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Time Use Patterns and Satisfaction With Life of
Single-Parent Families With Special Emphasis on
The Female, Low-Income and/or Minority Head

presented by

Chia-Yu Liu

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Education

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Major professor

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TIME USE PATTERNS AND SATISFACTION WITH LIFE
OF SINGLE-PARENT FAMILIES WITH SPECIAL
EMPHASIS ON THE FEMALE, LOW INCOME
AND/OR MINORITY FAMILY-HEAD

By

Chia-Yu Liu

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Administration and Curriculum

1982

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ABSTRACT

TIME USE PATTERNS AND SATISFACTION WITH LIFE OF SINGLE-PARENT FAMILIES WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON THE FEMALE, LOW INCOME AND/OR MINORITY FAMILY-HEAD

By

Chia-Yu Liu

This study was designed to develop base-line data concerning time use patterns and life satisfaction of single low-income female parents, and to analyze the relationships between time spent on household work activities and perceived quality of life, as measured by selected demographic variables.

Data were generated via face-to-face interviews and questionnaires. A first interview gathered family, demographic, work, and resource-use data. Subjects collected time use data for a period of two consecutive days using a modification of the Time Record Chart developed by Walker and Woods at Cornell University. A second interview occurring two days after the first interview gathered quality of life information using a modification of a questionnaire developed by Andrews and Withey at the University of Michigan.

The sample of this study consisted of 51 low-income, single-female parents residing in Berrien, Ingham, Kalamazoo, or Wayne County, Michigan and included rural, suburban and urban area homemakers.

Data were analyzed mathematically and statistically.

Descriptive analysis was used to interpret base-line data concerning time use and satisfaction with life of single-female parents. The Spearman Rank Order Correlation, Chi-square Statistic, and T-test were used to test the relationship between variables.

Conclusions based on the research findings were:

1. Household work required a significant amount of time for the single-female-parent families studied; most of that time was spent on food related activities and family care.
2. In single-female-parent families little time was spent on maintenance tasks, outdoor chores, and care of car.
3. Single-female parents spent an average of 6.9 hours a day on leisure and social activities. The most common leisure activity was watching television; the most common social activity was visiting relatives or friends.
4. Children are the central life concern for most single-female parents. Time spent with children is the domain that yields the greatest amount of satisfaction for single-female parents.
5. Financial security is the dimension of family life concern that yields the least satisfaction and is a strong predictor of overall quality of life for single-female parents.
6. Single-female parents evaluated their satisfaction with life-as-a-whole in a negative manner.

To my father and my mother, Mr. & Mrs. Kuo-Yueh Liu
whose support, understanding and assistance
have helped bring me to this point in my life

and

To my husband, Feng-Ou Ko; and my son, William S. Ko
for their love and encouragement throughout the years

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Over the past decade, the number of female-headed families with children has grown almost ten times as fast as the number of two-parent families (U. S. Bureau of Census, 1977). This dramatic increase in the number of single parent families in recent years represents a significant change in family composition. Recent statistics show that 24.4 percent of all households in the U. S. have female heads; in Michigan 23.9 percent have female heads. Today, 15.8 percent of all children in Michigan under the age of 18 live with their mother only (Andrews and Boger, 1980). Nationally, the number of children living with only one parent increased from 11 percent in 1960 to 17 percent in 1978 (Jennings, 1979). In 1960 only 8 percent of the children lived with one parent (American's Children, 1976). Thus, in less than twenty years, the proportion of children living in one-parent families has more than doubled.

Single parenthood has been defined by Ross and Sawhill (1975) as "a time between living in one nuclear family and another"; however, many children now born to single parents often remain in single parent families through their childhood. Single parenthood is not without difficulty. Nickols (1979a) conducted a project on resource management for one-parent families and found that parenting, financial security and personal needs were three major concerns in single parent families. She found that one of the major concerns of the single parent is the

well-being of his/her children. Single-parent families face many economic, psychological, and social difficulties by the uniqueness of their individual situations. A need identified by single parents is the development of self-confidence in their decision-making abilities (Nickols, 1979a).

As family resources and opportunities change, it is expected that family members' use of time will change also. Household work must be done by family members to maintain a family. Families may not view their decisions about time use as being basic economic decisions, but they are. Economics has to do with the allocation of scarce resources among competing goals in an effort to achieve the most satisfactory outcome. Time is recognized as the basic scarce resource for people (Becker, 1975). The scarcity of time forces people to make choices about the use of time. Hence, time use is a measure not only of economic activity, but time use also serves as an indicator of role relationships and values (Nickols and Fox, 1980).

Rationale

A majority of single parent families are headed by mothers. Children in single-female-headed families have a greater likelihood of being poor. Johnson (1980) found that the proportion of families below the poverty level that were maintained by a mother was nearly three times that of families maintained by a father only. The percentages were 42 and 15 respectively. Studies (Brandwein et al, 1974; Duncan, 1967, and Stencil, 1976) have shown that living in single-parent families often has enduring socioeconomic effects on children;

tendencies toward future marital breakups, less formal education, and greater possibility of juvenile delinquency are several of the tendencies noted.

The way people use time reflects a combination of preferences and constraints built into the way life is organized (Nickols and Fox, 1980). Many researchers have collected information about how various family members use their time. The results of these studies have been indicated in several conclusions concerning stability and change in family roles, measurement of household work, family economy, and the various family lifestyles.

Studies by Szalai (1972), Walker and Woods (1976), and others determined that self-esteem and academic performance of children link positively with adequacy and quality of time spent with them by parents. The absence of a father may deprive the child of a third or a fifth of the time they would receive from both parents combined; in the female-headed family where the mother is in the labor force, parental access time is cut almost in half (Robinson, 1977).

Satisfaction with one's perceived quality of family life has been shown by Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) and others to predict satisfaction with perceived over-all quality of life. Several quality of life studies (Andrews and Withey, 1976; Bubolz, Eicher, Evers and Sontag, 1980; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976) have consistently substantiated the finding that the majority of Americans are quite satisfied with their lives. However, both male- and female-headed single parent families experience the psychological and physical stress of rearing children without the aid of a spouse. From five

national surveys conducted between 1957 and 1978, Campbell (1981) found that people who are single--never married, separated, divorced or widowed--were typically associated with strong feelings of ill-being, especially in the satisfaction with their family lives.

A 1976 study conducted by the Foundation for Child Development in September and December, 1976 examined perceptions concerning quality of life. This study concluded that when parents perceive their quality of life as satisfactory, their children are likely to also perceive their quality of life to be satisfactory.

Since time use patterns and quality of life have been studied primarily in two-parent families, a study of single-parent families' time use and their satisfaction with their lives is needed. Since most single-parent families are headed by females, an investigation of time use patterns and quality of life in those families is especially needed.

Purpose of the Study

The major purpose of this research is to develop base-line data concerning time use patterns and satisfaction with life of low-income single parent females in Michigan. Base-line data currently do not exist for this group of families. The potential benefit of such a study can be translated into eventual economic and social consequences for the state and nation.

The base-line data generated can provide a needed input for those providing information, counsel and/or training to low income, female-headed single parent families. Using the information, agencies

and institutions can do a better job of supporting, helping, teaching, and otherwise working with low income, single parent females and their children. Churches, schools, social service agencies, health care providers, the YWCA and the Cooperative Extension Service are some of those who might appropriately use the information to better provide support, intervention strategies, and instructional opportunities. Base-line data would be of value to policy makers as well, as they seek to develop laws, orders, policies and procedures affecting families.

The ripple effect is endless. One can hypothesize that if low income, single parent females were able to better manage their time, their self esteem might be enhanced; in combination, these conditions could enable a women to spend more and higher quality time with her children as well as become better able to seek, obtain and keep a job. The spinoff from these circumstances would be children with higher self esteem who perform better academically and who in turn could become a more productive component of the nation's human resource pool.

Conceptual Framework

Systematic study of the family did not begin until after the middle of the nineteenth century. Since 1950 research activity has continued to accelerate; in addition there have been renewed efforts to interpret and explain the family and its forms and changes--attempts to go beyond mere description. Currently, much comparative research, synthesizing, and reworking is being done in order to bring study

of the family into the mainstream of the academic disciplines (Adams, 1980).

A significant change in family structure in recent years is the dramatic increase in the number of single-parent families. It is important to understand the single-parent family setting which includes various types of family compositions, the functions performed within family, and other internal aspects of family life.

Traditionally, a household is characterized as the consuming unit of the economic system. The productive function of the household was recognized and developed by Margaret Reid in 1934. Although production in the household has been further recognized and received increased attention in recent years, the definition of household production has not been as clear as when Margaret Reid defined it in 1934.

Household production consists of those unpaid activities which are carried on, by and for the members, which activities might be replaced by market goods, or paid services, if circumstances such as income, market conditions, and personal inclinations permit the service being delegated to someone outside the household group. (Reid, 1934:11)

Walker and Woods (1976) developed an instrument with which to quantify the non-market production of the household. Household production, or household work, was defined in their study as the multiplicity of activities performed in individual households that result in goods and services that enable a family to function as a unit (Walker and Woods, 1976).

In Walker and Woods' study (1976), time was the resource used to indicate household work loads, and the use of time has been

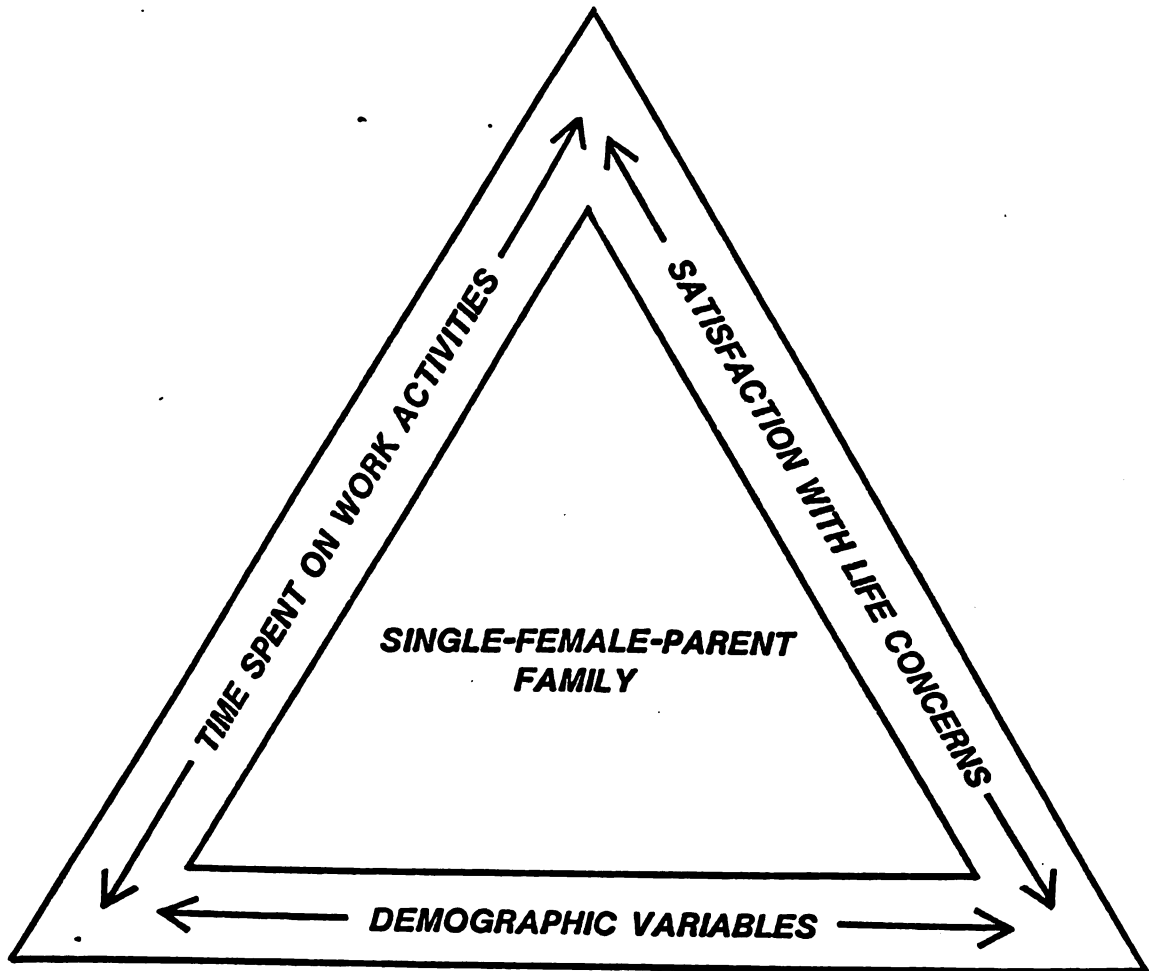
expressed as the amount of time spent to perform certain household activities. The quantitative measurement developed by Walker and Woods (1976) is utilized in this study as a framework for examining the amount of time spent on each individual housework activity to keep the single-female-parent family functioning.

To study quality of life, Andrews and Withey (1976) developed a two-dimensional domain and criteria conceptual model which shows the evaluation of perceived satisfaction at different levels of domains and criteria.¹ The domain and criteria conceptual model is used as part of the framework for this single-female-parent study. In this study, specific aspects of family life, such as children, house, neighborhood, standard of living, and financial security serve as family life domains. Independence, sense of belonging, fun, and accomplishment in life were used as values or criteria in this study. The conceptual model in this study integrates time use with domains and criteria from the Andrews and Withey model.

Figure 1 presents a proposed model of relationships among demographic variables, time spent on individual work activities and satisfaction with life concerns and life-as-a-whole in single-female-parent families. In this study, attempts have been made to examine the relationships within the model.

Campbell (1981) indicated that social scientists were seldom in a position to say that some specific aspect of an individual's experience was caused by certain attributes of his/her living

¹The definitions of domains, criteria or values will appear later in the "Operational Definitions" section of this chapter.



**FIGURE 1 : RELATIONSHIP AMONG DEPENDENT
& INDEPENDENT VARIABLES IN
SINGLE-FEMALE-PARENT FAMILY**

circumstances. However, Campbell believed that there is a relationship between an individual's feeling of well-being and the circumstance in which he/she lives. In this study of the single-female parents demographic variables such as age of the respondent, level of education, family income, number of children, age of the youngest child in the family, race, and work status have been used as factors to test the perceived quality of life.

Many research studies (Walker and Woods, 1976; Nickols, 1976; McCullough, 1980) have examined various demographic variables such as age of the respondent, education, income, family composition, number of children, age of the youngest child, etc. These demographic variables were found to affect the amount of time spent performing household work. In this study, five demographic variables--age of the respondent, level of education, family income, number of children, and age of the youngest child in the family--were chosen to test the relationship with time spent on each individual work activity and time spent on total household work.

Is time allocation a social indicator for measuring satisfaction with life concerns? Hobson and Mann (1975) developed a social indicator called Lambda that is based on the duration of time which individuals allocate to their various life activities. The Lambda indicator is a weighted-sum social indicator with both subjective and objective aspects. Hobson and Mann (1975) believe Lambda is a good social indicator. They state:

....a social indicator based on human time allocation has a great deal of intrinsic appeal regardless of its mathematical advantages. Such rates as amount of

SO₂ in the air and GNP only affect abstract quantities like 'quality of life' when they actually affect the way in which some human being spends time or else the 'satisfaction' he gets from spending that time. Thus, such rates are at best indirect measures of quality of life, whereas an indicator based on time allocation has the potential of being immediately sensitive.

(Hobson and Mann, 1975:445-446)

In this study, respondents were asked to express their feelings about the importance of time spent on various activities according to the length of time they actually spent on each activity. An attempt has also been made in this study to determine whether a relationship exists between time spent per day doing individual work activities and satisfaction with general life concerns.

Operational Definitions

The following definitions are cited as operational definitions for the study.

Single-female-headed Family : A household that is headed by a single-female parent.

Single-female parent: A female who has child/children of her own and is head of the household.

Time-log Chart: A log or chart on which people record their activities over a specified period, usually a full 24 hour day.

Work Activities: Activities listed on the time-log chart are divided into 16 categories: food preparation and cleaning, daily or regular household chores, personal

and family care, outdoor chores and care of car, leisure activities by respondent alone, social activities with other people, special house care, employment, volunteer work, personal improvement, travel, shopping, communication, filing and keeping records, rest and other.

Household Work:

The total time recorded in the categories of food preparation and cleaning, daily or regular household chores, personal and family care, outdoor chores and care of car, shopping, filing and keeping records, and special household care.

Family Income:

The respondent's total family income, before taxes, in 1980. Family income includes wages, property, interest, welfare, Aid to Family with Dependent Children, child support from a previous marriage, and other money income received by the respondent.

Level of Education:

An indication of the highest grade or degree the respondent has completed.

Demographic Variables:

In this study, the demographic variables include age of the respondent, level of

education, family income, number of children in the family, age of the youngest child in the family, race, working status and marital status.

Satisfaction with Life-as-a-whole:

This is a measurement of the degree of perceived satisfaction with life in general. In this study, satisfaction with life-as-a-whole is the average score of the responses to the question, "How do you feel about your life-as-a-whole?", measured on a 5-point scale.

Satisfaction with Family Life: This is a measurement of the degree of perceived satisfaction with family. In this study, it is the average of the responses to the question, "How do you feel about your own family life--yourself and your children?", measured on a 5-point scale.

Satisfaction with Family Domains and Resources:

In this study, satisfaction with family domains and resources is defined as the sum of feelings about family life, children, house, neighborhood, standard of living, and financial security.

Satisfaction with Self Evaluation Criteria:

In this study, satisfaction with self evaluation criteria is defined as the sum of feelings of self, independence,

acceptance by others, how much fun one is having, sense of belonging, and changes since becoming a single parent.

Theoretical Definitions

<u>Quality of Life:</u>	In this study, Quality of Life refers to the well-being of people.
<u>General Life Concerns:</u>	"Concerns" as defined by Cantril (1965) are aspects of life about which people have feelings, aspects that are of significant concern to them.
<u>Domains:</u>	Domains are aspects of life that can be evaluated in the light of one's values. Domains of life are places, things, activities, people, and roles (Andrews and Withey, 1976).
<u>Values or Criteria:</u>	Values or criteria are the "yardsticks" one uses to judge or evaluate how one feels about the various domains of life. Criteria are standards, aspirations and goals (Andrews and Withey, 1976).

Research Objectives

The overall objectives of the dissertation are to study time use and feelings about quality of life in low-income single-parent female-headed families. The amount of time used in each daily household activity reflects the preferences and stresses in each single-female-parent family's life. Feelings about quality of life reflect the sense of well-being and self-esteem.

The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To establish base-line data concerning the time use patterns of single-female parents based on the following variables:
 - a) age of the respondent
 - b) level of education
 - c) family income
 - d) number of children in the family
 - e) age of the youngest child in the family
2. To establish base-line data concerning the level of life satisfaction of single-female parents based on the following variables:
 - a) age of the respondent
 - b) level of education
 - c) family income
 - d) number of children in the family
 - e) age of the youngest child in the family

Research Questions

The following research questions form the basis for data analysis and description.

1. Is there a relationship between the demographic variables of age, level of education, family income, number of children, and age of the youngest child in the family and time spent per day on doing various work activities?
2. Is there a relationship between the demographic variables of age, level of education, family income, number of children, and age of the youngest child in the family and satisfaction with general life concerns?
3. Is there a relationship between time spent per day on doing various work activities by single-female parents and satisfaction with general life concerns?
4. Is there a relationship between time spent per day on doing total household work by single-female parents and satisfaction of general life concerns?
5. Is there a relationship between demographic variables of age, level of education, family income, number of children and age of the youngest child in the family and life-as-a-whole, family domains and resources, and self evaluation criteria?
6. Is there a relationship between race and satisfaction with general life concerns?
7. Is there a relationship between work status and satisfaction with general life concerns?

Assumptions

The assumptions underlying this research are:

1. The research design is an appropriate method for data collection.

2. A recorded time-log chart approach is an accurate method for gathering time use data concerning household activities.
3. The time-log charts recorded by single-female parents are an accurate reflection of their life styles.
4. The interviewer has recorded all information the respondents provided correctly.
5. All respondents have reported accurately their feelings about their life concerns in term of satisfaction.
6. Satisfaction is an appropriate indicator of quality of life.
7. Quality of life can be assessed by asking single-female parents directly about their general life concerns.

Limitations

The limitations of the study are:

1. The sample was drawn from four Michigan Counties' Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program groups: Ingham County, Wayne County, Kalamazoo County, and Berrien County; these may not be representative of all single-female-parent families in Michigan or the U.S.
2. Data were collected between October 1980 and February 1981 and did not extend over a calendar year. Seasonal variation could not be taken into account.
3. Time recorded data were limited to Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday; therefore, all days of the week were not represented in the 51 completed responses.
4. The time-log chart was pre-categorized; the respondent was forced

to make their activities fit the categories listed; these categories may not have been all inclusive.

5. No primary, or secondary time was considered in this study. Time was recorded according to all activities involved. Hence, it may exceed 24 hours per day.
5. A five-point scale, very unhappy to very happy, instead of Andrews and Withey's Delighted-Terrible Scale (D-T Scale) was used in the study. Andrews and Withey (1976:20) stated that

D-T is a measuring device that would yield more valid and discriminating information about people's evaluations of different aspects of life than had been produced by previously used scales.

The five-point scale, very unhappy to very happy, was considered a less complicated scale for single-female parents to answer.

Plan of the Study

Chapter I has contained the rationale, purpose, conceptual frameworks, operational definitions, research objectives, research questions, assumptions, and limitation.

Chapter II presents the review of literature divided into three sections: single-parent female-headed families, time use in household work, and quality of life.

Chapter III describes the methodology used in this study.

Chapter IV contains the findings of this study.

The conclusion, discussion and implications are found in Chapter V.

The Appendices contain correspondence, data collection instruments and the summary report sent to the respondents.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There is a dearth of literature that focuses directly on a combination of the three primary elements of this research: 1) low income single parent females and their families; 2) time use patterns; and 3) quality of life assessment. A thorough review of existing literature located only one study that linked two of these elements. That study addressed the question of resource use and single parent families.

Williams (1978) conducted a study to determine factors affecting family resource procurement, allocation, and use by low income single-parent families in six states. The data were a part of a North Central regional project. The results showed that single parent families were disadvantaged in money, time for household work, child care, education, participation in groups, insurance, and transportation.

In Williams' study, the coefficient of multiple determination (R^2) test showed that single-parent families had a negative outlook concerning their financial situations. Visiting neighbors and friends/relatives was the most important activity of time allocation and use in single parent families. Other factors which influenced the allocation and use of resources in single-parent families were: housing satisfaction, clothing satisfaction, number of children in the family, and transportation problems.

Single parents' educational level and job training were found to be negatively related to the perceived adequacy of income in Williams' study. The results implied that alleviation of transportation problems should be considered along with job training, and work requirements to maximize opportunities to improve economic well-being in single-parent families. Williams (1978) concluded that the identification of problems in single-parent families concerning their resource allocation and use could provide directions for public policy decisions. Evaluation of economic well-being in single-parent families could improve their quality of life.

Since only the Williams study examined more than one of the primary elements of this study, the remainder of this chapter will review literature separately in each of the three areas in terms of methodology and findings. This review of the literature will provide in most cases both a rationale for the methodology used in this study and a basis for comparing findings.

Single-Female-Headed Families

Household Composition in Female-Headed Families

The number of women in the United States who are heads of their own families has increased from 4.2 million in 1955 to 6.6 million in 1973. This very rapid increase has fostered a growing concern among social scientists and government planners concerning changes in family structure and composition (Norton, 1974).

It is difficult to present accurate research data on family structure. Part of this difficulty arises from the definition of

"family" which is used. In order to understand where female-headed families with children fit into the larger picture of all household and family types, it is useful to have some basic understanding of Census Bureau definitions in this area (Ross and Sawhill, 1975). According to standard definitions of the Census, a household includes all persons who occupy a housing unit and live and eat together; and a family consists of two or more persons related to each other by blood, marriage, or adoption who live together (U. S. Bureau of Census, 1972). However, these definitions have thus excluded those members of households who consider themselves part of a family, but who are not related by blood, marriage, or adoption.

Ross and Sawhill (1975) compiled definitions of household and family arrangements which give a better description of these terms (see Table 1).

Glick and Norton (1977) estimated that in March 1977 about two million persons "maintained living quarters which they shared at the time with an unrelated adult of the opposite sex." In one out of three of these "unmarried couple" households, the woman and an unrelated man lived together; in one out of five of them, one or more children were present. These types of households are on the increase. As measured in the 1960 Census, there were 900,000 adults in such households; by 1970, one million. But by 1977, an additional 900,000 adults were living in such households, a 90% increase since 1970. There appears to be evidence that these arrangements are relatively short-lived, but no data are available relative to the distribution of the length of such unions (Slesinger, 1978).

TABLE 1
DEFINITIONS OF HOUSEHOLD AND FAMILY ARRANGEMENTS

Household:	all the persons who occupy a housing unit. A household includes the related family members and all unrelated persons, if any, who share the housing unit. A person living alone in a housing unit, or a group of unrelated persons sharing a unit, is also counted as a household. Each household has a designated head.
Family:	a group of two or more persons related by blood, marriage or adoption and residing together. A household may contain more than one family. It should be noted here that a household head living alone or with unrelated persons is regarded as a household but not as a family. Thus, some households do not contain a family.
Primary Family:	one that includes among its members the head of a household.
Secondary Family:	a family that does not include the head of the household. Members of secondary families are related to each other and have a designated family head. Examples include guests, lodgers, or resident employees and their relatives living in a household.
Head of Household:	the person designated as the "head". The number of heads is equal to the number of households, families or subfamilies. The head is usually the person regarded as such by the members of the group except that married women are not classified as heads if their husbands are living with them.
Primary Individuals:	a household head living alone or with nonrelatives only.
Secondary Individuals:	a nonhousehold head who is not related to any other person in the household.

Source: Ross and Sawhill, Time of Transition: The Growth of Families Headed by Women. Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute 1975:14.

Slesinger (1978) studied the dynamic relationship between family and household composition. The purpose of his study was to examine a sample of household units over a 17 month period, a sizable proportion of which contained members "living together," and to discuss possible sources of error in the concept and measurement of "family." The following questions were addressed in his study: a) What is the stability of such units over time? b) How stable are female-headed households over time? c) What are the relationships of members who live in these households to the female-head?

The Slesinger sample, taken between 1974-1976, included 123 Wisconsin mothers from urban and rural areas (84 urban and 39 rural). Seventy percent of the urban group was black, and about two-thirds of the group were in poverty, as measured by the Social Security Index of Income (Poverty Guidelines in All States Except Alaska and Hawaii, 1975).

As a result of this study, it was concluded that about one out of four families consisted of mother and child(ren) living alone; two out of four consisted of mother, child(ren) and male partner, and the other 25 percent involved extended family. However, the same families did not remain in the same grouping for the entire length of the study. In this sample, about two out of three remained with the same family composition over the 17 month period of investigation; the other third appeared to be somewhat fluid (Slesinger, 1978).

Ross and Sawhill (1975) suggest that the female-headed household is for the most part a temporary unit which frequently changes into a different household category; that is, if a woman divorces

and forms her own unit, she is not likely to remain in a female-headed household for the remainder of her life--she will remarry or move in with others, or her child or children will leave her home. It is a "time of transition."

Those who use female-headed households as a special group for analysis should be appraised not only of the changeability of this group (Ross and Sawhill, 1975) but also that households headed by females may have adult males in them. One should not assume that these women live in households without adult males, nor that their children have no male role-models (Slesinger, 1978).

Looking at longitudinal studies based on a national population, the household composition is considered an important factor. New lines of research have indicated that the changing household composition affects and is affected by other characteristics under study (Slesinger, 1978).

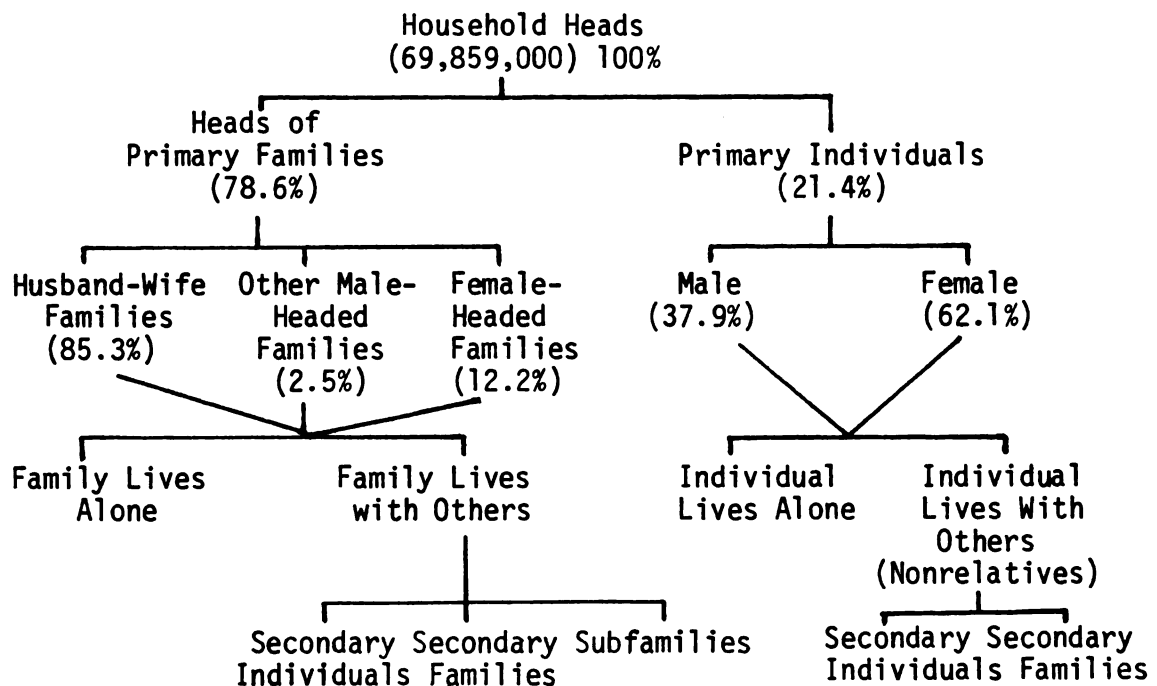
Interaction between changing family composition and income was elaborated on by Hannan and colleagues (Hannan et al, 1976) in the Seattle-Denver Income Maintenance Experiment report. These researchers determined that cross-sectional analysis using current marital status obscures the causal effect of marital status on income. Rapid changes in marital status may have drastic effects on earned income.

Children in Single-Female-Headed Families

The dramatic rise in the number of single-parent families during the 1970's occurred mainly among families maintained by women.

When children live in a single-parent family they are much more likely to be living with their mother than their father. Tables 2 and 3 provide summary statistical information concerning this distribution.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS
BY HOUSEHOLD TYPE, 1974



Source: "Households and Family Characteristics: 1974,"
Current Population Reports, No. 276, Washington, D.C.: U. S. Bureau
of the Census, 1976a: 20.

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY FAMILIES BY
SEX OF HEAD AND PRESENCE OF CHILDREN
1974

Total Families (55,053,000) 100%					
Husband-Wife Families (85%)		Other Male- Headed Families (2.6%)		Female-Headed Families (12.4%)	
<u>100%</u> With Children (47.2%)	Without Children (37.8%)	With Children (1%)	Without Children (1.7%)	With Children (8.3%)	Without Children (4%)

Source: "Households and Family Characteristics: 1974,"
Current Population Reports, No. 276, Washington, D.C.: U. S. Bureau
of the Census, 1976a: 20.

There are about 64 million children in the United States, representing 29.6% of the population (Jennings, 1979). Of children in families almost 78% live with both a father and mother. A June 1975 survey revealed that only 67% of the children under 18 years of age lived with their own (biological or adoptive) parents who were still in their first marriage (U. S. Census Bureau, August 1977). In 1978, 11.7 million children lived in single-parent families and accounted for a little more than one of six children (Epstein, 1979). Percentage-wise, the number of children living with only one parent has increased from 11 percent in 1970 to 17 percent in 1978 (Jennings, 1979).

