation among subjects separated from 0 – 14 months. Results indicated that social support satisfaction was a strong predictor of self-esteem, depression, anxiety, interpersonal sensitivity, and somatic symptoms.

Previous research has found that the characteristics of the support network (i.e., density and composition) as well as the functions of support, perceived amount of support, and satisfaction with the social network support, influence divorce adjustment for women who are single parents (Brown & Manela, 1978; Duffy, 1984; McLanahan,
Wedemeyer, & Adelberg, 1981; Pett, 1982). Among recently divorced women, friends, especially female friends, tend to be a primary source of support, followed by intimate partners and parents (Duffy, 1993).

According to Coughey (1981), divorced women receive instrumental and emotional support mostly from their family; residential proximity and presence of young children increase the level of support, whereas age and having a new relationship decrease it. Although support from the family facilitates the individual's and their children's adjustment to divorce (Isaacs & Leon, 1987; Pett, 1982), research has found that parents' support for their children is conditional on parental approval of divorce (Kitson, Moir, & Mason, 1982). Also, Hughes et al. (1993) suggested that (a) opportunities to be involved in social activities, (b) amount of conflict, and (c) reciprocity and closeness experienced in the social network seem to influence divorce adjustment for women. Similarly, Kitson with Holmes (1992) found that instrumental assistance did not greatly influence adjustment to divorce. However, the social support that promoted the divorced person's (a) sense of being an active member of a social network, and (b) feeling of shared meaning with others, without involving the potential for conflict or loss of self-esteem, seemed to be the most beneficial type of support in terms of adjustment to divorce.

Social Support Among Hispanics

Cross-cultural studies have indicated that dense social networks are one of the main characteristics that distinguish ethnic minorities from European-American cultural groups. For example, Fischer and Shavit (1995) found that Israelis had networks that
were denser than those of most Americans. Also, it has been found that African-American divorced mothers had dense social networks, which were perceived as beneficial (Hughes, 1988). Similarly, Hispanic families have been found to maintain strong and frequent interaction among kin (Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988).

Cross-cultural research also indicates that type of social network varies between and within cultural groups (e.g., Kim & McKenry, 1999; Wagner, 1988, 1993). For example, for African-American individuals, their main social support comes from their family and church. Within African-American families, support is primarily provided through relational networks that consists of consanguineal as well as non-kin relationships.

For Hispanics, family is the core of their social support system. Their family social support includes close and distant kin and the godparents of children in the family. Families are responsible for primary social and emotional support in which mutual obligation and reciprocity are expected (Dilworth-Anderson & Marshall, 1996). Similarly, the main social support of Asian-Americans and Native-Americans is their families, which provide them emotional, and instrumental support (Dilworth-Anderson & Marshall, 1996).

Within the Hispanic group, Wagner (1988) has found that social support varies by level of acculturation. First generation Hispanic divorced mothers remain closer to their extended kin, whereas third generation Hispanic divorced mothers are closer to their friendship network. As Hispanic-Americans become more acculturated to the Anglo-American culture, their social networks become less dense. However, as Griffith and

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Villavicencio (1985) suggest, social networks in the Hispanic population may become less dense because of variations in socioeconomic status rather than acculturation.

However, as previous literature suggests, divorced mothers involved in a dense kin-filled network experience a lower quality of life, do not adjust as well to divorce, and have more conservative sex-role attitudes (Leslie & Grady, 1988). Such outcomes might be the result of cultural values regarding family and sex-role attitudes.

Social support patterns have been studied more than all other family structures and relationships among Hispanic-American families. The most significant members of the support networks are consanguineal relatives and, to a lesser extent, those related through affinity and fictive kin created through godparenthood ("compadrazgo") (Keefe, Susan, & Casas, 1978). Social support in Hispanic families is characterized by participation in large kin networks, high levels of visitation, and exchange behaviors (Keefe, 1984).

Hispanic-Americans are more likely to use family as a resource for solving problems and are more likely to reside in a cluster of extended kin households than are non-Hispanic Whites. Also, Hispanics are less likely to live in a nuclear family and far from their extended family (Vega, 1995) than non-Hispanic Whites. For example, Mindel (1980) found that non-Hispanic Whites migrated away from kin networks, whereas Hispanics migrated toward them.

Several studies have found that Hispanic immigrants have smaller social networks than non-immigrants because immigrants rely mainly on family members for emotional and instrumental support (Golding & Burnam, 1990; Griffith & Villavicencio, 1985).
Family networks are used to solve problems associated with immigration, to get
information about employment, and to financially support and offer shelter to immigrants
or migrants until they are financially stable (Portes & Bach, 1985). Portes and Bach
(1985) noted that 75% of Cubans and 50% of Mexican-Americans reported some or a
great deal of help from relatives during their first three years of post-immigration
residence.

"Health, family functioning, and life satisfaction" among Hispanic families "has
been related to the effectiveness of available social support" (Solís, 1995; p 65). Also,
regardless of acculturation levels, Hispanics perceive a high level of family support
(Keefe & Padilla, 1987; Sabogal, Marín, & Otero-Sabogal, 1987). Cross cultural studies
regarding social support have found that Mexican-Americans use extended family
networks for social and emotional support (Mindel, 1980). Cross-sectional studies have
indicated that familism and social support increase with each generation living in the
United States (Keefe & Padilla, 1987). Holtzman and Gilbert (1987) found that among
dual-earner Mexican-American families with young children, highly effective social
support significantly contributed to their high life satisfaction, (especially for the wives),
positive attitudes toward work and family, and low perceived role conflict.

Hispanic Women’s Social Support

There may be differences between the sexes in the composition of the support
network. According to Rubel (1966), Mexican-American men from south Texas have
tightly-knit friendship networks known as “palomillas,” whereas women’s networks
primarily are female family members, such as their sisters and their mothers. In fact,
when mothers become single as a result of divorce or separation and become heads of the household, their extended family usually contributes to their household income (Angel & Tienda, 1982).

Differences also are found between Hispanic women who do not work outside their home and those who do. For example, Vega (1995) found that Hispanic employed women have higher levels of social support, in part, because they have higher incomes and are more likely to drive.

Several differences have been found between Anglo and Hispanic women in terms of their support network. For example, Keefe, Padilla, and Manuel Carlos (1978) have concluded that Hispanic women’s support systems are larger, yet more likely to depend on one particular female family member with whom a special bond of intimacy and trust is shared. However, Anglo women’s support networks are smaller, are characterized by less geographically concentrated kin, and include a broader range of relationships beyond kin that include friends, neighbors, coworkers, and formal health services for advice and help.

Similar ethnic differences in social support have been found among mothers who become single parents. For example, Wagner (1988) found that Mexican-American and Anglo mothers had different support networks at the beginning of single parenthood, and over time the similarities became even more pronounced. In their study, the Anglos had fewer relatives available, and they were more focused on the friend network as a source of support. Anglos reported larger numbers of close friends and a greater desire for expansion of the network. The second and third generation Mexican-Americans
remained geographically closer to their networks, but they experienced greater social complications and personal reactions that affected these relationships. Although there were initial differences in their social networks, the friendship networks became more important to Mexican-Americans over time. Second and third generation Mexican-Americans were found by Wagner to share a general tendency for reliance on family to be replaced by increasing involvement with friends. However, the first generation Mexican-American women remained more kin-oriented, and they were the most socially isolated in the sample (Wagner, 1988).

In another study, Wagner (1993) found that there were ethnic differences between Mexican-American and Anglo mothers in demographic characteristics and psychosocial stressors experienced during the first year of single parenthood after divorce or marital separation. When Mexican-Americans became single mothers, they were younger, had more children, and were less educated. However, these Hispanic mothers experienced fewer disruptions in their lifestyles as a result of changes in their financial situation. These women had geographically closer and more intact family support networks, and fewer relationships were disrupted because of geographic relocation as compared to Anglos. Although Anglo women had more formal education and job skills, they were unable to achieve income levels higher than the Mexican-Americans, perhaps because of higher geographic mobility which prevented them from having as close and intact friend and family support networks.
Acculturation of Hispanics

Acculturation is the process an immigrant experiences when s/he moves to a country where the cultural norms, traditions, values, and beliefs differ from her/his country of origin (Berry & Kim, 1988). According to Gil and Vázquez (1996), acculturation is a gradual and gentle process in which the immigrant’s behavior and attitudes adapt to the habits of the dominant culture because of continued exposure.

Acculturation has been viewed primarily from an assimilationist perspective, based on the experience of European immigrant families at the turn of this century (Seña-Rivera, 1976 in Garza & Gallegos, 1995). These European families essentially fused into the dominant culture of United States, which was similar to and a product of the culture of earlier European immigrants. Research based on this perspective suggest that individuals should acculturate completely to the mainstream culture in order to prevent maladjustment. For example, some studies have indicated that acculturation processes may involve adjusting to minority status, low life changes, and involvement of risky behaviors (Vega & Amaro, 1994). Also, acculturation has been associated with family dysfunction and higher levels of personal disorganization (e.g., Gil, Vega, & Dimas, 1994; Vega & Amaro, 1994).

The circumstances that involve the immigration of Hispanic families, however, are socially, historically, and culturally different (Rueschenberg & Buriel, 1995). Ramírez (1983) suggests that the acculturation experiences by Hispanic families can produce a bicultural adaptation to United States society. In fact, the younger the Hispanic child, the more likely it is for him/her to have a bicultural identity as opposed to being
totally assimilated (Rogler, Cooney, & Ortiz, 1980). Bicultural adaptation to United States society means that the family functions in the home reflect a more Hispanic orientation and activities outside the home and community reflect a more Euro-American orientation (Rueschenberg & Buriel, 1995). In fact, some studies have found that even highly acculturated Hispanics are more family oriented than non-Hispanic Whites (Sabogal, Marín, & Otero-Sabogal, 1987), following their cultural values regarding family. For example, regardless of acculturation levels, Hispanics perceive a high level of family support and desire geographical closeness to their families (Keefe & Padilla, 1987; Sabogal et al., 1987).

In a literature review, Hurtado (1995) concluded that all groups of Hispanics have a strong commitment to maintain their language, culture, and ethnic identity. Regardless of their national origins, all Hispanics want their children to maintain their cultural traditions and language, regardless of the number of generations in the United States. Also, research on acculturation has tended to indicate that within the family there are three areas that have remained largely unaffected by acculturation: (a) the ability of social support networks to enhance or to hamper the psychological well-being of dual-earner Mexican-American families, (b) the amount of the husband’s power within a marriage, and (c) decision making within marriage (Cooney, Rogler, Hurrell, & Ortiz, 1982; Holzman & Gilbert, 1987). However, more recent studies have demonstrated that there have been some role transformations among Hispanic women facilitated by acculturation and socioeconomic and labor market conditions (Vega, 1995).
Rueschenberg and Buriel (1995) used 45 husband-wife couples with at least one child living at home. They divided the group in equal number of couples (n = 15) to represent three acculturation groups: unacculturated (all family members born in Mexico, parents speaking only Spanish, and having immigrated to the U. S. within the past 5 years); moderately acculturated (parents born in Mexico and having resided in the U. S. at least 10 years, children born in the U. S., parents speak Spanish, and children with English-speaking ability); and acculturated (both parent and children born in the U.S., bilingual or English-speaking preference for both parents and children). This study found that acculturation was significantly related to increasing involvement with U. S. social systems, institutions, and to activities outside the home, such as independence, achievement, intellectual and recreational orientations. However, activities that were related to intra-family life, such as cohesion, expressiveness, conflict organization control and moral-religious emphasis, which affect many aspects of family and community life, did not change with acculturation. Results of this study suggested that Hispanic families do not acculturate to the U.S. mainstream but become bicultural. They conclude by suggesting that “acculturation is not an all-or-none phenomenon and that adjustment to U.S. society can take place with the basic integrity of the family remaining intact” (Rueschenberg & Buriel, 1995; p. 25). This conclusion, according to Rueschenberg and Buriel (1995), is consistent with Garza and Gallegos’ humanistic interaction perspective, which views acculturation as a complex interaction between environmental influences and personal choices.
Hispanics, in general, retain a strong sense of ethnic identity, regardless of the number of generations in the United States (Hurtado, Rodriguez, Guring, & Beals, 1993). For example, Rogler and Cooney (1991) found that Puerto Rican families who had migrated to New York never identified themselves only as North American. Furthermore, according to Williams (1990), ethnic identification is manifested through a strong sense of community and allegiance to Hispanic issues. Even the intermarriage of Hispanics and Anglos does not greatly influence the level of acculturation. For example, Salgado de Snyder, López, and Padilla (1982) found that Mexican-American spouses, some of whom are third generation immigrants to the United States, still identified themselves as Mexican, spoke Spanish, and taught their culture and history to their children. Sixty-nine percent of adolescents who grew up in Anglo/Mexican-American families identified themselves as Mexican, 83% spoke some Spanish, and 72% listened to Spanish-language radio. These adolescents had very positive views about their Mexican background, did not have conflicts regarding their “mixed” heritage, and did not want to become assimilated. At the same time, they did not express a preference for marrying someone or having best friends of Mexican origin.

Acculturation to mainstream U.S. culture may play a role in changing Hispanic women’s attitudes toward sexuality specifically. There is evidence that higher acculturation is associated with more sexual partners among Hispanic women (Sabogal, Pérez-Stable, & Otero-Sabogal, 1995; Van Oss Marín, Tschann, Gómez, & Kegeles, 1993) and decreased fertility (Solís, 1995). If the time that a Hispanic divorced mother has been living in the United States is taken into consideration, then it is hypothesized
that acculturation may modify her behavior and attitudes about divorce and her general sex-role attitudes. As a matter of fact, it has been found that sex-role differences are more accentuated among less-acculturated Hispanics, who are more likely to adhere to traditional gender roles (Pavich, 1986). Adherence to traditional sex roles, especially among Hispanic women, typically decreases as immigrants acculturate to a culture with less-rigid sex roles and more permissive sexual attitudes (Sabogal, Faigels, & Catania, 1993). However, they have to confront the reality of two cultures (with the respective cultures’ contrary views about women) so that their adaptation not only to divorce, but also to a different culture, may make the process more difficult.

Conclusions

This review of the literature has presented an overview of the divorce adjustment process with a focus on Hispanic women and aspects of the culture that may impact ultimate adaptation. Earlier investigations regarding divorced women have found that adjustment to divorce is related to several factors including age, length of marriage, sex-role attitudes, social support, socio-economic status, and education. Although the literature on divorce adjustment among women in general is extensive, and may be applicable to Hispanic women, this can only be hypothesized because of the lack of research that validates such an assumption. Hispanic culture, greatly influenced by the Catholic Church, has exerted a great influence on Hispanic peoples’ values regarding family, social support, and perception of women’s and men’s roles. These values, in addition to the process of acculturation to a new culture, might have an influence on divorce adjustment for Hispanic women.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Research Design and Introduction

An ex post facto research design (Campbell & Stanley, 1966) was used to explore divorce adjustment among Hispanic mothers. More specifically, considering the ecological context of Hispanic divorced mothers, the purpose of this study was to determine mediators of divorce adjustment, i.e., level of acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support, based on a life events perspective in which divorce is seen as a stressor event. Because the combination of these variables previously has not been used to study the divorce adjustment of Hispanic mothers, the following research questions were posed:

1) What is the relationship between acculturation, sex-role attitudes and social support?

2) How are acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support related to divorce adjustment?

