CHILDREN COPING WITH DIVORCE: A TEST OF THE CIRCUMPLEX MODEL OF FAMILY FUNCTIONING

by

Brenda Hayes Johnson

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APPROVED:

Michael J. Sporakowski, Chairman

Leland J. Axelson

Victoria R. Fu

Dennis E. Hinkle

Howard O. Protinsky

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Blacksburg, Virginia

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INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

A myriad of social forces in the United States has been dramatically reflected in the substantial increases in the divorce rate over the past two decades. One of the more frequently mentioned changes involves the increasingly popular concept of marriage as a source of security, love and companionship (Bane, 1976). Other plausible causes include the increased participation of women in the labor force (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1976), changes in attitudes regarding the previously narrow options of live-styles for women (Glick, 1978), and the decreasing birth rate and family size (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980). These are only a few of the multitude of forces which have changed the realities of the phrase "until death do us part".

Statistics indicate that over one million couples each year end their marriage by divorce; that number is triple the number in 1960 (U.S. Dept. of Health & Human Services, 1981). The number of divorced persons per 1000 persons married and living with their spouse in 1960 was 35/1000; the ratio was 47/1000 in 1970 and increased to 90/1000 in March, 1978 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1979). The fact that the rate of divorce among couples with children under 18 years old is increasing at a more rapid rate than that of couples without children (U.S. Dept. of Health, Education & Welfare, 1978) adds to the concern about the consequences of divorce. Glick (1978) has predicted that one of every three

children born in 1977 will experience the divorce (27%) or separation (another 5%) of their parents and live "a significant length of time as members of a one-parent family before they reach the age of 18" (p. 53). There is perhaps some truth to the statement, "divorce-like marriage-has become an American institution" (Weed, 1981, p. 17).

However, research on parent-child relations has tended in recent years to dispell the myth that one-parent families "cause" deviant children. Rather, concepts such as parental warmth and acceptance, consistency of expectations, autonomy, democratic forms of discipline, communication, and level of conflict have all played an increasing role in parent-child studies (Martin, 1975). At the same time book store shelves reflect the idea of divorce as a creative growth process for adults (e.g., Kranzler, 1974).

Despite the lack of evidence that divorce necessarily produces permanent disabilities for children, a few recent studies have begun to reflect the growing concern with the process of adjustment among children of divorced or separated parents. Five researchers, to date, have limited their studies to the period of transition following separation and reported child adjustment based on observations and interviews with the children (Heatherington, Cox & Cox, 1976, 1977, 1979a, 1979b; Hess & Camara, 1979; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976, 1977; McDermott, 1968; Santrock & Warshak, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976, 1977, 1980). Other reseachers, while limiting their study to the period of transition, relied solely on parental report measures (Fulton, 1979; Jacobson, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c). Despite problems with sample selection and methodology, these studies point in the same direction. Transition

is long and difficult for children and is frequently reflected in behavior problems such as aggressiveness, lack of compliance, whining, crying, dependency, complaining, attention-seeking behavior, impulsivity, inattention and distractability (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1977, 1979a, 1979b). Hetherington claimed these behaviors reached a peak at one year after divorce and had largely dissipated by the two year point. Considering the fact that her total sample had been separated for between 12 and 18 months prior to the divorce decree (Note 1), the period of adjustment is extensive. Wallerstein and Kelly also reported that no child had escaped behavioral problems among the 34 preschoolers they studied. Regression in toilet training, sadness, "neediness", withdrawal and temper tantrums were added to the list of problem behaviors. At the one year follow-up, 44% of the preschoolers (N = 34), 23% of those in early latency (N = 26; 7 and 8 years old), and 50% of those in later latency (N = 31; 9 and 10 years) were considered to exhibit more serious problems than at the first contact shortly after separation (1975, 1976a, 1976b), despite the treatment they had received at the mental health center (primarily a Rogerian approach). "...the central event of divorce for children is psychologically comparable to the event of death, and frequently evokes similar responses of disbelief, shock and denial." "Rarely does the post-divorce family structure stabilize within the first year following the parental separation" (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976, p. 22).

The behavioral and emotional problems reported in the literature cannot be considered apart from the parent-child relationship. The factors which appear to relate to a more effective level of coping in

children will be discussed more fully in the review of literature. In brief, Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1977) have speculated about the "coersive cycle" of dysfunctional parent-child relationships during transition. Poor parenting skills among anxious, depressed parents increase noxious behavior among the children. Such behavior on the part of children is casual in a parent's increased anxiety and depression, lack of feeling of competence, and decreased self-esteem, claimed Hetherington. Kelly and Wallerstein (1976) stated: "Prolonged disequilibrium (of the child) is frequently accompanied by a decrease in the emotional availability of the custodial parent" (p. 22).

Perhaps such a cycle is unavoidable. The crisis of divorce is considered second only to death in its stress producing effect (Holmes & Rahe, 1967). However, the research hints at potential explanations for more effective coping. In some situations, coping was less difficult; returning to a new level of family reorganization was less painful and less time consuming. Based on crisis theory, recovery is important in determining one's potential for coping with future stress (Hill, 1958).

Despite the importance of effective coping for subsequent development, most of the research on transition has emphasized the differences which exist between children whose parents have recently divorced and children in two parent families. Problems, rather than coping, have been emphasized. Hess and Camara (1979) have objected to this research orientation after noting greater variations in child behaviors within their groups of recently divorced and intact families than between them. In other words, family interaction processes

require closer examination to increase our understanding of divorce adjustment for children. The need for a better awareness of these processes has been expressed by other researchers on transition:

> it may be that patterns of behavior that are helpful to parents and children will be more clearly identified (Jacobson, 1978c, p. 190).
>
> We need more research on the questions of which factors intensify or ameliorate adverse outcomes of divorce (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1979a, p. 46).

In addition to a need for an emphasis on understanding the interaction patterns which facilitate coping, the research on children and divorce has been largely atheoretical. While problems have been identified and relationships suggested, the integration of research and theory has been nearly nonexistent with respect to this specific situational crisis for children. The paucity of research which tests hypotheses formulated from a theoretical model of coping and crisis is apparent. Given the suggestion that interaction processes be studied as predictors of adjustment, a theory which explains interaction processes would be most appropriately applied to this problem.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to address the following questions:

1) Do children who cope more or less effectively with parental divorce live in family interaction processes of adaptability and cohesion?

2) Do custodial parents who cope more or less effectively with

divorce during transition live in family environments which are measurably different with regard to the family interaction processes of adaptability and cohesion?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical model selected for study in this research has been labeled the "circumplex model of marital and family systems" and reflects two major dimensions of family interaction patterns (Olson, Sprenkle & Russell, 1979) defined as follows:

> Family adaptability: the family's ability to shift its power structure, role relationships and relationship rules in response to situational and developmental stress. Adaptability ranges from extreme change, which results in chaos, to limited change, which results in system rigidity (Russell, 1979, p. 31).

Concepts included in this dimension are assertiveness, control, discipline, negotiation, roles, rules, and system feedback.

> Family cohesion: an emotional, intellectual and/or physical oneness that family members feel toward one another. This variable ranges from extremely high family chhesion, resulting in overidentification, or enmeshment, with the family, to extremely low family cohesion, which results in isolation, or disengagement, within the family (Russell, 1979, p. 31).

Concepts included in this dimension are emotional bonding, independence, family boundaries, coalitions, time, space, friends, decision-making, interests, and recreation.

The following hypothesis was developed from the theory by its founders:

> Families that handle situational and developmental crisis successfully will be moderate in family adaptability...and family cohesion...whereas families that are less successful in handling crisis will be extreme, either very high or very low in family cohesion...and family adaptability (Russell, 1979, p. 32).

The two dimensions identified in the model are not new, but rather, have appeared by different names across numerous social science disciplines (Olson, Sprenkle & Russell, 1979). For example, family therapists and psychiatrists have discussed cohesion in terms of "differentiation" (Bowen, 1960), "pseudo-mutuality" (Wynne, Ryckoff, Day & Hirsch, 1958), or "enmeshment-disengagement" (Minuchin, 1974). Family sociologists have long discussed both adaptability and cohesion (referred to as "integration") as components of family functioning during the depression (Angell, 1936) and among families separated by war (Hill, 1949). The dimensions have also been discussed by small group theorists, social psychologists and anthropologists.[1]

[1]For a complete discussion of the use of these dimensions in other disciplines, see Olson, Sprenkle and Russell, 1979

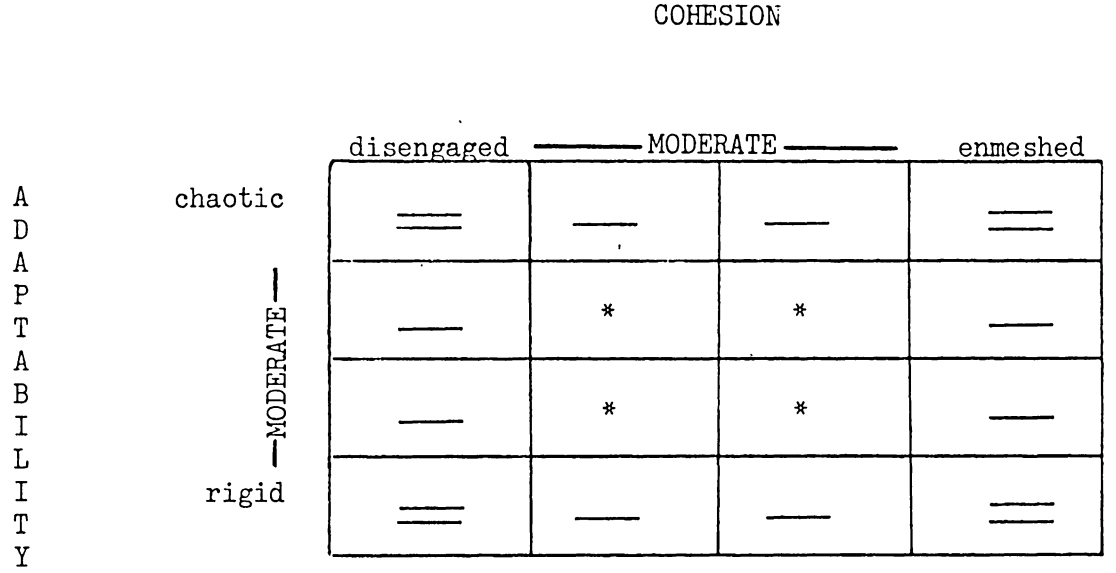
The attempt to bridge the fields of psychiatry, family therapy, family sociology, small group theory, social psychology and anthropology is indeed admirable and provides validity for the concepts. The unique contribution of this theoretical model to the field of family study is the identification of the interaction of moderate levels of cohesion and adaptability as most functional for family adjustment to stress, as well as the development of a self-report measure (FACES: Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale) to empirically test these dimensions (see Figure 1).

This theory was selected after consideration was given to the middle range theories of crisis/stress (Hansen & Johnson, 1979) and family problem-solving (Klein & Hill, 1979), because the major concepts within each of those theories are included in the circumplex model, and subsequently, the FACES measure.[2]

Only one test of the full circumplex model has been published[3] to date and lends support for the hypothesis that more functional patterns of behavior are related to moderate levels of cohesion and adaptability while families who exhibited lower levels of functioning had extreme scores on cohesion and/or adaptability. Russell (1979) obtained 31 "normal" families through a Catholic church membership list. She used a

[2]A critique of FACES was published after data collection for this project was nearly completed (Bilbro & Dreyer, 1981). That critique will be incorporated into the discussion section of this paper.

[3]Sprenkle and Olson (1978) considered their study of clinical and nonclinical couples to be a test of the nodel but this writer objects to such classification. Their project only measured adaptability. A test of the theory requires the examination of both adaptability and cohesion.



*Scores which are moderate on both adaptability and cohesion.

-Scores which are extreme on either adaptability or cohesion.

=Scores which are extreme on both adaptability and cohesion.

Figure 1. CIRCUMPLEX MODEL OF MARITAL & FAMILY SYSTEMS
(Olson, Bell & Portner, 1978)

structured performance task which included an induced crisis event (Simulated Family Activity Measurement, SIMFAM, Straus and Tallman, 1971) to measure family adaptability and cohesion as perceived by mother, father and femaly adolescent. Dysfunctional families were grouped as high and low functioning based on the daughter's self report of how seriously she had considered running away from home. A scatter plot of the families based on high and low functioning indicated that all 15 of the low functioning families fell outside of the moderate range on cohesion and adaptability. Not one low functioning family was in the moderate range! Of the families grouped as high functioning, 11 of the 16 were moderate in both adaptability and cohesion.

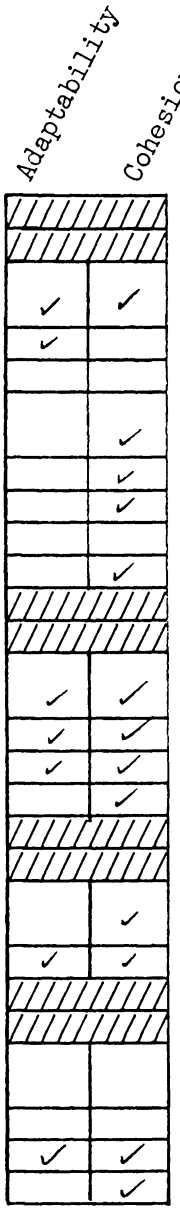
It would seem logical that the next stage of theory verification must move beyond the laboratory induced crisis. There is a need to determine whether families who have experienced actual stress will function more effectively when the family interaction processes are within the moderate ranges of adaptability and cohesion.

Integration of Theory and Research

The application and integration of the dimensions of the circumplex model with the data on children and divorce is impressive. The review of the research literature on children's adjustment shortly after separation or divorce is discussed in detail in a later section of this research proposal. In brief, this writer identified 18 factors which are suggested in the research as possible explanations of variance in a child's level of coping following divorce. These

eighteen factors have been grouped into four general categories identified as: 1) level of adjustment and psychological well-being of the custodial parent; 2) parenting skills of the custodial parent; 3) interaction with the non-custodial parents; and 4) child's sex and developmental level (see Figure 2). Of the 18 factors identified as important variables in a child's coping, 14 are reflected within the two dimensions of the circumplex model. The four remaining possible sources of variance were controlled statistically in the analysis (age and sex of the child; time since separation; financial status of the family).

The first factor listed among the 18 in Figure 2 is "level of parental conflict." The review of literature explains the support for the relationship between high levels of conflict and low levels of adjustment among children. This factor of "level of parental conflict" is similarly reflected in the FACES measure on both adaptability and cohesion. More specifically, the adaptability dimension was explained previously (page 6) to include the concepts of assertiveness, control, discipline , negotiation, roles, rules and system feedback. Each of these concepts is represented by six questions in the FACES instrument. A family with extension parental conflict might respond differently from one with low conflict on a question which measures negotiation (e.g. "We feel good about our ability to solve problems"). Similarly, the dimension of cohesion was described as consisting of the concepts of emotional bonding, independence, family boundaries, coalitions, time, space, friends, decision-making, interests and recreation. It seems plausable that high and low conflict situations might result in different responses to a question reflecting family boundaries (e.g. "Family members find it



*14 of the 18 factors reflect the dimensions of cohesion and/or adaptability.

Figure 2. INTEGRATION OF RESEARCH AND THEORY: FACTORS IDENTIFIED IN THE RESEARCH AS RELATED TO A CHILD'S ABILITY TO COPE WITH PARENTAL DIVORCE

easier to discuss things with persons outside the family").

A similar logic can be applied to each of the 14 factors listed in Figure 2 as important in a child's ability to cope with divorce. In other words, the current research data lends itself well to an integration with the dimensions of adaptability and cohesion within the circumplex model and measured in FACES.

Definitions

Family interaction process or family functioning was defined by the score a family obtained on the dimensions of cohesion and adaptability measured by the self report measure, FACES (Olson, Bell & Portner, 1978). The score placed them in one of 16 categories of family interaction (see Figure 1).

Cohesion was defined as the level of emotional, intellectual and physical "oneness" that family members feel toward another, ranging from isolation (very low cohesion) to enmeshment (very high cohesion).

Adaptability was defined as the level of flexibility, ability to shift and change, under stressful conditions. Adaptability ranges from rigidity (very low adaptability) to chaos (very high adaptability).

The child's level of coping was defined by the scores obtained on the achenbach (1979 a) Child Behavior Profile (parent report form). Two subscales were included to permit an assessment of coping reflected in behavior problems (higher scores indicated lower levels of coping) and social competency

(higher scores indicated higher levels of coping). The problem behaviors were further delineated to distinguish between two types of problem behaviors:

Internal behavior problems included symptoms such as excessive fears, somatic complaints, uncommunicable and immature behavior.

External behavior problems included behaviors such as hyperactivity, aggressive and delinquent acts.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested :

H_1: No relationship exists between a child's total behavior problems and the variables of family interaction (cohesion and adaptability), time since divorce, the child's age and sex, and family income.

H_2: No relationship exists between a child's internal problem behaviors and the variables of family interaction (cohesion and adaptability), time since divorce, the child's age and sex, and family income.

H_3: No relationship exists between a child's external behavior problems and the variables of family interaction (cohesion and adaptability), time since divorce, the child's age and sex, and family income.

H_4: No relationship exists between a child's level of social competency and the variables of family

interaction (cohesion and adaptability), time since divorce, the child's age and sex and family income.

H_5: No relationship exists between the mother's level of adjustment and the variables of family interaction (cohesion and adaptability), time since divorce, the child's age and sex and family income.

While theory and research permitted the statement and testing of the hypotheses above, few if any suggestions existed for understanding different aspects of a child's coping problems. Therefore, the data were examined to determine whether any relationships existed between the four aspects of child adjustment and the four quadrants of the circumplex model.

H_6: No association will exist between the four quadrants of the circumplex model and the child's adjustment reflected by social competency, total behavior problems, internal behavior problems or external behavior problems.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The factors to be identified in the following pages come primarily from the work of Fulton (1979), Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1977, 1979a, 1979b), Hess and Camara (1979), Jacobson (1978a, 1978b, 1978c), Kelly and Wallerstein (1976, 1977) and Wallerstein and Kelly (1974, 1975, 1976, 1977, 1980), since these studies measured adjustment at controlled times following either separation or divorce.

The factors impacting on various aspects of a child's adjustment seem to fall generally into four broad categories identified by this writer as:

1) the level of adjustment and psychological well-being of the custodial parent,
2) the parenting skills of the custodial parent,
3) interaction with the non-custodial parent,
4) the sex and developmental level of the child

Before reporting the evidence for specific factors within each category, it should be noted that much more research has been done on preschoolers than on any other age range (all 48 children in Hetherington's divorced group; one-fourth of Wallerstein and Kelly's sample of 131; half of Jacobson's 51 children). Therefore, the factors identified in coping behavior are very tenuous in their generalizability to all children. This is accentuated by the fact that Wallerstein and Kelly reported no specific measurement procedures, appearing to base

their writing on reports of interactions with the child during counseling sessions. Hetherington frequently wrote in a prose style with little reference to definitions or statistical techniques. Also, it is important to note that the children in these studies generally lived with the mother. Only two studies of father custody have been published and they include a total of only 40 children (Lowenstein & Koopman, 1978; Santrock & Warshak, 1979). Neither of these studies of father custody controlled for the time factor in transition after divorce.

The general categories of "level of adjustment and psychological well-being of the custodial parent" and "parenting skills of the custodial parent" are obviously interacting categories, since a poorly adjusted parent would probably demonstrate loss of parenting skills which they might otherwise possess. However, the two categories have been listed separately by this writer to distinguish between factors more related to the parents' level of coping as a direct consequence of the divorce experience, and factors which are generally considered skills in parenting.