Bane (1976) estimates the total number of children growing up in the 1970's who probably will experience living in a one-parent family sometime before they reach age 18 at between 34 and 46 percent. Approximately 40% of all children in single-parent families live with a divorced parent (Epstein, 1979). Fifteen percent of all children live in single-female-headed families, and only one percent of all children live in single-male-headed families (Ross and Sawhill, 1975).

Since 1960 there has been a decline in the proportion of female family heads who were widows and an increase in the proportion of female heads who were divorced or separated (Bureau of the Census, 1974). In recent years there has been a fairly large increase in the proportion of female heads who were reported as having never been married. The increase in the percentage of unmarried women is particularly dramatic for the age group under 25; over 80% of all children born to unwed mothers are born to young women (Toward a National Policy for Children and Families, 1976).

Black Single-Parent Families

The percentage of black families headed by females is about three times as large as the percentage of white families headed by females (Snapper and Ohms, 1978). The percentage of families headed by non-married white males remained nearly constant between 1970 and 1976 (2.3 percent and 2.4 percent, respectively). The proportion of families headed by non-married black males increased slightly from 3.7 percent in 1970 to 4.1 percent in 1976 (Snapper and Ohms, 1978).

In 1970, Ross and Sawhill estimated that the black divorce rate was slightly higher than the white rate while the total

separation rate was about one and a half times higher than the white rate. This study found that black women were twice as likely to be widowed and thirteen times as likely to be single-female-parents by having and keeping an illegitimate first child (Ross and Sawhill, 1975).

The most pronounced changes in living arrangements were for black children, among whom those under 18 years old living with both parents declined from 69% in 1960 to 52% in 1973. About one-half of the black children under 6 years old lived with both parents in 1973 compared with 70 percent in 1960. Black children, both under 18 and under 6 years old, living in families with a mother, but no father present increased from 19 percent in 1960 to 38 percent in 1973 (Bureau of the Census, 1974).

Table 4 shows a much higher proportion of both single and separated women with children in the nonwhite population. It also shows that a high proportion of all unmarried women with children head their own households rather than living with relatives; this choice of living arrangements does not vary much by race (Ross and Sawhill, 1975).

Ross and Sawhill (1975) generalize that the trend toward greater female headship within the black community may be related to: 1) improvements in health and a change in sexual attitudes, both of which have probably had a disproportionate impact on the fertility of young black women, especially teenagers; 2) the inability of young black men with little education to improve their economic position, combined with a significant increase in the alternative sources of

TABLE 4
 PROPORTION OF ADULT WOMEN IN
 VARIOUS STATUSES, BY RACE
 1970

	<u>White</u>	<u>Nonwhite</u>
Proportion of never-married women, over 14 years old with children under 18 years old.	1%	12%
Proportion of ever-married women, over 14 years old in disrupted marital status (divorced, separated, or widowed).		
. Widowed, divorced, or separated but without children under 18	5%	4%
. Widowed with children under 18	5%	8%
. Divorced with children under 18	8%	8%
. Separated with children under 18	4%	18%
Proportion of unmarried women* with children under 18 heading their own household.	86%	84%
Proportion of all women over 14, who were never married.	22%	29%

*Includes single, divorced, separated, and widowed women.

Source: Ross and Sawhill, Time of Transition: The Growth of Families Headed by Women. Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute, 1975: 71.

income available to black women, and 3) the increased urbanization of the black population.

Resources in Single Parent Families

A number of factors influence the economic status of single-parent families. The source of the family's income, the regularity with which income is received, the economic conditions such as the unemployment rate and type of job opportunities available in the community in which the single-parent family lives, the previous economic status of the single-parent family, and the demands of the family itself for a given level of living influence the economic status of the family (Nickols, 1979b).

According to Johnson (1980) the average income in 1978 of single-parent families with working mothers (\$8,900) was 54 percent that of single-parent families with fathers in the labor force (\$16,500) and only 40 percent that of two-parent families with working mothers (\$22,200). An exceedingly high proportion of families maintained by a mother had incomes below the poverty level (U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1979) as shown in Table 5.

The median family income of single-parent families in 1977 varied by race as well as by sex. The income of white, male-headed families was roughly triple that of black, female-headed families, double that of white, female-headed families, and one-third higher than that of black husband-wife families. Black families with a male head had incomes nearly twice that of female-headed black families (see Tables 6 and 7).

TABLE 5
POVERTY RATE FOR FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN
UNDER 18 YEARS, BY RACE AND
HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1977

	<u>Total</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Black</u>	<u>Hispanic*</u>
Two-parent families	6.3%	5.5%	14.1%	14.8%
Single-parent families				
Father only	14.8%	11.3%	21.4%	NA
Mother only	41.8%	33.8%	57.6%	60.3%

*Hispanic origin may be either race.

TABLE 6
MEDIAN INCOME BY FAMILY TYPE, 1977*

Husband-wife families with children	\$18,504
Female-headed, one-parent families	\$ 6,260
Male-headed, one-parent families	\$13,698

*Median income means that half the families in the group are above the amount given, half the families are below. (Based on data in Epstein, 1979 and Jennings, 1979)

TABLE 7
MEDIAN INCOME BY SEX OF HEAD OF FAMILY
1977*

	<u>White</u>	<u>Black</u>
Male, married with wife present and non- married	\$14,684	\$9,167
Female, non-married	\$ 6,981	\$5,357

*Median income means that half the families in the group are above the amount given, and half the families in the group are below. (Table from Epstein, 1979: 22)

Children who live in female-headed single-parent families have a greater chance of being poor. In 1976, 52 percent of children living in female-headed single-parent families were living below the poverty level, compared with 17 percent of children living in male-headed single-parent families (Epstein, 1979). Race influences the chances of a child growing up in a family below the poverty line. Children living in minority families headed by women are even more likely to be poor than white children living with a single mother. In 1974, 65.7% of black children whose mothers were not presently married were in poverty level families as compared with 42.6 percent of white children (America's Children, 1976).

Being in the labor force obviously influences the income of a family receives. Children in single-parent families are more likely to have working mothers than those in two-parent families.

In March 1979, about 6 of 10 children living with their mother only had mothers in the labor force compared with 5 of 10 of those living with both parents. White children in single-parent families were far more likely to have working mothers than the black children--67 and 53 percent, respectively, in 1979. In contrast, only 49 percent of the white children in two-parent families had working mothers compared with 61 percent of the black children (Johnson, 1980).

The major explanation for the difference in median family income between male- and female-headed families is the continuing earnings gap between men and women. Despite women's increasing involvement in the paid labor force, their earnings remain low--about 60 percent of men's on the average (U. S. Census Bureau, 1976b). Hence, if the single-female parent works full-time (40 hours per week, 50 weeks per year) at the minimum wage, the chances are the family will still be below the poverty level (Nickols, 1979c).

Data from the 1972-73 Consumer Expenditure Survey summarized by Epstein (1979) indicate that, in general, the expenditure pattern for single-parent families is similar to that of low-income families, who must use a greater share of their money on the necessities of housing and food than do families with higher incomes. The average dollar amount spent on housing by single-parent families was only three-fourths as much as that of two-parent families, yet that amount constituted 37 percent of their consumption expenditures compared with 29 percent for the two-parent family. Although housing represented the largest portion of the single-parent family's total expenditure, two-thirds of these families are renters and not able to enjoy

the benefits of the asset accumulation available from home ownership (Nickols, 1979c).

Since single-female-headed families face the most severe economic pressure, their attitudes toward quality of life are dependent upon the available community support. Communities can provide services which assist the single parent in overcoming some of the family's resource limitations. Communities can provide support services which foster the development of self-help networks among single parents, thus enhancing the ability of a family to create a viable home environment.

In Oklahoma, Nickols (1979a) through a project "Resource Management for Single-Parent Families" attempted to identify the specific and most pressing concerns of one-parent families and to provide professional assistance to these families. An additional goal of the project was to establish appropriate programs in various Oklahoma communities to provide more services to single-parent families. There were three phases in the Single-Parent Families Project. Phase I involved community forums in five locations in the state of Oklahoma for single parents to express their concerns. Input from the Forums contributed to the content for Phase II of the project, a professional training seminar. This seminar, "Working with Single-Parent Families on Resource Management," was delivered via Oklahoma's talk back television system. Phase III included eight two-hour seminars covering financial and resource management skills, income security, legal concerns, parent-child relationships, and personal transitions of the single parent. This project stands as a

model for creating support networks to strengthen single-parent families in the community.

Single-parent families sometimes face outright discrimination in the market-place such as when landlords refuse to rent to one-parent families. Not only does the female-headed family have fewer economic resources, but because of lack of recognition and reduced bargaining power vis-a-vis the community, the family gets less with the resources it has (Brandwein, 1974).

The single parent may feel burdened because in a one-parent family there is no substitute in the family for that parent. One problem that most single-parent families face is a sense of social isolation which may cut the single parents off from potential support systems in the community. Social readjustment is necessary to establish new friendships because many single parents find their old relationships severed due to their change in marital status. Their need for friendship and companionship is great. However, trust is a characteristic that many single parents find difficult to establish in a new relationship. Community support services are needed to help overcome feelings of isolation. Community support groups for single parents allow the individual to share his/her problems with others whose problems are similar. Educational programs designed to help the single-parent family gain more efficient use of resources are necessary for the integration of the single-parent family into society (Nickols, 1979a). A specific need identified by single parents is the development of self-confidence in their decision-making abilities.

The paucity of available support networks was confirmed by Nickols (1979a) whose survey in Oklahoma concluded that single-parent families had few support networks within the community. Nickols found that single parents had never thought of sharing their concerns as single parents with a public official in order to help policy makers better understand the needs of single-parent families.

Most state laws require non-custodial parents to support their children following divorce; however, data on child support and alimony payments indicate that only about 40 percent of the absent parents are paying anything toward the support of their children; the average amount paid is about \$30 per child per week (Sawhill, 1976). Among black mothers the proportion receiving financial support awards drops to 25 percent (National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year, 1976). A study in Wisconsin showed that four years after a support order, 67 percent of the fathers had ceased providing any money for their children's support (Brandwein, et al, 1974).

Public assistance payments, commonly called "welfare," provide the only source of income for many single parent families. Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) is one of the major sources of income for mothers without husbands. Of some 3.2 million mothers receiving AFDC assistance in 1977, over 80 percent of them were single-female family heads (Oberhu, 1975). Most AFDC mothers do not work. A 1980 report indicated that of every 100 AFDC mothers, 41 were full-time homemakers; 7 were incapacitated for employment; 3 were receiving schooling or training, and 24 were not actively seeking work. Of the remaining 25 who were in the labor force, 11 were unemployed and

14 were employed (Johnson, 1980).

The predominant occupations of the AFDC mothers who reported their employment were service and clerical jobs. Only a small proportion were in professional and managerial jobs, a situation largely attributable to the fact that a high proportion of AFDC mothers were not high school graduates. In 1977, 60 percent of the AFDC mothers reporting their levels of education had not completed high school (Johnson, 1980). In 1976, 94 percent of AFDC mothers were living below the poverty level (Johnson, 1978).

Many single parents find they are going through a transition of changing social values. Ross and Sawhill (1975) suggested that the support system for single-female-headed families should not only include economic assistance, but provide women with more adequate job training and better jobs.

One of the most pervasive experiences of divorced women heading families is social ostracism. One expectation is that children will not be properly disciplined and will be confused about their sexual roles (Hungerford and Paolucci, 1977). However, child development specialists generally agree that a child's chances for happiness are better in a family with just one parent than in a home where there is continual turmoil and conflict between two parents (Nickols, 1979c). Wallerstein and Kelly (1976) report that the responses of children to divorce of their parents depends largely on the age of the child and the nature of the parent-child relationship before and following the divorce. Continuity of physical and loving care of the child by the parent or a competent substitute caretaker are instrumental

in helping children overcome any negative impact they may experience.

Both male- and female-headed, single-parent families experience the psychological and physical stress of raising children without the aid of a spouse. Both have to develop new strengths and expertise in their roles as solo-parents. However, the female-headed, single-parent family has the additional burden of coping with severe economic conditions that generally are not shared by its male counterpart (Epstein, 1979).

Lack of job training, loss of job skills during childbearing years, discriminatory hiring and promotion patterns, and the continuing earnings gap between employed men and women place the single-female at a severe disadvantage in meeting the financial needs of her family. The loss of self-esteem and self-confidence can result in a great impact on these women's effectiveness in fulfilling economic, social, and domestic functions (Hungerford and Paolucci, 1977).

Problems of female family heads' self-esteem are compounded by society's unwillingness to recognize and respect their authority (Brandwein, et al, 1974). These women's lack of experience may contribute to society's belief that they have little competence in authority and protector roles. To help single mothers develop their self-esteem is of critical importance.

It is clear that single-parent families are not merely an aberrant and variant family form, but represent a continuing way of life for a large number of our population. It is necessary for us to accept single-parent families, and develop new frameworks for

incorporating single-parent families into our efforts to strengthen all of our families (Verzaro and Hennon, 1980).

Time Use in Household Work

The Development of Household Work

In tracing the history of household work development in the United States, Boulding (1977) indicated that the household is changing as a result of three large movements in the total world society. The first great movement was the technical change which occurred within the household as a result of electricity, new energy sources, and the application of non-human energy and even non-human know-how in the shape of machines to do household tasks. This made it possible to maintain households with less human time and energy than was true a hundred years ago, especially in regard to food preparation, cleaning, maintenance of clothing, etc.

The second great movement, according to Boulding (1977), involved the application of large quantities of non-human energy and information to the system of production. This has resulted in increased opportunities for women to work outside the household and earn income. The products of household work can be replaced by what the added income can purchase from outside.

The third movement identified by Boulding was called the liberation movement; it had many dimensions and represented a delegitimation of the old structures of hierarchy and authority. There was a strong demand for equality among classes, races and sexes; further, there was a desacralization of human relations, a moving

away from such things as taboo, awe, holiness, majesty, and a moving towards a kind of commonplace rationality which sought to dispel all mystery. Boulding (1977) pointed out that in the household, liberationism might be seen as a decay in the sacredness of marriage, seeing the household only as association for mutual pleasure, not a cooperative enterprise in a sacred duty.

Many researchers have developed models to explain household work responses to wages and income. One of the household production models was discussed by Berch (1978). Elements of this model were identified as inputs, outputs and housework process. Berch (1978) indicated that household work used labor and goods as inputs. Labor inputs could be a homemaker's own labor, the labor of her children or other relatives or hired labor. Labor inputs were combined with various good--inputs in household work. For example, electricity changed the working and laundry process. The outputs of the household work were more complex, since they involved goods and services. One major intangible output was described by Berch as "atmosphere" or "a good environment." The characteristic of the housework process was that it involved many tasks, most of which were complimentary to each other in the time and labor used and in the products produced. Since many types of household work were performed by the same person--homemakers--these tasks have been performed cost efficiently.

The underlying dynamics of housework are rooted in two modes--task oriented and time oriented (Thompson, 1967). Task-oriented labor focuses on the accomplishment of various activities.

This work is more "human comprehensive," in the sense that the worker "appears to attend upon what is an observed necessity". Task-oriented labor makes little distinction between "work" and "life" (Thompson, 1967). Time-oriented labor is the labor style commonly associated with urban, industrial life: typically work which is regulated by the clock, or performed with respect to a time efficient dimension (Thompson, 1967).

Household work has been traditionally task-oriented labor. It is based on accomplishing a set of activities rather than on filling a certain period of time. It means providing the basic normal services necessary to the needs of the people in the home. Frequently, household work has involved a merging of work and leisure.

The status problem of homemakers (their feeling that they are performing useless or unproductive work) has its roots in the denigration of household work by those accustomed to time-oriented labor (Berch, 1978).

In the late nineteenth century, as a result of women's entry into the market place, some household work bifurcated into the time-oriented mode. Time-oriented household work was based on a cost-efficiency model. As in industry, the work should be performed to save time, effort and expense (Berch, 1978). In the twentieth century, household work continues in two modes--task-oriented and time-oriented. As a matter of fact, the existence of two models helps to explain some phenomena about household work. Because household work is still task-oriented which is traditionally sociable, leisure activities are still categorized with work activities (Wilson 1929);

homemakers are shopping frequently (Oakley, 1974); housewives are complaining of their lack of status, and even with access to labor-saving technology, time spent in household work has not reduced (Berch, 1978).

The New Economies of the Household

The economic analysis of the value of time as a unit of cost in the production activities of the household has rapidly led to the development of the new economics of the household. It provides a comprehensive economic approach to the nonmarket household activities by introducing the "shadow price" of time that women devote to these activities (Schultz, 1971).

Historically, household work has not been valued economically. Walker (1979) indicated that recognizing the economic value of household work might increase society's appreciation of these contributions. She suggested that there are several reasons for economic valuing of household work, such as establishing the appropriate compensation to dependents since courts need to know the monetary value of household work; providing adequate social security or insurance benefits for women since the policy makers need to know the monetary value of household work. Other policy makers need to know the costs of providing services to children in homes and the costs of providing day care for children in order to determine support payments for mothers who stay home with their children.

Early research in Home Economics attempted to quantify household work and identify variables as important factors in determining

the amount of time used for household works. Reid's (1934) well-known book, Economics of Household Production, revealed that each consumer good has two prices attached to it--a monetary price, as in traditional consumer choices, and a time cost of acquiring, processing and consuming the commodity (Schultz, 1971).

In 1965, Gary S. Becker developed the theory of the allocation of time. This theory is especially germane to this research because it provides a basic approach to allocative decisions with respect to cost of time in consumption. Becker assumes that the family's goal is to maximize income. Therefore, "members who are relatively more efficient at market activities would use less of their time at consumption activities (i.e. work in the home) than would other members" (Becker, 1965:512). By knowing the value of work in the household, homemakers are better able to make rational decisions about entering the labor market. Two approaches have been used to evaluate the value of household work. Using opportunity cost approach is more favored by economists. This approach assumes that the value of household work is at least equal to the income the person could earn in the market. The second approach, called the market cost approach, is widely used by home economists. This represents an attempt to measure the value of housework directly by using the cost of hired help (Ferber and Birnbaum, 1977). However, one criticism is that it

requires knowledge of the amount of time housewives spend performing each of a wide variety of services, as well as the market price of the services....Additionally, in many cases, the housewife might value her own performance

differently from the market price for the same service. (Weinrobe, 1974:91)

The monetary value of time spent in household production is one of the interests to home economists, economists, sociologists and various other groups. By convention, economists value time on the basis of the wage paid to a hired replacement. Murphy (1976) found that the conventional method of valuing time spent on household production at replacement costs was only applicable under special circumstances requiring restrictive and frequently counter-factual assumptions.

Gauger and Walker published their first edition of The Dollar Value of Household Work in 1973. This study applied 1971 wage rates to time data collected from a sample of 1,378 families between 1967-68 in the Syracuse area. A second edition, also based on the time-use data from the large 1967-68 survey, made adaptations using 1979 wage rates. Based on the analysis of the decade difference in time use for household work, Gauger and Walker (1980) assumed that the major influence on changes in the dollar value has been the rising wage rates. They found that the differences between total household work time used by female homemakers in 1967 and 1977 were not statistically significant. However, there were some differences in specific activities: time used for care of family members increased, while time used for washing dishes and laundry decreased. Researchers also found a statistically significant increase in time used by husbands in the area of nonphysical care of children, especially in households where the younger child was under two years old.

Studies of Time Use
in Household Work

Research on time use in household production gained impetus at the beginning of this century with the passage of the Purnell Act in 1925. Through state agricultural experiment stations, the Purnell Act in 1925 provided support for economic and sociological research for the purpose of developing and improving rural homes and rural life (Olson, 1978).

In the 1920's several time studies were undertaken by home economists. The best recognized study was Maud Wilson's, "Use of Time by Oregon Farm Homemakers" (1929). Her sample consisted of 513 farm housewives who recorded time diaries for one week's activities during 1926-27. Wilson's study was concerned only with the time spent by the homemaker. In the study, Wilson identified the homemaker's role as that of producer in the home.

Kneeland (1929) wrote an article on "Woman's Economic Contribution in the Home" which discussed paying wages to wives, valuing services at replacement cost, measuring quality as well as quantity of work. Kneeland concluded

In fact, it must reluctantly be admitted that the economic status of the housewife cannot be determined by her economic contribution . . . The answer . . . is quite simple. For when all is said and done, the only satisfactory division of the family income is on a fifty-fifty basis . . . The property accumulated during marriage should also be divided, and on an equal basis, or at least jointly owned. (Kneeland, 1929).

Morgan, Sirageldin, and Baerwaldt (1966) conducted a study to explain factors for determining the amount of time husbands and wives devoted together to regular housework. They found that number

of persons in the family, age of the youngest child under 18 living at home, sex and marital status of head of family, age of head of family, education of head of family were some major factors for determining time use on household works.

The industrial revolution of the 19th century caused many changes in home production being transferred from home to factories. Because of the many changes that had occurred in households between the 1920's and the 1960's, it was assumed that time spent in household work would decrease. Vanek (1973) compared the time budget studies by using data collected in 1965 by the University of Michigan Survey Research Center. Vanek found that time spent doing household work by full-time homemakers had increased from 52 to 55 hours a week, while time spent doing some other tasks decreased, so there was little overall change in using time in the household. In Vanek's study, female respondents were asked to estimate about how much time their husbands had contributed to the household work during the past week. Data showed that husbands contributed approximately seven hours per week to household work. Almost all household work contributed by husbands, shopping received the largest block of time--about two and one-half hours per week. Vanek (1973) concluded that the data reviewed appeared to indicate that in contemporary society, household work is primarily women's responsibility.

Robinson (1977) analyzed time use data collected by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan. This study involved a sample of 1,244 American adults (18-65 years of age) who kept complete diaries of their activities for a single day in 1965-66.

In the study, Robinson (1977) found that women performed over 80 percent of both the household work and child care in the family. He found that age of the respondents and number of children in the family affected the time used on household work. In comparison with a 1975 Survey Research Center time use study, women reported less time spent in family care in 1975 than in 1965.

Nickols (1976) analyzed longitudinal data on 1,156 families from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics conducted by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan. To be included in the study both husband and wife had to be less than 65 years old, both had to be living together during the six years of study, and neither spouse could suffer from disability that precluded working. In the study, Nickols found changes that occurred between 1968 and 1973. The number of husbands who contributed time on household work rose from 330 in the first three years of the study to 399 by the last year of the study. The number of hours contributed to household work by husbands increased slightly. Time used on household work by wives declined over the six years (Nickols and Metzen, 1978).

Sanik (1979) analyzed a 1977 up-date of the 1967-68 Cornell study (Walker and Woods, 1976) to determine whether, over the decade, any significant changes had occurred in time devoted to household work. She found that in urban families, time spent on household work increased from 10.5 hours per day in 1967 to 10.8 hours per day in 1977. Time spent on household work by women decreased from 7.8 hours per day in 1967 to 7.5 hours per day in 1977; time spent on household work by men increased from 1.7 hours per day in 1967 to 2.2 hours

per day in 1977.

To up-date Walker's 1967-68 time use study (Walker and Woods, 1976) and to establish a data bank of time use of rural and urban families, eleven states developed a joint research project, "An Investigation of Rural/Urban Families' Time Use." The same methods of data collection and instrumentation were used in all states. Data were coded in the same manner so they could be easily exchanged among the states for comparison purposes. As part of this research project, Nickols and Fox (1980) conducted a study of "Time Use in Oklahoma Families" to explore the use of time by a sample of 210 Oklahoma families having two parents and two children. Nickols and Fox (1980) found that Oklahoma families spent an average of 9.5 hours each day on household tasks. Food related activities was the most time consuming household task, about two hours per day on the average. The time husbands spent in household work was most likely to be spent in maintenance of home, car, yard and pets, or in shopping, and in giving non-physical care to family members. The researchers concluded that

Time productive role of families in using items purchased from the marketplace or provided from their own resources is an important factor in contemporary family life. The eight-hour day has become a standard measure for a 'working day' in our society. Families, as a unit, each day, spent more than a full work day in housework." (Nickols and Fox, 1980:12)

McCullough (1980) studied Utah families' use of time as part of the same eleven states research project. She found that the time Utah families devoted to household work was similar to that reported by other researchers using similar methodology (Walker and Woods,

1976; Nickols, 1976; Sanik, 1979). McCullough concluded that household tasks required a significant amount of time for the Utah families and most of that time was contributed by wives. Husbands contributed very little time to household tasks, their contributions were mainly maintenance tasks (McCullough, 1980).

The Quality of Life

The growing interest in the quality of life concept is an outgrowth of the "social indicators" movement. In the early years, only economic indicators, such as Gross National Product and the Consumer Price Index, were used to measure the nation's progress. The lack of social indicators to account for noneconomic factors has led to the quest for Quality of Life measurements. In general, social indicators are statistics or measurements used to describe social conditions and trends. In 1929, President Hoover asked the leading social scientists of the day to draw together a description of trends in American life. The Research Committee on Social Trends was one of the earliest attempts in this country to develop the social side of measurements. William F. Ogburn, the director of the study, was a pioneer in social indicators (The Quality of Life Concept: A Potential New Tool for Decision-Makers, 1973).

The development of the quality of life concept grew remarkably during the 1960's. However, "Quality of Life" remains a very subjective value concept. Liu (1975) indicated that the major problem in defining the Quality of Life was that everyone has his/her own set

of criteria. Liu said that people tend to alter their value concept depending upon what role they are playing where, when and how. Therefore, the Quality of Life (QOL) concept is multidimensional (Liu, 1975).

Hornback and Shaw (1972) focused on the definition and measurement of QOL as "a function of the objective conditions appropriate to a selected population and the subjective attitude toward those conditions held by persons in that population." Schmalz (1972) also attempted to define QOL and concluded that

Quality of life can be measured by determining the difference between an individual's state of being as he perceives it and the individual's aspirations, desires, and needs.

(The Quality of Life Concept, 1973: 1-4,8).

In 1972, the Environmental Studies Division, Office of Research and Monitoring, Environmental Protection Agency held a conference focusing on Quality of Life. The objectives of this conference were to explore the "Quality of Life" concept, to define QOL in terms of its components, and to develop suggested quantitative approaches to use in guiding public policy. As a result of this discussion, QOL definitions were generalized into three types:

1. Precise definition of what constitutes quality of life, e.g., happiness, satisfaction, life style, etc.
2. Direct definition through the use of social indicators, e.g., gross national product, health and welfare indicators, etc.
3. Indirect definition by specifying of components or factors which affect quality of life, e.g., a group of social, economic, political and environmental indicators represented by different types of indexes (Liu, 1975).

In many QOL studies, QOL indicators are used as indices of measurement. Hence, QOL indicators comprise a special category of social indicators. Bunge (1975) indicated that a social indicator is a QOL indicator if it aids in determining specific aspects of the QOL in a community. Aspects identified were the cultural, social, psychological, and physical aspects of well-being.

Conditions of Life Quality

Quality of life researchers usually do not generalize that certain specific aspects or circumstances in which people live influence their perception of life quality. However, there are some relationships between people's feelings of satisfaction with their life and the circumstances in which they live (Campbell, 1981).

Following are some conditions researchers have studied which appear to have an important association with Quality of Life.

1. Income

From five national surveys conducted between 1957 to 1978, Campbell (1981) concluded that high income was associated with greater satisfaction with life.

Campbell (1981) noted that income does not always tell a great deal about a person's general satisfaction with life, but it does tell something about their satisfaction with certain domains of their life. Campbell determined that people's high income was positively related to satisfaction with standard of living, saving, and health; and less strongly related to satisfaction with level of education, work, neighborhood, and housing. He indicated that income level had nothing to do with level of satisfaction of an interpersonal

character, such as marriage, family life and friendship.

2. Education

From five national surveys conducted between 1957 and 1978, data revealed that people with limited education were generally the least likely to call themselves very happy; those who have higher education were more likely to report themselves very happy (Campbell, 1981).

Campbell found that satisfaction with life as a whole was not consistently correlated with the increase from low- to high-education people. However, Campbell found that years of education, like income, was positively related to satisfaction with one's physical health. Satisfaction with other domains of life, such as housing, work, community, and self was found high among the least educated people and low among people who have some college education.

3. Marital status

Survey data from 1971 and 1978 showed that a large majority of all married couples expressed a high level of satisfaction with their family life. People who were separated or divorced expressed substantially less satisfaction with their family life. Widowed persons indicated that they were nearly as positive about their life as those still married. However, married people, like separated or divorced, were not satisfied with their family life (Campbell, 1981).

4. Age

According to the five national surveys, data showed that in 1957 young people were more likely to describe themselves as "very happy" than older people, and the least happy of all were the people

over 60. However, in 1978, a survey revealed that older people had moved up over the two decades in their estimates of their happiness, and young people had declined substantially. However, Campbell (1981) indicated that unmarried, separated and divorced people, even in their later life-cycle, were associated with strong feelings of ill-being, especially with satisfaction with family life.

5. Health

From the five national surveys between 1957 and 1978, the data showed that over 90 percent of those people who said they had no health problems were completely satisfied with their lives (Campbell, 1981).

Physical health is an important factor of life. Poor physical health may make it difficult for a person to have a job. Data showed that people with poor health had incomes that were considerably below the average, and they were less-satisfied with their family life.

6. Community

The 1971 IRS Study of Quality of Life found that people living in metropolitan areas were more often dissatisfied with the community than people who live in smaller communities. The study found that satisfaction with the community was related to satisfaction with the neighborhood. People who live in a neighborhood composed entirely of their own race tend to be more satisfied than residents living in racially-mixed neighborhoods. The study showed that blacks were substantially less satisfied with their neighborhoods than were whites (Campbell and Kahn, 1976).

Studies of Quality of Life

Quality of Life has been studied through various approaches and the use of a variety of theoretical models (Bubolz, Eicher, Evers and Sontag, 1980; Sontag, Bubolz and Slocum, 1979; Andrew and Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Liu, 1974, 1975; Foa and Foa, 1973).

Research by Rodgers and Converse (1975) based on data from the Institute for Social Research Study, "The Quality of American Life" (Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976) focused on a set of measured of the perceived quality of life. One of their measures, the Index of Well-being, is a combination of global items that requires that respondents look across all parts of their lives and make a general evaluation. The other set of the measures, the Index of Domain Satisfaction, is composed of evaluations of more specific parts of respondents' lives.

In the study, respondents were asked to assess their level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with each of a set of fifteen domains of their life concerns. The fifteen domains of life concepts were: marriage, family life, health, neighborhood, friendships, housework, job, life in the United States, city or county, nonwork, housing, usefulness of education, standard of living, amount of education and savings.

Respondents were also asked to describe their lives as a whole by using both satisfaction and semantic-differential types of scales. Statistical tests were used to examine the Index of Well-being and the Index of Domain Satisfaction in relation to a variety of

demographic and situational variables, including age, indicators of socioeconomic status, employment status, and size of community. Rodgers and Converse (1975) indicated that the reliability of the measures (as measured cross-sectionally) and their stability over a period of some eight months were both acceptably high. It was concluded that both of these measures form acceptable indicators of the perceived overall quality of life.

The domain-satisfaction model developed by Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) assumed that experience as well as behavior was a product of the interaction of people with their environment. In their study, both objective and subjective indicators of quality of life were conceived as necessary in the measurement of QOL, because each of them provided information important to the other in gaining a global view of satisfaction with life.

Campbell et al (1976) measured the "satisfaction" level of respondents instead of "happiness" level. They determined that happiness carried an affective connotation. To avoid the implication, they used a satisfaction scale which implies a more cognitive process. Respondents in their study were asked to assess their level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with each of a set of fifteen domains of their lives as well as their overall quality of life.

With the use of their 7-point satisfaction scale, family life was found at the second rank, next to marriage, in domain satisfaction. In their study, 72 percent of the women respondents reported they were mostly or completely satisfied with their family lives, while 74 percent of the male respondents reported they were mostly

or completely satisfied with their family lives. Campbell et al (1976) also found the relationship between marital satisfaction (one component of family life satisfaction) and life satisfaction was stronger than others in the family domains. Data showed that unmarried people, especially the divorced and separated, were considerably less satisfied with their lives than were married respondents on the average.

