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Self concept: mothers and their children

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Running head: SELF-CONCEPT: MOTHERS AND THEIR CHILDREN

The well-being of single mothers and their 8-12 year old children:

**An exploratory analysis into the similarity of mothers
and their childrens' self-concepts.**

Leanne D. Wood

**"A report submitted as a partial requirement for the
degree of Bachelor of Arts with Honours in Psychology
at Edith Cowan University"**

May, 1999

USE OF THESIS

The Use of Thesis statement is not included in this version of the thesis.

Abstract

Over the past 30 years divorce has been on the incline, resulting in more children living in one parent families, the majority headed by single mothers. The study of the impact of divorce and outcomes for children and their mothers has become increasingly important. According to many researchers, the study of self-concept is considered to be one of the best indicators of a person's psychological adjustment and wellbeing (Hattie, 1992; Ford, 1985). Studies have neglected to consider self-concept as a major focus and consider the relationship between the child's self-concept and their mother's self-concept. This study focuses on single mothers and their children aged between 8 and 12 years of age. Harter's (1985, 1986) Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC) and Adult Self-Perception Profile (ASPP) were used to investigate whether a relationship exists between mother's and child's self-concept. Positive relationships were expected between single mother's and their child's self-concept domains. Correlations amongst mothers-daughters self-concept domains were expected to be stronger than for mothers-sons. The results indicated that relationships exist between the mother's wellbeing and her child's wellbeing. Some specific domains of self-esteem were found to be of more importance than others. Variance in the child's global self-worth was accounted for by the adult domains most highly correlated with the child domains; Adult Morality, Adult Physical Appearance and Adult Global Self-Worth. From the positive responses given by both mothers and children the study highlights that Australian single mother families, in comparison to reports from other countries, are doing well and their children are developing positive self-regard.

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Supervisor: Ms Lisbeth Pike
Submitted: May, 1999

Declaration

I certify that this thesis does not incorporate, without acknowledgment, any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text.

Signature:

Date 20.5.99.

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The well-being of single mothers and their 8-12 year old children:

An exploratory analysis into the similarity of mothers

and their children's self-concepts.

Introduction

In recent decades Australian attitudes towards the understanding and knowledge of families has been challenged through the diverse nature of families seen today. Many events and social changes have occurred to provide an environment which has seen shifts in the nature and structure of families. One of the major catalysts however, was the Family Law Act in 1975. The main consequence of this Act was that it enabled easier access to divorce under "a no fault system." Following the introduction of these new relaxed laws, Australia saw a rapid rise in the number of divorces.

As a result, single parent families and the number of children being raised by one parent increased substantially. Government, communities and social researchers were challenged by debates and controversies surrounding these 'new look' families. The notion of children being raised in families with one parent, usually the mother, was thought to be unacceptable by some members and sectors of the community. Australia was experiencing a transformation in the way traditional family life was considered.

Researchers and communities were concerned with the ability of these families to cope with restructuring and the many changes associated with divorce. Particular emphasis was placed on such issues as the effects of financial decline and the absence of a father figure on the children of divorced families. Issues such as conflict between ex-spouses, mother's employment, children's behaviour and

performance at school extended the scope of investigations into the effects of divorce. Today, research can be found addressing an extensive array of issues which impact on how parents and children are affected by family breakdown. Even though the viability of these new single parent families was questioned initially, today's investigations reveal that early findings indicating detrimental outcomes have been replaced by more positive and enlightening views.

Community groups and researchers recognise that often there are too many variables to study, as such a large number of factors affect families experiencing family breakdown. The task to pinpoint one particular aspect of divorce that affects mothers and children, is clearly an impossible one. One area of inquiry however, is particularly pertinent and may transcend the effects divorce, or at the least be a stabilising factor in the person's life and help maintain a sense of wellbeing during difficult life events. This area of inquiry is the investigation of the psychological wellbeing of parents and children, specifically, self-concept, which has been considered by many researchers to be the fundamental aspect of a person's psychological adjustment and wellbeing. Self-concept and the relationship between a single mother's self-concept and her child's self-concept is the focus of this study, specifically single mothers and children between the age of 8 and 12 years.

In Chapter One background information regarding divorce in Australia today is presented. The current literature and relevant findings relating to the effects of divorce on single mothers and their children are reviewed. Finally, the theoretical conceptualisation of self-concept and its impact on behaviour is discussed, and how this relates to the expectation that psychologically healthy single mothers will have children who also enjoy a positive sense of wellbeing.

An explanation of the sample, methodology and instruments used are discussed in Chapter Two, whilst Chapter Three gives an account of the statistical procedures used and the results found.

The final section, Chapter Four, discusses the findings and explores the outcomes of this research study. Included in this section are suggestions for future study in consideration of the limitations found in this research project.

Background

Over the past 30 years there has been a steady increase in divorce rates, with current rates indicating that two in every five marriages will end in divorce (Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 1991 as cited in Healey, 1995). Funder, Harrison, and Weston (1993) state that the Australian Institute of Family Studies estimates that current trends suggest 40% of marriages will end in divorce. The 1996 ABS report on Divorce and Marriage show a slight increase, where nearly 50% of marriages have ended in divorce. Moreover, one parent families account for 14.7% of all Australian families, including those families without children (Australian Bureau of Statistics 1994 as cited in Funder, 1996). Eighty-seven percent of these families are headed by women. The majority of these women are the custodial parent of dependent children (Australian Bureau of Statistics Focus on Families Demographics & Family Formation 1994 as cited in Funder, 1996).

From 1989 to 1996 the percentage of children whose parents divorced rose by 16%. By 1997 the percentage of children living in one-parent families had more than doubled. Over 18% of children under the age of 15 years were living in a one-parent family, compared with 9% in 1989 (Kilmartin, 1997). These statistics show

that more and more children are living in families other than traditional two parent nuclear families. In the case of single-parent families, most children live in a household headed by the mother (Healey, 1995; Ochiltree, 1988). Consequently, social scientists have focused on the task of examining the effects of divorce on both parents and their children.

Studies examining the effects of divorce have primarily concentrated on the child's adjustment, with the major focus being on the child's behavioural conduct and academic performance within the school setting (Amato, 1987; Edgar, 1993; Featherstone, Cundick & Jensen, 1992; Ochiltree, 1988). Aside from those factors directly connected to the school environment, child outcomes have also been measured in relation to family components. These family components are broken down into two main categories; family structure and family process. Many studies have concentrated on family process and family structure as the major variables in the child's postdivorce adjustment (Amato, 1987; Knight & Hughes, 1995; Lawler & Lennings, 1992). Family structure refers to those aspects of the family such as family type, family size, parental employment and education, family income and household crowding (Amato, 1987). Parental support, parental control, parental discipline, maturity demands, sibling relations, marital harmony and family cohesion are those factors contained under the category of family process (Amato, 1987).

Early research that focused on family variables found that divorce is a complex series of changes that affect all aspects of family relationships (Hetherington, 1992). Therefore, reports on the effects of divorce and family breakdown on mothers and children has indicated both positive and negatives outcomes. Reekie (1996) suggests that single motherhood is generally

conceptualised and represented negatively and therefore undesirable outcomes need to be viewed with caution. Whiteside (1998) concurs and criticises divorce research for its over emphasis on dysfunction and suggests the exploration of the strengths of these families. However, Whiteside (1998, p. 3) views divorce as “volatile and a profound emotional journey” whereas researchers such as Hetherington, Bridges and Insabella (1998) tend to regard divorce as a transitional period rather than a crisis. Suggestions that divorce is a process which encompasses both crisis and transition, acknowledges the diversity in which families experience divorce (Funder, 1996). Some families do experience divorce as a major crisis event as suggested by Whiteside (1998), whilst other families are able to restructure and cope with the changes in their lives in a less stressful way (Hetherington, et. al., 1998). The sequence of events arising from separation can be potentially stressful, however, most researchers agree that two to three years after the divorce the family has regained a sense of continuity and crisis may only refer to the immediate period following separation (Morrison & Cherlin, 1995; Whiteside, 1998). Researchers therefore need to be aware of the way in which issues are framed and the terms in which they are discussed (Reekie, 1996). Although conflicting results have been reported, many factors have been found to impact on mothers postdivorce adjustment. The next discussion addresses the major issues concerning mothers following the breakdown of the family.

Marital Breakdown and Single Mothers

With the dissolution of a marriage comes a number of disruptions in family life, and adjustments to changes in both relationships and often the family situation. It is expected that mothers will experience a number of effects following the breakdown of the nuclear family. The response to these changes by single mothers shows great heterogeneity, some experience initial distress, others continue to experience difficulties long after the initial break-up (Hetherington, 1994). However, some variables such as decreased income, restricted opportunities to increase income, extra workload and difficulties balancing work and home demands, have been highlighted as being major factors affecting most single mothers. These factors have often been attributed to increased difficulties and stress experienced by mothers raising children alone (Millward & Funder, 1993).

As a result of separation, single mothers' income is often reduced and the opportunity to increase income is limited (Millward & Funder, 1993; Rowe, 1991). Single mothers are five times more likely to be in the lowest quintile of income and seven times less likely to be in the top quintile of income (Millward & Funder, 1993). Such economic stress has been supported by many researchers as a major factor in postdivorce adjustment (Whiteside, 1998). Funder (1996) found that contrary to the economic stress posited by many studies, many single mothers express satisfaction with their newly found economic independence. This satisfaction was irrespective of income level. Mothers expressed the importance of their role as a full-time mother, whilst those women who reentered the workforce enjoyed economic independence as well as social satisfaction and increased self-esteem (Funder, 1996). The mothers in Funder's (1996) study expressed more

concern over their role as mothers and their independence, rather than monetary issues. This suggests that adjustment to divorce and well-being as a factor of income level is not only highly individual but may reflect an overemphasis on financial matters by researchers in general. Moreover, positive outcomes are experienced by many single mothers even withstanding financial hardship. Many other elements clearly outweigh economic hardship when considering the divorced mother's well-being (Hetherington et al., 1998; Weston & Funder, 1993). In other words "there is more to life than economics" Weston and Funder (1993, p. 210).

Noneconomic factors, such as the extra workload of the demands of caring for children on their own, may be more pertinent in their contribution to the difficulties and stress experienced by single mothers (Millward & Funder, 1993; Morrison & Cherlin, 1996). Kasen, Cohen, Brook, and Hartman (1996) reported that task overload was a predominant ongoing stressor for single mothers. Compared to couple counterparts, sole mothers were significantly less satisfied with a number of factors, most importantly, their personal emotional life and life as a whole (Millward & Funder, 1993). Hetherington (1994) suggests that even though many single mothers initially experience emotional distress associated with divorce, after two to three years most single mothers and their families have recovered and adjusted to their new life circumstances. Weston and Funder (1993) confirm this and show that by two to five years after separation the single mothers in their study were moderately high to highly satisfied with many aspects of their lives. These aspects of life included morale, life as a whole, material circumstances, income, housing, child's well-being, work, personal and emotional life, freedom and independence.

Although reports have indicated that there is diversity in single mothers' response to divorce, the emphasis on economic hardship and discontent does not corroborate the positive outcomes experienced by many women. After the immediate crisis and adjustment period, life satisfaction and well-being reflects that of the general population. Children remain central to the mother's sense of well-being and single mothers express satisfaction and contentment with their lives (Weston & Funder, 1993).

It is an interesting observation that Australian researchers, such as Funder (1996), Millward and Funder (1993), and Weston and Funder (1993), show the most consistent confidence in the well-being of single mothers, whilst acknowledging the adversities they may face. This may be indicative of different community responses or life options available to Australian single mothers as opposed to single mothers from other countries. However more recently studies are reporting a diverse range of outcomes for single mothers, with attention paid to psychological health and well-being (Hetherington et al., 1998; Funder, 1996).

Family Breakdown and Children

Findings concerning the effects of divorce on children have been inconclusive and to some extent ambiguous (Ochiltree, 1988). Research has generally failed to demonstrate negative and dramatic long term psychological effects on children (Allison & Furstenberg, 1989; Amato, 1987). Hetherington (1992) reports that in regard to children's well-being, children of all ages show an initial increase in behavioural problems following family breakdown (Hetherington, 1992). However, the extent of problematic behaviour and disruptive relationships

varies according to the child's developmental stage, resources and experiences within their own family (Amato, 1987; Hetherington, 1992; Ochiltree, 1988).

Similar to reports of the initial distress and readjustment period experienced by their mothers, only a minority of children continue to experience negative effects beyond two years postdivorce (Kasen et al., 1996). Ochiltree (1988) suggests that children adjust as their parents come to terms with the new family situation.

Negative consequences for children have also been attributed to economic hardship (Gringlas & Weinraub, 1995; Morrison & Cherlin, 1996). Reduction in income results in a decline in resources available to the child (Funder & Kinsella, 1991; Morrison & Cherlin, 1996). Even though this assumption may appear straightforward at the outset, Funder and Kinsella's (1991) study did not fully support this assertion. They found that decreased income had no significant effect on the child's well-being or happiness. Mothers adjusted their earnings to ensure that their children were provided with the time, care and attention required for positive psychological growth (Funder & Kinsella, 1991).

Kinard and Reinherz (1986) report that there has been no consistent pattern of findings of detrimental effects on school performance from children following marital disruption. Traditionally, this research has been the main focus of child outcomes in psychological investigations. In their study, Kinard and Reinherz (1986) found significantly more problems in areas of school performance for those children whose parents had recently separated (less than four years separation). Children from two parent families and children from families whose parents had divorced more than four years earlier, showed no significant difference in school performance. They suggested that the impact of divorce on children's school

performance diminished over time. This may be explained indirectly by the increased anxiety and stress of the mother, increasing the anxiety of the child which affects school performance (Kinard & Reinhertz, 1986). Many variables may account for problematic school behaviour and achievement but their study indicated that long-term negative consequences were not supported (Kinard & Reinhertz, 1986).

Investigation has also focused on more complex and perhaps more subtle areas of child outcomes postdivorce such as parental conflict, relationships and child temperament. However, most relevant to this study are those findings concerning gender differences and the implications of divorce on mother-child relationships.

Child Gender Differences

Findings in many areas have shown gender differences in the adaptation to family breakdown. Boys, more than girls, are at a greater risk of poor adjustment and negative effects following exposure to stressful life events (Brody & Flor, 1997; Bronstein, Clauson, Stoll & Abrams, 1993; Gringlas & Weinraub, 1995; Kinard & Reinhertz, 1986). Boys' problems postdivorce have been shown to be more intense and enduring whilst most girls adapt to the new family situation within 2-3 years (Gringlas & Weinraub, 1995; Hetherington, 1992). Externalising behaviours were reported more often in boys than girls whereas internalising behaviours have been found in both genders (Zaslow (cited in Hetherington, 1992)). Boys from divorced families showed more antisocial, acting-out, coercive and noncompliant behaviours than boys from nondivorced families (Amato, 1987; Hetherington, 1994; Morrison & Cherlin, 1995). Girls however, have been found to be functioning well

(Hetherington, 1994). Hetherington et al. (1998) and Morrison and Cherlin (1995) suggest that girls may be more resilient to psychological stressors following marital transition.

Amato and Keith (1991) have found that gender differences in response to divorce may be less pronounced and consistent than previously believed.

Hetherington et al. (1998) however, state that their studies have frequently demonstrated gender differences in response to divorce, with boys experiencing more detrimental effects than girls.

Mother-Child Relationships

Young (as cited in Brody & Flor, 1997) found that single mothers especially tried to create order and continuity for their children within the home. By providing comfort and security at home, the single mothers believed that they were shielding their children from difficulties experienced by single families. Furthermore, that by developing a nurturing parent-child relationship the children would develop into self-reliant and self-regulated adults (Young as cited in Brody & Flor, 1997).

However, Hetherington (1992) reports that mother-child relationships for both sons and daughters are difficult in the first two years postdivorce. This is particularly noticeable for single mothers and their sons, as these relationships deteriorate more rapidly under stress (Maccoby, 1980). Hetherington (1992) reports that girls usually have a better relationship with their divorced mothers than boys, as boys often have more problems of control and a more negative coercive relationship with their divorced mothers. Daughters remain close to their mothers and experience a companionate and confiding relationship (Hetherington et al.,

1998). Mother-son relationships tend to focus on disciplinary issues whilst mother-daughter relationships are more interactive (Maccoby, 1980).

After the initial divorce period however, early conflict diminishes and divorced mothers more often resume competent, authoritative parenting, promoting more nurturant relationships with their children (Hetherington, 1992). Weinraub and Wolf (1983) found that single mothers were successful parents and similar to their married counterparts in their ability to foster nurturant relationships with their children. In mother-child interactions, single mothers demonstrated no significant differences in control, maternal nurturance and communication with their children.

The nature of these relationships are particularly important as research indicates that a close, supportive maternal relationship is generally associated with positive adjustment in children (Hetherington et al., 1998; Stocker, 1994).

Whilst all the issues discussed give important information regarding family breakdown adjustment, Amato (1987) points to methodological problems in these studies. Moreover, Blechman (1982, p. 179) states that 'four decades of research have not provided conclusive information' regarding the psychological adjustment of children in one parent families. Studies have relied on parents, teachers and counsellors reporting on children's behaviour, and children reporting on parental behaviour such as parental support and discipline (Amato, 1987; Blechman, 1982). These methods only gain an indirect perspective of the individual and neglect to gain a precise insight into the person (Amato, 1987). Furthermore, Shrauger, Ram, Greninger and Mariano (1996) conducted two studies examining the accuracy of such reports by "others." They concluded that reports by significant and knowledgeable others, mothers and peers, were found to be less accurate than self-

evaluations or self-predictions of behaviour. Whiteside (1998) agrees and states that the source of information is an important consideration. Information received from one family member regarding another cannot be considered with full confidence and that researchers ought to be cautious of data collected indirectly.

A different approach must be justified and more direct methods can be found in those measures concerned with the study of 'self.' The study of 'self' has seen a renewed interest by researchers over recent years with theoretical conceptualisation and assessment instruments receiving particular attention (Harter, 1983). Self-concept and the superordinate construct self-esteem are considered to be fundamental aspects of gaining the individual's introspective view (Harter, 1983).

Researchers have given considerable attention to the study of self-concept and self-esteem in children from divorced families (Burnett, 1996; Ochiltree, 1988; Trusty, Peck & Matthews, 1994). A literature search reveals that there has been less attention given to the effects of divorce on single mothers' self-concept and self-esteem. Further, the researcher was unable to identify any research investigating the relationship that may exist between mother and child's self-concept postdivorce.