I. Level of Adjustment and Psychological Well-being: Custodial Parent

The adjustment of the custodial parent is stressed as an essential component of a child's adjustment (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1979b) because the "buffering" which occurs in a two-parent family (Rutter, 1977) cannot impact as greatly on the child when one parent holds custody. The day-to-day affect of an unhappy, rejecting, hostile or otherwise emotionally disturbed parent can hardly be tempered by a parent who sees a child only once a week or less (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975). Eight components of parental adjustment which impact, presumably,

on a child's transition have been drawn from the literature.

A. Level of parental conflict

Several researchers have addressed the idea that parental conflict is a more hazardous element in a child's emotional development than is the actual experience of living in a one-parent family. Cline and Westman (1971) reported that over half of their divorced sample of 105 families were involved in hostile interactions requiring court action during the two years following divorce. Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979b) divided their sample into high conflict vs. low or moderate conflict nuclear families and high conflict vs. low or moderate conflict divorced families. While the divorced children as a group experienced more disruptive behavior (i.e., whining, crying, aggression, dependent behavior, impulsive behavior, less pro-social helping behavior) than the children from nuclear families at the one year point, things shifted dramatically by the two year follow-up. Boys in the conflict-ridden divorced family showed more behavior problems than any other group but boys in the divorced home with low levels of conflict behaved more appropriately than did boys in the high conflict nuclear families. For girls the high conflict families produced more adjustment problems, whether divorced or nuclear, than the low conflict families. Decreases in math performance on the Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence (IQ measure) at the two year point were also related with high levels of continuing marital conflict. Hess and Camara (1979) substantiated the impact of parental conflict as a factor in a child's level of stress and aggressive behavior among both their divorced and intact families.

Related results were reported by Jacobson (1978b) who interviewed custodial parents and children within the first 12 months of separation. Her data appear to be less valid than Hetherington's, since the level of family conflict was based on self reports of the custodial parent as opposed to the multiple measures, including observation, used by Hetherington. Likewise, parents provided the information for the single behavior checklist used to determine the child's adjustment. However, her results supported the important role of conflict as a force in a child's adjustment. A significant correlation was found between inter-parent hostility prior to the separation and the child's behavior; as the level of conflict prior to separation increased, current behavior problems increased. The relationship was stronger for children 7 - 13 years than for those 3 - 6. Wallerstein and Kelly noted that while lack of conflict did not produce symptom-free children, the existence of conflict frequently accentuated a child's disruption.

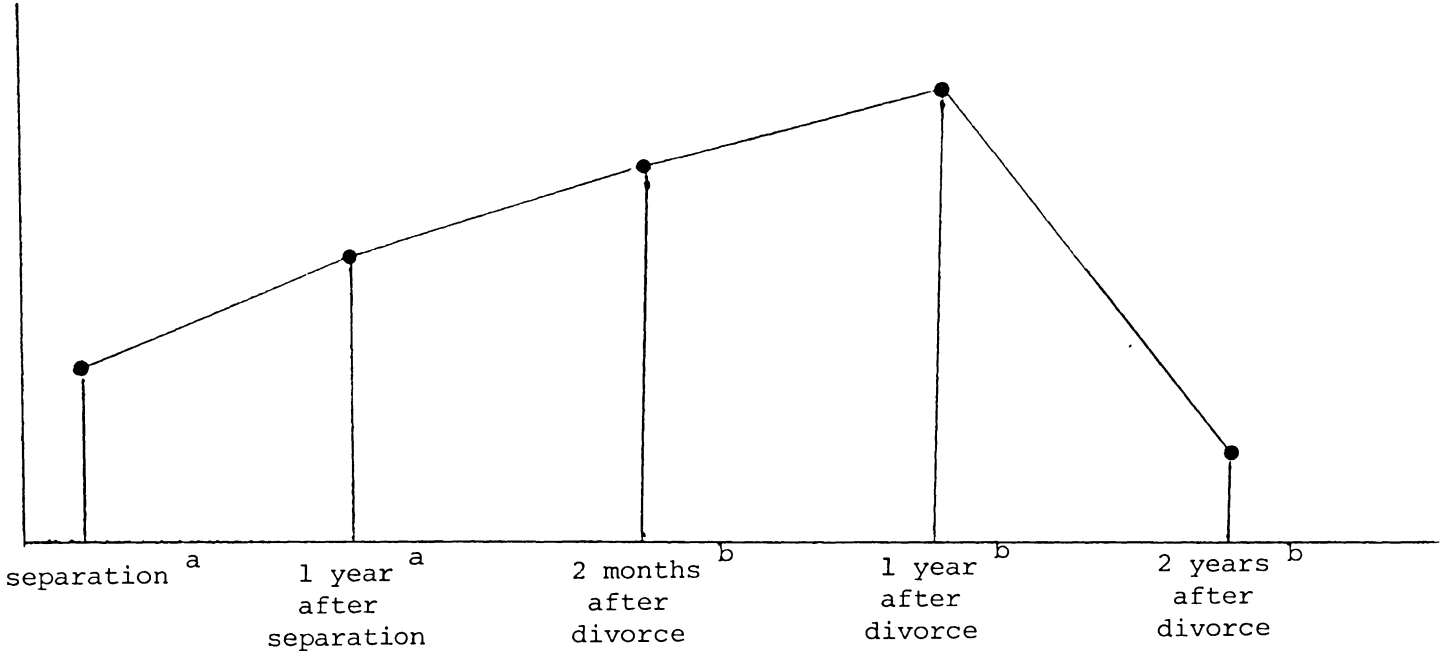
B. Organization of the home atmosphere

Pervasive disorganization was reported to exist in the homes of divorced families (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1977, 1979b). Meals were eaten at odd hours, bedtime was sporadic, and routine was clearly lacking. At one year following divorce (1979b) the children living in the most disorganized, chaotic households exhibited the greatest degree of impulsive, inattentive and highly distractable behavior in nursery school. At two years these children showed marked decreases in I.Q. subscales in block design, mazes and arithmetic, "areas which require sustained attention in formation processing" (p. 14). This relationship also existed with parental conflict, as mentioned in the previous section.

It appears that continuing conflict might well contribute to the ongoing disorganization of the household. An organized household, on the other hand, might assist a child in controlling his own behavior.

C. Time since separation/divorce and previous separations

Only the works of Hetherington, Cox and Cox and of Wallerstein and Kelly reflect measures taken over the process of adjustment. Hetherington clearly identified the period of one year following divorce as the highest point of difficulty for children, followed by a gradual return to functional levels appreciably achieved by two years after divorce. The information lacking in this concept of time as a variable of coping behavior tells us nothing about what happened in the year to 18 months (Note 1) between separation and the actual divorce decree. Kelly and Wallerstein (1976) suggested that the central event for children is the actual parental separation rather than the divorce. Their measures occurred shortly after separation and at a one year follow-up. During this period they reported that all children displayed some difficulties in coping and that 25% to 45% of the group (percentage varied based on age) was more disturbed at follow-up than at the initial contact. Since Hetherington's first measure occurred at approximately the same point in time as Kelly and Wallerstein's final measure, it might be assumed that many in their sample continuned to experience difficulty in coping for at least another year (bringing them to Hetherington's one year point reported as most difficult) before recovery became noticeable (see Figure 3). It does appear, based on Hetherington's data, that around 36 - 42 months after initial separation, most children have returned to a normal level of functioning, with the exception of a few who will be discussed



a Wallerstein & Kelly
b Hetherington, Cox & Cox

Figure 3. CHILDREN'S PROBLEMS WITH COPING FOLLOWING PARENTAL SEPARATION/DIVORCE

as we deal with other components of adjustment. This time frame seems to be substantiated in Hess and Camara's (1979) study of children aged 9 - 11 years whose parents had been separated between 2 and 3 years. They reported higher levels of stress and aggressive behavior than the comparison group from intact families.

The fact that adjustment and difficulties begin even before separation seems reasonable, given the fact the tension and conflict may well exist for years before actual separation. Jacobson (1978c) reported that the longer a child was reported to have known his parents' serious marital problems, the less was his reported level of aggressive behavior. However, those children who had been exposed to more than one parental separation were reported to be more withdrawn and immature than those who experienced only one separation.

D. The custody process: Willingness to act as custodial parent

While most of the research involving children and divorce addresses children in their mother's custody, Lowenstein and Koopman (1978) reported on 40 boys between 9 and 14 years of age, half living with fathers and half with mothers. Among the boys living with their fathers, self esteem was higher if the father had sought custody as opposed to being left with the children because the mother abandoned the family. Given that many mothers may have custody by default, the fact of the parent's active desire for custody may well impact on the child's adjustment. Considering the slowly increasing number of fathers requesting custody, perhaps more children will eventually live with the parent who truly wants them, as opposed to the traditional choice of the mother. However, the adversary approach currently used by lawyers and the courts pit

parents against each other who might, without such procedures, be counseled to make the best decision on behalf of themselves and the children (Coogler, Weber & McKenry, 1979). As divorce services increase and move into areas where the legal profession has in the past served to ignite family conflict in custody issues, the promise for children is great. If custody decisions are made based on the concept that both parents are still responsible for the child's welfare, a mutual parental decision to have the child live with the parent most able and willing to care for him could be made. Much of the long standing conflict might be decreased. Coogler, et al.'s (1979) plan for divorce mediation holds some promise for such an approach and his training program for counselors may slowly begin to replace the adversary model. Hess and Camara's (1979) findings support this idea. Children with the least behavior problems at 2 to 3 years after separation were those who had retained positive relationships with both parents.

E. Parental satisfaction/heterosexual relationships

Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1977) utilized interviews, diary mood ratings, and parents' personality tests to examine the emotional adjustment of parents. Great decreases in self-concept and feelings of competency prevailed. At two years, the most important factor in improved self-concept for mothers was the establishment of an intimate and satisfying heterosexual relationship. However, "dating around" did not facilitate such increases in self-esteem. Intimacy was defined as placing as much value on another's welfare as your own, feeling deep concern and attachment, and being willing to make sacrifices for another. Such relationships fostered increased happiness and feelings of

competency in parents. A happy, more confident parent would presumably contribute to a more organized, less conflict-ridden environment for children. Indeed, Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1977) reported significant correlations between mothers' self-esteem, state anxiety, and feelings of competency and the child's aggression and noxious behavior. However, Wallerstein and Kelly (1977), in reporting failures among children to cope, warned "Sometimes parents who became caught up in a new life-style, and in a conscious plan to relive their adolescences and recapture lost opportunities, were also unable in their total self-preoccupation to distinguish their own needs from the needs of their children" (p. 21).

F. Support systems

Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1977) reported that the existence of support systems for the mother was a factor related to her effectiveness in interacting with her child. Parents, siblings, friends (more importantly, divorced friends) and housekeepers facilitated the parent's coping ability. Therapy was not found to have any significant effect on the parent-child interaction, with the exception of a few mothers (5) involved in a parenting skills program with 24-hour crisis line to contact the group trainer.

G. Finances

While income did not appear to be a significant factor in the parental adjustment of Hetherington's sample, it cannot be overlooked. Middle and upper middle class samples may not provide the variability required to draw a relationship between income and adjustment. However, the warning of Herzog and Sudia (1973) regarding the prevalence of low income, one parent families in the retrospective research on deliquency

should not be overlooked. The impact of extreme financial hardship on a person's ability to cope with stress is a source of potential variance.

H. Warmth and affection

The mass of research on parent-child relations seems to agree on an essential element in raising emotionally secure children, that being the parent's ability to be warm and affectionate toward their children (Martin, 1975). This relationship is stressed in the research on children and divorce as an important element of recovery for a child. Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979) reported that an especially warm, affectionate mother-child relationship was more essential in a one parent family than in a nuclear family. "In single parent families a good adjustment or a positive relation with the father did not counter the adverse effects of an immature or rejecting mother. But a well functioning warm mother counteracted the effects of negative parental attributes" (p. 77). Also, long range effects related maternal warmth to the development of sex-typed feminine behavior in girls.

Wallerstein and Kelly (1975) described the deteriorating mother-child relationship in their pre-school sample at the one year follow-up: "only 22% were happier and more affectionate and more giving... 44% described a less gratifying...more limited relationship" (p. 613-614). The increased problems of the children spiraled with those mothers unable to be warm and affectionate. However, such a break-down is not a unidirectional process, according to Hetherington, and leads us directly to the second category under consideration, the parenting skills of the custodial parent.

II. Parenting Skills of the Custodial Parent

> Our data underscore the fragility of the relationship between the single parent and the preschool child and the extraordinary susceptibility of this relationship to conflictful stresses from within, and pressures and deprivations from without (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975, p. 614).
>
> Poor parenting seems most marked, particularly for divorced mothers, one year after divorce, which seems to be a peak of stress in parent-child relations (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1977, p. 21). The greater use of poor maternal parenting practices and higher frequency of undesirable behaviors in children from divorced families...suggests that the coersive cycle was already underway when we first encountered our families two months after divorce (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1977, p. 29).

The intertwined, cyclical relationship of a mother's level of adjustment, her parenting skills and her children's behavior, most seriously with boys, is important to the understanding of the adjustments of a family to divorce. Mothers feel out of control - warfare prevails (Note 1). Some of the specific parenting skills which seem amenable to training and are conspicuously lacking in parent-child relations are listed and discussed.

A. Consistency in expectations; maturity demands

The mothers in Hetherington's sample showed "marked inconsistency" in their interactions with their children, particularly their sons (1977). Demands for age appropriate behavior decreased and, perhaps because of her own sense of disorganization, lack of follow through regarding expectations was prevalent.

B. Enforcement of limits and discipline

The increased use of negative sanctions and negative commands, particularly with boys, was marked difference between divorced and nuclear families in Hetherington's observations (1977). "...high use of negative commands was positively related to aggression in boys" (p. 25). Children were clearly out of control. "Low maternal control and inconsistency...seemed to be particularly important long term predictors of impulsivity in children in single parent families" (1979b, p. 15-16).

C. Communication

While Hetherington noted a marked difference in the level of communication between divorced and nuclear parent-child relations (1977), Jacobson (1978c) explored this variable in more detail. She specifically obtained measures on the amount of communication between the parent and child regarding the separation and related changes and feelings. She found that while no parent was judged as giving either "very much" or "much" attention to these concerns, distinctions were made between parents who gave "some", "little", or "no" attention to the following matters:

1) the more attention the parent gave to the child in coping with the separation, the lower the child's overall level of

severity of behavioral problems.

2) the more parents discussed the separation event with the child, the lower the child's score on cognitive disability.

3) the more frequently the child brought problems regarding adjustment to the parent, the better his adjustment was.

Likewise, Wallerstein and Kelly (1975) described cases of severe emotional distress in preschoolers whose mother refused to discuss the loss of the father. However, Hetherington et al. (1977) noted that in daily communication regarding behavioral expectations "parents often were using long-winded, often conceptually complicated explanations and that the child seemed to rapidly become inattentive, distractible, and bored...'short and sweet' would seem to be an effective maxim in instructing young children" (p. 24).

D. Encouraging exploratory behavoir

Mothers who encouraged independence and exploratory behavior in boys seemed to facilitate development of masculinity in their sons (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1979b).

III. Interaction with the Non-Custodial Parent

A. Frequency of contact

Interaction with the non-custodial parent, generally determined by the court's decision regarding visitation, has decreasing impact on the child over time (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1977), with the exception of the few fathers who maintained weekly contact with their children. On the other hand, Jacobson (1978a) found a statistically significant relationship between the amount of time lost with the father and child's

level of adjustment. While more important in the 7-13 age group than the 3-6 group, as the difference between the amount of time spent together prior to separation and after separation increased, so did difficulties in adjustment.

Hess and Camara (1979) also reported fewer behavior problems among their 9-11 year old group if positive relationships with both parents existed as opposed to only one parent. They stated that positive contact with both parents was a better predictor of positive behavior patterns than was parental conflict. They emphasized the quality of the relationship with the non-custodial parent as more important than frequency.

Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979b) found that, while father's contact with the child had less and less effect over time, at two years paternal availability still related significantly with sex-typing in girls and boys. Kelly and Wallerstein (1976) stated that the boys at age seven and eight seemed particularly distraught over lack of interaction with their father while Lowenstein and Koopman (1978) found that self esteem was higher among both father and mother custody boys who saw their non-custodial parent at least once a month.

B. Level of maturity and agreement on child rearing

Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1977) reported that the frequency of contact with the father had a positive effect on the child's adjustment only if the parents agreed on child rearing approaches, kept conflict low, and the father demonstrated good will and maturity in his interactions. Otherwise, contact with the father contributed to disruptions in the child's behavior.

IV. Child's Sex and Development

A. Sex

Boys seem to cope much less effectively than girls through all of Hetherington's work. Hess and Camara (1979) reported the same situation on measures of stress, work effectiveness and aggression. On the other hand, Wallerstein and Kelly's (1975) preschool sample produced more serious problems with the girls than the boys. It is possible that girls may exhibit a more immediate problematic reaction to separation which would show up in Wallerstein and Kelly's earlier measurements, while boys may delay the reaction, thereby demonstrating more serious problems than girls at Hetherington's one year mark and not yet returning to baseline when the study ended. These thoughts seem to be supported by the lack of male-female differences reported by Santrock and Warshak (1979) in their mother-custody subgroup. Since they did not control for time since separation, their sample included many children who had perhaps moved beyond the turbulent transition phase, therefore negating male-female differences. When they compared their 20 mother custody and 20 father custody cases, they suggested that social competency scores were highest among boys living with fathers and girls living with mothers. However, these sex differences dropped out, also, when parenting style was taken into consideration. Social competency scores for both custody groups correlated highly with the parenting style described as "authoritative" by Baumrind (1971). The parenting strategy involved "warmth, clear setting of rules and regulations, and extensive verbal give-and-take" (Santrock & Warshak, 1979, p. 122).

B. Age

Children's reactions to separation and divorce were primarily investigated and reported in several parts by Wallerstein and Kelly. They identified different behaviors exemplary of coping or not coping during different developmental stages. For young children the warmth, consistency, affection and attention given in the parent-child relationship was the most essential component in coping. For children in latency and adolescence, while still dependent on the custodial parent's level of adjustment and functioning, it appeared that some emotional distance was helpful. Providing the child with support for developing their own individual abilities while remaining apart from the parental conflict, not being forced to take sides, was an essential component of coping behavior.

C. Substitute caregiver

Within Wallerstein and Kelly's preschool sample (1975) the warmth of the substitute caregiver, either in a nursery school or a sitter's home, seemed important in the child's emotional and behavioral functioning. Santrock and Warshak (1979) reported a positive correlation between the number of hours of alternative care received and a child's social competency. They suggested that those parents utilizing alternative care were less emotionally and physically stressed and could thus provide more warmth and affection when present with their child. This writer speculates that alternative care for that age group (9-11) was in contrast to a child being left alone and might therefore reflect more hours of contact with an adult. However, data were not available to substantiate such speculation.

D. Participation in peer groups

While no empirical data exist, several authors contend that children of divorce feel isolated and embarrassed about their family structure, as well as having a lack of opportunity to share their feelings. Cantor (1978) and Guerney and Jordon (1979) speculate that such participation might assist adolescents in adjusting satisfactorily.

In summary, the major components of coping behavior for children of divorce have been discussed with regard to the custodial parent's level of adjustment, the custodial parent's skill in parenting, interaction with the non-custodial parent, and variations in adjustment based on sex and developmental level. As was demonstrated in Figure 2, 14 of these 18 factors are considered to be related to the concepts which the circumplex model incorporates within the dimensions of family adaptability and cohesion.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Measures

Family Interaction: Adaptability and Cohesion. FACES was developed by Olson, Bell and Portner (1978) to measure the two major dimensions of the circumplex model. The self-report measure is 111 items in length. It includes a cohesion scale, an adaptability scale and a social desirability scale. The cohesion scale consists of 54 items, six for each of the nine concepts included in cohesion (emotional bonding, independence, family boundaries, coalitions, time, space, friends, decision-making, interests and recreation). The adaptability scale includes 42 items, six for each of the seven concepts included in adaptability (assertiveness, control, discipline, negotiation, roles, rules, and system feedback). Fifteen additional items modified from the Edmonds Social Desirability Scale (Edmonds, 1967) result in the 111 total questions. The items were selected based on ratings for validity provided by 35 marriage and family counselors and 410 college students. Factor analysis with the data provided by the initial college sample and a more recent sample of 603 mothers, fathers and adolescents produced similar results (Olson, 1979) (see p. 113-124 for rating and factor loading of items comprising each concept). Internal consistency (alpha) reliability for the adaptability dimension was $r = .75$; the cohesion dimension was $r = .83$ (Olson, 1979).