Andrews and Withey (1974, 1976) embarked on an effort to develop an expanded set of social indicators to measure perceived life quality. They developed a conceptual two-dimensional matrix model which showed the evaluation of perceived satisfaction on different levels of specificity ranging from the general domains and criteria to the more specific domains by criteria. In their study, Andrews and Withey hypothesized that their theoretical model would illustrate proposed relationships between the evaluations of life concerns and the evaluation of life as a whole.

A 7-point Delighted-Terrible scale (Delighted, Pleased, Mostly satisfied, Mixed about equally satisfied and dissatisfied, Mostly dissatisfied, Unhappy, and Terrible) which includes more affective elements along with the cognitive satisfaction elements was used in Andrews and Withey's study. The results showed that most people felt quite positive about their life as a whole; young people tended to feel slightly happier than old people; high socioeconomic status people were more optimistic about their future; whites rated their general well-being, and their satisfaction and happiness, higher than did blacks; married people scored higher than

unmarried, and unmarried people with children at home scored especially low on general well-being, and feelings of satisfaction and happiness (Andrews and Withey, 1976).

Growing public interest in social, economic, political and environmental conditions has led to the search for indicators which adequately reflect the people's overall impression of well-being. Liu (1974) developed a systematic methodology for assessing social, economic, political and environmental indicators to reflect the quality of life in the United States.

Based on 1970 statistical data, Liu compiled more than one hundred social indicator variables. Each individual variable was compiled from two or more data items obtained from various published sources. These variables were then combined into the nine quality of life indicators. The nine indicators were: individual status, individual equality, living conditions, agriculture, technology, economic status, education, health and welfare, and state and local government.

The results showed that the overall quality of life among 50 states and the District of Columbia did not, on the whole, differ very significantly. On the basis of these measures, six states proved to have an excellent QOL. They were California, Colorado, Connecticut, Washington, Oregon, and Wyoming. States with low quality of life ratings appear to be primarily those in which there were depressed economic conditions (Liu, 1974).

Bubolz, Eicher, Evers and Sontag (1980) considered quality of life in a very general sense to refer to the well-being or

ill-being of people and/or the environment in which they live. From the standpoint of people, quality of life consists in the degree of fulfillment or satisfaction of their basic physical, biological, psychological, economic and social needs. Bubolz et al (1976) developed a general ecological model in which organisms were regarded as interacting with their environment, i.e. as an ecosystem. A human ecosystem involves production, circulation, transformation and storage of energy, matter, and information through biological, physical social processes (Evans, 1956). The human ecological framework provides a basis for delineating various kinds of quality of life indicators which measure various aspects of human life and environmental conditions. QOL indicators can tell us about the degree of well-being or ill-being of humans and their environments; QOL indicators can attempt to assess the degree at which basic human needs are met; QOL indicators can also attempt to determine the level of resources or conditions of the environment. Quality of life indicators are defined as indices or measurements of the social conditions of human existence (Land and Spilerman, 1975).

Bubolz et al (1980), using the human ecological framework, examined the quality of life of a rural population in 1975. The 1975 sample consisted of 65 persons who were originally studied in 1956 and were alive and still residing in the three communities of Ewen, Greenland and Mass in Ontonogan County in Michigan's Upper Peninsula. Data were gathered by personal interviews in March and April, 1975. Questions were asked regarding their feelings about community satisfaction, community adequacy, identification of needed improvements,

evaluations of alternative life situations, and of various life concerns, and their overall quality of life.

In their study, Bubolz et al (1980) found a majority of respondents were quite satisfied with their life as a whole as well with their community. Family life ranked highest in both satisfaction and importance. Married respondents with children living in the home were most satisfied with their lives. Respondents who were living alone reported being less satisfied.

Sontag, Bubolz and Slocum (1979) conducted a study to determine which aspects of life were important to the perceived quality of life. Questionnaires were used to collect data from 237 wife-husband pairs and seven single female headed families in November 1977 and March 1978. Respondents were randomly selected from rural, suburban and urban areas of Oakland County, Michigan. A market research firm was contracted to draw the sample, explain the study to the respondents, obtain the consent from the respondents and distribute and collect the questionnaires. The findings were based on 237 wife-husband families and excluded the 7 single female families.

The results of this research showed that a majority (80 percent) of the respondents felt satisfied with their life. Approximately 20 percent of the total group reported mixed and negative feelings about their life. These findings are similar to the results of other studies (Andrew and Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Bubolz, Eicher, Evers and Sontag, 1980).

Sontag et al (1979) found that family life, children and having

love and affection were considered by respondents as being the most important aspects in their life. A person's feeling about his/her life concerns affected perceived overall quality of life. The data showed that women who felt very satisfied with their family life were reported most satisfied with their life-as-a-whole.

Satisfaction with people's fulfillment of their values was found to influence quality of life. Rescher (1969) discussed the relationship between well-being and values.

Values are intangibles. They are, in the final analysis, things of the mind that have to do with the vision people have of 'the good life' for themselves and their fellows. A person's values represent factors that play a role in his personal welfare function, the yardstick by which he assesses the extent of his satisfactions in and with life.

Sontag et al (1979) found people usually placed high value on family life, health, safety, homes, income, work, religion, accomplishment and independence.

The psychological importance of self-evaluative variables such as self-esteem has been recognized by personality theorists and tend to influence an individual's perceptions and evaluations.

Low self esteem has been found to hamper interpersonal relationships, interactions and communication. It has also been found to distort perceptions of social reality. High self-esteem appears to have just the opposite consequences (Rosenberg, 1965). Thus, self-esteem can be expected to have an impact on family life and life concerns.

Scanzoni (1970) discussed the relationship between self-esteem and satisfaction with family life, particularly marital

satisfaction:

The significance of global self esteem for conjugal cohesion lies in its impact on processes of reciprocity and exchange. We would expect that high self-esteem would increase evaluations of husband and wife primary interaction and that low self-esteem would decrease it. This expectation is based on Rosenberg's conclusion that one with low self-esteem is 'more vulnerable to interpersonal relations (deeply hurt by criticism, blame, or scolding). He is relatively awkward with others; he assumes others think poorly of him or do not particularly like him.

(Scanzoni, 1970:99)

Ziller (1974) developed a new approach, a phenomenological approach, to study quality of life. In his study, self-esteem was assumed to be the key quality of life indicator. Self-esteem was defined by Ziller as: "Self-esteem is the individual's perception of his worth. In evaluating the self, the individual has resource to comparisons of the self and significant others in the social environment" (307). He found that people with high self-esteem seemed to be more satisfied with their lives, and they usually had high social interests and high interaction with their environment.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes and explains the procedures used in the study. Included are a discussion of the research design, an explanation of the instrument development, the pretest interviews, data collection, population sampling and selection, and statistical treatment.

Research Design

This research was designed to develop base-line data concerning low-income, single-female-parent families. Of particular interest are the time spent on household activities and satisfaction with quality of life. Data were gathered via face-to-face interviews and questionnaires. Two personal interviews and self-administered recorded time-log charts were used to obtain data.

The first interview collected data on the independent variables. The researcher gathered background information, explained the charts that were used for gathering time use data, and answered questions respondents might have about participating in the study. During the first interview, the interviewer explained the purpose of this study and the procedure for collecting time data on a time-log chart. Single-female parents were asked to collect 2-full days of time data on two separate time-log charts immediately following the interview day. This sequence was used because previous research

by Walker and Woods (1976) indicated that the percentage of incomplete responses was minimized if data collection immediately followed the day when instructions were given.

During the second interview, two-full days of recorded time-log charts were collected by the interviewer. At that time, the interviewer reviewed both recorded time-log charts with the single-female parent to make sure they were complete. If the single-female parent did not complete two time-log charts, this family was excluded from the sample.

In the second interview, information about the personal feelings and attitudes toward the respondents' general life concerns were collected. Single-female parents were asked to express their feelings about life concerns by using a 5-point scale adapted from Andrews and Withey (1976). The 5-point scale (1 = very unhappy, 2 = unhappy, 3 = mixed; equally unhappy and happy, 4 = happy, 5 = very happy) was used to assess the respondent's feelings about various parts of her life. In addition, respondents were asked to use a 5-point importance scale measurement to identify their feelings about the importance of time spent on 14 activities. The 14 activities were: children, self, personal improvement, doing volunteer work, preparing meals, watching T.V., doing household chores, helping other people, working on hobbies, visiting relatives or friends, social activities, chatting on the phone, yard work, and fixing or repairing things. Since this was the second time the interviewer met the respondent, and the respondent already understood the purpose of this study, it was expected that the respondent

would cooperate and share personal feelings about her life.

Instrument Development

Previous time studies have collected data through direct observation, a good method for gathering time-use data. However, systematic observation on a hour-by-hour schedule is costly and often not practical if many subjects are to be studied and/or more than an eight-hour period is studied. The most common and popular way to collect time data has been to rely on records kept by subjects themselves. In this method respondents record how much time they spend on each activity over some specified period of time. The instrument can either have pre-categorized activities or the respondents can supply the activities.

As with the other method, this method also has some shortcomings. Asking respondents to record a day long time log requires high cooperation and intelligence. Previous researchers using this method have discovered that respondents sometimes do not represent their time use adequately because of educational or family constraints. Szalai (1972) indicated that by using this method the researcher has no absolute standard against which the accuracy of the data can be compared. However, the major advantage which Robinson (1977) pointed out for the time log approach is that people are asked to report activities for a single day when that period is still fresh in their minds. Robinson (1977) studied the reliability and validity of using a recorded time-log chart approach and concluded that it is a good method to reflect the aggregate behavior of groups of people.

To make recorded time data more accurate, Walker and Woods (1976) in their 1967-68 study developed a method for recording time use more effectively. They measured time in terms of the production of goods and services in family households and made use of a 24-hour time-record chart on which respondents simply drew a line and an arrow from the time of starting and completing an activity. To increase the validity of the time use data, Walker and Woods (1976) designed a record of time use for 2-full days which provided increased data for making comparisons and checking for reporting errors. Walker and Woods also developed a time record chart that listed each type of work activity on the vertical axis and time periods in 10 minute intervals on the horizontal axis. Since that instrument has been validated and used extensively in studying two-parent families, but only minimally with single-parent families, this method of data collection was adapted and used as one data gathering instrument in this study.

In this study, time use data were gathered by using a recorded time-log chart (see Appendix B.). Each time log chart covered the 24 hours of an entire day. Time, broken down into ten minute segments, was listed horizontally across the chart. Sixteen activities which included "other" categorized work activities were listed vertically. Respondents were provided with written instructions and definitions of each work activity to help them in placing their activities in the proper categories. The methodology used in this study was to record how much time per day each single female parent spent doing a particular activity. There was no attempt made to

assess the "quality" of the time spent on each activity.

Many surveys have been done in which respondents were asked to estimate how much time they spend on this or that activity over some specified period, such as: estimate of the yearly time spent on housework (Morgan et al, 1966), daily television viewing (Roper, 1971), yearly participation in outdoor recreation (U. S. Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, 1972) and voluntary organization (ACTION, 1975). In each of these instances, Robinson (1977) has reported that the estimates generated appear to exceed significantly the time reported on such activities on a daily basis.

Since many activities may not have happened during the two recorded days, an "Activities Estimating Chart" was used in this study during the second interview. Respondents were asked to provide estimates of their participation in each activity over the period of a year. The estimating approach was included to aid the investigator in exploring the validity of the time-log which the respondent recorded. The estimate data also provided useful background information on the general life style of the respondent. Combining the estimated data and recorded time-log data permitted making generalizations about time use patterns in single-female-headed families.

People live in a variety of situations and do not feel the same way about the circumstances and events that they encounter in their day to day life. If people are going to change the quality of their lives or make improvements, they have to be aware of the current conditions of their lives and know how they feel about what is happening to them. Therefore, it is important and useful to

measure people's perceptions of how they feel about their lives.

Andrews and Withey (1976) studied five thousand Americans' perceptions of well-being. They developed a 7-point Delighted-Terrible (D-T) scale to assess people's feelings about various parts of their lives. The D-T scale includes seven on-scale categories and three off-scale categories. The seven on-scale categories are: delighted, pleased, mostly satisfied, mixed--about equally satisfied and dissatisfied, mostly dissatisfied, unhappy, and terrible. The three off-scale categories are: neutral--neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, does not apply to me, and I never thought about it.

Andrews and Withey (1976:175) indicate ". . . . the validity of a measure--i.e., the degree to which it reflects what it is supposed to--is an important criteria for evaluating the goodness of a measure . . .". The seven-point D-T scale was compared with other measurements by Andrews and Withey to have the highest validity measurement which would allow meaningful descriptions by respondents. Bubolz et al in their 1977-78 Quality of Life study used the D-T scale and part of Andrews and Withey's questionnaire and tested it with 237 two-parent families and seven single-female-headed families in Oakland County, Michigan. Since this questionnaire has been used extensively and successfully in studying two-parent families, a modified questionnaire was developed to collect single-female-headed parents' feelings about their lives.

In this study, a five-point Very Unhappy to Very Happy scale adapted from Andrews and Withey (1976) was used to assess single-

female parents' feelings about various parts of their lives. A five-point Very Unimportant to Very Important scale measurement to identify respondents' feelings about the importance of time spent on work activities was adapted from Bubolz et al (1980). Instruments in this study included: (see Appendix B)

1. Cover letter

The cover letter provided a written explanation of the purpose of the study, and gave the respondents a brief idea about what questions the interviewer planned to ask and the kind of things they would be expected to do if they participated in the study.

2. The first interview form: Family Information Questionnaire

The Family Information Questionnaire gathered family demographic information, working activities, and family resource use data.

3. Instructions for keeping time-log chart

The instruction sheet provided guidelines for recording time-log information.

4. Definition of work activities

The Definition of Work Activities sheets provided examples of each categorized work activity. These examples were identified to help respondents properly record working activities.

5. Recorded time-log chart

A 24-hour full day time-log chart was developed to record time use data. On the vertical axis of the recorded time-log chart were listed 17 types of work activities, and on the horizontal axis was listed time, divided into 10-minute intervals. To

record the work activity on the chart, the respondent had to draw arrows and a line from the time she started an activity to the time she completed that activity. Two recorded time-log charts were provided to collect 2-full days time use data.

6. The second interview form: Quality of Life Questionnaire

A five point scale for the measurement of overall quality of life and a five point scale for the measurement of importance were included in the second interview form to gather data on feelings in general and importance of time use.

7. Activities Estimating Chart

The Activities Estimating Chart was developed to estimate time used on working activities, social activities, and general family life activities over the period of a year. Since many activities may not have happened during the two recorded days, the activities estimating chart provided additional information for measuring respondent's overall quality of life and use of time.

8. Form for interviewer use

This form was the interviewee's file form which consisted of the respondent's record number, name, address, date of birth, date of first interview, first interview record time, date of second interview, the second interview record time, and comments.

9. Consent form

A consent form was used to get permission to conduct the interview at the respondent's place of residence. Participation by the respondents was voluntary; they had the option of discontinuing at any point in the study.

10. Evaluation of interviewee's behavior form

This evaluation form was developed to record the interviewer's observations and provide a systematic way to provide additional information for interpretation.

Pretest

A pilot study was designed to test the data collection procedures and instruments. Prior to doing this study, the proposal was reviewed and approved by Human Subjects Committee of Michigan State University.

During September, 1980, a pilot-study was conducted in Ingham County, Michigan. Five of six initially contacted families completed the two interview questionnaires, and two days time-log charts. Each of the five families received a five dollar check for their participation as did those in the actual study. The five pre-tested families were included in the actual study sample. As a result of the pilot-study, no changes were made in the questionnaires. An evaluation of Interviewee's Behavior Form was developed after the pilot study to record the interviewer's observations and to provide additional information for interpretations.

Sample Selection and Description

The population for this study was identified by the Michigan State University Cooperative Extension Service Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP). The Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program offers knowledge and skills to low-income families

to help them improve the adequacy of their daily diets while using available resources. Nearly half of all EFNEP families are minorities, and many of EFNEP families have been identified by EFNEP aides as being single-female-headed families.

The procedure for sample selection was as follows: 1) Four Michigan counties that have the EFNEP program--Berrien, Ingham, Kalamazoo, and Wayne--were selected as the locations from which subjects would be drawn; 2) The researcher contacted the EFNEP Extension Home Economist in charge of the four nutrition programs and obtained full cooperation; 3) The Home Economist in each of the four counties developed a list of single-female-headed families; 4) The researcher randomly selected the names of 20-25 families from each county list; 5) The researcher contacted the single-female parents via phone to get cooperation and set up the time for the initial interview.

The sample for this study consisted initially of 83 single-female parents who resided in one of the four selected Michigan counties--Berrien, Ingham, Kalamazoo, and Wayne. Included were rural, suburban and urban area homemakers. Fifty-one of these females completed the study and served as the basis for analysis.

The 51 respondents completed both interview questionnaires and recorded two time-log charts. If the single-female-parent was interviewed at the first time but was not at home during the scheduled second interview time, the family was excluded from the sample. If the single-female parent was interviewed but did not complete two time-log charts, the family was excluded from the sample. If the

respondent reported that she had re-married, the family was excluded from the sample. If the respondent reported that she was a single-mother, however, and lived with her boyfriend, the family was retained in the sample.

Of the 32 women who were initially contacted but were excluded in the study, 15 women were excluded because they were not interested in participating; 9 women were not at home for the scheduled second interview; 5 women did not complete the requested time-log charts, and 3 women had remarried and were thus ineligible. Of the 5 women who did not complete the charts, 4 women were minorities, 4 women had not completed high school, and all of them had pre-school child/children.

Age, Race and Marital Status

The age of the 51 single-female parents ranged from 19 to 49 years. The median age of the respondents fell in the 26-30 year category. The respondents were relatively young. This would be expected since the youngest child in 65 percent of the families studied was age six or younger. Table 8 presents the distribution of respondents in each of the age categories.

Forty-five percent of the respondents were white; 47 percent were black. The remaining 8 percent of the sample included the following other non-whites: native American, Asian and Mexican American. Table 9 presents the distribution of respondents in each of the race categories.

All sample respondents were single-female parents. Approximately 37 percent of the respondents were unmarried single mothers;

TABLE 8
DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY AGE
OF THE RESPONDENTS

	No. of Families	Percentage
20 or under 20	1	2.0
21 - 25	13	25.5
26 - 30	11	21.6
31 - 35	11	21.6
36 - 40	9	17.6
41 - 45	3	5.9
46 - 50	<u>3</u>	<u>5.9</u>
Total	51	100.0

TABLE 9
DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY RACE
OF THE RESPONDENTS

	No. of Families	Percentage
White	23	45.1
Black/Negro/Afro	24	47.1
Asian	1	2.0
Native American	2	3.9
Mexican-American	<u>1</u>	<u>2.0</u>
Total	51	100.0

22 percent were separated, and 41 percent were divorced. Table 10 shows the distribution of respondents according to their marital status.

TABLE 10
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY
THEIR MARITAL STATUS

	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Unmarried	19	37.3
Separated	11	21.6
Divorced	<u>21</u>	<u>41.2</u>
Total	51	100.0

Family Composition

The majority of families studied were comprised of mother and children (86.3%); the remainder (13.7%) were extended families, which included the mother's siblings and/or mother's boyfriend.

The number of children living in the family ranged from one to thirteen. Twenty-five percent of the respondents had only one child in the family. Sixteen families (31%) had two children; thirteen families (25%) had three children. Eighteen percent of the families had four or more children in the family. Table 11 presents the distribution of families by number of children living in the family. The majority of single female parents (65%) had pre-school age children. Fourteen percent of these females had children under

TABLE 11
DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY NUMBER OF
CHILDREN IN THE FAMILY

	No. of Families	Percentage
1	13	25.5
2	16	31.4
3	13	25.5
4	2	3.9
5	4	7.8
8	1	2.0
11	1	2.0
13	<u>1</u>	<u>2.0</u>
Total	51	100.0

one years old. Only two families (4%) in the sample had as their youngest child an individual age 18 and over.

Due to the structure of the sample by age of the youngest child in the family, this is a sample of younger families in the child-rearing stages of the family life cycle. Table 12 presents the distribution of the families by age of the youngest child who lives in the household.

Employment Status and Education

A majority of the families in the sample were unemployed families. Among 43 unemployed families (84.3%), ten families reported

TABLE 12
DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY AGE OF THE
YOUNGEST CHILD LIVING IN THE FAMILY

	No. of Families	Percentage
Under 1	7	13.7
1-3 years old	14	27.5
3-6 years old	12	23.5
6-12 years old	11	21.6
12-18 years old	5	9.8
18 and over	<u>2</u>	<u>3.9</u>
Total	51	100.0

being permanently unable to work due to poor health. Most of the employed female single-parents worked outside the home. The employed female single parents were employed in low paying service and clerical positions. Table 13 indicates the employment status of the respondents.

The educational level was fairly high for this sample. Over half of the sample respondents had completed high school; over one fourth had some college education. Table 14 summarizes the educational level of the respondents.

Because of the high rate of unemployment in Michigan at the time of the study, the educational level of respondents may have been affected. Many who could be classified as "low income" at that time

TABLE 13
DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY EMPLOYMENT
STATUS OF THE RESPONDENTS

	No. of Families	Percentage
Working (full and part time)	7	13.7
Temporarily laid off	1	2.0
Unemployed	<u>43</u>	<u>84.3</u>
Total	51	100.0

TABLE 14
DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL
OF THE RESPONDENTS

	No. of Families	Percentage
Under 6th grade	2	3.9
Jr. High	4	7.8
1-3 High school	15	29.4
H. S. graduate	16	31.4
1-3 College	13	25.5
Post B.A.	<u>1</u>	<u>2.0</u>
Total	51	100.0

may not be among the traditional low income group. In addition, some of those with less education may have perceived the required tasks,

filling out time-log charts, would be too difficult for them and therefore excluded themselves from the study.

Living Situation and
Family Income

The majority of families (70.6%) in the sample were renting their home; other families (29.4%) owned their home or lived in a home owned by their relatives. Most homes had two or three bedrooms. An average of 2.47 bedrooms were found in this sample. Table 15 describes the living situations of the respondents.

TABLE 15
DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY TYPE OF LIVING
SITUATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

Type of Home	No. of Families	Percentage
Apartment	19	37.3
Duplex	8	15.7
Single House	22	43.1
Townhouse	<u>2</u>	<u>3.9</u>
Total	51	100.0

The annual family income of these families was very low. Twelve percent had incomes above \$7,000. The majority of families were dependent upon social welfare. Table 16 summarizes the family income of the respondents.

TABLE 16
DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY TOTAL FAMILY INCOME
OF THE RESPONDENTS

Total Family Income	No. of Families	Percentage
Under \$3,000	2	3.9
\$3,000-\$3,999	5	9.8
\$4,000-\$4,999	11	21.6
\$5,000-\$5,999	13	25.5
\$6,000-\$6,999	14	27.5
\$7,000-\$7,999	2	3.9
\$8,000-\$8,999	2	3.9
\$9,000 and over	<u>2</u>	<u>3.9</u>
Total	51	100.0

Data Collection

Data collection occurred between October 1980 and February 1981. Time use data were collected for Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Thursdays. Time use data were collected for the two consecutive days following the first visit of the interviewer. The second interview day during which the interviewer reviewed time logs with respondents immediately followed the second recording day. For example, if Monday was the first interview day, Tuesday and Wednesday were the time use recording days, and Thursday was the second interview day. To avoid having the interview occurring during the weekend,

respondents collected time use data only on Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Thursdays.

The first interview was designed to collect data on the independent variables, family background information. After determining eligibility of the household, the interviewer shared the cover letter with the respondent, explained the purpose of the study and obtained written informed consent from the respondent. After getting the consent from the respondent (see Appendix B), the interviewer began the first interview by collecting the family background data on the first interview form. The interviewer then explained the procedures for recording the two-full days time data on the two separate time-log charts. The interviewer read the instructions for recording time-log chart to the respondent and gave examples to help the respondent understand the procedure correctly. The interviewer also read the definitions of each work activity to be certain the respondent understood and could record her daily household work activities in the correct column. The interviewer answered questions related to completing the time-log chart and repeated the procedure to be followed. The interviewer left two separate time-log charts with the respondent for recording time use on the next two days. Finally, the time for the second interview was set. Approximately one hour was spent on each first interview.

The second interview, held two days after the first interview, was designed to collect data on the respondent's feelings about her life. The interviewer arrived at the scheduled time and collected the time-log charts prepared by the respondent. If the respondent

did not complete the two time-logs properly, the family was excluded from the sample. The interviewer thanked the respondent for her cooperation and left.

If the respondent completed two days time-log charts, the interviewer reviewed the recorded time-log charts with the respondent and checked for completion. The interviewer then conducted the second interview to collect data on satisfaction with general life concerns. The Activities Estimating Chart was used during the second interview. The respondent was asked to make time estimates of her participation in each activity over a year's time. Approximately 50 minutes were spent on each of the second interviews.

Single-female parents who completed the two interview questionnaires and two recorded time-log charts received a "thank you" letter and a \$5.00 check within a month. A summary of the findings was also sent to the respondents. All sample families were assured by the interviewer that their responses would be anonymous and their privacy would be protected. (see Appendix A)

Coding and Data Analysis

Once the information on the questionnaires was collected, it was prepared for coding. A code book was developed so that all data could be coded onto IBM scanning sheets. The completed sheets were sent to the scanning office for scanning and read directly onto a computer tape. The data on the computer tape were then processed and punched onto computer cards. Accuracy of coding was double-checked by the researcher.

The compiled program for the study was developed by the researcher in consultation with a research consultant from the Office for Research Consultation. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for data analysis.

The analysis of data was made in two stages. The first stage consisted of descriptive analysis, identification of factors for further study, and choice of statistical tools for the major analysis. In the second stage, each individual work activity was analyzed to determine the relationship--if any--between time use and selected variables. The level of satisfaction of general life concerns was analyzed to determine factors influencing attitudes toward quality of life. The Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient, Chi-square statistic, and T-test were used for the second stage.

Descriptive Statistical Analysis

Descriptive analysis was made by using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (Nie et al, 1975) to compute and present one-way frequency distributional characteristics of each of the variables and was used in statistical tests analysis.

The frequency distributions were presented and the mean and standard deviation were computed for each variable. Analytical procedures were used to present frequency data on time use in all work activities, satisfaction level with general life concerns, feelings about the importance of time spent on work activities, and estimated frequency of time spent on activities.

Spearman Correlation Statistic

To determine the degree of statistical relationship between demographic independent variables and dependent variables such as time use by single female parent in household activities, and satisfaction with general life concerns, the nonparametric measure, Spearman Rank-Order Correlation, was used.

The Spearman Rank-Order Correlation coefficient is designed to measure the degree of correlation between the ordinal rankings of two variables and to determine probability of the occurrence. According to Siegel (1956) the Spearman Correlation shows whether an association exists between variables and the degree of relationship, but it does not necessarily imply causation.

Spearman's r_s is defined as the sum of the squared differences in the paired ranks for two variables over all cases, divided by a quantity which can perhaps best be described as follows: it is what the sum of the squared differences in ranks would have been had the two sets of rankings been totally independent. This formula is identical to that used to compute tau b in the CROSSTABS procedure. This quotient is then subtracted from 1 to produce the standardized coefficient. Spearman r_s is then formally defined as:

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2}{N^3 - N}$$

where d_i is the difference between the ranks of the two variables for case i .

In using Spearman Correlational analysis, variables must be ranked. The following rankings were used for the variables in this

study.

Age Ranking: from the lowest to the highest

1. under 20
2. 21-25 years old
3. 26-30 years old
4. 31-35 years old
5. 36-40 years old
6. 41-45 years old
7. 46-50 years old

Level of Education: from the lowest to the highest

1. less than 6 grades of elementary school
2. 6-8 grades of junior high school
3. 1-3 years of high school
4. completed high school and received diploma
5. 1-3 years of college
6. bachelor's degree and higher

Family Income Ranking: from the lowest to the highest

1. less than \$3,000
2. \$3,000 - \$3,999
3. \$4,000 - \$4,999
4. \$5,000 - \$5,999
5. \$6,000 - \$6,999
6. \$7,000 - \$7,999
7. \$8,000 - \$8,999
8. \$9,000 - \$9,999
9. \$10,000 and over

Number of Children in the Family Ranking: from one child
to more than one child

1. one
2. two
3. three
4. four
5. five
6. six
7. seven
8. eight or more

Age of the Youngest Child in the Family Ranking: from the
youngest to the oldest

1. under one year old
2. 1-3 years old
3. 3-6 years old
4. 6-12 years old
5. 12-15 years old
6. 15-18 years old
7. 18 and older

Crosstabulation and Chi-square Statistic

A crosstabulation is a joint frequency distribution of cases according to two variables. The display of the distribution of cases is the major component of contingency table analysis and is apparently the most commonly used analytic method in the Social Science (Hie, et al, 1975). The joint frequency distributions can be statistically

analyzed by the Chi-square statistic to determine whether or not the variables are statistically independent or to indicate how strongly two variables are related to each other. This kind of analysis facilitates the study of relations by analyzing data into tabular frequencies that give clarity to trends and patterns in the relationship (Nie et al, 1975).

The Chi-square statistic is a test of statistical significance. It is used to determine whether a systematic relationship exists between two variables. This is done by computing the cell frequencies which would be expected if no relationship is present between the variables given the existing row and column totals (marginals). The expected cell frequencies are then compared to the actual values found in the table according to the following formula:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i \frac{(f_o^i - f_e^i)^2}{f_e^i}$$

where f_o^i equals the observed frequency in each cell, and f_e^i equals the expected frequency calculated as

$$f_e^i = \left(\frac{C_i r_i}{N} \right)$$

where C_i is the frequency in a respective column marginal, r_i is the frequency in a respective row marginal, and N stands for total number of valid cases. As can be seen, the greater the discrepancies between the expected and actual frequencies, the larger Chi-square becomes (Nie et al, 1975). A large Chi-square implies that a systematic relationship of some sort exists between the variables.

The Chi-square statistic helps to decide whether variables

are independent or related. It does not tell how strongly they are related. Part of the reason is that the sample size and number of variables have considerable influence upon the Chi-square statistic (Nie, et al, 1975).

T-test

In many investigations the research is primarily interested in discovering and evaluating differences between effects such as the difference in race for people at various levels of life satisfaction. The most common type of analysis is the comparison of two samples' means.

SPSS procedure T-test computes students' t and probability levels to test whether or not the difference between two sample means is significant (Nie, et al, 1975). The use of this test was limited because cases had to be classified into two groups; the dependent variable must be interval, and a test of mean difference was performed for specified variables.

Students' t is the statistic used in calculating the probability associated with the null hypothesis. The t is a statistic generally applicable to a normally distributed random variable where the mean is known and the population variance is estimated from a sample (Nie, et al, 1975).

Given two populations with means μ_1 and μ_2 , respectively, and unequal variances σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 , all unknown, the problem is to use the T-test of significance to determine if $\mu_1 = \mu_2$.

$$t = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{S_1^2/n_1 + S_2^2/n_2}$$

This statistic is not distributed as Student's t . However, the probability for t can be approximated by treating it as t , but with degrees of freedom

$$df = \frac{[(S_1^2/n_1) + (S_2^2/n_2)]^2}{[(S_1^2/n_1)^2/(n_1-1)] + [(S_2^2/n_2)^2/(n_2-1)]}$$

where $\bar{X}_1$ and $\bar{X}_2$ are two populations' means, S_1^2 and S_2^2 are two populations' variables, and n_1 and n_2 are two sample sizes.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The results of the data analyses are reported in two sections. The first section contains descriptive data on respondents' use of time, satisfaction with general life concerns, and estimated frequency of time spent on activities. The second section contains the statistical test results for each of the seven research questions being explored in the study.

Section I: Descriptive Data

Single-female Parent Families' Use of Time

To establish base-line data on time use by single parent females was part of the central focus of the study. In this study, work activities were categorized as: food preparation and cleaning, daily or regular household chores, personal and family care, outdoor chores and car care, employment, volunteer work, personal improvement, travel, shopping, communication, filing and keeping records, rest and other. Definitions of each category of activities are presented in Appendix B. Table 17 summarizes the average time spent on these activities during the two recorded days by the test population, 51 single-parent females.

