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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

ONE-PARENT, AND REMARRIED FAMILIES

DAVID LEE MENSINK

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA
SPRING 1987

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LIVING IN INTACT, ONE-PARENT, AND REMARRIED
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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN LIVING IN NTACT, OF PARENT, AND REMARRIED FAMILIES submitted by DAVID LEE MENSINK in partal fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Counselling Psychology.

Supervisor

Comin K. Vandage

External Examiner

Date Fel 26, 1987

7 Vand West

I dedicate this dissertation to my father, Mr. Lawrence J. Mensink, who has taught me many invaluable lessons. Among these are the long-term benefits of hard work and persistence toward achieving a goal. Both lessons helped me greatly in conducting and completing this study. His "task" has been far more demanding — a very difficult battle against cancer. As a write this dedication, HE IS WINNING!

The purpose of the study was to compare children living in intact, one-parent, and remarried families using various measures of child functioning. In addition, custody and access variables were examined as was the relationship between marital adjustment and various measures of child functioning.

The sample consisted of 136 children from intact families, 42 children from one-parent families, and 34 children from remarried families. The children were selected from Grade 6 and Grade 9 classes from 13 Edmonton schools located in middle-class socioeconomic status neighborhoods. Parents and teachers of the children also participated in the research study.

The dependent variables of the study were school report grades, self-esteem ratings of children, children's perceptions of their families, and teacher and parent ratings of child behavior. Confirmatory (i.e., traditional hypothesis-testing) and exploratory (stem and leaf displays, box and whisker graphs) procedures were used to analyze the data.

Major findings of the study were as follows:

- 1. There were significant differences between children from intact, one parent, and remarried families on external variables (i.e., school report grades, teacher ratings, and parent ratings) but not on internal variables (i.e., children's perceptions of themselves and their families).
- 2. Children from the three family forms were more accurately classified in only one group rather than three distinct groups.
- 3. Children from mother, father, and joint custody arrangements scored similarly on the dependent variables.
- 4. Children from one-parent families were more-satisfied with custody than they were with access but children from remarried families rated custody and access similarly.
- 5. The longer children lived in their new family (one-parent or remarried), the lower the

scores on the dependent variables.

- 6. Children who were more satisfied with access were also more satisfied with their current family. However, children who were more favorable towards access arrangements received lower parent ratings.
- 7: Children from one-parent families visited with their noncustodial parent an average of 31.3 days per year and children from remarried families visited with their noncustodial parent an average of 19.8 days per year. Teacher ratings of children from one-parent families increased as the children spent more time with their noncustodial parent.
- 8. There was no relationship between the dependent variables and marital adjustment.

The findings of the study point to the need for further development of theory and research in the area of family transitions. It was suggested that symbolic interaction and family systems theory could aid in understanding the relationship between child functioning and family transitions. Finally, suggestions for further research were made including family process variables, longitudinal time-series designs, and effective models of healthy family, functioning.

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This project would not have been possible without the generous contributions of time, effort, expertise, encouragement, and support of various individuals and groups.

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Next, I thank the students, parents, teachers, and administrators from Edmonton Public and Edmonton Catholic School Districts. In addition to expressing excitement about the project, they offered much time and effort to the project. In particular, the enthusiasm of the students and parents provided me with the necessary motivation to continue and complete the project.

My wife, Naomi M. Mensink, contributed greatly to this project. In addition to providing her loving support, she offered practical assistance by stuffing envelopes, coding data, carrying manuscripts to the typist, and editing the final document. These words of thanks do not capture the deep appreciation I feel for her contribution.

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- Dr. Len Stewin for helping with the proposal,
- Joan Roy for her interest in the project and for sharing her experience as a custodial parent with me,
- my clients who have taught me more than they realize about families of various forms,
- Cathy Ridenour and Judith Abbott for their swift and expert typing of the manuscript,
- Richard Crack for his excellent graphic artwork on the displays, charts, and graphs.
- Finally, I thank my daughters, Krista and Lesley, for their loving concern at times of great need and for sharing me with this project.

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I. Introduction

A current concern of increasing interest and importance to mental health practitioners and family researchers is how family members experience changes from the traditional nuclear family into other arrangements including parental separation and divorce, living in a one-parent family, and living in a remarried family. The present research study is a comparative analysis of school-aged children living in intact, one-parent, and remarried families. The major emphasis of the study will be on children's functioning in various family forms. The present chapter provides the context and general orientation for the research study. Accordingly, Chapter I is divided into the following four sections: A. Statement of the Problem, B. Purpose and Questions, C. General Orientation, and D. Conceptualizations and Definitions.

A. Statement of the Problem ...

The number of families going through transitions of parental separation, divorce, and remarriage is increasing (Spanier & Glick, 1981). Children participate in family transitions beginning with marital discord in the intact family (two biological or adoptive parties), during the divorce process, and finally living in one-parent or remarried families. According to Glick (1979), a projected one-third of the children 18 years of age in 1990 will have lived with a divorced parent. The focus of the present study is on various aspects of children's functioning in intact, one-parent and remarried families. The aspects to be considered in the present study are children's academic achievement, their self-esteem, how they perceive family process (interaction), their satisfaction with their families, and their behavior as reported by teachers and parents. These aspects have been selected because they include measures of children's functioning in school and at home—two major settings in the lives of children.

Many studies have been conducted on various aspects of children living in intact, one-parent, and remarked families but findings from previous research studies are generally

inconsistent and inconclusive (Camara, Baker, & Dayton, 1980; Goetting, 1983). In spite of a large body of existing research, more consistent and conclusive information is required from comparisons between children living in intact families with children who have experienced divorce and live in either one-parent or remarried families. The basic problem to be addressed in the present study is whether or not family form is important to children's functioning.

B. Purpose and Questions

The major purpose of the study then is to determine the relationship between family form and children's academic achievement, self-esteem, perceptions of family process, satisfaction with the family, and behavior reported by teachers and parents. First, the study will set out to determine if children display differences on various measures across family form and if children can be grouped into distinct family forms on the basis of the measures. A second purpose of the study is to compare children from mother, father, and joint custody arrangements on the dependent measures. A third purpose of the study is to investigate the relationship between custody and access variables (i.e., number of years in the new family, satisfaction, with custody and access arrangements, and time spent with the noncustodial parent) and the measures. Fourthly, the relationship between the level of marital adjustment and the measures will be examined.

It is important to indicate at the outset how findings of the present study may add to the existing body of research. The present study has potential contributions as a result of the following design features:

- 1. the sample is not clinical but drawn from the "normal" local population,
- 2. socioeconomic status is controlled by selecting only those children who are from schools in middle-class neighborhoods,
- 3. the instruments have satisfactory reliability, and
- 4. a multimodal measurement approach is used academic achievement, self-esteem, child perceptions of the family, and teacher and parent ratings of child behavior.

For these reasons, results of the present study will provide a unique contribution to the

existing body of research in the area of family transitions. In so doing, the following questions will be addressed:

- 1. Do children from intact, one-parent and remarried families significantly differ from each other on academic achievement, self-esteem, perceptions of families, and behavior in school and at home?
- 2. Do children from mother, father, and joint custody arrangements significantly differ from each other on academic achievement, self-esteem, perceptions of families, and behavior in school and at home?
- 3. Are there significant relationships between the following four variables:
 - a. years in the new family.
 - b. child satisfaction with custody,
 - c. child satisfaction with access.
 - d. time spent with the noncustodial parent and academic, achievement, self-esteem, perceptions of families, and behavior in school and at home of children in one-parent and remarried families?
- 4. Is there a significant relationship between the level of marital adjustment and academic achievement, self-esteem, perceptions of families, behavior in school and at home of children living in intact and remarried families?

C. General Orientation

A basic premise of the present study is that child measures (e.g., school grades, self-esteem) reflect a complex interaction between and among four levels or dimensions — the intraindividual (e.g., age, sex, innate ability, personality), intrafamilial (relationships with siblings, parents), extended familial (relationships with uncles, aunts, grandparents), and extrafamilial (relationships with peers, teachers, members of the community). One can measure various child attributes but these measurements are not isolated or unitary, Rather, they reflect a complex combination of the four levels or dimensions mentioned above.

The "snapshots" of children living in various family forms presented for analysis in the present research study do not provide data which are completely exclusive of any one of the four levels. Even though the measures selected for the study display a complex combination of all four levels including a child's history, intrapersonal dynamics, and interpersonal interactions, they, however, tap the intraindividual and, to a lesser extent, the intrafamilial levels more than the extended familial or extrafamilial levels. An in depth examination of the intrafamilial, extended familial, and extrafamilial levels is beyond the scope of the present study. Findings pertaining primarily to the intrapersonal level of analysis provide a first step in understanding how family form influences children.

A major thrust of the present research study is to determine the importance of family form (intact, one-parent, remarked) to children in terms of their academic achievement, self-esteem, perceptions of family process, satisfaction with their families, and behavior. An investigation of the importance of a structural dimension (e.g., family form) necessarily involves in interrelationship between the self and the social structure to which the individual below the exists a reciprocal relationship between the self and society according to sociolated role and symbolic interaction theory (Allen & Van de Vliert, 1984; Burr, 1972; Stryker & Stratham, 1985). That is, an individual influences the family and the family influences the individual. In addition to interactions between intraindividual, intrafamilial, extended familial, and extrafamilial, there are interactions and reciprocal relationships within each of these levels. Within the intrafamilial level, for example, family systems theorists assert that interactions between children and parents, between siblings, and between parents are primary in understanding behavior of any one particular member (Fisch, Weakland, & Fisch, 1974).

The major point to be made regarding the general orientation of the present research study is that family form is only one element among many complex reciprocal influences that affect children. The specific element of family form has been selected for investigation in the present research study. The rationale for the study is that the importance or lack of

importance of family form is not yet known due to the lack of consistent and conclusive results from existing research. Therefore, more research which focuses on comparing children across family form is required to help in understanding children's experience of family transitions.

Moreover, in addition to a lack of consistent and conclusive results from experimental studies, research in this area also lacks clear theoretical direction. According to Peterson, Leigh, and Day (1984), "despite substantial concern about the consequences of marital instability for children, little systematic theory has been developed that adequately conceptualizes this area of inquiry" (p. 1). Much of the recent work on conceptualization uses theoretical propositions from family stress and coping literature (Buehler, Hogan, Robinson, & Levy, 1985; Kraus, 1979; McPhee, 1985; Peterson, Leigh, & Day, 1984). These theoretical formulations presuppose that divorce or family transition is a significantly stressful event in the lives of parents and children. This presupposition may or may not be true in light of the state of research at the present time. Theoretical formulations in this area of research are in need of a solid research base. That is, the current level of knowledge regarding the experience of children in various family forms is at a state where grounded theory (Glasser & Strauss, 1967) or the development of theory based upon systematically obtained and analyzed data is an appropriate alternative. Perhaps the results from the present research study will aid in this endeavor.

D. Conceptualizations and Definitions

The purpose of this section is to present conceptualizations and definitions which guide the research. First, divorce is conceptualized as a normative transition. According to Ahrons (1983):

Divorce can be conceptualized as a normative transition or change. It may be seen as a transition like many other normal family changes, such as death in the family; divorce, like other transitions, can bring unhappiness to children, and it does demand a change in family structure, rules, and roles. These changes, however, do not mean

that the divorced family is "bad" or "sick". Divorce may be seen as a process which involves the change or expansion of the traditional nuclear family (or mother, father, and children) from living in one residence to what may be termed a binuclear family. The binuclear family still includes both biological parents, even though they live apart. If either or both parents remarry, then the binuclear family also includes stepparents and step/half siblings. (p. 1060)

The keywords in Ahron's definition are <u>normative</u> and <u>transition</u>. The emphasis on the normative nature of divorce would suggest that divorce is not inherently pathological; rather it is a transition or change that could be growth producing. One could consider how divorce positively affects children according to this conceptualization. In addition, divorce is conceptualized as a transition rather than as a single event. Divorce occurs over a period of time and involves various changes in the ways family members relate to each other. These changes in roles could initially create difficulties but ultimately could provide benefits for children and parents.

A consideration of divorce is germane to the present study for two reasons. Pirst and most obvious, a large percentage of children living in one-parent and remarried families have by definition experienced the transition of the divorce process. A second and more subtle reason for considering divorce is that it may be difficult to disentangle or separate the experience of divorce from the experience of living in a one-parent or remarried family. There is really no family form in which children live after divorce but before they live in one-parent families. Therefore, even though the multiple influences of divorce and either one-parent or remarried family living are difficult to disentangle, it is important to realize that children in postdivorce families have experienced parental divorce in their lives.

A second concept used in the study is family form. Family form can be any of the following: intact (2 biological or adoptive parents and children), one-parent (either the biological mother or father and children), or remarried (either the biological mother and/or father remarries and children). Even though intact, one-parent, and remarried families differ on a number of structural dimensions (e.g., boundaries, role relationships, etc.), these

differences need not imply that one family form is better than another for children.

According to Sussman (1971):

An enduringly pluralistic society must recognize that individuals of different capabilities and motivations may find self-fulfillment in any one of family forms currently in existence in American society. (p. 51)

That is, healthy family functioning as defined by a number of family researchers (Barnhill, 1979; Lewis, Beavers, & Gossett, 1976; Olson, Russell, & Sprenkle, 1983; Steinhauer, Santa-Barbara, & Skinner, 1983; can likely exist in any of the various family forms. Therefore, the assumption that there is one optimal family form is not being made in the present study.

Along with the previous conceptualizations, a third task of this section is to provide definitions of the measures selected for the present study - academic achievement, self-esteem, child perceptions of family process, child satisfaction with the family, and teacher and parental perceptions of child behavior. Academic achievement is indicated by teacher assigned grades in the language arts, mathematics, social studies, and science. A composite score adding grades in the four areas is the operational definition of academic achievement for the present study. Self-esteem is indicated by children's scores on the Culture-Free Self-Esteem Inventory (Battle, 1981). A composite score adding scores on general self-esteem, social or peer-related self-esteem, academics or school-related self-esteem, and, parents or home-related self-esteem items is the operational definition of self-esteem for the study. Child perceptions of family process is indicated by scores on the Family Assessment Measure (Skinner, Steinhauer, & Santa-Barbara, 1983). A composite score adding scores on task, accomplishment, role performance, communication, affective expression, affective involvement, control, and values and norms items is the operational definition of child perceptions of family process for the study. Child satisfaction with the family is indicated by scores on the Family Satisfaction Scale (Olson & Wilson, 1982). A composite score adding scores on cohesion and adaptability items is the operational definition of child satisfaction with the family for the present study. Teacher and parental perceptions

of child behavior are indicated by scores on the Health Resources Inventory (Gesten, 1976). A composite score adding scores on good student, gutsy, peer sociability, rules, and frustration tolerance items is the operational definition of child behavior as perceived by teachers and parents.

The measures include indicators of the functioning of children at home and in school and the functioning of their families as perceived by the children themselves. More information on the measures and their subscales is provided in Chapter III of the present study.

The present chapter has provided the context for the research study. The problem, purpose, questions, orientation, conceptualizations, and definitions have been presented to identify the major issues and to provide direction for the research study. The next chapter is a review of the pertinent literature and research.