A critical evaluation of the procedures used in the construction of FACES was published (Bilbro and Dreyer, 1981) after the data collection

process for the current research project was nearly completed. The use of a varimax (orthagonal) rotation in the factor analysis was considered by Bilbro and Dreyer as inappropriate for the cohesion subscale. With new samples, the researchers concluded (using unrotated factor loading) that a subscale of 17 items had "more empirical support" (p. 425) than the original cohesion subscale. The new and shorter subscale theoretically defined cohesion somewhat differently than did Olson, et al. (1978), and excluded the concepts of independence, coalition, and family boundries. The critical evaluation raised serious questions about the use of FACES and is a limitation in this particular research study.

Cutting points for the complete version of FACES were based on 603 individuals. The moderate ranges represent scores within one standard deviation from the mean (Olson, 1979) (see Figure 4). Because these cutting points were developed from a sample of two parent families with an adolescent, the means and standard deviations were determined for the current sample of single parent families used in this research study. Four subgroups were created based on the age and sex of the identified child; the mean and standard deviation were calculated for the families of boys 6 and 11 years old, girls 6 to 11 years old, boys 12 to 16 and girls 12 to 16. This procedure was developed to determine whether the child's developmental level was a factor in the functional levels of family cohesion or adaptability. Carnes (1981) suggested that families with young children required greater levels of cohesion than families with adolescents. Olson (Note 2) reported that preliminary data from a national survey of 1000 families suggested that variations in the

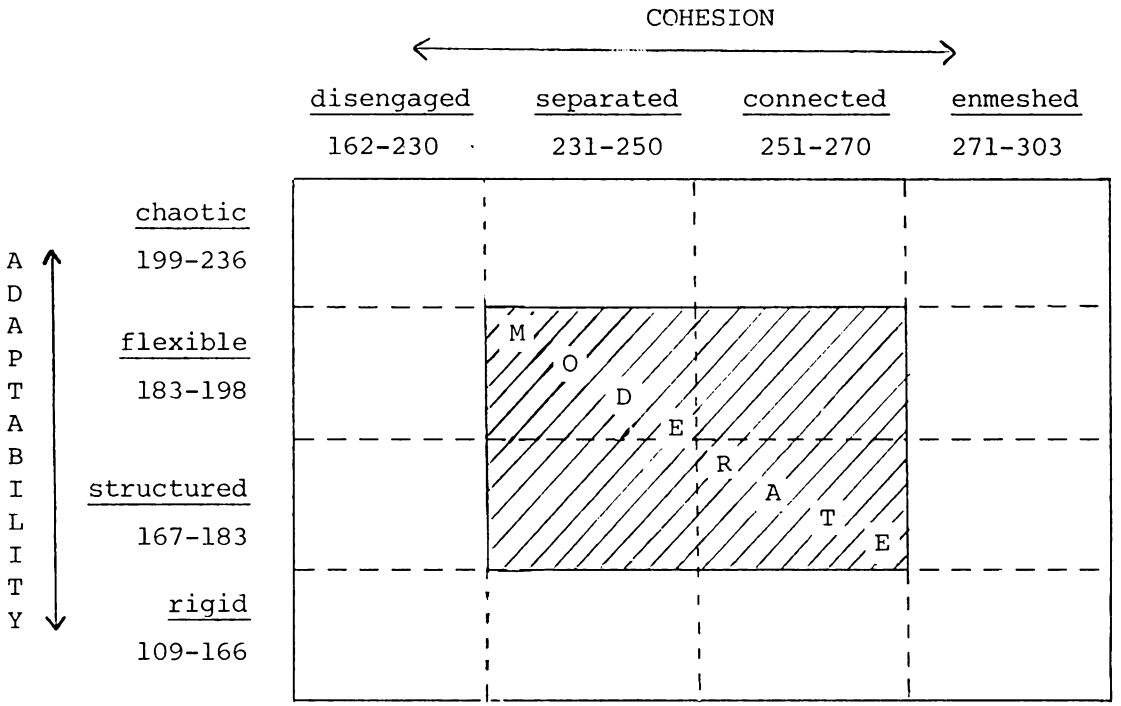


Figure 4. CUTTING POINTS: FACES
(Olson, 1979)

family life cycle produced different mean values for cohesion and adaptability. It should be noted that the presence of a child in either of these age groups did not preclude the presence of either an older or younger sibling (see sampling section for details). Therefore, the differences in the mean values for cohesion and adaptability with this sample must be interpreted as more moderate differences than one might expect if the sample were not confounded by the presence of a sibling in another age group. As indicated in Table 1, the mean scores for cohesion were higher for both the younger boys and girls than for the older boys and girls. The one-way analysis of variance procedure was used to determine differences between the age/sex groups on the cohesion score. No differences were statistically significant ($p > .10$). The mean cohesion score of the total single parent sample was comparable to Olson's two parent sample. The one-way analysis of variance procedure was used to determine differences between the four age/sex groups on the adaptability score. No differences were statistically significant ($p > .10$). The mean for the total single parent sample was slightly below that of the two parent sample (see Table 1).

Olson (1979) reported that the social desirability scale correlated with the cohesion scale ($r = .45$) but not with the adaptability scale. Therefore, he advised dropping those families with social desirability scores over 40. However, the decision was made to control for social desirability through the appropriate statistical procedure in this study. The mean for social desirability (37.0; sd = 4.6) was higher for the total sample than for Olson et al's sample (35; sd = 5).

Table 1

Comparison of Cohesion and Adaptability for Single Parent Sample vs. Means from Two Parent Families; Breakdown by Age and Sex of Child

SINGLE PARENT FAMILIES (N=89)[a]				TWO PARENT FAMILIES (N=603)[b]
VALUES FOR COHESION				
	$\bar{x}$	sd	Total Group	
Boys age 6 to 11	253.6	18.8		
Boys age 12 to 16	245.0	16.2	$\bar{x}$=250.3	$\bar{x}$=251
Girls age 6 to 11	253.2	19.9	sd=18.1	sd=19
Girls age 12 to 16	247.0	15.8		
(F=1.248, df=3, p >.10)				
VALUES FOR ADAPTABILITY				
	$\bar{x}$	sd	Total Group	
Boys age 6 to 11	178.3	15.9		
Boys age 12 to 16	175.2	17.3	$\bar{x}$=176.6	$\bar{x}$=183
Girls age 6 to 11	172.0	13.9	sd=14.4	sd=15
Girls age 12 to 16	180.4	8.4		
(F=1.490, df=3, p >.10)				

[a] The present study

[b] Olson, 1979

Scoring of the FACES measure involved selection of four possible options for each question. Respondents were asked to circle all, most, some or none to indicate whether the question was true all the time, most of the time, some of the time or none of the time (see p. 135-137). Responses were coded (all = 4, most = 3, some = 2, none = 1) based on directions provided in Olson, et al, (1978). The scoring procedure involved multiplying each coded value times an assigned weight based on the counselor rating as an extreme or moderate item. Cohesion items which represented enmeshed functioning and adaptability items which represented chaotic functioning were multiplied times three. Moderate items on each scale were multiplied times two. The extremes of disengagement on the cohesion scale and rigidity on the adaptability scale were multiplied times one (see p. 113-124 for the items within each scale and the catagorization as moderate or extreme).

The scoring procedure for missing data was discussed with Olson (Note 2) who suggested that the measure could be used if no more than five items were missing within each scale (cohesion or adaptability) and the recommended procedure was to assign a value of 2.5 to the missing items. Any questionnaire which was returned with missing data greater than the number permissable (n = 4) was dropped from the sample.

A slight modification of several questions was required, since the sample involved single parents. Each change is explained in detail.

Question #23

original: "The parents...

new version: "I...

...check with the children before making important decisions in our family."

Question #42

original: "Parents...

new version: "I...

...make all the important decisions in our family."

Question #44

original: "Parents and children in our family...

new version: "The children and I...

...discuss together the method of punishment."

Since the above items measure the concepts of control (#23 and #42) and discipline (#44), the presence of one or two parents does not change the meaning of the question.

Two other questions required slight modification because of the reference to "parents" but could not be changed in the manner of the questions above because they involved the concept of coalitions and were examining the coalition between adult family members. Since single parent support systems often include other adults such as extended family members and friends, the FACES questions were preceeded by a request to list all persons whom they considered to be members of their family and whom they see several times each week. They were asked to respond to the FACES items from the reference point of inclusion of

other family members. This frame of reference permitted modification of two questions as follows:

Question #13

original: "The parents...

new version: "The adults...

...in our family stick together."

Question #70

original: "Parents...

New version: "Adults...

...agree on how to handle the children."

In those cases where people did not consider other adults as family members (n = 28) question #13 and #70 were coded as missing data. (See pages 127 to 141 for items as they appeared on the questionnaire.)

Child Behavior: The Achenbach Child Behavior Profile (Achenbach, 1979 a, b) (see pages 129 to 133) is a parent report of the child's current behavior. Norms are available for both sexes between ages 6-11 and 12-16, based on a normal population of 1400 children. Each new score has a T-score which standardized and normalized raw scores for each of the age and sex subgroups (see page 125). The T-score permitted comparison of all children across the ages and sexes. The profile consists of behavior problem scales and a social competency scale. Behavior problems form two groupings based on second-order factor analysis distinguishing a set of behaviors labeled "Internal" (self-directed) and "External" (other directed).

The social competency score was determined by entering a 0, 1, or 2 on the scoring profile based on parent responses to the questions on the first two pages of the measure (Q-3 to Q-12). Directions were provided for assigning mean values to missing data and conditions under which data could not be scored due to missing values. One case was dropped from the sample because of insufficient data on this measure. The social competency questions tapped information about the child's involvement in activities and social contacts both at home and outside the home, as well as his overall school performance.

The behavior problem score was obtained by summing the mother's responses to the behaviors listed on the last three pages of the measure. A behavior occured "very often" (2), "somewhat" or "sometimes" (1), or was "not true" (0). Some items represented the internal behavior problems and others the external behavior problems; item inclusion varied among the four age and sex groupings. These two problem catagories can be examined separately or totaled with other problems not grouped as internal or external.

The test-retest reliability over a one week period based on mothers' reports of problem behavior ranged from .82 to .90 for the different sex and age ranges (Achenbach, 1979 b). The checklist can be completed based on behaviors within the past 6 months or for any other time frame selected by the researcher (Achenbach, 1979 a). For the purposes of the present research the questions applied to the past two months.

Parental Adjustment: Checklist of Problems and Concerns (Berman & Turk, 1980) is a self-report measure which asked divorced adults to note which problems had occurred for them in the past month and which problems once existed but no longer occurred. Those problems which were of concern in the past month could occur "always" (3), "often" (2), "sometimes" (1), or "never" (0). Six factors in coping with divorce are represented in the scale and accounted for 79.5 percent of the scale variance (see page 134). Missing data were coded with the mean value of 1.5.

Personal Information: Questions were developed by the researcher to obtain demographic data, determine the mother's work status, child care arrangements, changes in income since separation occurred, visitation arrangements, and current dating patterns (see pages 138 to 140). Occupational prestige was measured by the Hodge-Siegel-Rossi Index (Davis, 1976). The personal information form was piloted with divorced mothers to clarify wording.

Sample

Complete sets of self-report data were obtained from 89 female, single parents who received final divorce decrees in the cities of Roanoke or Salem or the county of Roanoke, Virginia. The sample satisfied the following criteria:

1) The woman received her final divorce decree approximately 2 months prior to data collection (range: 1-4 months) (n =34), or one year prior to data collection (range: 10-15 months) (n = 27), or 2 years prior to data collection (range: 22-27 months) (n = 28).

2) Each woman had one (n = 45) or two (n = 44) children below 18 years of age. At least one child was between 6 and 16 and resided with the mother at least 4 out of 7 days per week, excluding vacation periods. Two of the 44 families listed as having one child under 18 had a second child who was residing in another household. A total of 15 families (16.8% of the respondents) had other children who were 18 years old or older. Of the 44 families with 2 children under 18, 9 families (10% of total sample) had children under 6 years old and 1 family had a child 17 years old. In two other families the age of the ineligible child was missing. In those families with two eligible children (n = 32) the Child Behavior Checklist was completed for both children. The researcher selected the child with the highest T-score on the Total Problem Score for use in the analysis.

3) Women who had remarried were dropped from the sample. A complete description of the demographic and descriptive characteristics of the sample are presented in Chapter 4 as a part of the results.

Data Collection Procedure

The sample was drawn from the population of women meeting the sample criteria listed above. The names of women divorced in the three jurisdictions during the prescribed time periods were obtained from the Department of Health, Bureau of Vital Statistics, Richmond, Virginia. The data on file permitted selection of only those women with one or

two children under 18 and who had been married prior to 1976. Each name was then taken to the respective courthouse, the file number was obtained and the individual file retrieved for identification of an address. In many cases, reviewing the divorce decree provided information on the child's birth date and custody arrangements which ruled the family out of the sample. In cases of second marriage, the family was dropped from the sample if the child was not either the offspring of the second marriage or legally adopted by the partner of the second marriage. This procedure was followed twice, once in August, 1981, and again in December, 1981. However, the December sampling was limited to the city of Salem and the County of Roanoke and bypassed the list of names provided by Richmond. By the time of the second sampling, the court filing procedure was known to the researcher and she was permitted direct access to all chauncery case files for the time frames required. Individual examination of each file permitted accurate sample identification.

Each woman for whom an address could be located was mailed an introductory letter explaining the nature of the study and an explanation of how they had been selected (see page 126). A total of 333 letters were mailed (first sample n = 230; second sample n = 103) with a non-deliverable rate of 25% (first sample n = 58; second sample n = 26). This rate was exactly the same percentage for both the first and second sampling process. An effort was made to locate the current address of women with non-deliverable mail using the Roanoke City Directory. However, the most recent directory was dated 1980 and had such vast amounts of missing information that only 4 undeliverable

pieces of mail from the first sample (6% of non-deliverable mail; less than 2% of total mailing) were subsequently delivered. This procedure was dropped from the second sampling.

Following delivery of the introductory letter, phone numbers were obtained on all people listed in the Roanoke, Vinton, Salem telephone directory. When the number was not listed, directory assistance was contacted and revealed many unpublished phone numbers. Approximately one third of the sample had listed local telephones and they were remarkably friendly. A total of only seven people among the 81 contacted by phone stated that they did not wish to participate.

Following the phone calls, questionnaires were mailed to all the people who did not have phone numbers in the local area as well as those who had agreed to participate. The first sample was 162; the second was 72. A hand written message at the bottom of each questionnaire stated, "Thanks so much for helping. - Brenda." The mailing of questionnaires was followed by a reminder post card. The post card was followed by a second phone call to people who had initially agreed to participate and a second questionnaire and letter to those without phones (see page 142 for letter). The number of people meeting sample criterion was again reduced as some people reported they were ineligible or the questionnaire was returned as undeliverable. Table 2 provides detailed information regarding return rates among both samples. While the return rate for the total sample was approximately 45%, the rates were recalculated to determine differences in response patterns between those contacted directly by phone and those who received only mailed forms. The differences were

Table 2

Return Rates Including Both
Phone Contacts and Non-Phone Contacts

	Sample #1	Sample #2
Letter of introduction mailed	230[a]	103
Letter of introduction non-deliverable	-58	-26
	172	77
	172	77
Returned form: completed and useable.	63[a]	26[a]
Returnted completed form but not useable due to missing data . . .	4[a]	1[a]
Returned completed form but too late for inclusion in analysis . .	0[a]	1[a]
Did not return form	66[b]	33[b]
Reported to researcher that form was mailed but never received . .	2[b]	1[b]
Refused to participate when called by phone	6[b]	1[b]
Refused to participate: mailed form back.	0[b]	3[b]
Reported themselves ineligible, either by phone or in writing		
-remarried	-19	-7
-child resided elsewhere. . .	- 1	-1
-child too young or too old .	- 1	-0
Questionnaire not deliverable . . .	-10	-3
	141 eligible	66 eligible
	Return Rate	
	47.5%	42.4%

[a] added in as respondent in total return rate

[b] added in as non-respondent in total return rate: considered eligible

substantial; the rates of response more than doubled when the phone contact procedure was used (see Table 3).

Mothers were asked to complete FACES, the Child Behavior Profile, the Checklist of Problems and Concerns and the personal information questions. In families where two children were eligible, a second form was attached to the questionnaire with the behavior checklist questions repeated for the younger child. (See pages 127 to 141 for a copy of the complete questionnaire. It was printed on beige paper and was reduced for inclusion in this text.)

Summary

This research project involved the study of 89 single parent, female headed households with one or two children under the age of 18. The mothers had been divorced for 2 months, 1 year, or two years and had not yet remarried. Names were obtained through the court files for all women divorced during specific time periods. The sample was therefore potentially more representative of the divorced population of mothers with children than were earlier studies of children's divorce adjustment.

Mothers completed self-report measures on family interaction patterns, child behavior problems and social competencies, parental problems/concerns and additional personal information. The child behavior forms were completed on both children between 6 and 16 if two children in that age range resided in the home. The child with the highest total problem behavior score was selected for analysis.

Table 3

Return Rates Comparing Phone Contacts and No Phone Contacts

Sample #1

phone contacts:	55	no direct phone contact:	86
-refused	6	-returned completed	32
-agreed but didn't return	14	-didn't return	54
-returned completed	35		
$\frac{35}{53}$ = 64% participation		$\frac{32}{86}$ = 37% participation	

Sample #2

phone contacts:	26	no direct phone contact:	40
-refused	1	-returned completed	11
-agreed but didn't return or returned after changing mind about participation	8	-didn't return	29
-returned completed	17		
$\frac{17}{26}$ = 65.4% participation		$\frac{29}{40}$ = 27.5% participation[a]	

[a] This figure is lower than the returns for sample #1 because a second copy of the questionnaire was not mailed for sample #2.

The use of the FACES measure, designed originally for two parent families, appeared to be appropriate for use in single parent families when the modifications discussed previously were included. The researcher speculates that inclusion of the introductory section of FACES which requested mothers to list other family persons who were considered by them to be part of the family, aided women in answering questions from the perspective of all family members. The mean scores on adaptability and cohesion were almost identical with the two parent family scores and no significant differences existed ($p > .10$) between the four age/sex groups on either subscale. This lends validity to the use of the instrument with single parent families. However, the recent critical evaluation of the FACES measure by Bilbro and Dreyer (1981) must be presented as a limitation in this study. They questioned the method of construction of the cohesion subscale as well as the conceptual definition of cohesion. Their efforts to identify a more valid and reliable measure of cohesion are welcome, but the problems of differences in the components of cohesion remain in the arena of theoretical debate.

The methodology which involved phone calls to solicit cooperation is concluded to be an important data gathering technique for researchers using a mailed questionnaire. Return rates were twice as high for the respondents contacted by phone as they were for those receiving only mailed information. The return rate for the "phone contacts" samples was 64.0% and 65.4%, despite the long questionnaire and the personal nature of the topic.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the family interaction variables of adaptability (the family's ability to shift and change - to be flexible) and cohesion (family closeness) accounted for variance in children's ability to cope during the transitional period following parental divorce. It was hypothesized that moderate levels of family adaptability and family cohesion were related to higher levels of coping among children. More extreme (either high or low) levels of cohesion and adaptability were related to less effective coping. The children's level of coping or adjusting was defined through two broad aspects of behavior, namely behavior problems and social competency levels.