Factors such as the health of the respondent, an unusual situation, the season, and day of the week could affect the amount

TABLE 17
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TIME SPENT
ON WORK ACTIVITIES BY 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS

Work Activities	Mean (Minutes)	Standard Deviation	N
1. Household Work*	470	170.0	51
2. Food Preparation and Cleaning	150	67.7	51
3. Regular Household Chores	89	64.2	51
4. Special House Care	30	63.9	51
5. Personal and Family Care	149	75.0	51
6. Outdoor Chores	9	27.0	51
7. Leisure	312	175.8	51
8. Social Activities	102	78.0	51
9. Employment	47	134.7	51
10. Volunteer	18	51.8	51
11. Personal Improvement	34	80.4	51
12. Travel	55	42.9	51
13. Shopping	33	37.9	51
14. Communication	77	75.4	51
15. Filing and Keeping Records	11	18.0	51
16. Rest	497	104.9	51

*Household Work = food preparation and cleaning + regular household chores + special house care + family care + outdoor chores + shopping + filing and keeping records.

of time used in the conduct of each activity. Several such exceptions occurred in this study. Two respondents indicated that one of their recorded days was atypical because they were not feeling well. On those days they said that they rested more and spent less time on household work activities than on a normal day. Other unusual situations reported included: car broke down, went to court, friend visited, etc. Approximately one fourth of the data were collected in December. When recorded days were closer to the holiday season, the recorded time on household activities might have produced an aberration. Table 18 shows the distribution of the number of time logs by recorded date.

1. Household work

The average daily amount of time devoted to household work by the 51 subjects was 470 minutes (7.8 hours). Household work as defined in this study was the combination of time used on food preparation and cleaning, regular household chores, personal and family care, special house care, outdoor chores and car care, shopping, and filing and keeping records.

Previous studies (Walker and Woods, 1976; McCullough, 1980; Nickols and Fox, 1980) have reported the use of time by recording primary and secondary work activities. Primary work time was defined by Walker and Woods (1976) as the time when the activity engaged the worker's full or main attention. Secondary time was defined as time spent on an activity in combination with other (primary) activity that received the worker's principle attention. All time use data reported by Walker and Woods and others focused on the primary work

TABLE 18
DISTRIBUTION OF NUMBER OF TIME LOGS
BY RECORDED DATE

Month Day						Row Total
	September	October	December	January	February	
Tuesday	3	6	5	8	3	25
Wednesday	5	7	10	21	8	51
Thursday	2	1	5	13	5	26
Column Total	10	14	20	42	16	102

time. This study did not attempt to record primary and secondary work time separately. Subjects recorded time spent doing each work activity on the time log chart.

The variation of time spent on total household work by the 51 respondents was considerable. The least time spent on household work reported for the two recorded days by a respondent was 3 hours and 30 minutes. The greatest amount time spent on household work reported for the two recorded days was 16 hours and 45 minutes. The difference between the smallest and the largest amount of time spent on household work was 13 hours and 15 minutes. Table 19 shows the distribution of average time spent per day on household work by the 51 single-female parents.

Age of the respondent, level of education, and family income did not appear to affect the amount of time spent on household work.

TABLE 19
DISTRIBUTION OF AVERAGE TIME SPENT PER DAY
ON HOUSEHOLD WORK BY 51 SINGLE-FEMALE
PARENTS

	N	%
Less than 4 hours	2	3.8
4 hours - 5 hours 59 minutes	12	24.0
6 hours - 7 hours 59 minutes	16	31.4
8 hours - 9 hours 59 minutes	9	17.5
10 hours - 11 hours 59 minutes	8	15.6
12 hours and more	4	7.7
Total	51	100.0

Mean = 470 minutes (7 hours 50 minutes) S.D. = 170.0

Number of children and age of the youngest child in the family did appear to affect the time spent on household work. In this study, single-female parents who had younger children in the family spent more time on household work than those having older children. Single-female parents with more children in the family spent more time on household work than those with fewer children in the family.

2. Food Preparation and Cleaning

The data indicated that respondents averaged 2.4 hours per day in food preparation and cleaning. Data showed that when family size increased, the amount of time spent on food preparation and

cleaning also increased. Less time was spent on food preparation and cleaning when the household contained another adult or adults, such as a grandparent, the mother's sister or other relatives, and when the youngest child in the house was over 12 years old. Employment status did not appear to affect the amount of time spent on food preparation. According to the data, most employed single-mothers with children took primary responsibilities for food preparation.

3. Daily and Regular Household Chores

Daily and regular household chores, as defined for this study, consisted of general routine house care work and extra work needed to maintain the home at a certain level of cleanliness. Extra work activities included: washing and folding clothes, mopping floors, dusting, making beds, polishing shoes, etc.

Subjects reported spending an average of 1.28 hours per day on regular household chores. The data showed that the age of the youngest child had a positive effect on the amount of time spent on regular household chores. The number of children in the family was not a major factor in influencing the use of time on regular household chores, possibly because some families reported that older children helped to do some household chores.

In this study, the majority of single mothers were not employed. However, the data showed employed single mothers spent less time than unemployed single mothers on regular house care regardless of family size.

Dwelling characteristics sometimes affected the amount of

time spent on household care. In this study, 70 percent of the households were renting an average of 2.5 bedroom homes. However, size of dwelling in this study did not appear to greatly affect the time spent in the family.

4. Special House Care

Special house care as defined in this study included:

- 1) special house cleaning--washing windows or walls, cleaning the oven, defrosting the refrigerator, etc.;
- 2) house maintenance--repairing furniture, repairing broken plumbing or equipment, etc.;
- 3) making household furnishings--painting and papering, rearranging rooms, etc.

The study found that an average of 0.47 hour (28 minutes) a day was spent on special house care. Many families reported no time spent on special house care. In this study, the range of time spent on special house care varied from an average of less than 5 minutes to more than several hours a day. The variation was not related to family composition, but rather reflected personal interest and taste. Some families indicated that they liked to rotate special cleaning jobs daily. Seasonal difference also may have had some influence on special house care. Data collected in December showed more families spending time in rearranging or redecorating their rooms.

Few families indicated that the special house care time was spent on house maintenance. Most household maintenance jobs were done by hired service people or by grown-up boys in the family.

5. Personal and Family Care

Many other studies have found that personal and family care activities are time-consuming activities. In this study, personal and family care consisted of physical and nonphysical care of all family members. The personal physical care time included such personal activities as bathing and dressing. Family physical care time included such activities as bathing, dressing another family member; providing health care (giving medicine, or bandaging); and/or taking a child or children to the dentist, physician or barber shop, etc. Family nonphysical care also included activities related to family members' social and educational development. Activities such as reading to children, teaching or helping a child with homework, or taking care of animals or pets were included in this category of work.

This study found that an average of 2.5 hours a day was spent on family care, a combination of physical and nonphysical activities. Time use appeared to be greatly affected by the age of the youngest child. In families with pre-school children, the large amount of family care time resulted from both physical and nonphysical care; in families with school-age children, more of the family care time was expended on nonphysical care. Employment status did not appear to have much of an effect on the time spent on personal and family care activities, perhaps because most of the employed single mothers had school-age children who did not need a great deal of physical care.

6. Outdoor Chores and Car Care

Time spent on yard and car care appeared to be similar to special house care in many respects. The study showed that single parent females spent an average of 0.17 hour (10 minutes) a day on outdoor chores and car care. This represented much less time spent on these activities than in Walker and Woods' (1976) study. Unlike the special house care, yard care was strongly related to the seasonal difference. In this study, data were collected mostly in the winter time while people usually do not work in the yard.

House type appears to strongly influence the time spent on outdoor chores. Seventy percent of the families in the sample were living in an apartment or duplex. There is no need for them to spend time on lot care. However, families who lived in a single-family dwelling did report spending some time on yard care.

In the total sample, about half of the families had no car. Many of them depended on public transportation. This absence of autos explains why single-female families in the study sample spent so little time on car care.

7. Leisure

In order to measure leisure time, it was necessary to designate activities as "leisure time." Confusion of definitions made establishing categories for coding data difficult.

In this study, leisure time data were collected according to two categories: 1) leisure activities by yourself, such as reading a magazine or newspaper, or watching T.V.; 2) participation in social activities with other people; such activities were defined

as visiting relatives or friends, having a party, attending a party, attending sports activities, playing cards or games, etc. (see Appendix B)

This study found that the average daily time spent on leisure activities was 6.9 hours a day. This included 5.2 hours a day spent on leisure activities by oneself and 1.7 hours a day on social activities with other people. In the study, the most common leisure activity by oneself was watching television; the most common social activity with other people was visiting relatives or friends. A wide variation of time spent on leisure activities was found in this study. The range was from 30 minutes to 13.8 hours a day. Many reported that watching television was very important to them because their economic situation led to social isolation and lack of transportation.

8. Employment

A safe generalization can be made about the effect of paid employment on the time use. The paid-employed homemakers devoted less time to household work than the unemployed homemakers in this study. Of the 51 single parents in the sample, only seven (14 percent) were employed. Employed single mothers spent less time on household tasks; however, employment did not reduce the time spent by single mothers on food related activities and family care.

9. Volunteer Work

In this study, only 35 percent of the subjects were involved in any kind of volunteer work; an average of 18 minutes per day was spent on volunteering. Most in the study who reported volunteering

were contributing to the 4-H program.

10. Personal Improvement

The activities which related to personal improvement were defined in this study as attending classes, doing school work, attending seminars, workshops or conferences, etc. Of the total 51 in the sample, only eight (16%) reported they were students. Both part-time and full-time students were included in this percentage. Data showed an average of 0.6 hour (38 minutes) a day time spent on personal improvement.

11. Travel

Travel time in this study was recorded separately. Travel time, as defined for this study, consisted of driving a car, riding a bus, walking and waiting time, etc. The subjects reported that an average of 0.95 hour daily time was spent on travel. The range of time spent on travel varied from zero to two hours a day. The variation reflected the fact that some families had scheduled visiting or shopping on the record days.

12. Shopping

Time spent on shopping was recorded separately. In the study, shopping was defined as shopping for food, supplies, equipment or clothing; shopping by telephone or by mail; putting purchases away; window shopping, etc. Shopping time was not included as travel time.

Of those in the sample, only 54 percent reported time spent on shopping during the two record days. Of those who shopped, most indicated that they were shopping for food and household supplies. Data collected in December indicated that subjects were shopping for

other items, too, such as Christmas gifts or decorations.

In this study, the number of children, age of the youngest child, and employment status were not related to the time spent on shopping. An average of 0.55 hour (33 minutes) a day time spent on shopping was found in this study.

13. Communication

In the present study, communication was defined as talking on the phone, chatting with relatives, friends, or children, etc. Most of the communication activities on the time record chart were reported as secondary activity indicating that communication occurred during the same time period as another activity. An average of 1.3 hours a day was spent on communication in the study. Many of those in the sample indicated that talking on the phone was quite important to them.

14. Filing and Keeping Records

Filing and keeping records as defined in this study included such activities as planning time, keeping records, paying bills, making bank deposits, balancing the check book, etc. Of the 51 in the sample, only 27 percent reported spending time on filing and keeping records; the average time spent was 0.18 hour (11 minutes) a day.

Many single-female parents in the sample indicated that they did not have a check book or filing system. Few management skills and techniques appeared to exist in these families. Presence of a planning method seemed to be associated with the educational background of the respondents. However, in this study it did not appear

that the respondent's educational background affected the amount of time spent on filing and keeping records.

Satisfaction with General Life Concerns

In this study, respondents were asked to express their feelings about their lives. Satisfaction with life concerns was based on various domains of life and the individual's values. Many factors influence people's feelings about their quality of life. Feelings about family life make the most significant contribution to women's feelings about life-as-a-whole. Women who feel very satisfied with their family life are most likely to feel very satisfied with their total life (Sontag et al, 1979).

In this study, respondents were asked the question "What does Quality of Life mean to you?" Seven choices were given. These were: having enough income, having enough time for yourself, having enough time for your children or family, having enough time for your personal improvement, having a new car, new furniture or new clothes, having religious faith, and other. Respondents could check as many as applied. In the study, 73 percent of the respondents indicated having enough time for their children or family signified quality of life to them, 63 percent chose having enough money, and 41 percent chose having religious faith (see Table 20).

Additionally, respondents were asked to identify which one answer was most important to them. Having time for children and family was selected most frequently; having enough income was selected next in frequency, and having religious faith was third (see Table 21).

TABLE 20
DISTRIBUTION OF THE ANSWERS FOR "WHAT DOES
QUALITY OF LIFE MEAN TO YOU?" BY
51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS

	No. of respondents	Percentage*
1. Having enough income	32	63%
2. Having enough time for self	20	39%
3. Having enough time for children or family	37	73%
4. Having enough time for personal improvement	16	31%
5. Having a new car, new furniture, etc.	12	24%
6. Having religious faith	21	41%
7. Other	16	31%

*Respondents could check as many answers as applied. The percentage reflected the number of participants who checked each answer.

TABLE 21

DISTRIBUTION OF THE ANSWERS FOR "WHICH QUALITY OF LIFE IS MOST IMPORTANT TO YOU?" BY 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS

	No. of respondents	Percentage
1. Having enough income	16	31%
2. Having enough time for self	1	2%
3. Having enough time for children and family	24	47%
4. Having enough time for personal improvement	1	2%
5. Having a new car, new furniture, etc.	1	2%
6. Having religious faith	6	12%
7. Other	2	4%
Total	51	100%

A number of studies (Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Andrews and Withey, 1976; Bubolz, Eicher and Sontag, 1979) have shown that perceived quality of life is most directly related to feelings about life concerns that are important to people. Because the evaluation of an individual's perception of quality of life is based on how one feels about the different domains of one's life, respondents were asked to express their feelings about the various parts of their lives.

Table 22 reports the frequencies of scores for satisfaction with general life concerns by the 51 subjects in the study.

1. Satisfaction with life-as-a-whole

A majority of the subjects were dissatisfied with their

TABLE 22
DESCRIPTIVE FREQUENCIES ON SATISFACTION WITH
GENERAL LIFE CONCERNS FOR ALL SAMPLE RESPONDENTS

	Unhappy*		Mixed		Happy		Off-scale**	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. life-as-a-whole	19.6	10	43.2	22	37.2	19		
2. children	0	0	9.8	5	90.2	46		
3. time spent with children	5.9	3	7.8	4	86.3	44		
4. time spent with family	9.9	5	17.6	9	72.5	37		
5. health condition	15.7	8	13.7	7	70.6	36		
6. housework accomplished	7.8	4	23.6	12	68.6	35		
7. family life	7.8	4	25.5	13	66.7	34		
8. self	5.7	3	27.4	14	64.7	33	2.0	1
9. way of express feelings	25.5	13	19.6	10	54.9	28		
10. independence	23.5	12	23.6	12	52.9	27		
11. sense of belonging	17.6	9	27.5	14	52.9	27	2.0	1
12. chance to be exposed to new ideas	13.7	7	29.4	15	52.9	27	4.0	2
13. use of spare time	11.8	6	39.1	20	49.1	25		
14. receive respect	15.7	8	27.4	14	49.1	25	7.8	4
15. becoming single parent	33.3	17	15.7	8	49.0	25	2.0	1
16. accepted by others	19.6	10	27.5	14	49.0	25	3.9	2
17. social and emotional needs met	21.5	11	29.4	15	47.1	24	2.0	1
18. fun you are having	27.4	14	21.6	11	47.0	24	4.0	2
19. way of using money	27.4	14	27.5	14	45.1	23		
20. time spent on housework	21.5	11	31.3	16	43.2	22	4.0	2
21. way of using time	19.6	10	35.3	18	41.2	21	3.9	2
22. house or apartment	35.3	18	23.5	12	39.2	20	2.0	1
23. accomplishment in life	25.4	13	33.3	17	39.2	20	2.1	1
24. physical needs are met	35.3	18	31.4	16	33.3	17		
25. neighborhood	35.3	18	33.3	17	31.4	16		
26. interesting of day-to-day life	25.5	13	41.1	21	29.4	15	4.0	2
27. standard of living	31.4	16	33.3	17	27.5	14	7.8	4
28. job	0	0	2.0	1	11.8	6	86.2	44
29. financial security	64.7	33	23.5	12	9.8	5	2.0	1

*The category "unhappy" indicated the sum score of "unhappy" and "very unhappy." The category "happy" indicated the sum score of "happy" and "very happy."

**The category "off-scale" indicated the sum score of "neutral-neither satisfied nor dissatisfied," "does not apply to me," and "I never thought about it."

feelings about life-as-a-whole. Approximately 37 percent of them reported feeling happy about their life-as-a-whole; 43 percent reported having mixed feelings, and 20 percent reported being unhappy or very unhappy about their life-as-a-whole.

Andrews and Withey (1976) reported that the "mixed" category indicates feelings not much better than "tolerable." This category seems to represent some measure of dissatisfaction. So generally speaking, single-female parents seem to feel more negatively than positively about their life-as-a-whole.

2. Satisfaction with family life

A majority of the 51 single parent females (67%) reported feeling happy or very happy with their family life. Twenty-five percent had mixed feelings. However, only about 8 percent reported having unhappy or very unhappy feelings about their family life.

3. Satisfaction with independence

Slightly more than half of the subjects (53%) reported that they felt happy or very happy about their independence. Approximately 23.5 percent indicated that they had mixed feelings, and 23.5 percent reported having unhappy feelings about their independence.

Two women pointed out that they were extremely happy with their independence since they became single parents. They indicated that this status allows them to be decision makers and allows them to do things according to their own desires.

4. Satisfaction with being accepted by others

Almost half of the single-female parents (49%) reported that they felt happy or very happy concerning their being accepted by

others. Twenty-seven percent reported having mixed feelings; 20 percent were feeling unhappy or very unhappy about it. Two respondents (4%) using an off-scale response indicated that they never thought about whether or not they were accepted by others.

5. Satisfaction with job

A majority of the single-female parents (86%) were not employed. Of the 14 percent who were employed, most were part-time workers. Those employed seemed quite satisfied with their jobs; 12 percent reported being happy or very happy with their jobs; 2 percent reported having mixed feelings, and no one indicated she was dissatisfied with her job.

6. Satisfaction with standard of living

Single-female parents seem negatively satisfied with their standard of living. Twenty-seven percent reported being happy or very happy about their standard of living; 33 percent reported mixed feelings, and 32 percent said they were unhappy or very unhappy. Three respondents indicated neutral feelings--neither happy nor unhappy. One respondent reported that she never thought about it.

7. Satisfaction with amount of fun in life

Almost half (47%) of the respondents reported feeling happy or very happy about the fun they were having. Twenty-one percent had mixed feelings, and 27 percent felt unhappy or very unhappy about it. Four percent of the respondents had neutral feelings about it.

8. Satisfaction with house or apartment

Single-female parents seemed to feel more negatively than

positively about their house or apartment. Thirty-nine percent reported being happy or very happy about their living conditions; 34 percent reported having mixed feelings, and 35 percent reported they were unhappy or very unhappy about their house or apartment. One respondent felt neutral--neither happy nor unhappy--about her house.

9. Satisfaction with accomplishment in life

Single-female parents seem dissatisfied with their accomplishments in life. Thirty-nine percent reported that they were happy or very happy with their accomplishments; 33 percent reported having mixed feelings, and 26 percent reported that they were unhappy or very unhappy with it. One single parent indicated that she had neutral feelings about it.

10. Satisfaction with neighborhood

Single-female parents seem to have negative feelings about their neighborhoods. Approximately 32 percent reported feeling happy or very happy about their neighborhood. Thirty-three percent indicated having mixed feelings, and 35 percent indicated they were unhappy or very unhappy about their neighborhood. Two respondents reported that they felt they were being discriminated against by their neighbors.

11. Satisfaction with using spare time, non-working activities

Almost half (49%) of the single-female parents were happy or very happy with their way of using spare time. Thirty-nine percent reported having mixed feelings; 12 percent were unhappy or very unhappy with it.

12. Satisfaction with yourself

More than half (65%) of the respondents were positively satisfied with themselves. Twenty-seven percent reported having mixed feelings, and 6 percent were not happy about themselves. One respondent used an off-scale response indicating she never thought about evaluating self-satisfaction.

13. Satisfaction with children

Single-female parents have very positive feelings about their children. Ninety percent reported being happy or very happy with their children; 10 percent reported having mixed feelings. None of the respondents indicated that she was unhappy with her children. All single-female parents seemed to place children as their top value.

14. Satisfaction with the change since they became single parents

In assessing their feelings of satisfaction concerning their current single-parent status; 49 percent of the respondents reported they were happy; 16 percent reported they had mixed feelings, and 33 percent reported they were unhappy. Satisfaction with single-parent status varied among the individuals. Some who had positive feelings indicated that since becoming single-parents, they have greater independence, have more chances to make decisions, and can control their own financial situation. Some who had negative feelings indicated that taking care of children alone is not easy; too much work without a helper, and low economic status were also identified as sources of dissatisfaction. Only one respondent indicated that she had never thought about it.

15. Satisfaction with financial security

Financial security was least satisfying to single-female parents. Only about 10 percent reported feeling happy about their financial security; 23 percent reported having mixed feelings, and 65 percent were unhappy or very unhappy about their financial security. In the sample, ninety-four percent of the respondents recorded a 1980 per capita family income of less than \$7,000.

16. Satisfaction with how interesting day-to-day life is

Single-female parents feel more negatively than positively about the interestingness of their daily life. Twenty-nine percent reported that they were happy or very happy with the interestingness of their daily life; 41 percent reported having mixed feelings, and 26 percent reported they were unhappy or very unhappy with it. One respondent indicated she had neutral feelings about it--neither happy nor unhappy. One reported that she had never thought about it.

17. Satisfaction with your own health condition

A majority of single-female parents (71%) were very happy or happy with their health condition. Fourteen percent reported having mixed feelings; 16 percent reported that they were very unhappy or unhappy with it. All single-female parents who reported being unhappy or very unhappy about their health condition indicated that they were permanently disabled. Two of them have a maid come each week to do household cleaning. Maids are paid by the Department of Social Services.

18. Satisfaction with the extent to which physical needs are met

Respondents split about equally in assessing the extent to

which physical needs were being met. Thirty-three percent reported they were happy or very happy about it; 32 percent reported having mixed feelings, and 35 percent reported they were unhappy with it.

19. Satisfaction with the extent to which social and emotional needs are met

Almost half (47%) of the respondents reported that they were happy or very happy with the extent to which their social and emotional needs were being met. Thirty percent of the respondents reported mixed feelings, and 22 percent reported they were unhappy about it. One respondent reported neutral feelings.

20. Satisfaction with the chance you have to learn new things or be exposed to new ideas

Slightly more than half of the respondents (53%) reported that they were happy or very happy with being exposed to new ideas. Thirty percent reported mixed feelings, and 14 percent indicated that they were unhappy with it. One respondent reported neutral feelings--neither happy nor unhappy. One respondent reported that she had never thought about it.

21. Satisfaction with sense of belonging

Slightly more than half (53%) of all respondents reported they were happy or very happy about their sense of belonging. Twenty-seven percent reported mixed feelings, and 18 percent reported that they were unhappy with it. One respondent reported that she never thought about it.

22. Satisfaction with receiving respect

Forty-one percent of all single-female parents reported that

they were feeling happy or very happy about the respect they are receiving. More than one third (35%) responded that they had mixed feelings about it, and 16 percent reported that they were unhappy about it. Approximately 8 percent of single-female parents reported that they never thought about this.

23. Satisfaction with the way of using time

Forty-one percent of single-female parents reported that they felt happy or very happy about the way they were using time; 35 percent reported that they were having mixed feelings, and 20 percent indicated that they were unhappy about it. Two respondents (4%) responded that they had neutral feelings about the way they were using time.

24. Satisfaction with the way of using money

Single-female parents seem more negatively than positively satisfied with their way of using money. Forty-five percent reported that they were happy with it; 27 percent reported that they had mixed feelings, and 28 percent reported that they were unhappy or very unhappy about it. Most single-female parents who had an unhappy feeling about the way they used money indicated that they did not have enough money to spend.

25. Satisfaction with time spent on household work

Forty-three percent of single-female parents responded that they were happy or very happy about the time they spent on doing household work. Approximately one third (31%) reported they had mixed feelings, and 22 percent reported that they were unhappy or very unhappy with the time spent on household work. One respondent reported that she had neutral feelings about it. Another respondent

reported that she never thought about it.

26. Satisfaction with the way household work is accomplished

More than two thirds of the respondents (69%) responded that they were happy or very happy with the way household work was accomplished. Twenty-three percent reported that they had mixed feelings, and only 8 percent reported that they were unhappy about it. One respondent who was dissatisfied with the accomplishment of household work indicated that household work never had an end.

27. Satisfaction with the way you express your feelings

Fifty-five percent of all single-female parents reported that they felt happy or very happy about the way they expressed their feelings. Twenty percent reported that they had mixed feelings, and 25 percent reported that they were unhappy about it. Most single-female parents who reported that they were unhappy about the way they expressed their feelings indicated that they felt they were isolated or discriminated against.

28. Satisfaction with the amount of time family spent together

Almost three quarters of the single-female parents (72%) reported that they felt happy or very happy about the time the family spent together. Eighteen percent reported they had mixed feelings, and 10 percent reported they were unhappy with it. Most who reported being unhappy indicated that they felt a family should have two parents instead of one.

29. Satisfaction with the time spent with your children

A majority of the single-female parents reported being more positively than negatively satisfied with the time they spend with

their children. Eighty-six percent reported they were happy or very happy about it; 8 percent reported that they had mixed feelings, and 6 percent reported that they felt unhappy.

Feelings about the Importance of Time Spent on Activities

In this study, respondents were asked to express their feelings about the importance of time spent on various activities. Table 23 presents the means and standard deviations of perceived importance of time spent doing each activity by the 51 single-female parents. It shows that single-female parents felt time spent with children is the most important work for them ($\bar{X} = 4.8$), and time spent on yard work is the least important work for them ($\bar{X} = 1.9$). Figure 2 presents the mean scores of importance based on time spent doing each activity.

Feelings about Their Own Life

In this study, 78 percent of the respondents answered that they were not sure about their lives; 58 percent answered they could not plan their life ahead, and 65 percent reported that they could not carry out their life in the manner they preferred.

Estimated Frequencies of Time Spent on Activities

Many surveys have been done in which respondents were asked to estimate how much time was spent on this or that activity over some specified period. Since many activities may not have occurred during the two record days, an "Activities Estimating Chart" was used in this study to collect estimated time frequency for some

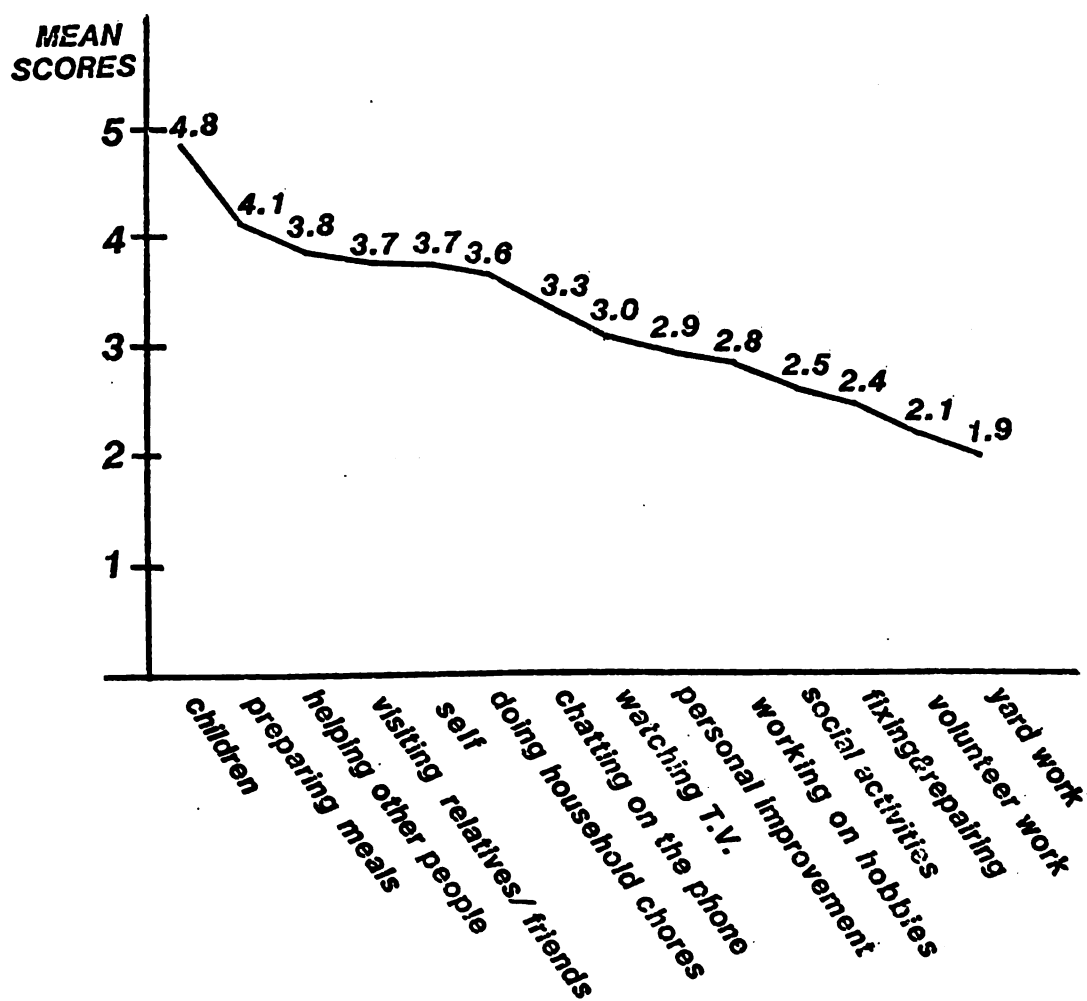
TABLE 23

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FEELINGS ABOUT THE
IMPORTANCE OF TIME SPENT ON EACH ACTIVITY
BY THE 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS

	Mean*	Standard Deviation	N
1. children	4.78	0.61	51
2. preparing meals	4.08	0.80	51
3. helping other people	3.75	0.96	51
4. visit relatives/friends	3.73	1.04	51
5. self	3.67	1.09	51
6. household chores	3.59	0.80	51
7. chatting on the phone	3.29	1.28	51
8. watching T.V.	3.02	1.27	51
9. personal improvement	2.88	1.42	51
10. working on hobbies	2.75	1.26	51
11. social activities	2.53	1.01	51
12. fixing and repairing	2.35	1.39	51
13. volunteer work	2.12	1.23	51
14. yard work	1.86	1.17	51

*1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = mixed with equally important and unimportant, 4 = important, 5 = very important

**FIGURE 2 : MEAN SCORES OF IMPORTANCE OF TIME SPENT
ON ACTIVITIES BY 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS**



activities.

The means and standard deviations of single-female parents' estimated frequency of time spent on activities is summarized in Table 24. The mean scores were calculated by averaging times per year, and the transformation of the frequency based on 365 days per year. The data show that single female parents averaged 127 occasions per year when they did hobby work and 12 times a year when they did fixing or repairing work.

Table 25 presents the means and standard deviations of single-female parents' estimated frequency of shared time and activities with their children. The data show that single-female parents sat down for a meal with their children an average of 428 times per year; they spent time taking children on a trip or vacation once a year on the average.

Table 26 presents the means and standard deviations of single-female parents' estimates of their children's expressions of positive regard, assistance and help given to their parent. In this study, children appeared to show regard for their mother through hugs or kisses rather than through providing assistance in repairing items, etc. Assumptions might be made that many of the children in these families were quite young; the female may have had few items to repair, or tools to do the repairs; it was winter, etc.