The Theory of Self-Concept

Self-concept has been supported by many researchers to be the cornerstone of a person's psychological adjustment and wellbeing (Burns cited in Amato, 1987; Ford, 1985; Harter, 1982; Hattie, 1992; Marsh & Hattie, 1996). Harter (1982) states that self-concept is central to any investigation into the 'self.' Further, that the assessment and enhancement of the individual's self-concept is critical to all

professionals dealing with the wellbeing of adults and children.

Even though researchers agree on the importance of self-concept, inadequate conceptualisation has resulted in ambiguous meaning and consequently problematic measures (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Shavelson & Bolus, 1982). Matters are further complicated by the overlap of the construct self-esteem, also an integral part of the 'self' inquiry. Terms are often used interchangeably and not clearly defined, creating contradiction and uncertain meaning (Hattie, 1992). Hattie (1992) states that self-concept is synonymous with terms such as self-perception, self-image or self-identity. Self-esteem however, can be considered as self-worth, self-regard or self-feeling.

In order to gain a clearer understanding of self-concept, contemporary theorists' refer to the significant contributions made by the historical scholars, James (1890,1892), Cooley (1902) and Mead (1925,1934) (as cited in Harter, 1983, 1996; Hattie, 1992). James considered the 'self' to be constructed of two fundamental aspects; the 'I' self and the 'Me' self. The 'I' self as subject, is that subjective part of the self that organises and interprets one's experiences. Further, the 'I' self represents that knowledge of self that one exists separate from others (Harter, 1983). The second aspect being the 'Me' self, the self as object, an empirical sum of things objectively known about the self. Self-concept is represented in the 'Me' self. It is that structure which categorises oneself and is the object of one's knowledge and evaluation of self (Harter, 1983, 1996; Hattie, 1992). For example, I am an adult and a woman. I am good at household duties, but not athletics.

James argued that the construction of 'self' is influenced by a number of

factors which are contained within a trilevel hierarchy of self. Material self comprises physical body and possessions, which form the subordinate level and basis of the 'self.' Possessions not only include material goods but also include spouse, children and family. The social self consists of one's perception of how others perceive one's characteristics. James noted that a person may have many social selves (Harter, 1983, 1996). For example, how fellow employees perceive one may not be the same as how one's family thinks about one. At the apex of the hierarchy is the spiritual self, comprising of inner thoughts, temperament and moral principles. Harter (1996) says that James considered the spiritual self to be the most enduring aspect of the self. James' theory demonstrates that he not only considered 'self' to be hierarchical, but considered each level to be multidimensional (Harter, 1983, 1996).

Whereas James postulated a hierarchical and multifaceted construction of self, Cooley and Mead (as cited in Harter, 1983, 1996; Hattie, 1992) concentrated on the importance of social interaction. Cooley believed that significant others formed a reflection of oneself from which one incorporates these appraisals into a sense of 'self.' The 'self' is made up of what one perceives others to think of them in regard to such attributes as appearance, motives, deeds and character (Harter, 1996). Cooley refers to his notion of 'self' as the "looking glass self," as significant others form a social mirror of the 'self.'

Similarly, Mead (as cited in Harter, 1983, 1996; Hattie, 1992) emphasised social interaction and the importance role feedback from significant others played in forming an attitude about oneself (Harter, 1996). Mead suggested that one forms an attitude about oneself based on the attitude others take towards us (Harter,

1996). Individuals react and adopt the perspective of a generalised other. The generalised other is the integration of a generalised group of significant others, rather than a set of specific others. Therefore, information is considered both from specific others as well as a more generalised attitude towards the self. As these reflected appraisals from others are internalised they are incorporated into an attitude about the self in a relatively enduring form (Harter, 1996).

By incorporating the premises contained within these classic theories, contemporary researchers have offered broad simplified operational definitions of self-concept. Hattie (1992) and Shavelson and Bolus (1982) concur and define self-concept as a persons' self perception formed through experience and interpretations of their environment. Even more specifically, Mboya (1993, p. 318) interprets self-concept as "We define and evaluate ourselves on the basis of how others define and evaluate us, or how we perceive others to define and evaluate us". Most theorists contend, like James, that self-concept is multidimensional in nature and includes attributes of attractiveness, achievements, capabilities and relationships (Lawler & Lennings, 1992; Marsh & Hattie, 1996). Evaluations are formed regarding specific domains as well as a global self-concept (Marsh & Hattie, 1996). Within the realm of self-perception one must also consider the construct of self-esteem, referred to by Harter (1985, 1986, 1996) as global self-worth.

Self-esteem formed a critical part of James' 'self' theory (Harter, 1996). It would be remiss to consider that one's sense of self was constructed simply of self descriptions and self evaluations. Hattie (1992) points out that we want to believe that we are worthwhile in areas that are important to us. Those aspects of self that are most salient are worthwhile (Hattie, 1992). James' expressed his notion of level

of self-esteem in a well known formula (Harter, 1996):

$$\text{Self-esteem} = \frac{\text{Success}}{\text{Pretentions}}$$

This represents the ratio of a person's perceived success to aspirations of success, or pretensions (Harter, 1996). James' considered self-esteem to be more than just the aggregate of a persons' imagined success in life, but emphasised the salience of dimensions in one's life. Those aspects of one's life that are highly regarded are those aspects in which success or failure will either build or erode beliefs of self-worth (Harter, 1996; Hattie, 1992). James' formula (Harter, 1996) states that:

High self-esteem = perceived success \geq aspirations for success

Low self-esteem = perceived success \leq aspirations for success

If one does not succeed in an area that is unimportant, self-esteem will not be effected detrimentally and this dimension can be discounted (Harter, 1996). On the contrary, lack of success in an area one considers to be important will threaten sense of self-worth (Hattie, 1992). James postulated that successes in domains of importance are most predictive of self-esteem (Harter, 1996). Self-esteem is therefore an important construct relative to self-concept, as not only are researchers interested in self-descriptions and evaluations but the relevance of these evaluations to the individual contribute to an overall sense of self in one's life (Harter, 1996).

Harter's (1985, 1986) self-perception scales address and incorporate these important theoretical notions. Many measures of self-concept and self-esteem have

been developed, however Harter (1985, 1986) has created a series of scales adapted to suit a range of age groups and populations. Furthermore, Harter is credited with being one of the few contemporary researchers who has developed self-concept scales founded on a strong theoretical model (Keith & Bracken, 1996). As Harter has contributed significantly to the measurement of self-concept (Keith & Bracken, 1996), the following discussion explains the use of these scales within the developmental period relevant to this study.

A Developmental Perspective on Self-Concept

In assessing these constructs research has shown that a sense of self will look different at different developmental stages (Harter, 1983, 1990). From age 8 years however, self evaluations are formed and judgements may vary across different domains. Harter and Pike (1984) found that by middle childhood children are able to make both global judgements of self-worth as well as provide specific self-evaluations across a variety of domains. For example, a person may make a positive judgement regarding their maths ability but have a negative opinion about the way they look (Harter, 1986). Children in this age group were also able to reveal clear differences in the importance they placed on various areas. For example, a negative opinion may be expressed about the way they look but they may consider physical appearance to be irrelevant. Global self-worth, which encapsulates the persons' overall evaluation of themselves, was expressed by children as young as 8 years (Harter, 1986; Marsh & Hattie, 1996). Messer and Harter (1986, p.2) describe these overall evaluations as "how much one likes oneself as a person."

Furthermore, during middle childhood, children develop a sense of competence that will sustain them over the developmental transitions which will occur in adolescence. As the self-concept is becoming increasingly differentiated and more stable this developmental period appears to be particularly prominent (Brody & Flor, 1997).

Therefore, the investigation of self-concept as a major focus is important as it directly taps the perspective of the individual and can be applied to both adults and children (Amato, 1987; Harter, 1985, 1986; Marsh & Hattie, 1996). Further, as suggested by Markus and Wurf (1987) self-concept has highly relevant practical applications in its role in behaviour regulation and mediation.

Self-Concept in Practice

With the conceptual issues of self-concept having been addressed, the discussion now focuses on the applied implications of self-concept. The following three sections discuss findings in relation to the specific demographic groups sampled in this study. Key aspects of self-concept in regard to single mothers are discussed, followed by a summary of the findings relating to self-concept and children. Although findings are limited, a brief exposition of the connection between mother's and children's self-concept is then given.

Single Motherhood and Well-Being

Demo and Acock (1996) studied the psychological well-being and self-worth of mothers with four family types; first married, remarried, divorced and continuously single. Their findings indicated that single mothers, both divorced and

continuously single, reported significantly lower global well-being than their married counterparts. However, on the self-esteem measure, there was no significant difference between the divorced and married mothers (Demo & Acock, 1996). Demo and Acock's (1996) study also found that the strongest and most consistent predictors of the mother's psychological well-being was their child's well-being and positive parent-child relations. Moreover, these factors were particularly salient to the single and divorced mothers. These family relationship variables were found to be much more important to the mother's well-being than the sociodemographic variables examined, such as household size, income, mother's age, race and education (Demo & Acock, 1996).

Brody and Flor (1997) suggest that positive self-esteem promotes an optimistic view of life which has been linked with increases in the mother's effectiveness in coping with stress. This enables the mothers to participate in and enjoy more supportive and nurturant relationships with their children.

Not only has the wellbeing of single mothers been reported but a significant amount of information has been presented regarding the wellbeing of children in single parent families. These investigations have revealed not only outcomes for children in general, but suggest that gender differences are apparent when considering feelings of wellbeing.

Self-Concept, Children and Gender Differences

Studies of mother-headed families have shown that boys and girls differ on self-concept measurement, as the relationship between single mothers and their children have shown gender differences (Bronstein et al., 1993; Hetherington &

Clingempeel, 1992). These differences may be due to distinctions in the relationships between mother-daughter and mother-son in father absent families (Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1992). Mboya (1993) found that the quality of mother-daughter relationships had stronger associations with the girl's self-concept than did the son's. This suggested that girl's self-concept was more strongly affected by mother relationship factors. In general terms, positive mother-child relationships were associated with higher self-concept (Mboya, 1993).

On self-concept measures boys more often than girls however, report that they are athletically competent (Burnett, 1996; Wu & Smith, 1997). In contrast, girls rate themselves as better behaved than boys (Wu & Smith, 1997). Boys also reported higher self-concept in maths, girls reporting higher scores in areas of reading and relationships (Burnett, 1996). Burnett (1996) noted that these differences in domains were very small.

Whereas many studies have reported that boys score higher than girls on measures of global self-worth, Burnett (1996) found no significant gender differences. Although Bynum and Durm (1996) found that children from divorced families do report significantly lower self-esteem than children from intact families, Amato's (1987) results did not support this finding. Amato (1987) found no significant differences between the self-esteem of children from divorced and intact families. Furthermore, Amato (1987) states that Australian studies have not revealed the negative effects on children following divorce often reported by overseas studies.

Not only is it important to consider self-concept in individual groups (that is; single mothers and children), but it is important to further extend these notions by

endeavouring to relate them to each other.

Self-Concept, Single Mothers and Their Children

Family researchers agree that social context has an important influence on the development of self-concept. The child's interactions with parents and the quality of those interactions are critical in the formulation of self-concept. These factors are most powerful in predicting the child's later development (Burnett, 1996; Knight & Hughes 1996; Lawler & Lennings, 1992; Mboya, 1993; Wu & Smith, 1997). If parental interactions are so vital to a child's development, the primary care giver's role must be paramount, as suggested in the research.

Larson and Richards (as cited in Demo & Acock, 1996) found that mothers are typically the central actors in their families, and are more involved in their children's lives than fathers are. Single mothers maintaining primary custody of their children must therefore fulfill an even greater role in their children's lives. As single-mother families fulfil both parental roles and are the child's sole primary adult resource, these children are more vulnerable and influenced by their mother's life circumstances. This may account for reports of lower self-concept (Gringlas & Weinraub, 1995).

Parental psychological functioning has been linked to the child's adjustment (Brody & Flor, 1997). Brody and Flor (1997) found that single mothers with higher self-worth exhibited more empathy and an increased ability to nurture their children. They positively linked maternal psychological functioning with more supportive and nurturant parent-child relationships. These factors mediated the child's adjustment and acted as a buffer against life stresses (Brody & Flor, 1997). There is increasing

awareness of the impact of parents' actions on the health of their children, as a positive parent-child relationship has been associated with good self-esteem of children (Whiteside, 1998).

Self-Concept and Behaviour

To this point, a sense of 'self', both self-perception (self-concept) and self-esteem (global self-worth) appears primarily to be internal cognitions or notions. Theorists conceptualise these cognitions in an abstract context in order to explain attitudes of adequacy or inadequacy about oneself. Markus and Wurf (1987) indicate that self-concept is not only important on a theoretical level, as an explanation of 'self', but also on a tangible and interventional level due to the significant role it plays in reflecting ongoing behaviour. Furthermore, self-concept organises, mediates and regulates behaviour (Maccoby, 1980; Markus & Wurf, 1987). Researchers have suggested that self-concept may be one of the most significant regulators of behaviour (Markus & Wurf, 1987). Markus and Wurf (1987) state that life events or social structural features of the environment have poorly explained behaviour and that the importance of self-concept should be emphasised. According to Markus and Wurf (1987) self-concept most significantly mediates intrapersonal processes; interpersonal processes, affect and motivation. Interpersonal processes comprise of factors such as social perception, choice of situation, interaction strategy and reaction to feedback.

Considering these further implications of self-concept and its mediating role of behaviour, the importance of such a construct must be inferred in regard to mothers and children who have experienced family breakdown. If self-concept plays

an important role in regulating behaviour, both for intrapersonal and interpersonal processes, the mother's self-concept must affect her ability to promote positive relationships with her children. Healthy relationships with one's mother have been established to be an important component in the adjustment and psychological wellbeing of children (Brody & Flor, 1997; Mboya, 1993). As the formation of a healthy self-concept is largely dependent on support and adequate reflections from significant others, one can infer that a mother whose self-concept is positive will be able to provide the environment necessary for the child to also develop a healthy and positive sense of self. On the other hand, a mother with poor self-concept and consequent transference to behaviour, may not provide the psychological environment for the child to establish feelings of adequacy. Mboya (1993) says that it is reasonable to suggest that a child's self-concept will be significantly influenced by the mother-child relationship. Moreover, that positive parental behaviour leads to positive child self-concept.

This project extends this notion further on the basis of links between behaviour and self-concept, and the consequent influence of mothers' wellbeing on the wellbeing of their children, by suggesting that in the case of single mother families:

Positive mother self-concept → Positive behaviour → Positive child self-concept

Another important issue when considering this group is the suggestion by Markus and Wurf (1987) that self-concept is dynamic, it is active, forceful and capable of change. This indicates that the assessment of self-concept, including self-

esteem, is a useful tool to enable intervention. These constructs are more than a 'state of mind' or colloquially 'the ghost in the machine', but are indicative of the daily workings of people's lives. For those mothers and children who do not feel adequate in many aspects of their lives, Markus and Wurf (1987) suggest that intervention measures can be put in place to ensure that a healthy sense of self can be achieved. These suggestions are highly relevant to a study of this nature. The self-concept outcomes for single mothers and their children need not be considered in finality. Those families who might be experiencing difficulty which is reflected in poor self-concept have the opportunity to improve their wellbeing. The idea of a dynamic self-concept allows single parent families the scope to recover from difficult life events and emerge emotionally and psychologically healthy. Single parent families who already have a robust sense of self are resilient and protected against psychological and emotional challenges and can maintain their sense of wellbeing.

The Current Study

Mothers play an unquestionably important role in the development of their children, with the mother-child relationship enabling the child's positive psychological growth. This may be particularly pertinent in the single-mother family, where the mother plays a central role in the child's upbringing. If self-concept is reflected in behaviour and the mother's ability to parent, it makes sense that children whose mothers have a high self-concept will benefit from a more positive family environment. This backdrop of a psychologically healthy environment provided by the mother must surely in turn form a solid basis for the

development of the child's healthy sense of self. This may be even more noticeable in these families, who experience more adversity and whose children rely more heavily on one sole parent, in this case the mother.

The focus of this study therefore, was to investigate whether a relationship exists between a single mother's self-concept and her child's self-concept. Further, if a relationship exists, what is the strength and magnitude of that relationship?

The first hypothesis to be tested in this study was that child's self-concept domain scores will reflect mother's self-concept domain scores. The domain scores of the children are expected to show a moderate to strong, positive relationship with mother domain scores. High scores on the mother's self-concept scale will indicate high scores on the child's self-concept scale. However, the magnitude of the relationship is expected to be greater between mothers and daughter's domain scores than between mothers and son's domain scores.

The second hypothesis to be tested was that the child's global self-worth will be predicted by the mother's self-concept domain scores. Therefore, the criterion variable (dependent variable) was the child's global self-worth and was predicted by the six predictors (independent variables) of the mother's self-concept subscale scores.

Method

Research Design

The research questions generated were addressed by two multidimensional survey questionnaires. The self report scales were used to obtain separate self-concept scores for single mothers and their children. The predictor variables were the single mother's self-concept subscale scores. The criterion variables were the children's self-concept subscale scores. As the nature of the relationships between the mother's and their child's self-concepts and the prediction of child scores from mother's scores was the aim, correlational and regression analysis was employed. The analysis was conducted for mothers (predictor) and children (criterion) with gender differences also included.

Ethical considerations of voluntary participation, confidentiality and anonymity were addressed.

Participants

Due to the specific sample required, a nonrandom purposive sample was necessary. Participants comprised of 30 single mothers and their 8 to 12 year old child, resulting in a total sample of 60. A single mother and a child from the same family were paired to minimise the impact of the many potential influential confounding factors. All single mothers met the research criteria of having custody of the child and being either separated or divorced from the child's father. No minimum time since separation was set, however length of separation ranged from one to ten years. Only those single mothers not currently cohabiting or in a relationship were included. Therefore, the single mother was the only parental

figure in the family household.

Of the 30 children sampled, 33% were boys ($n=10$) and 67% were girls ($n=20$), mean age = 10 years ($SD = 1.16$). The average time since the mother had been separated from the child's father was 5.5 years ($SD = 2.56$). The majority, 64% ($n=19$), had initiated the separation themselves. In 23% ($n=7$) of cases the ex-spouse had initiated the separation whilst in 13% ($n=4$) of cases the separation had been by mutual arrangement between the mother and ex-spouse.