3) Are the relationships of acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support with divorce adjustment additive and independent of the level of the other variables, e.g., is acculturation related to divorce adjustment the same for people with traditional and non-traditional sex-role attitudes?
4) Because divorce adjustment should increase over time, are the relationships of acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support with divorce adjustment the same across time or are they evident only at certain periods or perhaps even reversed at different periods of time since the divorce?

Procedures

Because the investigation would not place the subjects at any risk, an exemption from human subjects review was requested from the Office of Research Risks Protection. The committee approved the exemption in the Summer of 1998 (see Appendix A).

Eighty-six Hispanic divorced mothers were enlisted for this study from Cuyahoga and Lorain Counties, Ohio. These counties are known to have a proportionally larger Hispanic population than other counties in Ohio. Two contact persons, Gerardo Colón (Liaison to the Hispanic Community for the Cleveland Mayor’s Office) and Abdín Noboa (President of Innovative Consultants International), helped to identify social service agencies which work directly with the Hispanic population in those two counties. Mr. Colón and Dr. Noboa provided the researcher with information about ten agencies and twelve contact persons from these agencies (see Appendix C for information regarding these agencies). The primary investigator contacted the agency personnel by telephone and explained the purpose of the study. Two weeks later a cover letter (see Appendix D) was sent along with an abstract of the proposed study and a letter of support from the principal investigator’s advisor to more fully explain the rationale, purpose, and methods of the study. All ten social service agencies agreed to distribute the questionnaires to clients who met the sample criteria.
Three hundred and fifteen questionnaires were distributed to the agencies between the months of August and December, 1998 (see Appendices E and F for questionnaires). These questionnaires were distributed by the twelve agency contact persons or by the principal investigator to potential subjects who met the study criteria. The study criteria included: Hispanic ethnicity, having been legally divorced, and the presence of children under age 18 at the time of the divorce. The principal investigator did not have any contact with those subjects who received the questionnaires through the agency contact persons. Follow-up was carried out by the contact persons, whom the principal investigator phoned weekly in order to determine the status of the subjects who had received the questionnaires. Twelve questionnaires that were distributed by the principal investigator were immediately returned after their completion.

Subjects who met the criteria were given a brief description of the study and asked whether they wanted to participate (See Appendix G for narrative). The service providers at the agencies stated that those who decided not to participate in the study usually complained that the questionnaire was too long or that they did not wish to be questioned about an experience that was still distressful for them. Completion of the questionnaire took approximately forty-five minutes.

Subjects

A total of eighty-six subjects participated in the study. Four subjects were greater than three standard deviations from the mean, and they were excluded from the analysis as extreme outliers (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). These four subjects were extremely acculturated in comparison to the rest of the sample, and if “they were included in the
analysis, it would not only make a large contribution to their variance but also exert a disproportionately strong pull on the regression” (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; p. 128).

The subjects (without the outliers) for this study consisted of women ranging in age from 19-73 years, with a mean age of 42. They had a mean educational level of 11.5 years, only 48% of them were working outside their home, and most of them (41%), earned less than $10,000 a year, which put them below the poverty level. The mean for length of marriage prior to their divorce was 11.6, and their mean age at divorce was 32.4. The mean for years of being divorced was 9.4, and the vast majority (88%) of them had not remarried. Of those who had not remarried, 22% were cohabiting and 21% were dating. Most of their former husbands (i.e., 84%) were Hispanic, and the mean number of children was 2.58 (see Appendix H). Most of the subjects in this study preferred to speak, read, and write Spanish (60%, 59%, and 60% respectively), and most indicated that Hispanics were their closest friends (72%) (see Appendix H).

A majority of the Hispanic mothers (54%) responded that they were non-Catholic, whereas 46% of Hispanic mothers identified themselves as Roman Catholic. This finding was different from what was expected because traditionally “most Hispanics are at least nominally Roman Catholics” (Moore & Pecan, 1985; p. 110). The majority of the subjects in this study (68%) described themselves as very religious or somewhat religious, whereas only 33% described themselves as slightly religious or not religious at all (see Appendix H).

The subjects had lived in the United States from one year to 55 years, with a mean of 20.3 years. Regarding ethnic identification, the majority of them (83%) reported that their parents identified themselves as Puerto Rican. Also, the majority of the subjects
Identified themselves as Puerto Rican, corroborating what Hurtado (1995) found in her study that “Latinos retain a strong sense of ethnic identity, regardless of the number of generations in the United States” (p. 47). Two-thirds of the subjects reported being born in Puerto Rico, as were their parents. This ethnic identity may explain the predominance of the non-Catholic religion among the subjects of this study. According to Sánchez-Ayéndez (1988) there are some revivalist sects (Baptists, Pentecostals, and Jehovah’s Witnesses) that have been attracting a significant number of Puerto Ricans in the lower socioeconomic status, especially during the last 15 years. Also, part of the Anglicization strategy of the U.S. government after the 1898 invasion and annexation of Puerto Rico included importing Protestant ministers to the island (Silvestrini & Luque de Sánchez, 1992). Another possible explanation for this trend is that Hispanics generally see the Church as a source of social support and many find greater social support among Protestant congregations, which are usually smaller than Catholic congregations, particularly if they leave behind their traditional sources of social support, as is the case with migrants (Winn, 1992).

Instruments

Acculturation, sex-role attitudes, social support, and divorce adjustment were measured with multi-item instrumentation. All of these instruments were presented to the subjects in two languages, English and Spanish, in order to give subjects the choice of answering in the language in which they felt more comfortable. The researcher translated the instruments, and they were revised by a group of professional bilingual individuals in order to ensure that they maintained the meaning of the original instruments. After
recommendations were received and revisions made, a pilot study was undertaken with ten Hispanic divorced mothers in order to assess their understanding of the measures.

Acculturation

Acculturation was measured using questions based on eleven items taken from the General Acculturation Index (Balcazar, Castro, & Krull, 1995) and the Cuellar Acculturation Scale (Cuellar, Harris, & Jasso, 1980) in a study carried out by Peterson, Cobas, Balcazar, Benin, and Amling (1998). These questions yielded four subscales. Ethnic identification (EI) consisted of questions related to (a) father’s ethnic identification, (b) mother’s ethnic identification, and (c) respondent’s own ethnic identification. All three questions were coded “zero” if the response indicated any Hispanic origin and “one” if not. Country-born subscale (CB) consisted of questions related to (a) father’s country of birth, (b) mother’s country of birth, and (c) respondent’s own country of birth. All three were coded “one” if the birthplace was the United States and “zero” if the birthplace was any Hispanic country. Language preferred subscale (LP) consisted of questions regarding (a) speaking language preferred by the participant, (b) reading language preferred by the participant, and (c) writing language preferred by the participant. Scores ranged from “one” if Spanish was chosen, “two” if both languages were chosen, and “three” if English was chosen. Nationalities of close friends’ subscale (NF) consisted of an item that questioned the current composition of friendship. The score ranged from “one” if all close friends were from any Latin American or Hispanic country, “two” if friends included Hispanics and Anglos, and “three” if friends were only Anglos. To calculate acculturation, the subscales were standardized and summarized.
Only the total score was used in this study. Total scores ranged from 4 to 18 with higher scores reflecting greater acculturation. A Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for this Acculturation scale was .646.

Social Support

Social support consisted of two subscales: (a) social support from family (i.e., mother, father, siblings, children, in-laws, and other relatives) and (b) social support from nonfamily (i.e., friends, neighbor, co-worker, and others) (Sweet, Bumpass & Call, 1988). Questions that were included were:

(a) If there is an emergency in the middle of the night and you needed help, would you ask help from…?

(b) If you have to borrow $200.00 for a few weeks because of an emergency, whom would you ask?

(c) If you have a problem, and you are feeling depressed or confused about what to do, would you go to…?

(d) Do you spend leisure time with…?

The respondents could choose more than one response ranging from “no one” to any of the choices for social support from their family (i.e., mother, father, siblings, in-law, children, and other relatives) and similarly regarding social support from non-family (i.e., friends, neighbors, co-workers, and others). To increase the internal consistency of the family subscale, the variables “in-laws” and “children” were excluded, and the subscale was standardized and summarized. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the
social support from family was .725. A score of 1 was given to each choice. These were then summed. Total scores ranged from 0 to 16, with higher scores indicating greater amount of support.

To increase the internal consistency of the nonfamily subscale, the variable "other" was excluded, and the subscale was standardized and summarized. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the social support from nonfamily was .671. Total scores ranged from 0 to 12, with higher scores indicating greater amount of support.

**Sex-Role Attitudes**

The variable “sex-role attitudes” was measured using The Sex Role Modernity Scale (Scanzoni, 1978). This scale consisted of twenty-eight statements with response options ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5). Examples of some of the statements were: “A married woman’s most important task in life should be taking care of her husband and children”, “A wife should give up her job whenever it inconveniences her husband and children.” The instrument consisted of three subscales: (a) Position of Wife, (b) Position of Husband-Father and, (c) Position of Mother. A total of the three subscale scores was used in the data analysis. Higher scores represented more traditional sex-role attitudes. In order to increase the internal consistency of The Sex Role Modernity Scale, the subscales were standardized, and the dimension “religious-legitimization-of mother role” (RLM) was excluded (Cronbach’s alpha coefficient = .711).

**Divorce Adjustment**

Divorce adjustment was measured using the Postdivorce Problems and Stress Scale (PPSS) (Raschke in Touliatos, Perlmutter, & Strauss, 1990). The PPSS is a four-
point Likert-style questionnaire designed to assess feelings, attitudes, and difficulties encountered by persons in the months and years following a divorce. Three primary and 17 subdimensions of problems and stress were categorized. The primary subscales are (a) perceived, unpleasant unfavorable emotional states (depression, emotional turmoil, loneliness, guilt, and trauma); (b) perceived satisfaction with new roles (as a single parent, as a friend, as a worker on a job, as a date, as a former spouse, and as a club or organization member); and (c) perceived ability to fulfill or deal with new roles (as a single parent, as a friend, as a worker on a job, as a date, as a former spouse, and as a club or organization member). Examples of some of the questions with their possible answers are:

(a) “As compared to before the separation, in general how would you say you feel most of the time now — in higher or lower spirits?”

“I am in higher spirits.”

“I was in reasonably good spirits before and there has been no change.”

“I was in rather poor spirits before and there has been no change”.

“I am in lower spirits.”

(b) “In regard to feelings now of wanting to destroy (financially, emotionally, or physically) your former spouse since before the separation:

“These feelings have increased.”

“These feelings have decreased.”

“I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change.”

“Not applicable — I have never had these feelings.”

The respondents chose the answers that best described their feelings. The
lower the scores the more adjusted the individual was considered to be. All of the
PPSS items were factor analyzed. A two-factor solution was indicated by a scree
test: two factors that emerged were emotional adjustment and role satisfaction
(see Appendix I). Two different components were used as subscales: Emotional
Adjustment and Role Adjustment. Factor scores for each subject were used in the
analysis.

Data Analysis

Multiple regression was run to test the relationships between and among the
independent variables: Acculturation, Sex-Role Attitudes, and Social Support (i.e.,
Family Social Support and Non-Family Social Support). Because the predictors were
continuous variables, multiple regression allowed for the most powerful tests. For
divorce adjustment, multivariate regression analysis was used because it is more
sensitive, and it controls Type 1 error.
CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

Introduction

Based on a life events perspective in which divorce is seen as a major stressor event, and considering the ecological context of the Hispanic divorced mother, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of divorce adjustment with acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support. Multiple regression analyses were used to assess the relationships between the predictor variables, i.e., Acculturation, Sex-Role Attitudes, and Social Support (Family and Non-Family Social Support). Multivariate regression analyses also were used to assess relationships between the predictor variables and Divorce Adjustment (Emotional and Role Adjustment). An alpha level of .05 was adopted for each test unless otherwise noted. Significant multivariate relationships were interpreted by examining univariate analyses. Correlations among the variables, including demographic variables, and the means, and standard deviations of all variables are appendicized (Appendix J).

Acculturation, Sex-Role Attitudes, and Social Support

Before investigating the relationship of divorce adjustment to acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support, the relationships between these predictor variables were
investigated. To assess relationships among these variables, four multiple regressions were run in which each variable served as the outcome variable and was regressed on the other three, including all possible interactions.

Using acculturation as the outcome variable, the multiple regression analysis revealed that acculturation was significantly negatively ($B = - .118$) related to sex-role attitudes, $F (1, 74) = 3.862, p = .053$, but was not related to social support (see Table 4).

Results confirmed what earlier findings have found: as acculturation increases, the individual acquires less traditional sex-role attitudes (e.g. Kranau, Green, & Valencia-Weber, 1982; Soto, 1983).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor Variable</th>
<th>Outcome Variable</th>
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<th>$P$</th>
</tr>
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<td>Acculturation</td>
<td>3.158</td>
<td>.080</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-Family Social Support</td>
<td>Acculturation</td>
<td>2.021</td>
<td>.159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex-Role Attitudes</td>
<td>Acculturation</td>
<td>3.862</td>
<td>.053</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: df (1, 74)*

Table 4: Relationships among Acculturation, Sex-Role Attitudes, and Social Support (Family and Non-Family Social Support)
Using sex-role attitudes as the outcome variable, a two-way interaction, Family Social Support x Non-Family Social Support, was found to be significantly related to Sex-Role Attitudes, $F(1, 74) = 67.111$, $p = .030$ (see Table 5).

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Predictor Variable</th>
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<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Sex-Role Attitudes</td>
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<td>.030</td>
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</table>

*Note: df (1, 74)*

Table 5: Interaction of Family Social Support and Non-Family Social Support for Sex-Role Attitudes

A plot of separate regression lines for predicted scores of Sex-Role Attitudes for those scoring 1 SD above and below Family and Non-Family Social Support revealed that those subjects who had lower non-family social support and higher family social support had more traditional sex-role attitudes; whereas those subjects who had lower non-family social support and lower family social support had less traditional sex-role attitudes. On the other hand, those respondents with high Non-Family Social Support and low Family Social Support had more traditional Sex-Role Attitudes. However, those
respondents with high Non-Family Social Support and high Family Social Support did not have well defined sex-role attitudes—their sex-role attitudes could not be categorized as traditional or non-traditional (see Appendix K).

Multiple regression revealed that Family Social Support and Non-Family Social Support were significantly positively related ($\beta = .543$), $F(1, 79) = 12.349$, $p = .001$. Using Non-Family Social Support as outcome variable, the analysis revealed that Non-Family Social Support was significantly positively ($\beta = .293$) related to Acculturation, $F(1, 75) = 4.725$, $p = .033$, but not to Sex-Role Attitudes (see Table 6). However, this was only significant when Family Social Support was not included in the equation. Thus, results revealed that highly acculturated individuals have more non-family social support.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Predictor Variable</th>
<th>Outcome Variable</th>
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<th>$P$</th>
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<td>Non-Family Social Support</td>
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Note: $df(1, 75)$

Table 6: Relationships among Social Support (Family and Non-Family Social Support), Acculturation, and Sex-Role Attitudes
Similarly, with Family Social Support as outcome variable, the multiple regression analysis indicated that Family Social Support was significantly positively ($B = .467$) related to Acculturation, $F (1, 75) = 5.917$, $p = .017$, but not to Sex-Role Attitudes (see Table 6). This result was only significant when Non-Family Social Support was not included in the equation. Thus, the findings indicated that highly acculturated individuals also have more family social support.