II. Review of the Literature and Research

The purpose of the present chapter is to review existing literature and research on family transitions with particular emphasis on the experience of children involved in these transitions. Various aspects of children (e.g., academic achievement, self-esteem, behavior, psychosocial adjustment, child perceptions, etc.) and the relationship between these aspects and children's current living arrangements are reviewed. In addition to considering family transitions in the forms of parental divorce, one parent, and remarried family living; the review includes research on children in intact families. A section on the experience of children living in discordant intact families is included in the review to provide information on children living in an environment with parental conflict which may not lead to the separation and divorce of their parents.

The review of literature and research is organized in a sequential manner according to the following four major sections: A. Discordant Intact Families and Children, B. The Effect of Divorce on Children, C. One-Parent Families and Children, and D. Remarried Families and Children. For each section of the review, general information will first be presented after which results from specific experimental studies will be summarized and discussed. The term experimental studies is used to designate specific research studies for which data are collected and analyzed and to differentiate these studies from articles which only review the research. The chapter will conclude with hypotheses which are based on the information and knowledge currently existing in the research literature.

A. Discordant Intact Families and Children

The purpose of this section of the review is to examine the relationship between marital discord and emotional and behavioral aspects of children living in a conflictual environment. According to Rutter (1984), environmental effects on children are particularly powerful in three areas of functioning:

- 1. scholastic achievement environmental effects of various school-related variables, aspects of parent-child interaction, ordinal position,
- 2. emotional disturbance environmental effects of parent-child interaction, loss of an important relationship, parental mental disorder, ordinal position, and
- 3. conduct disorders environmental effects of family discord and disharmony, parent criminality, lack of supervision, inefficient and inconsistent discipline, neglect, and hostility.

The literature on the effect of marital discord on children emphasizes the latter two variables

— emotional disturbance and conduct disorders.

The rationale for examining the relationship between marital discord and child functioning in the present study is to consider marital conflict apart from the influence of family transitions. In this way, the impact of interparental hostility on children's functioning can be addressed. Of course, parental hostility does not necessarily and with divorce but it likely is reduced in frequency and is no longer part of a child's everyday experience after separation and divorce. Another reason for including discordant intact families in the review is that much of the research to follow addresses the question of which is better for children—interparental flostility or divorce? The present section is divided into two subsections: 1) general reviews of the research literature, and 2) specific experimental studies.

1. General Reviews

Discord between spouses in the form of frequent and prolonged quarreling, expressed hostility, and negative feelings can occur before, during, and after the actual separation of the marital dyad. The frimary focus of this section is on marital discord and emotional or behavioral aspects of children in intact families. If it can be shown that marital discord has a detrimental impact on the emotional or behavioral functioning of children in intact families then one can assert that this factor may be confounded with the relationship between familial transitions and children's functioning.

Margolin (1981) examines the relationship between marital distress and child problems from both clinical and experimental perspectives. According to Margolin, "although marital problems may be a general stressor for all children, their greatest impact is experienced by children who, due to some congenital, emotional or physical condition, are more vulnerable" (p. 147). After reviewing research data on this subject from global ratings, simulated laboratory tasks, and naturalistic-sequential observation, Margolin concludes that the data offer only limited support for theoretical explanations (i.e., systems, social learning, family stress) of the relationship between marital and child problems. Margolin (1981) states that "a relatively safe conclusion at this time is that all families that have marital problems do not have child problems and, vice versa, all families with shild problems do not have marital problems" (pp. 172-173).

However, Rutter (1984) is more definite about the direction of causality with respect to child problems and environmental influences. He states that "... when due account has been taken of child effects on parents or other adults, it is apparent still that major parent effects remain" (p. 309). In another article, Wolkind and Rutter (1985) assert that there is now strong evidence that rearing in a disharmonious family in which there is marked discord between the parents or between parents and children shows a substantial association with conduct disturbance and delinquency — especially in boys (see Emery, 1982; Patterson, 1982; Rutter 1982, 1984b; Rutter & Giller, 1983)" (p. 47).

One might wonder <u>how</u> marital discord influences the emotional or behavioral functioning of children. One conceptualization has been proposed by Vogel and Bell (1967). They propose that marital tension too painful to deal with in the open is displaced on a child scapegoat thus leading to emotional disturbance of the scapegoated child. Vogel and Bell (1967) state the following with respect to this process:

While the disturbed behavior leads to some dysfunctions for the family, it is the personality of the child which suffers most as a result of the scapegoating. . . The development of the emotional disturbance is simply part of the process of internalizing the conflicting demands placed upon him by his parents. While in the

short run, the child receives more rewards from the family for playing this role than for not playing this role, in the long run this leads to serious personality impairment. In short, the scapegoating mechanism is functional for the family as a group but dysfunctional for the emotional health of the child and for his adjustment outside the family of origin. (pp. 439-440).

Madanes (1980) views the disturbed behavior of the child as protecting the parents from their own problems. Madanes proposes that "typically, the disturbed behavior of the child elicits attempts from the parents to help the child and to change his behavior. Whether the child's behavior provokes helpful, protective, or punitive acts from the parents, it focuses the parents' concern on him and makes the parents see themselves as parents to a child who needs them rather than individuals overwhelmed by personal, economic, or social difficulties" (pp. 73-74).

According to Minuchin, Baker, Rosman, Liebman, Milman, and Todd (1975), there are three necessary conditions for the development of psychosomatic illness in children which serve to maintain the stability of the family. First, the child must be physiologically vulnerable. Secondly, the child's family must have, the following four transactional characteristics: enmeshment, overprotectiveness, rigidity, and lack of conflict resolution. Thirdly, the child must play an important role in the family's patterns of conflict avoidance (p. 1032). Three family patterns serve to prevent open inflict between parents: 1. triangulation (child as ally with one parent against the other), 2. parent-child coalition (child moves into a stable coalition with one parent against the other), and 3. detouring (parent conflicts are submerged in protecting or blaming the "sick" child) (p. 1034).

The conceptualizations of Vogel and Bell. Madanes, and Minuchin et al. were presented to show some ways in which marital tension can have detrimental effects on the emotional, behavioral, and psychosomatic functioning of children. The review continues with research on the relationship between marital conflict and behavior problems in children.

Emery (1982), reviewed data on the relation between marital turmoil (i.e., discord and divorce) and behavior problems. Emery states that "... children from broken or intact

broken or intact homes that are relatively harmonious" (p. 313). Additional factors regarding the suspected association between marital and child problems are: the type of the behavior problem (problems of undercontrol seem to be more strongly related to interparental conflict than problems of overcontrol), sex of the child (boys seem to be more affected than girls), parent-child relationships (a good relationship with one parent can buffer the child from negative effects of marital turmoil), and parental psychopathology. According to Emery (1982), "... much of the association between divorce and ongoing child behavior problems may be explained by a frequently overlooked third variable, namely, interparental conflict" (p. 244).

In a more recent article, O'Leary and Emery (1984) concluded that "marital discord clearly has a negative impact on children, but in nonclinical populations where the parents and children have not been selected for deviance the association between marital discord and childhood problems is weak! (p. 361). Finally, Rutter (1984) suggests that the following assertions can be made on the basis of empirical literature:

- a. family discord in unbroken homes can lead to delinquency in children,
- b. temporary separations predispose conduct disorders in children if these separations are a result of discord but not if they occurred for other reasons (e.g., death), and
- c. a reduction in family discord is followed by a diminution in the risk of conduct disturbance in children (p. 314).

2. Experimental Studies

The purposes, subjects, instruments, measures, and findings of ten experimental studies on the relationship between marital discord and the emotional or behavioral functioning of children in intact families are summarized and presented in Appendix A, pp. 128-137. Major findings and essential features of these studies are presented and discussed in text. Additional details of the studies can be found in the summaries in Appendix A.

Regarding self-esteem, Amato (1986) found a weak association between marital conflict and the self-esteem of adolescents and a stronger association between marital conflict and the self-esteem of primary school girls. There may be an age and/or sex factor operating regarding the relationship between parental conflict and child self-esteem. Interestingly, Amato also found the negative effects of conflict to be strongest when children's relationships were poor with the parents. This finding points to the importance of considering intrafamilial relationships in assessing children's self-esteem.

The study by Cooper, Holman, and Braithwaite (1983), the purpose of which was to investigate family interactions and their relationship to children's self-esteem, lends, supporting evidence to the above conclusion. Cooper et al. (1983) found that family cohesion has an important influence on the development of children's self-concept and that lower self esteem was evident when children perceived conflict between their parents or between themselves and their parents. This finding held regardless of whether the children lived in intact or one-parent households.

In three of the studies (Bernard & Nesbitt, 1981; Nye, 1957; Raschke & Raschke, 1979) comparisons were made between children in intact families and children who had experienced divorce. Bernard and Nesbitt (1981) found that there was no evidence to suggest that children (6-12 years old) of divorce or disruption (conflict and fighting) were more hampered emotionally than children from intact families. Nye (1957) found that adolescents in one-parent and remarried families showed less psychosomatic, less delinquent behavior and better adjustment to parents than did children in discordant intact families. Also, Raschke and Raschke (1979) found that family form (intact, one-parent, remarried) made no difference in children's self-esteem (Grade 3, 6, 8) but that children who perceived greater conflict in their families had lower self-concepts. Children's self-concepts appear to be highly related to familial discord in an inverse manner regardless of family form.

Regarding the relationship between behavior problems in children and interparental conflict, Jaffe, Wolfe, Wilson, and Zak (1986) found boys who were exposed to family violence showed adjustment difficulties that resembled problems shown by children who were

actually abused by their parents. This finding highlights the powerful influence of observing violence in the family. Other findings from the studies on marical distress and child behavior are as follows:

- a. children with behavior problems were scapegoated by parents in distressful marriages (Christensen, Phillips, Glasgow, & Johnson, 1983).
- b. marital discord was strongly related to conduct problems in clinic boys (Emery & O'Leary, 1982),
- c. low correlations between marital discord and behavior problems of nonclinic children
 (Emery & O'Leary, 1984), and
- d. significant correlations between overt marital hostility and behavior problems of clinic boys but not of girls (Porter & O'Leary, 1980).

3. Conclusions

The major conclusions that can be drawn from the reviews and experimental studies presented in this section are that children's self-concepts are inversely related to marital discord and that marital discord is directly related to behavior problems of children, especially boys, referred for clinical treatment. A second conclusion is that there is an association between marital discord and child behavior problems in the general population although this association appears to be weak. Thirdly, marital discord contributes to child problems distinct from divorce or family form.

B. The Effect of Divorce on Children

The purpose of the present section of the review is to examine the literature and research regarding the effect of divorce on children. Children living in one-parent and remarried families have experienced the divorce of their biological parents. A consideration of the effect of divorce on children is germane to the present study because divorce experiences cannot be separated from experiences of diving in one-parent and remarried families. Therefore, both the literature on the divorce experience of children and the experience of

one-parent or remarried family living will be reviewed in the present chapter.

Incidentally, the use of the term effect does not imply a unidirectional cause-effect model. In reality the situation regarding divorce and children is likely more complex and reciprocal or interactional. However, the literature to be reviewed uses the term effect and. for the sake of consistency, this term will be used here as well.

Information presented in the present section comes from general reviews of research and from specific experimental studies on divorce and children. The following topics from general reviews will be discussed: myths of divorce regarding children, mediating variables and factors regarding the impact of divorce on children, overall effects of divorce on children, children's adjustment to divorce, and psychological tasks necessary for children of divorce. The experimental studies include general effects of divorce on children; cognitive, affective, and behavioral effects of divorce; and the adjustment of children to separation and divorce.

1. General Reviews

According to Kelly (1980), false assumptions and myths have operated to reduce understanding of the child's divorce experience. Kelly identifies the following seven myths as salient and pervasive:

- a. divorced parents are better for a child than parents who remain in an unhappy marriage.
- b. children anticipate divorce,
- c. children hurt by the unhappy marriage of their parents are relieved when parents decide to divorce.
- d. turmoil for children ends with separation.
- e. parents divorce in the best interest of their children,
- f. children of divorce live in single-parent families, and
- g. divorce is damaging to children.

It is extremely important to reexamine these assumptions about the effects of divorce on children by using results from empirically valid research studies:

Prior to the consideration of general effects of divorce on children, some of the factors of mediating variables that seem to alter the effects of divorce on children will be discussed. Camara et al. (1980) state the following:

Recent research suggests that children's experience with parental divorce is influenced by several factors that relate to: (1) the conflict surrounding the decision to divorce.

(2) the loss of a parent or change in the relationship between parents and children after divorce, and (3) the impact of the divorce on the parent with custody and on subsequent parenting behaviors. The reactions of a child to parental divorce also may be influenced by his or her sex, age at the time of separation, ordinal position in the family and presence of siblings, the availability of parents to the children during and after the divorce, and the child's own personality strength and capacities to adapt to stresses such as separation from a primary attachment figure. (p. 97)

Congfellow (1979). Schlesinger (1977), and Wallerstein and Kelly (1980a) suggest that children of different ages of developmental levels react in different ways to divorce. Other important mediating variables to consider are the phase of family transition; the emotional, social, and financial status of custodial and noncustodial parents; and the presence or absence of support systems (Marotz-Baden, Adams, Bueche, Munro, & Munro, 1979; Sholevar, 1981).

What then are the effects of divorce on children as presented in general reviews of the research literature? There is a growing body of research which suggests that interparental conflict may be more problematic to children than the divorce itself (Emery, 1982; Goetting, 1983; Hetherington, 1979a; Longfellow, 1979; Marotz-Baden et al., 1979; Rubin & Price, 1979; Schlesinger, 1977). The major conclusion to be reached on the basis of these reviews is that family process (interactional relationships before, during, and after divorce) may be a more important factor to consider than actual separation or divorce regarding the effects of family transition on children's functioning. This is not to assert that the loss of one parent from the household is entirely untraumatic for the children. Hetherington (1979a) posits that almost all children experience the transition of divorce as painful with feelings of anger, fear,

depression, and guilt.

An important distinction made by Hetherington is the difference between short-term and long-term effects of divorce on children. Hence, while short-term effects of divorce (e.g., less than one year) may be upserting for children, long-term effects may result in improved functioning depending on the duality of life in the postdivorce family. Hetherington (1979a) states that "in studying the impact of divorce on children much confusion has resulted from viewing divorce as a single event rather than a sequence of experiences involving (a transition in the lives of children" (p. 851).

The state of knowledge with respect to the long-term effects of divorce on children can be summarized with the word uncertainty Goetting, 1983). According to Camara et al. (1980) and Goetting (1983), results from existing research are conflicting and inconclusive regarding the long-term effects of divorce on children in the areas of cognitive performance, self-esteem, personality structure, sex-role development, dating behavior, and heterosexual interaction. Additional findings from research regarding the effects of divorce on children will be discussed in the experimental studies section.