Various recruitment methods were used as response rates were extremely low. Initially, local State and Catholic Primary Schools were selected. The School Principals were contacted by telephone to explain the study and its implications. Permission to include notices in the school's weekly newsletter was sought from the School Principals. All Principals agreed to include the notices in the school newsletter which requested single mothers who might be willing to participate in the study and met the research criteria, to contact the researcher directly.

As response rates from the school notices were so low, alternative methods were employed for further recruitment. Notices were placed in local community centres where services were specifically aimed at mothers and in particular, single mothers. In addition, the local community newspaper "Community News" published an article inviting those who met the criteria to participate. Finally, recruitment by informal networking and snowballing proved to be the most effective way of eliciting volunteer single mothers.

Single mothers contacted the researcher by telephone and the requirements of participation, including that of their child, was explained. A day and time convenient to both parties was arranged for the researcher to administer the

questionnaire to the mother and child in their home. All participants were given the opportunity to withdraw or telephone to cancel the appointment.

All participants were informed that their questionnaire responses were not identifiable as those of individuals, and that they would be confidential to the researcher. Particular attention was given to explain this clearly to the children. As some parents requested that they read their child's responses, strict confidentiality was also maintained between parent and child survey responses. No parent was allowed to read their child's responses.

All volunteers completed the study with no withdrawals or cancellations.

Materials

The instruments used for this study were the Adult Self-Perception Profile (ASPP) (see Appendix A) (Messer & Harter, 1986) and the Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC) (see Appendix C) (Harter, 1985). The ASPP was used to assess the single mother's self-concept and the SPPC used to assess the children's self-concept.

Both instruments are part of a series of self-perception profile scales, with the ASPP being an upward extension of the SPPC. The ASPP includes those subscales analogous to the SPPC domains plus additional domains relevant to adults. The same structural format and scoring method is employed for both scales (Harter, 1985; Messer & Harter, 1986).

Adult Self-Perception Profile (ASPP).

The ASPP is a 50 item multidimensional self-report scale. Twelve subscales consisting of four items and one subscale consisting of six items. The 12 subscale

domains are: Sociability, Job Competence, Nurturance, Athletic Abilities, Physical Appearance, Adequate Provider, Morality, Household Management, Intimate Relationships, Intelligence, Sense of Humour and Global Self-Worth. Global Self-Worth was the six item subscale.

The internal consistency reliability for the subscales based on Cronbach's alpha range from .65 to .91; median = .81. These reliabilities indicate the scale possesses adequate to good internal consistency (Keith & Bracken, 1996; Messer & Harter, 1986). Construct validity using factor analysis is supported by Keith and Bracken (1996) and Messer and Harter (1986). A 10 factor solution was found with factor loadings ranging from .65 to .89; median = .775. The subscale 'Job Competence' did not define its own factor, however this subscale is not included in this study's analysis. Cross loadings of factors was not significant with no loadings being higher than .09. Global self-worth was excluded from the factor analysis. No test-retest values were found.

Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC).

The SPPC comprises 36 self-report items, that is six subscales consisting of six items each. The six subscale domains are: Scholastic Competence, Social Acceptance, Athletic Competence, Physical Appearance, Behavioural Conduct and Global Self-Worth. The scale is appropriate for children aged 8 to 13 years and is suitable for individual or group administration (Harter, 1985).

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales ranged from .71 to .86, indicating moderate internal consistency reliability (Harter, 1985; Keith & Bracken, 1996). Factor analysis indicated five factors, with factor loadings ranging from .33 to .81. No cross loadings were greater than .18, supporting high construct validity

(Harter, 1985; Wylie, 1989;). Global Self-Worth subscale was excluded. Granleese and Joseph (1994) investigated the test-retest properties of the SPPC. Twenty-four primary school children were tested at 8 years of age and again at 11 years of age. No changes in mean scores were found between the two test times, and Harter's (1985) results were replicated (Granleese & Joseph, 1994). These results however, must be considered tentatively due to the small sample size.

Harter (1985) and Messer and Harter (1986) explain that Global Self-Worth is excluded from both the ASPP and SPPC factor analysis as it is independent of the other subscales. Harter (1985) and Messer and Harter (1986) contend that it would not emerge as a systematically distinctive factor.

Questionnaire format and scoring.

Both scales employ a forced-choice format on a four point scale. The unique question format allows structured alternatives aimed to reduce socially desirable answers (Harter, 1985; Messer & Harter, 1986). The participant is first asked to decide which of two alternatives best describes him/her, then indicates whether the statement is only *sort of true* or *really true* for them (see sample question overleaf). All questions are counterbalanced with half beginning with a positive statement and half beginning with a negative statement. Each question contains two statements indicating that some of the population feels one way about themselves whilst some of the population feel the alternative way. (Harter, 1985; Messer & Harter, 1986). Subscale items are distributed evenly throughout the questionnaire. A sample question from each scale is shown in Table 1 and 2.

Table 1

Sample question Adult Self-Perception Profile

Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me				Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are very happy being the way they are.	BUT	Other adults would like to be different.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Table 2

Sample question Self-Perception Profile for Children

Really True for Me	Sort of True for Me				Sort of True for Me	Really True for Me
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids feel like they are just as smart as other kids their age.	BUT	Other kids aren't so sure and wonder if they are smart.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Each item is assigned a value of one to four according to the option selected.

One represents the least positive self-perception score and four being the most positive. A mean score for each subscale is calculated. Discrepancy scores are calculated by participants completing the Importance Rating Scales (see Appendixes B and D) attached to the ASPP and SPPC. This scale identifies differences in perceived adequacy of domains and the importance placed on each domain.

As only those subscales that are analogous between the two instruments will be considered in the analysis, Table 3 demonstrates the similarity between the domains of the ASPP and the SPPC.

Table 3

Content of the Six Analogous Domains for Adult Self-Perception Profile and
Self-Perception Profile for Children

Subscale Domain	Description	
	ASPP	SPPC
Sociability	A person's behaviour in the presence of others, e.g. fun to be with, likes to meet new people, is at ease with others.	The degree to which the child feels accepted by peers, e.g. feels popular, most kids like them.
Athletic Abilities	The concept of the abilities related to sports, e.g. sense of competence in sports, willing to participate in sport and try new physical activities.	Refers to sports and outdoor games, e.g. child feels they are competent at sports, willing to try new sports, participate in outdoor activities.
Physical Appearance	Refers to the way one looks, e.g. feeling attractive, being happy and satisfied with one's looks.	Pertains to the way one looks, e.g. feeling that they are good-looking, happy with the way one looks.
Morality	Behaviour based on standards of conduct of what is right & wrong, e.g. living up to moral standards and behaving ethically.	Refers to the way the child behaves, e.g. doing the right thing, act the way they are suppose to, avoid getting into trouble.
Intelligence	The ability to learn and know, e.g. feeling smart, understanding things, feeling intellectually capable.	The child's perception of their ability in relation to scholastic performance.
Global self-worth	Global perceptions of worth, e.g. being pleased with oneself, liking the kind of person one is.	Global judgement of worth, e.g. likes oneself as a person, generally happy with oneself.

Note. Adapted from "Content of Each Domain," by B. Messer and S. Harter, 1986,

Manual for the Adult Self-Perception Profile, p. 4-5 and "Content of Each Domain"

by S. Harter, 1985, Manual for the Self-Perception Profile for Children, p. 6.

Procedure

Initial contact with participants was by telephone, either mothers responding to public notices or the researcher following-up informal contacts. The nature and requirements of the study were explained, including the participation of a child within the required age group, 8-12 years. Arrangements were made for the questionnaire to be administered and completed at the participant's home by the researcher. The researcher tested pairs of single mothers and a child, personally. Both mother and child were tested in the same session. Sessions times ranged from 20-40 minutes. Before administering the questionnaire each parent read and signed the consent form. Each consent form contained permission for both the mother and her child to participate in the study (see Appendix E). Ethical issues had been previously addressed by the Edith Cowan University, School of Psychology Ethics Committee.

Administration and Instructions.

Introductory comments by the researcher addressed voluntary participation and the right to withdraw for both mother and child. Anonymity and confidentiality were assured. A short conversation followed in order to establish rapport in an attempt to elicit honest responses due to the personal nature of the questions. This also provided an opportunity for either mother and child to ask questions. The exact nature and purpose was not disclosed initially, participants was informed that the study was concerned with the wellbeing of single mothers and their children. More specific information regarding the nature and purpose of the study was discussed upon completion of the testing period.

Administration and standard instructions were followed in accordance with the ASPP and SPPC scale manuals (see Appendixes F and G). Emphasis however, was placed upon the instruction that the questionnaire was not a test and that there were no right or wrong answers. These instructions were particularly aimed at the children. In order to minimise parental influence participants were seated apart and the children were encouraged to ask questions of the researcher rather than the parent. All participants were be given assistance where necessary and the opportunity to ask any questions.

The question format posed little problem for the children. Most children commented that they were used to completing questionnaires at school. Some children needed only minor clarification of the meanings of words, in particular, 'appearance'. The adults however, experienced more difficulty in understanding the structured forced-choice format. Instructions needed to be repeated for a number of mothers. Interpretation of questions posed a dilemma for some adults. Some mothers asked whether the questions referred to how they felt about a particular domain in general or about their feelings on that specific day. The researcher clarified that the answers should be considered in more general terms. Further explanation of instructions enabled full completion of the survey.

Upon completion of the survey, the surveys were handed to researcher. Participants were thanked for their time and any further questions were answered. Participants were also advised to contact the researcher if they had any queries.

A confidentiality issue did arise on a number of occasions upon completion of the questionnaire. Some parents requested that they be able to read their child's responses. Children responded either by verbally protesting, indicating discomfort

with the request or by willingly handing over the survey for the parent to read. The researcher however, maintained strict confidentiality and explained this to the parent. No survey was given to either participant by the researcher.

Scoring.

Each questionnaire item is allocated a score from one to four. The SPPC contains six subscales, each subscale consisting of six items. Each item score is allocated to the relevant subscale, the subscale scores are then summed and a mean score calculated. Six subscale mean scores are obtained, ranging on a continuous scale from one to four. A score of one reflects the lowest self-perception score and a score of four indicates the most positive self-perception score. The ASPP replicates the scoring method however, 12 subscale means are calculated, 11 subscales comprising of four items and one subscale consisting of six items. Continuous mean scores from one to four are also obtained for each subscale.

Results

All data screening and data analysis procedures were performed on Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Data Screening

The data was examined prior to analysis for accuracy of data entry, missing values and assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. Assumptions of multivariate analysis were also assessed.

All six predictor variables were examined for assumption violations; Adult Intelligence, Adult Sociability, Adult Athletic Ability, Adult Physical Appearance, Adult Morality and Adult Global Self-Worth. The six criterion variables; Child Scholastic Competence, Child Social Acceptance, Child Athletic Ability, Child Physical Appearance, Child Behavioural Conduct and Child Global Self-Worth were also tested for assumption violations.

No data were missing in the 60 cases used in the analysis. Assumptions of normality were found to be violated. The variables Adult Morality, Child Athletic Ability, and Child Scholastic Competence, were logarithmically transformed to reduce negative skewness and kurtosis. No cases were identified as univariate outliers using z scores, range -3 to +3. No multivariate outliers were identified through Mahalanobis distance with $p < .001$. Despite transformation of skewed variables, the assumption of normality was not met. Wylie (1989) in her assessment of these scales (ASPP and SPPC) found that variable distributions were negatively skewed. Even though skewness was evident, scatterplots suggested that

assumptions of correlation were satisfactory. Therefore, the original variables were maintained for analysis.

Relationships Between Mother's Self-Concept and Child's Self-Concept

Bivariate correlation analysis was performed using Pearson's product-moment correlation. Mean scores for each subscale were calculated and correlations conducted between the pairs of mother and child subscale scores as indicated in Table 4. The scales of the ASPP that were not analogous with the SPPC subscales were omitted from the analysis.

Table 4

Pearson's Product Moment Correlations

Correlations	
Mother (predictor) Adult Self-Perception Scale	Boy or Girl (criterion) Self-Perception Profile for Children
Intelligence	Scholastic competence
Sociability	Social acceptance
Athletic abilities	Athletic abilities
Physical appearance	Physical appearance
Morality	Behavioural conduct
Global self-worth	Global self-worth

Due to sample size concerns, power calculations were performed. Power coefficients of .70 for the weaker correlations were found and .99 for the strongest correlations.

A small, positive relationship between Adult Social Acceptance and Child Social Acceptance was significant, $r(58) = .390, p < .05$. This indicated that as mother's reported higher Social Competence scores, their children reported higher Sociability scores. Substantial, positive relationships were significant for Adult Physical Appearance and Child Scholastic Competence, $r(58) = .413, p < .05$; Adult Physical Appearance and Child Physical Appearance, $r(58) = .435, p < .05$; and Adult Physical Appearance and Child Global Self-Worth; $r(58) = .369, p < .05$. Adult Morality correlated significantly with Child Scholastic Competence; $r(58) = .583, p < .01$ and Child Global Self-Worth; $r(58) = .503, p < .01$, both indicating substantial, positive relationships. Small, positive relationships were found to be significant for Adult Global Self-Worth and Child Scholastic Competence; $r(58) = .439, p < .05$, Child Physical Appearance; $r(58) = .406, p < .05$ and Child Global Self-Worth; $r(58) = .395, p < .05$.

These results indicate that in the following instances: Child Social Acceptance; Child Physical Appearance; and Child Global Self-Worth, the child's judgement of adequacy reflected those of the mothers in the analogous domain. In other instances there was not the same degree of correlation. For example mothers who were generally happy with themselves had children whose responses also indicated that they were happy with their lives. Mother and Child Correlations are shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Correlations Among Mother's Self-Concept Domain Scores and Child's Self-Concept Domain Scores

	Child Scholastic Competence	Child Social Acceptance	Child Athletic Abilities	Child Physical Appearance	Child Behavioural Conduct	Child Global Self- Worth
Adult Intelligence	.320	.058	-.028	.150	-.228	.228
Adult Social Acceptance	.282	.390*	.151	.094	-.202	.200
Adult Athletic Abilities	.012	-.067	.236	-.015	-.245	-.205
Adult Physical Appearance	.413*	.071	.044	.435*	-.056	.369*
Adult Morality	.583**	-.006	.099	.307	.047	.503**
Adult Global Self-Worth	.439*	.134	-.065	.406*	-.038	.395*

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed)

** $p < .01$ (2-tailed)

Specific gender relationships between mother and either girl's or boy's scores are shown in Table 6 and Table 7 respectively. Correlation values in Table 6 clearly shows a number of substantial, positive relationships of significance between the mother's self-concept domain scores and their daughter's scores. Table 7 however, illustrates that only the boy's Social Acceptance and the mother's Intelligence domain showed a significant relationship.

Table 6

Correlations Among Mother's Self-Concept Domain Scores and Girl's Self-ConceptDomain Scores

	Child Scholastic Competence	Child Social Acceptance	Child Athletic Abilities	Child Physical Appearance	Child Behavioural Conduct	Child Global Self- Worth
Adult Intelligence	.379	.551*	-.068	.281	-.311	.381
Adult Social Acceptance	.267	.655**	.106	.115	-.165	.274
Adult Athletic Abilities	-.002	.233	.390	.071	-.226	-.129
Adult Physical Appearance	.645**	.293	-.013	.467*	.031	.528*
Adult Morality	.641**	.058	-.057	.349	.275	.674**
Adult Global Self-Worth	.555**	.260	-.180	.463*	.159	.592**

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed)** $p < .01$ (2-tailed)

Table 7

Correlations Among Mother's Self-Concept Domain Scores and Boy's Self-Concept Domain Scores

	Child Scholastic Competence	Child Social Acceptance	Child Athletic Abilities	Child Physical Appearance	Child Behavioural Conduct	Child Global Self- Worth
Adult Intelligence	.259	-.843**	.173	-.183	-.205	-.089
Adult Social Acceptance	.027	-.092	-.385	-.163	.026	-.070
Adult Athletic Abilities	.057	-.622	-.170	-.271	-.312	-.378
Adult Physical Appearance	-.161	-.215	.023	.417	-.062	.107
Adult Morality	-.080	-.112	.331	-.056	-.076	-.201
Adult Global Self-Worth	-.131	-.049	-.135	.184	-.122	-.108

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed)

** $p < .01$ (2-tailed)

Prediction of Child's Global Self-Worth

Table 8 shows the unstandardised regression coefficients (B), the multiple correlation (R), and the squared multiple correlation (R^2). The multiple correlation was not significant, $F(6,23) = 2.124$, $p < .001$. Individual regression coefficients indicated that no single mother subscale score was significantly related to the child's Global Self-Worth score. The combined IVs (mother's subscale scores as shown in Table 6) did predict 36% of the variance in the DVs (child's Global Self-Worth score), R Square = .357 although this was not statistically significant.

Table 8

Standard Multiple Regression of Mother's Self-Perception Variables on Child's
Global Self-Worth

Variables	B	SE B	Beta	t	Sig t
Adult Physical Appearance	.230	.204	.306	1.128	.271
Adult Athletic Abilities	-.171	.129	-.263	-1.334	.195
Adult Global Self-Worth	-2.492	.226	-.030	-.110	.913
Adult Intelligence	8.716	.181	.109	.480	.636
Adult Morality	.308	.176	.352	1.754	.093
Adult Social Acceptance	3.276	.151	.000	.002	.998
(Constant)	1.906	.698		2.729	.012
R Square = .357					
Adjusted R Square = .189					

As Adult Morality, Adult Physical Appearance and Adult Global Self-Worth showed the most highly correlated relationships with Child Global Self-Worth, further regression analysis was performed using these variables. The multiple correlation was significant from zero, $F(3,26) = 3.811, p < .001$. These combined IVs (Adult subscales above) predicted 30% of the variance in the DV (Child Global Self-Worth). Further, Adult Global Self-Worth alone was statistically significant and predicted 16% of the variance in Child Global Self-Worth, $F(1,28) = 5.171, p < .001$.

Three of the Adult IV's (Morality, Physical Appearance and Global Self-Worth) made a significant unique contribution to predicting Child Global Self-

Worth, whereas Adult Global Self-Worth made a significant contribution to predicting Child Global Self-Worth alone. The other Adult subscales (Intelligence, Social Acceptance and Physical Abilities) were not significant contributors to Child's Global Self-Worth. Gender of the child did not yield significant results in the prediction of Child's Global Self-Worth.

Areas of Importance for Mothers and Children

The Importance Rating Scale also revealed those domains that mothers and children considered to be most important. Mothers indicated that Social Acceptance and Morality were the most important areas, whilst children indicated that Scholastic Competence and Behavioural Conduct were the most important areas. Table 9 reports those findings.