Section II: Research Questions and Statistical Tests

While the study did not seek to test hypotheses, data were analyzed to discover answers to a series of research questions. The

TABLE 24

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS
ESTIMATED FREQUENCY OF SPENDING TIME ON
ACTIVITIES BY HERSELF

	Mean* (No. of times per year)	S.D.	N
How often do you:			
1. work on your hobbies	127.15	197.85	51
2. take care of garbage	108.32	101.93	51
3. iron clothes	74.72	115.62	51
4. take care of driveway	52.19	92.32	51
5. keep record and filing	48.78	95.61	51
6. attend class or workshop	46.31	117.91	51
7. mend clothes	42.50	81.35	51
8. attend church service	40.15	64.32	51
9. shop (not for groceries)	37.92	58.01	51
10. take care of lawn or garden	35.29	80.45	51
11. do volunteer work	34.94	83.76	51
12. go out to eat	24.08	37.05	51
13. do special house cleaning	21.11	29.86	51
14. wash or take care of car	14.90	36.94	51
15. fix or repair things	12.08	28.76	51

*Note: Transformation of the frequency based on 365 days per year. Mean scores were calculated by averaged times per year.

TABLE 25

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS
ESTIMATED FREQUENCY OF SHARED TIME AND
ACTIVITIES WITH THEIR CHILDREN

	Mean (No. of times per year)	S.D.	N
How often do you and your children:			
1. sit together for a meal	427.56	208.34	51
2. spend time together	253.34	216.42	51
3. play games together	229.06	198.74	51
4. work together on project	141.37	162.09	51
5. visit friends or relatives	130.60	108.36	51
6. take a walk or ride together	77.28	138.64	51
7. entertain friends at home	60.74	106.04	51
8. have outdoor activities together	46.56	71.07	51
9. go out to eat	35.02	46.93	51
10. attend church service together	33.70	53.72	51
11. attend party together	12.60	27.05	51
12. attend sports events together	10.53	28.45	51
13. go to movie or other entertainment	6.14	11.08	51
14. go to museum or see exhibits	3.12	8.51	51
15. go on a trip or vacation	1.46	2.63	51

*Note: Transformation of the frequency based on 365 days per year. Mean scores were calculated by averaged times per year.

TABLE 26

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS
ESTIMATED FREQUENCY OF CHILDREN'S EXPRESSION OF THEIR
POSITIVE REGARD, ASSISTANCE, AND HELP GIVEN TO PARENT

	Mean (No. of times per year)	S.D.	N
How often do your children:			
1. give Mom hugs or kisses	623.65	204.07	51
2. tell Mom their love	566.98	227.73	51
3. make Mom feel good	523.24	266.17	51
4. tell Mom their respect	468.64	268.07	51
5. do housework for Mom	346.08	204.43	51
6. do yard work for Mom	50.85	125.90	51
7. do repair work for Mom	30.09	78.07	51

*Note: Transformation of the frequency based on 365 days per year. Mean scores were calculated by averaged times per year.

following section reports on these questions and details statistical test results.

Question 1:

Is there a relationship between the demographic variables of age, level of education, family income, number of children, and age of the youngest child in the family and time spent per day on doing various work activities?

The measure of household work in this study is expressed in

terms of a quantity of production output for a given amount of time. In this study, work activities were categorized as follows: food preparation and cleaning, daily or regular household chores, personal and family care, outdoor chores and care of car, leisure, social activities, employment, volunteer work, personal improvement, travel, shopping, communication, filing and keeping records, rest and other.

The Spearman Correlation statistic was used to identify which variables were most closely related to the time spent on these work activities. Spearman's rho is a nonparametric correlation. Nonparametric means that no assumptions are made about the distribution of cases on the variables. This statistic requires ordinal data and ranks on each of the variables. Spearman's r_s yields a closer approximation to product-moment correlation coefficients when the data are more or less continuous. Spearman's r_s is used more when the ratio of cases to categories is smaller (Nie, et al, 1975). All Spearman Correlations were tested for significance at the .05 level. Although all work activities were correlated with demographic variables, only those with probability less than .05 are discussed. A summary of Spearman Correlation Coefficients between time spent on all work activities and demographic variables is shown in Table 27.

1. Age of the respondent

The Spearman Correlation test results indicated that there is no significant relationship between the age of the respondent and time spent per day on doing household work by single-female

TABLE 27

SUMMARY OF SPEARMAN RANK-ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR
TIME SPENT ON ALL WORK ACTIVITIES BY 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS
WITH DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES: AGE OF THE RESPONDENT, LEVEL OF
EDUCATION, FAMILY INCOME, NUMBER OF CHILDREN AND AGE OF
THE YOUNGEST CHILD LIVING IN THE FAMILY

	AGE	EDUCATION	INCOME	NO. CHILD.	AGE/Y/CH
Household work ^a	-.0456	-.1065	.1547	.1368	-.3225*
Food preparation	-.0827	-.2612*	.0930	.2982*	-.2534*
Household chores	.0034	-.1074	.1219	.0208	-.2806*
Special house care	.2310	.1525	-.1412	-.2580*	.1939
Family care	-.2939*	.0777	.1438	.1562	-.4892**
Outdoor chores	-.0810	.0088	-.0365	-.0029	-.0782
Leisure activities	-.0138	-.2590*	-.1848	.0298	-.3398*
Social activities	-.2414*	-.1344	-.2165	-.2869*	-.1548
Employment	.0648	.2742*	.2921*	-.0956	.3150*
Volunteer work	.1131	.2469*	-.0873	-.0159	.0564
Personal improvement	.0996	.3828*	-.1629	-.0539	.3447*
Travel	-.3124*	.2567*	.0702	-.0352	-.0096
Shopping	.0912	-.0087	-.0475	.0028	.0765
Communication	-.0181	-.1797	-.1666	-.2774*	.1115
Filing and keeping records	.2438*	.0158	.1190	-.0479	.3714*
Rest	.0582	-.0900	-.0515	-.0067	.2544*

^aHousehold work = food preparation + regular household chores + special house care + family care + outdoor chores + shopping + filing and keeping records.

*Significance < .05

**Significance < .005

parents. Spearman's r_s for the age of the respondent and time spent doing household work was (-.0456).

Table 27 shows that there are some significant correlations between age of the respondent and time spent per day on doing family care, social activities, travel, and filing and keeping records. Correlation signs for the age of the respondents in relation to time use on work activities can be interpreted as follows:

<u>Work Activities</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Personal and family care	-.2939	The negative correlation indicates a decrease in time spent on personal and family care as the age of the respondent increases.
Social activities	-.2414	The negative correlation indicates a decrease in time spent on social activities as the age of the respondent increases.
Travel	-.3124	The negative correlation indicates a decrease in time spent on travel as the age of the respondent increases.
Filing and keeping records	.2438	The positive correlation indicates an increase

<u>Work Activities</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning (Con't)</u>
		in time spent on filing and keeping records as the age of the respondent increases.

The descriptive data on time spent per day on doing personal and family care, social activities, travel and filing and keeping records based on age of the respondent is summarized in Table 28. It shows that time spent on doing these activities did not consistently increase or decrease with an increase in the age of the respondent. Single-female parents who contributed the least time on personal and family care ($\bar{X}$ = 40 minutes per day), were in the 46 - 50 age group; those who contributed the most time on personal and family care ($\bar{X}$ = 175 minutes per day) were in the 31 - 35 age group. Single-female parents who spent the least time on social activities ($\bar{X}$ = 56 minutes per day) were in the 36 - 40 age group; those who spent the most time on social activities ($\bar{X}$ = 250 minutes per day) were in the youngest age group, under 20 years old (see Table 28). Time spent on travel varied according to the age of the respondent. Respondents who used the least time on travel ($\bar{X}$ = 10 minutes) were found in the oldest age group; those who used the most time on travel ($\bar{X}$ = 76 minutes) were found in the 26 - 30 age group (see Table 28). Time used on filing and keeping records ranged from 0 minutes per day at the youngest age group to 33 minutes per day at the oldest age group (see Table 28).

TABLE 28
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TIME SPENT
DOING FAMILY CARE, SOCIAL ACTIVITIES,
TRAVEL, FILING AND KEEPING RECORDS
BY 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS ACCORDING
TO AGE OF THE RESPONDENT

Age	N	Family Care		Social Activities		Travel		Filing Records	
		Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.
Under 20	1	75	0	250	0	37	0	0	0
21-25	13	173	55.4	121	84.7	66	46.3	8	12.3
26-30	11	156	74.7	121	76.7	76	45.3	7	12.5
31-35	11	175	80.8	67	64.7	43	42.2	12	22.1
36-40	9	139	77.1	56	31.3	55	37.7	9	15.6
41-45	3	90	40.8	155	121.7	30	5.0	28	2.9
46-50	3	40	47.7	123	63.1	10	10.0	33	40.2
Total	51	149	75.0	102	78.0	55	42.9	11	18.0

*Mean is expressed in minutes.

2. Educational level of the respondent

There was no significant relationship between educational level and time spent doing household work by single-female parents. Spearman's r_s for the educational level of the respondent and household work time was $-.1065$.

There were some significant correlations between educational level of the respondent and time spent on food preparation, leisure, employment, volunteer, personal improvement and travel (see Table 27).

An interpretation of these significant correlation coefficients is as follows:

<u>Work Activities</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Food preparation	-.2612	The negative correlation indicates a decrease in time spent on food preparation as the respondent's level of education increases.
Leisure	-.2590	The negative correlation indicates a decrease in time spent on leisure as the respondent's level of education increases.
Employment	.2742	The positive correlation indicates an increase in time spent on employment as the respondent's level of education increases.
Volunteer work	.2469	The positive correlation indicates an increase in time spent on volunteer work as the respondent's level of education increases.
Personal improvement	.3828	The positive correlation indicates an increase in time spent on personal improvement as the respondent's level of education increases
Travel	.2567	The positive correlation indicates an increase in the time spent on travel as the respondent's level of education increases.

The amount of time spent doing work activities by single-female parents varied according to their level of education, but not in a consistent pattern. Table 29 shows that single-female parents who have 1-3 years of high school experiences spent the most time on food preparation ($\bar{X}$ = 169 minutes per day); those who have college and higher education backgrounds spent the least time on food preparation ($\bar{X}$ = 90 minutes per day).

The amount of time spent doing leisure activities by single-female parents showed significant difference according to their level of education. Those who had less than 6th grade schooling spent the most time on leisure activities ($\bar{X}$ = 603 minutes per day); those who had college and higher degrees spent the least time on leisure activities ($\bar{X}$ = 120 minutes per day). The difference between the smallest and the largest amount of time spent on leisure activities was 483 minutes per day (see Table 29).

The amount of time spent on employment, volunteer work, and personal improvement by single-female parents varied according to their level of education (see Table 29). However, one common finding was that the respondents who had less than 6th grade schooling spent no time on these activities; those having college and higher education spent the most time on these activities; an average of 117 minutes per day on employment, 46 minutes per day on volunteer work, and 97 minutes per day on personal improvement.

Time spent on travel ranged from 15 minutes to 85 minutes per day during the two recorded days. Respondents who had less than 6th grade schooling spent the least time on travel; those with

TABLE 29

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TIME SPENT DOING FOOD PREPARATION,
OUTDOOR CHORES, EMPLOYMENT, VOLUNTEER WORK, PERSONAL IMPROVEMENT,
AND TRAVEL BY 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS ACCORDING TO
RESPONDENT'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION

EDUCATION	N	Food Preparation		Leisure		Employment		Volunteer		Personal Imp.		Travel	
		Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.
Under 6th	2	145	77.8	603	38.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	7.0
Jr. High	4	140	46.5	307	203.4	53	105.0	15	30.0	32	64.4	60	49.1
1-3 H.S.	15	169	72.8	279	142.7	0	0	4	15.5	17	30.6	54	46.5
H.S. Grad.	16	163	82.1	410	145.7	34	127.2	9	30.4	9	23.0	38	23.5
1-3 College	13	119	36.8	199	151.5	89	178.0	50	89.5	102	133.6	85	46.7
B.A. & Higher	1	90	0	120	0	480	0	0	0	35	0	25	0
Total	51	150	67.7	311	175.8	47	134.7	18	51.8	37	80.4	55	42.9

*Mean is expressed in minutes.

college schooling spent the greatest amount of time on travel (see Table 29).

3. Family income

There was no significant relationship between family income and time use on household work by single-female parents. Spearman's r_s for the family income and household work time was .1547.

There was a significant correlation between family income and employment. The positive correlation (.2921) indicates an increase in time spent on employment as the family income increases (see Table 30).

TABLE 30
DESCRIPTIVE DATA ON TIME SPENT PER DAY IN
EMPLOYMENT BASED ON FAMILY INCOME

Income	Number	Employment	
		Mean(minutes)	S.D.
Under \$3,000	2	0	0
\$3,000-\$3,999	5	0	0
\$4,000-\$4,999	11	0	0
\$5,000-\$5,999	13	50	115.5
\$6,000-\$6,999	14	50	136.0
\$7,000-\$7,999	2	0	0
\$8,000-\$8,999	2	255	360.6
\$13,000-\$13,999	1	0	0
\$14,000-\$14,999	1	540	0
Total	51	47	134.7

4. Number of children in the family

The Spearman Rank-Order Correlation indicated that there was no significant relationship between the number of children living in the family and time spent on household work. Spearman's r_s for the number of children and household work time was .1368.

There was a positive significant correlation (.2982) between the number of children and time spent on food preparation. As the number of children living in the family increased, there was an increase in time spent on food preparation.

There were some significant negative correlations between the number of children living in the family and the time spent on special house care ($r_s = -.2580$), social activities ($r_s = -.2869$), and communication ($r_s = -.2774$). This means that time spent on special house care, social activities, and communication decreased when the number of children living in the family increased (see Table 27).

As would be expected, the time spent doing food preparation increased as the number of children in the family increased. Table 31 shows the relationship between time spent on food preparation and the number of children in the family. Single-female parents who had only one child in the family spent an average of 123 minutes per day on food preparation; those who had 6 or more children in the family spent an average of 214 minutes per day on food preparation. One exception is that those who had 4 children in the family spent 7 minutes less on food preparation than did those who had 3 children in the family.

TABLE 31
 MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TIME SPENT DOING FOOD PREPARATION AND CLEANING,
 SPECIAL HOUSE CARE, SOCIAL ACTIVITIES, AND COMMUNICATION BY 51 SINGLE-FEMALE
 PARENTS ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN THE FAMILY

Number of Children	Number of Families	Food Preparation		Special House Care		Social Activities		Communication	
		$\bar{X}$ (minutes)	S.D.	$\bar{X}$ (minutes)	S.D.	$\bar{X}$ (minutes)	S.D.	$\bar{X}$ (minutes)	S.D.
1	13	123	54.9	32	44.9	143	94.0	123	112.9
2	16	143	51.3	27	54.6	102	71.2	77	60.7
3	13	157	60.3	44	101.9	90	75.8	36	30.2
4	2	150	7.1	0	0	38	53.0	92	11.5
5	4	189	157.9	0	0	78	39.7	76	52.2
8	1	190	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11	1	276	0	0	0	80	0	68	0
13	1	176	0	0	0	90	0	50	0
Total	51	150	67.7	28	63.9	102	78.0	77	75.4

Table 31 indicates that in this sample, single-female parents having three or fewer children in the family spent an average of 34 minutes per day on special house care; those having four or more children living in the family spent no time on special house care.

A negative relationship was found between time spent on social activities and number of children in the family (see Table 31). Single-female parents who had only one child spent 143 minutes per day on social activities; those who had 6 or more children spent 57 minutes per day on social activities. Two single-female parents who had four children in the family spent the least time, an average of 38 minutes per day, on social activities during the two recorded days.

The amount of time spent on communication by single-female parents varied according to the number of children in the family. Table 31 indicates that single-female parents with only one child in the family spent the most time, 123 minutes per day, on communication; those with three children in the family spent the least time, 36 minutes per day, on communication during the two recorded days.

5. Age of the youngest child

The Spearman Rank-Order Correlation showed that there was a significant relationship between age of the youngest child living in the family and the time spent on household work by single-female parents. The negative correlation ($-.3225$) indicates a decrease in time spent on household work as the age of the youngest child increases. This means that as the age of the youngest child in the

family increases the time spent on household work by the single-female parents decreases (see Table 32).

Table 27 shows that there were some significant negative correlations between the age of the youngest child living in the family and the time spent on food preparation ($r_s = -.2534$), daily household chores ($r_s = -.2806$), family care ($r_s = -.4892$), and leisure ($r_s = -.3398$). This means that the older the youngest child in the family, the less time is spent on food preparation, daily household chores, family care and leisure activities by single-female parents. This table also shows some significant positive correlations between the age of the youngest child living in the family and time spent on employment ($r_s = .3150$), personal improvement ($r_s = .3447$), filing and keeping records ($r_s = .3714$) and rest ($r_s = .2544$). This means that the older the youngest child in the family, the more time is spent on employment, personal improvement, filing and keeping records, and rest (see Table 27).

Age of the youngest child in the single-female parents' family had the highest significant correlation of the demographic variables with time used on 9 of the types of work activities analyzed (see Table 27).

Table 33 shows that single-female parents who have the youngest child under one year old spent the most time on food preparation, 212 minutes per day, and daily household chores, 114 minutes per day. Those who have a youngest child between 6 - 12 years old spent the least time on food preparation, 120 minutes per day, as well as daily household chores, 61 minutes per day.

TABLE 32
TIME SPENT DOING TOTAL HOUSEHOLD WORK BY
51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS ACCORDING TO AGE
OF THE YOUNGEST CHILD LIVING IN THE FAMILY

Age of the Youngest Child	N	$\bar{X}$ (minutes)	S.D.
Under 1	7	585	173.6
1-3 years old	14	489	198.7
3-6 years old	12	486	136.3
6-12 years old	11	380	106.2
12-15 years old	5	448	235.0
18-20 years old	1	415	0
20 and over	1	341	0
Total	51	470	170.0

TABLE 33
 MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TIME SPENT DOING FOOD PREPARATION AND CLEANING,
 REGULAR HOUSEHOLD CHORES, FAMILY CARE, LEISURE, EMPLOYMENT, PERSONAL IMPROVEMENT,
 FILING AND KEEPING RECORDS, AND REST BY 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS ACCORDING TO
 AGE OF THE YOUNGEST CHILD IN THE FAMILY

Age of Youngest Child	N	Food Preparation		Household Chores		Family Care		Leisure		Employment		Personal Improvement		Filing		Rest	
		X*	S.D.	X*	S.D.	X*	S.D.	X*	S.D.	X*	S.D.	X*	S.D.	X*	S.D.	X*	S.D.
Under 1	7	212	118.2	114	44.0	188	42.7	388	288.5	0	0	9	17.1	3	7.6	403	85.2
1-3	14	137	41.8	112	91.7	169	59.7	381	168.9	0	0	15	23.4	7	13.7	520	81.1
3-6	12	171	59.7	82	61.4	168	86.7	301	155.0	54	119.6	19	61.8	14	21.8	478	93.2
6-12	11	120	32.7	61	32.6	134	76.0	220	119.5	65	160.3	97	142.2	12	14.5	543	124.1
12-15	5	122	71.4	70	50.4	69	34.8	285	229.0	108	241.5	39	53.4	24	32.0	473	86.8
18-20	2	127	53.0	95	7.1	46	50.4	195	106.1	240	339.4	63	38.9	25	7.1	590	155.6
Total	51	150	67.7	89	64.2	149	75.0	312	175.8	47	134.7	37	80.4	12	18.0	497	104.9

* $\bar{X}$ (mean) is expressed in minutes.

There was a negative relationship between time spent on family care and age of the youngest child. Single-female parents having a child under one year of age spent the most time on family care, 188 minutes per day; those having a youngest child of 18 or over spent the least time on family care, 46 minutes per day (see Table 33).

There was a negative relationship between the time spent on leisure and age of the youngest child in the family. Table 33 shows that single-female parents having a youngest child under one year of age spent the most time on leisure activities, 388 minutes per day; those having an 18 years old as the youngest child spent the least time on leisure, 195 minutes per day. An exception was those having a youngest child between 6 and 12 years of age; those parents spent 65 minutes less per day than those having a youngest child between 12-15 years old. In this sample, ninety-five percent of the respondents indicated that watching T.V. was their major leisure activity.

There was a positive relationship between time spent on employment and age of the youngest child. Table 33 shows that single-female parents having the youngest child aged three and younger spent no time on employment; those having a youngest child of 18 and over spent the most time on employment, 240 minutes per day.

Time spent on personal improvement, filing and keeping records, and rest varied according to the age of the youngest child in the family. Single-female parents whose youngest child was under

one year old spent the least time on personal improvement ($\bar{X}$ = 9 minutes per day), filing and keeping records ($\bar{X}$ = 3 minutes per day), and rest ($\bar{X}$ = 403 minutes per day). Single-female parents having a youngest child of age 6 and 12 years old spent the most time on personal improvement, 97 minutes per day; those having a youngest child between 12 and 15 years old spent the most time on filing and keeping records, 24 minutes per day. Those having between 18 and 20 years old youngest child spent the most time on rest, 590 minutes per day (see Table 33).

Question 2

Is there a relationship between the demographic variables of age, level of education, family income, number of children and age of the youngest child in the family and satisfaction with general life concerns?

A five-point scale (1 = very unhappy, 2 = unhappy, 3 = mixed feelings, 4 = happy, 5 = very happy) with three off-scale responses (A = neutral--neither happy nor unhappy, B = never thought about it, C = does not apply to me) was developed to collect data on satisfaction with general life concerns for single-female parents. Table 34 shows the means and standard deviations of general life concerns for all respondents of the sample.

The Spearman Correlation statistic, a non-parametric measure of association, was used to identify which variables were most closely related to the satisfaction of general life concerns by the 51 single-female parents. All Spearman Correlation values reported in Table 35 were tested for significance at the .05 level. Correlation

TABLE 34
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF GENERAL LIFE
CONCERNS OF ALL SAMPLE RESPONDENTS

General Life Concerns	Mean*	S.D.	Number
1. life-as-a-whole	3.18	0.89	51
2. family life	3.77	0.97	51
3. independence	3.47	1.21	51
4. accepted by others	3.53	1.33	51
5. job ^a			
6. standard of living	3.02	1.44	51
7. fun you are having	3.31	1.12	51
8. house or apartment	3.00	1.22	51
9. accomplishment in life	3.20	1.13	51
10. neighborhood	2.82	1.29	51
11. spare time	3.53	1.08	51
12. self	3.86	1.00	51
13. children	4.61	0.67	51
14. becoming single parent	3.31	1.33	51
15. financial security	2.08	1.23	51
16. interesting day-to-day life	3.18	1.13	51
17. health condition	3.88	1.21	51
18. physical needs met	2.90	1.08	51
19. emotional needs met	3.35	1.16	51
20. chance to be exposed to new ideas	3.61	1.18	51
21. sense of belonging	3.53	1.14	51
22. respect been received	3.75	1.34	51
23. way of using time	3.47	1.14	51
24. way of using money	3.16	1.07	51
25. time spent on housework	3.39	1.12	51
26. housework accomplished	3.94	0.95	51
27. be able to express feelings	3.47	1.17	51
28. time spent with family	3.98	1.09	51
29. time spent with children	4.49	0.95	51

*1 = very unhappy, 2 = unhappy, 3 = mixed feelings, 4 = happy, 5 = very happy.

^aSince only 7 subjects had on-scale responses, this was not sufficient to compute meaningful statistics.

TABLE 35

SUMMARY OF SPEARMAN RANK-ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS
FOR SATISFACTION OF GENERAL LIFE CONCERNS AND THE
DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES OF AGE, LEVEL OF EDUCATION,
FAMILY INCOME, NUMBER OF CHILDREN, AND AGE OF
THE YOUNGEST CHILD IN THE FAMILY BY 51 SINGLE-
FEMALE-PARENT FAMILIES

GENERAL LIFE CONCERNS	AGE	EDUCATION	INCOME	AGE/Y/CH	NO. CHILD.
1. life-as-a-whole	.1084	-.0335	.0822	-.0695	.2613*
2. family life	.1542	-.0089	.1081	-.0148	.2486*
3. independence	.1979	.1257	.2229	.0647	.0996
4. accept by others	.0544	-.2248	.0969	-.1057	.2810*
5. job ^a					
6. standard of living	.1524	-.3846*	.1282	-.0047	.1177
7. how much fun are you having	.1647	.0401	.2634*	.0756	.0543
8. house or apartment	.1271	.0742	.1306	.0291	-.1161
9. accomplishment in life	.1473	-.0768	.1694	.0917	.1655
10. neighborhood	.2546*	-.0074	.0929	.2365*	-.1403
11. use of spare time	.2944*	-.1064	-.0563	.0605	.0346
12. self	.0306	-.0878	.0632	-.1706	.2023
13. children	-.2381*	-.1846	.0121	-.2602*	-.0035
14. change since becoming single parent	.3323*	-.1637	-.0963	-.0013	-.1297
15. financial security	.3235*	-.0654	.2518*	.2066	.0623
16. how interesting day-to-day life	.1270	-.0421	.1739	-.0191	.1481
17. health condition	-.2181	-.0463	.1922	-.2596*	.1957
18. physical needs met	.0143	.1420	-.0389	.1907	-.0207
19. emotional needs met	.1419	.1272	.1545	.0840	.3207*
20. chance to be exposed to new ideas	.1132	.1983	.0797	.1006	.0869
21. sense of belonging	-.0277	-.1550	.1095	-.0239	.1299
22. respect you received	.0348	.0997	.2303	.1071	.0644
23. way of using time	.1673	.1101	.0727	.1344	.1480
24. way of using money	.0009	.0689	.0253	-.2518*	.3057*
25. time spent on housework	-.0353	.1312	-.2108	-.0893	-.1696
26. household work accomplished	-.0348	-.1681	-.1282	-.2239	.1943
27. chance to express your feelings	.2993*	.1601	.0176	.0172	.1159
28. time spent with family	-.0621	-.0133	-.1224	-.2635*	.1006
29. time spent with children	-.1709	-.2609*	-.2934*	-.3685*	.0352

* Significance < .05

^aSince only 7 subjects had on-scale responses, this was not sufficient to compute meaningful statistics.

coefficients were computed with selected demographic variables: age of the respondent, level of education, family income, number of children, and age of the youngest child in the family (see Table 35). Only those relationships with less than .05 probability are discussed in the following paragraphs.

1. Life-as-a-whole

The question "How do you feel about your life as a whole?" was asked as the first question. Generally speaking, single-female parents tended to evaluate their overall lives as slightly dissatisfied. The mean score for perceived overall quality of life by single female parents was ($\bar{X} = 3.2$).

A Spearman Correlation was used to test whether or not there was a significant relationship between five demographic variables and satisfaction with life-as-a-whole. Table 35 presents the summary results of this non-parametric analysis.

The test results indicated that there are no significant relationships between satisfaction with life-as-a-whole and age of the respondent ($r_s = .1084$), family income ($r_s = .0822$), level of education ($r_s = -.0335$) and age of the youngest child in the family ($r_s = -.0695$). However, there is a significant relationship between satisfaction with life-as-a-whole and the number of children living in the family ($r_s = .2613$). This positive correlation suggests that the more children a single-female parent has, the more satisfaction with overall quality of life she experiences.

The distribution data on satisfaction with life-as-a-whole based on the number of children in the family is shown on Table 36.

It indicates that the single-female parents who had only one child in the family were least satisfied with their overall quality of life ($\bar{X} = 2.9$), and those having eight or more children in the family were most satisfied with their overall quality of life ($\bar{X} = 3.7$).

2. Family life

The question "How do you feel about your own family life--yourself and your children?" was asked. In general, single-female parents felt happy about their own family lives. The mean score for satisfaction with family life by 51 single-female parents was (3.8).

The Spearman Correlation revealed no significant relationships between the satisfaction of family life and the age of the respondent ($r_s = .1542$), family income ($r_s = .1081$), level of education ($r_s = -.0089$), and age of the youngest child in the family ($r_s = -.0148$). However, there is a significant relationship between satisfaction with family life and the number of children in the family ($r_s = .2486$). The positive correlation means that the more children in the family, the more satisfaction single-female parents have with their family lives. Table 36 presents the distribution data on the satisfaction with family life by single-female parents based on the number of children in the family. It shows that single-female parents having only one child in the family were least satisfied with their family lives ($\bar{X} = 3.5$), and those having eight or more children in the family were most satisfied with their family lives ($\bar{X} = 4.7$).

TABLE 36

SATISFACTION WITH LIFE-AS-A-WHOLE AND
FAMILY LIFE OF 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS
BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN THE FAMILY

No. of Children	N	<u>Life-as-a-whole</u>		<u>Family life</u>	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1	13	2.9	.55	3.5	1.05
2	16	3.3	1.13	3.8	1.13
3	13	3.2	1.01	3.7	.75
4	2	3.5	.71	4.5	.72
5	4	3.3	.50	4.3	.96
8	1	4.0	0	5.0	0
11	1	3.0	0	4.0	0
13	1	4.0	0	5.0	0
Total	51	3.2	.89	3.8	.97

3. Acceptance by others

The question "How do you feel about how much you are accepted by others?" was asked. The Spearman Correlation indicated that only the number of children in the family was significantly related to the satisfaction felt concerning being accepted by others ($r_s = .2810$). The positive correlation indicates that the more children single-female parents had, the more satisfaction associated with acceptance by others was experienced.

4. Job

Since there were only seven of the subjects (14%) who were employed, the number was not sufficient to compute meaningful statistics.

5. Standard of living

The question "How do you feel about your standard of living--the things you have like house, car, furniture, recreation and others?" was asked. Figure 3 shows the satisfaction mean scores of general life concerns of the 51 subjects. Generally speaking, single-female parents did not feel satisfied with their standard of living. The mean score for satisfaction with standard of living was 3.0.

The Spearman Correlation indicated that the level of education was negatively related to feelings about the standard of living ($r_s = -.3846$). The negative relationship means that the higher the educational level of respondents, the less satisfied they were with their standard of living.