The population from which the respondents were sampled included all women who had received final divorce decrees in the cities of Roanoke and Salem, and the county of Roanoke, Virginia, during the time periods of 2 months, 1 year and two years prior to data collection (see pages 42 to 43 for details). Selection was limited to women who could be located by the researcher through addresses in the divorce files maintained at each courthouse, women who had not remarried and who had one or two children below the age of 18. At least one of those children was between six and 16 years old and resided with the mother no less than four out of seven days each week, excluding vacation periods. Twenty-nine percent of the original population (n = 333) could not be located by mail (n = 97), 8% indicated they had remarried (n = 26)

and 1% (n = 3) did not satisfy the requirement of the child's age or primary residence. This reduced the actual sample size to 207. A total of 95 questionnaires were returned by eligible respondents for a total return rate of 45.9%. Six cases were dropped due to missing data or inconsistent responses, producing a total of 89 families with usable questionnaires (see Tables 2 and 3, pages 46 and 48 for details and differences in return rates between methods utilized).

A 12 page questionnaire (17 pages for people with two children) was mailed after an initial letter of introduction (see page 126) and a telephone call requesting assistance in the case of the one third who had telephones listed in the local area. Mothers were asked to complete four measures: (see pages 127 to 141 for the complete questionnaire).

1) The Achenbach Child Behavior Profile was completed for the child (children) between six and 16 (Achenbach, 1979 a).
2) The FACES measure (Olson, Bell, & Portner, 1978) assessed family interaction patterns.
3) Checklist of Problems and Concerns (Berman & Turk, 1980) was used to assess the level of problems and concerns of the mothers.
4) A personal information form was completed which asked about demographic data, child care arrangements, visitation arrangements, dating patterns, conflict with the ex-spouse and other descriptive data. (See pages 33 to 42 for a more complete description of the instruments.)

The Families: Demographic Information

Most research on children's adjustment to divorce has involved very select samples of upper middle class families (Heatherington, Cox & Cox, 1977, 1979 a, b) or families who sought assistance in a community program for divorcing families (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976, 1977, 1980). Since 40% of the white female headed households live below the poverty level (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1980, b), and since many families never seek out intervention services following divorce, an effort was made to study families that were more representative of the cross section of divorced, female headed households.

The present sample of 89 families was predominently of the Caucasian race (white: n = 77, 86.5%; black: n = 5, 5.6%; race not indicated: n = 7, 7.9%) which is the major factor which distinguished it from the population of female headed households. Approximately one-third of the single parent, female headed households are black (Payton, 1982). However, that one-third is more likely than its white counterparts to be never-married or separated, rather than divorced (Glick, 1979). Therefore, comparisons with characteristics of female headed households will be limited, when possible, to white families.

The mothers in this sample ranged in age from 23 years old to 56 years old ($\bar{x}$ = 35.7). The majority of the mothers (n = 48, 53.9%) were between 30 and 39 years old. Eighteen percent (n = 16) were below 30 years old and 28.1% (n = 25) were 40 years old or above.

The educational level of the mothers was compared with figures from the U. S. Bureau of the Census (1980) for white, female headed households with natural children under 18 (see Table 4). The major

Table 4

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS - EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Mother's Educational Level	Sample (N = 89)	Census Data [a]
Elementary - 9th grade	1.1%	9.1%
Some high school	5.6%	21.2%
High school	31.5%	43.2%
College	---	18.2%
- Vocational or Technical	15.7%	---
- Some college, not completed	31.5%	---
Four or more years college	14.6%	8.3%

[a] Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1980,b (1979 data)

difference is the lack of mothers with less than a high school degree. Since the census data included female heads of household who have never married (presumably younger and less educated), the present sample would be expected to represent a somewhat higher educational level than all female heads of households.

The current income for the sample families was indicated by checking a range from under $5,000 to over $20,000. Comparison with U. S. Census data permits the generalized statement that the median income for this sample was approximately the same as that for white female heads of household (see Table 5), but higher than for female heads of household aged 25 - 44 with children under 18. However, the lack of single parent families in the extremely high income ranges (only 9% over $20,000) indicated a better representation of the working class than Heatherington's sample.

Employment status of the mothers indicated that over three-fourths of the women (78.4%) were employed full-time and another 9.1% were employed part-time. Only three of the women were currently "homemakers by choice." This employment figure, 87.5%, is higher than the figure (74%) for all divorced women (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1980 a) and may explain, in part, the slightly higher income levels for this sample.

The most frequently checked job category for the mothers was clerical work; 44.7% of those who were employed worked in such positions. The categories closely resembled the categories for all white female heads of households (see Table 6).

Table 5

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS - SINGLE PARENT FAMILY INCOME

Income Ranges	Sample N	Sample %	
Under $5,000	8	9.0	
$5,000 - $6,999	8	9.0	
$7,000 - $8,999 [a]	13	14.6	50.6%
$9,000 - $10,999 [b]	16	18.0	
$11,000 - $13,999	11	12.4	
$14,000 - $16,999	20	22.5	
$17,000 - $19,999	5	5.6	49.5%
Over $20,000	8	9.0	

[a] Median income for all races, women heads of household ages 25-44 with children under 18 = $7,417.

[b] Median income for white female headed households = $9,911.

(Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1980 b; Data = 1978)

Table 6

OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Employment Status	Sample	
	N = 88	%
Full-time homemaker by choice	3	3.4
Employed full-time	69	78.4
Employed 20 - 35 hours/wk.	6	6.8
Employed less than 20 hours/wk.	2	2.3
Unemployed and seeking work	6	6.8
Other	2	2.3

Occupational Categories	Sample		U. S. Bureau of Census, 1980 b % white female head of house
	N = 76	%	
Professional and Technical	9	11.8	14.1
Managers and Administrators	8	10.5	7.9
Sales Workers	6	7.9	5.3
Clerical	34	44.7	36.4
Craftsman	3	3.9	2.2
Operatives, except transport	3	3.9	13.7
Transport Equipment Operatives	1	1.3	----
Laborers, except farm	2	2.6	----
Farmers and Farm Managers	0	0	4
Service Workers, except private household	10	13.2	19.1
Private household workers	0	0	----

The third measure of socio-economic status (in addition to education and income) was occupational prestige. The occupational prestige score used by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) was compared with this sample. The possible scores ranged from 12 to 76. The mean value for this sample compared closely with the mean score for women working full- and part-time, based on the NORC data (1980) (see Table 7).

In summary, the family demographic variables discussed above suggest this sample of single parent families, identified through court records of divorce, represented well the population of recently divorced, white, female headed households. The sample cannot, on the other hand, be considered representative of populations which are non-white, have more than two children under 18[1], or who have very young children.

Description of the Children

In each family, one child was selected for analysis. In those families where two eligible children resided (n = 32; both children between six and 16 years old), the child with the highest total problem score was selected for analysis. The sample consisted of 89 children: 45 boys and 44 girls. The children were divided into four different age and sex groups for conversion from raw scores to T-scores on the Achenbach Child Behavior Profile: boys 6-11 years old, n = 28; boys 12-16, n = 17; girls 6-11, n = 23; girls 12-16, n = 21. The mean age for the total sample was 10.8 years old.

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[1] 22% of those with children under 18 have three or more children (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1980 b).

Table 7

OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE SCORES COMPARED WITH NORC DATA

Sample	NORC Data (1980)
Mothers (N = 76) $\bar{x}$ = 42.0	Women working full and part-time: $\bar{x}$ = 39.3 (sd = 13.89)
Fathers (N = 83) $\bar{x}$ = 41.4	Men $\bar{x}$ = 40.1 (sd = 13.46)

Thirty-two children were eligible but dropped from analysis because of a total problem score which was lower than their sibling's score. This group included 12 boys and 20 girls with a mean age of 10.4 and a mean total problem score of T = 54.06.

Decisions About Analysis Prior to Final Hypotheses Testing

The six hypotheses were tested in the null form. The first five hypotheses were based on the circumplex model which suggested that moderate levels of family cohesion and adaptability were most functional for effective coping and adjustment to stress; the extreme levels (very high or very low) of cohesion and adaptability were theorized as less functional interaction patterns. The four variables of age, sex, time since divorce and family income were included in the hypotheses as possible sources of variance in coping, based on the literature review. The other 14 variables described in the review of literature as potential sources of variance in children's adjustment were reflected in the FACES measure (see pages 10 to 13). The sixth hypothesis was experimental.

Time Since Divorce: The original plan for the variable of "time since divorce" was based on Heatherington's work which had described difficulties at two months, one year and two years after the actual divorce decree. Therefore, one-third of this sample reflected each of those three time frames. The regression analyses were performed using a dummy coding procedure to assess the variance attributable to membership in a group signifying time since divorce. There was some

variance due to group membership between the two extreme groups (two months and two years). However, the data which described the amount of time a couple had been separated prior to divorce showed vast differences in that variable, unlike Heatherington's homogeneous factor of 12 to 18 months of separation (Note 1). More specifically, 29% of the sample had been separated more than 18 months before their final decree (range = 19 to 54 months). Therefore, the decision was made to use the ratio level variable of "number of months since separation" rather than the dummy coded "time since divorce" variable. This change dropped the sample size to 85 families for the analysis due to missing data on number of months separated. The decision could be justified based on the work of Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) who reported that, for children, separation rather than divorce was the primary stress-producing incident.

Curvilinearity: The test of the first five hypotheses involved the creation of squared variables for cohesion and adaptability, since the circumplex model theorized a curvilinear relationship between ability to cope and cohesion/adaptability. However, scatter plots of the dependent variables (total problem scores, internal problem scores, external problem scores, social competency scores, total parental problems and concerns) with cohesion and adaptability did not support a curvilinear relationship. Neither was the curvilinear relationship supported in the analysis with the initial regression models. That analysis involved a hierarchical procedure with a second-degree polynomial equation--cohesion squared and adaptability squared (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973). Social desireability was entered first, followed by the linear set of

cohesion and adaptability, followed by the curvilinear set of adaptability squared and cohesion squared. The curvilinear variables did not account for a significant portion of the variance in any of the dependent measures ($p > .10$), which had not previously been explained by the linear variables. Therefore, the curvilinear variables were dropped from further analysis.

Social Desireability: The social desireability of a person's responses on the FACES measure was an assessment of the degree to which a person's response was affected by her perception of a desireable, socially approved, response. Because a high degree of social desireability in one's responses decreases the validity of the measure, this variable was forced into the regression models at step one. This procedure permitted a more valid interpretation of variance attributable to the remaining variables, which were entered in a stepwise procedure.

Hypotheses: H_1 to H_5

> H_1: No relationship exists between a child's total behavior problems and the variables of family interaction (cohesion and adaptability), time since separation, the child's age and sex, and family income.

This null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level of significance. When social desireability was entered first into the regression equation, 8.1% of the total variation in behavior problems was explained. Subsequently, when income was entered, an additional 5.4% of the variation was explained. When cohesion was entered, another 7.0% of the variation was explained. When adaptability was entered, an additional 2.9% of the variance was explained. The total variation explained by these

variables was 23.4% (adjusted = 19.6%) (see Table 8). The variables of time since separation, child's sex, and child's age did not independently contribute to any additional statistically significant increases in the variation of total behavior problems.

Beta (the partial standardized regression coefficient) explains the change in the total problem score (in standard units) for each one standard unit change in the respective predictor variables. The decending values of Beta for the fixed model provides the information about the most to the least important contributors to the variation in the dependent variable. This determination of the more important contributor to variation is not necessarily consistent with the entrance of the variables into the equation or the percentage of variance explained by the addition of each variable (increases in R^2). However, for total problem scores the Beta weights do decrease consistently in the same order as the variables entered the equation. Therefore, social desireability is the most important contributor to variation in total problems (-.468). Income is the next most important contributor (-.276), followed by cohesion (.260) and then adaptability (.177).

H_2: No relationship exists between a child's internal problem behaviors and the variables of family interaction (cohesion and adaptability), time since separation, the child's age and sex, and family income.

This null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level of significance. When social desireability was entered first into the equation, 6.7% of the total variation in internal problem scores was explained. Subsequently, cohesion was entered and an additional 8.4% of the variation

Table 8

Regression Results for H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4, H_5

Dependent Variable	Independent Varible	B	Beta	Standard Error B	Cumulative R^2	Cumulative Adjusted R^2	df	F	p
Total Problem Score	Social Desirability	- .998	-.468	.243	.081	.070	4, 80	16.958	<.01
	Income	-1.381	-.276	.501	.135	.114		7.595	<.01
	Cohesion	.149	.260	.066	.205	.176		5.066	<.01
	Adaptability	.125	.177	.071	.234	.196		3.073	<.05
Internal Problem Score	Social Desirability	- .922	-.441	.040	.067	.056	4, 80	14.722	<.01
	Cohesion	.206	.367	.064	.151	.130		10.456	<.01
	Income	-1.078	-.220	.493	.198	.168		4.785	<.01
	Sex	-3.372	-.174	1.926	.227	.189		3.064	<.05
External Problem Scores	Social Desirability	- .866	-.412	.232	.099	.088	5, 79	13.942	<.01
	Income	-1.313	-.267	.477	.164	.143		7.606	<.01
	Sex	-4.909	-.251	1.856	.225	.197		6.998	<.01
	Time Since Separation	.152	.192	.075	.267	.230		4.079	<.01
	Cohesion	.118	.210	.061	.210	.255		3.714	<.05
Social Competency	Social Desireability	.508	.255	.201	.042	.030	2, 82	6.407	<.01
	Income	1.783	.381	.471	.184	.164		14.323	<.01
Parent Problems and Concerns	Social Desireability	-1.336	-.430	.308	.185	.175	1, 83	18.790	<.01

was explained. When income was entered, an additional 4.7% of the variation was explained. After the variable sex was entered, another 2.9% of the total variation was explained. The total variation explained by these variables was 22.7% (18.9% adjusted) (see Table 8). The variables of time since separation, adaptability and age did not independently contribute to any additional statistically significant increases in the variation of internal problems.

The most important contributors to variation based on the Beta weights is consistent for this model with the order of entry of the variables. Social desireability was the most important contributor to variation (-.441). Cohesion was the next most important contributor (-.367), followed by income (-.220) and then sex (-.174).

H_3: No relationship exists between a child's external problem behaviors and the variables of family interaction (cohesion and adaptability), time since separation, the child's age and sex, and family income.

This null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level of significance. When social desireability was entered first into the regression equation, 9.9% of the total variation in external problem behaviors was explained. When income was entered, an additional 6.5% of the total variation was explained. When sex was entered into the regression equation, an additional 6.1% of the total variation was explained. After the variable time since separation was entered, an additional 4.1% of the variation was explained. The entrance of cohesion explained an additional 3.3% of the variation. The total variation explained by these variables was 30.0% (adjusted = 25.5%) (see Table 8). The variables of

adaptability and age did not separately contribute to any additional statistically significant increases in the external problem behaviors.

The most important contributors to variation in external problems based on the Beta weights varied slightly from the order of entry into the equation. Specifically, cohesion entered last but is a more important contributor (Beta = .210) than is time since separation (.192). In decending order, the most important contributors to variation are social desireability (-.412), income (-.267), sex (-.251), cohesion (.210) and time since separation (.192).

H_4: No relationship exists between a child's social competency and the variables of family interaction (cohesion and adaptability), time since separation, the child's age and sex, and family income.

This null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level of significance. When social desireability was entered first into the regression equation, 4.2% of the total variation in social competency was explained. Subsequently, when income was entered, an additional 14.4% of the variation was explained. The total variation explained by these variables was 18.4% (adjusted = 16.4%) (see Table 8). The variables of cohesion, adaptability, sex, age and time since separation did not independently explain any additional statistically significant increases in the variation of social desireability.

The more important contributor to variation in social competency, based on the Beta weights is different from the order of entry. Income is the more important contributor (.381), followed by social desireability (.255).

H_5: No relationship exists between a parent's problems and concerns and the variables of family interaction (cohesion and adaptability), time since separation, the child's age and sex, and family income.

This null hypothesis was not rejected at the .10 level of significance. When social desireability was entered into the regression equation, 18.4% of the total variation in parental problems and concerns was explained. However, none of the variables which measured family interaction, time since separation, age, sex or income contributed independently to any significant increases in the total variation for parent concerns.

Discussion of H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4, H_5

Since the first five hypotheses dealt with the test of the circumplex model as an explanation of differences in children's adjustment to the stress of divorce, these hypotheses will be discussed separately from H_6.

The preliminary analysis did not support the presence of a curvilinear relationship between cohesion/adaptability and the measures of coping used in this study. In other words, there was no support, based on the regression analysis, for the theory that very high or very low levels of cohesion/adaptability are causal in dysfunctional coping patterns while moderate ranges produce functional levels of coping.

There was some support for a linear relationship between children's adjustment and family cohesion. In each of the three behavior problem measures, cohesion made a significant and unique contribution to explained variance of between 3.3% and 8.4%. It is of interest that the

value of the regression coefficient (b), consistent across all three models, was a positive value. That means that as cohesion increased in families, the children's behavior problems increased. However, the explained variation was greater for internal behavior problems (8.4%) than for external problems (3.3%). This relationship between high levels of cohesion and internal behavior problems was identified by Heatherington and Martin (1979) as a tentative relationship based on their review of family interaction and childhood behavior disorders. The internal behavior problems in this research study were defined as excessive fears, somantic complaints, uncommunicable and immature behavior. Heatherington and Martin (1979) concluded, "Both the clinical and the research literature continually point to some kind of unusual intensity of emotional involvement in the parent-child relationship of anxiety-withdrawal and some psychosomatic children" (p. 291).

Due to the large number of families with high social desireability scores, the regression models could not be analyzed without those families. The total sample size and the number of independent variables would be too disproportionate and seriously violate the regression assumptions. Among the sample of 89 families, 25 had scores of 40 or above, the point recommended by Olson, et al, (1978) for exclusion from analysis. An additional 13 families had a score of 39 or 39.5. This total group of high scorers represented 42.7% of the sample. For discussion purposes, the cohesion and adaptability scores of the remaining 52 families were used to develop a scattergram of family functioning using Olson's original cutting points. Families were then identified as having a child with a high total problem score ($T \geq 58$),

a moderate total problem score (T = 50 to 57), or a low total problem score (T $\leq$ 49) (see Figure 5). Two patterns were observed and will be discussed.

First, the linear relationship between cohesion and problem behaviors discussed earlier was interpreted to mean that as cohesion increased in families, the child's behavior problems increased. However, Table 5 identified the eight families whose children had very low problem scores (T $\leq$ 49); seven of the eight families were located in the quadrant of the circumplex model where cohesion and adaptability were both below their respective mean values. This could denote a pattern of simply "low reactive reporting" - few problems, little cohesion, little adaptability, little social desireability - perhaps apathy. The variance in coping which was attributable to the linear relationship with cohesion could be a function of a tendency for some families to "under report" on all measures. On the other hand, the research literature has suggested that a child's ability to cope with parental divorce is partially dependent upon their ability to remove themselves from the parental entanglement and conflict (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Higher levels of cohesion may make that more difficult. The linear relationship identified in the regression models supports the observations of Beal (1979) who theorized that children in enmeshed families are at greatest risk in divorce situations.