Table 9

Areas of Importance Shown by Percentage of Participants

Subscale Domain	Mothers	Children
Scholastic Competence/Intelligence	16%	86%
Social Acceptance	40%	50%
Athletic Ability	3%	57%
Physical Appearance	0%	27%
Morality/Behavioural Conduct	63%	90%

Discussion

This study aimed to explore the relationship between a single mother's self-concept and her child's self-concept. It was hypothesised that children's self-concept scores would be strongly and positively related to their mother's self-concept scores. It was also hypothesised that children's judgements of adequacy in the six competency domains would reflect their mother's judgements of adequacy in six analogous domains including Global Self-Worth. Mothers with high domain scores would have children who scored highly on the same domain. On the contrary mothers who judged themselves negatively would have children who judged themselves poorly. Mother-daughter pairs were expected to show a positive relationship of greater magnitude than mother-son pairs. Furthermore, it was hypothesised that variance in children's Global Self-Worth could be accounted for by the mothers subscale domain scores.

This is one of the few studies to use a multidimensional model of self-concept to examine the relationship between mothers and their children. The scales used in this project were designed to tap into the multidimensional nature of a person's self-concept (Harter, 1985, 1986). Thus, the scales tap into domain specific judgements of one's competency, as well as one's general sense of self-worth, or self-esteem (Harter, 1985; Messer & Harter, 1986). Adult domains included in this study were Physical Appearance, Athletic Competence, Intelligence, Morality, Social Acceptance and Global Self-Worth. Child domains were Physical Appearance, Athletic Competence, Scholastic Competence, Behavioural Conduct, Social Acceptance and Global Self-Worth. Previous inventories such as the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1967) and the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale

(1969) have used a unidimensional approach to evaluate self-concept. The unidimensional approach results in an index of overall global self-worth achieved by simply summing test response scores. This method of evaluating self-concept is based on a unitary notion and assumes that distinctions are not made in relation to different areas of one's life, and that all areas are weighted equally (Harter, 1982; Keith & Bracken, 1996; Marsh & Hattie, 1996; Shavelson & Bolus, 1982). Furthermore, these instruments fail to differentiate between the constructs of self-concept and self-esteem (Hattie, 1992).

Contemporary self theorists characterise self-concept as part of a larger self system that is multidimensional, with self-esteem being a distinct, although entwined, superordinate construct (Harter, 1982, 1983, 1985, 1986; Hattie, 1992; Keith & Bracken, 1996; Markus & Wurf, 1987; Marsh & Hattie, 1996; Messer & Harter, 1986). Harter (1982, 1986) emphasises the importance of distinguishing self-concept from self-esteem and that the latter is not simply the aggregate of specific self-concept domains. Furthermore, children as young as 8 years of age are able to make discrete judgements of different domains as well as having a view of their general sense of worth (Harter, 1982, 1983, 1985, Harter & Pike, 1984). A multidimensional approach therefore enables adequacy judgements of different domains of one's life to be clearly distinguished, with the additional information of one's general sense of self-worth (Eiser, Eiser & Havermans, 1995). The rationale for this approach is not only strongly supported by contemporary 'self' theorists but is based on strong theoretical models by James (1890/1983) and Cooley (1902) (Harter, 1982, 1983, 1985, 1986, 1996; Hattie, 1992; Keith & Bracken, 1996; Marsh & Hattie, 1996; Messer & Harter, 1986).

On the basis of using a multidimensional scale, single mother's and their children's domain specific judgement responses were considered both as individual groups, and in comparison with each other. As a group the single mothers scored over the midpoint of two on all six scales considered. As reported in Messer and Harter's research (1986), the mothers scored lowest on the scales of Athletic Abilities and Physical Appearance. Messer and Harter (1986, p. 19) suggest that "women in our society have poor physical self-perceptions." The mother's scored highest in the scale of Morality, which also replicates Messer and Harter's (1986) findings. However, in this study the second highest score for mothers was reported in the Global Self-Worth scale, which is in the medium range. Further examination reveals that 40% of mothers scored within the high range of 3.5 and over, indicating that the average score has been influenced by a small number of extremely low scores. In general, the single mothers made adequate to highly adequate judgements of themselves in regard to their general sense of self-worth.

The highest scores reported by the children was for the subscale Global Self-Worth and Scholastic Competency. Indicating that overall the children made positive adequacy judgements about themselves regarding school performance, and were positive in their global judgements about themselves. The lowest scores were obtained in the subscales Physical Appearance and Athletic Competence, however these were still in the medium range. These scores may also reflect the predominance of a female sample, as Harter (1985) found that girls tended to score lower in these two areas when compared to boys. However, the children in this study scored higher in all domains when compared to the children in Harter's (1985) research.

When considering both groups separately, single mothers and children, these results are encouraging as overall the average scores were clearly weighted towards positive competency and global judgements of self.

Specifically addressing the stated hypotheses the results showed that they were partially supported. Some mother and child domain scores were related, in particular, girl's self-perception indicated more similarity to mother's self-perception than did boys. Mother subscale domains most often related to overall child subscale domains were Adult Physical Appearance, Adult Morality and Adult Global Self-Worth. These adult domains were significantly related to Child Scholastic Competence, Child Physical Appearance and Child Global Self-Worth. The results of the mother-child correlations were replicated in the mother-daughter correlations but with greater magnitude. Overall child findings may have been diluted by the inclusion of mother-son correlations as mother-son domains were only significantly correlated between Adult Intelligence and Child Social Acceptance.

Collectively, the six mother self-perception domains did not significantly predict child's global self-worth scores, even though 36% of the variance was accounted for. Mother's self-perception in the areas of Morality, Physical Appearance and Global Self-Worth combined, did significantly account for 30% of the variance in child's Global Self-Worth. Adult Global Self-Worth alone, accounted for 16% of the variance of child global self-worth.

Mother's Self-Concept and Child's Self-Concept

The quality of interactions between mother and child is critical in formulating the child's self-concept. Therefore, her feelings of worthiness and

wellbeing are expected to impact on her child's self-judgement (Burnett, 1996; Mboya, 1993; Wu & Smith, 1997). Gringlas and Weinraub (1995) comment that the mother's influence and quality of relationships is especially apparent in single mother-headed households. However, the results in this study did not fully support this claim.

Adult Athletic Competence and Adult Intelligence subscales did not relate to any of the child subscale scores. This may be explained by the notion that for many adults, athletic activities and intellectual activities often end with the completion of school. Intellectual activities are described as activities of an academic or scholarly nature. This is the interpretation of intelligence indicated by the single mothers in this study. Therefore, one might expect mother and child competency scores to be different. It could be expected that children would have more positive judgements in these two areas as these domains are more salient and held in the present, and as such may be considered core perceptions. These domains, for the majority of mothers, would be related to past experiences, and therefore may be peripheral and less important.

Messer and Harter (1986) found similar low scores for women's Athletic Competence in their study, however, they explained this by suggesting a poor physical self-concept. The mothers in this study did score lower in the Intelligence domain than those tested by Messer and Harter (1986). The majority of women in Messer and Harter's (1986) study were upper middle to middle class with most having attended college, whereas the majority of mothers in this study may be considered to be working to middle class with no tertiary education. Compared to Harter's (1985) study the children participating in this project performed better with

higher scores reported in all subscale domains. The lack of relationship between any of the child domains and Adult Athletic Competence and Intelligence may be explained by the lower scores reported by this adult sample when compared to overall higher scores reported by the children. This is reflected in the mother and children's importance rating responses which indicates whether a domain is considered core or peripheral. Only 16% of mothers rated intelligence as important, and 3% of mothers rated athletic ability as important. On the contrary 86% of children rated scholastic competence as important and, 57% rated athletic ability as important.

The finding that the Adult Social Acceptance and Child Social Acceptance were related confirms an expected result. The family environment is the first context in which we learn socialisation (Edgar, 1993). Children are shaped by their social interactions with others, in particular significant others. They learn social constraints and sociability from their mothers. For those mothers whose children are socialised well, it is assumed that they are themselves well socialised and have sought to involve themselves and their children in regular social activities that include friends, peers and other children. This provides opportunity and environment for social skills to develop. Whereas those mothers who may not socialise well may be less inclined to pursue a variety of social settings for themselves and their children. There may be numerous reasons for the mothers sociability or lack of, but for the children of this age, social acceptance will primarily be based on their ability to communicate and negotiate the many social situations they will experience. The mothers would be key providers of these experiences in the early years.

Most consistently related to child subscale scores were the Adult Morality and Adult Physical Appearance subscale domains. Harter (1993) found that the domain of Behavioural Conduct is perceived by children to be the most highly valued by parents. Children perceived however, that the domain of Physical Appearance was most highly valued by peers (Harter, 1993). Both these domains are of substantial importance to children as found by Harter (1993). Harter and Marold (as cited in Harter, 1993) found that domains valued by significant others, parents and peers, were significantly important to oneself. Competency in domains that are important to others influence one's sense of self in the same way that those domains considered important by oneself (Harter & Marold, 1991 as cited in Harter, 1993). In this regard children may be more influenced by the values and behaviours demonstrated by their mother in relation to these two domains. It is suggested that children may be more attentive or sensitive to feelings of adequacy displayed by their mothers, surrounding areas they themselves value.

Adult Morality, Adult Physical Appearance and Adult Global Self-Worth were those areas that were correlated with Child's Global Self-Worth, and predicted 30% of the variance. An explanation for these findings may be that the resultant behaviour from these domains is more overt and therefore is more likely to have an effect on the child's own development of self. For example, a child may be more aware or more susceptible to the implications of a mother feeling happy with herself or her life generally, than whether the mother feels competent at sport. The mother's ability in sport being a domain that may have little impact or importance on her daily life. It would appear that a mother feeling adequate about herself and

having a positive sense of self, will have more implications for her children, than whether she judges herself as an adequate sportswoman.

Those areas that did not predict a variance and were not correlated with subscale domains may be more covert and the implications of them more subtle. For example, what indicators might be apparent to a child that their mother judges herself as intelligent. Discussions of this nature or demonstrable indications of intelligence that would be apparent to a child appear to be lacking at this stage. It is suggested that children of this age would not be aware of their mothers competency in this domain. At this age most parents are able to assist in areas of schoolwork and questions posed by children, however, the mother's judgement of inadequacy may become apparent as the child enters high school. For children of this age, this may be particularly important as they may be more likely to consider and understand direct candid facts and behaviour.

McGuire, Neiderhiser, Reiss, Hetherington and Plomin (1994) found in a study on siblings, that non-shared environmental influences were apparent in the area of global self-worth. Further, that genetic influences were found to be significant in areas of scholastic competence, athletic ability, social acceptance and physical appearance. In regard to children within the age group of this study, McGuire et al. (1994) suggested that environmental influences are still great, whilst genetic influences become more pronounced as the children become older. The McGuire et al. (1994) results supports the findings in this study by suggesting that environmental influences are important in areas of a child's life. As stated by Edgar (1993) the home environment is significant in its impact on the child's development. The environmental influences in the McGuire et al. (1994) study may encompass

those interactions between mother and child that impact on competency judgements. Furthermore, McGuire et al. (1994) explanations of the genetic influence on global self-worth may account for those domains not directly linked in these findings.

Gender Differences

Gender differences were expected, with mother-daughter scores expected to be more highly correlated than mother-son scores. Previous studies indicate that mother-son relationships, particularly when the mother is the residential custodial parent, show negativity, whilst the mother-daughter relationship often becomes closer in this single family situation (Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1992). Maccoby (1980, p.222) states that mothers and daughters tend to enter into reciprocal relationships, whilst mother and son relations are often based on the son's "egoistic demands." Furthermore, boys are more vulnerable and display more behavioural problems as a result of divorce (Maccoby 1980).

Even though more recent research (Burnett, 1996) has suggested that perhaps gender differences may not be as pronounced as once thought, the more traditional views (Harter, 1985; Maccoby, 1980) are supported by this study. Mother-son domain scores were only related among the Adult Intelligence and Child Social Acceptance scales. Although fewer relationships between mother-son variables were expected than daughters, this combination is difficult to explain. Furthermore, these variables resulted in a high, negative correlation. If mothers scored high on their perceived Intelligence scale, boys scored lower on their Social Acceptance, or boys who scored high on Social Acceptance had mothers who scored low on the Intelligence scale.

Harter (1986) states that the domain of Adult Intelligence taps into the ability to know and learn, feeling smart and understanding things. The Child Social Acceptance domain taps into the degree to which the child feels accepted by peers, feels popular. This particular relationship is difficult to explain and must be considered with caution. A suggestion however, might be that single mothers who feel intellectually capable may behave and feel more confident about themselves. These mothers may be reluctant to meet the egoistic demands of their sons and pursue a more egalitarian approach. This may create conflict and undermine the son's feelings of adequacy. However, this premise assumes the importance of the son's sense of adequacy being placed on competency achieved through self-centred ways. On the contrary, those mothers who feel inadequate may not create conflict regarding their son's demands and the son's feelings of adequacy are able to develop. It is suggested however, that replication would be required to ascertain whether this result is reliable or is simply due to chance.

As expected gender was indicative of mother-child domain relationships. Girl's self-concept subscale scores did correlate with their mother's self-concept scores on more variables. Mother-daughter variables reflected those relationships found in the overall mother-child results with Adult Morality, Adult Physical Appearance and Adult Global Self-Worth all being moderately correlated.

The fact that three adult variables predicted 30% of the variance of child's global self-worth gives support to the assertion that how mothers feel about themselves impact on their children's wellbeing. It is suggested however, that more overtly these feelings are reflected in the mother's behaviour and effect the kind of environment provided for the child's own feeling of sense to develop. That Adult

Global Self-Worth alone predicted 16% of the variance of Child's Global Self-Worth further affirms the salience of the mother's wellbeing and its affect on her children's psychological health. Even though different scales have been applied, Coopersmith (as cited in Hattie, 1992) also found that mothers with high self-esteem had children who rated high in self-esteem. Coopersmith (as cited in Hattie, 1992, p.185) stated that these mothers were "more emotionally stable, more self-reliant and resilient in their attitudes and actions" concerning the care of their child.

It is acknowledged that many other variables do play a role in the child's development of self. However, not only do the results of this study clearly show that mothers play a significant part in the child's development of self, but they also highlight the importance of noneconomic factors and cultural differences.

Economics and Cultural Considerations

A significant body of research has attested to the detrimental effects that single mothers and their children face due to their reduced income postdivorce or separation (Funder, 1996; Hetherington et al., 1998; Reekie, 1996). Although economic factors are important to consider it is suggested here that the emphasis on economics in the research is disproportionate to the experience of single parent families. Researchers and social commentators have overemphasised monetary issues.

The current study confirms this belief that 'money isn't everything' and that single mothers and their children enjoy a healthy sense of self and psychological wellbeing. Thirty percent and 16% of the variance in child's global self-worth was able to be predicted from mothers self-concept domains. The fact that mothers play

such a significant role in their child's wellbeing indicates that they are able to adjust their lifestyle accordingly to provide a healthy environment for their child's development.

Current research confirms these ideas (Funder & Kinsella, 1991; Hetherington et al., 1998; Weston & Funder, 1993). Family psychological characteristics have been found to have a far greater impact on children than family status or structure (Hattie, 1992). Funder (1996) found that irrespective of income level most single mothers were satisfied with their lives. Their role as mothers remain paramount and they were aware of the importance of providing a nurturing environment that promoted a positive sense of wellbeing for their children (Brody & Flor, 1997; Funder, 1996). Furthermore, single mothers adjusted their earnings and prioritised to ensure their children were provided with care and attention (Kinsella & Funder, 1991).

Research indicates that the majority of single mothers exhibit a strong sense of the importance of psychological wellbeing (Brody & Flor, 1997; Funder, 1996). Although economic hardship may be experienced by many single mothers, the development of a positive sense of self in their children remains an important priority. As contemporary research indicates the differences in the wellbeing of children from single mother families and children from two parent families is becoming less significant, and in some studies no difference has been found (Burnett, 1996; Funder, 1996; Weinraub & Wolf, 1983).

Another issue which has been raised by this study and its findings is the impact of cultural differences between Australia and the United States. It was noted that the Australian research indicates consistently more positive outcomes for single

mothers and their children (Amato, 1987; Funder, 1996; Weston & Funder, 1993) Findings in this study confirm these previous findings. The results indicated that many of the domain scores were negatively skewed. In other words, many participants scored highly. These findings may reflect the difference in the experience of single mothers and their children in Australia from the experience found in other countries.

Many of the earlier research findings suggesting profound detrimental outcomes for these families originated from overseas. However, Australian researchers (Amato & Keith, 1991; Burnett, 1996; Funder, 1996; Funder & Kinsella, 1991; Ochiltree, 1988; Weston & Funder, 1993) have contributed significantly to contemporary findings. These studies highlight the fact that most single mothers and their children are doing well, and that perhaps the overemphasis on negative outcomes is misconceived. Funder (1996) found no significant difference between the life satisfaction of single mothers as compared to married mothers. Amato and Keith (1991) and Burnett (1996) found little difference between the wellbeing of children from single parent families and the wellbeing of children from two parent families. All these studies used Australian participants.

There may be many reasons for these differences in findings, such as government welfare policies, community attitudes, employment opportunities, education opportunities, housing availability, support agencies and financial support. No doubt a combination of many factors must contribute to the Australian experience. However, most important in regard to this study is the positive outcomes that were found for both single mothers and their children. These positive outcomes further confirm the notion that single mothers contribute significantly to

the wellbeing of their children. The Australian experience shows positive psychological health and wellbeing in single mother-headed households.

In consideration of the findings, some limitations were found. The following section discusses limitations concerning the sample and issues surrounding the instrument used.

Limitations of the Current Study

Sampling.

A number of issues regarding the sample could have contributed to the results found in this study. The sample size was small, however the minimum required for correlation, $N=30$ as reported by Howell (1996), was obtained. Correlations in small samples can differ considerably from the true population correlation (Howell, 1996). This effect may have made a significant contribution to the noticeable difference in findings between genders, as boys made up the minority of the sample ($N=10$). The sample did reach the minimum requirements for multiple regression, that is $N=5$ for each predictor variable (Hill, 1995). It is important to note the difficulty in obtaining the sample. Efforts were initially made to obtain a random sample through a number of local schools, however as this was not possible a purposive sample had to be obtained.