According to Camara et al. (1980) there is better adjustment of children to divorce if interparental conflict is minimal and if warm close relationships between children and both parents are maintained. Other factors which minimize problems and result in better child adjustment to divorce are: the psychological adjustment of parents, adequate financial resources, children's perceived and actual sense of control concerning the divorce situation agreement between parents on child rearing and discipline, authoritative discipline from the custodial parent, regular visitation by the noncustodial parent, and an emotional climate that facilitates discussing divorce-related concerns with children (Kurdek, 1981; Sprenkle & Cyrus, 1983).

Kurdek (1981) conceptualizes children's adjustment to their parents' divorce as an interaction among the following four components or levels:

a. current beliefs, values, and attitudes surrounding modern family life time macrosystem).

- b. social supports available to reduce stresses associated with single parenting and the stability of the postseparation environment (the exosystem).
- c. the nature of pre and postseparation family functioning and support systems

 available to the child (the microsystem), and
- d. children's individual psychological competencies for dealing with stress (the ontogenic system). (p. 856)

At the macrosystem level, changes in the beliefs, attitudes, and values regarding the American family provide a more supportive idealogical context such that the constructive aspects of divorce can be emphasized. At the exosystem level, a number of support systems can facilitate children's adjustment to divorce — legal services, homemaker services, academic counseling for single parents, postdivorce court counseling, fair custody procedures, realistic levels of financial support for children, enrichment of child care and after school programs, and expansion of counselling services and programs. At the microsystem level, warm intrafamilial relationships facilitate child adjustment. Finally, at the ontogenic system level, intraindividual factors such as age, sex, and temperament are important regarding child adjustment to divorce. Additional findings from research on the adjustment of children to divorce will be discussed in the experimental studies section:

According to Wallerstein (1983), "long-range outcomes for the child of divorce are related to factors within the family following divorce and to the child's mastery of specific threats to development which are conceptualized as six interrelated hierarchical coping tasks" (p. 230). Wallerstein delineates the following psychological tasks that children of divorce must successfully accomplish:

- a. acknowledge the reality of the marital rupture (mastered by the end of the first year after separation).
- b. disengage from parental conflict and distress and resume customary pursuits (accomplished 12-18 months after separation),
- c. resolve the loss (difficult to accomplish and resolution of this task can last many years),

- d. resolve anger and self-blame,
- e. accept the permanence of divorce, and
- f. achieve realistic hope regarding relationships.

Successful resolution of these tasks can result in closure to the divorce experience, independence, and an increased capacity to trust and love.

2. Experimental Studies

The purposes, subjects, instruments, measures, and findings from 44 experimental studies on the effect of divorce on children have been summarized and are presented in Appendix A (pp. 138-181). These studies have been categorized into three separate groups—general effects; cognitive, affective, and behavioral effects; and adjustment of children to separation and divorce. Major findings from each group of studies will be presented in the text.

General Effects of Divorce on Children (pp. 138-153)

First, findings from this set of 16 studies are inconsistent, contradictory and inconclusive. On the one hand, children in divorced families compared with children in intact-families were found to have poorer health (Guidubaldi & Cleminshaw, 1985); to be more disobedient, dependent, aggressive, whining, demanding, and unaffectionate (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978); to be less stimulated (MacKinnon, Brody, & Stonemann, 1982); and to have a more negative attitude toward marriage, divorce, and children of divorce (Paddock-Ellard & Thomas, 1981). On the other hand, results from experimental studies have found no statistical differences between children in divorced and intact families with respect to attitudes toward marriage and family life (Ganong, Coleman, & Brown, 1981) and ego development (Vess, Jr., Schwebel, & Moreland, 1983).

The second major conclusion from this set of studies is that the quality of relationships between family members is very important (Hetherington, Cox; & Cox. 1978; Hodges, Tierney, & Buchsbaum, 1984; Kanoy, Cunningham, White, & Adams,

1984; Luepnitz, 1979; Rosenthal, 1979; Rutter, 1971; Whitehead, 1979).

Other findings from this set of studies are as follows: teachers showed more negative stereotypes toward children of divorce (Santrock & Tracy, 1978), divorced families were less adaptive than intact families (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980a), and younger children "... at the time of marital breakup fared better in the ensuing years than their older siblings, who experienced more difficulty in dealing with troubled memories of family strife" (Wallerstein, 1984, p. 444).

Cognitive, Affective, Behavioral Effects of Divorce (pp. 154-165)

Findings from this set of 12 studies about cognitive, affective, and behavioral effects of divorce on children are inconsistent, contradictory, and inconclusive: Cognitive effects of divorce will be discussed first.

Guidubaldi, Perry, Cleminshaw, and McLaughlin (1983) found that children in grades 1, 3, and 5 from intact families received higher full scale IQ scores, reading and spelling achievement scores, grades in reading and math compared to children from divorced families. The academic achievement differences were diminished when socioeconomic status was statistically controlled. In addition, Hammond (1979) found no significant differences between elementary school children from intact and divorced families on reading and mathematics achievement. Svanum, Bringle, and McLaughlin (1982) found that 6-11 year old children from intact and father absent families displayed significant differences in favor of the intact group on IQ and achievement measures. However, these differences were not found when socioeconomic status was statistically controlled. The research on cognitive effects of divorce is not conclusive but it seems clear that socioeconomic status, is a confounding factor. Confusion in the research literature on the cognitive effects of divorce may be due to the lack of control for socioeconomic status in these studies. Affective effects of divorce will be discussed next.

Regarding self-concept and emotional variables, Parish, Dostal, and Parish (1981) found that boys from divorced families had the lowest self-concepts and girls from intact families had the highest self-concepts of the sample. Parish et al. concluded

that regardless of the intactness of the family, happiness within the family was important to the self-concept of children and that regardless of the happiness within the family, intactness of the family was important to the self-concept of children. Hammond (1977) and Raschke and Raschke (1979) found no significant differences between intact and divorced samples of elementary school children on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-concept Scalar Raschke and Raschke also found that children's self-concept scores were lower for children the reported higher levels of family conflict. On the other hand, Bernard and Nesbitt (1981) found no differences between children 6-12 years old from intact, disrupted (parental conflict), and divorced families on the Children's Emotion Projection Instrument which measures emotional reactions (e.g., anger, aggression, sadness, resignation, acceptance, avoidance, assertion) to common frustrating situations. It is clear that the research is inconclusive regarding the affective effects of divorce on children. A confounding variable in these studies on the emotional effects of divorce on children could be family process or intrafamilial relationships.

The next area to consider from this set of studies is behavioral effects of divorce on children. Guidubaldi, Perry, Cleminshaw, and McLaughlin (1983) found higher social competence scores from Grade 1, 3, 5 children living in intact families compared with children living in divorced families. Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1979) found that pre-school children from divorced families displayed behavior problems during the first year after divorce but these problem behaviors decreased during the second year after divorce. Touliatos and Lindholm (1980) also found more behavior problems in children who experience divorce than those from intact families. On the other hand, Hodges, Weehsler, and Ballantine (1979) and Santrock and Warshak (1979) found few differences of child behavior between divorced children and children from intact families. Once again, findings on the behavioral effects of divorce on children are inconclusive.

The findings from research studies regarding the cognitive, affective, and behavioral effects on children provide inconsistent results. From the studies presented in this section, one can assert that many variables (age, sex, socioeconomic status, time

since the divorce, etc.) interact which would suggest that these variables need to be considered when conducting research in this area. Copeland (1984) points out that gender and age are critical factors in affecting spost-divorce relationships between mothers and children. Another critical factor is time since the divorce. Hetherington (1979b) states that "in the transition period of family disequilibrium and reorganization in the first year following divorce, children's problems may be exacerbated before they begin to decline" (p. 75). The state of research regarding the effects of divorce on children is at a stage where more is known about what variables to control in studies than about conclusive and consistent findings.

Adjustment of Children to Separation and Divorce (pp. 166-181)

The purpose of each of these 16 experimental studies was to determine various factors related to children's divorce adjustment. Two key factors which relate to better adjustment of children are: a. parental harmony (Ellison, 1983; Jacobson, 1978a; Kurdek, Blisk, & Siesky, Jr., 1981; Nelson, 1981; Rosen, 1979) and b. positive relationships between children and custodial and noncustodial parents (Hess & Camara, 1979; Jacobson, 1978b; Kurdek & Siesky, Jr., 1980a; Pett, 1982). These findings emphasize the importance of family process variables.

Other factors that relate to children's divorce adjustment are: finances — there are more problems with a large drop in income (Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney, & Hunt, 1979); sex — boys have more adjustment problems than girls (Hodges & Bloom, 1984; Moore & Hotch, 1982); communication — there is better adjustment if parents give children attention in dealing with the divorce (Jacobson, 1978b); time since the divorce — there is better adjustment with the passage of time (Kurdek et al., 1981; Nelson, 1981); and personal characteristics — there is better adjustment for children with internal locus of control and high levels of interpersonal reasoning, who share their views about divorce with friends, and who accept strengths and responsibilities as a result of the divorce (Kurdek et al., 1981; Kurdek & Siesky, Jr., 1980a).

One inconsistent finding from this set of experimental studies is the age of children at the time of divorce relative to their adjustment to divorce. Kalter and Rembar (1981) found that age was unrelated to overall levels of adjustment but Kurdek et al.

Finally, Kulka and Weingarten (1979) found that divorce has only a modest effect on adult adjustment and Nye (1957) found that children from unhappy—tact families have more adjustment problems than children from divorced families. These last two studies would tend to confirm a normative model of divorce.

3. Conclusions

regarding the effect of divorce on children. First, divorce affects children in different ways depending on a number of mediating variables — social support systems, level of marital conflict, intrafamilial relationships, time since separation, age, sex, personality, etc. Secondly, interparental conflict and the quality of parent-child relationships may have a greater impact on children than the divorce itself. Thirdly, the loss of a parent from the household is likely traumatic for the children, Fourthly, the results of research regarding the effects of divorce on children are inconsistent and inconclusive. Fifthly, adjustment of children to divorce is also dependent on the level of interparental conflict and the quality of intrafamilial relationships. Finally, it would appear, that child problems resulting from divorce can be minimized by focusing on the positive or constructive aspects of divorce and by developing high quality relationships within the positivorce family.

C. One-Parent Families

The focus of this section of the review is on the postdivorce one-parent family and the experience of children living in one-parent families. This section of the review includes descriptive information about one-parent families in order to provide a context for understanding children's experiences with respect to living in one-parent families. The

one-parent family is a legitimate family form and information pertaining to this family form is required in the present study to aid in understanding its complexity, features, and uniqueness. First, general information from reviews on one-parent families will be presented including the following: research knowns and unknowns, types of one-parent families, problems and positive factors, and the experience of custodial and noncustodial fathers. A second topic of discussion will be the experience of children living in one-parent families. Finally, general information and experimental studies on joint custody will conclude the section on one-parent families.

1. General Information on One-Parent Families

Schlesinger (1979) has examined the literature on one-parent families in English-speaking industrialized courties (i.e., Australia, Canada, Great Britain, New Zealand, and the United States). Various knowns and unknowns from Schlesinger's literature review are as follows:

- a. one-parent families are on the increase due to easier divorce laws,
- b. social class, ethnicity, religious background, and racial background are related to the incidence of one-parent families,
- c. most of the research has focused on fatherless families and only in the late 1970's have motherless families been studied.
- d. little is known about children in one-parent families,
- e. little is known about the effect self-help groups have on their mambers,
- f. research on various treatment approaches to one-parent families is sorely needed.
- g. there is currently little research on the positive adjustment of one-parent families and
- h. little research evidence exists with respect to the progression of one-parent families into new family patterns.

From the list-presented above, it is clear that currently more research is required on one-parent families. Schlesinger states that "... it is time to pay more attention to this

alternate and frequently viable form of family life" (p. 44).

The one-parent family is not a homogenous group (Mendes, 1979; Thompson, Jr. & Gongla, 1983). According to Thompson, Jr. and Gongla (1983) there are a wide variety of types of one-parent families. It is important to be aware of the variety and heterogeneity of one-parent families in conducting research studies on this family form. However, it is also unlikely that the heterogenious factors can all be controlled in a single research study. A combination of the following variables could lead to a multiplicity of one-parent family types: single father or single mother; age of parent; path along which the family evolved—divorce, death, unmarried; extent of the involvement of noncustodial parents; level of functioning; patterns of interaction; subjective well-being; and socioeconomic status.

Mendes (1979) offers the following classification of five life-styles which can be adopted by one-parent families:

- a. sole executive the single parent is the only figure actively involved in the lives of the children.
- b. auxiliary parent the single-parent shares one or more parental responsibilities with an auxiliary parent who does not live with the family (e.g., the other biological parent).
- c. unrelated substitute the single parent shares one or more parental functions with a person who is not related to the family (e.g., housekeeper, friend, lover),
- d. related substitute a blood or legal relative assumes a parental role (e.g., grandparent, aunt, uncle, cousin, sibling), and
- e. titular parent the single parent lives with the children but has, in effect, abdicated the parental role (e.g., an alcoholic, drug addict, infantile, or psychotic parent).

 According to Thompson, Jr. and Gongla, "... single-parent family systems are not inherently disorganized nor necessarily detrimental to individual members. Rather, they simply differ in structure and organization" (p. 109).

Weltner (1982) identifies four major structural <u>problems</u> of one-parent families: emotional and physical demand on single parents, lack of validation from another adult in the

house, reduction of generational boundaries between parents and children, and an increase of enmeshment in the system. In addition, a structural problem which can increase stress for the single parent is role change regarding childrearing, coparenting, household management, nurturing, and sex-role modeling (Hogan, Buehler, & Robinson, 1983).

McLanahan (1983) conducted a longitudinal study using survey data to compare stress levels of one- and two-parent households. McLanahan found that female headship was positively related to stress, that is, chronic stress in the form of low income and low levels of social support, acute stress in the form of major life events, and stress in the form of negative self-images and negative views about the future. However, it was also found that most of the difference between the two-parent and female-headed households was due to the, high incidence of major life events among recently districted households.

Schlesinger (1981) identifies the following positive aspects of one parent families: more time for the children, more peace and less strain in the home, no contradiction in raising the children, more opportunity to undertake new ventures (e.g., education, vocational, or practical training), more opportunity to develop new friendships, more opportunity to join self-help groups and to participate in communal activities, and closer familial ties with the extended family. These positive aspects primarily provide benefits for the custodial parent; however, they also have positive implications for children. Children are members of the family system and, presumably, positive features which directly impact one subsystem will spill over to other subsystems.

There has been an increase of interest in fathers with custody but, at the same time, there is a tack of research on the male-headed family (Katz, 1979), According to Katz (1979), existing research studies in this area "suggest that the fathers are doing a relatively good job in raising their children by themselves" (p. 253). Katz contends that lone fathers may have unique and poorly understood needs. Defrain and Eirick (1981) conducted a study which compared 33 divorced single-parent fathers with 38 divorced single-parent mothers. They found almost no statistically significant differences between the two groups on a large number of measures (e.g., feelings as a single parent, childrening issues, children's feelings

and behaviors, relations with the ex-spouse; and forming new social relationships).