The second pattern which was noted, based on Figure 5, was the distribution of families in either the moderate or extreme ranges of cohesion/adaptability. If the circumplex model lacked validity, the proportion of high total problem scores to moderate or low scores would

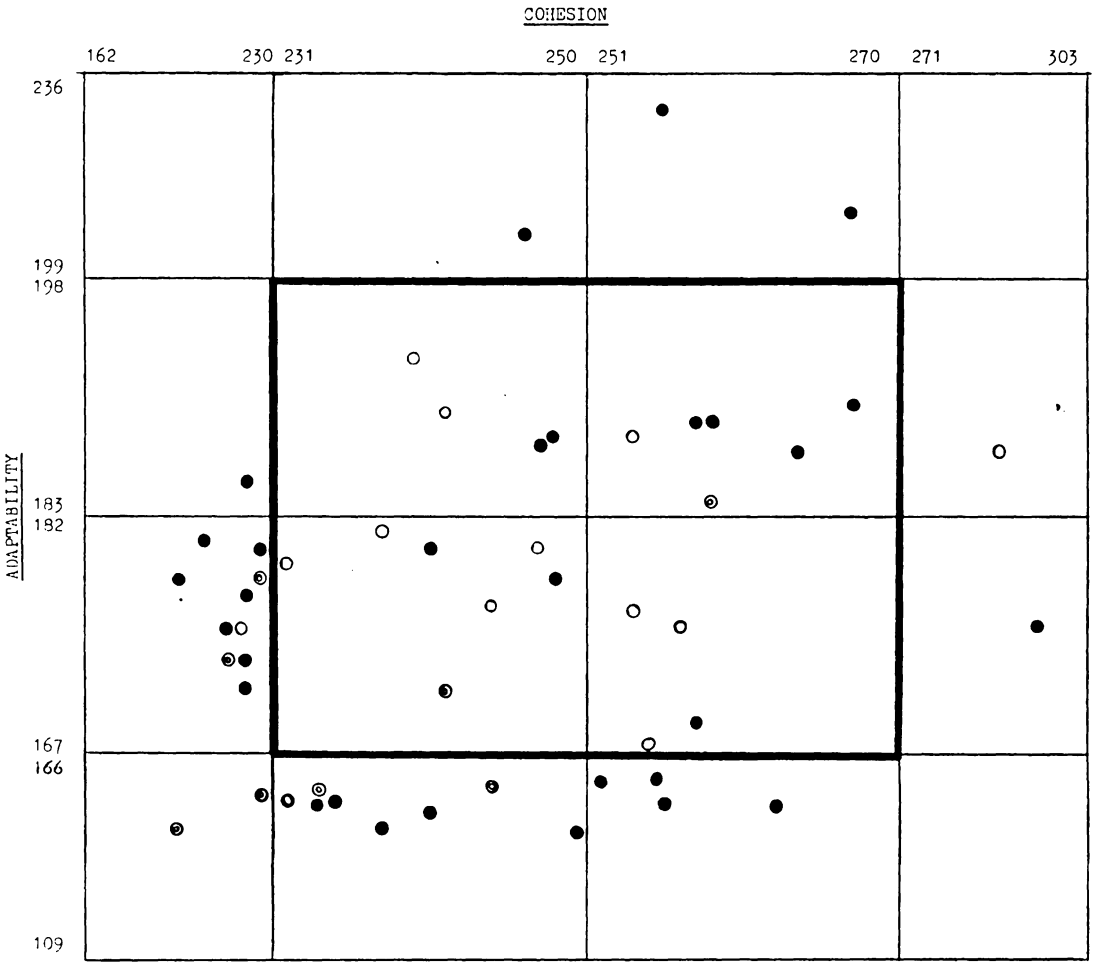

Figure 5: Scattergram of Family Cohesion and Adaptability Scores; Families with High Social Desirability Scores Eliminated ($T \geq 39$)

● Child had high total problem score ($T \geq 58$)
○ Child had moderated total problem score ($T=50$ to 57)
⊙ Child had low total problem score ($T \leq 49$)

be equal in both the moderate section of the model (cohesion and adaptability were moderate) and the extreme sections of the model (cohesion and/or adaptability were extreme). The moderate range of adaptability and cohesion included a total of 21 families; nine of them (42.9%) had children with total problem scores which were considered high and indicated problems with coping. The remaining 12 children, (57.1%) had problem scores which were moderate or low, which indicated effective coping. Clearly, the moderate ranges on adaptability and cohesion did not assure effective coping, as the model theorized. However, when the 30 families in the extreme levels of cohesion and/or adaptability were examined, 21 of the families (70%) had children with high total problem scores. Of the nine remaining children with scores that indicated a lack of adjustment problems, six of those nine had scores which were considered very low and who fell into the category described earlier as possible "low reactive reporting" - low problems, low cohesion, low adaptability, and low social desireability (see Figure 5). In addition, three of the very low scores were among children who lived in the families which had siblings over 18. In those situations, we may not have identified the child with the greatest adjustment problems. In fact, two mothers indicated on their questionnaire that one of their older children had much more difficulty with adjustment than the child who was selected for analysis because of his age eligibility.

This writer is suggesting that while the circumplex model has not effectively explained children's coping behavior among families who are moderate on cohesion and adaptability, those families who are extreme on cohesion and/or adaptability do seem to have a higher proportion of

children with problem behaviors. This lack of independence between a child's problem behavior and the family's interaction patterns as theorized in the circumplex model was supported in a Chi Square test of independence (see Figure 6). The hypothesis of independence was rejected ($p < .10$) and provided support for continued efforts to explore the circumplex model.

The relationship of family income: In each of the four regression models which examined children's behavior, the variable of family income (an ordinal level variable which defined income in ranges from less than $5,000 to more than $20,000) explained a significant proportion of the variance. In fact, it explained more variance than adaptability in all four models and more variance than cohesion in two of the models (external problems and social competency). The most noteworthy relationship was the 14.4% of the variance of social competency explained by income, and the lack of any other statistically significant variables to explain social competency. The regression coefficient (b) for income was negative on all three problem scores, which meant that as income decreased, problem behaviors increased. The positive coefficient for income when social competency was used as the dependent measure suggested that a child's level of social competency increases as the family income increases.

This strong relationship between income and the child's behavior is important to the study of divorce adjustment since most of the research has involved upper middle class families. Income did not contribute significantly to the parental problems and concerns, however. Therefore,

	Moderate Family Interaction [a]	Extreme Family Interaction [b]	
High Total Problem Score	9	21	30
Low or Moderate Total Prob. Score	12	9	21
	21	30	51

Chi sq = 3.75, df = 1, $p < .10$

[a] Both cohesion and adaptability scores were moderate.

[b] Cohesion and/or adaptability was extreme.

Figure 6: Chi Square Test of Independence between Total Problem Scores and Family Interaction Patterns of Adaptability Cohesion

the differences in children's problem scores may reflect differences in parenting styles between income groups rather than more difficulty in divorce adjustment (Gecas, 1979).

Time since separation: There was a lack of support in this study for the marked differences in adjustment patterns over the course of time following parental separation which were indicated in Heatherington's work. Time since separation explained a significant proportion of the variance in only one model, the external problem behaviors (4.1%). In that case, the positive value of the regression coefficient (+.1517) meant that as time since separation increased, external problem behaviors increased. The return to baseline at two years after divorce did not appear in this cross sectional data. In fact, a trend toward increased difficulty in coping emerged when the scores on the four dependent measures were compared for the three time frames of two months divorced, one year divorced, and two years divorced (see Table 9). While none of the group differences were statistically significant when ANOVA was used to compare the mean scores between groups, the two year group consistently reported higher problems and lower social competency.

One possible explanation for the lack of support for Heatherington's work involves the loss of information which occurs with cross sectional data as opposed to longitudinal data. Also, nothing was known about those children whose mothers had already remarried. Some of the children who had most effectively adjusted might have lived with mothers who remarried, therefore producing some differences in scores between the more recently divorced group and the group divorced the longest.

Table 9

Differences on Child Adjustment Measures for Groups Divorced 2 Months, 1 Year and 2 Years

Child Adjustment Measures	Total Sample n = 89		Time Since Divorce		
			2 months	1 year	2 years
	$\bar{x}$	sd	n = 34	n = 27	n = 28
Total Problem Score	58.1	10.0	56.9	57.7	59.8
External Problem Score	57.1	9.8	55.8	57.2	58.6
Internal Problem Score	57.9	9.7	57.1	57.2	59.5
Social Competency	45.4	9.4	47.6	44.3	43.7

Note: Differences were not statistically significant ($p > .10$)

Sex: In both internal and external behavior problems, sex explained a small but statistically significant portion of the variance (3% and 6.2%). Boys were reported to have more difficulty than girls. This was also the case in Heatherington's work. When the scores for each of the dependent measures were examined by age group and sex, the girls consistently showed fewer behavior problems and higher levels of social competency (see Table 10). However, only the external problem behaviors showed statistically significant group differences in a one-way analysis of variance between adjustment measure and the four age/sex groups.

Age: Age was not a significant variable in any of the regression models. However, it should be noted that the use of the T-scores on each of the child behavior measures decreased the variance in scores attributable to age. The reason for the use of the T-scores was to permit comparison of scores across several age groups who, within a normal population, show developmental differences in the number of problem behaviors. Those normal developmental differences would therefore not be misinterpreted to reflect differences in responses to divorce adjustment. The data suggested that behaviors among the divorced children did not vary as a function of the child's age.

The parental problems and concerns: The measure of parental problems and concerns did not appear to be a particularly useful measure in this research. The measure is perhaps too insensitive without weighted value for the items. Berman and Turk (1980) found that some items accounted for more variance in divorced person's feelings of well-being than did other items. A method for weighting

Table 10

Differences on Child Adjustment Measures by Age and Sex

Child Adjustment Measures	Boys 6 - 11 (n = 28)	Boys 12 - 16 (n = 17)	Girls 6 - 11 (n = 23)	Girls 12 - 16 (n = 21)
Total Problem Score	59.6	59.2	56.6	56.7
External Problems [a]	59.8	59.2	56.0	53.2
Internal Problems	59.5	59.5	57.1	55.2
Social Competency	43.3	45.5	46.6	46.8

[a] $F=2.286$, $df=3$, $p=.08$

the responses based on those findings should be developed if the instrument is to be used as a dependent measure in understanding divorce adjustment.

Social Desireability: The percentage of variance attributable to socially desireable responses was statistically significant in all 5 regression models. This finding calls into question the validity of the divorce adjustment studies which used only parental reports of children's behavior (Fulton, 1979; Jacobson, 1978 a, b, c). As socially desireable response patterns increased, reports of children's problem behavior decreased (negative regression coefficient), reported social competency scores increased (positive regression coefficient), and reported parental problems decreased.

Hypothesis #6

Hypothesis 6 was experimental, since no research or theory existed which speculated about different behavior patterns which might emerge as a function of family interaction patterns which represented one quadrant of the circumplex model rather than another (see Figure 7). The analysis involved only the 43 families with adaptability and/or cohesion scores outside the moderate range. Since quadrant 1 included only two families, the comparison of mean scores in quadrants 2, 3, and 4 were the only meaningful comparisons (see Table 11). The hypothesis, in the null form, read:

H_6: No association will exist between the four quadrants of the circumplex model and the child's adjustment reflected by social competency, total behavior problems, internal behavior problems or external behavior problems.

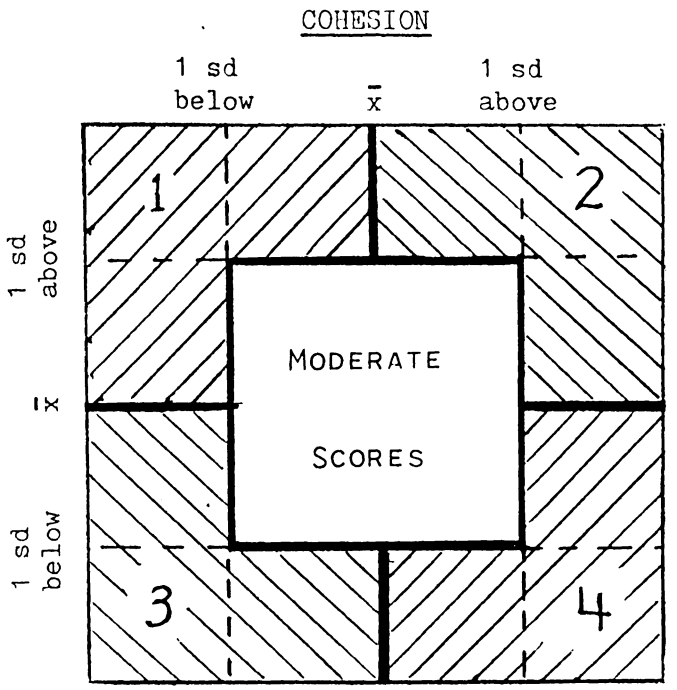

Figure 7. QUADRANTS OF THE CIRCUMPLEX MODEL

Table 11

One Way ANOVA Comparison of Child Adjustment Measures
Between Circumplex Quandrants 2, 3 and 4

Measures	Quad Mean[a] 2	3	4	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Total Problems	59.86	56.59	56.08	Between Within Total	70.88 5035.09 5105.97	2 38 40	35.44 132.50	.267	>.10
Internal Problems	59.29	55.23	57.00	Between Within Total	92.82 4335.29 4428.11	2 38 40	46.41 114.09	.407	>.10
External Problems	58.14	57.06	54.67	Between Within Total	65.71 4244.48 4310.19	2 38 40	32.86 111.70	.294	>.10
Social Competency	48.29	41.73	46.50	Between Within Total	314.77 3096.79 3411.56	2 38 40	157.38 81.49	1.93	>.10

[a]Quad 2, n = 7
Quad 3, n = 22
Quad 4, n = 12

Total Problem Scores: H_6 was not rejected at the .10 level of significance. However, the mean score for quadrant 2 was greater than for quadrants 3 and 4 (see Table 11). In addition, an examination of the scatter plot of those values, by family, showed an interesting pattern. Quadrant 3 represented both very low and very high problem scores and only two of the 22 cases scored high on social desirability. However, quadrant 4 had only 12 families to begin with and seven of those 12 had high social desirability scores. The remaining five families all had children with high total problem scores ($T \geq 58$). This suggested that if social desirability were controlled, a greater percentage of families in quadrant 4 than in quadrant 3 would have children with high total problem scores. However, those suggestions are speculative.

Internal Problem Scores: H_6 was not rejected at the .10 level of significance. The mean scores for internal problems were compared between quadrants 2, 3, and 4. However, the mean internal score which represented withdrawal types of problems was highest for quad 2. Quad 4 was also slightly higher than quad 3, despite the large number of families in quad 4 who "faked" their responses.

External Problem Scores: H_6 was not rejected at the .10 level of significance (see Table 11). The mean scores for external problems were compared between quadrants 2, 3, and 4. Again, the external mean score was greater for quadrant 3 than for quadrant 4, which is the reverse of the pattern for internal problem scores.

Social Competency Scores: H_6 was not rejected at the .10 level of significance, comparing quads 2, 3, and 4 (see Table 11).

Discussion of H_6

The analysis of H_6 was hampered by the lack of families who scored in quadrant 1 of the circumplex model. An additional problem involved the large percentage of families in quadrant 4 who had social desirability scores which were very high (39 or above). The fact that the families with high "fake" scores were also the same families with lower problem scores for their children made analysis of group means less valid. Despite these problems, the internal and external problems tended to shift between the quadrants. It seems plausible that internal behavior problems might be more typical as cohesion increases (quad 4) while external problems might be more apparent when cohesion is lower (quad 3). This pattern also appeared in the regression models and has some support in the child psychopathology literature (Hetherington & Martin, 1979). Further analysis with larger groups in each quadrant would be required to examine this relationship more extensively, as well as control for the social desirability variable.

A second pattern which should be studied further is the consistently high problem scores in quad 2 (high cohesion and high adaptability). Only seven families in that quad makes generalization impossible.

Summary of Hypotheses

The hypotheses alone provided little support for the circumplex model of family functioning as an important variable in explaining children's adjustment to divorce. However, there is some justification for the suggestion that high levels of family cohesion are related to increased levels of problem behaviors, particularly internal problem behaviors. While cohesion explained only 3.3% of the variance in

external (acting out) forms of behavior, it explained 8.4% of the variance for internal (withdrawal) forms of behavior. This relationship between high levels of cohesion and withdrawal behaviors was discussed earlier (page 67) as a repeatedly reported finding in the research on child psychopathology (Heatherington & Martin, 1979).

The problem of highly socially desireable responses in this sample made interpretation difficult. A scatterplot of family cohesion and adaptability scores with high social desireability responses dropped out appeared to provide some support for the idea that extremely high or low levels of cohesion and/or adaptability do result in a greater proportion of children with high problem scores (70%). The moderate levels of cohesion and adaptability represented a lower proportion of high problem behavior scores compared to the extreme levels of cohesion and/or adaptability (42.9%). However, the small sample size which was involved after dropping the families with high social desireability permits only tentative speculation about the contribution of the variables of cohesion and adaptability in understanding children's adjustment after divorce.

The consistent finding of variance explained by family income is an important one for future researchers who study divorce adjustment. Clearly, upper middle class samples will not provide critical information on coping for the vast numbers of families who live below the poverty level.

Supplementary discussion of other family information

While the purpose of this research was to test the circumplex model of family functioning, other data were collected to allow comparisons

with other research findings. This seemed especially important due to the complete lack of previous research based on samples selected from court files of all divorced families. This sample selection procedure permitted potentially greater generalizability of results than other samples which drew participants from organized groups, clinic populations and upper middle class families.

Child's visits with father: Frequency of the child's visits with his father has been suggested by researchers as an important component in coping, but with some qualifications. The present data supported the idea that frequency of contact is not as important an issue as is the child's level of satisfaction with his visits. First the children were grouped into one of the following two categories:

1) frequent visitation (n = 42; visited at least twice a month).

2) infrequent visitation (n = 24; never visited or only visited once or twice a year).

The children who visited monthly or had very irregular visitation arrangements (n = 23) were left out of the comparison to accentuate the extreme differences in frequency of visits. The null hypothesis was that there would be no difference in child adjustment between the frequent and infrequent visitation groups. A one-tailed t-test was used to compare group means on all four measures, since some research literature suggested that frequency of contact with the father eased the difficulties in transition. The null hypothesis was not rejected at the .10 level of significance. No significant differences existed between the high frequency and low frequency groups on the measures of total problems, internal or external problems, or social competency.

However, the 75 children who were reported to have at least some visitation with their fathers were placed in one of the two following categories for comparison:

1) low enjoyment (n = 22; did not enjoy visits or only sometimes enjoyed visits).

2) high enjoyment (n = 53; usually or always enjoyed visits).

The null hypothesis was that there would be no difference in child adjustment between the high and low enjoyment groups. Since the research suggested that the quality of a child's relationship with his father was a factor in coping, a one-tailed t-test of group differences was performed. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .10 level of significance. Those children who did not enjoy visits had significantly greater problem scores on all 3 problem measures than the group who enjoyed visits. They also had a significantly lower social competency score than the group who enjoyed visits (see Table 12).

Level of family conflict: The research literature has strongly supported the relationship between high levels of conflict within families and children's behavior problems; as conflict increases, problem behaviors increase. Mothers were separated into the following groups:

1) low conflict (n = 35; contacts with ex-spouse are never or seldon conflictual).

2) high conflict (n = 37; contacts with ex-spouse are often or always conflictual).

The null hypothesis was that there would be no differences in child adjustment between the low and the high conflict groups. A one-tailed t-test was used to compare group means. There were no differences at

Table 12

Child's Satisfaction With Visits With Father

Measures	$\bar{x}$	sd	df	t	p
Total Problem Scores					
Group 1:	62.05	8.94	73	2.14	< .025
Group 2:	56.51	10.66			
Internal Problem Scores					
Group 1:	61.00	9.83	73	1.68	< .05
Group 2:	56.66	10.34			
External Problem Scores					
Group 1:	60.77	8.97	73	1.93	< .05
Group 2:	55.94	10.20			
Social Competency					
Group 1:	42.09	8.46	73	-1.66	.05
Group 2:	45.83	9.06			

Group 1: Child did not enjoy visits with father or only sometimes enjoyed visits (n = 22).