The sampling method was not random and could suggest the possibility that the mothers who participated in this study may have been functioning better than members of the population at large. The majority of participants however, were employed either on a part-time or full-time basis, approximately 70%, with 13% remaining at home full-time and 17% completing university study. Therefore, the

sample obtained may not be representative of the general population, as university students may be slightly over represented in this sample when compared to the general population.

The size and nature of the sample used in this study, may warrant only a tentative generalisation of these results however, power coefficients indicate that the results can be considered reliable.

The Instruments (ASPP and SPPC)

Prior to analysis, data screening revealed that a number of variables were negatively skewed. This resulted from a lack of variance in the range of scores obtained, the majority of the sample scoring highly on self-concept subscales. Negative skewness was particularly extreme in the subscales: Adult Morality, Adult Social Acceptance, Child Athletic Ability, Child Intelligence and Child Behavioural Conduct. To a lesser degree negative skewness was found in the subscale variables: Adult Global Self-Worth, Adult Intelligence, Child Physical Appearance, Child Social Acceptance and Child Global Self-Worth. Wylie (1989) also found negatively skewed distributions on her assessment of these instruments.

Factors concerned with the instruments and sample are suggested as possible explanations for these distribution findings. Although Harter (1985, 1986) devised the unique format in order to minimise the possibility of social desirable answers, in this study many participants commented that they were aware of the repetition of questions and the inclusion of positive or negative answers. This was evident by participants commenting on why they were being asked the same question over again, just in a different way. This comment was made by both mothers and

children. It must be considered that in Harter's (1985, 1986) endeavour to make an easily understood questionnaire the underlying purpose of the questions may have been revealed, making it feasible that the majority may achieve high scores in many competency domains.

Implications of the Findings

The current study shows that the wellbeing of single mothers does influence the wellbeing of her children. Particular specific domains, such as Adult Morality, Physical Appearance and Global Self-Worth all were highlighted as being of particular significance in the development of the child's sense of self and global self-worth. These findings are important as they not only highlight the important influence that single mothers have on their children but they also confirm the positive experiences found in single parent families in Australia. Furthermore, it is suggested that the measurement of one's sense of wellbeing or positive regard is a useful tool when assessing mothers and children. Messer and Harter (1986) indicate the benefits of assessing self-perception across various domains as it enables the clinician to identify particular problematic areas. The assessment of general self-worth is beneficial, however, Messer and Harter (1986) suggest that it is more useful in planning treatment goals to identify specific areas of low self-concept that contribute to low feelings of overall sense of self-worth.

On a more applied level, Markus and Wurf (1987) emphasised the extension of self-concept as a cognition to its role in regulating and mediating behaviour. The implications of this study suggest these processes may be evident, in the way a mother raises her children. Those mothers with a healthy self regard are able to

provide an environment in which their children also develop a positive sense of self. This is done not only in subtle ways but for children in this age group, perhaps they are more sensitive to the more overt behaviours exhibited by their mothers, as a result of the mother's wellbeing.

From the information gathered in this study mother's self-concept does impact on her child's self-concept and overall sense of wellbeing. Although the exact nature of the mother's influence have not been answered with certainty in this study, the significant influences found do warrant consideration. If as suggested, mother's self-concept influences her behaviour and in turn her child's self-concept programs devised for single parent families will help them make positive adjustment.

Directions for future research.

Further investigation is needed with larger and more representative samples to reaffirm the present results and in particular clarify the results found in relation to mothers and sons. Studies comparing single mothers and their children with other family types would provide more information as to the salience of the mother's influence, either directly or indirectly (i.e. overt and more demonstrable behaviour, or covert and subtly in behaviours).

Many additional questions have been highlighted in this study. Why were some domains more salient in their relationships between mothers and children than others? The idea that self-concept regulates behaviour can be explored to further clarify how this translates to the daily workings of family life for not only single mothers but parents from other family types.

Extension of this study could also include other factors such as time since separation, assessment of the type of relationship experienced by the mother and child and issues surrounding the noncustodial father.

Conclusions

Although this exploratory study provides useful information, it must be considered against the background of its limitations. Of particular importance is the finding that single mother's wellbeing does influence the development of her child's sense of self. The salience of psychological wellbeing has been demonstrated to be paramount and far outweigh factors such as financial situation or level of education. The study clearly shows that despite a history of negative research, Australian single mothers and their children are experiencing family life in a way that appears similar to their married counterparts. In general they are satisfied with their lives and their children are doing well. This study also indicates that for those families who are not doing so well, intervention programs focusing on maternal self-concept could be developed to assist both mothers and children.

The present investigation provides some very valid considerations that address the void in the current literature particularly in the Australian context, and provides a starting point from which future study can proceed.

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Appendix A
Adult Self-Perception Profile

NAME : _____

WHAT I AM LIKE

These are statements which allow people to describe themselves. There are no right or wrong answers since people differ markedly. Please read the entire sentence across. *First* decide which one of the two parts of each statement *best describes you*, then go to that side of the statement and tick whether that is just *sort of* true for you or *really* true for you. You will just tick *ONE* of the four boxes for each statement.

	Really True For Me	Sort Of True For Me				Sort Of True For Me	Really True For Me
1.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults like the way they are leading their lives.	BUT	Other adults don't like the way they are leading their lives.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel that they are enjoyable to be with.	BUT	Other adults often question whether they are enjoyable to be with.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are not satisfied with the way they do their work.	BUT	Other adults are satisfied with the way they do their work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults see caring or nurturing others as a contribution to the future.	BUT	Other adults do not gain a sense of contribution to the future through nurturing others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	In games and sports some adults usually watch instead of play.	BUT	Other adults usually play rather than just watch.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are happy with the way they look.	BUT	Other adults are not happy with the way they look.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel they are not adequately supporting themselves and those who are important to them.	BUT	Other adults feel they are providing adequate support for themselves and others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults live up to their own moral standards.	BUT	Other adults have trouble living up to their moral standards.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	some adults are very happy being the way they are.	BUT	Other adults would like to be different.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are not very organised in completing household tasks.	BUT	Other adults are organised in completing household tasks.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults have the ability to develop intimate relationships	BUT	Other adults do not find it easy to develop intimate relationships.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE.

A.2

	Really True For Me	Sort Of True For Me			Sort Of True For Me	Really True For Me
12.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	When some adults don't understand something, it makes them feel stupid.	BUT	Other adults don't necessarily feel stupid when they don't understand.	<input type="checkbox"/>
13.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults can really laugh at themselves.	BUT	Other adults have a hard time laughing at themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>
14.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel uncomfortable when they have to meet new people.	BUT	Other adults like to meet new people.	<input type="checkbox"/>
15.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel they are very good at their work.	BUT	Other adults worry about whether they can do their work.	<input type="checkbox"/>
16.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults do not enjoy fostering the growth of others.	BUT	Other adults enjoy fostering the growth of others.	<input type="checkbox"/>
17.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults sometimes question whether they are a worthwhile person.	BUT	Other adults feel that they are a worthwhile person.	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults think they could do well at just about any new physical activity they haven't tried before.	BUT	Other adults are afraid they might not do well at physical activities they haven't ever tried.	<input type="checkbox"/>
19.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults think that they are not very attractive or good looking.	BUT	Other adults think that they are attractive or good looking.	<input type="checkbox"/>
20.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are satisfied with how they provide for the important people in their lives	BUT	Other adults are dissatisfied with how they provide for these people.	<input type="checkbox"/>
21.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults would like to be a better person morally.	BUT	Other adults think that they are quite moral.	<input type="checkbox"/>
22.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults can keep their household running smoothly.	BUT	Other adults have trouble keeping their household running smoothly.	<input type="checkbox"/>
23.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults find it hard to establish intimate relationships.	BUT	Other adults do not have difficulty establishing intimate relationships.	<input type="checkbox"/>
24.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel that they are intelligent.	BUT	Other adults question whether they are very intelligent.	<input type="checkbox"/>

PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE

A.3

	Really True For Me	Sort Of True For Me				Sort Of True For Me	Really True For Me
25.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are disappointed with themselves.	BUT	Other adults are quite pleased with themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults find it hard to act in a joking or kidding manner with friends or colleagues.	BUT	Other adults find it very easy to joke or kid around with friends and colleagues.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel at ease with other people.	BUT	Other adults are quite shy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are not very productive in their work.	BUT	Other adults are very productive in their work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel they are good at nurturing others.	BUT	Other adults are not very nurturant.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults do not feel that they are very good when it comes to sport.	BUT	Other adults feel they do very well at all kinds of sports.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults like their physical appearance the way it is.	BUT	Other adults do not like their physical appearance.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel they cannot provide for the material necessities of life.	BUT	Other adults feel they do adequately provide for the material necessities of life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are dissatisfied with themselves.	BUT	Other adults are satisfied with themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults usually do what they know is morally right.	BUT	Other adults often don't do what they know is morally right.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are not very efficient in managing activities at home.	BUT	Other adults are efficient in managing activities at home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some people seek out close relationships.	BUT	Other people shy away from close relationships.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults do not feel that they are very intellectually capable.	BUT	Other adults feel that they are intellectually capable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE

A.4

	Really True For Me	Sort Of True For Me			Sort Of True For Me	Really True For Me
38.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel they have a good sense of humour.	BUT	Other adults wish their sense of humour was better.	<input type="checkbox"/>
39.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are not very sociable.	BUT	Other adults are sociable.	<input type="checkbox"/>
40.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are proud of their work.	BUT	Other adults are not very proud of what they do.	<input type="checkbox"/>
41.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults like the kind of person they are.	BUT	Other adults would like to be someone else.	<input type="checkbox"/>
42.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults do not enjoy nurturing others.	BUT	Other adults enjoy being nurturant.	<input type="checkbox"/>
43.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel they are better than others their age at sports.	BUT	Other adults don't feel they can play as well.	<input type="checkbox"/>
44.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults are unsatisfied with something about their face or hair.	BUT	Other adults like their face and hair the way they are.	<input type="checkbox"/>
45.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel that they provide adequately for the needs of those who are important to them.	BUT	Other adults feel they do not provide adequately for these needs.	<input type="checkbox"/>
46.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults often question the morality of their behaviour.	BUT	Other adults feel that their behaviour is usually moral.	<input type="checkbox"/>
47.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults use their time efficiently at household activities.	BUT	Other adults do not use their time efficiently.	<input type="checkbox"/>
48.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults in close relationships have a hard time communicating openly.	BUT	Other adults in close relationships feel that it is easy to communicate openly.	<input type="checkbox"/>
49.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel like they are just as smart as other adults.	BUT	Other adults wonder if they are as smart.	<input type="checkbox"/>
50.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some adults feel that they are often too serious about their life.	BUT	Other adults are able to find humour in their life.	<input type="checkbox"/>

How long have you been separated from your former spouse? _____

Did you initiate the separation? _____

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

Appendix B
Importance Rating Scale for Adult Self-Perception Profile

IMPORTANCE RATINGS

Tick the box that most accurately reflects your response to each statement.

HOW IMPORTANT IS IT TO YOU?	VERY IMPORTANT	PRETTY IMPORTANT	ONLY SORT OF IMPORTANT	NOT VERY IMPORTANT
1. To be sociable/at ease with others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. To be good at your work. (How did you define your job: Paid employment _____ Homemaking _____)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. To care for others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. To be good at physical activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. To be good looking.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. To be an adequate provider.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. To be moral.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. To be good at household management.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. To have intimate relationships.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. To be intelligent.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. To have a sense of humour.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

*On the lines below list the three (3) areas from the above list which are **most** important to you and list the two to three (2 - 3) areas which are **least** important to you:*

MOST IMPORTANT

LEAST IMPORTANT

Appendix C
Self-Perception Profile for Children

WHAT I AM LIKE

NAME _____ AGE _____ BIRTHDAY _____

GROUP _____

ARE YOU A **BOY** OR A **GIRL** (Circle which one)

SAMPLE SENTENCE

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me		BUT		Sort of True for me	Really True for me
(a)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids would rather play outside in their spare time.	BUT	Other kids would rather watch T.V.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<hr/>							
1.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids feel that they are very <i>good</i> at their school work.	BUT	Other kids <i>worry</i> about whether they can do the school work assigned to them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids find it <i>hard</i> to make friends.	BUT	Other kids find it's pretty <i>easy</i> to make friends.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids do very <i>well</i> at all kinds of sports.	BUT	Other kids <i>don't</i> feel that they are very good when it comes to sport.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are <i>happy</i> with the way they look.	BUT	Other kids are <i>not</i> happy with the way they look.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids often do <i>not</i> like the way they behave.	BUT	Other kids usually <i>like</i> the way they behave.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are often <i>unhappy</i> with themselves.	BUT	Other kids are pretty <i>pleased</i> with themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids feel like they are <i>just as smart</i> as other kids their age.	BUT	Other kids aren't so sure and <i>wonder</i> if they are smart.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids have <i>a lot of</i> friends.	BUT	Other kids <i>don't</i> have very many friends.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

C.2

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me			Sort of True for me	Really True for me
9.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids wish they could be a lot better at sports.	BUT	Other kids feel they are good enough at sports.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
10.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are <i>happy</i> with their height and weight.	BUT	Other kids wish <i>their</i> height and weight were <i>different</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
11.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids usually do <u>the</u> <i>right</i> thing.	BUT	Other kids often <i>don't</i> do the right thing.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
12.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids <i>don't</i> like the way they are leading their life.	BUT	Other kids <i>do</i> like the way they are leading their life.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
13.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are pretty <i>slow</i> in finishing their school work.	BUT	Other kids can do their school work <i>quickly</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
14.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids would like to have a lot more friends.	BUT	Other kids have as many friends as they want.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
15.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids think they could do well at just about any new sports activity they haven't tried before.	BUT	Other kids are afraid they might <i>not</i> do well at the sports they haven't ever tried.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
16.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids wish their body was <i>different</i> .	BUT	Other kids <i>like</i> their body the way it is.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
17.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids usually act the way they know they are <i>supposed</i> to.	BUT	Other kids often <i>don't</i> act the way they are supposed to.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
18.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are <i>happy</i> with themselves as a person.	BUT	Other kids are often <i>not</i> happy with themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
19.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids often <i>forget</i> what they learn.	BUT	Other kids can remember things <i>easily</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
20.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are always doing things with <i>a lot</i> of kids.	BUT	Other kids usually do things by <i>themselves</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

C.3

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me			Sort of True for me	Really True for me
21.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids feel that they are <i>better</i> than others their age at sports.	BUT	Other kids don't feel that they can play as well.	<input type="checkbox"/>
22.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids wish their physical appearance (how they look) was <i>different</i> .	BUT	Other kids <i>like</i> their physical appearance the way it is.	<input type="checkbox"/>
23.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids usually get in <i>trouble</i> because of things they do.	BUT	Other kids <i>don't</i> do things that get them into trouble.	<input type="checkbox"/>
24.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids <i>like</i> the kind of person they are.	BUT	Other kids often wish they were someone else.	<input type="checkbox"/>
25.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids do very <i>well</i> at their class work.	BUT	Other kids <i>don't</i> do very well at their class work.	<input type="checkbox"/>
26.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids wish that more people their age liked them.	BUT	Other kids feel that most people their age <i>do</i> like them.	<input type="checkbox"/>
27.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	In games and sports some kids usually <i>watch</i> instead of play.	BUT	Other kids usually <i>play</i> rather than just watch.	<input type="checkbox"/>
28.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids wish that something about their face or hair looked <i>different</i> .	BUT	Other kids <i>like</i> their face and hair the way they are.	<input type="checkbox"/>
29.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids do things that they <i>shouldn't</i> do.	BUT	Other kids <i>hardly ever</i> do things they shouldn't do.	<input type="checkbox"/>
30.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are very <i>happy</i> with the way they are.	BUT	Other kids wish they were <i>different</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/>
31.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids have <i>trouble</i> figuring out the answers in school.	BUT	Other kids almost <i>always</i> can figure out the answers.	<input type="checkbox"/>
32.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are <i>popular</i> with others their age.	BUT	Other kids are <i>not</i> very popular.	<input type="checkbox"/>

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

C.4

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me			Sort of True for me	Really True for me
33.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids <i>don't</i> ^{do} well at new outdoor games.	BUT	Other kids are <i>good</i> at new games right away.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
34.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids think that they are good looking.	BUT	Other kids think that they are not very good looking.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
35.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids behave themselves very well.	BUT	Other kids often find it hard to behave themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
36.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids <i>are</i> not very happy with the way they do a lot of things.	BUT	Other kids think the way they do things is <i>fine</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

Appendix D
Importance Rating Scale for Self-Perception Profile for Children

NAME _____ AGE _____ GROUP _____

HOW IMPORTANT ARE THESE THINGS TO HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT YOURSELF
AS A PERSON?

	Really True For Me	Sort Of True For Me			Sort Of True For Me	Really True For Me	
1.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids think it is important to do well at school work in order to feel good as a person.	BUT	Other kids don't think how well they do at school work is all that important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids don't think that having a lot of friends is all that important.	BUT	Other kids think that having a lot of friends is important to how they feel as a person.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids think it is important to be good at sports.	BUT	Other kids don't think how good you are at sports is that important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids think it's important to look good in order to feel good about themselves.	BUT	Other kids don't think that's very important at all.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids think that it's important to behave the way they should.	BUT	Other kids don't think that how they behave is that important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids don't think that getting good grades is all that important to how they feel about themselves.	BUT	Other kids think that getting good grades is important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids think it's important to be popular.	BUT	Other kids don't think that being popular is all that important to how they feel about themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids don't think that doing well at athletics is that important to how they feel about themselves as a person.	BUT	Other kids feel that doing well at athletics is important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

D.2

	Really True For Me	Sort Of True For Me			Sort Of True For Me	Really True For Me	
9.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids don't think that how they look is important to how they feel about themselves as a person.	BUT	Other kids think that how they look is important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids don't think that how they act is all that important.	BUT	Other kids think it's important to act the way you are supposed to.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

Appendix E

Consent to Participate in Research Study on behalf of self and minor

Name of Project: Self concept: single mothers and their children.

You and your child are invited to participate in a study of the relationship between single mother's self concept and their children's. The purpose of the study is to learn about what single mother's and their children are like, how you would describe yourselves.