Additional studies report various findings regarding custodial fathers. Keshet and Rosenthal (1980) report on a study of 49 separated or divorced single parent fathers. Keshet and Rosenthal's "... analysis showed that being a single parent required a major shift in lifestyle and priorities for most men" (p. 188). On the basis of two studies conducted by other researchers in 1976, Camara, Baker, and Dayton (1980) point out that fathers with custody of children report difficulties in supervision and protection of children, homemaking, understanding and meeting the embasonal feeds of the children, and rearing daughters (p. 114). Schlesinger (1980) reports on research conducted in Australia, Britain, Canada, and the United States regarding single parent fathers. Schlesinger notes that social class played a large part in the lives of the fathers, that it was difficult for the fathers to obtain child care help, that parenting interfered with the social life of the fathers, that most fathers had little preparation for parenting and homemaking, that stress and strain showed up in personal problems, and that there was little communal support for fathers with custody of the children. Problems that custodial fathers experience could have implications for their children.

Research has also been conducted on the <u>noncustodial father</u> in the postdivorce family but, at the same time, Dominic and Schlesinger (1980) state that "the family literature pays little attention to part-time fathers" (p. 241). Dominic and Schlesinger found that fathers who lost custody disputes in court had not accepted the court's decision, but that fathers who settled the custody of their children outside of court accepted their roles as part-time fathers. They also found that fathers perceived the mothers to have a great deal of power and that fathers generally looked forward to visits with their children.

Wallerstein and Kelly (1980b) and Koch and Lowery (19184) report on factors that influence the relationship between noncustodial fathers and their children. According to Wallerstein and Kelly (1980b), the predivorce relationship between father and child is not reliable predictor of the postdivorce father child relationship. Rather, "the visiting relationship that successfully outlived the marriage reflected not only the relationship of the predivorce family or the father's and child's motivation to maintain their relationship but the

psychological capacity of fathers, mothers, and children to adapt flexibly to the new conditions of the visiting reminionship" (p. 1538). Koch and Lowery (1984) interviewed 30 noneustodial fathers and found that a deciding factor predicting the divorced father's continued relationships with his children was the coparental relationship. They found that men who reported a satisfactory relationship with their former spouse were also more likely to have positive and enjoyable relationships with their children.

Noncustodial fathers having infrequent contact with their children appear more depressed, more dissatisfied with their children, and more stressed regarding role loss (Ahrons, 1980; Koch & Lowery, 1984). Not only does the noncustodial father benefit from frequent contact with their children but the children and mothers also benefit (Ahrons, 1980; Koch & Lowery, 1984). Case studies conducted by Friedman (1980) indicated that "... there can be positive changes in parental bonds as a result of increased opportunities to relate to children in a conflict-free atmosphere. In such a setting, the father's nurturing experience provides him with a new perspective on parenting" (p. 1177). Therefore, parenting experiences of noncustodial fathers can improve after the divorce.

2. The Experience of Children in One-Parent Families

General Reviews

Research regarding the experience of children living in one-parent families is inconclusive at this time. Blechman (1982) states, "is the child reared by one parent at risk for psychological maladjustment? Four decades of research have not provided conclusive information" (p. 179). Bilge and Kaufman conducted an extensive review of one-parent families using cross-cultural data. According to Bilge and Kaufman (1983), "it is not family form but the support system and the methods of socialization that have the greater impact on children" (p. 69).

Perhaps, as in other areas reviewed in the present study, sociodemographic and descriptive variables need more rigorous control tudies of children living in one-parent families. Wodarski (1982) suggests that the following variables appear critical in assessing

the impact of living in one-parent families on childen – age and sex of the child, length of time of marital discord, incidence of physical violence, number of siblings in the family, and the child's perception of the divorce process.

What then has been found from general reviews of the literature on the experience of children living in one-parent families? Cashion (1982) reviewed the social psychological research pertaining to female-headed families published between 1970 and 1980. Findings from Cashion's review are as follows:

The literature indicates that theoretically children do not need the presence of the same-sex/opposite-sex parents in the family in order to develop sex-role behavior. Children in female-headed families are likely to have good emotional adjustment, good self-esteem except when they are stigmatized, intellectual development comparable to others in the same socioeconomic status, and rates of juvenile delinquency comparable to others in the same socioeconomic status.

Beal (1980) reports the following findings from research on children in one-parent families:

(p. 77)

- a. children reared in conflict-laden intact families may be more poorly adjusted than children in well-functioning one-parent homes,
- b. children in one-parent families show decreased functioning on cognitive
- c. a critical variable regarding intellectual functioning of children is the husband-wife relationship.

Due to the importance of cognitive development in children and to the apparent inconsistencies regarding the cognitive development of children living in one-parent families, this aspect of child functioning requires a closer look. Shinn (1978) has reviewed the literature on father absence and children's cognitive development. Shinn states, "the evidence suggests that financial hardship, high levels of anxiety, and, in particular, low levels of parent-child interaction are important causes of poor performance among

children in single parent families" (p. 295).

Hetherington, Camara, and Featherman (1983) also reviewed the literature and research on the relationship between one-parent rearing and the intellectual functioning of children. In spite of the contradictory and inconsistent state of accumulated research on the effects of one-parent rearing on children's achievement and intellectual functioning, Hetherington, Camara, and Featherman (1983) make three major conclusions:

- a. Differences between groups of one-parent and two-parent children on tests of intelligence and aptitude are usually small and decrease when socioeconomic status is taken into account.
- b. An overwhelming number of studies have reported lower grade-point averages and teacher-assigned grades for children in one-parent homes compared with those in two-parent homes.
- c. The intellectual and social development of males may be seen as more adversely affected by living in one-parent homes than that of females from similar family circumstances. (pp. 269-272)

Hetherington, Camara, and Featherman (1983) also point out that the following dimensions vary with the effects of one-parent rearing: reason for one-parent household status, duration of one-parent rearing, the age of the child, influences of parent surrogates, presence of siblings, socioeconomic status, and the ethnic background of the family (p. 251). It seems obvious that high-quality research with well-controlled mediating influences is required in this area.

Experimental Studies

Many of the experimental studies presented in the section on the effect of divorce on children are also relevent here because in many of the studies children of divorce are the same children who live or have lived in a one-parent family. Ten additional experimental studies regarding the effect on children living in one-parent families are summarized and presented in Appendix A, pp. 182-191, Salient findings and highlights

from these studies are as follows:

- a. custodial fathers reported better child behaviors than custodial mothers and children of custodial fathers verbalized appreciation more frequently than children of custodial mothers (Ambert, 1982);
- b. family equilibrium contributed to the functioning of children such that families with a mild degree of child focus contained stress between the parents; whereas families with a severe degree of child focus turned stress on children who, as a result, adapted poorly (Beal, 1979);
- c. factors accounting for frequent contact between children and the noncustodial parent were the provision of child support, residential propinquity, and length of time since separation (Furstenberg, Nord, Peterson, & Zill, 1983);
- d. in comparison with children from two-parent families, children from one-parent families were more androgynous high masculinity, high femininity (Kurdek & Siesky, Jr., 1980b);
- e. regarding cognitive development, children from one-parent homes entered school with less social and academic competence than children from intact families (Guidubaldi & Perry, 1984), two-parent children received higher grades than one-parent children (Zakariya, 1982), children in recently disrupted single-mother families had greater problems in some but not all areas of school achievement and performance than children in early disrupted single-mother families or children in never disrupted two-parent families (Kinard & Reinherz, 1986), and an adequate social support system may mediate the effects of one-parent status on children's academic performance (Roy & Fuqua, 1983):
- f. children in one-parent families were resilient in that the hurt from the separation diminished over time (Schlesinger, 1982), and
- g. children in one-parent families were more likely to show early maturity (Weiss, 1979).

More detailed information on the purposes, subjects, instruments, measures, and findings

from these studies is presented in Appendix A.

Conclusions

On the basis of the general reviews and experimental studies regarding the effects on children living in one-parent families, it can be concluded that family form may be less important than family process (intrafamilial relationships), that there are contradictory findings related to cognitive performance, and that socioeconomic status is probably an important variable to control for in these studies.

3. Joint Custody

The rationale for presenting a section on joint custody is that custody arrangements affect both children and adults in postdivorce families and that joint custody is a relatively recent solution to various problems associated with child custody decisions. Information from general reviews of the literature and experimental studies on joint custody arrangements is summarized in the paragraphs to follow.

General Reviews

- Joint custody allows both the mother and the father to share equally the rights and responsibilities of childrearing following divorce (Nehls & Morgenbesser, 1980).

 Benedek and Benedek (1979) suggest that joint custody is an aggregate of the following characteristics:
 - a. both parents assume equal responsibility for the physical, motional, and moral development of the child;
 - b. the parents share rights and responsibilities for making decisions that directly affect the child; and
 - c. the child lives with each parent a substantial amount of time.

According to Clingempeel and Reppucci (1982), there are three major differences between legally designated joint and one-parent custody:

a. joint custody distributes the frequency of interaction more evenly between the

child and each parent,

- b. joint custody increases the frequency of interaction between divorced parents,
- c. joint custody results in more frequent alternations in primary caregivers and in
- * caregiving environments with concomitant increases in separations from one parent and reunions with another.

The following is a compilation of benefits and risks or negative features of joint custody (Benedek & Benedek, 1979; Clingempeel & Reppucci, 1982; Derdeyn & Scott, 1984; Nehls & Morgenbesser, 1980):

- a. Benefits both parents remain active, provides role models of both parents, avoids a custody battle, alleviates the burden of single parenthood, conveys the message that both parents love and want the child, and reduces a sense of loss on the part of children and noncustodial parents after the divorce.
- b. Negative features pragmatic problems associated with moving between two homes (e.g., peer contact, school continuity); may render emotional divorce more difficult; cooperation is essential; and it subjects the child to inconsistent rules, regulations, methods of discipline, and styles of parenting.

Joint custody probably works best if both the parents and the children prefer it; if parents are committed to the arrangement and can cooperate, and if the parents live close to each other (Benedek & Benedek, 1979).

Experimental Studies, (Appendix A, pp. 192-198)

presented in Appendix A. The purpose of presenting results from these studies is to offer a general orientation for the type of research being conducted on joint custody arrangements, to show various factors which influence the success or lack of success of joint custody arrangements, and to determine the efficacy of joint custody arrangements.

Salient findings from these six studies are as follows:

a. four factors which contributed to the success of joint custody arrangements were

commitment, mutual support, flexible sharing of responsibility, and agreement on the implicit rules of the system (Abarbanel, 1979).

- b. joint custody fathers were found to be more involved than noncustodial fathers in parenting after the divorce (Bowman & Alfrons, 1985).
- c. joint custody had more advantages and fewer disadvantages than either maternal or paternal custody (Luepnitz, 1982),
- d. parents felt that the joint custody arrangement was a positive one (Rothberg, 1983).
- e. children valued the joint custody arrangement because it gave them access to both parents but they did not like the inconvenience of moving back and forth between two homes (Steinman, 1981), and
- f. children asserted that their best interests, were served when they could spendapproximately equal periods of time with each parent (Watson, 1981).

From the information presented on joint custody it would appear that the arrangement shows promise for the future

D. Remarried Families

The purpose of the present section is to review information on general features of the remarried family and then to focus on the experience of children living in the remarried family. This section of the review includes descriptive information about remarried families in order to provide a context for understanding children's experiences with respect to living in remarried families. The remarried family is a legitimate family form and information pertaining to this family form is required in the present study to aid in understanding its complexity, unique features, problems, strengths, and tasks. The following areas will be covered in the section on general features of the remarried family: diversity of remarried family forms, unique characteristics of remarried families, differences between remarried and nuclear families, problems and benefits, and tasks of remarried families. The section on the effects on children living in remarried families will present findings from general reviews and

specific experimental studies

1. General Features of the Remarried Family

There is no single form or type of remarried family. Rather there is a diversity of forms of the remarried family (Chilman, 1983; Esses & Campbell, 1984; Schlesinger, 1978). Not considering children, Schlesinger indicates that there are eight different types of remarriages: a divorced man may marry a single or widowed woman (2 types); a divorced woman may marry a single or widowed man (2 types); a single man may marry a widowed woman or a fingle woman may marry a widowed man (2 types); or widowed man may marry a widowed woman or a divorced man may marry a divorced woman (2 types). If children are included, the variations increase considerably (Chilman, 1983). For example, the wife, husband or both may have one or more biological children by the former spouse either with or without custody. In addition, children also may be a product of the remarriage. To be sure, there is a multiplicity of types of remarried families and, as a result, it is difficult to conceptualize remarried family functioning. Of course, it is unlikely that all types of remarried families can be accounted for in doing research on this family formabut it is also important for researchers to know about the variety of remarried families in interpreting their results. According to Esses and Campbell (1984) . . . stepfamily researchers need to be aware that contemporary models of family functioning may not fully apply to remarried families" (p. 417).

In spite of variability there are, however, certain unique characteristics common to remarried families. A compilation of these common characteristics identified by Johnson (1980) and Visher and Visher (1982) is as follows:

- a. complexity there are multifaceted relationships involving a variety of people whose roles are in flux;
- b. variability regarding children (e.g., age, degree of attachment and involvement with noncustodial parent, number of siblings and stepsiblings), regarding the biological parent (e.g., emotional investment with children, level of stress,

relationships with ex-spouse, expectations); and regarding the stepparent (e.g., experience with children, need to assume parenting role, willingness to share spouse with children, relationship with own children);

- c. unclear expectations there is a lack of societal prescriptions;
- d. loss and gains it is a family born of loss (spouse and parent) but there are gains (stepparent and new spouse) as well;
- e. all members come with tribal rites learned in former households;
- f. Sparent-child relationships predate the marital relationship: -
- g. there is a biological parent elsewhere;
- h. children are usually members of two households; and
- i. there is little or no legal relationship between stepparents and stepchildren.

As will be discussed, some of these characteristics can lead to problems or difficulties in the remarried family.

The remarried family is seen as a <u>different family form</u> compared to the nuclear family (Duberman, 1975; Goetting, 1982; Keshet, 1980; Prosen & Farmer, 1982; Sager, Brown, Crohn, Engel, Rodstein, & Walker, 1983; Visher & Visher, 1979; Walker & Messinger, 1979). These researchers indicate that the traditional nuclear family model cannot be appropriately applied to the remarried family. Goetting (1982) states:

Some of the most important differences between a first marriage and a remarriage are based on the ties each partner has to the previous marriage through children, through financial and custodial settlement, through the family and friends of the former spouse, and through continued commitment and/or attachment to the former spouse. (p. 213)

Prosen and Farmer (1982) and Sager et al. (1983) present the following structural differences between remarried and nuclear families:

- a. marital and parental tasks are not confined to the marital dyad in remarried families whereas these tasks are confined to the marital dyad in nuclear families.
- b. the parent-child unit predates the marital pair in remarried families whereas the

marital pair predates the parental pair in nuclear families,

- c. members belong to more than one family system in remarried families whereas members belong to one family system in nuclear families,
- d. the remarried family system is more open regarding inclusion of members than nuclear families, and
- e. legal ties are asymmetrical in remarried families whereas the husband and wife have symmetrical legal ties to their children in nuclear families.