Finally, multiple regression was used to estimate the relationship between acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support with the dependent variable, years divorced. It was found that acculturation was significantly negatively ($B = -.124$) related to sex-role attitudes, $F (1, 73) = 4.414$, $p = .039$ and years divorced ($B = 4.66$), $F (1, 73) = 3.940$, $p = .051$ (see Table 7). Thus, results revealed that highly acculturated individuals had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes and were more recently divorced.

**Divorce Adjustment**

Multivariate regression analysis was used to assess the relationship between Divorce Adjustment (Emotional and Role) and the hypothesized predictors—acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support, including all possible interactions. Results revealed no significant linear relationships; however, significant interactions were found (see Table 8).

First, the overall multivariate interaction of Acculturation x Non-Family Social Support was significant, $F = (2, 76) = 5.216$, $p = .008$. As shown in Table 8, a significant univariate interaction for Acculturation x Non-Family Social Support was found for both Role Adjustment, $F (1, 77) = 8.907$, $p = .004$, and Emotional Adjustment, $F (1, 77) = 63$
7.053, $p = .010$. To clarify the interaction, a plot of predicted role adjustment scores was conducted for those scoring 1 SD above and below the mean for acculturation and non-family social support [see Appendix L (1)]. It was revealed that those highly acculturated subjects who were better role adjusted had higher non-family social support. However, those more acculturated individuals who had greater difficulty with role adjustment had lower non-family social support. Likewise, less acculturated individuals who were better role adjusted had lower non-family social support. However, if lower acculturated individuals had higher non-family social support, they were still adjusted in terms of role.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor Variable</th>
<th>Outcome Variable</th>
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<th>$P$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Sex-Role Attitudes</td>
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<td>.143</td>
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<td>Non-Family Social Support</td>
<td>Acculturation</td>
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<td>.106</td>
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<tr>
<td>Years Divorced</td>
<td>Acculturation</td>
<td>3.940</td>
<td>.051</td>
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</table>

*Note: df (1, 73)*

Table 7: Relationships among Acculturation, Sex-Role Attitudes, Social Support (Family and Non-Family Social Support), and Years Divorced
For emotional adjustment, results were similar. As may be seen in Appendix L (2), a plot of separate regression lines was conducted for predicted scores of emotional adjustment for those scoring 1 SD above and below the mean for acculturation and non-family social support; those subjects who were more highly acculturated were better adjusted emotionally if they had higher non-family social support than if they had lower non-family social support. In contrast, lower acculturated individuals were found to be better adjusted emotionally regardless of the level of non-family social support, although lower acculturated individuals were better off at least nominally, if they had lower non-family social support. Thus, in terms of divorce adjustment, both emotional and role adjustment, highly acculturated individuals were better off when non-family social support was higher, whereas lower acculturated individuals were better off with lower non-family social support.

Second, the multivariate interaction of Acculturation x Sex-Role Attitudes was marginally significant for divorce adjustment, F (2, 73) = 2.703, p = .074. In univariate analyses, the interaction was significant only for role adjustment, F (1, 74) = 5.335, p = .024 (see Table 8).

As may be seen in Appendix M (1), a plot of separate regression lines for predicted scores of Role Adjustment, scoring 1 SD above and below the mean of acculturation x sex-role attitudes, revealed a counterintuitive pattern. Those subjects who were highly acculturated were better off in terms of role adjustment if they had more traditional sex-role attitudes than if they had less traditional sex-role attitudes. On the other hand, those subjects who were less acculturated and had more non-traditional sex-
role attitudes, were better adjusted in terms of role. But those subjects who were less acculturated and had more traditional sex-role attitudes had more problems in terms of role adjustment.

Additionally, in the univariate but not in the multivariate regression analysis, $F (2, 69) = 1.637, p = .202$, the three-way interaction Acculturation x Sex-Role Attitudes x Family Social Support interaction for role adjustment was marginally significant, $F (1, 70) = 3.321, p = .073$, (see Table 8).

Thus, as may be seen in Appendix M (2), a plot of separate regression lines for predicted scores of Role Adjustment for those scoring 1 SD above and below the mean of Acculturation x Sex-Role Attitudes x Family Social Support revealed that the trend was for more highly acculturated individuals to be better off in terms of role adjustment, if they had more traditional sex-role attitudes and less family social support; however, they were still better role adjusted if they had higher family social support. Those highly acculturated subjects who had more problems in terms of role adjustment were those who had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes, with those who had higher family social support proving to be the least adjusted. Less acculturated individuals were better role adjusted if they had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes and higher family social support. Still, lower acculturated individuals were more adjusted in terms of role if they had more traditional sex-role attitudes regardless of the level of family social support, although at least nominally, less acculturated individuals were better off if they had higher family social support. Less acculturated individuals who had problems in terms of role adjustment were those that had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes and less
family social support. Thus, in terms of role adjustment, highly acculturated individuals were better off when they had more traditional sex-role attitudes and less family social support, whereas less acculturated individuals were better off when they had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes and higher family social support.

Divorce Adjustment Over Time

Research has shown that problems with divorce adjustment are greater during the early period, particularly the first year after divorce. Following this period there is a substantial improvement over time (Kitson with Holmes, 1992). Because divorce adjustment should increase over time, an additional analysis was performed to (a) examine if the relationships uncovered in the initial analyses were similar across time and (b) determine whether some relationships that were not significant might be significant for certain periods of time.

A multivariate regression analysis was used to assess the relationship of divorce adjustment to years divorced, acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support, including all interactions. Results revealed no significant linear relationships among the variables except for Years Divorced and Divorce Adjustment, $F(2, 71) = 3.099, p = .051$. Univariate analysis revealed a significant relationship only for emotional adjustment, $F(1, 72) = 5.05, p = .028$ (see Table 9), but significant interactions, however, were uncovered.

First, there was a significant Acculturation x Years Divorced interaction for role adjustment, $F(1, 78) = 11.792, p = .001$ (see Table 9). As Appendix N (1) indicates, a plot of separate regression lines for predicted scores of Role Adjustment, scoring 1 SD
above and below the mean of acculturation and years divorced, revealed that those more highly acculturated subjects who had been divorced longer were more role adjusted than those who were recently divorced. Surprisingly, recently divorced, less acculturated individuals were the best adjusted in terms of role in comparison with the other groups. On the other hand, the findings suggest that those less acculturated individuals were better role adjusted when they had been divorced longer.

Additionally, the two-way interaction was qualified by a significant three-way interaction, Acculturation x Non-Family Social Support x Years Divorced, $F (2, 72) = 3.591, p = .033$. An univariate analysis clarified that the three-way interaction was significant for Role Adjustment, $F (1, 73) = 5.462, p = .022$ (see Table 9). Thus, as may be seen in Appendix N (2), a plot of separate regression lines for predicted scores of Role Adjustment for those scoring 1 SD above and below the mean of acculturation, non-family social support, and years divorced, revealed that those who had lower non-family social support were better role adjusted if they were less acculturated and were more recently divorced. On the other hand, having lower non-family social support was associated with more role adjustment problems when divorced women were more highly acculturated and were more recently divorced. There were no differences in role adjustment for those Hispanic divorced women who had higher non-family social support. Those divorced for a longer time were all similarly role adjusted as were those who were more recently divorced and had higher non-family social support. The main differences were found for recently divorced individuals with lower non-family social support.
support. Highly acculturated individuals were much less role adjusted if they had less non-family social support, whereas less acculturated individuals were somewhat better role adjusted if they had lower non-family social support.
<table>
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<th>p</th>
</tr>
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<td>.386</td>
<td>.536</td>
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Table 8: Regression of Divorce Adjustment (Emotional and Role Adjustment) on Acculturation, Sex-Role Attitudes, and Social Support (Family and Non-Family Social Support)
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<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
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<td>.730</td>
<td>.396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional Adjustment</td>
<td>(1, 77)</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YD x ACC x SRA</td>
<td>Role Adjustment</td>
<td>(1, 70)</td>
<td>1.666</td>
<td>.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional Adjustment</td>
<td>(1, 70)</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>.672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YD x ACC x NFSS</td>
<td>Role Adjustment</td>
<td>(1, 73)</td>
<td>5.462</td>
<td>.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional Adjustment</td>
<td>(1, 73)</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YD x ACC x FSS</td>
<td>Role Adjustment</td>
<td>(1, 73)</td>
<td>.206</td>
<td>.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional Adjustment</td>
<td>(1, 73)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.972</td>
</tr>
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Table 9: Regression of Divorce Adjustment (Emotional and Role Adjustment) on Acculturation, Sex-Role Attitudes, Social Support (Family and Non-Family Social Support), and Years Divorced
CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

Introduction

Hispanics have been experiencing the same trend toward marital instability over the past three decades as non-Hispanic White and African-American groups (Bean & Tienda, 1987 in Solis, 1995). However, research on divorce among Hispanics, in particular Hispanic mothers, remains very limited. Given the U. S. Bureau of the Census’ projection that Hispanics will be the largest ethnic minority group in the United States by 2010 (Gil & Vázquez, 1996) and the unique cultural traits of Hispanic families, it is imperative to better understand the family transitions of this particular ethnic minority group.

The purpose of this study was to contribute to this limited knowledge base by focusing on the divorce adjustment of Hispanic mothers. This study evolved from the ecological context of the Hispanic divorced mother, and a life events perspective in which divorce is seen as a stressor. The objective of this study was to explore the relationship between acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support, and their relationship to divorce adjustment. Further, the investigation considered whether these relationships were additive and independent of the other variables, e.g., whether acculturation related to divorce adjustment the same for people with traditional and non-
traditional sex-role attitudes. Finally, because divorce adjustment has been found to increase over time, the study probed whether the relationships of acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support with divorce adjustment were the same across time, evident only at certain periods, or perhaps even reversed at different periods of time since the divorce.

The sample consisted of divorced Hispanic mothers (n = 82) from Cuyahoga and Lorain Counties in Ohio. Each of them answered a bilingual questionnaire (English and Spanish), with the option of responding in the language preferred. Multiple regression was used to test the relationships between the independent variables: Acculturation, Sex-Role Attitudes, and Social Support (i.e., Family Social Support and Non-Family Social Support). For divorce adjustment, multivariate regression analysis was used because it is more sensitive and controls for Type 1 error.

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings of the study as related to each research question. The chapter concludes with (a) recommendations for future research and (b) implications of the study for policy and practice.

Discussion

Research question # 1: What is the relationship between acculturation, sex-role attitudes and social support?

Four multiple regressions were used to investigate the relationship between acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support. Results confirmed what earlier findings have found regarding acculturation and sex-role attitudes—that higher acculturated individuals have more non-traditional sex-role attitudes than traditional sex-role attitudes (e.g., Kranau, Green, & Valencia-Weber, 1982; Soto, 1983). Existing
evidence indicates that Hispanic females receive more traditional sex-role socialization than non-Hispanic females (Soto, 1983). Kranau et al. (1982) found that acculturation is positively correlated with attitudes toward women. Higher acculturated Hispanic women are more likely to have more liberal attitudes regarding women's role than their less acculturated counterparts. Kranau et al.'s study (1982) suggests that Hispanic women who are more closely identified with the host culture (higher acculturated) are more likely to have liberal attitudes concerning the roles of women in the United States than those women who are more closely identified with their native culture (less acculturated).

Similarly, Soto's findings (1983) suggest that generation (first versus second) and education are significantly related to sex-role traditionalism -- second generation and better-educated women were less sex-role traditional than first generation. But Soto (1983) also noted that second generation Hispanic women were better educated than their first generation counterparts. According to Soto (1983), it was possible that second generation Hispanic women were less sex-role traditional because they had had a better opportunity to develop biculturalism and had in fact adopted a bicultural style. These bicultural Hispanic women were raised with the traditional sex-role values of their first generation parents, but were simultaneously exposed to less conservative sex-role values and an expectation of assertion in the American system.

In the present study, Pearson correlation analysis indicated that age was negatively related, whereas education was positively related to acculturation, suggesting that higher acculturated individuals were younger and had more education than lower acculturated individuals (see Appendix J). Pearson correlation analysis also revealed that education was significantly negatively related to sex-role attitudes, suggesting that
more traditional sex-role attitudes were related to lower levels of education. This finding was similar to that of Soto (1983), which showed that more highly educated Hispanic women were less traditional in comparison with less educated women, regardless of the number of generations in the United States. Another study found that higher acculturated Hispanic women tend to be younger and better educated than less acculturated Hispanic women (Kranau et al., 1982). One possible explanation, according to Soto (1983), is that traditional women are not expected to be highly educated, and are expected to be economically and emotionally dependent on men to take care of them. Better educated Hispanic women are less sex-role traditional because (a) they become more aware of their potential, abilities, and rights, and (b) they do not have to financially depend on a man because they are more likely to have their own careers. On the other hand, the educational institution reflects the culture in which it exists. Thus, exposure to such institutions is likely to facilitate the acculturation process (Kranau et al., 1982).

After each variable (i.e., family and non-family social support) was excluded from the equation in which the alternate was considered, results revealed that non-family social support and family social support were positively related to acculturation. Thus, results confirmed previous findings, in which higher acculturated individuals have more family social support and non-family social support than lower acculturated individuals (Griffith & Villavicencio, 1985; Wagner, 1988). One possibility for this occurrence is that, although the present study did not measure acculturation in terms of generations, there is the possibility that lower acculturated divorced women are first generation or newcomers, and for that reason they are more distant from many of their family and friends abroad. According to Griffith and Villavicencio (1985), the social networks of these newcomers
are probably less stable and enduring and, as a result, less reciprocal than networks of Hispanics who have been living longer in the United States and who had have more opportunities to cultivate personal relationships. In fact, cross-sectional studies have indicated that familism and social support increase with each generation living in the United States (Keefe & Padilla, 1987).

Family social support and non-family social support were significantly related. A Family Social Support x Non-Family Social Support interaction was found to be significant with regard to sex-role attitudes. As indicated in Appendix K, those subjects who had lower non-family social support and higher family social support were also found to have more traditional sex-role attitudes, whereas those subjects who had lower non-family social support and lower family social support had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes. On the other hand, those respondents with higher non-family social support and lower family social support had more traditional sex-role attitudes. However, those respondents with higher non-family social support and higher family social support did not have well defined sex-role attitudes—they could not be categorized as having more traditional or more non-traditional sex-role attitudes (see Appendix K).

Past research has maintained that women with traditional sex-role attitudes tend to maintain a dense kin-filled network (Leslie & Grady, 1988). Although the study findings were, in part, consistent with such studies, the results about the other inverse relationship, i.e., that those individuals with higher non-family social support and lower family social support had more traditional sex-role attitudes, was surprising. One possible explanation for this occurrence is that some of the respondents, who had more traditional sex-role
attitudes, might have left their families behind in their country of origin, and they have substituted their family social support with friends living in the United States, i.e., forms of non-family social support (Griffith & Villavicencio, 1985; Wagner, 1988).

The finding that those subjects who had lower non-family social support and lower family social support had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes might be explained by the fact that the instrument used to measure social support did not measure satisfaction with social support, only amount of social support. Thus, there is the possibility that those subjects with more non-traditional sex-role attitudes felt satisfied with the amount of social support that they were receiving, although the amount was smaller than that received by those respondents with more traditional sex-role attitudes.