- The study is being conducted by Leanne Wood, a psychology honours student at Edith Cowan University.
- If you decide to participate, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire either at your home or other location, at a time convenient to yourself. Your questionnaire contain 61 questions, whilst the children's questionnaire contains 46 questions. These questions are answered by ticking one of four alternative answers. The session will take approximately 30-40 minutes. Children aged 8 and 9 years will have the questionnaire read out to them. Children aged 10, 11 and 12 years will be able to read and complete the questionnaire on their own. The procedure and reason for this study will be fully explained to the children. The researcher will be present to answer any questions and to assist the children and yourself in completion of the survey where necessary.
- Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential. No individual information will be identified in any publication of the results. Only the researcher will have access to any personal details, and these will be held in strict confidence.
- If you decide to participate you and your child/children are free to withdraw consent and to discontinue participation at any time without having to give a reason and with no penalty or consequence. This will be clearly explained to the children.
- At the conclusion of the study a copy of the final report can be obtained by contacting the researcher.

I have read and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to the participation of myself, _____
and my child _____ in this research, knowing that we can withdraw
at any time.

Participant: _____

Investigator: _____

Date: _____

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Edith Cowan University Committee for the Conduct of Ethical Research. If you have any concerns about any aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact my research supervisor, Ms Lisbeth Pike, School of Psychology, Edith Cowan University on (08) 9400 5552 or myself on [REDACTED].

Appendix F

Administration and instructions for Adult Self-Perception Profile

(Harter, 1986)

The Adult Self-Perception Profile may be administered in groups as well as individually. Total administration time should be approximately 20 minutes. In explaining the question format, it is essential that you make it clear that for any given item they only check one box on either side of the sentence. They do not check both sides. (Invariably there will be one or two persons who will check both sides initially and thus you will want to have someone monitor each person's sheet at the onset to make certain that they understand that they are only to check one box per item.)

Instructions to the Adult:

As you can see from the top of your sheet where it says "What I am Like," we are interested in what you are like as a person. This Profile contains statements which allow you to describe yourself. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Since adults are very different from one another, each individual will be marking something different.

Let me explain how these questions work. Please look at the first item. It talks about two kinds of persons, and we want to know which person is most like you.

1. What you need to first decide is whether you are more like the adults on the left side who like the way they are leading their lives, or whether you are more like the adults on the right side who don't like the way they are leading their lives. Don't mark anything yet, but first decide which kind of adult is most like you, and go to that side of the sentence.
2. Now, the second thing I want you to think about is whether that is only sort of true for you, or really true for you. Place an X in the appropriate box.
3. For each sentence you only check one box. You don't check both sides, just the one most like you.

Appendix G

Administration and instructions for Self-Perception Profile for Children (Harter, 1985)

The scale may be administered in groups as well as individually. After filling out the information at the top of the scale, children are instructed as to how to answer the questions, given below. We have found it best to read the items out loud for 3rd and 4th graders, whereas for 5th graders and older, they can read the items for themselves, after you explain the sample item. Typically, we introduce the scale as a survey and, if time, ask the children to give examples of what a survey is. They usually generate examples involving two kinds of toothpaste, peanut butter, cereal, etc. to which you can respond that in a survey, there are no right or wrong answers, it's just what you think, your opinion.

In explaining the question format, it is essential that you make it clear that for any given item they only check one box on either side of the sentence. They do not check both sides. (Invariably there will be one or two children who will check both sides initially and thus you will want to have someone monitor each child's sheet at the onset to make certain that they understand that they are only to check one box per item.

Instructions to the Child:

We have some sentences here and, as you can see from the top of your sheet where it says "What I am like," we are interested in what each of you is like; what kind of a person you are like. This is a survey, not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Since kids are very different from one another, each of you will be putting down something different.

First let me explain how these questions work. There is a sample question at the top, marked (a). I'll read it out loud and you follow along with me. (Examiner reads sample question.) This question talks about two kinds of kids, and we want to know which kids are most like you.

1. So, what I want you to decide first is whether you are more like the kids on the left side who would rather play outdoors, or whether you are more like the kids on the right side who would rather watch T.V. Don't mark anything yet, but first **decide** which kind of kid is most like you, and go to that side of the sentence.
2. Now, the second thing I want you to think about, now that you have decided which kind of kids are most like you, is to decide whether that is only *sort of true for you*, or *really true for you*. If it's only sort of true, then put an X in that box, under sort of true; if it's really true for you, then put an X in that box, under really true.
3. For each sentence you only check one box. Sometimes it will be on the one side of the page, another time it will be on the other side of the page, but you can only check one box for each sentence. You don't check both sides, just the one side most like you.
4. OK, that one was just for practice. Now we have some more sentences which I'm going to read out loud. For each one, just check one box, the one that goes with what is true for you, what you are most like.

Appendix H Data Set Information

	Participant No.	Time Separated	Initiator of Separation	Adgsw	Adsocial	Adathlet	Adappear
1	1	3.5	1	3.17	3.50	1.75	3.00
2	2	3.0	2	4.00	3.50	1.75	3.50
3	3	5.0	1	2.50	3.25	1.00	1.50
4	4	5.0	3	3.17	4.00	2.75	2.00
5	5	4.0	1	3.50	4.00	2.25	2.50
6	6	5.0	2	2.17	1.50	1.00	1.00
7	7	8.0	1	4.00	4.00	3.00	3.00
8	8	9.0	2	4.00	3.75	3.00	3.00
9	9	10.0	1	3.33	3.00	1.75	2.75
10	10	2.5	1	2.83	3.00	3.75	1.75
11	11	1.0	1	3.50	2.25	2.25	2.00
12	12	5.0	1	3.00	2.00	2.25	2.25
13	13	7.0	1	3.00	3.25	3.50	2.75
14	14	2.0	2	2.67	2.75	1.75	2.00
15	15	2.5	1	2.33	3.00	2.25	1.50
16	16	6.0	1	1.67	2.75	4.00	2.75
17	17	7.0	1	4.00	4.00	1.50	3.75
18	18	6.0	3	3.00	3.00	2.75	3.00
19	19	8.5	2	2.50	4.00	2.25	2.00
20	20	8.0	1	3.50	2.25	1.50	2.25
21	21	6.0	3	3.00	3.00	2.75	3.00
22	22	5.0	1	2.17	2.50	1.75	2.00
23	23	1.5	3	2.83	1.25	1.25	2.00
24	24	7.5	1	3.67	3.50	2.00	3.25
25	25	7.0	2	2.50	3.50	1.00	1.50
26	26	2.5	2	4.00	4.00	1.50	2.75
27	27	10.0	1	3.00	2.50	2.50	2.00
28	28	7.0	1	3.33	4.00	2.75	2.75
29	29	2.0	1	2.33	2.75	1.00	1.00
30	30	5.0	1	3.50	3.25	1.75	3.00

Key:

Time since separation = number of years

Initiator of separation

1 = wife initiated

2 = ex-husband initiated

3 = mutual agreement

Adgsw = Adult Global Self-Worth

Adsocial = Adult Sociability

Adathlet = Adult Athletic Abilities

Adappear = Adult Physical Appearance

H.2

	Admoral	Adintell	Age	Gender	Chgsw	Chsocial	Chathlet
1	3.75	3.75	11	1	2.83	3.33	1.00
2	4.00	2.00	10	2	3.50	3.83	3.67
3	2.25	2.75	12	1	2.83	3.17	2.00
4	3.50	2.00	10	2	3.17	3.33	2.33
5	4.00	4.00	12	1	3.67	2.50	3.33
6	4.00	1.25	10	1	2.50	2.33	3.83
7	4.00	3.50	10	2	3.00	2.83	3.50
8	3.50	3.50	9	1	3.33	3.83	3.83
9	3.50	3.50	10	2	3.83	2.33	3.00
10	2.00	3.00	9	1	2.50	3.33	2.83
11	4.00	2.25	10	1	3.67	3.00	1.67
12	4.00	3.25	10	1	3.67	3.00	3.00
13	4.00	3.50	11	2	4.00	2.00	4.00
14	2.75	2.75	11	1	3.00	3.50	2.17
15	3.00	2.75	9	1	2.50	3.33	4.00
16	2.00	3.00	11	1	2.50	2.83	4.00
17	3.75	3.25	9	2	3.83	3.33	3.83
18	3.50	3.00	8	1	4.00	3.83	3.50
19	4.00	3.25	12	1	4.00	3.83	2.67
20	3.50	3.25	11	1	3.67	3.33	2.17
21	3.50	3.00	8	1	3.83	2.83	3.67
22	3.75	3.00	9	1	3.50	3.33	3.00
23	3.25	1.75	10	1	3.33	1.00	2.17
24	4.00	3.75	9	1	4.00	3.67	2.33
25	4.00	2.50	9	2	3.83	3.83	3.83
26	4.00	3.25	9	1	4.00	4.00	4.00
27	4.00	2.75	12	2	2.67	3.33	4.00
28	4.00	4.00	9	2	2.67	1.83	3.50
29	3.00	2.25	10	2	3.00	3.33	3.83
30	3.75	3.25	9	1	3.50	2.83	2.17

Key:

Age = child's age

Gender

1 = female child

2 = male child

Admoral = Adult Morality

Adintell = Adult Intelligence

Chgsw = Child Global Self-Worth

Chsocial = Child Social Acceptance

Chathlet = Child Athletic Competence

H.3

	Chappear	Chmoral	Chintell	mah_1	mah_2	mah_3	zadappea
1	2.17	2.17	4.00	3.43518	1.29815	.02399	.87310
2	3.83	2.67	2.83	11.56578	2.78087	2.16471	1.58102
3	2.00	2.83	2.17	10.00015	5.60374	.82398	-1.25066
4	2.83	2.17	3.83	10.27359	.88847	.02399	-.54274
5	2.50	2.50	3.00	4.22105	.84089	.46007	.16518
6	1.67	4.00	2.83	9.97491	6.42395	2.04810	-1.95858
7	2.50	3.00	3.33	4.01867	2.20437	2.16471	.87310
8	2.83	3.33	4.00	4.16652	3.10122	2.16471	.87310
9	3.33	1.50	3.67	2.23828	.35948	.16701	.51914
10	3.00	3.00	1.83	12.57558	8.70064	.14772	-.89670
11	3.17	3.00	4.00	6.01413	2.56231	.46007	-.54274
12	3.00	3.00	3.33	5.60420	.90407	.01316	-.18878
13	3.67	3.50	3.17	4.94570	1.70901	.01316	.51914
14	2.50	3.67	2.83	2.40216	1.76068	.40718	-.54274
15	2.83	2.83	2.67	2.38894	1.91096	1.38616	-1.25066
16	2.17	2.67	3.00	16.29911	15.13405	4.94674	.51914
17	3.67	4.00	3.83	7.26296	3.90723	2.16471	1.93498
18	3.83	4.00	3.67	2.25681	1.75705	.01316	.87310
19	3.17	4.00	3.50	6.55876	2.82933	.82398	-.54274
20	3.83	4.00	4.00	6.19604	1.58049	.46007	-.18878
21	3.83	4.00	4.00	2.25681	1.75705	.01316	.87310
22	3.67	3.00	3.17	4.77044	4.05243	2.04810	-.54274
23	3.17	3.67	2.33	8.10467	.42712	.14772	-.54274
24	3.83	3.67	3.33	2.58819	1.67428	.89853	1.22706
25	3.00	3.50	3.50	6.59952	3.35745	.82398	-1.25066
26	3.83	3.83	3.83	3.74839	2.63976	2.16471	.51914
27	2.83	2.33	4.00	3.03848	1.22525	.01316	-.54274
28	2.67	1.67	3.83	3.56981	.71559	.16701	.51914
29	3.17	3.67	3.33	5.41791	4.11885	1.38616	-1.95858
30	3.33	3.50	3.83	1.50726	.77528	.46007	.87310

Key:

Chappear = Child Physical Appearance
 Chmoral = Child Behavioural Conduct
 Chintell = Child Scholastic Competence

Z subscale = z scores

Multivariate outliers (mahalanobis distance)

mah_1 = regression All Adult Scales and
 Child Global Self-Worth

mah_2 = regression Admoral, Adappear,
 Adgsw and Chgsw

mah_3 = regression Adgsw and Chgsw

H.4

	zadathle	zadgsw	zadintel	zadmoral	zadsocia	zchappea	zchathle
1	-.48122	.15490	1.18293	.34402	.52909	-1.45848	-2.49131
2	-.48122	1.47130	-1.45979	.75684	.52909	1.25878	.68478
3	-1.40272	-.90773	-.32719	-2.13291	.19841	-1.73676	-1.30176
4	.74743	.15490	-1.45979	-.06880	1.19046	-.37813	-.90921
5	.13310	.67829	1.56046	.75684	1.19046	-.91830	.28034
6	-1.40272	-1.43112	-2.59238	.75684	-2.11637	-2.27694	.87511
7	1.05460	1.47130	.80540	.75684	1.19046	-.91830	.48256
8	1.05460	1.47130	.80540	-.06880	.85978	-.37813	.87511
9	-.48122	.40866	.80540	-.06880	-.13227	.44033	-.11221
10	1.97609	-.38435	.05034	-2.54573	-.13227	-.09985	-.31444
11	.13310	.67829	-1.08225	.75684	-1.12432	.17842	-1.69431
12	.13310	-.11472	.42787	.75684	-1.45501	-.09985	-.11221
13	1.66893	-.11472	.80540	.75684	.19841	.99688	1.07733
14	-.48122	-.63811	-.32719	-1.30727	-.46296	-.91830	-1.09954
15	.13310	-1.17735	-.32719	-.89445	-.13227	-.37813	1.07733
16	2.28325	-2.22413	.05034	-2.54573	-.46296	-1.45848	1.07733
17	-.78839	1.47130	.42787	.34402	1.19046	.99688	.87511
18	.74743	-.11472	.05034	-.06880	-.13227	1.25878	.48256
19	.13310	-.90773	.42787	.75684	1.19046	.17842	-.50476
20	-.78839	.67829	.42787	-.06880	-1.12432	1.25878	-1.09954
21	.74743	-.11472	.05034	-.06880	-.13227	1.25878	.68478
22	-.48122	-1.43112	.05034	.34402	-.79364	.99688	-.11221
23	-1.09555	-.38435	-1.83732	-.48162	-2.44706	.17842	-1.09954
24	-.17406	.94791	1.18293	.75684	.52909	1.25878	-.90921
25	-1.40272	-.90773	-.70472	.75684	.52909	-.09985	.87511
26	-.78839	1.47130	.42787	.75684	1.19046	1.25878	1.07733
27	.44027	-.11472	-.32719	.75634	-.79364	-.37813	1.07733
28	.74743	.40866	1.56046	.75684	1.19046	-.64003	.48256
29	-1.40272	-1.17735	-1.08225	-.89445	-.46296	.17842	.87511
30	-.48122	.67829	.42787	.34402	.19841	.44033	-1.09954

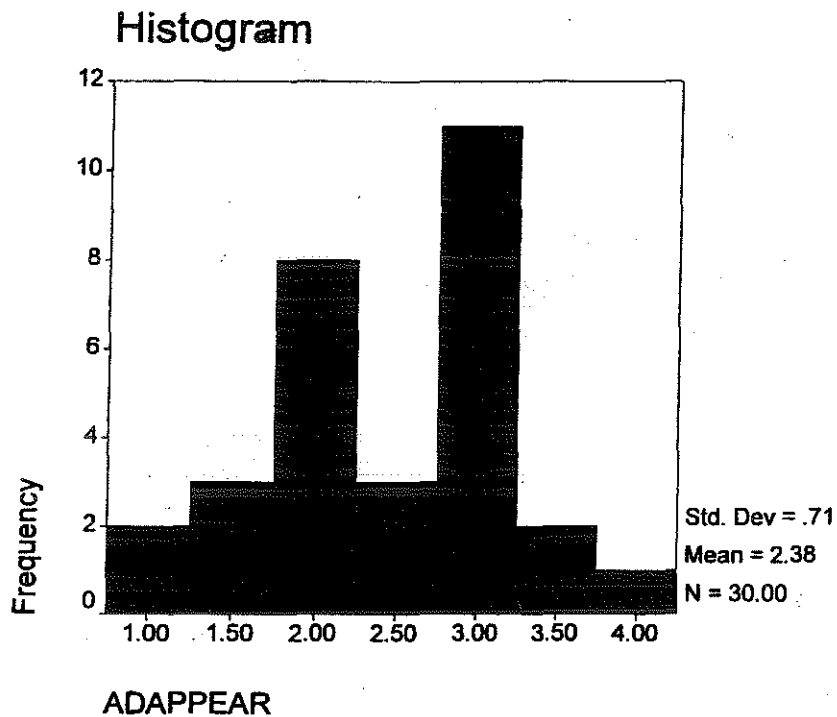
H.5

	zchgsw	zchintel	zchmoral	zchsocia
1	-1.00080	1.08472	-1.37169	.34796
2	.26198	-.88189	-.67610	1.08001
3	-1.00080	-1.99127	-.45352	.11371
4	-.35998	.79897	-1.37169	.34796
5	.58238	-.59615	-.91260	-.86723
6	-1.62276	-.88189	1.17414	-1.11612
7	-.68039	-.04146	-.21702	-.38408
8	-.05843	1.08472	.24206	1.08001
9	.88394	.53003	-2.30376	-1.11612
10	-1.62276	-2.56276	-.21702	.34796
11	.58238	1.08472	-.21702	-.13518
12	.58238	-.04146	-.21702	-.13518
13	1.20435	-.31040	.47856	-1.59927
14	-.68039	-.88189	.71506	.59686
15	-1.62276	-1.15083	-.45352	.34796
16	-1.62276	-.59615	-.67610	-.38408
17	.88394	.79897	1.17414	.34796
18	1.20435	.53003	1.17414	1.08001
19	1.20435	.24429	1.17414	1.08001
20	.58238	1.08472	1.17414	.34796
21	.88394	1.08472	1.17414	-.38408
22	.26198	-.31040	-.21702	.34796
23	-.05843	-1.72233	.71506	-3.06336
24	1.20435	-.04146	.71506	.84575
25	.88394	.24429	.47856	1.08001
26	1.20435	.79897	.93764	1.32890
27	-1.30235	1.08472	-1.14910	.34796
28	-1.30235	.79897	-2.06727	-1.84817
29	.26198	-.04146	.71506	.34796
30	.26198	.79897	.47856	-.38408