Group 2: Child usually or always enjoyed visits with father (n = 53).

the .10 level of significance for any of the three problem behavior measures. However, there was a significant difference between the groups on the child's social competency skills ($t = 1.78$, $df = 70$, $p < .05$). Given the fact that the mother's who reported high levels of conflict might either prevent their child from being exposed to the conflict or engage in such conflict only occasionally, the lack of differences on problem scores can be explained. However, the differences on the social competency measure indicated that social competency was higher for those children whose parents had less conflictual interactions (group 1 $\bar{x}$ = 47.11; group 2 $\bar{x}$ = 43.58).

Parental dating patterns: Heatherington specifically identified the establishment of a warm, intimate relationship with a heterosexual mate as a major component in coping for women and, subsequently, in their children's adjustment. The following groups were compared:

1) regularly seeing one person (n = 42; mothers very involved and committed with one person or regularly dating only one person but not seriously committed).

2) not regularly seeing one person (n = 47; mothers dating several people, only occasionally dating or not dating at all).

The null hypothesis was that there would be no differences in child adjustment between the group who was regularly seeing one person and the group who was not regularly seeing one person. A one-tailed t-test was conducted. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .10 level of significance for all three problem measures. The t values for the problem behavior scores were expected to be negative, since the literature suggested children with mothers in group 1 would have fewer problems than children with mothers in group 2. However, the t values

were positive; the mean problem scores were greater for children with mothers in group 1. Since discussion of these relationships was exploratory, a two-tailed test was performed to determine differences between the groups. The differences were significant on all three problem measures; the group who was committed or regularly dating had children with higher problem scores than the rest of the sample (see Table 13). One source of possible explanation for this unusual finding might deal with the problem of socially desireable response patterns. If women who are regularly dating are happier about their own life, they might have been less likely to feel the need to respond in socially desireable ways and more willing to record problem behaviors among their children. Analysis of this variable, leaving out the mothers with high social desireability scores, might produce different results.

One plausible explanation for the lower adjustment scores among children whose mothers were dating might involve the age differences between this sample and Heatherington's sample. Her children were all preschoolers and the oldest were still only six years old at the two year follow-up. The sample in this study started at age six and ranged through 16. It is possible that the older children do indeed experience negative reactions to their parent's dating behavior; Wallerstein and Kelly reported some resistance to parental dating by children about nine years of age and continuing through adolescence.

Changes in Employment Status: Two different assessments were made about changes in mother's employment status which might explain

Table 13

Children's Adjustment Scores and Mothers' Dating Patterns

Measure	$\bar{x}$	sd	st. error	t	df	p
Total Behavior Problem Score						
Group 1:	60.367	9.039	1.395	2.08	87	< .05
Group 2:	56.043	10.403	1.517			
Internal Behavior Problem Score						
Group 1:	59.810	9.632	1.485	1.80	87	< .08
Group 2:	56.149	9.562	1.395			
External Behavior Problem Score						
Group 1:	59.095	9.255	1.428	1.83	87	< .08
Group 2:	55.362	9.949	1.451			
Social Competency						
Group 1:	44.024	9.732	1.502	-1.29	87	> .10
Group 2:	46.596	9.052	1.320			

Group 1: Currently very involved with one person and not dating anyone else or regularly seeing one person but not deeply committed at this time (n = 42).

Group 2: Dating several people, or only occasionaly dating, or not currently dating anyone (n = 47).

additional stress within the course of divorce adjustment. The following groups were formed:

1) those women who indicated that they had been a full-time homemaker by choice prior to separation, but who were now employed full-time (n = 11).

2) women who had been employed full time since before their separation (n = 42).

The implication is that women who were forced to enter the full-time labor market (group 1) as an economic necessity after separation would experience more stress than those who had either already adjusted to full-time employment or who had freely chosen the option. Orden and Bradburn (1969) claimed that the freedom to choose the alternative of outside employment or being a homemaker was a major factor in reported levels of marital happiness. The null hypothesis was that there would be no differences in child adjustment between the group forced to work after separation and the group who had always worked full-time. A one-tailed t-test was conducted. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .10 level of significance for three of the four adjustment measures (internal problems, external problems and social competency) (see Table 14). The differences were in the expected direction. Mothers who were presumably pushed by the circumstances of separation to be employed full-time had children with greater internal and external behavior problems and lower social competency scores than did women who had already been employed full-time. However, the small number of mothers in the "forced change" group permits no generalization without further study.

Table 14

Children's Adjustment and Mothers' Forced Change in Employment Status

Measures	$\bar{x}$	sd	St. error	t	df	p
Total Problem Score						
Group 1:	60.364	8.140	2.454	1.19	51	> .10
Group 2:	56.143	11.018	1.700			
External Problem Score						
Group 1:	59.636	6.918	2.086	1.40	51	< .10
Group 2:	54.786	10.895	1.681			
Internal Problem Score						
Group 1:	61.455	9.842	2.968	1.63	51	< .10
Group 2:	55.952	9.963	1.537			
Social Competency						
Group 1:	41.364	8.801	2.645	-2.06	51	< .025
Group 2:	48.167	9.990	1.541			

Group 1: Mothers had been homemakers by choice prior to separation and were currently employed full time (n = 11).

Group 2: Mothers had been employed full time both before and after separation (n = 42).

There was a second area of change in mothers' employment which might be expected to increase adjustment difficulty. Booth (1977) found that the movement in and out of the labor force was disruptive during the first year of the change. Therefore, women were divided into two groups:

1) those who had been in their current employment status for less than one year (n = 16).

2) those who had been in their current employment status over one year (n = 73).

The null hypothesis was that there would be no differences in child adjustment between the groups who had changed their employment status more or less than one year ago. On all four dependent measures, the separate variance estimate was used rather than the pooled variance estimate, since the groups did not satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of variance. A one-tailed test of the hypothesis was conducted: adjustment problems were predicted to be greater for children whose mothers had changed employment status within the past year. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .10 level of significance for total problems ($t = 1.37$, $df = 40$, $p < .10$). The null hypothesis was not rejected for internal, external or social competency scores. The total problem score was significantly greater (60.25 vs. 57.60) for the children whose mothers had changed employment status within the past year. However, given the small number of women who fell into that category, further research in this area should be done before any generalizations are made.

Stability of child care arrangements: The stability of a child's alternative care arrangements was examined as a possible source of

stress, therefore affecting adjustment. Two groups were formed with respect to child care arrangements:

1) few changes (those with either none or one change in child care arrangements since separation; n = 64).

2) frequent changes (those with two or more changes; n = 17).

The literature has suggested that consistency in alternative care was particularly important for young childre. The null hypothesis was that there would be no differences in child adjustment between the group with few changes and the group with frequent changes. A one-tailed t-test was conducted. The null hypothesis was not rejected at the .10 level of significance. There were no statistically significant differences on any of the four adjustment measures.

Stability of residence: Changes in residence are considered stressful and could presumably increase the problems of adjustment after divorce. The children were placed in one of two groups:

1) no residence change: the child lived in the same home as he did before separation (n = 42).

2) change of residence: The child had changed his primary residence at least once since separation (n = 47).

The null hypothesis was that there would be no differences in child adjustment between the group who changed residences and the group who did not. A one-tailed t-test was conducted. The null hypothesis was rejected for the total problem measure and social competency. The total problem score was significantly greater for the group who had changed residences, compared to the "no change" group ($t = -1.40$, $df = 87$, $p < .10$). Social competency was greater for the group who had not

changed residences ($t = 1.29$, $df = 71$, $p < .10$, separate variance estimate used). The null hypothesis was not rejected for internal and external problems. There were no differences between group means for those measures at the .10 level of significance.

A comparison of group means was made between the following groups:

1) no change (children resided in the same county or city as they did before separation; n = 73).

2) change (children resided in a different county or city than they did before separation; n = 16).

The null hypothesis was that there would be no differences in child adjustment between the two groups. A one-tailed t-test was conducted for each measure. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .10 level of significance for the total problem measure ($t = -1.36$, $df = 87$, $p < .10$). The group who changed city or county residence had a higher total problem score than did the no-change group, as was expected. The null hypothesis was not rejected at the .10 level of significance for internal and external problems or social competency. There were no significant differences in mean scores for those measures.

Total family stresses: Mothers were asked to respond to a list of sources of stress which had occurred during the past year. Respondents were group into:

1) low stress (those who reported 0 or 1 stressor; n = 44).

2) high stress (those who reported 2 or more stressors; n = 45).

The null hypothesis was that there would be no difference in child adjustment between the high and low stress groups. The theory and research on stress suggest that additional stressors decrease the pace of recovery from a single stressor. Therefore, a one-tailed t-test was

conducted. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .10 level of significance for all four measures. The group differences were in the expected direction (see Table 15). The low stress group had lower problem scores and higher social competency; the high stress group had higher problem scores and lower social competency.

Summary of Supplemental Analysis

Some trends emerged in the supplemental analysis:

1) In group comparisons, children who enjoyed visits with their father had fewer adjustment problems than those who did not enjoy visits.
2) Children whose mothers had always been employed full-time had fewer adjustment problems than those whose mothers shifted from being a homemaker by choice to a full-time employee as a result of divorce; recent changes in employment status for the mother was also related to greater child adjustment difficulty.
3) Children who changed residences and communities since the separation had somewhat more difficult adjustment problems than children who were less mobile.
4) The presence of additional family stress was related to more difficulty in adjustment for children.
5) Mothers who had few conflictual interactions with the ex-spouse had children with higher social competency levels.
6) Mothers who were regularly dating one person reported that their children had greater adjustment problems than mothers who were not frequently dating.

Table 15

Children's Adjustment Scores and Other Family Stressors

Measure	$\bar{x}$	sd	St. error	t	df	p
Total Problem Score						
Group 1:	56.182	10.292	1.552	-1.80	87	< .05
Group 2:	59.933	9.382	1.399			
External Problem Score						
Group 1:	55.386	9.500	1.432	-1.68	87	<.05
Group 2:	58.8222	9.806	1.462			
Internal Problem Score						
Group 1:	56.273	11.042	1.665	-1.55	87	< .10
Group 2:	59.444	8.024	1.196			
Social Competency						
Group 1:	46.796	9.983	1.505	1.41	87	< .10
Group 2:	44.000	8.713	1.299			

Group 1: Either 0 or 1 stressor listed (n = 44)

Group 2: Two or more stressors listed (n = 45)

7) The number of changes in child care arrangements and the frequency of visits with father did not relate to more or less difficulty in adjusting.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

This study involved 89 single parent, female headed households who had experienced divorce during the previous two years. Each family had one or two children under the age of 18 and the mother had not yet remarried. The families were identified through divorce records in the courthouses in Roanoke, Salem and Roanoke County, Virginia. All families meeting the sample criterion (one child between six and 16) and divorced for two years, one year or two months prior to the data collection periods were contacted. Mothers completed mailed questionnaires regarding family interaction patterns, the child's (children's) problem behaviors and social competencies, the parent's concerns, and other personal and demographic information.

The purpose of the study was to test the circumplex model of family interaction as a predictor of divorce adjustment in children. Based on theory, the researcher hypothesized that moderate levels of family cohesion (closeness) and family adaptability (flexibility) would be related to fewer problem behaviors and higher social competency levels. Extremely high or extremely low levels of cohesion and/or adaptability would be related to higher levels of problem behavior for children and lower levels of social competency.

The regression analysis of family cohesion and adaptability, time since separation, the child's age and sex, and family income did not provide support for the theory that moderate vs. extreme ranges of

cohesion and adaptability were causal in a child's ability to cope after divorce. However, there was some support for a linear relationship between cohesion and children's problem behaviors. Higher levels of cohesion were related to increased problem behaviors, specifically of the internal nature (i.e., withdrawal sorts of behaviors). A scatterplot of family cohesion and adaptability scores which eliminated families with high social desireability scores did provide support for the idea that extreme scores on cohesion and/or adaptability resulted in a higher proportion of families whose children had high total problem scores. However, the moderate ranges on both variables included approximately equal numbers of children with "normal" and high problem behaviors.

After social desireability was removed from the regression equations, family income level consistently explained a significant proportion of the variance; for social competency levels it was the only source of explained variance. Sex also explained a significant portion of the variance in both internal and external problem behaviors; boys had more problems than girls. Time since separation explained a significant portion of the variance only in the external problem behaviors (acting out behaviors). The direction of the relationship conflicted with other research; problems increased over time. Adaptability explained a significant portion of the variance on only one measure, total problem behaviors; the percentage was only 2.9%.

The measure used to assess parental problems and concerns was too gross to assess any meaningful differences within the group. The only variable which explained any variance was social desireability.

An exploratory effort was made to assess possible differences in types of child behavior patterns based on the families interaction patterns in different quadrants of the circumplex model. Analysis produced no significant differences on child adjustment scores as a function of the family's location in the four quadrants of the model. However, some patterns emerged which justify further research with larger numbers of families in the quadrants and statistical control for social desirability.

Supplementary analysis suggested that stresses such as moving, mother's changes in employment and the increased frequency of other family stressors increased the level of problem behaviors for children. Enjoyment with visits with father and fewer conflictual interactions between parents aided coping. Mothers who were regularly dating reported higher problem scores for their children.

Limitations

The greatest limitation of the study was the use of parent report measures as the sole source of information about children. The regression models explained 18% - 30% of the variance in children's adjustment scores. However, the mother's tendency to respond in a socially desireable manner explained as much as 10% of the total variance and was the single most important variable in the final regression models for all three measures used to assess problem behaviors. This tendency to respond in a socially desireable pattern presents questions regarding the validity of findings in this study and others which did not control for social desirability (H_6 and the Supplementary Analysis section).

A second limitation involved the study of only single parent families as an assessment of children's adjustment to divorce. Many women from the original population had remarried and were therefore excluded from the study. The adjustment of their children is unknown.

A third limitation was the lack of black or other minority families in the sample. Also, the sample was limited to mothers, therefore not addressing the 10% of the children who reside with divorced fathers.

A fourth limitation is the question raised by Bilbro and Dreyer (1981) regarding the validity of the FACES measure used in this research. Their initial work may result in a self-report measure which will be more valid than the current measure.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made for future research:

1) Inclusion of a teacher report form and an observational measure to assist in assessing more comprehensively a child's level of adjustment to divorce would be helpful.
2) Any analysis which involves parent report measures should control the analysis for socially desireable responses.
3) An effort to explore the "low response pattern" might involve an interview, follow-up procedure for families whose self-report measures indicated consistently low scores on all the scales. Those families clustered in one quadrant of the circumplex model. As a group they scored low on cohesion, adaptability, problems and social competencies. The pattern was clearly an exception to the hypothesized

relationships of the circumplex model and requires further study with observation/interview methodology.

4) A regression model which attempts to explain variance in children's adjustment might also include a measure of other family stressors, in addition to the divorce itself.

5) The measure of problems and concerns used in this research could be refined to include a weighted item scale based on the contribution of each item to levels of coping or satisfaction to increase its usefulness as a discriminating instrument.

6) A true test of the validity of the circumplex model could be conducted on a sample which is large enough to exclude those families with high social desireability responses. The scattergram of children's problem behaviors which eliminated the high responses provided some support for the model.

7) Other methods for assessing cohesion and adaptability could continue to be explored, given the low variance attributable to them using the FACES measure. The model has support across several social science fields and should not be discarded until testing is completed with observational methods as well as other self-report measures.

8) The finding of higher problem behaviors for women who are currently dating one person seems to indicate a need for further investigation using a longitudinal perspective. Do older children react negatively to their mother's involvement with a regular partner? Does the reaction subside over time?

Does the finding remain when socially desireable response patterns are controlled? It seems important that this information not be misinterpreted to mean that women are harming their children by dating one person regularly.

9) The fact that income accounts for a significant portion of the variance in children's divorce adjustment seems to provide strong support for the use of samples drawn from court records rather than the upper middle class samples often used in research for reasons of convenience.

Implications

The finding of the consistent relationship between income and a child's behavior in single parent families is a critical one, particularly given the social climate of decreased federal programs and the high percentage of children in single parent families who live below the poverty level. The differences in problem scores may be a function of different parenting styles which have been observed between different social classes. However, it seems imperative that efforts to aid children in coping with divorce be widespread enough to reach all income levels. Services offered through mental health centers and private facilities will not reach many children who need them. The suggestion is made here that all school systems develop services which are presumed to aid children in divorce adjustment. The school system is the one place where most children can be reached and services provided. Children's divorce adjustment groups, individual counseling, and single

parent support groups are important steps in reaching those children and families who suffer most after divorce.

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APPENDIX

F A C E S

COHESION DIMENSION

CONCEPT	ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING MEAN	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
EMOTIONAL BONDING					
Enmeshed					
76	Family members are totally involved in each other's lifes.	8.743	.561	9.	.36110 (2)
20	Family ties are more important to us than any friendship could possibly be.	7.829	.951	8.	.36789 (2)
Moderate					
1	Family members are concerned with each other's welfare.	5.771	1.031	5.	.54934 (4)
94	Our family has a balance of closeness & separateness.	5.029	.382	5.	.66482 (4)
Disengaged					
39	Family members do not turn to each other when they need help.	1.857	.692	2.	.47981 (1)
58	Home is one of the loneliest places to be.	1.152	.442	1.	.55776 (1)
INDEPENDENCE					
Enmeshed					
86	It seems as if we agree on everything.	8.371	.690	9.	.30594 (2)
11	In our family, we know where all family members are at all times.	8.314	.631	8.	.33025 (2)

CONCEPT	ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING MEAN	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
Moderate					
104	Family members are encouraged to do their own thing.	4.2	1.023	5.	.30378 (4)
68	Family members enjoy doing things alone as well as together.	5.	.485	5.	.57692 (4)
Disengaged					
49	Family members are totally on their own in developing ideas.	1.914	.781	2.	.47221 (1)
30	Family members are extremely independent.	2.514	1.067	3.	.36208 (1)
FAMILY BOUNDARIES					
Enmeshed					
3	We don't have spur of the moment guests mealtime.	6.667	1.373	7.	.42243 (1)
22	Family members often answer questions that were addressed to another person.	7.8	.868	8.	.27389 (1)
Moderate					
78	Family members feel comfortable inviting their friends along on family activities.	4.943	.684	5.	.27813 (4)
41	Family members make visitors feel at home.	5.265	.864	5.	.33575 (4)
Disengaged					
60	Family members find it easier to discuss things with persons outside the family.	2.618	.817	2.	.49727 (1)
96	It seems there are always people around home who are not members of the family.	3.588	1.328	4.	.21528 (2)

CONCEPT	ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING MEAN	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
COALITIONS					
Enmeshed					
88	Family members know who will agree and who will disagree with them on most family matters.	6.258	1.505	7.	.47811 (9)
13	The parents in our family stick together.	6.514	1.173	7.	.3929 (4)
Moderate					
70	Parents agree on how to handle the children.	5.857	1.033	5.	.3924 (4)
51	Family members seldom take sides against other members.	5.6	1.752	5.	.1117 (4)
Disengaged					
32	Family members feel it's "everyone for themselves."	1.514	.612	1.	.54081 (1)
106	Certain individuals seem to cause most of our family problems.	4.9	2.721	2.	.32611 (1)
TIME					
Enmeshed					
5	It's difficult for family members to take time away from family.	7.686	1.105	8.	.60274 (2)
80	Family members feel pressured to spend most free time together.	7.714	1.872	9.	.33034 (2)