Those respondents with higher non-family social support and higher family social support did not have well defined sex-role attitudes - - their sex-role attitudes could not be categorized as more traditional or more non-traditional. This result may be explained by the possibility that these subjects were well integrated to the U. S. culture, but still maintained many of their Hispanic values, resulting in a certain sex-role ambiguity. In the same way, Soto (1983) found that second generation Hispanic women were more acculturated. According to Soto (1983), these women were raised with the traditional sex-role values of their first generation parents, but at the same time were exposed to less strict sex-role values in the American system. Such individuals may exhibit traditional sex-role attitudes within the cultural context of their Hispanic family and non-traditional attitudes in the larger community of the mainstream culture. Living according to certain values in their community of origin and modifying them outside could be a survival
tactic. This is similar to findings that African-American families provide their children with explicit racial socialization in order to help them survive in the U.S. mainstream society (Taylor, Chatters, Tucker, & Lewis, 1990).

**Research question # 2: How are acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support related to divorce adjustment?**

A multivariate regression analysis was used to assess the relationship between divorce adjustment (emotional and role adjustment) and the predictors -- acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support. Results revealed no significant linear relationships; however, significant interactions were found.

**Research question # 3: Are the relationships of acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support with divorce adjustment additive and independent of the level of the other variables, e.g., is acculturation related to divorce adjustment the same for people with traditional and non-traditional sex-role attitudes?**

First, the Acculturation x Non-Family Social Support interaction was significant, for both role adjustment and emotional adjustment. With regard to role adjustment, the study revealed that those more acculturated subjects who were better role adjusted had higher non-family social support. However, those more acculturated individuals who had greater difficulty with role adjustment had lower non-family social support. Likewise, less acculturated individuals who were better role adjusted had lower non-family social support. However, if lower acculturated individuals had higher non-family social support, they were still better adjusted in terms of role than those considered lower adjusted [See Appendix L (1)].
For emotional adjustment, results were similar. As may be seen in Appendix L (2), those subjects who were more highly acculturated were better adjusted emotionally if they had higher non-family social support than if they had lower non-family social support. In contrast, lower acculturated individuals were found to be better adjusted emotionally regardless of the level of non-family social support, although lower acculturated individuals were better off at least nominally, if they had lower non-family social support. Thus, in terms of divorce adjustment, both emotional and role adjustment, highly acculturated individuals were better off when non-family social support was higher, whereas lower acculturated individuals were better off with lower non-family social support.

The present study suggests that it is more important with regard to divorce adjustment for those individuals that are more acculturated to have higher non-family social support. As previous studies have found, as Hispanic-Americans become more acculturated, their support groups acquire a greater resemblance to those of Anglo-Americans (Keefe, 1980). Investigations regarding social support and acculturation have found that, whereas the number of extended family members named as support providers was unrelated to acculturation, more acculturated respondents named more primary kin, friends, and neighbors as support providers than did less acculturated respondents (Griffith & Villavicencio, 1985). In their studies regarding emotional support among Anglo and Hispanic-Americans, Griffith (1984) and Keefe, Padilla, and Carlos (1979) found Anglo-Americans more often cited friends as sources of support than did Mexican-Americans. Taking these earlier studies into consideration and also considering what previous research has found regarding the impact of social support received from friends
for divorce adjustment (e.g., Duffy, 1993; Thiriot & Buchner, 1992), perhaps it can be concluded that those Hispanic divorced mothers who are more acculturated will experience similar divorce adjustment regarding social support as Anglo divorced mothers. Specifically, research on Anglo divorced women has found that friends tend to be their primary source of support, followed by intimate partners and parents, and these informal sources of support are highly related to divorce adjustment (Duffy, 1993; Thiriot & Buchner, 1992).

Concerning the results where less acculturated individuals were found to be better adjusted in terms of divorce, regardless of the level of non-family social support, (although they were better off at least nominally, if they had lower non-family social support), this might be because these individuals receiving more help for their divorce adjustment from their family social support. Hispanic individuals operate within an extended family system in which emotional, instrumental, and material exchanges are made to provide support to immediate and extended kin relations (e.g., Dilworth-Anderson & Marshall, 1996; Slonim, 1991). Thus, there is the probability that the socio-emotional support that lower acculturated individuals receive from their family might be more than enough to protect them against any physical and/or emotional stress that their divorce could have caused them.

Another significant finding was the Acculturation x Sex-Role Attitudes interaction for role adjustment. This finding revealed that those subjects who were more acculturated were better off in terms of role adjustment if they had more traditional sex-role attitudes. Conversely, those subjects who were more acculturated and had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes had more problems in terms of role adjustment. On the other
hand, those subjects who were less acculturated and had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes were more adjusted in terms of role. But those subjects who were lower acculturated and had more traditional sex-role attitudes were less adjusted in terms of role.

Past research has found that familism as well as interactions among family members and the type of relationships between them, in addition to Catholicism, do not change with higher acculturation, and these reinforce and support other Hispanic values (Ramírez & Castañeda, 1974; Rueschenberg & Buriel, 1995). Zavella (1984) also found that highly acculturated Mexican-Americans still maintain more positive views of housewives than Anglo women do.

The results of this study suggest that for the study sample, acculturation to United States society may be best explained in terms of biculturalism (Rueschenberg & Buriel, 1995; Soto, 1983), in which the individual might be higher or lower acculturated in certain aspects of the host culture but keep or discard some of the cultural values of his/her own culture. This biculturalism might be explained using the humanistic interaction perspective model presented by Garza and Gallegos (1995). They explain that by using this model, the complexity of environmental factors is considered and yet a clear emphasis is given to the role of individual choice. Thus, this perspective might better explain why some individuals in this study were better role adjusted with higher acculturation and more traditional sex-role attitudes, or lower acculturation and more non-traditional sex-role attitudes. Using the humanistic interaction perspective, it is
concluded that those individuals with better role adjustment choose the values of each culture that might best help them to accomplish the demands of the environment that surrounds them.

Additionally, the three-way interaction Acculturation x Sex-Role Attitudes x Family Social Support for role adjustment was marginally significant. Results revealed a trend for more highly acculturated individuals to be better off in terms of role adjustment, if they had more traditional sex-role attitudes and less family social support. However, they were still better adjusted in terms of role if they had higher family social support. Those highly acculturated subjects who had more problems in terms of role adjustment were those who had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes and higher family social support. Lower acculturated individuals were better off in terms of role adjustment if they had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes and higher family social support. Still, lower acculturated individuals were more adjusted in terms of role if they had more traditional sex-role attitudes and lower or higher family social support. However, less acculturated individuals were better adjusted if they had lower family social support. Results of this study might suggest that individuals with higher acculturation and more non-traditional sex-role attitudes would adjust better in terms of role if they had higher non-family social support, and lower family social support. As aforementioned, earlier studies have found that as Hispanics become more acculturated, their support groups resemble those of Anglo Americans, which involve more primary kin than extended kin, and more friends and neighbors as support providers than less acculturated respondents (Griffith & Villavicencio, 1985). In fact, recent research has found that the most prominent support source of divorced individuals in general was their friends (Duran-
Aydintug, 1998). On the other hand, for Hispanics, in particular lower acculturated individuals, the family is the main source of support, and if that support is missing, perhaps because of the stigma of divorce or because of the clashes regarding women's roles in the family and society, this might negatively affect individual role adjustment. For those higher or lower acculturated individuals who have less trouble adjusting to divorce, this study suggests, as stated earlier, they appear to be capable of adapting to the demands of both the original Hispanic and the host Anglo cultures. For example, Rueschenberg and Buriel (1995) found that Hispanic families accommodate to the demands of Hispanic and Anglo cultures by highly acculturating in the domain of those forms of behavior that occur outside the family realm, such as independence, achievement, recreational, and intellectual orientations. However, intrafamilial relationships and interactions seem not to dramatically change from one generation to the next, despite the fact that English becomes the primary language, and family members become active participants in U.S. society. Garza and Gallegos (1995) concur with this view as they use a humanistic interaction perspective toward acculturation, suggesting that each individual chooses what norms and values he or she wants to adopt from the host culture based upon need. It is important to recall that divorce may elicit strong reactions in the Hispanic culture because it undermines the core value of "familia," which is central to Hispanic culture and the Catholic religion. Thus, according to the humanistic interaction perspective, Hispanic women may adjust to divorce by choosing those norms and values from the host culture that will help them adjust to divorce.
Research question # 4: Because divorce adjustment should increase over time, are the relationships of acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support with divorce adjustment the same across time or are they evident only at certain periods or perhaps even reversed at different periods of time since the divorce?

Multiple regression was used to estimate the relationship between Acculturation, Sex-Role Attitudes, and Social Support with the dependent variable Years Divorced. It was found that acculturation was negatively related to sex-role attitudes and years divorced. Thus, these findings indicate that the higher acculturated individuals had more non-traditional sex-role attitudes and were more recently divorced.

A multivariate regression analysis was used to assess the relationship between divorce adjustment, years divorced, acculturation, sex-role attitudes, and social support. Results revealed no significant linear relationships among the variables, except for years divorced and emotional adjustment, but significant interactions were uncovered.

First, there was a significant Acculturation x Years Divorced interaction for role adjustment. Univariate analysis revealed that those more highly acculturated subjects who had been divorced longer were more adjusted in terms of role, whereas those recently divorced, more highly acculturated individuals were having more difficulties with role adjustment. On the other hand, a surprising finding was that recently divorced, less acculturated individuals were the best adjusted in terms of role in comparison with the other groups. One explanation for this finding is the value Hispanic families place on providing assistance to those members who are in crisis. Past investigations have found that dense networks with strong ties are found to be more effective in terms of the on-
going assistance that is often necessary to cope with a major problem (Potasznik & Nelson, 1985 in Milburn, 1986), such as dealing with recent divorce and acculturation stress at the same time.

On the other hand, the findings suggest that those less acculturated individuals who had been divorced longer scored lower in terms of role adjustment. A possible explanation for this finding is that these less acculturated individuals had problems not because of the divorce per se, but maybe because they were still trying to adjust to the new roles that the host culture demands from them. Another possibility is that, since they are older, it is more probable that some of their sources of family support have died.

Additionally, the two-way interaction was qualified by a significant three-way interaction, Acculturation x Non-Family Social Support x Years Divorced. An univariate analysis clarified that the three-way interaction was significant for Role Adjustment. Results revealed that those Hispanic divorced mothers who had lower non-family social support were better role adjusted if they were less acculturated and were more recently divorced. On the other hand, having lower non-family social support was associated with more role adjustment problems when divorced women were more highly acculturated and were more recently divorced. There were no differences in role adjustment for those Hispanic divorced women who had higher non-family social support. Those divorced for a longer time were all similarly more role adjusted as were those who were more recently divorced and had higher non-family social support. The main differences were found for recently divorced individuals with lower non-family social support. Highly acculturated
individuals were much less role adjusted if they had less non-family social support, whereas less acculturated individuals were somewhat better role adjusted if they had lower non-family social support.

These findings suggest that adaptation to role adjustment in highly acculturated individuals depends more on years of being divorced, i.e., those divorced for a longer time were better adjusted, than whether the individuals have high or low non-family social support. Research has shown that problems with divorce adjustment are greater during the early period, particularly the first year after divorce. Following this period, there typically is great improvement as time passes (Kitson with Holmes, 1992). According to Gerstel, Riessman, and Rosenfield (1985), support from friends and acquaintances provides the type of support that allows recently divorced women space for personal growth. Among recently divorced women, friends, especially female friends, tend to be a primary source of support, along with intimate partners and parents (Duffy, 1993).

Similarly, Wagner (1988) found that social support varied by level of acculturation. First generation Hispanic divorced mothers remained closer to their extended kin, whereas third generation Hispanic divorced mothers were closer to their friendship network. As less acculturated Hispanic individuals remained closer to their extended kin, which provides instrumental, emotional, and material exchanges, (Dilworth-Anderson, & Marshall, 1996; Slonim, 1991), there is the probability that for recently divorced less acculturated individuals these sources of socio-emotional support might provide sufficient power to protect them against any physical and/or emotional stress that their divorce may have caused them. Age might be also considered an
explanation for less acculturated women. As they become older, some of their sources of family social support may have died, which might explain why those lower acculturated individuals who had been divorced longer had higher non-family social support. As Hispanic-Americans become more acculturated to the Anglo-American culture, their social networks become less dense, characteristic of divorced Anglo-American mothers. However, as Griffith and Villavicencio (1985) suggest, social networks in the Hispanic population may become less dense because of variations in socioeconomic status rather than acculturation. In addition, following what the humanistic interaction model suggests according to Garza and Gallegos (1995), and taking into account the complexity of environmental factors, those individuals who were better role adjusted were those who chose those values and behaviors that helped them to succeed in each culture, making them bicultural.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study contributes to the very limited understanding of divorce adjustment in the Hispanic population, specifically with regard to divorced mothers. Because this study was very much exploratory, replication with other samples is highly recommended. Other Hispanic ethnic groups besides Puerto Ricans were included in this study. However, because 83% of the sample used was Puerto Rican, inferences concerning Puerto Rican women can be made from the data obtained. Like many other immigrant groups, Puerto Ricans have had to experience modifications in order to adapt in the host country (Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988). However, distinguishing characteristics in relation to other Hispanic groups include the consciousness of American citizenship, proximity to
their homeland, the facility to return, and the close contacts maintained with relatives and friends on the island (Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988). These factors allow Puerto Ricans, perhaps more than other Hispanic groups, the opportunity to become bicultural.

Also, the Puerto Rican community, as well as the rest of the sample in the Cleveland metropolitan area, possesses some distinct characteristics. In the Cleveland metropolitan area, Hispanics tend to live in areas where other Hispanics live close by. This is reflected in the large proportion of the sample that considers mostly Hispanics as close friends (see Appendix H). These cultural enclaves promote and maintain their Hispanic culture, which includes social support practices similar to those received in their country of origin. For future studies, it is also recommended that different geographical locations be used in which the experience of being Hispanic might be different.

The sample in this study was small because of difficulties in obtaining volunteers to participate in the study. The service providers at the agencies stated that those who decided not to participate in the study usually complained that the questionnaire was too long or that they did not wish to be questioned about an experience that was still distressful for them. Thus, this sample might be skewed towards higher levels of adjustment. In addition, the sample was mostly poor (see Appendix H), which might have an impact on the present results. A larger, more representative sample would allow for greater generalization, inclusion of additional variables, as well as inclusion of those beyond poverty level, and more power in statistical testing. Such a sample might be obtained if funding made it possible to pay participants a small stipend for completion of the questionnaire.
Also, the fact that the instruments were of a self-report, forced-choice nature, limited the control the investigator had over how variables were measured, and increased the need for the researcher to be concerned about biases such as social desirability and response set bias. Furthermore, the measures may reflect some cultural bias. None of the instruments, with one exception (acculturation), had been widely used beyond Caucasian populations. For example, the conception of being a modern woman with androgynous sex-role attitudes may vary or have different meanings in different cultures. Also, adjustment may vary according to religious views.

The overall variance accounted for in divorce adjustment ($R^2 = .116$) was relatively poor. This would suggest other variables have not been accounted for in predicting divorce adjustment among this group of women. Socioeconomic status, education, current age, effects of cohort, age of subject at time of divorce, and predivorce status of the women (e.g., whether they worked or not, whether former husbands were Hispanic or not) were not controlled. These factors might be related to variations in divorce adjustment. In fact, previous research has suggested that factors such as socioeconomic status, education, current age, cohort, predivorce status of the women (such as presence of children, relationship with former husband) and age at time of divorce are related to divorce adjustment. Thus, although these factors were not explored to a great extent in this study, nor controlled, they may be related to variations in divorce adjustment of Hispanic women. In addition, although this study took into consideration family and non-family social support, which helped to differentiate the type of support
that Hispanic women were receiving, this study did not measure satisfaction with social support. Past research has found that social support satisfaction is a strong mediator of divorce adjustment (e.g. Stewart & Clarke, 1995; Waggener & Galassi, 1993).