Appendix I

Normality Assumption Tests for Variables

ADAPPEAR

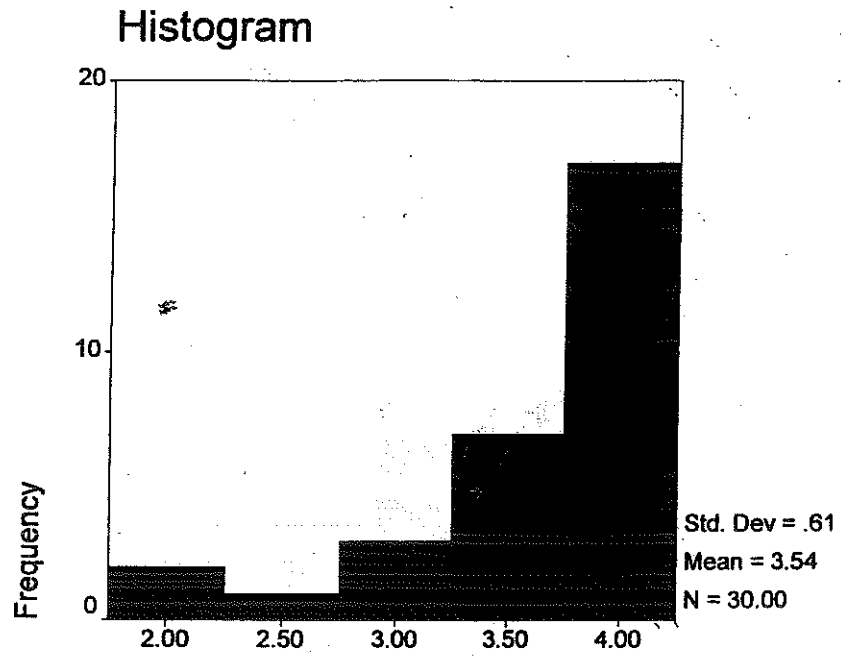


ADAPPEAR Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem & Leaf
2.00	1 . 00
4.00	1 . 5557
9.00	2 . 000000022
6.00	2 . 577777
7.00	3 . 0000002
2.00	3 . 57

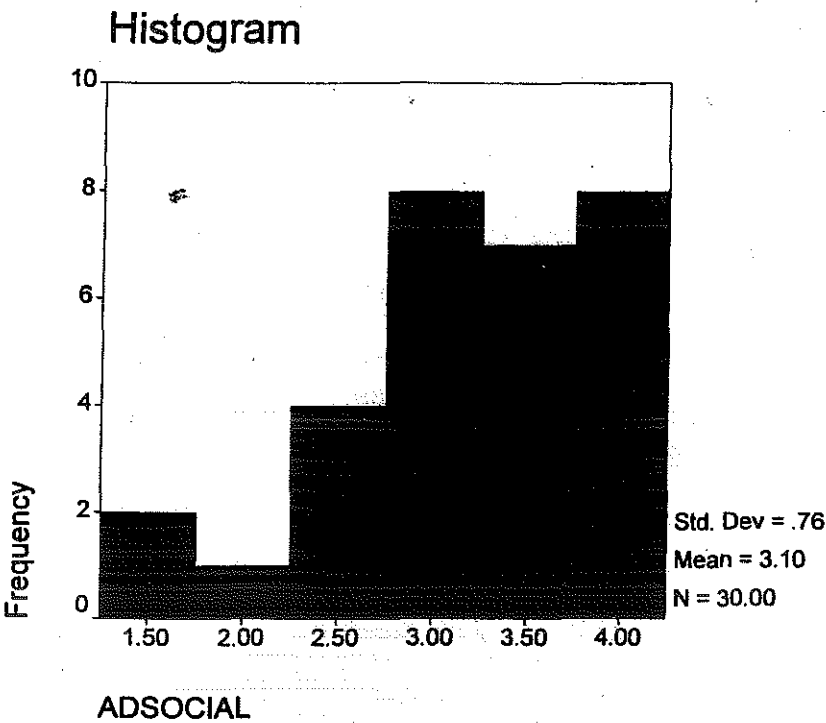
Stem width: 1.00
Each leaf: 1 case(s)

I.2

ADMORAL**ADMORAL****ADMORAL Stem-and-Leaf Plot**

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
4.00	Extremes	(=<2.8)
2.00	3 .	00
1.00	3 .	2
6.00	3 .	555555
4.00	3 .	7777
.00	3 .	
13.00	4 .	0000000000000000

ADSOCIAL

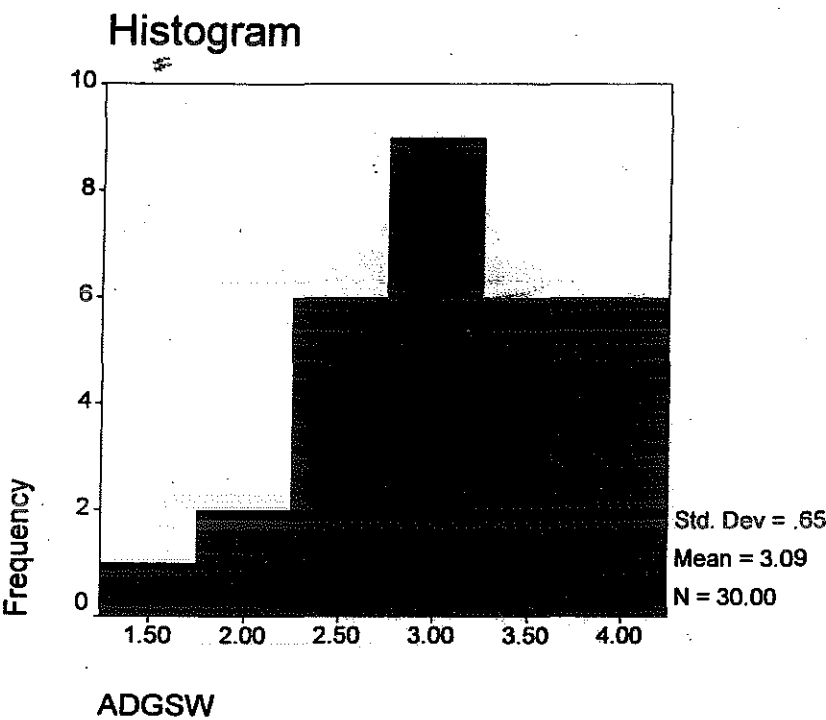


ADSOCIAL Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
1.00	Extremes	(=<1.3)
.00	1 .	
1.00	1 .	5
3.00	2 .	022
5.00	2 .	55777
8.00	3 .	00000222
5.00	3 .	55557

I.4

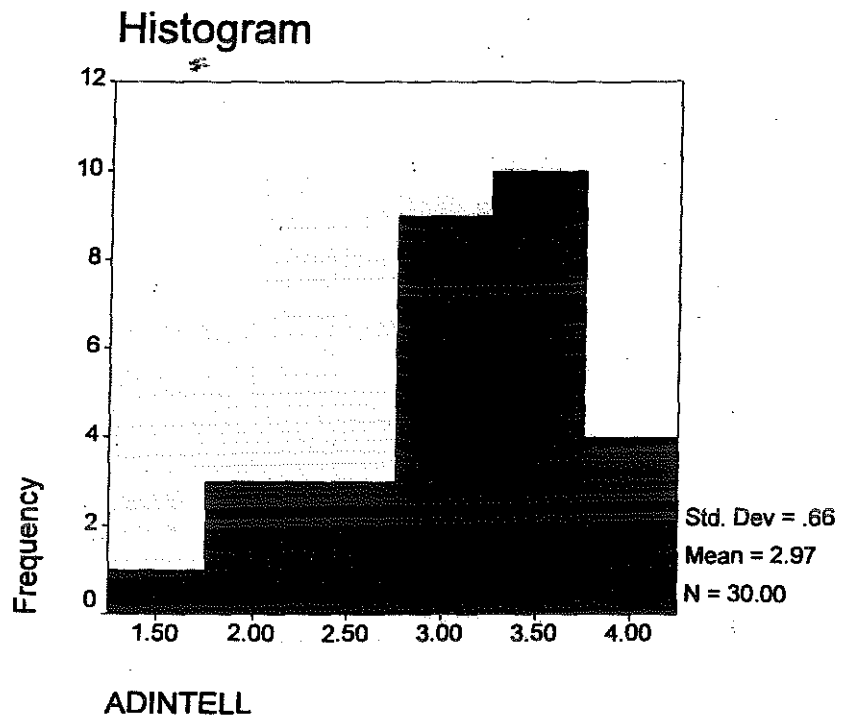
ADGSW



ADGSW Stem-and-Leaf Plot

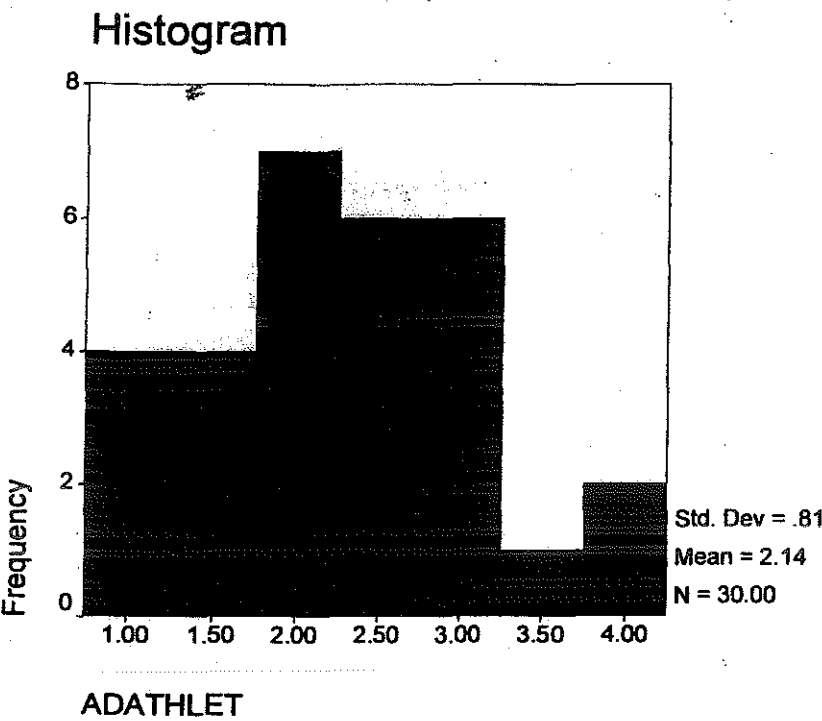
Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
1.00	1 .	6
4.00	2 .	1133
6.00	2 .	555688
9.00	3 .	000001133
4.00	3 .	5556
6.00	4 .	000000

I.5

ADINTELL**ADINTELL Stem-and-Leaf Plot**

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
1.00	Extremes	(=<1.3)
1.00	1 .	7
4.00	2 .	0022
5.00	2 .	57777
11.00	3 .	00000222222
6.00	3 .	555577
2.00	4 .	00

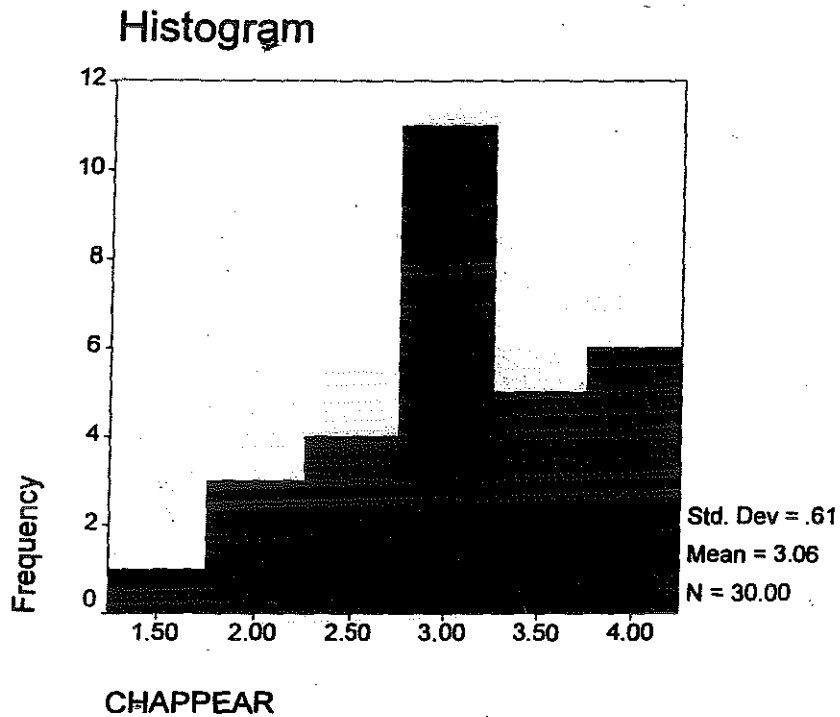
ADATHLET



ADATHLET Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
5.00	1 .	00002
9.00	1 .	555777777
6.00	2 .	022222
5.00	2 .	57777
2.00	3 .	00
2.00	3 .	57
1.00	4 .	0

1.7

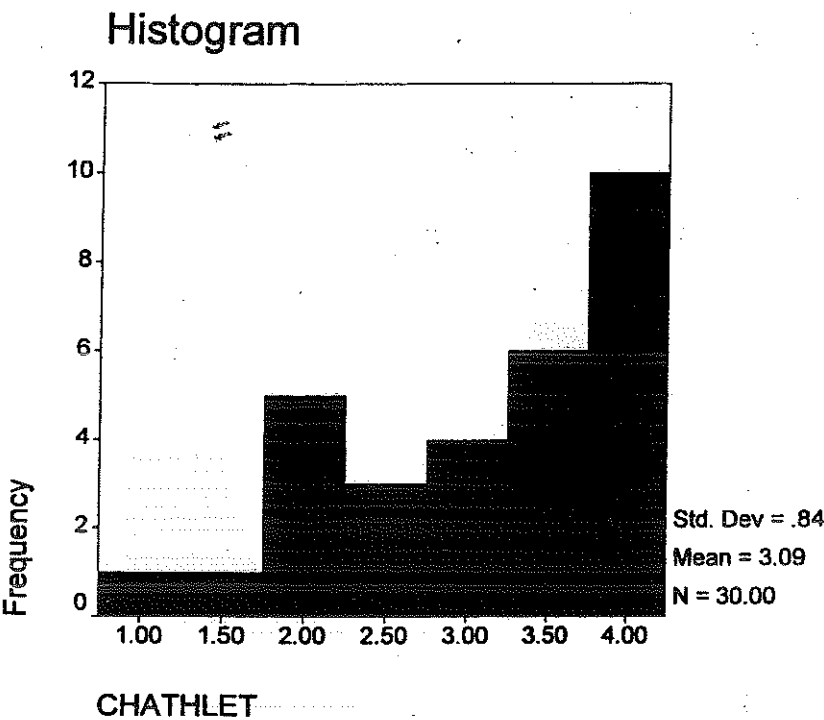
CHAPPEAR**CHAPPEAR Stem-and-Leaf Plot**

Frequency	Stem & Leaf
1.00	1 . 6
3.00	2 . 011
8.00	2 . 55568888
9.00	3 . 000111133
9.00	3 . 6668888888

Stem width: 1.00
Each leaf: 1 case(s)

I.8

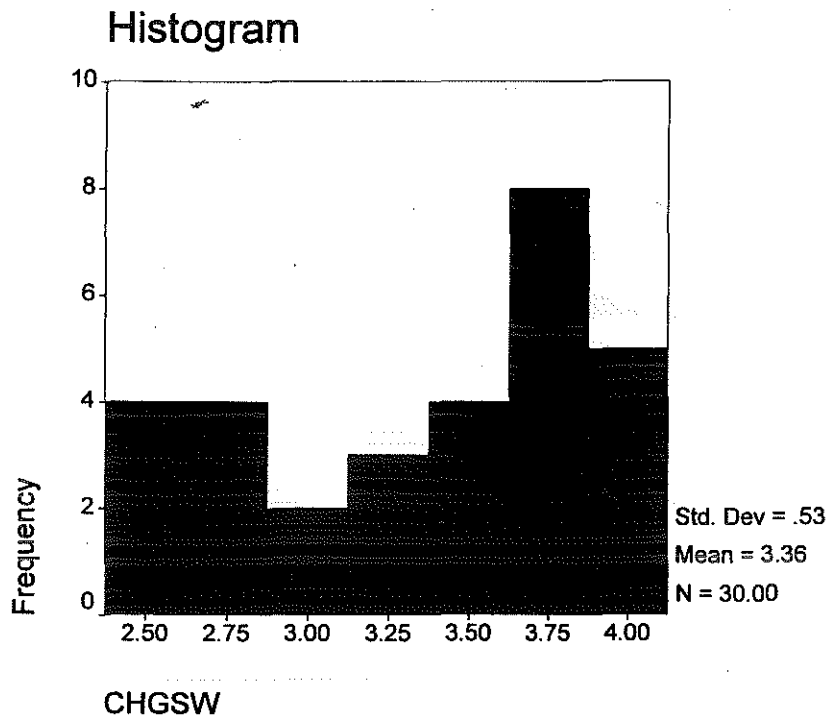
CHATHLET



CHATHLET Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
1.00	1 .	0
1.00	1 .	6
7.00	2 .	0111133
2.00	2 .	68
4.00	3 .	0003
10.00	3 .	5556688888
5.00	4 .	00000

I.9

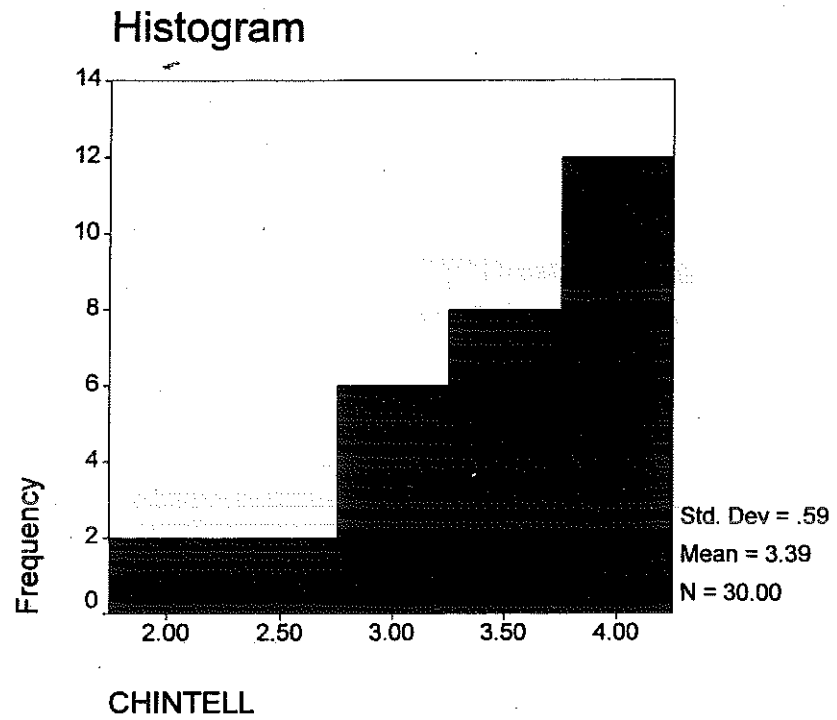
CHGSW**CHGSW Stem-and-Leaf Plot**

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
.00	2 .	
8.00	2 .	55556688
5.00	3 .	00133
12.00	3 .	555566668888
5.00	4 .	00000