Table 37 presents the descriptive data on satisfaction with standard of living based on level of education. It shows that

FIGURE 3 : MEAN SCORES OF SATISFACTION FEELINGS WITH GENERAL LIFE CONCERNS
BY 61 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS

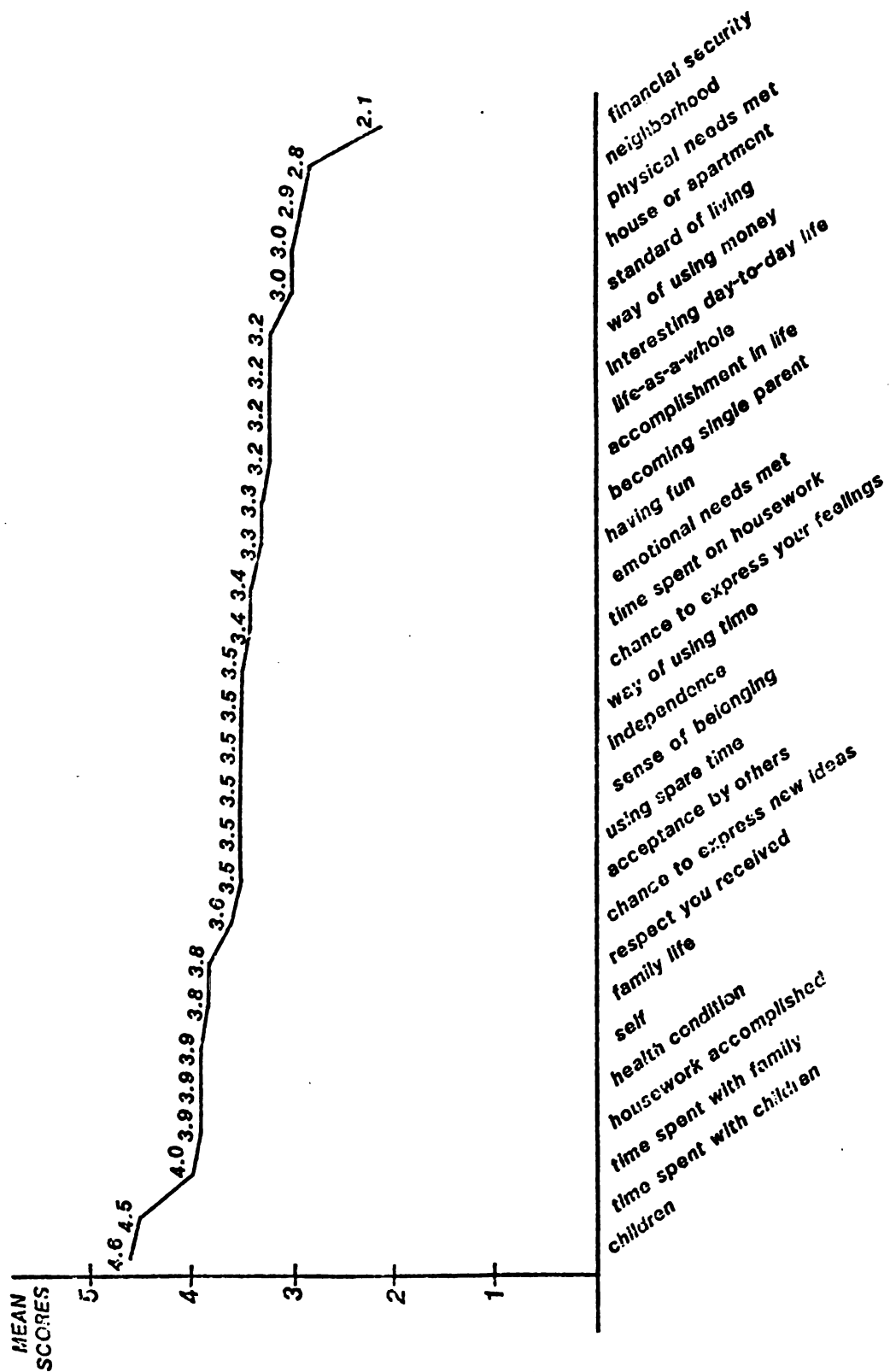


TABLE 37
SATISFACTION WITH STANDARD OF LIVING OF
51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS BY THE
LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Education	N	Standard of Living	
		Mean	S.D.
Under 6th grade	2	3.5	.71
Jr. High	4	3.8	.50
1-3 High School	15	3.6	1.64
H.S. graduate	16	2.9	1.36
1-3 College	13	2.4	1.26
B.A. and Higher	1	1.0	0
Total	51	3.0	1.44

single-female parents who have Junior High schooling are most satisfied with their standard of living ($\bar{X} = 3.8$), and the ones who graduated from college or have higher degrees are less satisfied with their standard of living ($\bar{X} = 1.0$).

6. Having fun

The question "How do you feel about how much fun you are having?" was asked. In this sample, subjects indicated little satisfaction with the amount of fun they were having. The mean score for satisfaction relating to how much fun they were having was 3.3 for the 51 subjects.

The Spearman Correlation indicated that family income had a positive significant correlation with the level of satisfaction

with having fun ($r_s = .2634$). The positive correlation suggests that the more income subjects have, the more fun they are having. The level of satisfaction with how much fun they are having varied according to the family income. Table 38 shows that those who have \$3,000 to \$3,999 annual income were having the least fun ($\bar{X} = 2.6$), and those who have annual \$6,000 - \$6,999 and \$8,000-\$8,999 reported having the most fun in their lives ($\bar{X} = 4.0$).

7. Neighborhood

The mean score for being satisfied with the neighborhood was quite low ($\bar{X} = 2.8$). Most single-female parents indicated that they did not like their neighborhood. Table 35 presents the correlations between variables and satisfaction with general life concerns.

The Spearman Correlation shows that the level of education, family income and age of the youngest child in the family were not significantly related to satisfaction with the neighborhood. The age of the respondent and age of the youngest child in the family had significant correlation with being satisfied with the neighborhood, $r_s = .2546$ and $r_s = .2365$, respectively. The positive correlation indicates that the older single-female parents were the more satisfied with their neighborhood. It also suggests that when the youngest child gets older, the satisfaction with the neighborhood gets higher.

Table 39 presents the descriptive data on satisfaction with the neighborhood based on age of the respondent; it shows a slight relationship between the age of the respondent and satisfaction with the neighborhood. The respondent who was less than twenty

TABLE 38

SATISFACTION WITH HOW MUCH FUN RESPONDENTS WERE HAVING
AND FINANCIAL SECURITY OF 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS
BY FAMILY INCOME

Family Income	N	<u>Having fun</u>		<u>Financial Security</u>	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Under \$3,000	2	3.0	0	1.5	.71
\$3,000-\$3,999	5	2.6	.89	1.4	.89
\$4,000-\$4,999	11	3.3	.79	1.9	.83
\$5,000-\$5,999	13	3.0	1.15	1.9	1.38
\$6,000-\$6,999	14	4.0	1.30	2.7	1.38
\$7,000-\$7,999	2	2.5	.71	1.0	0
\$8,000-\$8,999	2	4.0	0	2.0	1.41
\$13,000-\$13,999	1	2.0	0	2.0	0
\$14,000-\$14,999	1	4.0	0	4.0	0
Total	51	3.3	1.12	2.1	1.23

TABLE 39
SATISFACTION WITH CHILDREN, NEIGHBORHOOD, CHANGES SINCE BECOMING A SINGLE PARENT,
AND FINANCIAL SECURITY OF 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS BY AGE OF THE
RESPONDENT

Age	N	Children		Neighborhood		Becoming Single-parent		Financial Security	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Under 20	1	4.0	0	1.0	0	4.0	0	1.0	0
21 - 25	13	4.9	.28	2.4	1.33	2.4	1.26	1.5	.78
26 - 30	11	4.7	.47	2.9	1.14	3.1	1.14	1.9	1.14
31 - 35	11	4.4	.92	3.0	1.41	4.1	.70	2.8	1.66
36 - 40	9	4.7	.50	3.0	1.50	3.9	1.05	2.6	1.13
41 - 45	3	4.0	1.00	3.7	.58	2.0	1.00	1.7	.58
46 - 50	3	4.3	1.15	3.0	1.00	4.7	2.08	2.0	1.00
Total	51	4.6	.67	2.8	1.29	3.3	1.33	2.1	1.23

years old was least ($\bar{X} = 1.0$) satisfied with her neighborhood; those who were in the 41-45 years old group were most satisfied ($\bar{X} = 3.7$) with their neighborhood.

8. Children

Single-female parents were very satisfied with their children. The satisfaction mean score was 4.6. Figure 3 shows that the satisfaction with children has the highest score of all general life concerns.

The Spearman Correlation shows that level of education, family income, number of children were not significantly correlated with satisfaction of children (see Table 35). However, age of the respondent ($r_s = -.2381$) and age of the youngest child in the family ($r_s = -.2602$) were significantly correlated with the satisfaction of children. The negative correlation indicates that the older single-female parents are, the less they are satisfied with their children. It also means that as the youngest child gets older, the satisfaction with children gets less.

Table 39 presents the descriptive data (means and standard deviations) of satisfaction with children by age groups. It shows that single-female parents who were in the 21-25 years old age group were most satisfied with their children ($\bar{X} = 4.9$); those who were in the 41-45 years old age group were least satisfied with their children ($\bar{X} = 4.0$).

Table 40 presents the means and standard deviations of satisfaction with children by age of the youngest child in the family. It shows that single-female parents having the youngest

TABLE 40
SATISFACTION WITH NEIGHBORHOOD AND CHILDREN
OF 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS BY AGE OF
THE YOUNGEST CHILD IN THE FAMILY

Age of the Yountest Child	N	<u>Neighborhood</u>		<u>Children</u>	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Under 1	7	2.7	.95	4.7	.76
1 - 3	14	2.2	1.25	4.9	.36
3 - 6	12	3.3	1.30	4.6	.67
6 - 12	11	2.7	1.42	4.4	.81
12 - 15	5	3.2	1.30	4.2	.84
18 - 20	1	4.0	0	5.0	0
Over 20	1	4.0	0	5.0	0
	51	2.8	1.29	4.6	.67

child at an age between 12-15 years were least satisfied with their children ($\bar{X} = 4.2$); those having a youngest child between 1-3 years were most satisfied with their children ($\bar{X} = 4.9$).

9. Changes since becoming a single parent

The question "How do you feel about changes in your life that you have made since becoming a single parent?" was asked. Some single-female parents were very happy about the changes since they became single parents; some were very unhappy. The mean score for satisfaction on changes since becoming a single parent was 3.3 (see Table 34).

The Spearman Correlation indicated that only the age of the

respondents had significant correlation ($r_s = .3323$) with satisfaction with changes since becoming single parents. The positive correlation indicated that the older single-female parents were, the more satisfied they were since becoming single parents. Table 39 shows that single-female parents who were in the 41-45 years old age group were least satisfied with their status ($\bar{X} = 2.0$); those who were in the 46-50 years old age group were most satisfied with their status ($\bar{X} = 4.7$).

10. Financial security

A majority of single-female parents were very unhappy about their financial security. The mean score for satisfaction on financial security was 2.1. Figure 3 shows that the satisfaction with financial security had the lowest score among all satisfaction with life concerns.

The Spearman Correlation Coefficient indicated that age of the respondent ($r_s = .3235$), and family income ($r_s = .2518$) were significant correlated with satisfaction on their financial security. The positive correlation indicated that the older single-female parents were, the more satisfied they were with their financial security, and the more family income they had, the more satisfaction they felt with financial security (see Table 35).

Table 38 presents the means and standard deviations by breaking down the family income. It shows that families with \$7,000-\$7,999 annual income were least satisfied with their financial security; those families with \$9,000 or more were most satisfied with their financial security ($\bar{X} = 3.0$).

Table 39 presents the frequencies by breaking down age of

the respondents. It shows that single-female parents who were under 25 years of age were least satisfied with their financial security; those who were in the 31-35 years old age group were most satisfied with their financial security.

Question 3

Is there a relationship between the time spent per day doing various work activities by single-female parents and satisfaction with general life concerns?

The Spearman Correlation was computed to test the relationship between satisfaction with general life concerns and time spent doing various work activities. Table 41 shows the results of Spearman's Correlation Coefficients for work activities and satisfaction with general life concerns. All Spearman Correlations presented in Table 41 were tested for significance at the .05 level. Of the 464 correlations computed, there were 36 significant negative correlations and 22 significant positive correlations. The 36 significant negative correlations and 22 significant positive correlations are discussed in the following paragraphs.

1. Family Life

<u>Time spent on:</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Social activities	-.3850	The negative correlation indicates that the less time spent on social activities, the more satisfaction with family life.

TABLE 41

SUMMARY OF SPEARMAN RANK-ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR TIME SPENT PER DAY DOING VARIOUS WORK ACTIVITIES AND SATISFACTION WITH GENERAL LIFE CONCERNS BY 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS (ALL SPEARMAN CORRELATIONS PRESENTED IN THIS TABLE ARE SIGNIFICANT AT .05 LEVEL)

General Life Concerns	House- work + Prep.	Food Prep.	Household Chores	Spe. H. Care	Family Care	Outdoor Chores	Leisure	Social Activi.	Employ- ment	Volun- teer	Pers. Improv.	Travel	Shopping	Communi- cation	Keeping Records	Rest
1. life-as-a-whole																
2. family life								-.3850		.2811						
3. independence										.2362						
4. accepted by others																
5. job ^a				-.3067												
6. standard of living																
7. how much fun are you having						-.2564				.2430						.2551
8. house or apartment				.2624	-.3024											
9. accomplishment in life		-.2536					-.2740									.3683
10. neighborhood					-.2335											.2498
11. spare time		-.2558	-.2343			-.3722						-.2562				
12. self																
13. children															-.2500	
14. becoming a single parent													-.2513			
15. financial security							-.2597									.2637
16. interesting day-to-day life		-.2606	-.2701			-.2414	-.3503		.2612							
17. health condition				-.2907												
18. physical needs met		-.4667	-.2888		-.2946						.2403					
19. social emotional needs met						-.2478					.3068					
20. chance be exposed to new ideas		-.2840											-.2832			
21. sense of belonging									.2831					.2405		
22. respect you received											.2700					
23. way of using time							-.3900	-.2830								
24. way of using money					.2343											
25. time spent on housework		-.2397	-.3705								.3021					
26. household work accomplished					.2347										-.2868	
27. chance to express feelings																
28. time spent with family							.2543		-.2558							-.3712
29. time spent with children							.3621		-.5082							-.3842

^aHousehold work = food preparation + regular household chores + special house care + family care + outdoor chores + shopping + filling and keeping records

^bSince only 7 subjects had on-scale responses, this was not sufficient to compute meaningful statistics.

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Volunteer work	.2811	The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on volunteer work, the more satisfaction with family life.

2. Independence

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Volunteer work	.2362	The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on volunteer work, the more satisfaction with feelings about independence.

3. Acceptance by others

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Special house care	-.3067	The negative correlation indicates that the less time spent on special house care, the more satisfaction with feelings about acceptance by others.

4. Job

Since there were only seven of the subjects (14%) who were employed, the number was not sufficient to compute meaningful

statistics.

5. How much fun are you having

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Outdoor chores	-.2564	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on outdoor chores, the less satisfaction concerned with having fun.
Volunteer work	.2430	The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on volunteer work, the more satisfaction concerned with having fun.

6. House

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Special house care	.2624	The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on special house care, the more satisfaction with house.
Family care	-.3024	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on family care, the less satisfaction with house.

7. Accomplishment in life

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Leisure	-.2740	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on leisure, the less satisfaction with the accomplishment in life.

8. Neighborhood

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Family care	-.2335	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on family care, the less satisfaction with the neighborhood.
Rest	.2498	The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on rest, the more satisfaction with the neighborhood.

9. The way of using

spare time

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Food preparation and cleaning	-.2343	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on food preparation and cleaning, the less satisfaction concerning the way of using spare time.
Outdoor chores	-.3722	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on outdoor chores, the less satisfaction concerning the way of using spare time.
Travel	-.2562	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on travel, the less satisfaction concerning the way of using spare time.

10. Children

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Filing and keeping records	-.2500	The negative correlation indicates that the more

(Con't)

time spent on filing
and keeping records, the
less satisfaction with
children.

11. Changes since becoming single parent

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Travel	-.2513	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on travel, the less satisfaction with the changes since becoming a single parent.

12. Financial security

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Leisure	-.2597	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on leisure, the less satisfaction with the financial security.
Rest	.2637	The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on rest, the more satisfaction with the financial security.

13. How interesting day-to-day life is

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Food preparation and cleaning	-.2701	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on food preparation and cleaning, the less satisfaction with the feelings of interesting day-to-day life.
Outdoor chores	-.2414	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on outdoor chores, the less satisfaction with the feelings of interesting day-to-day life.
Leisure	-.3503	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on leisure, the less satisfaction with the feelings of interesting day-to-day life.

14. Health condition

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Special house care	-.2907	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on special house care, the less satisfaction with health condition.

15. Physical needs being met

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Daily household chores	-.2888	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on daily household chores, the less satisfaction with physical needs being met.
Family care	-.2946	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on family care, the less satisfaction with physical needs being met.
Personal improvement	.2403	The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on personal

(Con't)

improvement, the more satisfaction with physical needs being met.

16. Social and emotional needs being met

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Outdoor chores	-.2478	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on outdoor chores, the less satisfaction with social and emotional needs being met.
Personal improvement	.3068	The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on personal improvement, the more satisfaction with social and emotional needs being met.

17. Chance to learn new things or be exposed to new ideas

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Food preparation and cleaning	-.2840	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on food preparation and cleaning, the less

(Con't)

satisfaction with the chance to learn new things or be exposed to new ideas.

Employment

.2831

The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on employment, the more satisfaction with the chance to learn new things or be exposed to new ideas.

Shopping

-.2832

The negative correlation indicates the more time spent on shopping, the less satisfaction with the chance to learn new things.

18. Sense of belonging

Time spent on r_s Correlation Meaning

Communication

.2405

The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on communication, the more satisfaction with the feelings of belonging.

19. Receiving respect

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Leisure	-.3900	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on leisure, the less satisfaction with the feelings of receiving respect.
Social activities	-.2830	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on social activities, the less satisfaction with the feelings of receiving respect.
Personal improvement	.2700	The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on personal improvement, the more satisfaction with the feelings of receiving respect.

20. Time spent on household work

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Personal improvement	.3021	The positive correlation indicates that the more

(Con't)

time spent on personal improvement, the more satisfaction with the time spent on household work.

21. Household work accomplished

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Family care	.2347	The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on family care, the more satisfaction with the feeling of accomplishment in household work.
Filing and keeping records	-.2868	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on filing and keeping records, the less satisfaction with the feeling of accomplishment in household work.

22. Time spent with family

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Leisure	.2453	The position correlation indicates that the more

(Con't)

time spent on leisure,
the more satisfaction
concerning time spent
with family.

Employment	-.2558	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on employment, the less satisfaction concerning time spent with family.
Filing and keeping records	-.3712	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on filing and keeping records, the less satisfaction concerning time spent with family.

23. Time spent with children

<u>Time spent on</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
Leisure	.3621	The positive correlation indicates that the more time spent on leisure, the more satisfaction concerning time spent with children.

Employment	-.5083	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on employment, the less satisfaction concerning time spent with children.
Filing and keeping records	-.3842	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on filing and keeping records, the less satisfaction concerning time spent with children.

Question 4

Is there a relationship between the time spent per day doing total household work by single-female parents and satisfaction of general life concerns?

In this study, household work is defined as the combination of time used on food preparation and cleaning, regular household chores, special house care, personal and family care, outdoor chores and car care, shopping, and filing and keeping records.

The Spearman Correlation statistic was used to test the correlation between time spent on household work and satisfaction with general life concerns. All Spearman Correlations were tested for significance at the .05 level. Table 42 shows the results of the Spearman Correlation between the time spent on household work

TABLE 42

SUMMARY OF SPEARMAN RANK-ORDER CORRELATION
COEFFICIENTS FOR TIME SPENT PER DAY ON
HOUSEHOLD WORK AND SATISFACTION WITH
GENERAL LIFE CONCERNS BY 51
SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS

Variables	r_s	Significance
1. life-as-a-whole	-.0265	.427
2. family life	.0361	.401
3. independence	-.1263	.189
4. accepted by others	.0837	.280
5. job ^a		
6. standard of living	-.2051	.075
7. how much fun are having	-.1410	.162
8. house	-.1815	.102
9. accomplishment in life	-.2536	.037*
10. neighborhood	.0547	.352
11. way of using spare time	-.2558	.035*
12. self	-.0939	.257
13. children	.0047	.488
14. change since becoming a single parent	-.0991	.245
15. financial security	-.1130	.216
16. how interesting day-to- day life	-.2606	.033*
17. health condition	-.1705	.116
18. physical needs are met	-.4669	.001**
19. social and emotional needs are met	-.1219	.198
20. be exposed to new ideas	-.1331	.176
21. sense of belonging	.0533	.356
22. respect received	-.0636	.329
23. way of using time	.0316	.413
24. way of using money	.0295	.419
25. time spent on household work	-.2397	.046*
26. household work accomplished	-.0436	.381
27. chance to express feelings	.1029	.237
28. time spent with family	.0152	.458
29. time spent with children	.0312	.415

^aSince only 7 subjects had on-scale responses, this was not sufficient to compute meaningful statistics.

*Significance < .05

**Significance < .005

and satisfaction with general life concerns. Following are the interpretations for the correlations, which were significant at the .05 level.

<u>Variables</u>	<u>r_s</u>	<u>Correlation Meaning</u>
1. Accomplishment in life	-.2536	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on household work, the less satisfied with accomplishments in life.
2. Use of spare time	-.2558	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on household work, the less satisfied with use of spare time.
3. Interesting day- to-day life	-.2606	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on household work, the less satisfied with the interestingness of day-to-day life.
4. Physical needs are met	-.4669	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on household work, the less satisfied with physical needs being met.

5. Time spent on household work	-.2397	The negative correlation indicates that the more time spent on household work, the less satisfied with the way time is spent on household activities.
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Question 5

Is there a relationship between demographic variables of age, level of education, family income, number of children and age of the youngest child in the family and satisfaction with life-as-a-whole, family domains and resources, and self evaluation criteria?

An individual's feeling about quality of life is a summary evaluation based on 1) how the individual feels about life-as-a-whole, 2) how the individual feels about various domains of life, such as family life, children, standard of living, house, neighborhood, and financial security, and 3) the degree to which the individual is able to fulfill such criteria evaluation as self, independence, acceptance by others, how much fun is being experienced, changes since becoming a single parent, and sense of belonging (Sontag et al, 1979).

Two new variables which are family domains and resources, and self evaluation criteria were created to test the satisfaction with the quality of life experienced by single-female parents. In this study, family domains and resources are defined as the sum of the feelings concerning family life, children, house, neighborhood,

standard of living and financial security. The self evaluation criteria is defined as the sum of the feelings about self, independence, acceptance by others, amount of fun experienced, sense of belonging, and changes since becoming a single parent.

The Spearman Correlation statistic was used to identify which variables were related to the satisfaction with quality of life by the 51 single-female parents. All Spearman Correlations were tested for significance at the .05 level.

Table 43 shows the results of the Spearman Correlation statistics test. The results indicated that the number of children correlated significantly with satisfaction with life-as-a-whole ($r_s = .2613$). The positive correlation indicates that single-female parents who have more children in the family are more satisfied with their life-as-a-whole than those who have fewer children in the family.

Age of the respondent ($r_s = .2400$) and family income ($r_s = .2468$) correlated significantly with the family domains and resources. These positive correlations indicate that the older single-female parents are, the more satisfaction they feel with their family domains. In addition, the study showed that the higher the income, the greater the satisfaction with their family domains.

No significant correlation was found between any of the five demographic variables and satisfaction with self evaluation criteria (see Table 43).

The distribution data on satisfaction with life-as-a-whole by number of children in the family is shown on Table 44. Single-female parents having only one child in the family had the lowest

TABLE 43

SUMMARY OF SPEARMAN RANK-ORDER CORRELATION
COEFFICIENTS FOR THE FIVE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES
(AGE, LEVEL OF EDUCATION, FAMILY INCOME,
NUMBER OF CHILDREN, AND AGE OF THE YOUNGEST
CHILD IN THE FAMILY) AND LIFE-AS-A-WHOLE,
AND THE TWO COMPOSITE VARIABLES OF
FAMILY DOMAINS AND RESOURCES,
AND SELF EVALUATION CRITERIA BY
51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS

	Life-as-a-whole		Family Domains & Resources		Self Evalua- tion Criteria	
	r_s	Sig.	r_s	Sig.	r_s	Sig.
Age	.1084	.255	.2400	.045*	.2293	.053
Education	-.0335	.408	-.1385	.167	-.1376	.168
Family Income	.0822	.284	.2468	.041*	.1577	.135
No. of children	.2613	.032*	.0307	.416	.1405	.163
Age of the youngest child	-.0695	.315	.1127	.216	-.0232	.436

*Significance < .05

TABLE 44
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SATISFACTION
WITH LIFE-AS-A-WHOLE FOR 51 SINGLE-
FEMALE PARENTS BASED ON NUMBER OF
CHILDREN IN THE FAMILY

Number of Children	N	Mean	S.D.
1	13	2.85	0.55
2	16	3.25	1.13
3	13	3.23	1.01
4	2	3.50	0.71
5	4	3.25	0.50
8	1	4.00	0
11	1	3.00	0
13	1	4.00	0
Total	51	3.18	0.89

score ($\bar{X} = 2.85$) on satisfaction with life-as-a-whole, and those having 8 or more children in the family had the highest score ($\bar{X} = 3.67$) on satisfaction with life-as-a-whole.

The distribution data of means and standard deviations of satisfaction with family domains and resources by age of the respondent and by level of education are shown on Table 45 and Table 46. Single-female parents between the ages of 36 and 40 were most satisfied with their family domains and resources ($\bar{X} = 3.44$). Single-female parents who were under 25 and younger were least satisfied

TABLE 45
 MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SATISFACTION
 WITH FAMILY DOMAINS AND RESOURCES FOR
 51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS BASED ON AGE
 OF THE RESPONDENT

Age of the Respondent	N	Mean	S.D.
Under 20	1	2.33	0
21 - 25	13	3.05	.70
26 - 30	11	3.11	.59
31 - 35	11	3.42	.68
36 - 40	9	3.44	.74
41 - 45	3	3.28	.25
46 - 50	3	3.11	.51
Total	51	3.22	.65

TABLE 46

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SATISFACTION
WITH FAMILY DOMAINS AND RESOURCES FOR
51 SINGLE-FEMALE PARENTS BASED ON LEVEL
OF EDUCATION OF THE RESPONDENT

Level of Education	N	Mean	S.D.
Under 6 grade	2	3.08	.12
Jr. High	4	3.63	.49
1 - 3 High School	15	3.29	.68
High School Graduate	16	3.22	.65
1 - 3 College	13	3.01	.74
B.A. & Higher	1	3.33	0
Total	51	3.22	.65

with their family domains and resources ($\bar{X} = 2.99$). Satisfaction with family domains and resources also varied according to the level of education. Single-female parents having 1 - 3 years college education background were least satisfied with their family domains and resources; those who had only a junior high schooling background were the most satisfied ($\bar{X} = 3.63$) with their family domains and resources.

Question 6

Is there a relationship between race and satisfaction with general life concerns?

In an effort to determine whether there are significant differences between white and non-whites on satisfaction of single-female parents' general life concerns, Chi-square statistic was performed. Examination was made of race individually in relationship to feelings of life concerns.

Table 47 shows the descriptive data on the Chi-square analysis, degrees of freedom, and significance between race and satisfaction with general life concerns. Some aspects of life concerns merit discussion.

1. Life-as-a-whole

In analyzing the relationship between race and feelings about life-as-a-whole, the data showed that fewer than half of the white and non-white single-female parents felt happy or very happy about their life-as-a-whole. Table 48 shows the distribution of responses. It should be noted that only non-white single-female parents reported very negative (very unhappy) and very positive (very happy) attitudes about their life-as-a-whole. In general, single-female parents appear to be less satisfied concerning their feelings about life-as-a-whole.

The Chi-square probability level for satisfaction with life-as-a-whole by race was ($P = .4356$). Because it was not significant at the .05 level, it may be concluded that there is no significant relationship between race and satisfaction with life-as-a-whole for this sample.

2. Family life

Table 49 shows the distribution of scores on satisfaction with family life by race. Approximately 67 percent of the respondents

TABLE 47
 DESCRIPTIVE DATA ON CHI-SQUARE, DEGREES OF
 FREEDOM, AND PROBABILITY BETWEEN RACE
 AND SATISFACTION WITH GENERAL LIFE
 CONCERNS

Race and satisfaction with	Chi-square	Degrees of Freedom	Probability
1. life-as-a-whole	3.78684	4	.4356
2. family life	.80394	4	.9479
3. independence	4.59845	4	.3310
4. accepted by others	3.89175	5	.5651
5. job	3.34819	4	.5013
6. standard of living	14.04763	5	.0153*
7. how much fun are you having	2.87073	5	.7199
8. house or apartment	4.14852	5	.5282
9. accomplishment in life	6.35025	5	.2736
10. neighborhood	6.65073	4	.1555
11. spare time	5.36745	4	.2516
12. self	4.00282	5	.5490
13. children	3.11755	2	.2104
14. changes since becoming single parent	7.37024	5	.1945
15. financial security	5.38182	5	.3711
16. how interesting daily life is	5.11710	6	.5289
17. health condition	6.24603	4	.1815
18. whether physical needs are met	2.93804	4	.5682
19. whether social emotional needs are met	5.86459	5	.3196
20. chance be exposed to new ideas	5.73637	6	.4534
21. sense of belonging	1.89949	5	.8629
22. amount respect recieved	4.02974	5	.5451
23. the way of using time	7.33673	5	.1968
24. the way of using money	1.94757	4	.7454
25. time spent on housework	4.53940	6	.6041
26. when housework accomplished	3.23370	3	.3570
27. the way you express feelings	3.97043	4	.4100
28. time spent with family	9.38168	4	.0522
29. time spent with children	9.09724	4	.0587

*Significance < .05

TABLE 48

CROSSTABULATION OF RACE WITH SATISFACTION
WITH LIFE-AS-A-WHOLE BY 51 SINGLE-
FEMALE PARENTS

Race	Level of Satisfaction					Raw Total
	very unhappy	unhappy	mixed	happy	very happy	
White	0 0	4 (7.8) ^a	10 (19.6)	9 (17.6)	0 0	23 (45.1)
Non- white	2 (3.9)	4 (7.8)	12 (23.5)	8 (15.7)	2 (3.9)	28 (54.9)
Column Total	2 (3.9)	8 (15.7)	22 (43.1)	17 (33.3)	2 (3.9)	51 (100.0)

^aPercentages are based on total number of respondents respectively.

Chi-square = 3.78684 with 4 df; P = .4356

TABLE 49

CROSSTABULATION OF RACE WITH SATISFACTION
WITH FAMILY LIFE BY 51 SINGLE-
FEMALE PARENTS

Race	Level of Satisfaction					Raw Total
	very unhappy	unhappy	mixed	happy	very happy	
White	1 (2.0) ^a	1 (2.0)	7 (13.7)	10 (19.6)	4 (7.8)	23 (45.1)
Non - white	1 (2.0)	1 (2.0)	6 (11.8)	13 (25.5)	7 (13.7)	28 (54.9)
Column Total	2 (3.9)	2 (3.9)	13 (25.5)	23 (54.1)	11 (21.6)	51 (100.0)

^aPercentages are based on total number of respondents respectively.

Chi-square = .80349 with 4 df; P = .9379

were satisfied with their family life. When examined by means of a Chi-square test the significance level ($P = .9379$) does not meet the criteria of a .05 level; therefore, there appears to be no significant relationship between race and satisfaction with family life for this sample.

3. Children

Table 50 shows the distribution scores on race and satisfaction with children. A majority of all single-female parents were satisfied with their children. The non-white single-female parents indicated a slightly higher satisfaction with children than did white single-female parents.

However, the Chi-square statistic yielded a raw Chi-square of 3.11755 with 2 degrees of freedom. The probability level was ($P = .2104$). Therefore, there appears to be no significant relationship between race and satisfaction with children for this sample.

4. Standard of living

Table 51 shows the distribution scores of race and satisfaction with standard of living. On the average, neither white nor non-white single-female parents were very happy with their standard of living. Non-white single-female parents were slightly more satisfied with their standard of living than white single parents. More than half of the white single parents reported that they had mixed feelings about their standard of living. Three non-white single parents reported having neutral feelings; one white single parent reported that she never thought about it.

The Chi-square test yielded a raw Chi-square of 14.04763

TABLE 50
CROSSTABULATION OF RACE WITH SATISFACTION
WITH CHILDREN BY 51 SINGLE-FEMALE
PARENTS

Race	Level of Satisfaction					Raw Total
	very unhappy	unhappy	mixed	happy	very happy	
White	0 0	0 0	4 (7.8) ^a	5 (9.8)	14 (27.5)	23 (45.1)
Non- white	0 0	0 0	1 (2.0)	5 (9.8)	22 (43.1)	28 (54.9)
Column Total	0 0	0 0	5 (9.8)	10 (19.6)	36 (70.6)	51 (100.0)

^aPercentages are based on total number of respondents respectively.

Chi-square = 3.11755 with 2 df; P = .2104

TABLE 51
CROSSTABULATION OF RACE WITH SATISFACTION
WITH STANDARD OF LIVING BY 51 SINGLE-
FEMALE PARENTS

Race	Level of Satisfaction							Raw Total
	very unhappy	unhappy	mixed	happy	very happy	neutral	never thought	
White	4 (7.8) ^a	2 (3.9)	13 (25.5)	3 (5.9)	0 0	0 0	1 (2.0)	23 (45.1)
Non- white	6 (11.8)	4 (7.8)	4 (7.8)	11 (21.6)	0 0	3 (5.9)	0 0	28 (54.9)
Column Total	10 (19.6)	6 (11.8)	17 (33.3)	14 (27.5)	0 0	3 (5.9)	1 (2.0)	51 (100.0)

^aPercentages are based on total number of respondents respectively.