It is suggested that future research include comparative studies that involve other American ethnic groups to determine variations in divorce adjustment. It may be that the divorce adjustment process is similar in many ways across these groups and thus not unique to Hispanic culture. In addition, it is suggested that future investigations determine the interaction effects of cohort and acculturation differences in Hispanic divorce adjustment. For example, what will be the impact of divorce on Hispanic mothers who are younger and are highly acculturated? What will be the impact of divorce on Hispanic mothers who are older and are highly acculturated? Will the results be the same as for younger mothers? What will be the impact on Hispanic mothers who are older and are less acculturated? Will the results be the same for younger mothers?

Future research studies should consider the possibility of investigating the research questions of this study using qualitative methods because such research would offer a more profound understanding of divorce adjustment of Hispanic mothers. In addition, because research on divorce adjustment of Hispanic women is relatively scarce, the use of qualitative methods could generate future hypotheses for testing.

Implications for Intervention and Policy

The findings of this study, although tentative, suggest some implications for intervention for those who work with Hispanic divorced women. Practitioners need to be aware that predictors of divorce adjustment are numerous and interactive. Similarly, the data of this study may alert practitioners to the many variations and paths to divorce
adjustment, which may include the individual's personality and background, before they consider assisting her/him. For example, during intake interviews, it would be helpful for those practitioners dealing directly with Hispanic divorced women to be aware, sensitive, and understanding of the level of acculturation of their clients. Further, service providers need to understand Hispanic women's sex-role attitudes and the major value assigned to social support in Hispanic culture, and how these factors, along with time since divorce, will have an impact on their adjustment to divorce.

For Hispanics, single parenthood, particularly when caused by divorce, may elicit strong family reactions. Marital disruption affects not only the relationship between the couple, but also the broader family system that has developed (Wagner, 1993). This, along with the status of the woman in the Hispanic society, requires that Hispanic women not only deal with divorce as a stressor event, but also the demands of their own culture and acculturation issues that may influence their adjustment in general. Also, women's roles in the Hispanic society are understood differently than in Anglo culture. The way Hispanic women perceive their role in the family and society is likely to be different from that of the dominant U.S. culture. Furthermore, when practitioners and therapists are assisting this particular group, it is important that they be aware of different cultural interpretations of the same issues such as family dynamics and values in society.

Although the sample of this study was predominantly non-Catholic, it should be important to note that Hispanic individuals' culture and behavior is greatly influenced by the Catholic religion (Yep, 1995). Even though research consistently shows that Catholic Church attitudes contribute to the stigma attached to divorce among Hispanics, the Church does have resources to help in the adjustment to divorce. This, however, is not
well known. The annulment process may provide a solution for some. For others, there are other possibilities for receiving social support from their church communities. While the official position of the Catholic Church is that divorced and remarried Catholics who did not receive an annulment of their first marriage may not receive communion, even the official teaching promotes “attentive solicitude” toward such people, so “they do not consider themselves separated from the Church” (Catechism of the Catholic Church, 1994). Further, there are many theological arguments in favor of so called “internal forum” or “pastoral” solutions, which encourage divorced and remarried Catholics to receive communion if they are in good faith about the moral goodness of their present marriage (Lehmann, 1979). There is also a model promoted and widely disseminated by James Young (1979) to create groups in the Catholic Church to help divorced and separated individuals in the healing process after divorce. Although these facts show that there are certain sectors of the Catholic Church that are already helping divorced and separated individuals to adjust to their divorce, most Catholics remain unaware of these possibilities. Given the fact that divorce is increasing within the Hispanic population, and taking into account that the majority of them are Catholic or their cultural values are at least influenced by this institution, practitioners and therapists should become knowledgeable about these issues, align themselves with Church resources in these ministries, and use both the information and the contacts to help Hispanics and their families in the process of divorce adjustment.

Also, practitioners, therapists, and community agencies dealing with the Hispanic population should be aware that immigration and acculturation to the U.S. mainstream culture may result in additional stress for divorced individuals and their families, as they
attempt to adopt new lifestyles and roles. Therefore, following the humanistic interaction model, programs of intervention, such as workshops along with support groups, should be directed to specifically serve the Hispanic divorced population by focusing on the strengths of their culture as well as positive alternatives of the host culture that do not interfere with the essence of their Hispanic identity. These alternatives can help them successfully adjust to divorce. In order to do this, it is necessary for practitioners and therapists to be sensitive to cultural differences and acquire sufficient knowledge of Hispanic culture, as well as to be aware that the application of traditional counseling might not be suitable for this particular group. It is expected that by 2010 Hispanics will be the largest ethnic minority group in the United States (Gil & Vázquez, 1996); therefore it is important that these professionals be supportive, open and respectful of cultural differences and the strengths that Hispanic culture may bring.
LIST OF REFERENCES


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DATE: June 11, 1998

TO: Office of Research Risks Protection

FROM: Patrick McKenry, PhD
Lilia Bermudez, MS

RE: Application for Exemption from Review

We are requesting an exemption from human subjects review for our forthcoming study, "The Impact of Divorce on Hispanic Mothers." We carefully have reviewed the criteria for exemption (#2 regarding survey data) in the context of our proposal and feel that we would not be placing our respondents at any risk. Our potential subjects will be aware of the nature of the study, that their anonymity will be ensured, and that their participation is completely voluntary. The survey consists of various standardized instruments, modified for the Hispanic community.

Your consideration of this request is greatly appreciated.
APPLICATION FOR EXEMPTION FROM THE HUMAN SUBJECTS INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

All research activities that will involve human beings as research subjects must be reviewed and approved by the appropriate human subjects IRB, or receive exemption status, prior to implementation of the research.

Principal Investigator: McKenry, Patrick C.  
(Must be OSU Faculty)  
(Typed name) Last First Initial  
(Signature)

Academic Title: Professor  
Phone No. 292-5616  
Fax No. 292-7536

Department: HDV & FS  
Department No

Campus Address: 171 Campbell Hall, 1787 Neil Ave.

Co-Investigator(s): Bermudez, Lillian N.  
(Typed name) Last First Initial  
(Signature)

PROTOCOL TITLE: THE IMPACT OF DIVORCE-ON-HISPANIC-MOTHERS

THE ONLY INVOLVEMENT OF HUMAN SUBJECTS IN THE PROPOSED RESEARCH ACTIVITY WILL BE IN ONE OR MORE OF THE EXEMPTION CATEGORIES LISTED ON THE BACK OF THIS APPLICATION.

CATEGORY:  
(01)  
(02)  
(03)  
(04)  
(05)  
(06)

SOURCE OF FUNDING FOR PROPOSED RESEARCH: (Check A or B)

A. OSURF: Sponsor. RF Proposal/Project No.

B. Other (Identify) None

EXEMPTION STATUS: APPROVED  
DISAPPROVED**

JUN 16 1988  
Date  
Chairperson

** Principal Investigator must submit a protocol to the appropriate Human Subjects Review Committee.

IMPORTANT NOTICE TO INVESTIGATORS: Exempting an activity from review DOES NOT absolve the Investigators of the activity from ensuring that the welfare of human subjects in the activity is protected and that methods used, and information provided, to gain subject consent are appropriate to the activity.
APPENDIX B

LETTER OF AGREEMENT FROM

CLEVELAND MAYOR HISPANIC LIAISON
June 8, 1998

Ms. Lilia M. Bermúdez Navedo
2624 Dayton Avenue
Columbus, Ohio 43202

Re: Ms. Lilia M. Bermúdez-Navedo’s Research Project

To Whom It May Concern:

Ms. Lilia Bermúdez approached me several months ago for assistance with her research project concerning the impact of divorce on Hispanic women. Upon listening to her describe the project, I immediately became interested and agreed to help her obtain subjects for her study in the Cleveland area. I believe she should be able to obtain her entire sample of at least 100 subjects in this area.

In my role as liaison to the Hispanic community for the Mayor of Cleveland, I am in daily contact with social service professionals who assist Hispanic women. I am well aware that divorce and single parenthood are a great crisis in the lives of many of these women (and of the helping professionals as well). Ms. Bermúdez’s research should lead to better insight as to the culture-specific traits found in the beliefs, values, and attitudes of Hispanics that can help in the healing process of these women. For that reason I am happy that this exciting study is being carried out in Cleveland and the Hispanic community here will be an active participant.

My initial role has been to place Ms. Bermúdez in contact with directors and other employees of six organizations in the Cleveland area. Ms. Bermúdez has been in touch with all of them and sent them descriptions of her project, as well as assurances about confidentiality from her at Ohio State University. All six organizations have agreed to offer their assistance to Ms. Bermúdez in obtaining her sample.

Talking among ourselves in the Cleveland area, we agreed that the most effective way to help Ms. Bermúdez obtain her sample is to set up appointments with interested potential subjects at different community venues. This will give Ms. Bermúdez the opportunity to explain her project personally and answer any questions. Those willing to participate would be able to immediately respond to the various items in the research instrument. The various agency directors have authorized the involvement of their agencies in this process.

Should you need further information, please contact me at 664-3528.

Sincerely,

Gerardo Colón
Hispanic Liaison

An Equal Opportunity Employer
APPENDIX C

AGENCIES AND AGENCY PERSONNEL

WHO AGREED TO DISTRIBUTE QUESTIONNAIRES
Ms. Carmen Colón
Hispanic U.M.A.D.A.O.P.
3305 West 25th Street
Cleveland, Ohio 44109
Phone number: (216) 459-1222

Ms. Madeline Corchado and Ms. Lissette Quiñones
Department of Public Utilities Labor Relations
1201 Lakeside Avenue
Cleveland, Ohio 44114
Phone number: (216) 664-2444 ext. 5721

Ms. Ivonne Lladó
Centro de Servicios Sociales
1888 E. 31st Street
Lorain, Ohio 44055
Phone number (440) 277-8235 ext. 21

Ms. Eva “Judith” Lozano
Outreach/Prevention Specialist
Case Manager
Lorain UMADAOP
The Urban Minority Alcoholism and Drug Abuse Outreach Program
2314 Kelly Place
Lorain, Ohio 44052
Phone number: (440) 246-4616
Fax: (440) 246-1997

Ms. Madeline Ocejo and Ms. Carmen Valentín
6209 Storer
West Side Women Center of Cleveland
Cleveland, Ohio 44102
Phone number: (216) 651-1450
Fax: (216) 651-4351

Mrs. Betty Ortiz
Jobs Program Coordinator
El Barrio
2001 West 65th Street
Cleveland, Ohio 44102
Phone number: (216) 281-0109
Fax: (216) 281-6465
Ms. Nidia Pérez
Center for Family and Children
Hispanic Counseling
4115 Bridge Avenue
Cleveland, Ohio 44113
Phone number (216) 651-1860

Ms. Furgencia Ramos
Social Worker
Spanish American Committee
4407 Lorain Avenue
Cleveland, Ohio 44113
Phone number: (216) 961-2100
Fax: (216) 961-3305

Ms. Osvalda “Babbie” Santiago
Family Development Specialist
Cleveland Housing Network, Inc.
2999 Payne Avenue #306
Cleveland, Ohio 44114
Phone number: (216) 574-7100
Fax: (216) 574-7130

Hon. José A. Villanueva, Judge
Attn. Maria Rodríguez
Common Pleas Court
1200 Ontario Street – Suit 20A
Justice Center
Cleveland, Ohio 44113
Phone number (216) 443-8737
APPENDIX D

LETTER AND ABSTRACT SENT TO AGENCY PERSONNEL

EXPLAINING STUDY
Date: February 13, 1998

TO: Cuyahoga and Lorain County Social Service Agencies

FROM: Patrick C. McKenry, Ph.D., Professor

RE: Ms. Lilia Bermudez

My doctoral advisee, Ms. Lilia Bermudez, has developed a doctoral dissertation proposal to examine the divorce adjustment process of Hispanic mothers, and she is in need of your assistance in gathering participants for this study. I would like to address Ms. Bermudez’s professional and personal credentials for conducting this research.

I have served as Ms. Bermudez's advisor since she entered the doctoral program in Human Development and Family Science in 1990. Ms. Bermudez has developed a very strong program of study, focusing on culturally diverse families. She has complemented her course work in her major with a minor in developmental psychology that also has been slanted toward cultural issues. Ms. Bermudez has impressed me in several respects. I have known very few students who were as dedicated, persistent, and as hard working as she is. Also, Ms. Bermudez has been able to draw upon a wide range of theoretical perspectives in her study of Hispanic families.

As indicated in the enclosed abstract of her study, the sample for Ms. Bermudez’s study will consist of 100 divorced Hispanic mothers. Prior to data collection, this study will be reviewed by the Ohio State University Institutional Human Subjects Review Board (Behavioral and Social Sciences Division). In order to be approved, this study must ensure confidentiality, anonymity, voluntary consent, and no undue stress. Ms. Bermudez is a very mature, responsible, and ethical professional who can be counted on to be very sensitive to these human subjects' issues.

As Ms. Bermudez notes, she is addressing a very important research issue that has been neglected in the social science literature. Her findings should be very helpful to practitioners who work with this population. I fully support her efforts to complete this study, and I am very grateful for your consideration of her request. Please feel free to contact me for any additional information needed.
The Impact of Divorce on Hispanic Mothers

Background

Given the growth of the Hispanic population in the United States, and the growth of the divorce rate among Hispanics, the author proposes to carry out a study of the impact of divorce on Hispanic mothers. With this increased rate of divorce among the Hispanic population, Hispanic women are at risk of greater poverty, immigrant adjustment problems, and acculturation stress, as compared to their non-Hispanic white counterparts (Vega, 1995). Further, remarriage, dating, and/or cohabitation are not openly accepted as options for the Hispanic divorced woman because traditionally the culture believes that a woman should be only for one man. However, there is a lack of research on these options as they affect divorce adjustment. Also, the Catholic Church (a religion with great influence on Hispanic culture and, at least partially practiced by most Hispanics) maintains strong resistance to divorce because marriage is seen as a sacred and indissoluble sacrament (Mackin, 1984). Given the Census Department’s projection that Hispanics will be the largest ethnic minority group in the United States by 2010 (Gil & Vázquez, 1996), it is imperative to develop studies that can help professionals better understand this particular minority group.

Although several scholars have suggested that Hispanic women living in the United States might be expected to have greater divorce distress, some data indicate that the culture might have a buffering effect on divorce adjustment as it does for African-Americans. Hispanic families have been found to maintain strong and frequent interaction among kin. The family is viewed by Hispanic people as a compassionate and nurturing institution, offering support throughout the individual’s lifetime (Sánchez-Ayéndez, 1988). The family is seen as the major support system for the individual in times of stress. Such family support may be stronger among low-income Hispanic families. Complicating the divorce adjustment process for Hispanic women is the strong double standard about gender and the dominance of the male in the family, which limits women’s independent functioning after divorce.

Cultural values regarding family and sex-role attitudes may further limit options and support for women after divorce. In addition, Hispanic divorced mothers must confront the reality of two cultures so that their adaptation not only to divorce but also to a different culture may make the process more difficult. However, as Hispanic women become more acculturated, their perception of divorce, sex-role attitudes, social networks, social support, and whether they should remarry or date or not may change. Yet, there are virtually no studies that take these variables into account in considering how Hispanic women are going to be affected by divorce.