Stem width: 1.00

I.10

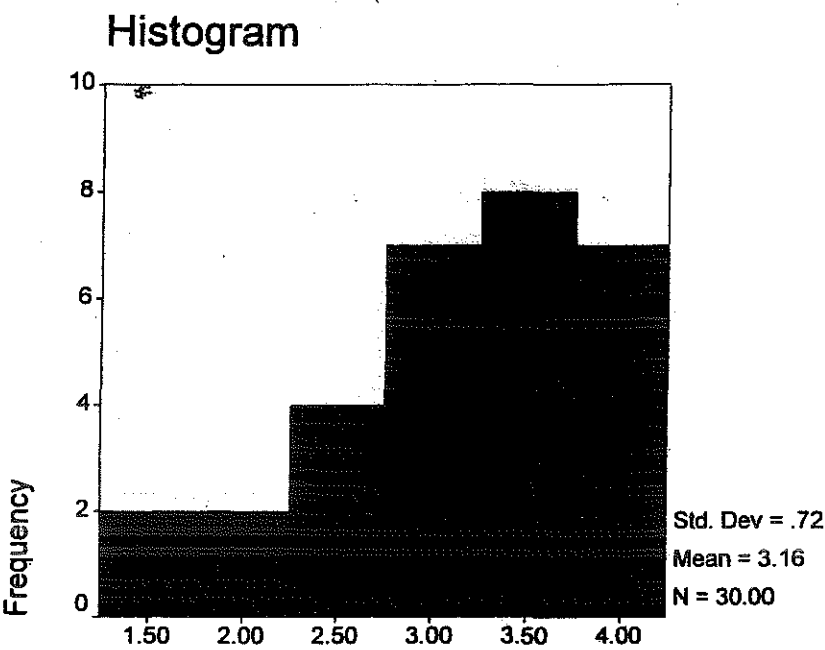
CHINTELL



CHINTELL Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
1.00	1 .	8
2.00	2 .	13
3.00	2 .	688
8.00	3 .	00113333
10.00	3 .	5566888888
6.00	4 .	000000

CHMORAL



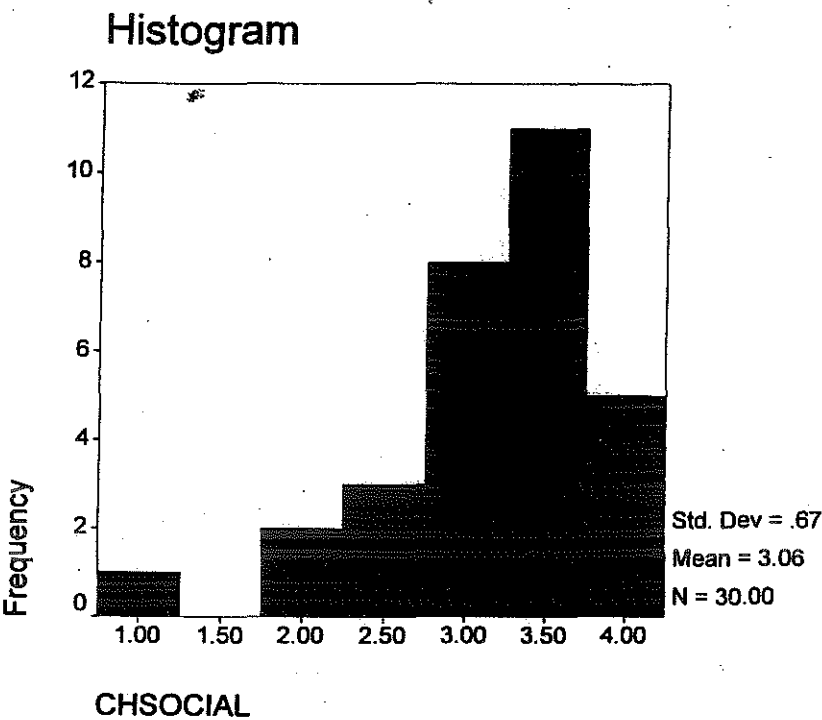
CHMORAL

CHMORAL Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem & Leaf
.00	1 .
2.00	1 . 56
3.00	2 . 113
5.00	2 . 56688
6.00	3 . 000003
8.00	3 . 55566668
6.00	4 . 000000

I.12

CHSOCIAL



CHSOCIAL Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
3.00	Extremes	(=<2.0)
2.00	2 .	33
6.00	2 .	588888
12.00	3 .	001333333333
6.00	3 .	568888
1.00	4 .	0

Appendix J
Standard Multiple Regression Analysis
Predicting Child's Global Self-Worth

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ADSOCIAL, ADMORAL, ADATHLET, ADAPPEAR, ADINTELL, ADGSW ^a		Enter

- a. All requested variables entered.
b. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.597 ^a	.357	.189	.4779

- a. Predictors: (Constant), ADSOCIAL, ADMORAL, ADATHLET, ADAPPEAR, ADINTELL, ADGSW
b. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.911	6	.485	2.124	.089 ^a
	Residual	5.253	23	.228		
	Total	8.164	29			

- a. Predictors: (Constant), ADSOCIAL, ADMORAL, ADATHLET, ADAPPEAR, ADINTELL, ADGSW
b. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.906	.698		2.729	.012
	ADAPPEAR	.230	.204	.306	1.128	.271
	ADATHLET	-.171	.129	-.263	-1.334	.195
	ADGSW	-2.492E-02	.226	-.030	-.110	.913
	ADINTELL	8.716E-02	.181	.109	.480	.636
	ADMORAL	.308	.176	.352	1.754	.093
	ADSOCIAL	3.276E-04	.151	.000	.002	.998

- a. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

J.2

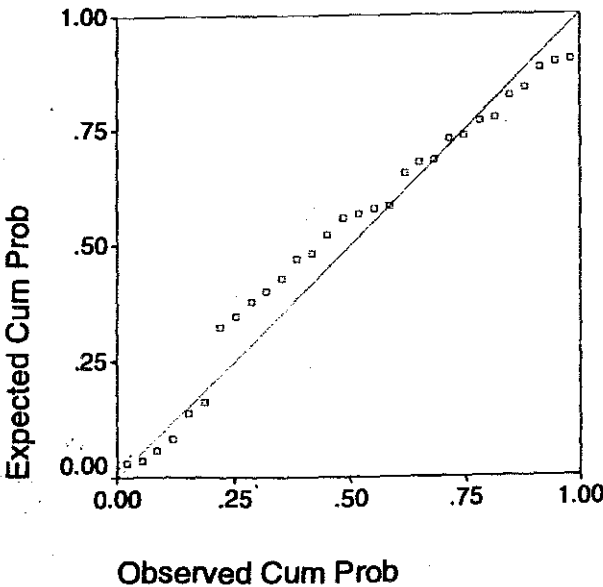
Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.4734	3.8509	3.3610	.3168	30
Std. Predicted Value	-2.802	1.546	.000	1.000	30
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.1396	.3688	.2238	5.776E-02	30
Adjusted Predicted Value	2.4501	3.8850	3.3723	.3317	30
Residual	-.8962	.6099	5.477E-16	.4256	30
Std. Residual	-1.875	1.276	.000	.891	30
Stud. Residual	-2.042	1.402	-.009	1.001	30
Deleted Residual	-1.2088	.7630	-1.13E-02	.5431	30
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.207	1.434	-.024	1.039	30
Mahal. Distance	1.507	16.299	5.800	3.600	30
Cook's Distance	.000	.345	.040	.066	30
Centered Leverage Value	.052	.562	.200	.124	30

a. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

Charts

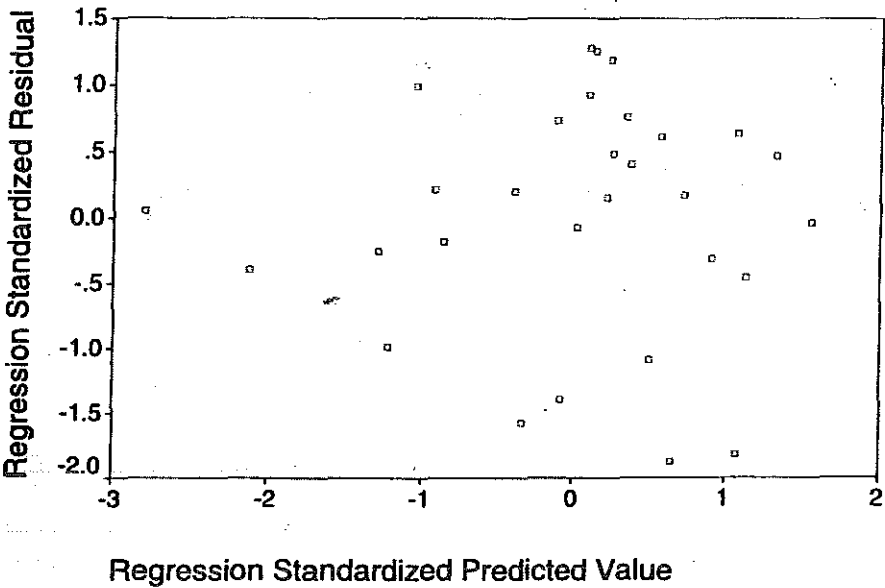
Normal P-P Plot of Regression Sta
Dependent Variable: CHGSW



J.3

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: CHGSW



Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ADMORAL, ADAPPEAR, ADGSW ^a		Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.553 ^a	.305	.225	.4670

a. Predictors: (Constant), ADMORAL, ADAPPEAR, ADGSW

b. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.494	3	.831	3.811	.022 ^a
	Residual	5.670	26	.218		
	Total	8.164	29			

a. Predictors: (Constant), ADMORAL, ADAPPEAR, ADGSW

b. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

J.4

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.578	.551		2.866	.008
	ADAPPEAR	.166	.170	.221	.974	.339
	ADGSW	2.660E-02	.210	.032	.126	.900
	ADMORAL	.369	.166	.421	2.223	.035

a. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

Residuals Statistics^a

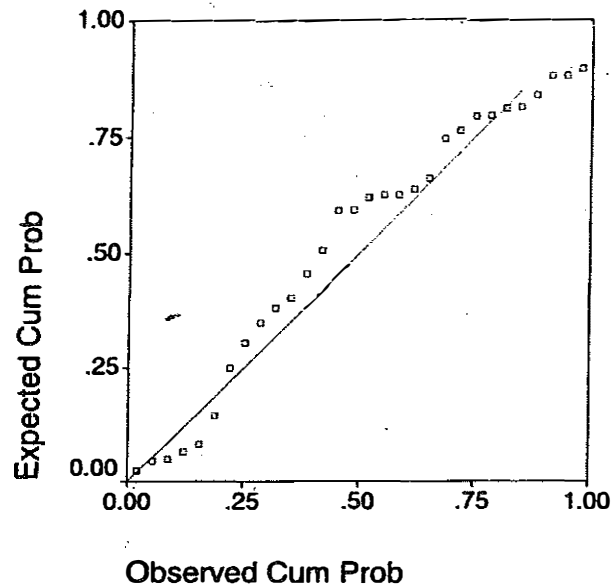
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.6811	3.7400	3.3610	.2932	30
Std. Predicted Value	-2.319	1.293	.000	1.000	30
Standard Error of Predicted Value	9.986E-02	.3480	.1623	5.309E-02	30
Adjusted Predicted Value	2.6916	3.7756	3.3753	.2827	30
Residual	-.9277	.5881	4.441E-17	.4422	30
Std. Residual	-1.986	1.259	.000	.947	30
Stud. Residual	-2.047	1.387	-.012	1.018	30
Deleted Residual	-1.0418	.7131	-1.43E-02	.5161	30
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.191	1.413	-.026	1.046	30
Mahal. Distance	.359	15.134	2.900	2.976	30
Cook's Distance	.000	.322	.045	.079	30
Centered Leverage Value	.012	.522	.100	.103	30

a. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

Charts

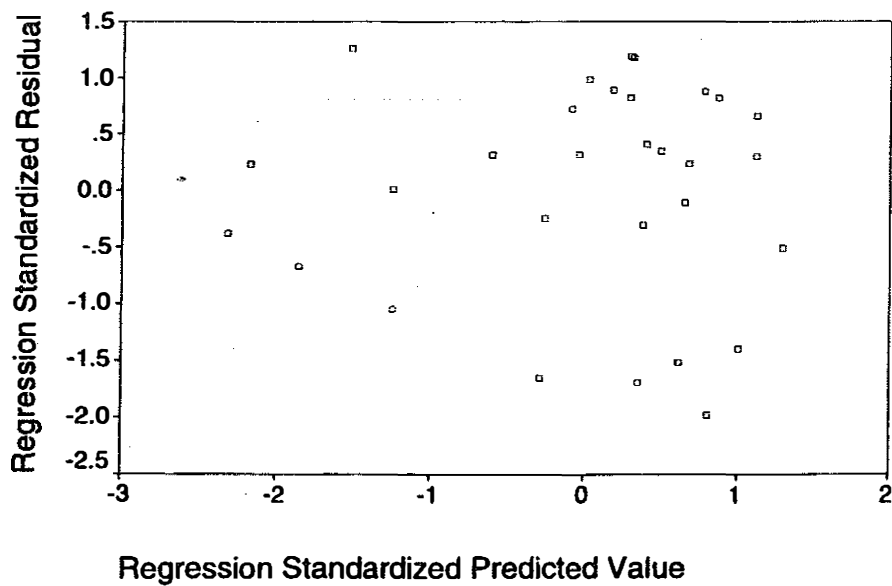
J.5

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Sta
Dependent Variable: CHGSW



Scatterplot

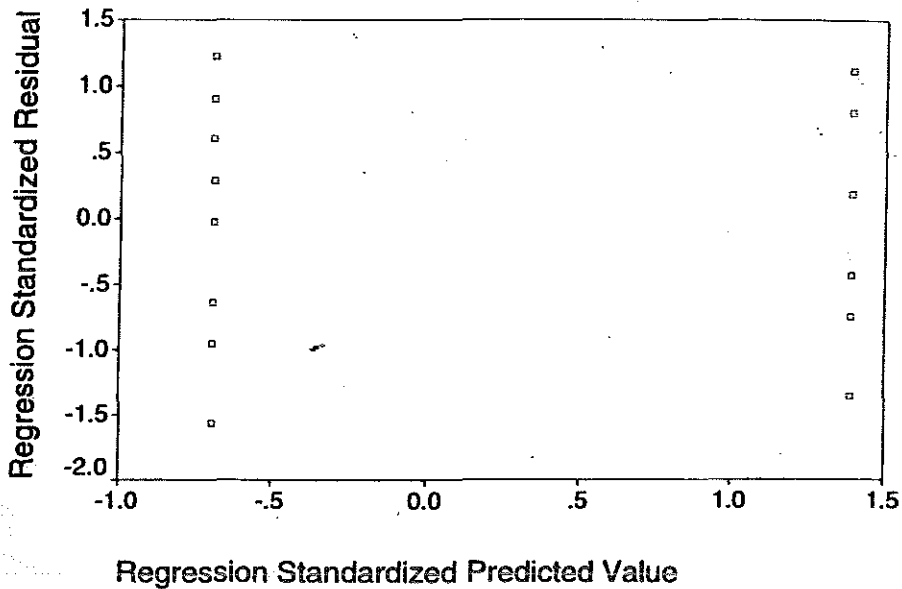
Dependent Variable: CHGSW



J.6

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: CHGSW



Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ADGSW ^a		Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.395 ^a	.156	.126	.4961

a. Predictors: (Constant), ADGSW

b. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.273	1	1.273	5.171	.031 ^a
	Residual	6.891	28	.246		
	Total	8.164	29			

a. Predictors: (Constant), ADGSW

b. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

J.7

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.340	.458		5.110	.000
	ADGSW	.332	.146	.395	2.274	.031

a. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

Residuals Statistics^a

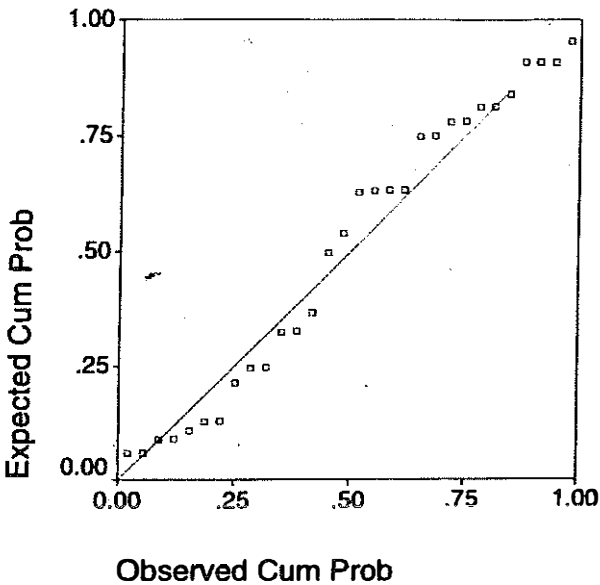
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.8951	3.6692	3.3610	.2095	30
Std. Predicted Value	-2.224	1.471	.000	1.000	30
Standard Error of Predicted Value	9.119E-02	.2240	.1238	3.326E-02	30
Adjusted Predicted Value	2.9963	3.7502	3.3650	.2087	30
Residual	-.7805	.8292	1.184E-16	.4875	30
Std. Residual	-1.573	1.671	.000	.983	30
Stud. Residual	-1.604	1.725	-.004	1.015	30
Deleted Residual	-.8117	.8837	-3.98E-03	.5205	30
Stud. Deleted Residual	-1.653	1.792	-.006	1.029	30
Mahal. Distance	.013	4.947	.967	1.115	30
Cook's Distance	.000	.123	.034	.033	30
Centered Leverage Value	.000	.171	.033	.038	30

a. Dependent Variable: CHGSW

Charts

J.8

Normal P-P Plot of Regression St:
Dependent Variable: CHGSW



Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: CHGSW