Finally, boundaries between various subsystems are more permeable and roles are make ambiguous in remarried families than in nuclear families (Sager et al., 1983; Walker & Messinger, 1979).

The literature indicates that the remarried family can experience unique problems. A problem identified by Goldstein (1974), McGoldrick and Carter (1980), and Ransom, Schlesinger, and Derdeyn (1979) is that of pseudomutuality — hostile feelings are denied because the remarried couple are afraid that the second marriage could go the way of the first. There are also risks and stress associated with the fear of failure and pain from the first marriage (Garfield, 1980). In addition, there are specific problems of stepfathers cited in the clinical literature — uncertainty about authority, amount of affection to give to stepchildren discipline, money conflicts, loyalty conflicts, guilt over leaving children from a prior marriage, and sexual conflicts (Robinson, 1984).

As has been pointed out previously, remarried families are different from nuclear families. Unfortunately, there are no clear, well-developed models for the remarried family (Garfield, 1980). Also, step relationships are new and untested (Visher & Visher, 1979). According to Jones (1978), the societal mores, attitudes, and services are out of touch with new modes of family structures. Kompara (1980) asks the following relevant question: Where does one acquire the social learning skills of stepparenting? Other problems that can occur in remarried families are:

- a. stepparents can be frozen out of their function discipline and/or nurturance,
- b. after remarriage the child of the single parent is displaced somewhat by the new

parent, and

c. the incest taboo is lowered in remarried families and frequently masked by pseudohostility (Goldstein, 1974).

On the other hand, remarried families provide various positive seatures or benefits for both parents and children. A successful remarried samily provides exposure to a wide variety of life styles, opinions, seelings, and enriching relationships (Crohn, Sager, Brown, Rodstein, & Walker, 1982). Keshet (1980) identifies the following benefits of remarried samilies: remarriage puts an end to fantasies of reconciliation, children have less responsibility for the single parent's emotional well-being, the new spouse can be a friend to the children, and the couple can grow in the stepsamily system which enhances individual autonomy and differentiation. Johnson (1980) suggests that potential benefits of the remarried samily include the following:

- a. relief from the constant physical and emotional burdens of child care,
- b. children can often form relationships of friendship and solidarity with stepsiblings on the basis of common shared experiences.
- c. children who have been raised in an atmosphere of strife prior to a divorce frequently have the opportunity to see a parent and stepparent live harmoniously.
- d. parents who are emotionally satisfied have more to give their children than parents who are lonely or frustrated from being single, and
- e. children may expand their circle of friendly, interested adults by acquiring new relatives such as stepgrandparents.

Unfortunately, "currently we know very little about the positive coping mechanisms used by stepfamily members and factors associated with stepfamily success" (Esses & Campbell, 1984, p. 417).

The final topic of this section on general features of remarried families is the developmental tasks that remarried families typically must complete (Kleinman, Rosenberg, & Whiteside, 1979; Lewis, 1985; Ransom et al., 1979; Visher & Visher, 1983). Ransom et al. (1979) conceptualize the stepfamily as going through three stages: recovery from loss,

planning the new marriage, and reconstitution of the family. Associated with each stage or phase are a variety of tasks:

- Phase 1: Recovery —mourn the loss of the predivorce family.
- Phase 2: Remarriage —deal with fear of repeating same mistakes of the first marriage, invest emotional gratification in the new family members, resolve the loss of the first partner and the former family system.
- Phase 3: Reconstitution restructure parenting roles of discipline and nurturance, delineate a relationship with the divorced biological parent.

A similar conceptualization is provided by Kleinman et al. (1979). According to Lewis (1985), the husband and wife need to resolve the previous stages of conflict, separation, divorce, and one-parent family prior to the remarriage; and the entire family must restructure boundaries, realign relationships, make room for relationships outside of the remarried family, share history, build new history, and establish rules. Visher and Visher (1983) suggest that accomplishment of the following tasks can reduce stress in the remarried family: have realistic expectations, develop new relationships within the family, understand children's emotions, maintain a courteous relationship with the ex-spouse, and seek social support where it exists.

2. The Experience of Children Living in Remarried Families

General Reviews

The state of research on stepfather families is inconsistent with some studies suggesting positive outcomes and others suggesting negative outcomes for family members on a wide variety of variables (Robinson, 1984). Ganog and Coleman (1984) reviewed the empirical literature (38 studies) on the effects of remarriage on children and found conflicting results regarding psychological development but they found no statistically significant differences between stepchildren and other children with respect to cognitive and social development. Ganog and Coleman conclude that "in general, there is little reported evidence that children in stepfamilies differ significantly from children in other

family structures" (p. 401). Bachrach (1983) and Walters and Walters (1980) reached the same conclusion on the basis of extensive reviews. Also, Jones (1978) concludes that, "over the long run, children are better off when an unsuccessful marriage ends and is replaced by one that is more successful" (p. 226).

A number of factors in the research literature have been found regarding successful adjustment of children to remarried families (Crohn, Sager, Rodstein, Brown, Walker, & Beir, 1981; McGoldrick & Carter, 1980) — physical health; age (not too young, not too old); working through the loss, optimal time between divorce and remarriage (1-3 years); positive relationship between ex-spouses, positive relationship between the child and both step and biological parents; realistic expectations and congruent contracts; cultural, religious, and socioeconomic factors are respected both within and between the families; approval of extended families; and a minimization of change in residence, school, and peer group.

Finally, the following recommendations about children and remarried families presented by Chilman (1983) were derived from clinical practice:

- a. The stepparent needs to discuss concepts of family rules and discipline with the biological parent who is the leader with respect to these issues, a position that is legitimized by both customiand law.
- b. In general, the marital pair needs to discuss various family matters with the children, including discipline.
- c. Reduce shifts in the physical environment.
- d. Maintain a close positive relationship within the marital dyad which generally reduces conflicts between stepsiblings and between stepparents and stepchildren.

 These recommendations are preventative and some of them are general in that they apply to families of all forms.

Experimental Studies dix A, pp. 199-207)

The purpose, subjects, instruments, measures, and findings from nine experimental studies on the experience of children living in the remarket family are

summarized and presented in Appendix A. Prior to discussing results from this set of research studies, two points need to be made. First, research on remarried families is relatively recent compared with research regarding the effects of divorce on children or the experience of living in one-parent families. Therefore, it seems reasonable that less is known about various aspects of children (e.g., cognitive, affective, behavioral) from remarried families. Secondly, of the research already conducted, there is an inconsistency between findings from experimental and clinical studies (Ganong & Coleman, 1986). Ganong and Coleman reviewed 114 studies to compare clinical (applied) with experimental studies on children in stepfamilies. They found that "the research literature, for the most part, did not report significant differences between stepchildren and children from other family structures on such variables as cognitive performance, psychosomatic complaints, personality characteristics, social behavior, family relationships, and social attitudes. The clinical literature, on the other hand, generally reported that stepchildren and their families are inherently upset by problems and difficulties. (p. 314).

Findings from the nine studies presented in Appendix A are inconsistent. These studies are primarily experimental and nonclinical studies. Perkins and Kahan (1979) found the remarried family to function less well than the intact family. In addition, Halperin (1983) found that stepchildren perceived their fathers less positively than children from intact families perceived their fathers. It is instructive to point out that the subjects selected for these two studies were between the ages of 10 and 15 years old. On the other hand, three of the experimental studies found no differences between remarried and intact families on the following variables: attitude toward marriage and divorce (Coleman & Ganong, 1984), social behavior (Santrock, Warshak, Lindberg, & Meadows, 1982), and social and social psychological characteristics (Wilson, Zurcher, McAdams, & Curtis, 1975).

According to Santrock et al. (1982), parenting behavior, the sex of the child, and marital conflict are better explanations of children's social behavior than family form

(intact, remarried). Regarding parent-child relationships within the remarried family. Crosbie-Burnett (1984) found that a positive relationship between the stepfather and the children had a greater effect on family happiness than the quality of the marital relationship. Also, Clingempeel, Brand and Ievoli (1984) found that stepparent-stepdaughter relationships were more problematic than stepparent-stepson relationships.

Finally, regarding stress, Lutz (1983) found that divided loyalty and discipline were the most stressful events perceived by children and social attitudes and being a member of two households were perceived as being least stressful. Strother and Jacobs (1984) found that discipline was the most stressful and social issues were the least stressful factors for children in remarried families.

Conclusions

Three conclusions can be reached on the basis of findings from the experimental research studies presented in this section of the review. First, the research is inconsistent and inconclusive but the weight of the evidence lies in favor of the conclusion that children are at no more risk for problems in the remarried family than in the intact family. Secondly, it seems that intrafamilial relationships are more important than family form regarding children's adjustment. Thirdly, it appears that discipline is most stressful and social factors are least stressful for children in remarried families.

E. Summary and Critique

The review of the literature and research was organized in a sequential manner to progress from the discordant intact family to the remarried family—a sequence which could match the experience of many children. The major emphasis of the review was on children's experience of divorce and their experience of various family the true (intact, one-parent, remarried). The purpose of the present section is to highlight various themes from the review and to provide a critique of the existing literature and research on the relationship between children's functioning and family transitions.

Two major statements about children's functioning and family transitions can be gleaned from the existing literature. First, family transitions (i.e., divorce and remarriage) influence children's functioning in different ways depending on a number of mediating variables — age, sex, degree of marital conflict, parent-child relationships, etc. Another summary statement about the review is that family process variables (intrafamilial interactions) may be more important to children's functioning than the form of the family in which children live. Regardless of the family form in which children live, it appears that relationships within the family influence children's functioning in cognitive, affective, and behavioral areas. Many researchers suggest that a significant positive relationship exists between family process and children's functioning. Although the major focus of the present study is on family form, it is important to realize the key role of process variables in the layer of family members.

The reporting of inconsistent findings regarding the relationship between family transitions and children's functioning was a consistent theme throughout the review. One might speculate why there is so much inconsistency in the existing body of literature and gresearch on the relationship between family transitions and children's functioning. There appear to be three sources of inconsistency among the research studies. Find results of research from clinical studies and nonclinical studies could show differences. Typically and reasonably, clinical studies find more problems in family functioning than nonclinical studies A second source of inconsistency may be the failure to control for important intervening or mediating variables. Two confounding variables that require methodological control are IQ and socioeconomic status. A final source of inconcistency may be a function of the measurements used in the studies on family transitions. That is, different results might be found depending on whether one measures internal child variables (e.g., self esteem, child perceptions and attitudes) or external measures of children (e.g., behavior ratings of teachers or parents, school grades, observation scales). In summary, these possible sources of inconsistency among research studies on family transitions might explain the inconclusive state of research at the present time. As will be seen, these sources of inconsistency will be accounted for in the present study.

F. Hypotheses

On the basis of the existing literature and research reported in the present review, eight hypotheses can be made regarding the relationship between marital discord, one-parent family living, remarried family living and various aspects of child functioning. These hypotheses are as follows:

- 1. Children living in intact, one parent, and remarried families will obtain similar scores on the following variables: School Report Grades (SRG), Self Esteem (SE), Family Assessment Measure (FAM), Family Satisfaction Scale (FS), Health Resources Inventory Teacher (HRIT), Health Resources Inventory Parent (HRIP).
- 2. Children living in intact, one-parent, and remarried families will form a unitary group rather than three distinct groups on the basis of scores on School Report Grades, Self Esteem, Family Assessment Measure, Family Satisfaction, Health Resources Inventory Teacher, and Health Resources Inventory Parent.
- 3. Children living in mother, father, and joint custody arrangements will obtain similar scores on School Report Grades. Self Esteem, Family Assessment Measure, Family Satisfaction, Health Resources Inventory Teacher, and Health Resources Inventory Parent.
- 4. There will be a direct relationship between the number of years in the new family and scores on School Report Grades, Self Esteem, Family Assessment Measure, Family Satisfaction, Health Resources Inventory Teacher, and Health Resources Inventory Parent of children living in one-parent and remarried families.
- 5. There will be a direct relationship between satisfaction with custody arrangements and scores on School Report Grades, Self Esteem, Family Assessment Measure, Family Satisfaction, Health Resources Inventory Teacher, and Health Resources Inventory Parent of children living in one-parent and remarried families.
- 6. There will be a direct relationship between satisfaction with access arrangements and

- scores on School Report Grades, Self Esteem, Family Assessment Measure, Family Satisfaction, Health Resources Inventory Teacher, and Health Resources Inventory Parent of children living in one-parent and remarried families.
- 7. There will be a direct relationship between the number of days per year children visit with the noncustodial parent and scores on School Report Grades, Self Esteem, Family Assessment Measure, Family Satisfaction, Health Resources Inventory Teacher, and Health Resources Inventory Parent of children living in one-parent and remarried families.
- Report Grades, Self Esteem, Ramily Assessment Measure, Family Satisfaction, Health Resources Inventory Teacher, and Health Resources Inventory Parent of children living in intact and remarried families.

The dependent variables as operationally defined in Chapter I will be obtained as follows:

- 1. School Report Grades (teacher assigned grades in Language Arts, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science).
- 2. Self-Esteem (Culture-Free Self Esteem Inventory, Form B).
- 3. Child perception of family process (Family Assessment Measure).
- 4. Child satisfaction with the family (Family Satisfaction Scale).
- 5. Teacher perception of child behavior (Health Resources Inventory).
- 6. Parent perception of child behavior (Health Resources Inventory).

The independent variables of the study will be obtained as follows:

- 1. Family Form and Custody Arrangement (Background Information Porm)
- 2. Time in the New Family and Days Per Year Visit with the Moncustodial (Background Information Form).
- 3. Cuild Satisfaction with Custody and Access Arrangements (Family Satisfaction Scale).
- 4 Marital Adjustment (Short-Marital Adjustment Test on the Background Information Form).

The next chapter will present the method and design of the research stud

III. Method and Design

The purpose of the present chapter is to report on how the research study was conducted. Accordingly, the chapter is divided into the following four sections: A. Sample, B. Instruments, C. Procedure, and D. Statistical Analysis. The study was conducted during the 1985-86 school year in amonton, Alberta.

A. Sample

The pepulation from which the sample was selected consisted of all Grade 6 and Grade 9 children including their teachers and parents from middle socioeconomic status neighborhoods in Edmonton, Alberta. The rationale for selecting the sample from middle socioeconomic status neighborhoods was to control, a priori, for possible confounding effects of socioeconomic status attributes—income, occupation, and education. In addition, Group IQ scores were collected to detect and to control for possible confounding effects of ability across the three family forms. The rationale for selecting students from Grade 6 and Grade 9 was:

- a. the group ability tests are routinely administered to students in Grade 6 and Grade 9 from Edmonton Public Schools.
- b. students in Grade 6 and Grade 9 are able to understant and respond to the questionnaire items and
- these two age groups include pre-adolescent and adolescent children for which family transition is an important issue (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980a).
- Finally, Edmonton, Alberta was selected for reasons of convenience, Also, in 1983 Alberta, had the second highest divorce rate in Canada (Statistics Canada, 1985).