Methods

The present study will look at divorce as a stressor event from a life events perspective. Taking into consideration the ecological context of the divorce process, the author aims to show that:

1. The socioeconomic status and time living in the United States will significantly influence the Hispanic divorced mother’s level of acculturation.
2. The Hispanic divorced mother’s level of acculturation will significantly influence (a) her
Impact of Divorce on Hispanic Mothers

socioeconomic status; (b) the composition and density of her social network; and, (c) her sex-role attitudes.

3) The Hispanic divorced mother's sex-role attitudes will significantly influence the composition and density of her social network. Simultaneously, both sex-role attitudes and composition and density of her social network will significantly influence her general well-being.

(a) However, the Hispanic divorced mother's satisfaction with social support will moderate the strength of the relationship between the composition and density of her social network and her general well-being.

(b) At the same time, dating and/or remarriage will be the moderators that will influence the strength of the relationship between sex-role attitudes and general well-being.

4) the Hispanic divorced mother's general well-being will significantly influence her adjustment to divorce.

At least 100 Hispanic divorced mothers will be needed to test the study hypotheses. A purposive sample of mothers will be enlisted from Cuyahoga and Lorain Counties. These counties are known to have a larger Hispanic population than the rest of the state of Ohio. After subjects are identified, the investigator will mail them a letter explaining the reason they were selected for the survey; the primary investigator will telephone the respondents within a week to determine interest in participation and to answer any questions the potential respondents might have. If interested, the potential respondents will receive a questionnaire and letter of instruction in the following days. Potential respondents will be assured of the confidential nature of the study. The package will include a stamped return envelope. A follow-up postcard will be sent around four to eight days later, thanking those who have responded and requesting a response from those who have not. Three weeks after the first questionnaire goes out, to those who have not yet responded, a new personalized cover letter will be sent informing people “We have not yet heard from you” with a replacement questionnaire and stamped return envelope (Salant & Dillman, 1994).

The variables that will be measured in this study are: level of acculturation, socioeconomic status, time living in the United States, composition and density of social network, satisfaction with social support, sex-role attitudes, whether or not they are been dating and/or remarried, general well-being, and adjustment to divorce. The questionnaires will be translated in two languages: English and Spanish, in order to give the choice to the subjects to answer in the language that they feel more comfortable. The study will be approved by OSU Social and Behavioral Subject Committee.
APPENDIX E

THE IMPACT OF DIVORCE
ON HISPANIC MOTHERS QUESTIONNAIRE
(ENGLISH VERSION)
INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to obtain information on the divorce and divorce adjustment experiences of Hispanic mothers in the Cleveland metropolitan area, so that local agencies and the community can better address your needs. Your participation in this study involves completing a paper and pencil questionnaire. This will take approximately 45 minute of your time. You give your consent to participate by completing and returning the questionnaire to me. Your participation is completely voluntary; you are free to refuse to answer any questions you wish; you may withdraw from the study at any point; and your names or any other identifying information should not be attached to your questionnaire.

A summary of the findings of the study will be available to you, if you wish, from the community agency that referred you to me, in about six months. Thank you for volunteering to participate in this study.

Lilia M. Bermúdez
August 1998
The Impact of Divorce on Hispanic Mothers

I Demographic Questions

1. What was your age on your last birthday? _______
   How old were you at the time of your divorce? _______

2. (a) How many years were you married before you divorced? _______
   (b) Was your former husband Hispanic?
      _______yes
      _______no
   © How long has it been since your divorce? _______ years

3. (a) How many years of school have you completed? (check one)
      _______ less than 9th grade
      _______ 9-12th grade
      _______ high school diploma
      _______ 1-2 years of college
      _______ 3-4 years of college
      _______ college degree
      _______ graduate or professional degree
   (b) If employed, what is your current occupation? _______
   © If employed, how many hours per week do you work? _______

4. To what extent were you employed before your divorce?
   _______ full-time
   _______ part-time
   _______ not employed outside the home

5. What is your approximate total annual family income (all sources before taxes)?
   _______ less than $10,000
   _______ $10,000-$19,999
   _______ $20,000-$29,999
   _______ $30,000-$39,999
   _______ $40,000-$49,999
   _______ $50,000-$74,999
   _______ $75,000-$99,999
   _______ $100,000 or more
   _______ Do not know

6. How long have you lived in the United States? _______ years.
7. Have you remarried since your divorce?
   ____yes
   ____no
   ____if yes, how long?____

If not remarried, are you cohabiting with anyone?
   ____yes
   ____no

8. Please provide the ages of your children.
   Boy(s)____
   age       age       age
   Girl(s)____
   age       age       age

9. What is your religion? (check one)
   ____Protestant
   ____Roman Catholic
   ____Jewish
   ____Other (specify)____
   ____Atheist, Agnostic, None

10. Would you say you are:
    ____very religious
    ____somewhat religious
    ____slightly religious
    ____not religious at all
II. Ethnic Identification

The following questions pertain to your ethnic identification. Typical ethnic terms are "Puerto Rican", "Mexican", "Mexican-American", "Cuban", etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. When people ask your father his ethnic identification, what is his response?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. When people ask your mother her ethnic identification, what is her response?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What is your ethnic identification?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. In what country was your father born?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. In what country was your mother born?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. In what country were you born?</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. What language do you speak best?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. In what language do you prefer to read?</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. In what language do you prefer to write?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. What are the nationalities of your close friends?</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
III. Social Network and Support

The following questions pertain to your social network and support. Please respond whether you feel that the persons indicated are persons whom you can approach under the circumstances described.

1. (A) If there is an emergency in the middle of the night and you needed help, would you ask help from:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) no one</td>
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<td>b) your mother</td>
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<td>c) your father</td>
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<tr>
<td>d) your siblings</td>
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<td>e) your in-laws</td>
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<tr>
<td>f) your children</td>
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<tr>
<td>g) other relative</td>
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<tr>
<td>h) your friends</td>
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<tr>
<td>i) your neighbors</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>j) your co-workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>k) other-please indicate:</td>
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</table>

_________
1. (B) If you have to borrow $200.00 for a few weeks because of an emergency, would you ask to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) no one</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b) your mother</td>
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<td>c) your father</td>
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<tr>
<td>i) your neighbors</td>
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<tr>
<td>j) your co-workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>k) other- please indicate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
1. (C) If you have a problem, and you are feeling depressed or confused about what to do, would you go to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) no one</td>
<td></td>
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<td>b) your mother</td>
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<td>c) your father</td>
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<td>i) your neighbors</td>
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<td>j) your co-workers</td>
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<tr>
<td>k) other-please indicate</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
1. (D) Do you spend leisure time with:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) no one</td>
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<tr>
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<td>d) your siblings</td>
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<td>j) your co-workers</td>
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<td>k) other—please indicate</td>
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</table>
IV. Sex - Role Attitudes

Listed below are several items relative to attitudes one might hold regarding men and women. Rate your agreement or disagreement to each of these items by circling the number which indicates your thinking about this subject. Rate each item as thoughtfully and carefully as possible. DO NOT OMIT ITEMS

1 = Strongly disagree  
2 = Disagree  
3 = Never  
4 = Agree  
5 = Strongly agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. A married woman's most important task in life should be taking</td>
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<tr>
<td>care of her husband and children.</td>
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<td>2. A married woman should realize that a woman's greatest reward</td>
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<td>and satisfaction come through her children.</td>
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<td>3. If a married woman works, she should not try to get ahead in</td>
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<td>the same way that a man does.</td>
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<td>4. A wife should not have equal authority with her husband in</td>
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<td>making decisions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. If a married woman has the same job as a man who has to</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>support his family, she should not expect the same pay.</td>
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<td>6. A wife should realize that, just as a woman is not suited for</td>
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<td>heavy physical work, there are also other kinds of jobs she is</td>
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<td>not suited for, because of her mental and emotional nature.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Never
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

7. A wife should give up her job whenever it inconveniences her husband and children. 1 2 3 4 5

8. If a mother of young children works, it should be only while the family needs the money. 1 2 3 4 5

9. Having a job herself should be just as important to a wife as encouraging her husband in his job. 1 2 3 4 5

10. A wife should be able to make long-range plans for her occupation, in the same way that her husband does for his. 1 2 3 4 5

11. If being a wife and mother is not satisfying enough to a woman, she should take a job. 1 2 3 4 5

12. There should be more day care centers and nursery schools so that more young mothers could work. 1 2 3 4 5

13. If a wife's job sometimes requires her to be away from home overnight, this should not bother her husband. 1 2 3 4 5

14. If a child gets sick and a man's wife works, he should be just as willing as she to stay home from work and take care of the child. 1 2 3 4 5

15. If a man's wife makes more money than he does, this should not bother him. 1 2 3 4 5
<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16. On the job, men should be willing to work for women supervisors.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. A married man should be willing to have a smaller family, so that his wife can work if she wants to.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. If a man's wife works, he should share equally in household chores such as cooking, cleaning, and washing.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. If a man's wife works, he should share equally in the responsibilities of child care.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. A married man's chief responsibility should be his job.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. The husband should be the head of the family.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Do you believe that the institution of marriage and family was established by God?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Do you feel that being a mother is a special calling from God?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Do you think that a working mother can establish just as warm and secure relationship with her children as a mother who does not work?</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 = Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2 = Disagree</td>
<td>3 = Never</td>
<td>4 = Agree</td>
<td>5 = Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

25. Do you feel that a parent gets more satisfaction when a son gets ahead in occupation than when a daughter gets ahead in hers? 1 2 3 4 5

26. Do you feel that a marriage is incomplete without children? 1 2 3 4 5

27. Do you think that young girls should be permitted as much independence as boys? 1 2 3 4 5

28. Do you feel a preschool child is likely to suffer if the mother works? 1 2 3 4 5
V. Adjustment to Divorce

The items in this section are concerned with actual problems and stress or lack of them in the post separation or postdivorce adjustment process - whichever phase you are in now. For each question or statement, circle the letter (a,b,c,d) that best describes your situation.

1. In regard to feelings of being in a period of emotional turmoil now as compared to before the separation or divorce:
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

2. Compared to before the separation, has there been a change in your feelings or aloneness?
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

3. In regard to feelings of tension now as compared to before the separation:
   a. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.
   b. These feelings have increased a lot.
   c. These feelings have increased a little.
   d. These feelings have decreased a lot.
   e. These feelings have decreased a little.
   f. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.

4. In regard to crying and/or crying spells now as compared to before the separation:
   a. These have increased.
   b. These have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these before and there has been no change.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had crying spells or cried much.

5. In regard to your participation in clubs and other social or community organizations now as compared to before the separation:
   a. My participation has increased.
   b. I have always participated to some extent and there has been no change.
   c. My participation has decreased.
   d. Not applicable - I have never participated in clubs or other social organizations.
6. Compared to before the separation, are you now more or less able to fulfill or deal with your current responsibilities for your children (including visitations and child support)?
   a. I am more able.
   b. I was able before and there has been no change since.
   c. I was not very able before and there has been no change since.
   d. I am less able.

7. In regard to your work efficiency on your job now as compared to before the separation:
   a. It has increased.
   b. It has decreased.
   c. I was reasonably efficient before and there has been no change since.
   d. I was not too efficient before and there has been no change since.
   e. Not applicable - I don't work on an outside job.

8. In regard to your work efficiency on your housework now as compared to before the separation:
   a. It has increased.
   b. It has decreased.
   c. I was reasonably efficient before and there has been no change since.
   d. I was not too efficient before and there has been no change since.
   e. Not applicable - I don't do enough housework to judge my efficiency.

9. In regard to sleeping at night now as compared to how well you slept before the separation:
   a. I sleep better.
   b. I was able to sleep reasonably well before and there has been no change since.
   c. I did not usually sleep well before and there has been no change since.
   d. I have more trouble getting to sleep and/or staying asleep.

10. In regard to your physical health now as compared to before the separation:
    a. My physical health is better.
    b. My physical health was O.K. before and there has been no change since.
    c. My physical health was not so good before and there has been no change since.
    d. My physical health has become worse.

11. Compared to before the separation, are you now more or less able to cope well with your relationships with your friends?
    a. I am more able to cope with my relationships with my friends.
    b. I am less able to cope with my relationships with my friends.
    c. I was able to cope reasonably well before and there has been no change since.
    d. I had some problems in this area before and there has been no change since.
12. Compared to before the divorce, do you have feelings of being emotionally alone now even though surrounded by people?
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

13. In regard to wild, frantic, climbing-the-wall feelings now as compared to before the separation:
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

14. In regard to your smoking now as compared to before the separation:
   a. It has increased.
   b. It has decreased.
   c. I have quit.
   d. There has been no change.
   e. Not applicable - I have never smoked.

15. Compared to before the separation, are you now more or less satisfied with your relationships with your friends?
   a. I am more satisfied now.
   b. I was mostly satisfied before and there has been no change since.
   c. I was somewhat dissatisfied before and there has been no change since.
   d. I am less satisfied now.

16. In regard to your drinking of alcoholic beverages now as compared to before the separation:
   a. My drinking has increased.
   b. My drinking has decreased.
   c. There has been no change.
   d. Not applicable - I do not drink.

17. In regard to daydreaming (especially dwelling on past details of your marriage and interaction with your former spouse (both positive and negative aspects) now as compared to before your separation:
   a. Not applicable - I have never experienced this kind of daydreaming.
   b. Such daydreaming has decreased.
   c. I daydreamed before and there has been no change since.
   d. Such daydreaming has increased.
18. In regard to fatigue now, as compared to before the separation
   a. My fatigue has decreased.
   b. I had some fatigue before and there has been no change since.
   c. My fatigue has increased.
   d. Not applicable - I have never experienced much fatigue.

19. In regard to feelings now of wanting to hurt (financially, emotionally, or physically) your former (or separated from) spouse since before the separation:
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

20. Compared to before the separation, are you now more or less satisfied with your relationships with your children?
   a. I am more satisfied.
   b. I was reasonably satisfied before and there has been no change.
   c. I was somewhat dissatisfied before and there has been no change.
   d. I am less satisfied.

21. In regard to feelings of anxiety now as compared to before the separation:
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

22. In regard to your usage of legal drugs (such as sleeping pills, anti-depressants, etc.) now as compared to before the separation:
   a. Not applicable - I have never used legal drugs.
   b. My usage of legal drugs has decreased.
   c. I used some legal drugs before and there has been no change since.
   d. My usage of legal drugs has increased.

23. As compared to before the separation, in general how would you say you feel most of the time now - in higher or lower spirits?
   a. I am in higher spirits.
   b. I was in reasonably good spirits before and there has been no change.
   c. I was in rather poor spirits before and there has been no change.
   d. I am in lower spirits.
24. Compared to before the separation, are you more or less satisfied with your relationships with other people in your clubs and other social and community organizations?
   a. I am more satisfied.
   b. There has been no change.
   c. I am less satisfied.

25. In regard to feelings of apathy and/or indifference now as compared to before the separation:
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

26. Do you feel remorseful over "what is" compared to "what might have been"?
   a. No, not at all.
   b. Sometimes.
   c. Yes, a little.
   d. Yes, a lot.

27. In regard to your ability to care for and maintain your home or apartment now as compared to before the separation:
   a. It has improved.
   b. It has remained about the same.
   c. It has become poorer.

28. In regard to feelings of depression now as compared to before the separation:
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

29. Compared to before the separation, are you now more or less satisfied with your participation in clubs and other social and community organizations?
   a. I am much more satisfied.
   b. I am somewhat more satisfied.
   c. There has been no change.
   d. I am less satisfied.
30. In regard to serious suicide thoughts now as compared to before the separation:
   a. These thoughts have increased.
   b. These thoughts have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these thoughts before and there has been no change.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had suicide thoughts.