Chi-square = 14.04763 with 5 df; P = .0153

with 5 degrees of freedom. The probability level was ($P = .0153$). Thus, there appears to be a significant relationship between race and satisfaction with standard of living for this sample.

5. Financial security

Table 52 shows the distribution scores of race and satisfaction with financial security. Generally, single-female parents were not satisfied with their financial security. A larger proportion of non-white single parents indicated dissatisfaction with their financial security than white single parents. One white single parent reported that she felt very happy about her financial security; none of the non-white single parents had this positive feeling. One non-white single parent reported having neutral feelings about her financial security.

The Chi-square test with five degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, no significant relationship was demonstrated between race and satisfaction with financial security for this sample.

6. Changes since becoming single parent

Table 53 shows the distribution of scores for race and satisfaction with the changes since becoming a single parent. White single-female parents show slightly more positive than negative feelings concerning the change since becoming single parents. Non-white single-female parents showed more dissatisfaction with the change since becoming single parents. One white single parent reported having neutral feelings about the change.

The Chi-square test yielded a raw Chi-square of 7.37024 with

TABLE 52
 CROSSTABULATION OF RACE WITH SATISFACTION
 WITH FINANCIAL SECURITY BY 51 SINGLE-
 FEMALE PARENTS

Race	Level of Satisfaction						Raw Total
	very unhappy	unhappy	mixed	happy	very happy	neutral	
White	9 (17.6) ^a	4 (7.8)	8 (15.7)	1 (2.0)	1 (2.0)	0 0	23 (45.1)
Non- white	14 (27.5)	6 (11.8)	4 (7.8)	3 (5.9)	0 0	1 (2.0)	28 (54.9)
Column Total	23 (45.1)	10 (19.6)	12 (23.5)	4 (7.8)	1 (2.0)	1 (2.0)	51 (100.0)

^aPercentages are based on total number of respondents respectively.

Chi-square = 5.38182 with 5 df; P = .3711

TABLE 53
 CROSSTABULATION OF RACE WITH SATISFACTION
 WITH THE CHANGES SINCE BECOMING
 SINGLE-PARENTS BY 51 SINGLE-
 FEMALE PARENTS

Race	Level of Satisfaction						Total
	very unhappy	unhappy	mixed	happy	very happy	never thought	
White	2 (3.9) ^a	2 (3.9)	4 (7.8)	9 (17.6)	5 (9.8)	1 (2.0)	23 (45.1)
Non- white	2 (3.9)	11 (21.6)	4 (7.8)	8 (15.7)	3 (5.9)	0 0	28 (54.9)
Column Total	4 (7.8)	13 (25.5)	8 (15.7)	17 (33.3)	8 (15.7)	1 (2.0)	51 (100.0)

^aPercentages are based on total number of respondents respectively.

Chi-square = 7.37024 with 5 df; P = .1945

5 degrees of freedom. The probability level was (.1945). Therefore, there apparently is no significant relationship between race and satisfaction with the change since becoming single parents for this sample.

The T-test was used in this study to determine whether or not there was a significant difference between whites and non-whites in the satisfaction with life-as-a-whole, family domains and resources¹ and self evaluation criteria.²

The T-test provides the means for computing student's t and probability levels for testing whether or not the difference between two sample means is significant. "Significant" here does not mean "important" or "consequence"; it is used here to mean "indicative of" or "signifying" a true difference between the two populations (Nie et al, 1975). All T-tests were tested for significance at the .05 level.

Table 54 shows the results of the T-test. There is no significant difference in perceived satisfaction with life-as-a-whole between white and non-white single-female parents. From the means, white single-female parents showed little more satisfaction with their lives than non-white single-female parents. Also there is no significant difference in perceived satisfaction with self evaluation criteria between white and non-white single-female parents.

There is a significant difference in perceived satisfaction

^{1,2}The definitions of "family domains and resources" and "self evaluation criteria" were presented in chapter I, "Operational Definitions" section.

TABLE 54
RESULTS OF T-TEST FOR RACE AND SATISFACTION WITH LIFE-AS-A-WHOLE,
FAMILY DOMAINS AND RESOURCES, AND SELF EVALUATION CRITERIA

Variables	Race	Number	Mean	S.D.	T-value	Degree of Freedom	2-tail Probability
Life-as-a- whole	White	23	3.22	.736	.30	49	.769
	Non-white	28	3.14	1.008			
Family domains and resources	White	23	3.24	.446	.24	43.85	.810
	Non-white	28	3.20	.792			
Self evaluation criteria	White	23	3.56	.734	.48	49	.632
	Non-white	28	3.46	.737			

with family domains and resources between white and non-white single-parents. White single-female parents were more satisfied with their family domains and resources than non-white single-female parents.

Question 7

Is there a relationship between work status and satisfaction with general life concerns?

To determine whether work status may have an influence on satisfaction of single-female parents' general life concerns, Cross-tabulation and Chi-square were used to test the results.

Table 55 shows the descriptive data on Chi-square, degrees of freedom, and significance between work status and satisfaction with general life concerns. In this study, approximately 86 percent of the subjects were not employed; the discussion is focused only on those with a significant relationship at .05 level.

1. Job

Since there were only seven of the subjects (14%) who were employed, the number was not sufficient to compute meaningful statistics.

2. Accomplishment in life

Single-female parents' work status had a significant relationship with their feelings about accomplishments in their lives.

The Chi-square test revealed a raw Chi-square of 15.63738 with 5 degrees of freedom ($P = .008$) (see Table 55).

Table 56 shows the distribution of responses on satisfaction with accomplishment based on work status. Two subjects reported they were very unhappy with their feelings about their accomplishments

TABLE 55

DESCRIPTIVE DATA ON CHI-SQUARE, DEGREES OF FREEDOM,
AND PROBABILITY BETWEEN WORK STATUS AND SATISFACTION
WITH GENERAL LIFE CONCERNS

Work Status and Satisfaction With	Chi-square	Degrees of Freedom	Probability
1. life-as-a-whole	.96744	4	.9292
2. family life	5.05425	4	.2818
3. independence	3.99058	4	.4073
4. how much accepted by others	1.53461	5	.9090
5. job ^a			
6. standard of living	4.89184	5	.4292
7. how much fun are you having	5.06538	5	.4080
8. house	9.74780	5	.0827
9. accomplishment in life	15.63738	5	.0080*
10. neighborhood	6.41263	4	.1704
11. spent your spare time	1.68197	4	.7940
12. self	1.53757	5	.9087
13. children	3.28685	2	.1933
14. changes since becoming single parent	6.50716	5	.2600
15. financial security	7.57045	5	.1816
16. how interesting daily life	5.57437	6	.4725
17. health condition	2.12569	4	.7127
18. physical needs are met	2.58312	4	.6298
19. social and emotional needs are met	3.28685	5	.6559
20. chance be exposed to new ideas	9.51992	6	.1464
21. sense of belonging	5.33773	5	.3761
22. amount of respect you received	5.32609	5	.3774
23. the way using time	6.17757	5	.2893
24. the way using money	1.05501	4	.9013
25. time spent on housework	1.37566	6	.9673
26. housework accomplished	2.08360	3	.5552
27. the way you express feelings	1.04017	4	.9036
28. time spent with family	6.96282	4	.1379
29. time spent with children	16.39976	4	.0025*

^aSince only 7 subjects had on-scale responses, this was not sufficient to compute meaningful statistics.

*Significant < .05

TABLE 56

CROSSTABULATION OF WORK STATUS WITH SATISFACTION
WITH ACCOMPLISHMENT IN LIFE BY 51 SINGLE-
FEMALE PARENTS

Work Status	Level of Satisfaction						Raw Total
	very unhappy	unhappy	mixed	happy	very happy	neutral	
Working	2 (3.9) ^a	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (5.9)	1 (2.0)	1 (2.0)	7 (13.7)
Not Working	2 (3.9)	9 (17.6)	17 (33.3)	13 (25.5)	3 (5.9)	0 (0)	44 (86.3)
Column Total	4 (7.8)	9 (17.6)	17 (33.3)	16 (31.4)	4 (7.8)	1 (2.0)	51 (100.0)

^aPercentages are based on total number of respondents respectively.

Chi-square = 15.63738 with 5 df; P = .0080.

in life. One subject reported that she had neutral feelings about her accomplishment in life. The majority of unemployed single females (64.7%) reported having mixed or happy feelings about their accomplishments.

3. Time spent with children

The Chi-square statistic tested the relationship between work status and satisfaction with time spent with children; the result was a raw Chi-square 16.39976 with 4 degrees of freedom (P = .0025). There is a significant relationship between work status and satisfaction with time spent with children (see Table 55).

The distribution scores on work status and satisfaction with

time spent with children is shown in Table 57. A majority (78.4%) of unemployed single-female parents reported that they were happy or very happy about the amount of time they spent with their children. None of the unemployed single parents reported that they were very unhappy with the time spent on children. Employed single-female parents were also generally satisfied with the time spent with their children. However, one employed and one unemployed single mother reported that they were very unhappy about the time they spent with their children.

TABLE 57
CROSSTABULATION OF WORK STATUS WITH SATISFACTION
WITH TIME SPENT WITH CHILDREN BY 51 SINGLE-
FEMALE PARENTS

Work Status	Level of Satisfaction					Raw Total
	very unhappy	unhappy	mixed	happy	very happy	
Working	1 (2.0) ^a	1 (2.0)	1 (2.0)	3 (5.9)	1 (2.0)	7 (13.7)
Not Working	0 (0)	1 (2.0)	3 (5.9)	5 (9.8)	35 (68.6)	44 (86.3)
Column Total	1 (2.0)	2 (3.9)	4 (7.8)	8 (15.7)	36 (70.6)	51 (100.0)

^aPercentages are based on total number of respondents respectively.

Chi-square = 16.39976 with 4 df; P = .0025.

The T-test was also used in this study to determine whether or not there was a significant difference by work status in the satisfaction with life-as-a-whole, family domains and resources, and self evaluation criteria. Table 58 shows the results of the T-test. The T-test indicated that there were no significant differences between the group means of the work status and satisfaction with life-as-a-whole, family domains and resources, and self evaluation criteria.

TABLE 58
RESULTS OF T-TEST FOR WORK STATUS AND SATISFACTION WITH LIFE-AS-A-WHOLE,
FAMILY DOMAINS AND RESOURCES, AND SELF EVALUATION CRITERIA

Variables	Work Status	Number	Mean	S.D.	T-value	Degree of Freedom	2-tail Probability
Life-as-a-whole	working	7	3.29	.756	.35	49	.730
	not working	44	3.16	.914			
Family domains & resources	working	7	3.36	.634	.61	49	.543
	not working	44	3.19	.661			
Self evalu. criteria	working	7	3.50	.765	-.01	49	.990
	not working	44	3.50	.734			

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter, the results of the study are summarized and discussed. Conclusions are stated and implications for future research and training outlined.

Summary

The overall objective of this study was to develop baseline data concerning how low-income, single-female parents spend time and view the quality of their lives. Data were gathered via face-to-face interviews and questionnaires. Statistical tests were employed to examine possible significant relationships between the time spent on household work activities, and perceived quality of life, as measured by selected demographic variables: age of the respondent, level of education, family income, number of children, and age of the youngest child in the family.

The population for the study was identified by the Michigan State University Cooperative Extension Service Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP). Four Michigan counties--Berrien, Ingham, Kalamazoo, and Wayne--were selected as the sites from which subjects would be drawn. Fifty-one single-female parents completed the study and served as the basis for analysis.

Two thirds of the respondents in the sample were between

21-35 years of age. They were about half white and half non-white. The majority of families were mother-child families. Eighty percent had three or fewer children. Over half had pre-school children. Sixty percent of the respondents had completed high school, and over one-fourth had some college education. Only 12 percent of the families had incomes above \$7,000.

Time Use Patterns

The way people use time reflects a combination of preferences and constraints built into the way their life is organized. The results of this study showed that single-female parents allocated their time along rather traditional lines. They spent an average of 7.7 hours per day on household work, 8.3 hours per day on rest, and 8.0 hours per day on non-housework activities. The household work as defined in this study included: food preparation and cleaning, daily and regular household chores, special house care, personal and family care, outdoor chores and car care, shopping, and filing and keeping records. Non-household activities included: leisure activities by oneself, social activities with other people, employment, volunteer work, personal improvement, travel and communication.

Previous studies (Walker and Woods, 1976; Nickols, 1978; McCullough, 1980) have shown that the age of the youngest child in the family is one of the most important factors in determining the amount of time spent in household work. Total time spent in household work decreases as the youngest child gets older (Nickols and Fox, 1980). This was reaffirmed in this study of single-female-parent families. Eighty percent of all families with children under 3 years old reported

that the single-mother spent 4-5 hours per day on child care. As the child's age increased, physical care time decreased. The biggest drop for time spent on child care was in the 15-18 age group, with single-mothers reporting less than one-half hour spent on child care.

Time spent on food preparation and clean up showed no significant difference over all samples. All families spent on the average two and a half hours per day on food preparation and clean up. In families with children age 2-6, mothers spent a slightly longer time on food preparation. Time spent on household chores and clothing care averaged about one hour per day. It varied slightly, depending on whether the single-mother was employed or not. Walker and Woods (1976) found that in their two-parent families' sample, non-employed wives spent an average of 2.4 hours per day on all food preparation. There is no significant difference between time spent on food preparation by single-female parent families and two-parent families.

Leisure activities were restricted by transportation. Single-female parents spent considerable time watching T.V. Social activities were limited to visiting relatives and church activities. Single-female parents spent on the average more than five hours per day watching T.V., and averaged about two hours per day visiting relatives. Eighty-six percent of all participants in the study were not employed. Employment was not a major factor influencing time use patterns.

The study found that a minimum amount of time was spent on maintenance of home, repairing or fixing equipment, care of yard, care of car and recreational activities.

Quality of Life

In this study, respondents were asked to express their feelings about their lives. Satisfaction with life concerns was based on various domains of life and the individual's values. Many factors influence people's feelings about their quality of life. This study found that feelings about family life make the most significant contribution to a woman's feelings about her life-as-a-whole. Women who felt very satisfied with their family life were most likely to feel very satisfied with their total life. This supports other research related to this matter (Sontag et al, 1979).

"What does 'quality of life' mean to you?" was asked in this study to test the perception of quality of life. Respondents were given seven choices: having enough income, having enough time for yourself, having enough time for children and family, having enough time for your personal improvement, having a new car, new furniture, or new clothes, having religious faith, and other. Respondents could check as many as applied. Seventy-three percent of the respondents in the study indicated that having enough time for their children or family signified quality of life to them; 63 percent chose having enough income; and 41 percent chose having religious faith. Additionally, respondents were asked to identify which one answer was the most important to them. Having time for children and family was selected as the most important one; having enough income was second in importance, and having religious faith was third.

To examine single-female parents' feelings about their lives, respondents were asked the question, "How do you feel about your

life-as-a-whole?" A five-point scale was used: 1 = very unhappy, 2 = unhappy, 3 = mixed feelings--about equally happy and unhappy, 4 = happy, 5 = very happy. Thirty-seven percent of the respondents felt happy or very happy about their life-as-a-whole; 43 percent had mixed feelings, and 20 percent reported that they felt unhappy or very unhappy about their life-as-a-whole.

In this study of single-female parent families, 65 percent of the respondents felt satisfied and happy about their own family life, 70 percent of respondents reported that they felt happy or very happy about their own health condition. Seventy-two percent reported that they felt happy about the time the family spent together; 85 percent felt happy about the time they spent with their children. However, only 40 percent of the respondents felt happy about the way they used their time.

Forty percent of the respondents felt unsatisfied or unhappy about their standard of living; 33 percent had mixed feelings. Thirty-five percent felt unhappy about their house or apartment, and 23 percent had mixed feelings. Thirty-five percent felt unhappy about their neighborhood, and 33 percent had mixed feelings.

Sixty-five percent of the respondents felt unhappy about their financial security; 33 percent felt unhappy about their life since becoming a single-parent, and 16 percent reported mixed feelings; 35 percent felt unhappy because their physical needs could not be met, and 32 percent reported mixed feelings.

In general, the study found that single-female parents put high value on their children, and most of them were well satisfied

and happy with their children. Their feelings about living conditions were very low; most of the respondents were not satisfied with their financial security.

In conclusion, the results of this study showed that the majority of the 51 single-female-headed parents felt unhappy or dissatisfied with their lives. We can thus conclude that they assess their quality of life in a negative manner.

Discussion

Many researchers (Walker and Woods, 1976; Nickols, 1976; Sanik, 1979; McCullough, 1980) have studied time use in two-parent families. Few studies have been concerned with single-female-parent families. Is there any significant difference between time used on household work by two-parent families and single-female-parent families? Some comparisons are as follows:

1. Food Preparation and Cleaning

Walker and Woods (1976) found that when the homemakers were not employed, the total time spent on all food related activities averaged between 2.3 hours a day in one-child families and 4.1 hours a day in families with five and six children. Employed homemakers used between 2.0 to 3.3 hours a day on food related activities. In this single-female parents' study, homemakers averaged 2.4 hours per day in food preparation and cleaning. There appears no difference between two-parent family homemakers and single-parent homemakers.

2. Daily or Regular Household Chores

Walker and Woods (1976) in their study found an average of

1.1 hours a day spent on regular household care by all employed and nonemployed wives. They found that the age of the youngest child had a consistent effect on total time spent on household care when wives were not employed. Single-female parents reported spending an average of 1.28 hours per day on regular household chores. The data showed that the age of the youngest child had a positive effect on the amount of time spent on regular household chores. The number of children in the family was not a major factor in influencing the use of time on regular household chores, possibly because some single-female-parent families reported that older children helped to do some household chores. It showed apparently no difference between time spent on regular household chores by two-parent-family homemakers and single-parent-family homemakers.

3. Personal and Family Care

An average of two hours a day was spent on family care by unemployed wives in Walker and Woods' (1976) study. Their study showed that whether or not the wives were employed, the total time spent on any kind of family care was the greatest in household work in which the youngest child was under one year old. Time spent showed a decline as the age of the youngest child increased.

This single-female-parent study found that an average of 2.5 hours a day was spent on family care; it also showed a strong relationship between the time spent and the age of the youngest child in the family. Compared with two-parent families, single-female parents spent a half hour more on family care, possibly because of the absence of a father in the family.

4. Outdoor Chores and Car Care

Walker and Woods (1976) found that the average daily time spent on outdoor chores and car care was 0.6 hour (36 minutes) a day in nonemployed wives' household and 0.4 hour (24 minutes) a day in employed-wife households. The single-female-parent study showed an average of 0.17 hour (10 minutes) a day on outdoor chores and car care. This represented much less time spent on these activities than in Walker and Woods' study. Seventy percent of the single-female-parent families were living in an apartment, and more than half of the single-female parents had no car. Living in an apartment and absence of an auto helped to explain why single-female parents spent less time on these activities.

5. Leisure Activities

McCullough (1980) found that Utah families spent an average of 4.6 hours per day on leisure time activities. In McCullough's study, the range of leisure time was not evenly distributed. Employed women reported nearly one hour less leisure time per day than did full-time homemakers. The single-female-parent families study found that the average daily time used on leisure activities was 6.9 hours a day. It apparently showed a difference between time spent on leisure activities by two-parent-family homemakers and single-female parents.

6. Other Work Activities

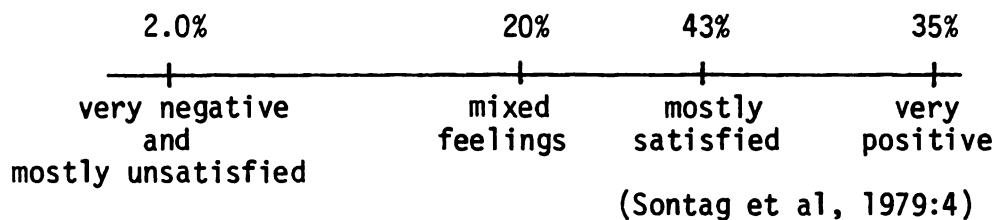
In comparison with Walker and Woods' study (1976), this study of single-female-parent families showed their time allocation along rather traditional lines. Walker and Woods (1976) found an average of 0.7 hour (42 minutes) a day were spent on special house care, 0.6

hour (36 minutes) a day on travel, 0.7 hour (42 minutes) a day on shopping, and 0.4 hour (24 minutes) a day on management activities.

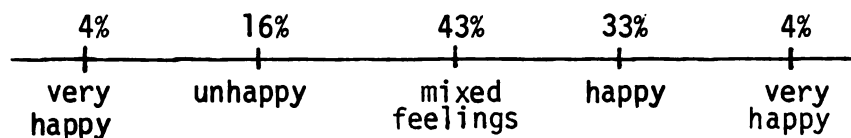
The time spent by the single parents on special house care was 0.47 hour (27 minutes) per day; travel, 0.95 hour (57 minutes) per day; shopping, 0.55 hour (33 minutes) per day; and filing and keeping records, 0.18 hour (11 minutes) per day. It showed some differences between time spent on these activities by two-parent-family homemakers and single-parent females.

Numerous research studies (Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Andrews and Withey, 1976; Bubolz et al, 1980) have found that a large majority of their respondents felt satisfied with their life. However, most of these studies were conducted with two-parent families.

Sontag et al (1979) studied Quality of Life with 237 two-parent families in Oakland County, Michigan. Their findings for the wives' satisfaction with life-as-a-whole were:



In this study of single-female-parent families, the satisfaction with life-as-a-whole was found to be as follows:



Other domains of life are compared with the Sontag, Bubolz and Slocum (1979) two-parent families' study in Table 59.

TABLE 59
SATISFACTION WITH LIFE DOMAINS BASED ON THE COMPARISON OF WIVES
IN TWO-PARENT FAMILIES* AND SINGLE-FEMALE PARENT FAMILIES

Life Domains	two-parent families single-female parents	very negative very unhappy and unhappy	mixed feeling mixed feeling	very positive and satisfied happy and very happy
Family life	two-parent families single-female parents	0.8% 7.8%	18.6% 25.5%	80.6% 66.7%
Children	two-parent families single-female parents	3.7% 0	8.6% 9.8%	87.7% 90.2%
Self	two-parent families single-female parents	5.8% 5.9%	22.0% 27.4%	72.2% 64.7%
House or Apartment	two-parent families single-female parents	9.9% 35.3%	11.2% 23.5%	78.9% 39.2%
Neighborhood	two-parent families single-female parents	6.3% 35.3%	17.6% 33.3%	72.5% 31.4%
Family Income Financial Security	two-parent families single-female parents	13.4% 64.7%	16.8% 23.5%	69.8% 9.8%

*From Sontag, Bubolz and Slocum's study (1979).

In comparison with Sontag, Bubolz and Slocum's (1979) study, single-female parents had a more negative outlook on their lives.

Conclusions

The most important contribution of this research is the base-line data concerning low-income, single-female-parent families' time spent on household activities and satisfaction with quality of life. Several conclusions which can be inferred from this research are:

1. Household work required a significant amount of time for the single-female parent families studies; most of that time was spent on food related activities and family care.
2. In single-female-parent families little time was spent on maintenance tasks, outdoor chores, and care of car.
3. Employment reduced the time spent on household work in single-female-parent families; however, employment did not reduce the time spent by single mothers on food related activities and family care.
4. Age of the youngest child in the family has a significant relationship with time spent on household work by single-female parents. The Spearman Correlation test showed a negative correlation which indicated a decrease in the time used on household work as the age of the youngest child increased.
5. Time spent on food related activities was negatively correlated with respondent's level of education and age of the youngest child

in the family; it showed a positive correlation with the number of children in the family.

6. Time spent on regular household chores was negatively correlated with the age of the youngest child in the family; it did not change significantly with changes in the age of the respondent, level of education, family income, and number of children in the family.
7. Time spent on family care was negatively correlated with age of the respondent, and age of the youngest child in the family.
8. Time spent on employment increases (correlates positively) satisfaction in leading an interesting day-to-day life and having a chance to express new ideas. Employment detracts (correlates negatively) with time spent with family and children.
9. Time spent as a volunteer increases (correlates positively) satisfaction in the areas of family life, independence and having fun.
10. Time spent on personal improvement increases (correlates positively) with satisfaction in such areas as meeting physical and emotional needs and receiving respect.
11. Single-female parents spent an average of 6.9 hours a day on leisure and social activities. The most common leisure activity was watching television, and the most common social activity was visiting relatives or friends. Leisure time activities are important to most of the single-female parents.
12. Children are the central life concern for most single-female parents. Time spent with children is the most important domain

which yields the greatest amount of satisfaction for single-female parents.

13. Financial security is the dimension of family life concern which yields the least satisfaction and is a strong predictor of overall quality of life for single-female parents.
14. The number of children has a significant positive relationship with the satisfaction with life-as-a-whole and family life.
15. Single-female parents evaluated their satisfaction with life-as-a-whole in a negative manner.

Implications for Future Research

The present study was designed as an initial step in data collection related to time spent on household work and satisfaction with quality of life in single-female parent families. A large national random survey is needed so that broader generalizations can be drawn from the results about single-female parents' time use patterns and satisfaction with their quality of life.

The present study attempted to test the relationship between time allocation and satisfaction with life concerns. Data were collected in this study by questionnaires. There are some problems in social surveys involving questionnaires. Social psychologists believe that people's response in social surveys are influenced by 1) how they think the surveyor wants them to respond (Dillehay and Jernigan, 1970); 2) the participant's personal characteristics (Schuman and Converse, 1971). Experimenter bias could influence the respondent's answers. Hobson and Mann (1975) developed the

Lambda indicator which used the mathematical form to measure the discrepancy between two frequency functions for a given work activity, i.e., the amount of time an individual would like to spend in a work activity versus the amount of time an individual actually spent at the activity. The Lambda, a statistical analysis of human time allocation, is a possible tool that could be used in future studies as an indicator for measuring the satisfaction with quality of life.

Many research studies related to time use on household activities are focused on the issue of quantity measurement. Time devoted to the household activities related to the quality of the work done and the subsequent outcomes are few and seldom mentioned. It is generally agreed that individuals do not accomplish the same amount of work in an hour, and the outcomes of the work of two persons also differ within an hour. Research techniques in the qualitative measurement of contribution are needed.

The ability of single-female parents to provide quality time, care and nurturing is affected by their self esteem, economic status, available time, and attitude toward life. The single-female-parent study found that single-female parents reported a high level of satisfaction in the domain of children and a negative outlook on their lives. There is a lack of information concerning the development of self esteem and self identity of single parents. This suggests a possible area for further research.

Studying the time use and life satisfaction patterns of single parent males is another relatively untapped area of research.

While families headed by single male parents may not be facing as severe financial problems as those headed by females, especially minority females, they must confront many of the other problems facing single parent families and do need to be studied.

Another family form, parents having joint custody, also is worthy of research. There is a growing tendency for divorcing or separating couples to seek this option and little is currently known about how such arrangements impact either time use or life satisfaction of the participating parents.

Implications for Future Training

The dramatic increase in the number of single-parent families is a significant change in family composition in recent years. Statistical data shows that two out of five children who were born in the 1970's experience living in a single-parent family for some period before they reach age 18.

The data from this study concerning single-female parents' use of time indicate a need to recognize the importance of time management. Raising children and managing a household alone are time intensive. Single-female parents are confronted with demands that consumer more time and energy due to their role of dual-parent and head of household. By recognizing and practicing effective time management strategies, single-female parents will be able to better organize their time. Hence, single-female parents will be better able to carry things out the way they have planned, and to organize their life more effectively. When single-female parents feel

pretty sure that their life will work out the way they want it to, their self-esteem is enhanced and they will potentially be able to lead more productive lives.

This study suggests the need to better acquaint single-female-parent families with support networks available to them in the community. Further, it suggests the need for communities to provide additional support services for single-female parents which would enhance the ability of these women to create a better life for themselves and their children.

The information generalized in this study suggests a needed input for those trainers who work with low-income, single-parent families. Potential training topics identified by single-female parents are: money management, time management, creative problem solving and decision-making, alternative transportation options, developing a positive image, improving parenting skills, and identifying and accessing community support. The following are some examples for possible training in the future.

1. Single-parent self-help support groups

Many single parents lack self-confidence when dealing with their problems. The single-parent self-help support groups can provide opportunities to share with other people who have similar problems and to build friendships.

2. Workshops or seminars

A series of workshops or seminars can help single-female-parent families in overcoming their family's resource limitations, and in establishing better quality life styles. Some possible

topics for the workshops or seminars include: becoming more aware of resource and productivities in single-parent families; cultivating skills in financial resource management to improve quality of life; recognizing the importance of time management to achieve higher productivity; implementing the growth of a positive relationship between children and single-parent; facilitating the personal transitions of single parenthood in establishing new life styles, and providing awareness of the support from the community.

3. Newsletters

Churches, social service agencies, and community organizations, those who work with single-parent families, can prepare newsletters which provide information on parenting, food buying, budgeting, saving plans, building self-confidence, establishing self-identity, etc.

4. Television programs

Cooperative Extension Service can produce a series of television programs which deal with various aspects of needs for single-parent families. Programs could be transferred to video cassette tapes so that they could be used in a variety of settings or locations.

This study identified the specific and most pressing concerns of single-female parents and suggested additional training to provide professionals assistance in working with these families. Hence, it could be expected that single-female parents would be enabled to better manage their resources and to improve their quality of life.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITY COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH INVOLVING
HUMAN SUBJECTS (UCRIHS)
238 ADMINISTRATION BUILDING
(517) 355-2186

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824

December 2, 1980

Dr. Maxine S. Ferris
Agriculture & Natural Resources Ed. Inst.

Dear Dr. Ferris:

Subject: Proposal Entitled "A Study of Time Use Patterns and
Attitudes of Single-Parent Families with Special
Emphasis on the Female, Low Income and/or Minority
Family-Head"

The above referenced project was recently submitted for review to the UCRIHS.

We are pleased to advise that the rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to be adequately protected and the Committee, therefore, approved this project at its meeting on December 1, 1980.

Projects involving the use of human subjects must be reviewed at least annually. If you plan to continue this project beyond one year, please make provisions for obtaining appropriate UCRIHS approval prior to the anniversary date noted above.

Thank you for bringing this project to our attention. If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to let us know.

Sincerely,



Henry E. Bredeck
Chairman, UCRIHS

HEB/jms

cc: ~~L~~Wamhoff
Wittwer



COOPERATIVE
EXTENSION
SERVICE

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY · U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE & COUNTIES COOPERATING
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR · EAST LANSING, MICHIGAN 48824

September 3, 1980

Mrs. Margaret L. Bucklin
Extension Home Economist
127 East Maple Street
Mason, Mi 48854

Dear Margaret :

My name is Karen Liu, a doctoral student and a graduate research assistant in ANREI under Dr. Maxine Ferris' supervision. Presently, I am working on a study of " Time use patterns and satisfaction with life of single-parent families with special emphasis on the female, low income and/or minority family-head ".

As you know, the single-female-headed family is becoming an increasing phenomenon in the U.S. Most studies on time use and quality of life have emphasized two-parent families. My study is an exploratory experiment in this field and will, we hope, generate information and programming ideas that can be used by Extension Home Economists.

My study involves interviewing 50 low income females who head single-parent families. The research model calls for two interviews per single parent and will each require about one hour per interview. The second interview will occur three days after the first interview. To get a broader based sampling, I would like to use single parents in Berrien, Ingham, Kalamazoo, and Wayne Counties. Interviews are scheduled to take place in October, November, and December of this year.

Would you be willing to assist me in identifying persons to interview ? You would not be involved in conducting interviews, nor would those being interviewed be told that you identified them. I have my own transportation, and other than the time you spend with me in the identification process, no other obligation on your part is intended. Both Dr. Ferris and Mrs. Niernan wanted me to assure you that your involvement is strictly " voluntary ". However, personally, I really do hope you are willing to assist. I will be calling you later this month to get your answer and to schedule a work-session with you, at your convenience, if you feel you can help.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Karen Liu

Karen Liu
Graduate Research Assistant

Maxine Ferris

Dr. Maxine Ferris
Associate Professor

KL/MF:tr



(517) 355-6580

410 Agriculture Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan 48824

MSU is an Affirmative Action / Equal Opportunity Institution

This letter was also sent to Ann M. Nieuwenhuis, Kalamazoo County EHE; Eleanor C. Rhinesmith, Wayne County EHE, and Sandra C. Steward, Berrien County EHE.