The original sample consisted of 214 students and their parents and teachers from 3. Edmonton Catholic and 10 Edmonton Public Schools. Schools were selected on the following basis:

- a. each school was located in the Edmonton Metropolitan Census Tract.
- b. each school was located in a middle socioeconomic status neighborhood based on the \$26,000 to \$35,000 range of average family income, and
- c. principals had to give permission for the participation of their schools in the study.
- total of 18 schools were initially contacted but the principals of 5 of these schools refused to participate in the study. Parents also had to agree to participate in the study and they had to give permission for their children to participate in the study.

Parents of all Grade 6 and Grade 9 students in the 13 Edmonton schools were requested to participate in the study (N=950). Of the original 950 parents, 424 (45%) responded to the request and 214 (23%) agreed to participate in the study. Therefore, 50% of the parents who responded actually participated in the study. Two students were dropped from the analysis because one was living with a brother as guardian and the other was living in a one-parent family due to the death of the father. As a result, the final sample of one-parent and remarried families consisted entirely of children who had experienced divorce. The grade, sex, and family form of the 212 students in the final sample are presented in Table

Table 1

Grade and Sex by Family Form of the Sample

	Intact	One-Parent	Remarried		
	n=136	n=42	n=34		
Grade 6	- 69	21.	9		
Grade 9	67,	21	25		
Male Female	60 76	27. 15	17 17		

The sample was quite balanced regarding grade and sex with 47% (n=99) in Grade 6 and 53% (n=113) in Grade 9 and with 49% (n=104) male and 51% (n=108) female. The average number of siblings of the children involved in the study was 1.5 with 12% of the children having 0 siblings, 48% having 1 sibling, 25% having 2 siblings, and 16% having 3 or more siblings.

Student scores of the Canadian Cognitive Abilities Test and the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test were collected to determine if the children differed on IQ across family form. The Canadian Cognitive Abilities Test (Thorndike, Hagen, & Wright, 1982) is a group IQ test consisting of verbal, quantitative, and nonverbal subtests. It is routinely administered to ents in Grades 3, 6, and 9 by classroom teachers in Edmonton Public Schools. The Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test (Lorge, Thorndike, Hagen, & Wright 1967) is a group IQ test consisting of verbal and nonverbal subtests. It is routinely administered to students in Grades 4 and 8 by classroom teachers in Edmonton Catholic Schools. The results of the group IQ tests are presented in Table 2.



		Verbal			Nonverbal		
Family Form Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	M	Std. Dev.	n	
Can	adian Cogniti	ve Abilities	Test	1 >			
• •					*		
Intact	108.5	15.94	103	110.3	17.27	101	
One-Parent	105.3	15.18	31	a105.7°	14.14	32	
Remarried	106.2	12.19	28	113.0	13.56	27	
Lon	ge-Thorndike	Intelligence	Test				
Intact	109.1	14.57	26	116.3	12.73	26	
One-Parent	113.6	9.00	. 7	119.6	17.55	7	
Remarried	117.0	10.58	3	126.0	13,45		
					•	٠ .	

The one-way analysis of variance procedure was computed for family form. It revealed no significant differences between the intact, one-parent, and remarried family groups at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the groups are thought to be similar with respect to IQ.

B. Instruments and Measures

A description of the 6 instruments and measures used for study is as follows:

- 1. School Report Grades. The academic report includes grades in language arts, mathematics, social studies, and science for all students in the District. Scores on a 100 point scale were converted for the present study to a 1 (low) to 5 (high) rating on the basis of the EPS Standard grid 0 to 39=1, 40 to 49=2, 50 to 64=3, 65 to 79=4, 80 to 100=5.
- 2. Culture-Free Self Esteem Inventory, Form B (Battle, 1981). The SEI contains 30 items, 5 of which comprise the lie scale. The instrument without the lie scale contains 25 items intended to measure an individual's perception in four areas: general self, social, school, and parents. The items are divided in two groups: those which indicate high self-esteem and those which indicate low self-esteem. The individual checks each item either "yes" or "no". According to Battle, the instrument has content and concurrent validity and estimates of test-retest reliability range from 79 to .92 (Battle, 1981).
- 3. Family Assessment Measure (Skinner, Steinhauer, & Santa-Barbara, 1983). The FAM is a self-report instrument that provides quantitative indices of family strengths and weaknesses. The FAM is based on a process model of family functioning that integrates different approaches to family therapy and research. The General Scale of the FAM was used for the present study. It focuses on the level of health-pathology in the family from a systems perspective and consists of 50 statements about the family as a whole. Family members are asked if they strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with each statement according to how well it describes their family. The scale provides an overall rating of family functioning, seven measures (subscales) relating to the process model, plus two response style subscales (social desirability and denial). The seven measures relating to the process model are: 1) task accomplishment or the achievement of a variety of basic, developmental, and crisis tasks to reach biological, psychological, and social goals of the family; 2) role performance or the differentiation and performance of various roles which are prescribed and repetitive behaviors including a set of reciprocal

activities with other family members; 3) communication or the exchange of information and achievement of mutual understanding among family members; 4) affective expression or the content, intensity, and timing of the feelings among family members; 5) affective involvement or the degree and quality of family members interest in one another; 6) control or the process by which family members influence each other to sustain ongoing functioning or to allow the family to adapt its functioning in response to changing task demands; and 7) values and norms or the cultural and family background against which all basic processes must be considered. The seven scales comprise 35 items in total which were used in the present study. Estimates of internal consistency for the General Scale are 93 for adults and 94 for children while validity studies are in progress (Skinner et al., 1983).

- Family Satisfaction Scale (Olson & Wilson, 1982). The Family Satisfaction Scale is a self report instrument which assesses family satisfaction on the dimensions and subscales of family cohesion (emotional bonding) and family adaptability (ability to change) of the Circumplex Model (Olson, Russell, & Sprenkle, 1983). The Family Satisfaction Scale is a 14-item instrument in which subjects respond to each item about their family on a five-point Likert Scale: 1=dissatisfied, 2=somewhat dissatisfied, 3=generally satisfied, 4=very satisfied, and 5=extremely satisfied. Eight items load on family cohesion and six items load on family adaptability. An estimate of internal consistency of the total instrument is .92 and test-retest reliability is .75 (Olson & Wilson, 1982).
- Health Resources Inventory (Gesten, 1976). This instrument measures perceptions of children's competency-related behavior. For the present study, 4 items were omitted and 6 items were slightly modified to adjust the HRI for parent and teacher completion. The HRI (revised) contains 50 items which are assigned a rating of 1 to 5 (1=not at all, 2=a little, 3=moderately well, 4=well, 5=very well) according to how well the behavior describes the child. The HRI contains five subscales: 1) good student includes items related to effective learning, 2) gutsy includes items reflecting adaptive assertiveness or ego strength, 3) peer sociability consists of items reflecting effective interpersonal

functioning, 4) rules reflects the child's ability to function within the constraints of the environment, and 5) frustration tolerance measures the child's ability to cope with failure and other social pressures. Although reliability and validity estimates are not presented by Gesten (1976), Sattler (1982) suggests that reliability and validity estimates of the instrument are satisfactory.

study to collect the following information on students and their families: sex and grade of the child; family form (i.e., intact, one-parent, remarked); the number of years the child has lived in the current family; the number and resest of siblings which live with the child; the number of years since the child has lived with both biological parents; who has legal custody of the child; the number of days per year the child spends with the noncustodial parent; satisfaction with custody and visitation arrangements (rating on a 5-point Likert scale); and the degree of marital adjustment between spouses from intact and remarked families as measured by the Short Marital Adjustment Test (Locke & Wallace, 1959). The SMAT is a 15-jem test which yields a global measure of marital adjustment. One estimate of reliability (split-half) of the SMAT is .90 (Locke & Wallace, 1959).

The Culture-Free Self-Esteem Inventory (Form B), the Family Assessment Measure, the Family Satisfaction Scale, the Health Resources Inventory (revised), and the Background Information Form are presented in Appendix B.

C. Procedure

The parents of all Grade 6 and Grade 9 students in the 13 schools were mailed a parental consent form, the Health Resources Inventory, and the Background Information Form for their completion. These instruments were then mailed back to the researcher. Next the researcher administered the Culture-Free Self Esteem Inventory, the Family Assessment Measure, and the Family Satisfaction Scale to the participating students in their classrooms at school. At the same time, the Health Resources Inventories were given to the homeroom



teachers for their completion. Also, group ability test scores and school report grades were collected from student records in the schools. Refer to Appendix C for a copy of the correspondence with parents and teachers. The data were collected from November, 1985 to April, 1986. A summary of the procedures is presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Summary of the Procedures

Instrument	Completed By	Time to Complete
School Report Grades	teachers	not applicable
Culture-Free Self Esteem Inventory	students in school	10 minutes
Family Assessment Measure	students in school	10 minutes
Family Satisfaction Scale	students in school	5 minutes
Health Resources Inventory	parents at home and teachers in school	10 minutes
Background Information Form (including the Short Marita Adjustment Test)	n parents at home	10 minutes

The procedure ensured that a multimodal approach to measurement was implemented. The measurements include self-perceptions, parent perceptions, and teacher perceptions of children in addition to cognitive measures. Moreover, the following aspects of children were

measured — achievement, self-esteem, perceptions of family processes, satisfaction with the family, and behavior in school and at home.

D. Statistical Analysis

A variety of statistical procedures (multimethod) were computed to test the following eight hypotheses:

- 1. Children living in intact, one-parent, and remarried families will obtain similar scores on the following variables: School Report Grades (SRG), Self Esteem (SE), Family Assessment Measure (FAM), Family Satisfaction Scale (FS), Health Resources Inventory Teacher (HRIT), Health Resources Inventory Parent (HRIP).
- 2. Children living in intact, one-parent, and remarried families will form a unitary group rather than three distinct groups on the basis of scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP.
- 3. Children living in mother, father, and joint custody arrangements will obtain similar scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP.
- 4. There will be a direct relationship between the number of years in the new family and scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP of children living in one-parent and remarried families.
- 5. There will be a direct relationship between satisfaction with custody arrangements and scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP of children living in one-parent and remarried families.
- 6. There will be a direct relationship between satisfaction with access arrangements and scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP of children living in one-parent and remarried families.
- 7. There will be a direct relationship between the number of days per year children visit with the noncustodial parent and scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP of children living in one-parent and remarried families.
- 8. There will be a direct relationship between marital action of the scores on SRG, SE,

FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP of children living in intact and remarried families.

A description of the statistical procedures and the specific hypotheses to which they apply is presented below.

- 1. Reliability. Cronbach's alpha using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSx) program was calculated to determine the internal consistency of the instruments for the total sample (Cronbach, 1951). According to Cronbach, the internal consistency of an instrument is the "... mean of all split-half coefficients resulting from different splittings of a test. Alpha is therefore an estimate of the correlation between two random samples of items from a universe of items like those in the test" (p. 297). Alpha estimates were calculated to determine the internal consistency of the instruments and not to test a specific hypothesis.
- 2. ANOVA. A three-way analysis of variance was computed using the SPSSx ANOVA program to determine if there were interactions and differences between groups (intact, one-parent, remarried), grades (6, 9), and sex (male, female) on the following six dependent variables: school report grades (SRG), self-esteem (SE), child perceptions of family processes (FAM), child satisfaction with the family (FS), teacher perceptions of child behavior (HRIT), and parent perceptions of child behavior (HRIP). For each of the instruments or measures, a total score was calculated. The total scores were used as the dependent variables. Post-hoc comparisons were made between the means of the variables by using the Tukey HSD test (Kirk, 1968). The three-way ANOVA (Family Form by Grade by Sex) was computed to test Hypothesis 1. A one-way analysis of variance was computed using the SPSSx Oneway Program to determine if there were differences between groups (mother custody, father custody, joint custody) on the six dependent variables SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP. The one-way ANOVA (Custody) was computed to test Hypothesis 3.
- 3. Discriminant Function Analysis. A discriminant analysis was calculated on the sample using the Discriminant SPSSx program. In so doing, a linear combination of the dependent variables (SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, HRIP) was calculated to determine if

the three groups (intact, one-parent, remarried) could be adequately distinguished from each other. First, the linear combination of variables that best discriminated between the three groups was computed and then the coefficients were used to predict group membership. The direct-entry method which forced the variables into the analysis was used and the pooled within groups covariance matrix was subsequently used to classify the cases. Discriminant analysis was calculated as one test of Hypothesis 2.

- 4. Homogeneity of Correlation Matrices. The DERS MULV58 program was used to compute an asymptotic Chi-square statistic to test the homogeneity of the correlation matrices of the three groups intact, one-parent; remarried. The variables used for this analysis were SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP. The purpose of the program is, given samples from p-variate normal populations, the statistic is a test of the hypothesis that the populations have the same correlation matrix without assuming that they have equal standard deviations of means (Jennrich, 1970). Homogeneity of correlation matrices was calculated as another test of Hypothesis 2.
- 5. Pearson Correlations. The SPSSx Pearson Corr Program was used to calculate Pearson product-moment correlations between the dependent variables and time in the new-family, children's satisfaction with custody and access, time spent with the noncustodial parent, and marital adjustment. The significance level for each coefficient was based on a one-tailed test. Pearson correlations were calculated to test Hypotheses 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8.
- 6. Exploratory Data Analysis. A number of exploratory procedures (stem-and-leaf displays, box and whisker plots, correlations with unusual cases removed) were used to take a closer look at the data. The Minitab Programs were used to facilitate calculations and to identify unusual cases for the correlations (i.e., cases having a large standardized residual from the x by y regression line). Detailed information on the procedures is presented in Chapter IV, Part II with the results.

A decision rule was adopted to determine if the hypotheses would be rejected. The decision rule is that each hypothesis will be rejected if more than two of the six dependent variables do not substantiate the hypothesis. That is, a hypothesis is to be rejected if more

than one-third of the variables do not display the predicted outcome of a particular hypothesis. The applies to each hypothesis with the exception of Hypothesis 2 which poses an all situation. The individual outcomes of each variable will, however, be discussed. Results from each dependent variable are considered noteworthy even though a particular hypothesis might not be substantiated. Results of the statistical procedures are presented ext in Chapter IV according to the hypothesis tested.

IV. Results

The purpose of Chapter IV is to present and summarize the results of the data analyses. The chapter is divided into two major parts. The first part provides results of confirmatory data analyses. That is, Part I provides traditional confirmation or lack of confirmation of the eight hypotheses under study. The second part of the chapter provides a closer look at the data by using exploratory data analyses. According to Erickson and Nosenchuk (1977), "exploratory techniques make it easy to see into the data, to poke around some information in search of ideas about how things work" (p. 3). The rationale for using the more recent exploratory approaches is to provide a more comprehensive analysis of the data. Part I of the chapter is organized into the following five sections: A. Descriptive Information, B. Importance of Family Form, C. Results Pertaining to Custody and Access, D. Results Pertaining to Marital Adjustment, and E. Relationship Between the Hypotheses and the Results. The results are presented in the same order as the hypotheses stated in Chapter II.

PART I

A. Descriptive Information

Pearson correlations of the dependent variables and descriptive statistics of the instruments used in the study are presented prior to reporting the results of hypothesis testing.