31. Compared to before the separation, are you now more or less satisfied with your
    ability to handle problems that arise on your job?
   a. Not applicable - I don't work on an outside job.
   b. I am more satisfied.
   c. I am less satisfied.
   d. This ability was satisfactory before and there has been no change since.
   e. This ability was a little unsatisfactory before and there has been no change since.

32. In regard to memory difficulties now as compared to before the separation:
   a. They are less.
   b. There has been no change.
   c. They are more.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had memory difficulties.

33. In regard to feelings of anger in general now as compared to before the separation:
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

34. Compared to before the separation, how satisfied now are you with your
    relationship with people on your job?
   a. I am much more satisfied.
   b. I am somewhat more satisfied.
   c. There has been no change.
   d. I am less satisfied.
   e. Not applicable - I don't work.

35. In regard to your ability to break your emotional ties to your former (or separated from) spouse
    now:
   a. Not applicable - the emotional ties were broken before the separation.
   b. I am finding it easier than I expected.
   c. I am finding it about as easy or difficult as I expected.
   d. I am finding it more difficult than I expected.
36. In regard to feelings of guilt (concerning your separation and/or divorce) since the separation:
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

37. In regard to feelings of hostility toward your former (or separated from) spouse since the separation:
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

38. In regard to feelings of lack of purpose in life now as compared to before the separation:
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

39. In regard to your satisfaction with your present job now as compared to before the separation:
   a. It has increased.
   b. It has decreased.
   c. I was satisfied before and there has been no change.
   d. I was somewhat dissatisfied before and there has been no change since.
   e. Not applicable - I don’t work on an outside job.

40. In regard to your satisfaction with your housework now as compared to before the separation:
   a. It has increased.
   b. It has decreased.
   c. I was satisfied before and there has been no change since.
   d. I was somewhat dissatisfied before and there has been no change since.
   e. Not applicable - I don’t do enough housework to have any feelings about it.

41. As compared to before the separation, have your feelings of loneliness changed?
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.
42. Compared to before the separation, how adequate do you feel your ability is to fulfill new roles in clubs and other social and community organizations that you may participate in?
   a. I feel my ability is more adequate.
   b. I feel my ability is less adequate.
   c. My ability was adequate before and it has no changed since.
   d. My ability was not very adequate before and there has been no change since.

43. In regard to feelings that you are all upset emotionally now as compared to before the separation:
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

44. In regard to enjoying your children now as compared to before the separation:
   a. I enjoy them more.
   b. I enjoyed them before and there has been no change.
   c. Not applicable - I rarely, if ever, see them, which doesn’t bother me much.
   d. Not applicable - I rarely, if ever, see them, which does bother me much.
   e. I enjoy them less.

45. As compared to before the separation, do you feel more or less downcast and/or dejected?
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

46. Compared to before the separation, do you actually participate more or less in activities with your friends now?
   a. I participate more now.
   b. I participated before and there has been no change since.
   c. Not applicable - I have never participated in activities with my friends.
   d. I participate less.

47. Compared to before the separation, how well are you able to handle your children?
   a. I handle them better.
   b. I handle them less well.
   c. I handled them satisfactorily before and there has been no change since.
   d. I had some problems handling them before and there has been no change since.
   e. Not applicable - I rarely, if ever, see my children.

48. Do you blame yourself for your separation and/or divorce?
   a. Not at all.
   b. A little.
   c. Some.
   d. Very much.
49. In regard to feelings of "going to pieces" now as compared to before the separation?
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

50. Compared to before your separation, do you feel you have more or less ability to get along with people on your job?
   a. I have more ability.
   b. I have less ability.
   c. I had this ability before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I don't work on an outside job.

51. Compared to before the separation, do you have more or fewer feelings of general isolation?
   a. These feelings have increased.
   b. These feelings have decreased.
   c. I definitely had these feelings before and there has been no change since.
   d. Not applicable - I have never had these feelings.

52. Compared to before the separation, how do you feel about your ability to deal with your children?
   a. My ability to deal with my children has improved.
   b. My ability to deal with my children has gotten worse.
   c. My ability to deal with my children was O.K. before and there has been no change since.
   d. This was a problem before and there has been no change since.
   e. Not applicable - I rarely, if ever, see my children.
APPENDIX F
THE IMPACT OF DIVORCE
ON HISPANIC MOTHERS QUESTIONNAIRE
(SPANISH VERSION)
INTRODUCCIÓN

El propósito de este estudio es obtener información acerca del divorcio y la experiencia acerca del ajuste del divorcio en madres hispanas divorciadas en el área metropolitana de Cleveland, con el fin de que las agencias locales y la comunidad puedan mejor atender sus necesidades. Su participación en este estudio envuelve completar un cuestionario que tomará aproximadamente 45 minutos de su tiempo. Usted da su consentimiento para participar en el estudio completando y devolviéndome el cuestionario. Su participación es completamente voluntaria; usted está libre de contestar cualquier pregunta si usted desea. También puede retirarse del estudio en cualquier momento, y su nombre o cualquier otra información que la identifique no debe incluirse en el cuestionario.

En unos seis meses, un resumen de los hallazgos del estudio estará disponible para usted, si así usted lo desea, en la agencia comunitaria por la cual usted me fue referida. Muchas gracias por su participación en este estudio.

Lilia M. Bermúdez
Agosto, 1998
El Impacto del Divorcio en Madres Hispanas

I. Cuestionario Demográfico

1. ¿Cuántos años cumplió usted cuando celebró su último cumpleaños? 
   ¿Qué edad tenía usted cuando se divorció? 

2. (a) ¿Cuántos años estuvo usted casada antes de divorciarse? 
   (b) ¿Era hispano su ex-esposo? 
   _______ sí 
   _______ no 
   © ¿Cuánto hace que usted se divorció? _______ años

3. (a) ¿Cuántos años de estudio usted ha completado? (indique uno)
   _______ menos de noveno (9no.) grado
   _______ 9no.-12 años
   _______ diploma de escuela superior
   _______ 1 a 2 años de estudios universitarios
   _______ 3 a 4 años de estudios universitarios
   _______ diploma de universidad
   _______ diploma de estudios graduados o grado profesional
   (b) Si está empleada, ¿cuál es su ocupación? ____________________________

   © Si está empleada, ¿cuántas horas trabaja a la semana? ________________

4. ¿De qué manera estaba empleada antes de su divorcio?
   _______ a tiempo completo
   _______ a tiempo parcial
   _______ no estaba empleada fuera del hogar

5. ¿Cuál es su ingreso total anual aproximado? (todas las fuentes de
   ingreso antes de los impuestos)
   _______ menos de $10,000
   _______ $10,000-$19,999
   _______ $19,999-$29,999
   _______ $30,000-$39,999
   _______ $40,000-$49,999
   _______ $50,000-

6. ¿Cuánto hace que vive en los Estados Unidos? ________ años.
7. ¿Ha vuelto a casarse después de su divorcio?
   ______ sí
   ______ no
   ______ sí se ha vuelto ha casar, ¿cuánto tiempo lleva de casada?

Si no se ha vuelto a casar, ¿está cohabitando con alguien?
   ______ sí
   ______ no

8. Favor de proveer las edades de sus hijo/as.
   Niño(s) ______ edad ______ edad ______ edad
     ______ edad ______ edad ______ edad
   Niña(s) ______ edad ______ edad ______ edad
     ______ edad ______ edad ______ edad

9. ¿Cuál es su religión? (Marque solamente una)
   ______ Protestante (especifique) ______ otra
   ______ Católica ______ atea, agnóstica, ninguna
   ______ Judía

10. Usted podría decir que es:
    ______ muy religiosa
    ______ religiosa
    ______ un poco religiosa
    ______ nada de religiosa
II Identificación Étnica

Las siguientes preguntas se refieren a su identificación étnica. Designaciones típicamente étnicas son tales como "puertorriqueño", "mexicano", "mexicano-americano", "cubano", etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preguntas</th>
<th>Respuestas</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Cuando le preguntan a su padre su identificación étnica ¿cuál es su contestación?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Cuando le preguntan a su madre su identificación étnica ¿cuál es su contestación?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. ¿Cuál es su identificación étnica?</td>
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<td>4. ¿En qué país nació su padre?</td>
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<td>5. ¿En qué país nació su madre?</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. ¿En qué país usted nació?</td>
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<td>7. ¿Cuál es el idioma que usted mejor habla?</td>
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<td>8. ¿En cuál idioma usted prefiere leer?</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. ¿En cuál idioma usted prefiere escribir?</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. ¿De qué nacionalidad son sus mejores amigos?</td>
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III Red y Apoyo Social

Las siguientes preguntas se refieren a su red y apoyo social. Por favor, conteste de acuerdo a si usted siente que las personas indicadas son personas a quien usted puede acudir en las circunstancias descritas.

1. (A) Si usted se encuentra en una emergencia a media noche y necesita ayuda, ¿pediría usted ayuda a:

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) nadie</td>
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<tr>
<td>b) su madre</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) su padre</td>
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<td>d) sus hermanos/as</td>
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<tr>
<td>e) sus suegros</td>
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<tr>
<td>f) sus hijos/as</td>
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<td>g) otro miembro de su familia</td>
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<td>h) sus amigos/as</td>
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<td>i) sus vecinos/as</td>
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<tr>
<td>j) sus compañeros/as de trabajo</td>
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<td>k) otra persona- indique, por favor</td>
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1. (B) Si usted tiene que pedir prestado $200.00 por unas semanas debido a una emergencia, ¿se lo pediría a:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>SI</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) nadie</td>
<td>___</td>
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<tr>
<td>b) su madre</td>
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<td>___</td>
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<td>c) su padre</td>
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<td>___</td>
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<td>d) sus hermanos/as</td>
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<td>___</td>
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<tr>
<td>e) sus suegros</td>
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<tr>
<td>f) sus hijos/as</td>
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<tr>
<td>g) otro miembro de su familia</td>
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<td>___</td>
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<tr>
<td>h) sus amigos/as</td>
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<tr>
<td>i) sus vecinos/as</td>
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<td>___</td>
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<tr>
<td>j) sus compañeros/as de trabajo</td>
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<td>k) otra persona-indique, por favor__________</td>
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1. (C) Si usted tiene un problema, y se siente deprimida o confusa acerca de lo que quiere hacer, ¿iría usted a:

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<tr>
<td>a) nadie</td>
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<td>b) su madre</td>
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<td>c) su padre</td>
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<td>f) sus hijos/as</td>
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<td>g) otro miembro de su familia</td>
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<td>h) sus amigos/as</td>
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<td>j) sus compañeros/as de trabajo</td>
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<td>k) otra persona-indique, por favor</td>
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1. ¿Pasa usted su tiempo libre con:

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<td>a) nadie</td>
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<td>i) sus vecinos/as</td>
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<tr>
<td>k) otra persona-indique, por favor</td>
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### IV. Actitudes hacia los Roles Sexuales

Las oraciones siguientes expresan actitudes que pudiéramos tener acerca de hombres y mujeres. Indíque por favor el grado por el cual usted está de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con cada una de estas afirmaciones circulando el número que indique lo que usted piensa. Evalúe cada afirmación muy cuidadosamente. NO OMITA NINGÚN DE LAS AFIRMACIONES.

1 = Totalmente en desacuerdo  
2 = En desacuerdo  
3 = Nunca  
4 = De acuerdo  
5 = Totalmente de acuerdo

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>La tarea más importante en la vida de una mujer casada es la de cuidar a su esposo e hijos.</th>
<th>1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Una mujer casada debe darse cuenta que la satisfacción y recompensa más grande viene a través de los hijos.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Si una mujer casada trabaja, ella no debe tratar de progresar de la misma forma que un hombre.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Una esposa no debe tener igual autoridad que su esposo a la hora de tomar decisiones.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Si una mujer casada tiene el mismo trabajo que un hombre que tiene que mantener a su familia, ella no debe esperar la misma paga.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Una esposa debe darse cuenta que a la misma vez que la mujer no está capacitada para hacer trabajo físicamente pesado, hay también otras clases de trabajos para los cuales ella no está capacitada debido a su naturaleza física y emocional.</td>
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3 = Nunca  
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5 = Totalmente de acuerdo

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Una esposa debe dejar su trabajo fuera de la casa si no le conviene a su esposo e hijos.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Si una madre de niños pequeños trabaja fuera de la casa, debe hacerlo solamente mientras la familia necesita el dinero.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<td>El trabajo de una esposa debe ser para ella de igual importancia que el de su esposo.</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>La esposa debe poder hacer planes para su ocupación a largo plazo, de la misma forma que su esposo lo hace con el suyo.</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<td>Si ser esposa y madre no satisface suficientemente a una mujer, ella debe buscar trabajo fuera del hogar.</td>
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<td>11.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Debe haber más guarderías disponibles para que más madres jóvenes puedan trabajar.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>El esposo no se debe molestar si el trabajo de su esposa requiere que ella pase la noche fuera de su casa.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Si un hijo/a se enferma y la esposa trabaja, el esposo debe estar dispuesto a quedarse en la casa para cuidar del/a niño/a.</td>
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<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>El hombre no se debe molestar, si su esposa gana más dinero que él.</td>
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<td>15.</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>En el trabajo, los hombres deben estar dispuestos a tener mujeres supervisoras.</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>Un hombre casado debe estar dispuesto a tener una familia pequeña, para que su esposa pueda trabajar si así ella lo desea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Si la esposa de un hombre trabaja, él debe compartir igualmente los quehaceres del hogar tales como, cocinar, limpiar y lavar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Si la esposa de un hombre trabaja, él debe compartir igualmente las responsabilidades del cuidado de sus hijos/as.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>La responsabilidad principal de un hombre casado debe ser su trabajo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>El esposo debe ser la cabeza del hogar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>¿Cree usted que la institución del matrimonio y la familia fue establecida por Dios?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>¿Siente usted que ser madre es un llamado especial que viene de Dios?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>¿Piensa usted que una madre que trabaja puede establecer una relación tan cálida y segura con sus hijos como una madre que no trabaja?</td>
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1 = Totalmente en desacuerdo  
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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>¿Siente usted que un padre o madre obtiene más satisfacción cuando un hijo progresa en su ocupación que cuando una hija progresa en la suya?</th>
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<td>¿Siente usted que un matrimonio es incompleto cuando no tienen hijos?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>¿Piensa usted que las niñas se le deben permitir igual independencia que los niños?</td>
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<td>¿Siente usted que es más probable que un/a niño/a preescolar sufra si su madre trabaja?</td>
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<td>28.</td>
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V. Adaptación al Divorcio

Las declaraciones en esta sección se dirigen a los problemas y tensiones que se encuentran o no se encuentran en el proceso de adaptación al divorcio o separación - cualquier etapa en la que usted está ahora. Para cada pregunta o afirmación, ponga un círculo alrededor de la letra (a,b,c,d) que mejor describa su situación.

1. En cuanto a los sentimientos de estar pasando por un período de trastorno emocional ahora, comparado a cómo se sentía antes de la separación o del divorcio:
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplican - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

2. ¿Comparando la situación de ahora con la de antes de la separación, ha habido algún cambio con relación a cómo de sola se siente?
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplican - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

3. ¿Comparando la situación de ahora con la de antes de la separación, ha habido algún cambio con relación a cómo de tensa se siente?
   a. No aplican - Yo nunca me he sentido tensa.
   b. Estos sentimientos han aumentado grandemente.
   c. Estos sentimientos han aumentado muy poco.
   d. Estos sentimientos han disminuido grandemente.
   e. Estos sentimientos han disminuido muy poco.
   f. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.