CONCEPT	ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING Mean	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
Moderate					
24	Family members like to spend some of their free time with each other.	5.229	.943	5.	.41105 (4)
62	We try to plan some things during the week so we can all be together.	5.8	.901	6.	.56569 (2)
Disengaged					
98	It seems as if family members can never find time to be together.	2.429	.815	2.	.59094 (1)
43	Even when everyone is home, family members spend their time separately.	2.229	1.003	2.	.42151 (1)
SPACE					
Enmeshed					
109	Family members find it hard to get away from each other.	7.457	1.755	8.	.30859 (2)
16	It seems like there is never any place to be alone in our house.	7.714	.893	8.	.30715 (2)
Moderate					
73	When a bedroom door is shut, family members will knock before entering.	4.688	.832	5.	.70436 (3)
35	We respect each other's privacy.	5.086	.742	5.	.52951 (3)
Disengaged					
91	Family members seem to avoid contact with each other when home.	1.559	.504	2.	.36594 (1)

CONCEPT	ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING Mean	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
	54 Family members don't enter each other's areas or activities.	2.4	1.090	2.	.21297 (1)
FRIENDS					
Enmeshed					
	82 Family members share the same friends.	7.343	.968	8.	.49486 (2)
	45 Family members have little need for friends because the family's so close.	8.229	1.031	8.	.34944 (2)
Moderate					
	26 Family members are encouraged to have friends of their own as well as family friends.	5.086	.853	5.	.49752 (4)
	64 In our family, we know each other's close friends.	6.371	1.060	6.	.41164 (4)
Disengaged					
	7 Most personal friends are not family friends.	3.429	1.092	3.	.47448 (1)
	100 We know very little about the friends of other family members.	2.429	1.441	2.	.26902 (1)
DECISION MAKING					
Enmeshed					
	75 Family members are expected to have the approval of others before making decisions.	7.914	.818	8.	.54881 (2)
	111 Family members feel they have to go along with what the family decides to do.	7.629	1.215	8.	.44990 (2)

CONCEPT	ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING Mean	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
Moderate					
93	We decide together on family matters & separately on personal matters.	5.314	.932	5.	.31585 (4)
56	Family members discuss important decisions with each other, but usually make their own choices.	5.057	.838	5.	.53804 (4)
Disengaged					
37	In our family, we are on our own when there is a problem to solve.	2.114	1.105	1.	.27985 (1)
18	Family members do not check with each other when making decisions.	2.857	1.061	3.	.47660 (1)
INTERESTS & RECREATION					
Enmeshed					
28	Family members share almost all interests and hobbies with each other.	7.886	.758	8.	.49625 (2)
9	Family members feel guilty if they want to spend time alone.	8.029	1.361	9.	.66456 (2)
Moderate					
102	Members of our family share many interests.	5.971	1.014	5.	.31189 (4)
47	Although family members have individual interests, they still participate in family activities.	3.371	.910	5.	.55926 (4)

CONCEPT	ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING Mean	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
Disengaged					
84	We have difficulty thinking of things to do as a family.	2.314	.718	2.	.62077 (1)
66	Our family doesn't do things together.	1.8	.759	1.	.53174 (1)

FACTOR	EIGEN VALUE	PERCENT OF VARIANCE	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
1	17.39388	33.7	33.7
2	7.28347	14.1	47.8
3	5.71808	11.1	58.9
4	2.37757	4.6	63.5

F A C E S

ADAPTABILITY DIMENSION

CONCEPT	ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING Mode	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
ASSERTIVENESS					
Chaotic					
77	Family members speak their minds without considering how it will affect others.	6.824	2.367	8	.61787 (1)
40	It is hard to know what other family members are thinking.	6.594	2.256	8	.69410 (1)
Moderate					
2	Family members feel free to say what's on their mind.	5.714	.957	5	.71239 (2)
59	In our family, it is important for everyone to express his opinion.	5.706	1.060	5	.89083 (2)
Rigid					
95	Family members rarely say what they want.	2.970	2.172	2	.82480 (1)
21	When our family has an argument, members just keep to themselves.	3.485	2.333	2	.68068 (1)
CONTROL					
Chaotic					
4	It is hard to know who the leader is in our family.	7.486	1.574	8	.71731 (1)
61	There is no leadership in our family.	8.412	1.480	9	.75454 (1)

CONCEPT	ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING Mean	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
Moderate					
79	Each family members has at least some say in major family decisions.	5.343	.838	5	.77301 (2)
23	The parents check with the children before making important decisions in our family.	5.735	1.109	5	.70664 (2)
Rigid					
97	Certain family members order everyone else around.	2.314	1.367	2	.70358 (1)
42	Parents make all the important decisions in our family.	2.857	1.611	3	.50675 (1)
DISCIPLINE					
Chaotic					
63	Family members are not punished or reprimanded when they do wrong.	7.600	1.397	8	.65727 (1)
81	Members of our family can get away with almost everything.	8.118	1.452	8	.72318 (1)
Moderate					
25	Punishment is usually pretty fair in our family.	4.794	.845	5	.65701 (2)
44	Parents and children in our family discuss together the methods of punishment.	5.600	.847	5	.62502 (2)
Rigid					
99	Family members are severely punished for wrongdoings.	1.486	1.442	1	.77682 (1)

CONCEPT ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING Mean	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
6 Family members are afraid to tell the truth, fearing harsh punishment.	2.000	1.393	2	.78467 (1)
NEGOTIATION				
Chaotic				
8 Family members talk a lot, but nothing ever gets done.	7.618	1.231	8	.78902 (1)
83 When trying to solve problems, family members jump from one attempted solution to another without giving them time to work.	7.771	1.864	9	.77021 (1)
Moderate				
46 We feel good about our ability to solve problems.	5.286	.750	5	.81877 (2)
27 Family members discuss problems and usually feel good about solutions.	5.343	.639	5	.77978 (2)
Rigid				
65 Our family does not discuss its problems.	5.250	2.553	2	.78018 (1)
101 Family members feel they have no say in solving problems.	3.118	2.591	2	.82104 (1)
ROLES				
Chaotic				
31 No one in our family seems to be able to keep track of what their duties are.	7.686	1.207	8	.78282 (1)
105 Family members never know how others are going to act.	7.800	1.605	8	.70674 (1)

CONCEPT	ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING Mean	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
Moderate					
69	In our family, everyone shares responsibilities.	5.171	.568	5	.70539 (2)
12	Family members have some say in what is required of them.	5.029	1.224	5	.68843 (2)
Rigid					
50	Once a task is assigned to a family member, there is no chance for change.	1.914	1.869	1	.71800 (1)
87	It seems as if males and females never do the same chores in our family.	3.000	2.174	2	.59728 (1)
RULES					
Chaotic					
108	It is hard to know what the rules are in our family because they always change.	8.229	1.215	8	.74453 (1)
72	It is unclear what will happen when rules are broken in our family.	7.546	1.540	8	.72026 (1)
Moderate					
15	Family members make the rules together.	5.429	.739	5	.79027 (2)
53	When rules are broken, family members are treated fairly.	5.229	.490	5	.72185 (2)
Rigid					
90	There is strict punishment for breaking rules in our family.	2.057	1.413	2	.70172 (1)

CONCEPT	ITEM	COUNSELOR RATING Mean	S.D.	Mode	FACTOR LOADING & Number
	34 Our family has a strict rule for almost every possible situation.	2.086	1.915	1	.65792 (1)
SYSTEM FEEDBACK					
Chaotic					
	92 For no apparent reason family members seem to change their minds.	7.886	1.132	8	.71380 (1)
	17 It is difficult to keep track of what other family members are doing.	7.471	1.237	8	.68652 (1)
Moderate					
	74 If one way doesn't work in our family, we try another.	5.647	.812	5	.79155 (2)
	55 Family members encourage each other's efforts to find new ways of doing things.	5.618	1.015	5	.78150 (2)
Rigid					
	36 Once our family has planned to do something, it's difficult to change.	2.457	1.336	2	.64594 (1)
	110 Family members feel the family will never change.	1.886	1.388	2	.73987 (1)

FACTOR	EIGEN VALUE	PERCENT OF VARIANCE	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
1	36.72044	58.5	58.5
2	12.63027	20.1	78.6

Raw Score and T-Score Conversion for
Achenbach Child Behavior Profile
(Achenbach, 1979 a)

	Total Problems		Internal		External		Social Competency	
	Raw	T[a]	Raw	T[a]	Raw	T[a]	Raw	T[a]
Boys 6-11	7	40	1.5	40	0	40	16.5	40
	18	50	6.5	50	8.5	50	20	50
	35	60	14	60	18	60	23	60
Girls 6-11	5	40	1	40	1.5	40	17	40
	17-18	50	6	50	9	50	20.3	50
	33	60	13	60	18	60	23.3	60
Boys 12-16	3-4	40	1	40	.8	40	17	40
	12-13	50	5	50	5	50	20.7	50
	28-30	60	12.5	60	15	60	23.5	60
Girls 12-16	4	40	1	40	.5	40	17	40
	12	50	5.5	50	6	50	20.7	50
	28-29	60	15	60	18	60	24.1	60

[a] Mean: T=50; 1 sd above $\bar{x}$: T=60; 1 sd below $\bar{x}$: T=40

For full list of all possible raw score values, see Achenbach (1979 a)

COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT, HOUSING AND FAMILY DEVELOPMENT (703) 961-6163

August 10, 1981

More and more mothers every year are experiencing divorce and living as a single parent. Some people predict that one in every 3 children born today will experience the divorce of their parents. We know very little about how children adjust and cope with these changes; some seem to adjust quickly while others require more time. One thing seems certain - the more we can learn about how and why children adjust, the more quickly they and their parents can achieve a satisfactory balance for themselves.

You are one of a small group of divorced parents from whom we hope to learn more about this important issue. Your name and address were obtained from the public files of divorces in Roanoke, Salem and Lynchburg. If you have not yet remarried and have a child between 6 and 16 who resides with you 4 out of 7 days per week (not including vacations), I hope you will be willing to complete some information and return it to us.

Before mailing you the questionnaire, I will phone you and answer any questions or concerns you might have. Your participation is, of course, completely voluntary. You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so that we may check your name off the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be used on the questionnaire.

The overall results of this research, not specifics by individual, will be made available to parents, teachers and counselors so they can be of the most assistance to their own children and the children they serve. You may also receive a summary of the results if you so indicate.

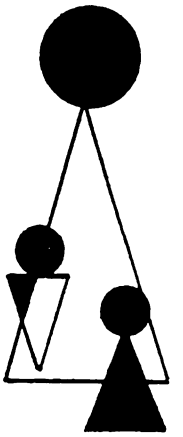
I will be calling you in about a week to ask your assistance. Please feel free at that time to ask any questions you might have.

Sincerely,

Brenda Hayes Johnson, M.S.

Michael J. Sporakowski, Ph.D.
Professor, Family Development

BHJ/mlm
MJS/mlm



SINGLE PARENT FAMILIES:

Children and Divorce

IF YOUR RETURN ENVELOPE IS
LOST, PLEASE RETURN TO:

Brenda Hayes Johnson
Wallace Annex
Virginia Tech
Blacksburg, VA 24061

COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT, HOUSING AND FAMILY DEVELOPMENT (703) 961-6163

Dear Particicant,

About a week ago I mailed you a letter explaining that your name had been selected from the public records of divorces in Roanoke, Salem, and Lynchburg, to aid us in our study of children's adjustment to divorce. If you have not remarried and have one or two children between 6 and 16 years old, your experience and opinions are needed. As more and more children live in single parent homes, it becomes very important to understand how they adjust to these changes and how future single parent families can cope.

I have had an opportunity to discuss this study and its importance with most of you by phone. Thank you for your time and willingness to complete the enclosed questionnaire. For those of you who received my letter but for whom I was unable to contact by phone, I have mailed you a copy of our questionnaire in hopes that you will take the time to complete it and return it to us. The results of your efforts are important to parents, teachers, counselors and children.

You may receive a copy of the results, which will be reported as a total group. No individual names will ever be used. The number on this questionnaire is simply for our convenience in checking off our mailing list when responses are returned. The number will be removed from the questionnaire as soon as it is received by us.

If you have any questions, please mail your inquires to the address on the front cover. We will either call or respond in writing. Thank you for your valuable assistance.

Sincerely,

Brenda Hayes Johnson,M.S.

Michael J. Sporakowski, Ph.D.
Professor, Family Development

If your child is between 6 and 16 years old, please answer the following questions to help us understand his/her activities. If you have two children who are within this age range, please complete this section of the questionnaire only for the older child. I have included an extra copy of the first 5 pages and inserted them at the back of this booklet so those of you with two children may also complete the questions for your younger child.

Q-1 Child's sex: (circle number)

1 BOY
2 GIRL

Q-2 Child's age today:

_____ YEARS

Q-3 Please list the sports your child most likes to take part in. For example: swimming, baseball, skating riding, fishing, etc.

☐ None (check if appropriate)

Compared to other children of the same age, about how much time does he/she spend in each? (check one box for each sport)

	Don't Know	Less Than Average	Average	More Than Average
a. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐

Compared to other children of the same age, how well does he/she do each one? (check one box for each sport)

	Don't Know	Below Average	Average	Above Average
a. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q-4 Please list your child's favorite hobbies, activities, and games, other than sports. For example: stamps, dolls, books, piano, crafts, singing, etc. (Do not include T.V.)

☐ None (check if appropriate)

Compared to other children of the same age, about how much time does he/she spend in each? (check one box for each activity)

	Don't Know	Less Than Average	Average	More Than Average
a. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐

Compared to other children of the same age, how well does he/she do each one? (check one box for each activity)

	Don't Know	Below Average	Average	Above Average
a. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q-5 Please list any organizations, clubs, teams, or groups your child belongs to.

☐ None (check if appropriate)

Compared to other children of the same age, how active is he/she in each? (Check one box for each group)

	Don't Know	Less Than Average	Average	More Than Average
a. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q-6 Please list any jobs or chores your child has. For example: paper route, babysitting, making bed, etc.

☐ None (check if appropriate

Compared to other children of the same age, how well does he/she carry them out? (check one box for each group)

	Don't Know	Below Average	Average	Above Average
a. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q-7 About how many close friends does your child have? (circle number)
1 NONE
2 ONE
3 TWO OR THREE
4 FOUR OR MORE

Q-8 About how many times a week does your child do things with them? (circle number)
1 LESS THAN ONCE
2 ONE OR TWO TIMES
3 THREE OR MORE TIMES

Q-9 Compared to other children of his/her age, how well does your child: (circle one choice for each)

a. Get along with his/her brothers & sisters? . . .	WORSE	ABOUT THE SAME	BETTER
b. Get along with other children?	WORSE	ABOUT THE SAME	BETTER
c. Behave with his/her parents?	WORSE	ABOUTH THE SAME	BETTER
d. Play and work by himself/herself?.	WORSE	ABOUT THE SAME	BETTER

Q-10 Current school performance: (circle one choice for each subject)

☐ Does not go to school

a. Reading or English.	FAILING	BELOW AVERAGE	AVERAGE	ABOVE AVERAGE
b. Writing	FAILING	BELOW AVERAGE	AVERAGE	ABOVE AVERAGE
c. Arithmetic or Math.	FAILING	BELOW AVERAGE	AVERAGE	ABOVE AVERAGE
d. Spelling.	FAILING	BELOW AVERAGE	AVERAGE	ABOVE AVERAGE
Other academic subjects; for example history science, foreign language, geography . .	FAILING	BELOW AVERAGE	AVERAGE	ABOVE AVERAGE
e. _____ . . .	FAILING	BELOW AVERAGE	AVERAGE	ABOVE AVERAGE
f. _____ . . .	FAILING	BELOW AVERAGE	AVERAGE	ABOVE AVERAGE

Q-11 Is your child in a special class? (circle number)
1 NO
2 YES - What Kind? _____

Q-12 Has your child ever repeated a grade? (circle number)
1 NO
2 YES - grade and reason _____

Q-13 Has your child had any academic or other problems in school? (circle number)
1 NO
2 YES - please describe
When did these problems start and end? _____
_____

Q-14 How often does your child usually see his/her father? (circle number)
1 NEVER
2 ONCE OR TWICE A YEAR
3 ABOUT ONCE A MONTH
4 ABOUT TWICE A MONTH (every other week)
5 WEEKLY
6 MORE THAN ONCE A WEEK
7 Comment if those listed above do not explain your circumstances:

Q-15 When your child visits his/her father, how does he usually feel about the visits? (circle number)
1 HE/SHE DOES NOT LIKE TO VISIT
2 HE/SHE SOMETIMES ENJOYS THE VISITS
3 HE/SHE USUALLY ENJOYS THE VISITS
4 HE/SHE ALWAYS ENJOYS THE VISITS
5 Comment if the above categories do not explain your circumstances:

Q-16 Below is a list of items that describe children. For each item, circle "NOT" if it is not true of your child in the past two months, circle "SOMETIMES" if it has sometimes been true of your child in the past two months, and circle "OFTEN" if it has often been true of your child in the last two months.

		NOT TRUE	SOMETIMES TRUE	OFTEN TRUE
1.	Acts too young for his/her age.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
2.	Allergy (describe) _____ . .	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
3.	Argues a lot.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
4.	Asthma.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
5.	Behaves like opposite sex	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
6.	Bowel movements outside toilet.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
7.	Bragging, boasting.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
8.	Can't concentrate, can't pay attention for long	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
9.	Can't get his/her mind off certain thoughts obessions (describe)_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
10.	Can't sit still, restless, or hyperactive	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
11.	Clings to adults or too dependent	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
12.	Complains of loneliness	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
13.	Confused or seems to be in a fog.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
14.	Cries a lot	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
15.	Cruel to animals.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
16.	Cruelty, bullying, or meanness to others.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
17..	Day-dreams or gets lost in his/her thoughts	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
18.	Deliberately harms self or attempts suicide	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
19.	Demands a lot of attention.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
20.	Destroys his/her own things	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
21.	Destroys things belonging to his/her family or other children	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
22.	Disobedient at home	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
23.	Disobedient at school	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
24.	Doesn't eat well.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
25.	Doesn't get along with other children	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
26.	Doesn't seem to feel guilty after misbehaving	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
27.	Easily jealous.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
28.	Eats or drinks things that are not food Describe_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
29.	Fear certain animals, situations, or places other than school (describe) _____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
30.	Fears going to school	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
31.	Fears he/she might think or do something bad.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
32.	Feels he/she has to be perfect.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
33.	Feels or complains that no one loves him/her.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
34.	Feels others are out to get him/her	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
35.	Feels worthless or inferior	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
36.	Gets hurt a lot, accident-prone	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
37.	Gets in many fights	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
38.	Gets teased a lot	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
39.	Hangs around with children who get in trouble	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
40.	Hears things that aren't there (describe)	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
41.	Implusive or acts without thinking.	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
42.	Likes to be alone	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
43.	Lying or cheating	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
44.	Bites fingernails	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN

		NOT TRUE	SOMETIMES TRUE	OFTEN TRUE
45.	Nervous, highstrung, or tense	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
46.	Nervous movements or twitching (describe):_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
47.	Nightmares	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
48.	Not liked by other children	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
49.	Constipated, doesn't move bowels	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
50.	Too fearful or anxious	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
51.	Feels dizzy	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
52.	Feels too guilty	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
53.	Overeating	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
54	Overtired	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
55.	Overweight	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
56.	Physical problems without know medical cause	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
	a. Aches or pains	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
	b. headaches	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
	c. Nausea, feels sick	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
	d. Problems with eyes (describe)_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
	e. Rashes on other skin problems	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
	f. stomachaches or cramps	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
	g. Vomiting, throwing up	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
	h. Other (describe) _____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
57.	Physically attacks people	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
58.	Picks nose, skin, or other parts of body (describe): _____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
59.	Plays with own sex parts in public	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
60.	Plays with own sex parts too much	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
61.	Poor school work	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
62.	Poorly coordinated or clumsy	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
63.	Prefers playing with older children	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
64.	Prefers playing with younger children	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
65.	Refuses to talk	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
66.	Repeats certain acts over and over; compulsions (describe):_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
67.	Runs away from home	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
68.	Screams a lot	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
69.	Secretive, keeps things to self	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
70.	Sees things that aren't there (describe):_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
71.	Self-conscious or easily embarrassed	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
72.	Sets fires	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
73.	Sexual problems (decribe):_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
74.	Showing off or clowning	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
75.	Shy or timid	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
76.	Sleeps less than most children	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
77.	Sleeps more than most children during day and/or nights (describe):_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
78.	Smears or plays with bowel movements	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
79.	Speech problem (describe):_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
80.	Stares blankly	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN

	NOT TRUE	SOMETIMES TRUE	OFTEN TRUE
81. Steals at home	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
82. Steals outside the home	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
83. Stores up things he/she doesn't need (describe):_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
84. Stange behavior (describe):_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
85. Strange ideas (describe):_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
86. Stubborn, sullen, or irritable	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
87. Sudden changes in mood or feelings	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
88. Sulks a lot	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
89. Suspicious	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
90. Swearing or obscene language	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
91. Talks about killing self	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
92. Talks or walks in sleep (describe):_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
93. Talks too much	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
94. Teases a lot	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
95. Temper tantrums or hot temper	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
96. Thinks about sex too much	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
97. Threatens people	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
98. Thumb-sucking	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
99. Too concerned with neatness or cleanliness	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
100. Trouble sleeping	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
101. Truancy, skips school	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
102. Underactive, slow moving, or lacks energy	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
103. Unhappy, sad, or depressed	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
104. Unusually loud	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
105. Uses alcohol or drugs (describe):_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
106. Vandalism; destroys others' property	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
107. Wets self during the day	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
108. Wets the bed	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
109. Whining	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
110. Wishes to be of opposite sex	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
111. Withdrawn, doesn't get involved with others	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
112. Worrying	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
113. Please write in any problems your child has that were not listed above.			
_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN
_____	NOT	SOMETIMES	OFTEN

Q-17 In our effort to learn more about children adjusting to divorce and living in single parent families, it is important to understand your concerns. This is a list of things that may or may not be a problem or a concern for you. Please circle the number that best indicates how much of a problem or concern each item has been for you during th past month.