Pearson correlations of the dependent variables are reported in Table 4.

One outstanding feature of the Pearson correlations is that there are two clusters of dependent variables. The child perception variables (self-esteem, family process, family satisfaction) are highly correlated with each other and the perceptions of children by outsiders (school grades, teacher rating, parent rating) are highly correlated with each other. The other correlations are all below the value of .30. It seems clear that the data are tapping two major factors — internal and external to children.

Table 4
Pearson Correlations Between Dependent Variables
for the Total Sample

	Self-Esteem	Family Assessment Measure	Family Satisfaction Scale	Teacher Rating	Parent Rating	School Report Grades
	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	, (n)	(n)
FAM	.51*** (188)	1 00				
FS	.42*** (207)	.70*** (187)	1.00			
HRIT	.27*** (189)	.13° (170)	.12° (187)	1.00		
HRIP	.25*** (206)	.14° (186)	.10 (205)	.38*** (188)	1.00	
SRG	.29*** (207)	.12 (187)	.10 (205)	.61*** (188)	.40*** (205)	1.00
	• ~ 06	••• ~ 001				
a de la companya de l	* <u>p</u> < .05	••• <u>•</u> < .001				

measure of internal consistency for each instrument are summarized in Table 5. The difference between the number of cases for the various measures is due to missing cases from each measure. For each instrument, we items were scored such that a higher score indicates a higher level of functioning. Table 5 is presented to show descriptive information for the total sample. Adequate or comparable forms are unavailable for the measures and, as a result, statements on the relationship between the sample and a reference group will not be made. The results indicate that the internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the instruments is within acceptable limits.

B. Importance of Family Form

Hypotheses 1 and 2 both propose a determination of the importance of family form to various aspects of children's functioning:

- 1. Children living in intact, one-parent, and remarried families will obtain similar scores on the following variables: School Report Grades (SRG), Self-Esteem (SE), Family Assessment Measure (FAM), Family Satisfaction Scale (FS), Health Resources Inventory Teacher (HRIT), Health Resources Inventory Parent (HRIP).
- 2. Children living in intact, one-parent, and remarried families will form a unitary group rather than three distinct groups on the basis of scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP.

Results presented in this section of the chapter pertain to the query of whether or not children from separate family forms receive similar scores on the dependent variables (Hypothesis 1) and whether or not children in the total sample can be classified into three distinct family forms on the basis of the data (Hypothesis 2). That is, the results to follow are used to determine the role of family form to children's functioning all else being equal. The statistical analyses used for this purpose were analysis of variance (ANOVA), Discriminant Analysis, and Homogeneity of Correlation Matrices.

1. ANOVA Results

Descriptive Statistics and Croubach's Alpha of the Instruments for the Total Sample

Measure	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Number of Cases	Internal Consis- tency	Highest Possible Score
SRG		3.69	4	20	209		20
,	2.5.5	۶.0۶		20	209		20
SE	19.7	3.63	4	24	210	.7996	25
FAM	100.2	13.86	- 51	133	189	.9144	140
FS	47.8	9.58	17	68	208	.8761	70
HRIT	185.2	35.72	56	248	190	.9791	250
HRIP	9 187.8	28.74	117	250	208	.9687	250
SMAT	62.2	6.35	39	75	151	.8123	76
		0.33	en e	•	191		

SRG = School Report Grades
SE = Self Esteem Inventory
FAM = Family Assessment Measure
FS = Family Satisfaction Scale

HRIT = Health Resources Inventory Teacher

HRIP = Health Resources Inventory Parent

SMAT = Short Marital Adjustment Test

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test Hypothesis 1. Results (main effects and interactions) from the 3-way ANOVA (family form by grade by sex) for each dependent variable are presented in Tables 16-21, Appendix D. Multiple comparisons between the means of each level were calculated using the Tukey HSD procedure. Tables 6-8 present the means of variables for each level of family form; grade, and sex.

a. Main Effects

As presented in Tables 16-21 (Appendix D), the following main effects of family form were found significant: School Report Grades ($\underline{F} = 8.369$, $\underline{p} = .000$), Self Esteem ($\underline{F} = 4.769$, $\underline{p} = 0.009$), Health Resources Inventory Teacher ($\underline{P} = 9.585$; $\underline{p} = .000$), and Health Resources Inventory Parent ($\underline{F} = 7.397$, $\underline{p} = .001$). The Tukey HSD test on SRG means showed that children from intact families received a higher school report grade mean than children from both one-parent and remarried families (critical difference = 1.412). The Tukey HSD test on SE means showed that children from intact families had a higher self-esteem mean score than children from remarried families (critical difference = 1.41). The Tukey HSD test on HRIT means showed that children from both intact and remarried families received a higher mean teacher rating than children from one-parent families (critical difference = 14.00). The Tukey HSD test on HRIP means showed that children from intact families received a higher mean parent rating than children from remarried families (critical difference = 17.19). These results are summarized as Follows:

- 1. School Report Grades intact greater than one-parent and remarried,
- 2. Self-Esteem intact greater than remarried,
- 3. Health Resources Inventory Teacher intact and remarried greater than one-parent, and
- 4. Health Resources Inventory Parent intact greater than remarried.

Therefore, on the basis of these results using the Tukey HSD test, Hypothesis 1 is rejected due to significant differences between groups on School Report Grades, Self-Esteem, Health Resources Inventory Teacher, and Health Resources Inventory Parent.

Table 6 Comparison of Means by Family Form — Total Sample

Variables	Intact	One-Parent	Remarried
v anavies	Mean n	Mean n	Mean n
SRG	16.1 134	13.7 42	14.2 33
SE	20.1 135	19.2 42	18.4 33
FAM	100.7 125	100.2 35	98.2 29
FS	48.5 135	47.7 41	45.3 32
HRIT	191.8 124	162.5 39	187.3 27
HRIP	193.7 134	178.7 41	. 175.3 33

SRG = School Report Grades SE = Self-Esteem

FAM = Family Assessment Measure FS = Family Satisfaction Scale

HRIT = Health Resources Inventory Teacher

HRIP = Health Resources Inventory Parent

Comparison of Means by Grade — Total Sample

Variables	Grad M e an	le 6 n	Gra Mean	de 9

SRG	15.2	97	15.4	112
SE	19.3	98	20.0	112
FAM	100.6	85	99.9	104
FS	49.3	97	46.6	111
HRIT	183.5	93	187.0	97
HRIP	188.1	• 98 ,	187.6	110

SRG = School Report Grades SE = Self-Esteem

FAM = Family Assessment Measure

FS = Family Satisfaction Scale
HRIT = Health Resources Inventory Teacher
HRIP = Health Resources Inventory Parent

Comparison of Means by Sex — Total Sample

	<u> </u>		1 7	× 18.
Variables	Mean	Malê n	Fern Mean ,	Me. n
SRG	15.0	101	15.6	108
SE	20.1	102	19.3	108
FAM	100.7	92	. 98.7	97
FS	49,1	103	46.6	105
HRIT	177.9	92	192.0	98
HRIP*	181.5	102	194.0	1'06
	•			

SRG = School Report Grades
SE = Self-Esteem
FAM = Family Assessment Measure
FS = Family Satisfaction Scale

'HRIT = Health Resources Inventory Teacher HRIP = Health Resources Inventory Parent

There were no significant main effects for Grade. As presented in Tables 16-21 (Appendix D), the following main effects for sex were found significant: Family Satisfaction Scale, Health Resources Inventory Teacher, and Health Resources Inventory Parent. Males received a higher mean family satisfaction score than females ($\underline{F} = 4.497$, $\underline{p} = .035$), females received a higher mean teacher rating than males ($\underline{F} = 4.857$, $\underline{p} = .029$), and females received a higher mean parent rating than males $\underline{F} = 7.944$, $\underline{p} = .005$).

b. <u>Interaction Effects</u>

None of the three-way interaction effects was significant (Tables 16-21, Appendix D). Timily Form by Grade interaction effects were found significant on the Family Assessment Measure (F=3.256, p=.041) as shown in Table 18. The Tukey HSD test showed that Grade 6 students from remarried families had a higher mean score on the FAM than Grade 9 children from remarried families (critical level = 9.92). None of the other two-way interaction effects was significant.

c. Summary of ANOVA Results

Main effects were found significant on family form (intact, one-parent, remarried) for School Report Grades (intact greater than one-parent and remarried). Self-Esteem (intact greater than remarried), Health Resources Teacher (intact and remarried greater than one-parent), and Health Resources Inventory Parent (intact greater than remarried). Main effects were also found significant on sex (male, female) for Family Satisfaction (males higher than females) and for Health Resources Inventory Teacher and Parent (females higher than males). Interaction effects were only found significant on the Family Form by Grade interaction for the Family Assessment Measure (Grade 6 students from remarried families higher than Grade 9 students from remarried families).

Three major statements can be made about the ANOVA results. First, children from intact families received the highest grades, had the highest self-esteem, and received the highest teacher and parent ratings of behavior as compared with children from one-parent and remarried families. This means that family form in this sample is an

Hypothesis 1 is therefore rejected. Secondly, there were no significant differences between intact, one-parent, and remarried family groups on the variables tapping children's perceptions of their families—family process and family satisfaction. This means that from the children's perspective, their families provide similar interactions and a similar level of satisfaction regardless of family form. Thirdly, the results did not vary significantly on age or sex.

2. Discriminant Analysis

The discriminant analysis procedure was used to test Hypothesis 2, i.e., to determine if children from intact, one-parent and remartied families form a unitary group. The discriminant analysis was computed on part of the total sample. The analysis used 164 of the 212 children in the sample because 48 cases had at least one missing discriminating variable. As a result, 109 children from intact families, 32 children from one-parent families, and 23 children from remartied families were used in the discriminant analysis. The 6 variables (SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP) were used in calculating the discriminant functions. Results from the discriminant function procedure are presented in Tables 22-25. Appendix D. A linear combination using direct entry of the variables that best discriminated among the intact, one-parent, and remartied family groups was computed.

The discriminant function is a linear combination of the discriminating variables.

Discriminant functions are of the form:

$$Di = di_1Z_1 + di_2Z_2 ... + dipZp$$

where: Di = the score on discriminant function if di = standardized weighting coefficients, and Zi = standardized values of the p discriminating variables used in the analysis (Klecka, 1975; p. 435). The functions are formed such that the separction of groups is maximized. Hence, weights are obtained such that the variance between means on Di divided by variance within groups on Di is maximized (Nunnally, 1978; p. 456). Two research objectives of discriminant analysis are analysis and classification.

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According to Klecka (1975), "the analysis aspects of this section of several tools for the interpretation of data. Among these are statistical tests for measuring the success with which the discriminating variables actually discriminate when combined into the discriminant functions" (p. 435). In Table 22, Appendix D, it can be seen that the first discriminant function is more useful than the second in terms of discriminating between the groups. The first function accounts for 71% of the variance and its significant at p < .05, whereas the second function accounts for only 29% of the variance and its significance level is p = .11.

The standardized discriminant function coefficients (Table 23) correspond to di values and are used to compute the discriminant score for a case. Klecka states that "the discriminant score is computed by multiplying each discriminating variable by its corresponding coefficient and adding together these products" (p. 443).

The within-groups structure coefficients (Table 24, Appendix D) show how the functions are related to the variables within the groups. It can be seen that school report grades, teacher ratings, and parent ratings have the highest correlations with the first function while self-esterm, family satisfaction, and family process have the highest correlations with the second function. This is the same break-down of variables, i.e., external and internal factors, derived from the total correlations presented earlier in the chapter.

The group centroids (Table 25, Appendix D) are the average of the scores for the cases within a particular group. By comparing group means on a particular function, one can determine how far apart the groups are along that dimension. On the first function, the intact group (.26) is quite distinct from the one parent (-.63) and remarried (-.34) groups. This is primarily due to the external variables. There is less differentiation of the groups on the second function.

Turning to the classification objective of the discriminant analysis: "by classification is meant the process of identifying the likely group membership of a case when the only information known is the case's values on the discriminating variables. . . . By classifying the cases used to derive the functions in the first place and comparing predicted group

membership with actual group membership, one can empirically measure the success in discrimination by observing the proportion of correct classifications" (Klecka, 1975, p. 436). The program was directed to classify cases according to the proportion of the size of each group because the three groups were unequal in number of cases. This means that if a case could be equally classified in either of two groups, it would be classified in the larger of the two groups on the basis of size, The classification was based on the 164 cases with nonmissing values of the dependent variables — school report grades, self-esteem, child perceptions of family process, child satisfaction with the family, teacher rating of child behavior, and parent rating of child behavior. The classification results of the discriminant analysis are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Classification Results of the Discriminant Analysis

Actual Group C	roup l	Group 2	Group 3	Total
Intact	102	6		109
One-Parent	24	7	1.	32
Remarried	21	2	0	23
Total	147	15	2	164

note: 66% correctly classified

These results indicate that approximately 66% of the sample was correctly classified by the two discriminant functions. The 66% is calculated by summing the 102 intact, 7 one-parent; and 0 remarried rectly classified and dividing this sum (109) by the total number of cases — 109/16.

the one-parent group, and 0% of the remarried group were correctly classified. Notice that if all cases were classified in group 1, 66% (109/164) would be correctly classified. Therefore, the discriminant analysis was not successful in classifying the children in intact, one-parent, and remarried family groups. On the basis of these results, Hypothesis 2 is not rejected. The children do not form three distinct groups according to family form.

3. Homogeneity of Correlation Matrices

The homogeneity of correlation matrices procedure was used to test Hypothesis 2. The correlation matrices of the intact, one-parent, and remarried family groups were compared. The same 6 variables (school report grades, self-esteem, Family Assessment Measure, Family Satisfaction Scale, Health Resources Inventory Teacher, Health Resources Inventory Parent) were used for these comparisons. The asymptotic chi-square test of equality was 66.1442 with 56 degrees of freedom yielding a probability of .16648. These results indicate that the correlation matrices of the dependent variables of children from intact, one-parent, and remarried families are similar Mence. Hypothesis 2 is not rejected on the basis of these results. The sampled children from intact, one-parent, and remarried families form a unitary group.

4. Summary

Discriminant analysis and homogeneity of correlation matrices were used to test Hypothesis 2. Results from these statistical procedures were congruent in that they indicated children living in intact, one-parent, and remarried families form a unitary group rather than three distinct groups on the basis of school report grades, self-esteem, child perception of family process, child satisfaction with the family and parent and teacher perceptions of behavior. As a result, Hypothesis 2 is not rejected.

C. Custody and Access Results

The purpose of the present section of the chapter is to present results which test Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 as stated:

- 3. Children living in mother, father, and joint custody arrangements will obtain similar scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP.
- 4. There will be a direct relationship between the number of years in the new family and scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP of children living in one-parent and remarried families.
- 5. There will be a direct relationship between satisfaction with custody arrangements and scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP of children living in one parent and remarried families.
- 6. There will be direct relationship between satisfaction with access arrangements and scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP.
- 7. There will be a direct relationship between the number of days per year children visit with the noncustodial parent and score on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP of children living in one-parent and remarried families.