COOPERATIVE
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MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY • U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE & COUNTIES COOPERATING

Expanded Nutrition Program
202 Willis House
East Lansing, MI 48824
Phone: 517-353-9102

September 10, 1980

Mrs. Margaret L. Bucklin
Extension Home Economist
127 East Maple Street
Mason, MI 48854

Dear Margaret:

Enclosed you will find a letter prepared by Karen Liu and Maxine Ferris regarding a doctoral study program Karen is pursuing. The program, as explained very nicely in her letter, emphasizes the need to identify female low-income heads of households. EFNEP homemakers would be prime candidates for this interview. I do hope you will be able to recommend some families in your county with whom she might visit individually. Her total study needs only fifty families, so that will not be very many families from each county.

Thanks for your cooperation in assisting Karen in this study.

Sincerely yours,

Linda Nieman
Associate Program Director

LN:mt

enclosure

cc: Maxine Ferris
Karen Liu

MSU is an Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Institution

This letter was also sent to Ann M. Nieuwenhuis, Kalamazoo County EHE; Eleanor C. Rhinesmith, Wayne County EHE, and Sandra C. Steward, Berrien County EHE.



Agriculture and Natural Resources Education Institute
410 Agriculture Hall (517) 355-6580
Michigan State University East Lansing, Michigan 48824

October 24, 1980

Mrs. Margaret L. Bucklin
Extension Home Economist
Ingham County
127 E. Maple Street
Mason, Mi 48854

Dear Margaret :

Thank you very much for your assistance in identifying those single-female-headed families in your county. I appreciate the help you gave me. Your cooperation and encouragement will make this study a success.

Many thanks.

Sincerely,

Karen Liu
Graduate Research Assistant

KL:tr

cc: Maxine Ferris

MSU is an Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Institution

This letter was also sent to Ann M. Nieuwenhuis, Kalamazoo County EHE; Eleanor C. Rhinesmith, Wayne County EHE, and Sandra C. Steward, St. Joseph County EHE.



Agriculture and Natural Resources Education Institute
410 Agriculture Hall (517) 355-6580
Michigan State University East Lansing, Michigan 48824

November 21, 1980

Dear friend :

Enclosed is a check for \$5.00 which I promised you for completing the Record Time Log and questionnaires. I certainly appreciate your willingness to participate in this study and hope you will find that it is a worthwhile experience for you.

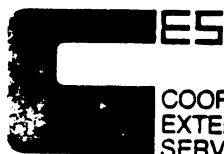
Thank you for contributing so generously to my study.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'Karen Liu'. The signature is written in a cursive, flowing style.

Karen Liu
Graduate Research Assistant, MSU

Enclosure



MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY · U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE & COUNTIES COOPERATING
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR · EAST LANSING, MICHIGAN 48824

March 12, 1981

Mrs. Linda L. Nierman
Associate Program Director
Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program
202 Wills House
Campus

Dear Linda :

After two and a half months on the road, I would like to share the good news with you that I have finished all family interviews in four counties. I also want to express my appreciation for your cooperation and assistance. Without your cooperation and help, this study would not have been possible.

I enjoyed this experience very much and have built good relationships with a number of these families. Several families gave me gifts, and I received a complimentary letter from one family in the Benton Harbor area.

I am in the process of preparing the computer work for analyzing the data. When I have any results from the computer, I will share that information with you.

Thanks again for the work you did to assist me in my research.

Sincerely Yours,

Karen C.Y. Liu
Research Assistant

KCYL:tr

cc: M. Ferris



410 Agriculture Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan 48824

MSU is an Affirmative Action / Equal Opportunity Institution

This letter was also sent to Margaret L. Bucklin, Ingham County EHE; Ann M. Nieuwenhuis, Kalamazoo County EHE; Eleanor C. Rhinesmith, Wayne County EHE, and Sandra C. Steward, Berrien County EHE.

Cooperative Extension Service
Michigan State University and
U.S. Department of Agriculture Cooperating

Expanded Nutrition Program
202 Willis House
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824
Phone 517-353-8102

March 18, 1981



M E M O R A N D U M

Karen Liu
Graduate Assistant
ANREI
410 Agriculture Hall
M.S.U. Campus

Dear Karen:

Thanks so much for your letter letting us know the progress of your study.
I'm glad to hear that everything went very well and that all counties were
very cooperative. We'll look forward to seeing your results in the near future.

Sincerely yours,

LINDA NIERNAN
Associate Program Director
Family Living Education

LN/lr

cc: Maxine Ferris
Dr. Doris Wetters

APPENDIX B
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Fall, 1980

CONSENT FORM

I, the undersigned, willingly consent to participate in a study about time use and quality of life. I do so with the understanding that my responses will contribute to the goals of the research project being conducted by the College of Education at Michigan State University and the Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station. The purposes of the study have been explained to me, and they are repeated in the letter given to me. Thus, I have knowledge of the aspects of the study.

I agree to complete two time logs as accurately and completely as I am able. I further understand that my name will in no way be linked to the answers I have given, and I reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time. I desire to participate in this research and consent and agree.

PLEASE SIGN YOUR FIRST AND LAST NAMES.

Signature		Date	
Street Address	City/Town	State	Zip Code

We, the undersigned, guarantee complete anonymity to the person whose signature is above. Her name will in no way be linked to the responses given. We further agree to pay the abovesigned person an amount of \$5.00 within a month of receiving the two completed Time Logs. We will be happy to answer any questions she might have about completing the questionnaires. Please call 517-355-6580

Karen Liu

Karen Liu
Graduate Student, MSU

Maxine S. Ferris

Dr. Maxine S. Ferris, Associate Professor
Academic Advisor



Dear Friend:

You are invited to participate in a study of daily time use patterns and quality of life in single-parent families.

Here are some answers to questions you may have about this special study:

WHO IS INCLUDED IN THE STUDY?

- * Single women who head families.
- * You are one of those chosen to participate. Your participation will make this study a success. All information you provide will be held in confidence.

WHAT IS THIS STUDY ABOUT?

- * The single parent household, especially those with female heads is becoming increasingly common.
- * People are placing more importance on the time spent in housework. Studying how single-parents use time can help us to understand the demands placed on single parents.
- * This study will review the amount of time you use in daily activities.
- * Later we will be developing ideas to help single parents.

WHY SHOULD I PARTICIPATE?

- * You are the one who is eligible to participate.
- * The most important reason is to help me learn as much as I can about the time single-female-parents spend on their daily activities.
- * Your participation will help to improve the quality of life for single-parent families.

WHAT KIND OF THINGS DO YOU WANT TO ASK ME?

- * This study includes two personal interviews. During the first interview I will be gathering information about you and your family -- how many children there are, their ages, whether you work for pay, are taking classes, etc.
- * During the second interview we will be visiting about the way you feel about the different parts of your life.

WHAT DO YOU WANT ME TO DO?

- * Keep two full-day log charts to record the time you spend on different household activities.
- * During the first interview, I'll show you how to keep a time-log chart and give you written instructions.

MY LIFE IS VERY SIMPLE, SO WHY DO YOU WANT TO KNOW ABOUT ME?

- * This is what I really want to know!
- * I am interested in YOU and the housework YOU are doing - even if those activities are simple or routine. I need to know how you distribute your energies across daily activities.

WHO WILL SEE MY ANSWERS?

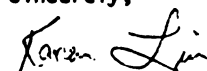
- * Your answers to the questionnaires, as well as information you share during our conversations are strictly confidential. The information you give will never be seen by anyone in your neighborhood, or anyone else who knows you. Your home will not be recorded on your questionnaire or charts, you will be assigned a letter or number.

WHAT DO YOU DO WITH THOSE QUESTIONNAIRES?

- * The answers you give on the questionnaire will be punched onto computer cards, and then analyzed by the computer. After the results are known, I will make a summary. You will receive a letter from me about the results of this study.

I would really like to have you participate in this study! "Thank you" for giving me your time, and working with me. If you have any questions about the study, please call (517) 355-6580.

Sincerely,



Karen Liu

FORM FOR INTERVIEWER USE

** ** ** ** **

RECORD NUMBER _____

DATE _____

NAME OF RESPONDENT _____

ADDRESS _____

TELEPHONE _____

DATE OF BIRTH _____

DATE OF FIRST INTERVIEW _____ RECORD TIME _____ a.m.
p.m.DATE OF SECOND INTERVIEW _____ RECORD TIME _____ a.m.
p.m.

COMMENTS :

SIGNATURE OF INTERVIEWER _____

DATE _____

-1-

Record Number _____

FIRST INTERVIEW FORM

FOR EACH QUESTION, PLACE A CHECK MARK IN THE BRACKETS (✓) OR WRITE THE ANSWER ON THE LINE PROVIDED.

1. How many persons are living in your home?

- () two persons
- () three persons
- () four persons
- () five persons
- () six persons
- () more than six persons _____

2. To which age group do you belong?

- () under 20
- () 21 - 25 years old
- () 26 - 29 years old
- () 30 - 34 years old
- () 35 - 40 years old
- () 41 - 45 years old
- () 46 - 50 years old
- () 51 - 55 years old
- () 56 - 60 years old
- () over 60 years old _____

3. What is your race?

- () white
- () black/negro/Afro-American
- () Asian
- () Indian
- () Mexican-American
- () Other _____

-2-

Record Number _____

4. I would like to know about the children who are living in the household.
Please tell me about the children living here. Start with the oldest one.

Name	Date of Birth	Age	Sex (M/F)	Relationship				
				Your Own	Adop- ted	Step Child	Rel- ative	Other
1.								
2.								
3.								
4.								
5.								
6.								
7.								

5. Do you own your home, do you rent or what?

() own or buying
 () renting
 () other _____

6. In what type of home do you live?

() an apartment
 () mobile home
 () duplex: two-family house
 () single family house
 () other _____

7. How many bedrooms in your home?

() one
 () two
 () three
 () four
 () more than four _____

8. What is the highest level of formal schooling that you have completed?
- ☐ Less than 6 grades of elementary school
 - ☐ 6 - 8 grades of junior high school
 - ☐ 1 - 3 years of high school
 - ☐ Completed high school and received diploma or passed high school equivalency examination
 - ☐ 1 - 3 years of college
 - ☐ College graduate, bachelor's degree
 - ☐ Post bachelor's course work
 - ☐ Master's degree
 - ☐ Post master's course work
 - ☐ PhD, EdD, MD or other professional degree
9. Are you attending or enrolled in any educational program NOW?
- ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
10. If yes, are a part-time or full-time student?
- ☐ part-time
 - ☐ full-time
11. If "yes", how many hours per week do you spend on course work (including time in class and preparation)?
- ☐ 1 - 3 hours
 - ☐ 4 - 6 hours
 - ☐ 7 - 10 hours
 - ☐ 11 - 15 hours
 - ☐ 16 - 20 hours
 - ☐ 21 - 25 hours
 - ☐ more than 25 hours _____

-4-

Record Number _____

12. If "no", how many hours per week do you spend on personal development, i.e. self-directed learning projects, informative reading, attending workshops, etc?
- () none
 - () 1 - 3 hours
 - () 4 - 6 hours
 - () 7 - 10 hours
 - () 11 - 15 hours
 - () more than 15 hours _____
13. How many television sets do you have at home?
- () none
 - () one
 - () two
 - () more than two _____
14. About how many hours per day do you spend watching T.V.?
- () less than one hour
 - () 1 - 2 hours
 - () 3 - 4 hours
 - () 5 - 6 hours
 - () 7 - 8 hours
 - () 9 - 10 hours
 - () more than 10 hours _____
15. Which of the following situations applies to you? (Note: more than one would apply.)
- () full-time housewife
 - () student
 - () permanently disabled
 - () retired
 - () unemployed or presently looking for a job
 - () temporarily laid off (Expect to be called back to work in the near future at same place.)
 - () working now (paid job)

-5-

Record Number _____

16. If you are working, which one of the following situations applies to you?
(More than one could apply.)
- ☐ hourly wage worker
 - ☐ salaried
 - ☐ work on commission or tips
 - ☐ self-employed in own business, professional practice, or farm
 - ☐ working without pay in family business or farm
17. If you are working, how many hours per week do you spend on doing this job?
- ☐ less than 10 hours
 - ☐ 10 - 19 hours
 - ☐ 20 hours
 - ☐ 21 - 29 hours
 - ☐ 30 hours
 - ☐ 31 - 39 hours
 - ☐ 40 hours
 - ☐ more than 40 hours
18. If you are working, how long have you been in your present job?
- ☐ less than 3 months
 - ☐ 3 - 6 months
 - ☐ more than 6 months/less than one year
 - ☐ one year
 - ☐ 1 - 2 years
 - ☐ 2 - 3 years
 - ☐ 3 - 5 years
 - ☐ more than 5 years _____
19. Do you do any volunteer work in the community?
- ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No

20. If yes, about how many hours per week do you spend on doing voluntary work?
- () 1 - 3 hours
 - () 4 - 6 hours
 - () 7 - 10 hours
 - () 11 - 15 hours
 - () 16 - 20 hours
 - () more than 20 hours _____
21. What do you estimate will be your total family income before taxes in 1980? The total family income includes wages, property, interest, welfare, Aid to Family with Dependent Children, child support from a previous marriage, and other money income received by you and all family members who live with you.
- () less than \$3,000
 - () \$ 3,000 - \$ 3,999
 - () \$ 4,000 - \$ 4,999
 - () \$ 5,000 - \$ 5,999
 - () \$ 6,000 - \$ 6,999
 - () \$ 7,000 - \$ 7,999
 - () \$ 8,000 - \$ 8,999
 - () \$ 9,000 - \$ 9,999
 - () \$10,000 - \$10,999
 - () \$11,000 - \$11,999
22. What does "quality of life" mean to you? (Check as many as apply.)
- () having enough income
 - () having enough time for yourself, such as leisure, personal care.
 - () having enough time for your children or family
 - () having enough time for your personal improvement
 - () having a new car, new furniture, or new clothes
 - () having religious faith
 - () other. Please tell _____

-7-

Record Number _____

23. Of all of the items you have checked in question 22, which are the most important to you?
- _____

24. Which one of the following situations applies to you?

- ☐ unmarried single mother
- ☐ separated single mother
- ☐ divorced single mother
- ☐ widowed mother

INSTRUCTIONS FOR KEEPING TIME-LOG CHART

You need to keep a record time-log of your work activities for two days. The way to record your work activities on your time-log chart is very simple. I will show you how to mark your work activity on the chart.

On the left side of the record time-log chart, work activities are listed; across the top of the record time-log chart, twenty-four hours of the day which has been divided into three periods (from 6 am - 2 pm, 2 pm - 10 pm, and 10 pm - 6 am) are listed. For ease in recording the time, I have broken each hour into six ten-minute intervals.

To record the work activity on the chart you simply have to draw arrows and a line from the time you start an activity to the time you completed that activity. ($\longleftrightarrow$) For instance, from 8:10 - 8:20 you prepare the breakfast, then from 8:20 - 8:40 you set down and eat your breakfast. Check the " Definition of work activity " to make sure cooking breakfast and eating go to the category of FOOD PREPARATION & CLEANING. Then you draw a line from 8:10 - 8:40 in the space which provided for FOOD PREPARATION & CLEANING. If from 8:20 - 8:40 you eat your breakfast and watch T.V., you have to mark those two activities under the same time column in two separate WORK ACTIVITY categories. One line marked under FOOD PREPARATION & CLEANING , and the other line marked under LEISURE ACTIVITY BY YOURSELF at the same time period.

Arrows and lines are the only things you have to do to mark your work activities on the record time-log chart. Please record each work activity right after you finish it. Thank you.

DEFINITION OF WORK ACTIVITIES

1. FOOD PREPARATION AND CLEANINGMeal Preparation:

Preparing of food for breakfast, lunch, snack, dinner

Packing lunch, snack

Setting the table

Serving food

Feeding baby

Special Food Preparation:

Baking food or preparing food for another day

Canning and freezing

Preparing party refreshments or making birthday cake

Preparing special holiday meals

Preparing food for donations, open house, or gifts

Meal Cleanup:

Washing and drying dishes for storage

Putting away cleaned dishes

Cleaning table, leftovers, and kitchen equipment

Straightening up kitchen

2. DAILY, REGULAR OR SEASONAL HOUSEHOLD CHORES

Washing and folding clothes

Mopping, dusting, sweeping, waxing, and vacuuming

Making beds

Putting room in order

Caring for house plants or flowers

Mending and ironing

Doing dry cleaning

Polishing shoes

Putting away out-of-season clothes

3. SPECIAL HOUSE CARE

- Washing windows or walls
- Cleaning closets
- Defrosting and cleaning freezer or refrigerator
- Cleaning of oven
- Repairing furniture
- Repairing broken equipment or plumbing
- Rearranging room
- Painting and papering
- Putting up storm windows or screens

4. PERSONAL AND FAMILY CARE

- Taking care of child or children
- Bathing and dressing
- Reading to children
- Teaching or helping children with homework
- Playing with children
- Taking child or children to dentist, physician, or barber
- Providing health care (giving medicine, bandaging)
- Taking care of animals and pets

5. OUTDOOR CHORES AND CARE OF CAR

Outdoor Chores:

- Doing yard and garden work
- Mow grass or water flowers
- Cleaning garage
- Cleaning trash

Care of Car:

- Cleaning car or repairing car
- Changing oil
- Taking car or cycle to service station or garage

6. LEISURE ACTIVITIES BY YOURSELF

- Reading magazine, newspaper or catalog
- Watching T.V.
- Listening to radio
- Working with hobbies, such as: sewing, knitting, crocheting, painting, etc.

7. SOCIAL ACTIVITIES WITH OTHER PEOPLE

Visiting relatives, friends, or museum
Having a party
Attending party
Playing games or cards
Attending sports activities
Seeing a movie
Going on a picnic
Visiting a bar or eating at a restaurant

8. EMPLOYMENT

Paid job outside home
Self-employed in own business
Work without pay in family business or farm

9. VOLUNTEER WORK

Church activities
Youth volunteer activities
Club activities
Organization meetings

10. PERSONAL IMPROVEMENT

Attending classes
Doing school activities or reading
Doing homework or research
Going to the library
Attending seminar, workshop or conference

11. TRAVEL

Traveling to work and back home
Traveling to shopping and back
Taking children to school
Traveling to attend activity and back, such as: church, volunteer, etc.
Riding bus
Waiting
Walking

12. SHOPPING

Shopping for food, supplies, equipment, furnishings or clothings
Shopping in person, by telephone, or by mail
Putting purchases away, getting or sending mail and packages
Window shopping

13. COMMUNICATION

Talking on the phone
Chatting with friends, relatives, or neighbors
Chatting with children

14. FILING AND KEEPING RECORDS

Writing letters
Making bank deposits
Balancing checkbook
Sending bills
Keeping records
Planning: Meal or Activities

15. REST

Night sleep
Nap
Resting

16. OTHER

RECORD TIME-LOG CHART

Record Number _____ Date _____

WORK ACTIVITIES

1. Food preparation and cleaning	2. Daily or regular household chores	3. Special house	4. Personal and family care	5. Outdoor chores	6. Leisure activities by yourself	7. Social activities with others	8. Employment	9. Volunteer	10. Personal improvement	11. Travel	12. Shopping	13. Communication	14. Filling and keeping records	15. Rest	16. Other
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RECORD TIME-LOG CHART

Record Number _____ Date _____

WORK ACTIVITIES

1. Food preparation and cleaning	2. Daily or regular household chores	3. Special house	4. Personal and family care	5. Outdoor chores	6. Leisure activities by yourself	7. Social activities with others	8. Employment	9. Volunteer	10. Personal improvement	11. Travel	12. Shopping	13. Communication	14. Filling and keeping records	15. Rest	16. Other
----------------------------------	--------------------------------------	------------------	-----------------------------	-------------------	-----------------------------------	----------------------------------	---------------	--------------	--------------------------	------------	--------------	-------------------	---------------------------------	----------	-----------

RECORD TIME-LOG CHART

Record Number _____ Date _____

WORK ACTIVITIES

1. Food preparation and cleaning	2. Daily or regular household chores	3. Special house	4. Personal and family care	5. Outdoor chores	6. Leisure activities by yourself	7. Social activities with others	8. Employment	9. Volunteer	10. Personal improvement	11. Travel	12. Shopping	13. Communication	14. Filling and keeping records	15. Rest	16. Other
----------------------------------	--------------------------------------	------------------	-----------------------------	-------------------	-----------------------------------	----------------------------------	---------------	--------------	--------------------------	------------	--------------	-------------------	---------------------------------	----------	-----------

-1-

Record Number _____

THE SECOND INTERVIEW FORM

THE PURPOSE OF SECOND INTERVIEW IS TO FIND OUT YOUR ATTITUDES ABOUT VARIOUS PARTS OF YOUR LIFE. PLEASE TELL ME YOUR FEELINGS, AS I READ THE QUESTIONS TO YOU.

	1	2	3	4	5
Coding:	/	/	/	/	/
	very unhappy	pretty unhappy	mixed (about equally happy & unhappy)	pretty happy	very happy

A = Neutral - neither happy nor unhappy

B = Never thought about it

C = Does not apply to me

I. YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT LIFE CONCERNS:*

- _____ 1. How do you feel about your life as a whole?
- _____ 2. How do you feel about your own family life - yourself and your children?
- _____ 3. How do you feel about your independence - the change you have to do what you want?
- _____ 4. How do you feel about how much you are accepted by others?
- _____ 5. How do you feel about your job?
- _____ 6. How do you feel about your standard of living - the things you have like housing, car, furniture, recreation and others?
- _____ 7. How do you feel about how much fun you are having?
- _____ 8. How do you feel about your house or apartment?
- _____ 9. How do you feel about what you are accomplishing in your life?
- _____ 10. How do you feel about your particular neighborhood as a place to live?

-2-

Record Number _____

- ____ 11. How do you feel about the way you spend your spare time - your non-working activity time?
- ____ 12. How do you feel about yourself?
- ____ 13. How do you feel about your children?
- ____ 14. How do you feel about changes in your life that you have made since becoming a single parent.
- ____ 15. How do you feel about your financial security?

- ____ 16. How do you feel about how interesting your day to day life is?
- ____ 17. How do you feel about your own health condition?
- ____ 18. How do you feel about the extent to which your physical needs (for instance, food, sleep, and clothing) are met?
- ____ 19. How do you feel about the extent to which your social and emotional needs (for instance, friends, acceptance by others, belonging and self-esteem) are met?
- ____ 20. How do you feel about the chance you have to learn new things or be exposed to new ideas?
- ____ 21. How do you feel about the closeness and sense of belonging in your life?

- ____ 22. How do you feel about the amount of respect you receive?
- ____ 23. How do you feel about the way you use your time?
- ____ 24. How do you feel about the way your money is used?
- ____ 25. How do you feel about the time you spend on household work?
- ____ 26. How do you feel about the way household work is accomplished?
- ____ 27. How do you feel about the way you express your feelings?
- ____ 28. How do you feel about the amount of time the family spends together?
- ____ 29. How do you feel about the time you spend with your children?

- _____ 1. The time you spend with your children.
- _____ 2. The time you spend for yourself such as leisure and personal care.
- _____ 3. The time you spend on personal improvement.
- _____ 4. The time you spend on volunteer work.
- _____ 5. The time you spend on meal preparation.
- _____ 6. The time you spend on watching TV.
- _____ 7. The time you spend on household chores.
- _____ 8. The time you spend on helping other people.
- _____ 9. The time you spend on working your hobbies.
- _____ 10. The time you spend with your friends, relatives.
- _____ 11. The time you spend on social activities (party, game).
- _____ 12. The time you spend on chatting or talking on the telephone.
- _____ 13. The time you spend on yard work.
- _____ 14. The time you spend on fixing or repairing things around the house.
- _____ 15. Time vs money, that is how important is time compared to money.

- _____ 1. Your independence and freedom.
- _____ 2. Your standard of living (things you have like car, furniture, etc.)
- _____ 3. Your safety.
- _____ 4. A sense of belonging.
- _____ 5. Feelings of self-esteem.

-4-

Record Number _____

IV. FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING FOUR QUESTIONS, CHECK ONE OF THE TWO RESPONSES THAT BEST DESCRIBES HOW YOU FEEL.*

1. Have you usually felt pretty sure your life would work out the way you want it to, or have there been times when you haven't been sure about it?
☐ I have felt pretty sure life would work out the way I want it to.
☐ There have been times when I haven't been sure about it.
2. Do you think it's better to plan your life a good way ahead, or would you say life is too much a matter of luck to plan ahead very far?
☐ I think it's better to plan my life a good way ahead.
☐ I think life is too much a matter of luck to plan ahead very far.
3. When you do make plans ahead, do you usually get to carry things out the way you expected, or do things usually come up to make you change your plans?
☐ I usually get to carry things out the way I expected.
☐ Things usually come up to make me change my plans.
4. Some people feel they can run their lives pretty much the way they want to; other feel the problems of life are sometimes too big for them. Which one are you most like?
☐ I feel I can run my life pretty much the way I want to.
☐ I feel the problems of life are sometimes too big for me.

-1-

Record Number _____

ACTIVITY ESTIMATION CHART

PLEASE CIRCLE A CODE NUMBER CORRESPONDING TO THE CATEGORY WHICH MOST ACCURATELY ESTIMATES HOW OFTEN THE ACTIVITIES HAPPEN.

Coding Number: 0 = never

1 = about once a year

2 = about 2-5 times each year

3 = about 6-11 times each year

4 = about once each month

5 = about 2-3 times each month

6 = about once each week

7 = about 2-5 times each week

8 = about once each day

9 = two or more times each day

I. How often do you do the following activities										
1. Special house cleaning	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. Lawn/garden care	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. Wash car, or car care	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Care of walk/drive	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. Care of garbage & trash	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Maintenance of home/equipment, fixing	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Ironing clothes	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. Mending clothes	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. Work on your hobbies	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. Go out to bar, restaurant or nightclub by yourself	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. Attend church services or activities	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. Do volunteer work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. Attend class, workshop, or conference	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14. Shopping (not for groceries)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. Filing and keeping records	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

-2-

Record Number _____

II. How often do you and your children:	
1. Spend time together-discuss personal feelings	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
2. Work together on a project	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
3. Take a ride or walk	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
4. Go out to eat (restaurant)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
5. Entertain friend at home	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
6. Visit friends, relatives	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
7. Go to a movie or other entertainment	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
8. Attend a sports event (football, baseball, basketball, tennis, etc.)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
9. Attend a party	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
10. Go on a trip or on a vacation	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
11. Have outdoor activities (picnic, boating, camping, swimming, etc.)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
12. Go to museum, exhibit, or fair	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
13. Attend church service or activities	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
14. Play games together	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
15. Sit together for a meal	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

III. How often do your children who live with you:										
1. Make you feel good because you have them	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. Tell you or show you that they respect you	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. Tell or show you that they love you	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Give you a hug or kiss	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. Do some household work for you	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Do some yard work for you	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Do some repair work for you	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Name of Interviewee : _____ Date of First Interview : _____ Length of First Interview : _____
 Record Number : _____ Date of Second Interview : _____ Length of Second Interview : _____

EVALUATION OF INTERVIEWEE'S BEHAVIOR FORM

(Interviewer : Choose number 1-5 which best describes interviewee behavior and record under COMMENTS column.)

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	COMMENTS
A. Interest in Interview	Uncooperative. Guarded answers.	Suspicious of interviewer at first. Somewhat interested at end of interview.	Neutral reaction in beginning. Moderate interest at end.	Asked questions about project. Cooperative.	Asked questions about project; want more information about project. Enthusiastic to participate.	/ /
B. Time Commitment	Hurried interview for no apparent reason.	Hurried interview because of interruptions. (Child, friends, phone calls, etc.)	Gave only approximate time interview requested.	Flexible within 30-45 minutes of time requested.	Enthusiastic and continued interest at end of interview.	/ /
C. Comprehension of Interview Questionnaire	Did not understand. Clarification needed for all questions.	Needed clarification on most questions.	Needed clarification on several questions.	Understood most questions.	Comprehended without additional clarification.	/ /
D. Type of Response Provided	Would not answer all questions.	Terse, short answers.	Off-the-cuff answers.	Mostly thoughtful answers with a few sketchy answers.	Complete, thoughtful answers.	/ /
E. Environmental Situation	Messy house; hard to do interview.	Too many interruptions (Children, friends, calls).	Little interruptions; manageable condition to do interview.	Mostly clean house. No interruptions.	Very clean & neat house. Enthusiastic to be interviewed.	/ /

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS :

APPENDIX C

SUMMARY REPORT TO RESPONDENTS



August 18, 1981



Dear friend :

Remember me, Karen Liu, the graduate student from Michigan State University who visited your home last winter ? Time has passed quickly; it has been more than six months since we visited. I'm sure that you have been wondering what I learned. Now is the time to keep my promise and share results of the study with you.

From November 1980 to February 1981, I interviewed 78 single-parent females. Fifty-one women completed the two interviews and filled out two time logs. You are one of those 51 females. Your cooperation and assistance made my study possible. I am so grateful for your help !

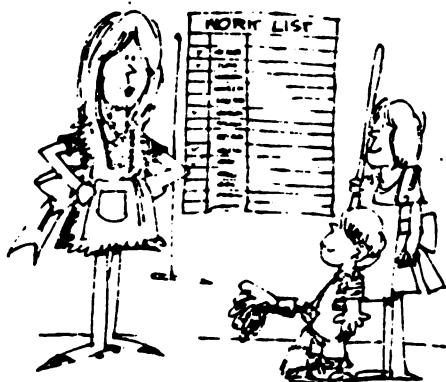
Following is the summary of my findings. The results of the recorded time logs showed that single-female-parent families allocated their time along rather traditional lines. You, 51 single-female parents, spent an average of 7.7 hours per day on household work. That included food preparation and cleaning, regular household chores, special house care, family and personal care, shopping, filing and keeping records. You spent an average of 8.0 hours per day on non-household activities; this included watching T.V., visiting relatives or friends, chatting with friends or relatives, talking on the phone, traveling, working for pay, doing voluntary work; you averaged 8.3 hours per day on rest and/or getting your night's sleep.

The purpose of my study was to develop base-line data on time use by single-female-headed families. As you know, many factors can influence the way we spend time. From your time recorded logs, I learned that time spent on food preparation and cleaning had high positive relationship with the number of children in the family; the time spent on family care had high positive relationship with the age of the youngest child in the family. In other words, if you had more children, you spent more time on food preparation and clean up, and if you had very young children more time was spent on family and child care.

Employment status did not show a significant influence on time use by single-female-parent families. Most employed single mothers are still responsible for all household activities; however, employed single mothers had less time to spend on leisure and social activities.

In general, the data showed that single-female parents had adequate sleep, and averaged three more hours leisure and social time than wives in two-parent families. The data you provided also showed that most single-female parents do not spend much time on special house care, outdoor chores, car care, volunteer work, personal improvement, filing or keeping records, and maintaining or fixing things around the house.

Many single parents told me during the interview that there is never enough time for them to do things that they want to do. As a matter of fact, time is our most limited resources. There is never enough time for everything, however, there is always enough time for important things. Managing time means managing yourself. Managing time does not mean to working faster, working harder, or working longer; it means working smarter.



Following are some time management tips that we've been sharing with other homemakers. I hope they will help you make more effective use of your time and feel more in control of your life.

1) Make a daily "to do" list : make a list of things that you really want to accomplish. 2) Set priorities by ranking the items on your list : "A" for the really important thing, "B" for those of medium importance, and "C" for those that really could be ignored. 3) Delegate tasks : delegate more responsibilities to younger members of the household; children really can do a lot, but they need to be taught and given clear instructions. 4) Control interruptions, learn to keep interruptions short. Manage your time; be in control. Get organized. For every minute sent in organizing, at least an hour is earned. You need to feel good about how well you make time work for you and delight in your ability to work smarter ... not harder. Good luck. Again, many thanks.

Sincerely ,
Karen Liu
 Karen Liu

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