NEVER means this has not been a problem or concern in the past month and never was.
SOMETIMES means this has sometimes been a problem or concern in the past month.
OFTEN means this has often been a problem or concern in the past month.
ALWAYS means this has always been a problem or concern in the past month.
PAST means this has been a problem or concern in the past but not in the past month.

		Circle the best answer for each concern.				
1.	Cleaning the house.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
2.	Cooking meals for the family or myself.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
3.	Taking care of the household repairs.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
4.	Going to the market	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
5.	Starting a new job.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
6.	Maintaining old friendships	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
7.	Making new friends.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
8.	Dating new people	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
9.	Taking care of my car	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
10.	Developing an intimate relationship	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
11.	Losing my temper at my family	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
12.	Keeping a close family without my spouse. . . .	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
13.	Being depressed	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
14.	Getting involved in social activities	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
15.	Keeping control of a male child	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
16.	Keeping control of a female child	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
17.	Having enough money	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
18.	Talking with a child about my life.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
19.	Talking with a child about his/her life	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
20.	Being too independent	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
21.	Making ends meet.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
22.	Knowing how far to let a child have his/her way	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
23.	Expressing my feelings to my children	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
24.	Being lonely.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
25.	Meeting my ex-husband in social situations. . .	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
26.	Talking with my ex-husband about the children .	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
27.	Talking with my ex-husband about money matters.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
28.	Visitation arrangements for the children. . . .	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
29.	Talking with my children about the divorce. . .	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
30.	Not having enough time to get things done . . .	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
31.	Having enough time for my children.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
32.	Being sexually satisfied.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
33.	My ability to be a good parent.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
34.	Feeling inadequate as a person.	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST
35.	Resenting my ex-husband	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	PAST

The next group of questions is very important in understanding how families work and play together. Please answer each question. When you read the questions, think about "family" as those members currently living with you and any other family members who might see you and/or your children several times each week. This might include your mother, a sister, or even your ex-husband. Before you begin these questions, please list those people you think of as "family" and see several times each week. Just list their relationship to you (example: son, brother), not their names.

_____

_____

Indicate if each sentence is true All, MOST, SOME or NONE of the time by circling your choice.

1.	Family members are concerned with each other's welfare.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
2.	Family members feel free to say what's on their mind.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
3.	We don't have spur of the moment guests at mealtime	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
4.	It is hard to know who the leader is in our family.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
5.	It's difficult for family members to take time away from the family . .	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
6.	Family members are afraid to tell the truth because of how harsh the punishment will be	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
7.	Most personal friends are not family friends.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
8.	Family members talk a lot but nothing ever gets done.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
9.	Family members feel guilty if they want to spend time alone	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
10.	There are times when other family members do things that make my unhappy.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
11.	In our family we know where all family members are at all the times . .	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
12.	Family members have some say in what is required of them.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
13.	The adults in our family stick together	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
14.	I have some needs that are not being met by family members.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
15.	Family members make the rules together.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
16.	It seems like there is never any place to be alone in our house	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
17.	It is difficult to keep track of what other family members are doing .	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
18.	Family members do not check with each other when making decisions. . .	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
19.	My family completely understands and sympathizes with my every mood .	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
20.	Family ties are more important to us than any friendship could possibly be	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
21.	When our family has an argument, family members just keep to themselves.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
22.	Family members often answer questions that were addressed to another person.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
23.	I check with the children before making important decisions in our family.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
24.	Family members like to spend some of their free time with each other .	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
25.	Punishment is usually pretty fair in our family.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
26.	Family members are encouraged to have friends of their own as well as family friends.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
27.	Family members discuss problems and usually feel good about the solution	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
28.	Family members share almost all interests and hobbies with each other	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
29.	Our family is not a perfect success.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
30.	Family members are extremely independent	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
31.	No one in our family seems to be able to keep track of what their duties are.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
32.	Family members feel it's "everyone for themselves.".	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE

Indicate if each sentence is true ALL, MOST, SOME or NONE of the time by circling your choice.

33.	Every new thing I've learned about my family has pleased me.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
34.	Our family has a rule for almost every possible situation.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
35.	We respect each other's privacy.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
36.	Once our family has planned to do something, it's difficult to change it	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
37.	In our family we are on our own when there is a problem to solve	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
38.	I have never regretted being with my family, not even for a moment	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
39.	Family members do not turn to each other when they need help	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
40.	It is hard to know what other family members are thinking.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
41.	Family members make visitors feel at home.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
42.	I make all of the important decisions in our family.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
43.	Even when everyone is home, family members spend their time separately.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
44.	The children and I discuss together the method of punishment	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
45.	Family members have little need for friends because the family is so close.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
46.	We feel good about our ability to solve problems	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
47.	Although family members have individual interests, they still participate in family activities	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
48.	My family has all the qualities I've always wanted in a family	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
49.	Family members are totally on their own in developing their ideas.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
50.	Once a task is assigned to a family member, there is no chance of changing it	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
51.	Family members seldom take sides against other members	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
52.	There are times when I do not feel a great deal of love and affection for my family.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
53.	When rules are broken, family members are treated fairly	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
54.	Family members don't enter each other's area or activities	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
55.	Family members encourage each other's efforts to find new ways of doing things	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
56.	Family members discuss important decisions with each other, but usually make their own choices	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
57.	If I could be a part of any family in the world, I could not have a better match.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
58.	Home is one of the loneliest places to be.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
59.	In our family, it's important for everyone to express their opinion.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
60.	Family members find it easier to discuss things with persons outside the family.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
61.	There is no leadership in our family.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
62.	We try to plan some things during the week so we can all be together.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
63.	Family members are not punished or reprimanded when they do something wrong	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
64.	In our family we know each other's close friends.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
65.	Our family does not discuss its problems.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
66.	Our family doesn't do things together	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
67.	If my family has any faults, I am not aware of them	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
68.	Family members enjoy doing things alone as well as together	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
69.	In our family, everyone shares responsibilities	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
70.	Adults agree on how to handle the children.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
71.	I don't think anyone could possibly be happier than my family and I when we are together.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
72.	It is unclear what will happen when rules are broken in our family.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE

Indicate if each sentenc is true ALL, MOST, SOME or NONE of the time by circling your choice.

73.	When a bedroom door is shut, family members will knock before entering.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
74.	If one way doesn't work in our family, we try another	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
75.	Family members are expected to have the approval of others before making decisions.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
76.	Family members are totally involved in each other's lives	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
77.	Family members speak their mind without considering how it will affect others	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
78.	Family members feel comfortable inviting their friends along on family activities	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
79.	Each family member has at least some say in major family decisions.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
80.	Family members feel pressured to spend most free time together.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
81.	Members of our family can get away with almost anything	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
82.	Family members share the same friends	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
83.	When trying to solve problems, family members jump from one attempted solution to another without giving any of them time to work	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
84.	We have difficulty thinking of things to do as a family	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
85.	Family members understand each other completely	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
86.	It seems as if we agree on everything	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
87.	It seems as if males and females never do the same chores in our family.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
88.	Family members know who will agree and who will disagree with them on most family matters	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
89.	My family could be happier than it is	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
90.	There is strict punishment for breaking rules in our family	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
91.	Family members seem to avoid contact with each other when at home	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
92.	For no apparent reason, family members seem to change their minds	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
93.	We decide together on family matters and separately on personal matters.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
94.	Our family has a balance of closeness and separateness.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
95.	Family members rarely say what they want	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
96.	It seems there are always people around home who are not members of the family	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
97.	Certain family members order everyone else around	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
98.	It seems as if family members can never find time to be together.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
99.	Family members are severely punished for anything they do wrong	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
100.	We know very little about the friends of other family members	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
101.	Family members feel they have no say in solving problems.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
102.	Members of our family share many interests.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
103.	Our family is as well adjusted as any family in this world can be	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
104.	Family members are encouraged to do their own thing	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
105.	Family members never know how others are going to act	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
106.	Certain individuals seem to cause most of our family problems	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
107.	I don't think any family could live together with greater harmony than my family.	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
108.	It is hard to know what rules are in our family because they always change	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
109.	Family members find it hard to get away from each other	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
110.	Family members feel that the family will never change	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE
111.	Family members feel they have to go along with what the family decides to do	ALL	MOST	SOME	NONE

One last group of questions:

1. How old are you today?
   _____ YEARS

2. What is your religious affiliation? (Circle number)
   1. PROTESTANT (please specify)): _____
   2. CATHOLIC
   3. JEWISH
   4. OTHER (please specify): _____
   5. NONE

   How often do you attend services?
   _____ times per month

3. Which is the highest level of education you have completed? (Circle number)
   1. GRADE SCHOOL
   2. JUNIOR HIGH
   3. SOME HIGH SCHOOL
   4. COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL
   5. TECHNICAL OR VOCATIONAL TRAINING (specify) _____
   6. SOME COLLEGE BUT NOT COMPLETED (specify) _____
   7. COLLEGE DEGREE (specify) _____
   8. GRADUATE WORK (specify) _____
   9. GRADUATE DEGREE (specify) _____

4. What is your current employment? (Circle number)
   1. FULL TIME HOMEMAKER BY CHOICE
   2. EMPLOYED FULL TIME (at least 35 hour per week)
   3. EMPLOYED BETWEEN 20 AND 35 HOURS PER WEEK
   4. EMPLOYED LESS THAN 20 HOURS PER WEEK
   5. UNEMPLOYED AND SEEKING WORK
   6. OTHER (please specify): _____

5. For how long have you been in the group listed above? (Circle number)
   1. LESS THAN 6 MONTHS
   2. BETWEEN 6 MONTHS AND 1 YEAR
   3. OVER ONE YEAR BUT LESS THAN 2 YEARS
   4. OVER 2 YEARS

6. Please describe your ex-husband's employment just before you separated:
   TITLE _____
   KIND OF WORK _____
   KIND OF BUSINESS _____

7. If you are currently employed outside the home, please describe your work:
   TITLE _____
   KIND OF WORK _____
   KIND OF BUSINESS _____

8. Are you presently a student? (Circle number)
   1. NO
   2. YES, PART TIME
   3. YES, FULL TIME

9. What was your employment status one year before you and your ex-spouse separated? (Circle number)
   1. FULL TIME HOMEMAKER BY CHOICE
   2. EMPLOYED FULL TIME (at least 35 hours per week)
   3. EMPLOYED BETWEEN 20 AND 35 HOURS PER WEEK
   4. EMPLOYED LESS THAN 20 HOURS PER WEEK
   5. UNEMPLOYED AND SEEKING WORK
   6. OTHER (please specify): _____

10. What is your present yearly income from all sources before taxes? (Circle number)
    1. LESS THAN $5,000
    2. $5,000 to $6,999
    3. $7,000 to $8,999
    4. $9,000 to $10,999
    5. $11,000 to $13,999
    6. $14,000 to $16,999
    7. $17,000 to $19,999
    8. over $20,000

11. What was the combined yearly income in your marriage before your separation from your ex-husband? (Circle number)
    1. LESS THAN $5,000
    2. $5,000 to $6,999
    3. $7,000 to $8,999
    4. $9,000 to $10,999
    5. $11,000 to $13,999
    6. $14,000 to $16,999
    7. $17,000 to $19,999
    8. over $20,000

12. Do you currently reside in the same home that you did before you and your ex-husband were separated? (Circle number)
    1. YES
    2. NO

13. Do you reside in the same county or city that you did before you and your ex-spouse were separated? (Circle number)
    1. YES
    2. NO

14. What is your current dating pattern? (Circle number)
    1. CURRENTLY VERY INVOLVED WITH ONE PERSON AND NOT DATING ANYONE ELSE
    2. REGULARLY SEEING ONE PERSON BUT NOT DEEPLY COMMITTED AT THIS TIME
    3. DATING SEVERAL PEOPLE
    4. ONLY OCCASIONALLY DATING
    5. NOT CURRENTLY DATING ANYONE
    6. OTHER (please specify): _____

15. If you are employed outside the home, please indicate the method of child care presently used. (Circle number)
    1. MY OLDER CHILDREN WATCH THE YOUNGER CHILDREN
    2. ALL THE CHILDREN ARE OLD ENOUGH TO BE RESPONSIBLE FOR THEMSELVES
    3. THE CHILDREN GO TO SOMEONE ELSE'S HOME (circle)
        a. FRIEND
        b. SITTER
        c. RELATIVE
        d. OTHER
    4. A SITTER COMES TO THE HOUSE (circle)
        a. FRIEND
        b. RELATIVE
        c. OTHER
    5. THE CHILDREN ATTEND A CENTER OR DAY CARE FACILITY

Please comment if the above categories are too limited or do not explain your child care arrangements:

16. Please explain the number of changes in child care arrangements which your child (children) have experi since your separation from your ex-husband.

17. How far away from you does your nearest relative live?
    _____ MILES

18. How often do your children see other relatives, such as grandparents, aunts and uncles? (circle number)
    1. NEVER
    2. ONCE OR TWICE A YEAR
    3. SEVERAL TIMES A YEAR
    4. MONTHLY
    5. SEVERAL TIMES A MONTH
    6. WEEKLY
    7. ALMOST EVERY DAY
    8. EVERY DAY

19. How often do you see or speak with your ex-husband? (circle number)
    1. NEVER
    2. LESS THAN ONCE A MONTH
    3. ONCE OR TWICE A MONTH
    4. WEEKLY
    5. MORE THAN ONCE A WEEK

20. How would you explain your current contacts with your ex-husband? (circle number)
    1. WE HAVE NO CONTACT AT ALL
    2. OUR CONTACTS ARE NEVER CONFLICTUAL
    3. OUR CONTACTS ARE SELDOM CONFLICTUAL
    4. OUR CONTACTS ARE OFTEN CONFLICTUAL
    5. OUR CONTACTS ARE ALWAYS CONFLICTUAL

21. How many months were you separated from your ex-husband before your divorce was final?
    _____ MONTHS

Please indicate whether any of the following have occurred in the past year: (Circle any which occurred)
    1. SOMEONE IMPORTANT TO YOU DIED
    2. ONE OF YOUR CHILDREN CHANGED HIS/HER PRIMARY RESIDENCE, EITHER MOVING INTO OR OUT OF YOUR HOME
    3. YOU WERE HOSPITALIZED. (If so, for how long? _____)
    4. ONE OF YOUR CHILDREN WAS HOSPITALIZED. (If so, for how long? _____)
    5. A FRIEND MOVED OUT OF YOUR HOME OR YOU MOVED OUT OF A FRIEND'S HOME
    6. A FRIEND MOVED INTO YOUR HOME OR YOU MOVED IN WITH A FRIEND
    7. YOU DEVELOPED A SERIOUS HEALTH PROBLEM
    8. ONE OF YOUR CHILDREN DEVELOPED A SERIOUS HEALTH PROBLEM
    9. YOUR EX-HUSBAND REMARRIED

Please describe any other major changes which have occurred in your family in the past year.

_____

_____

_____

Thank you so much for your time in helping us understand children and divorce. If you wish to receive a copy of the results of this study, please print your name and address below. It will be clipped off your questionnaire and saved. The results will be complete by July, 1982.

Please send me a copy of the results of this study of children and divorce:

Name _____
Address _____
_____
Town _____
State _____ Zip _____

COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT, HOUSING AND FAMILY DEVELOPMENT (703) 961-6163

October 12, 1981

Last month I mailed you a letter and a questionnaire, requesting your help in gaining a better understanding of how children adjust to divorce. You are one of a very small group of people selected from the public records of divorces in Roanoke, Salem and Lynchburg. Your responses and opinions are vital; the experience is different for each family and your views are unique and very important in understanding how children adjust.

If you have not remarried and have one or two children between six and sixteen years old who currently live with you, please help us by completing the enclosed questionnaire. Your responses will be kept confidential and your name will never be used.

If you have remarried or have no children between 6 & 16, please check the space below and return the blank questionnaire to us. This will help in our record keeping.

Thank you so much for your help.

Sincerely,

_____ I have remarried.
_____ I have no children between 6 and 16 who live with me.
_____ Other _____

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CHILDREN COPING WITH DIVORCE:

A TEST OF THE CIRCUMPLEX MODEL OF FAMILY FUNCTIONING

by

Brenda Hayes Johnson

(ABSTRACT)

The major purpose of this research was to test the circumplex model of family functioning as a possible source of variance in children's coping during the transitional period following parental divorce. The dimensions of cohesion (family closeness) and adaptability (family flexibility) theoretically incorporate 14 of the 18 factors identified by previous researchers to be related to more or less effective coping. The remaining four factors were controlled statistically.

The sample of 89 single parent, female headed households was drawn from court records of families who had been divorced for two months, one year and two years. The method of sample selection is recommended in future research, since it resulted in a more representative sample than that of previous researchers.

Coping among the children (ages 6-16) was measured by the mother's report of problem behaviors (internal and external) and social competency scores on the Achenbach Child Behavior Profile. Family interaction patterns were measured using a modified version of the FACES self report measure. Variables of cohesion, adaptability, time since divorce, income, age and sex were hypothesized to be related to child behavior problems and social competency, using a regression model. Social desirability was controlled statistically. Cohesion explained

a statistically significant portion of the variance for problem behaviors, particularly internal problems (i.e., withdrawal, somatic symptoms, anxious behavior). Income was an important contributor to variation with all the coping measures. However, the regression models did not provide support for the moderate versus extreme levels of cohesion and adaptability which had been hypothesized in the circumplex model. But, a Chi Square test of independence, excluding families with high social desirability scores, did provide some support for the continued testing of the circumplex model.

A supplemental analysis of other variables was conducted. Family stressors such as moving, parent conflict, mothers' changes in employment and mothers' regularly dating were related to increased difficulties in coping. Enjoyment with visits with father was related to improved coping. Number of changes in child care arrangements and frequency of visits with the father were not related to coping.