4. Comparando la situación de ahora con la de antes de la separación, en cuanto a llorar y/o ataques de llanto:
   a. Estos han aumentado.
   b. Estos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente los tenía antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplican - Yo nunca he tenido ataques de llanto o he llorado mucho.

5. Comparando su participación de ahora en clubes y otras organizaciones sociales o de la comunidad con la de antes de la separación:
   a. Mi participación ha aumentado.
   b. Yo siempre he participado y eso no ha cambiado.
   c. Mi participación ha disminuido.
   d. No aplican - Yo nunca he participado en clubes u otras organizaciones sociales.
6. ¿Comparado con antes de la separación, se siente usted ahora más o menos capaz de desempeñar o cumplir con las responsabilidades que tiene con sus hijos (incluyendo las visitas o manutención)?
   a. Soy ahora más capaz.
   b. Yo era capaz antes y no ha habido cambios desde entonces.
   c. Yo no era muy capaz antes y no ha habido cambios desde entonces.
   d. Yo soy menos capaz.

7. Con respecto a la calidad de su labor en su trabajo ahora, comparado con antes de la separación:
   a. Ha aumentado.
   b. Ha disminuido.
   c. Yo era razonablemente eficiente antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   d. Yo no era muy eficiente antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   e. No aplica - Yo no trabajo fuera de la casa.

8. Con respecto a la calidad de su labor en los quehaceres del hogar ahora, comparado con antes de la separación:
   a. Ha aumentado.
   b. Ha disminuido.
   c. Yo era razonablemente eficiente antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   d. Yo no era muy eficiente antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   e. No aplica - Yo no hago suficientes quehaceres del hogar para juzgar la calidad de mi labor.

9. Con respecto a dormir en la noche ahora, comparado a cuán bien usted dormía antes de la separación:
   a. Yo duermo mejor.
   b. Yo era capaz antes de dormir razonablemente bien y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   c. Antes, yo no dormía regularmente bien y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   d. Yo tengo ahora más problemas en dormir y/o mantenerme dormida.

10. Con respecto a su salud física ahora, comparado con antes de la separación:
    a. Mi salud física es mejor.
    b. Antes, mi salud física estaba bien y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
    c. Antes, mi salud física no estaba bien y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
    d. Mi salud física ha empeorado.

11. ¿Comparado a antes de la separación, es usted ahora más o menos capaz de poder relacionarse bien, con sus amistades?
    a. Yo soy ahora más capaz de poder relacionarme bien con mis amistades.
    b. Yo soy ahora menos capaz de poder relacionarme bien con mis amistades.
    c. Yo era antes capaz de relacionarme razonablemente bien con mis amistades y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
    d. Yo tenía ciertos problemas en esta área y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.

12. ¿Comparado a antes del divorcio, se siente usted sola emocionalmente aún cuando está rodeada de gente?
    a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
    b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
    c. Yo definitivamente había tenido estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
    d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.
13. Con respecto a usted sentirse violenta, frenética, trepando paredes, en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

14. Con respecto a su hábito de estar fumando, en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Ha aumentado.
   b. Ha disminuido.
   c. Dejé de fumar.
   d. No ha habido cambio.
   e. No aplica - Yo nunca he fumado.

15. ¿En comparación con antes de la separación, se siente usted ahora más o menos satisfecha con las relaciones que tiene con sus amistades?
   a. Estoy más satisfecha ahora.
   b. Yo estaba bastante satisfecha antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   c. Yo estaba algo insatisfecha antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   d. Yo estoy menos satisfecha ahora.

16. Con respecto a usted estar tomando bebidas alcohólicas, en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Estoy bebiendo más.
   b. Estoy bebiendo menos.
   c. No ha habido ningún cambio.
   d. No aplica - Yo no bebo.

17. Con respecto a estar soñando despierta (especialmente recordando detalles pasados de su matrimonio y de su interacción con su ex-esposo (tanto en los aspectos positivos como negativos) en comparación con antes de su separación:
   a. No aplica - Yo nunca he soñado despierta con relación a ésto.
   b. El soñar despierta con relación a ésto ha disminuido.
   c. Yo he soñado antes despierta con relación a ésto y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   d. El soñar despierta con relación a ésto ha aumentado.
18. Con respecto a sentirse fatigada, en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Mi fatiga ha disminuido.
   b. Yo tenía alguna fatiga antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   c. Mi fatiga ha aumentado.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he experimentado mucha fatiga.

19. Con respecto a sentirse que quiere herir (económicamente, emocionalmente, o físicamente) a su ex-esposo (o separada de) su esposo desde antes de la separación:
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.
20. ¿En comparación con antes de la separación, se siente ahora más o menos satisfecha con las relaciones con sus hijos?
   a. Me siento más satisfecha.
   b. Yo estaba antes razonablemente satisfecha y no ha habido ningún cambio desde entonces.
   c. Yo estaba antes algo insatisfecha y no ha habido ningún cambio desde entonces.
   d. Estoy menos satisfecha.

21. Con respecto a sentirse ansiosa en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

22. Con respecto al uso de drogas legales (tales como píldoras para dormir, anti-depresivos, etc.) en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. No aplica - Yo nunca he usado drogas legales.
   b. Mi uso de drogas legales ha disminuido.
   c. Yo usaba ciertas drogas legales antes y no ha habido ningún cambio desde entonces.

23. ¿En comparación con antes de la separación, en general como podría usted decir que se siente la mayor parte del tiempo - con los ánimos en alto o los ánimos decaídos?
   a. Yo estoy con el ánimo en alto.
   b. Yo estaba antes con el ánimo razonablemente en alto y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
   c. Yo estaba con el ánimo un tanto decaído antes y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
   d. Yo estoy con el ánimo decaído.

24. ¿En comparación con antes de la separación, está usted más o menos satisfecha con las relaciones que tiene con la gente de los clubes y otras organizaciones sociales o comunitarias a las cuales usted pertenece?
   a. Yo estoy muy satisfecha.
   b. No ha habido ningún cambio.
   c. Yo estoy menos satisfecha.

25. Con respecto a los sentimientos de apatía y/o indiferencia que tiene en comparación con los que sentía antes de la separación:
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

26. ¿Se siente usted con remordimientos sobre “lo que es” en comparación con “lo que pudo haber sido”?
   a. No, no del todo.
   b. Algunas veces.
   c. Sí, un poco.
   d. Sí, mucho.

27. Con respecto a su habilidad de cuidar y mantener su hogar o apartamento en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Ha mejorado.
   b. Se ha mantenido igual.
   c. Ha empeorado.
28. Con respecto a los sentimientos de depresión en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

29. ¿Comparado con antes de la separación, está usted ahora más o menos satisfecha con su participación en clubes y otras organizaciones sociales y comunitarias?
   a. Estoy ahora mucho más satisfecha.
   b. Estoy ahora un poco más satisfecha que antes.
   c. No ha habido cambio.

30. Con respecto a serios pensamientos suicidas en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Estos pensamientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos pensamientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos pensamientos antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido tales pensamientos suicidas.

31. ¿Comparado con antes de la separación, está usted ahora más o menos satisfecha con su habilidad de tratar los problemas que se presentan en su trabajo fuera de la casa?
   a. Estoy más satisfecha.
   b. Estoy menos satisfecha.
   c. Esta habilidad era antes satisfactoria y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
   d. Esta habilidad era antes un poco insatisfactoria y no ha cambiado desde entonces.

32. Con respecto a dificultades en recordar cosas, en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Son menos.
   b. No ha habido ningún cambio.
   c. Hay más.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido dificultades con mi memoria.

33. Con respecto a sentimientos de coraje en general en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

34. ¿Comparado con antes de la separación, cuán satisfecha está usted ahora con las relaciones con las personas en su trabajo?
   a. Yo estoy ahora mucho más satisfecha.
   b. Yo estoy ahora un poco más satisfecha.
   c. No ha habido ningún cambio.
   d. No aplica - Yo no trabajo.
35. Con respecto a su habilidad de romper lazos emocionales con su ex- (o separada de su) esposo, ahora:
   a. No aplica - los lazos emocionales estaban rotos desde antes de la separación.
   b. Yo encuentro que es más fácil de lo que yo esperaba.
   c. Yo encuentro que es igual de fácil o difícil de lo que yo esperaba.
   d. Yo encuentro que es más difícil de lo que yo esperaba.

36. Con respecto a los sentimientos de culpa (en relación a la separación y/o divorcio) desde la separación:
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

37. Con respecto a sentimientos de hostilidad hacia su ex- (o separada de su) esposo desde la separación:
   a. Estos sentimientos has aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

38. Con respecto a los sentimientos de que la vida no tiene ningún propósito, en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

39. Con respecto a su satisfacción con el trabajo, en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Ha aumentado.
   b. Ha disminuido.
   c. Yo estaba satisfecha antes y no ha habido ningún cambio.
   d. Yo estaba algo insatisfecha antes y no ha habido ningún cambio desde entonces.
   e. No aplica - Yo no trabajo fuera de la casa.

40. Con respecto a su satisfacción ahora con los trabajos del hogar en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Ha aumentado.
   b. Ha disminuido.
   c. Yo estaba satisfecha antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   d. Yo estaba algo insatisfecha antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   e. No aplica - Yo no hago suficiente trabajo en el hogar para tener cualquier sentimiento acerca de ello.

41. ¿En comparación con antes de la separación, sus sentimientos de soledad han cambiado?
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.
42. ¿En comparación con antes de la separación, cómo de adecuada siente que es su habilidad para cumplir con sus roles nuevos en los clubes y otras organizaciones sociales y comunitarias las cuales usted puede participar?
   a. Yo siento que mi habilidad es más adecuada.
   b. Yo siento que mi habilidad es menos adecuada.
   c. Mi habilidad era adecuada antes y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
   d. Mi habilidad no era muy adecuada antes y no ha cambiado desde entonces.

43. Con respecto a los sentimientos de que usted está toda emocionalmente descompuesta ahora, en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

44. Con respecto a disfrutar de sus hijos ahora en comparación con antes de la separación:
   a. Los disfruto más.
   b. Los disfrutaba antes y no ha habido ningún cambio.
   c. No aplica - Yo raramente los veo, lo cual no me molesta mucho.
   d. No aplica - Yo raramente los veo, lo cual me molesta mucho.

45. ¿Comparado con antes de la separación, se siente usted más o menos abatida y/o desanimada?
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

46. ¿Comparado con antes de la separación, usted participa ahora más o menos en actividades con sus amigos?
   a. Yo participo más ahora.
   b. Yo participaba antes y no ha habido cambio desde entonces.
   c. No aplica - Yo nunca he participado en actividades con mis amigos.
   d. Yo participo menos.

47. ¿Comparado con antes de la separación, cómo de bien podía usted controlar a sus hijos?
   a. Yo trato con ellos mejor ahora.
   b. Yo trato con ellos menos ahora.
   c. Yo trataba con ellos antes satisfactoriamente y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
   d. Yo tenía antes algunos problemas tratándolos y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
   e. No aplica - Yo raramente veo a mis hijos.
48. ¿Se culpa usted misma de la separación y/o el divorcio?
   a. De ninguna manera.
   b. Un poco.
   c. Algo.
   d. Mucho.

49. ¿Con respecto a los sentimientos de “hacerse pedazos” ahora en comparación con antes de la separación?
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

50. ¿Comparado con antes de la separación, siente usted que tiene más o menos habilidad para llevarse con las personas en su trabajo?
   a. Yo tengo más habilidad.
   b. Yo tengo menos habilidad.
   c. Yo tenía esta habilidad antes y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo no trabajo fuera de la casa.

51. ¿Comparado con antes de la separación, tiene usted más o menos sentimientos generales de aislamiento?
   a. Estos sentimientos han aumentado.
   b. Estos sentimientos han disminuido.
   c. Yo definitivamente tenía estos sentimientos antes y no han cambiado desde entonces.
   d. No aplica - Yo nunca he tenido estos sentimientos.

52. ¿Comparado con antes de la separación, cómo usted se siente acerca de su habilidad para ocuparse de sus hijos?
   a. Mi habilidad para tratar con mis hijos ha mejorado.
   b. Mi habilidad para tratar con mis hijos se ha puesto peor.
   c. Mi habilidad para tratar con mis hijos estaba bien antes y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
   d. Esto era un problema antes y no ha cambiado desde entonces.
   e. No aplica - Yo raramente veo a mis hijos.
APPENDIX G

VERBAL NARRATIVE TO POTENTIAL SUBJECTS
Verbal Narrative to Potential Subjects

The purpose of this study is to obtain information on the divorce and divorce adjustment experiences of Hispanic mothers in the Cleveland metropolitan area so that local agencies and the community can better address your needs. Your participation in this study involves completing a paper and pencil questionnaire; this will take approximately 45 minutes of your time. You give your consent to participate by completing and returning the questionnaire to me. Your participation is completely voluntary, you are free to refuse to answer any questions you wish, you may withdraw from the study at any point, and your names or any other identifying information should not be attached to your questionnaires.

A summary of the findings of the study will be available to you in about six months from the community agency that referred you to me.
APPENDIX H

TABLE OF DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE
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Table 1: Demographic Profile of the Sample

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<td>English</td>
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<td>English</td>
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<table>
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Table 1 (continued)
APPENDIX I

TABLE OF FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR

EMOTIONAL AND ROLE ADJUSTMENT
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<td>Depression</td>
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<td>Loneliness</td>
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<td>Guilt</td>
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Table 2 (continued)

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Table 2: Divorce Adjustment: Factor Analysis for Emotional and Role Adjustment
APPENDIX J

TABLE OF CORRELATIONS
Table 4: Intercorrelations, Means, and Standard Deviations for Acculturation, Sex-Role Attitudes, Social Support, and Divorce Adjustment with Demographic Variables

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Note: *p < 0.05. **p < 0.01.
APPENDIX K

LINE PLOT OF TWO-WAY INTERACTION:

FAMILY SOCIAL SUPPORT \times NON-FAMILY SOCIAL SUPPORT

FOR

SEX-ROLE ATTITUDES
Appendix K: Family Social Support x Non-Family social support for Sex-Role Attitudes
APPENDIX L

LINE PLOT OF TWO-WAY INTERACTION:
ACCULTURATION x NON-FAMILY SOCIAL SUPPORT
FOR ROLE ADJUSTMENT (1) AND EMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT (2)
Appendix K (1): Acculturation x Non-Family Social Support for Role Adjustment
Appendix L (2): Acculturation x Non-Family Social Support for Emotional Adjustment
APPENDIX M

LINE PLOT OF

ACCULTURATION x SEX-ROLE ATTITUDES (1) AND
ACCULTURATION x SEX-ROLE ATTITUDES x FAMILY SOCIAL SUPPORT (2)

FOR ROLE ADJUSTMENT
Appendix L (1): Acculturation x Sex-Role Attitudes for Role Adjustment
Appendix M (2): Acculturation x Sex-Role Attitudes x Family Social Support for Role Adjustment
APPENDIX N

LINE PLOT OF

ACCULTURATION x YEARS DIVORCED (1) AND
ACCULTURATION x NON-FAMILY SOCIAL SUPPORT x YEARS DIVORCED (2)

FOR ROLE ADJUSTMENT
Appendix N (2): Acculturation x Non-Family Social support x Years Divorced for Role Adjustment