The results presented in this section of the chapter pertain only to the 76 children living in one-parent and remarried families. The present section is divided into two subsections according to the type of statistical analysis used: one-way ANOVA (Hypothesis 3) and Pearson correlations (Hypotheses 4, 5, 6, 7).

1. One-way ANOVA

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedure was used to determine if children living in mother, father, and joint custody arrangements obtained similar scores on the dependent variables. Table 10 presents the variable mean scores for each custody type. Results of the one-way ANOVA (mother, father, joint custody) on school grades, self-esteem, family process, family satisfaction, teacher ratings, and parent ratings are presented in Tables 26-31, Appendix D. There were no significant differences for the six

variables across custody arrangement using a .05 level of significance. Children living in mother, father, and joint custody arrangements received similar means on the dependent variables. Consequently, Hypothesis 3 is not rejected.

Table 10

Mean Scores of the Dependent Variables by Custody Type

School Grades 13.8 58 14.3 4 14.4 Self-Esteem 18.6 59 22.0 5 19.6 Family Assessment 99.4 49 96.5 4 105.7 Family Satisfaction 46.8 57 48.5 4 49.0 HR1 Teacher 173.2 54 156.0 2 172.5		Mother Cust	ody	Father Custo	Joint Custoo	Joint Custody		
Self-Esteem 18.6 59 22.0 5 19.6 Family Assessment 99.4 49 96.5 4 105.7 Family Satisfaction 46.8 57 48.5 4 49.0 HR1 Teacher 173.2 54 156.0 2 172.5	Variables	Mean	n	. Mean	'n	Mean	'n	
Family Assessment 99.4 49 96.5 4 105.7 Family Satisfaction 46.8 57 48.5 4 49.0 HRI Teacher 173.2 54 156.0 2 172.5	School Grades	13.8	58	14.3	4	, 14.4	8	
Assessment 99.4 49 96.5 4 105.7 Family Satisfaction 46.8 57 48.5 4 49.0 HR1 Teacher 173.2 54 156.0 2 172.5	Self-Esteem	18.6 -	59	22.0	5	19.6	/ 8	
Family Satisfaction 46.8 57 , 48.5 4 49.0 HR1 Teacher 173.2 54 156.0 2 172.5	Family	4						
Satisfaction 46.8 57 , 48.5 4 49.0 HR1 Teacher 173.2 54 156.0 2 172.5	Assessment _		49	96.5	4 ,	105.7	7.	
HR1 Teacher 173.2 54 156.0 2 172.5	Family							
보고 하는 사람들은 사람들이 가는 사람들이 되었다. 그렇게 하지 않는 사람이 들어 가능하는 것이다.	Satisfaction	46.8	57	48.5	4	49.0	. 8	
HRI Parent 179.1 57 164.5 4 188.9	HR1 Teacher	173.2	54	156.0	2	172.5	6	
그들이 그리는 아는 그는 이렇게 하는데 이번 회장이 가득하는 없는데 하는 회문에는 이번만 살아갔다.	HRI Parent	179.1	57	164.5	4	188.9	, 8	

2. Pearson Correlations

Pearson correlations were computed between the dependent variables (SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, HRIP) and number of years in the new family, satisfaction with custody and access, and the number of days per year children visit with the noncustodial parent. The number of years in the new family and the number of days per year children visit with the noncustodial parent were reported by the custodial parent on the Background Information.

Form. Satisfaction with custody and access was reported by children on the Family Satisfaction Scale (items 15 and 16) using a 5-point Likert Scale with 1 = dissatisfied, 2 = somewhat dissatisfied, 3 = generally satisfied, 4 = very satisfied, and 5 = extremely satisfied.

Prior to reporting the Pearson correlations, descriptive information is presented in Table 11 including mean scores of years in the new family, child satisfaction with custody and access, and number of days per year visit with the noncustodial parent for children from one-parent and remarried families.

Table 11

Descriptive Information of Custody and Access Variables

	Or	ie-parent (Group	R	emarried C	roup
Custody/Access		Std.			Std	
Variables	Mean	Dev.	n	Mean	Dev	n
Years in the New						
Family	6.7	3.97	42	5.6	3.64	34
Satisfaction with						
Custody	4.0	.83	42	3.3	1.14	29
Satisfaction with						Ľ
Access	3.0	1.33	42	3.3	1.31 *	29
Days/year Visit with						
Noncustodial Parent	31.3	37.09	40	19.8	30.61	30

Although not associated with the hypotheses, a number of observations can be made about the information presented in Table 11. First, children living in one-parent families were more satisfied with custody than with access arrangements ($\underline{t}=4.40$, $\underline{p}\neq .000$). Secondly,

children from one-parent families were more satisfied with custody arrangements than were children from remarried families ($\underline{t}=2.60$, $\underline{p}=.01$). Thirdly, although not statistically significant, children from one-parent families spent more time visiting their noncustodial parent than children from remarried families. These results seem to make sense and can likely be explained by the differences between one-parent and remarried family forms. That is, children in remarried families are likely more removed from access and their noncustodial parent. Also, children in remarried families may be less engaged with their custodial parent due to the addition of the stepparent to the household.

Results of the Pearson correlations between years in the new family, satisfaction with custody, satisfaction with access, days per year visit with the noncustodial parent and the six dependent variables are presented in Table 12. The significance level of the correlation coefficients was based on a one-tailed test.

Comments regarding the results presented in Table 22 will be restricted to significant correlations (p < .05). There was a significant inverse relationship between years in the new family and teacher ratings for the one-parent family group and between years in the new family and school report grades, self-esteem, and teacher ratings for the remarried family group. The results suggest that children received lower scores on these variables the longer they lived in the new family. The inverse relationship is stronger for children in remarried families than for children in one-parent families. The findings with respect to years in the new family are not due to age because the mean difference between children in grade 6 and Grade 9 was not significant (t = -1.09, p = .281 for the one-parent group and t = .37, p = .710 for the remarried group). Also, the findings are not due to samples with children who have lived in the new family for only a short period of time because the mean number of years in the new family was 6.7 years for children living in one-parent families and 5.6 years for children living in remarried families. The inverse relationship between years in the new family and the dependent variables is not according to expectation on the basis of the literature and research presenced in Chapter II. Hypothesis 4 is therefore rejected.

Table 12
Pearson Correlations Between the Dependent Variables and Custody/Access Variables

Custody/Access Variables	\$G (n)	SE (n)	FAM (n)	FS (n)	HRIT (n)	HRIP (n)
	One-Pare	nt Family	Sample			 -
						•
Years in the	.03	.02	.03	.11	34 •	18
New Family	(42)	(42)		(41)	(39)	(41)
Satisfaction with Custody	10 (42)	.22 (42)	.31* (35)	.24 (41)	17 (39)	01 (41)
Satisfaction with Access	.09	28°	.23	.20	.01	14
	(42)	(42)	(35)	(41)	(39)	(41)
Days/year Visit with	.27 *	.15	.04	.15	.28*	.15
Noncustodial Parent	(40)	(40)	(33)		(37)	(39)
- 	Remarr	ed Family	Sample			
Years in the New Family	49**	50**	19	18	33 •	15
	(33)	(33)	(2 9)	(32)	(27)	(33)
Satisfaction with Custody	01	01	.38*	.44**	20	24
	(23)	(29)	(25)	(28)	(23)	(28)
Satisfaction with Access	.22` (28)	.01 (29)	.17 (25)	.08 (28)	.27 (23)	21 (28)
Days/year Visit with	.02 (29)	.22	17	.07	.23	19
Noncustodial Parent		(30)	(26)	" (29)	(24)	(29)

There was a significant positive correlation between children's satisfaction with custody and family process for the one-parent family group and between children's satisfaction with custody and family process and family satisfaction for the remarried family group. These results are according to expectation and suggest that children more satisfied with their custody arrangements are more positive regarding interactions within their families. However, the predicted relationship was not found for the other variables and, as a result, due to the lack of support for Hypothesis 5, it is therefore rejected. Little support exists for Hypothesis 6, as well. The only significant correlation between satisfaction with access and the dependent variables was that for self-esteem in the one-parent group. As a result, Hypothesis 6 is rejected.

Hypothesis 7 proposes a positive correlation between days per year children visit with the noncustodial parent and scores on the dependent variables. School grades and teacher ratings of children in one-parent families were significant in the direction proposed. That is, the more time children spent with their noncustodial parents, the higher their school grades and teacher ratings. These results indicate that teachers are more favorable to children who visit more frequently with their noncustodial parent. According to the decision rule adopted for the present study (proposed relationships confirmed for more than two of the dependent variables), there is not enough supporting evidence for Hypothesis 7 and, as a result, it is rejected.

3. Summary

The ANOVA on custody arrangements (mother, father, joint) did not indicate significant differences between the three groups for the dependent variables. The conclusion to be reached on the basis of these findings is that it seems to make little difference who has custody of children after divorce. The Pearson correlations between the number of years in the new family and three of the dependent variables (SRG, SE, HRIT) were inverse and significant for the remarried family group. This finding indicates that the longer children spend in their new family, the lower their scores on these three variables. There were few

significant correlations between the dependent variables and satisfaction with custody and access and days per year children spend with their noncustodial parents.

D. Marital Adjustment

The purpose of the present section of the chapter is to present results which test Hypothesis 8:

8. There will be a direct relationship between marital adjustment and scores on SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, and HRIP of children living in intact and remarried families.

The results presented in this section of the chapter pertain to the 170 children living in intact and remarried families. Pearson correlations were computed between SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, HRIP, and marital adjustment as reported by parents on the Short Marital Adjustment Test (items 9 to 24 of the Background Information Form). The correlations are reported in Table 13.

Table 13

D	A 43.		B	Variables ar			~
rearson	Correlation	s Between	Dependent	Variables or	d Marie	I Address	_ '
		7	Debendent	A MI IMPICO MI	IN TATMLIEN	ı valazımen	

	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		2.50	<u> </u>		•
	SG	SE	FAM	FS	HRIT	HRIP
Marital Adjustment	(n)	o -(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	· (n)
		Inter E				•
	A series of the	Intact Far	niry Sampi	e		
Short Marital	. 1	.10	02	.03	. 08	.24••
Adjustment Test	(119)	(120)	(110)	ر (120)	(111)	(120)
	Re	married Fan	nily Sampl	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		
Short Marital	.02	.18	.05	.27	.04	08
Adjustment Test	(29)	7.4	· • (25)	(29)	(23)	(29)
**p<.01			2			

The parental rating of children (HRIP) and marital adjustment were significantly correlated for the intact group howevers none of the other correlations between dependent variables and marital adjustment reached significant levels. Marital adjustment may not be related to various aspects of child functioning in a nonclinical sample. Consequently, Hypothesis 8 is rejected on the basis of these results.

E. Relationship between Hypotheses and Results

On the basis of the results presented in Part I of the present chapter, Hypotheses 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 are rejected, and Hypotheses 2 and 3 are not rejected. Discussion of these findings will be presented in Chapter V. Prior to discussing the results in Chapter V, the data

will be secutinized further in Part II of the present chapter.

PART II

Part I of the present chapter provided traditional (confirmatory) analyses of the data. That is, eight hypotheses were tested using traditional statistical techniques without considering extreme values. The three-way analysis of variance technique was used to test if there were decrences between means of intact, one-parent, and remarried family groups (Hypothesis 1) on the six dependent variables. The discriminant analysis technique and homogeneity of correlation matrices were used to determine if three distinct groups existed according to family form (Hypothesis 2). It was found that although significant differences between the three groups existed for the variables of school report grades, self-esteem, and teacher and parent ratings; the statistical programs did not show that three distinct groups existed according to family form. These results appear inconsistent and require further examination. The one-way analysis of variance technique was used to test if there were differences between means, of mother, father, and joint custody groups. No significantdifferences were found between the three groups but differences would have to be relatively large to reach statistical significance due to the small number of children in the father custody (n=4) and joint custody (n=8) groups. Therefore, another way of analyzing the data which is less dependent on group size is likely appropriate. Finally, Pearson correlations were computed between the dependent variables and custody, access, and marital adjustment variables (Hypotheses 4, 5, 6, 7, 8). The results of these correlations were not according to expectation and, as a result, did not confirm the hypotheses. It is possible that the distribution of scores might be interfering with the overall results of the analyses. After examining the confirmatory analyses it was decided to look further at the data to provide a deeper and more refined explanation of the results.

Therefore, the purpose of the second part of the results chapter is to provide a closer look at the data by using exploratory data analysis procedures (Erickson & Nosenchuk, 1977; Maguire, 1986; Tukey, 1977; Velleman & Hoaglin, 1981). A related pursuit is to review the

results of the correlations presented in Part I but with the unusual observations removed from the data analyses. The organization of Part II is similar to that of Part I in that first results pertaining to the total sample will be presented; secondly, results pertaining to the custody sample (one-parent and remarried groups) will be presented; and thirdly, results pertaining to the married sample (intact and remarried) will be presented. Consistencies and inconsistencies between the confirmatory and exploratory approaches will be highlighted where appropriate.

F. Total Sample

Results of school report grades, the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory, the Family Assessment Measure, the Family Satisfaction Scale, the Health Resources Inventory Teacher, and the Health Resources Inventory Parent were compared across family form using exploratory data analysis procedures. The purpose of these comparisons corresponds to the rationale for testing Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2. That is, the purpose is to determine if children differ according to family form on the dependent variables selected for the present study and if there are three distinct groups represented in the sample.

The following exploratory data analysis steps were taken to compare children from intact, one-parent, and remarried families on the dependent variables:

Step 1: construct stem and leaf displays of each variable for each group.

Step 2: construct five-number summaries of each variable for each group.

Step 3: construct box and whisker plots of each variable for each group, and

Step 4: calculate lower and upper notches around the median of each variable for each group.

Each of these steps will be explained along with the presentation of results to follow. Further details on how to conduct exploratory data analysis can be found in Erickson and Nosenchuk (1977), Tukey (1977), and Velleman and Hoaglin (1981). Moreover, the Minitab Handbook (Ryan, Joiner, & Ryan, Jr., 1985) describes a number of computer applications using Minitab programs for exploratory data analyses.

Stem and leaf displays of school report grades, self-esteem, family process, family satisfaction, teacher rating, and parent rating measures were constructed for intact; one-parent, and remartied family groups. According to Maguire (1986), "a stem and leaf display is a way of tabulating data that combines the visual characteristics of a histogram with the ability to recapture each of the data values." The stem and leaf displays are presented in Displays 1-18, Appendix E. Stem and leaf displays reveal information about the shape of the distributions. For example, it can be seen that the distributions of the intact group tend to clump at the high end of the scale for school report grades (Display 1) and self esteem (Display 4) variables, whereas, the distributions of the intact group tend to be symmetrical for the other variables (Displays 7, 10, 13, 16). Perhaps the intact group, is not a representative sample of the population of children from intact families with respect to school grades and self esteem. It could be that the children from intact, families were exceptionally high on school achievement and self-esteem traits thus showing a ceiling effect on the measures used to tap these traits. This interpretation is especially feasible when samples are selected on a voluntary basis: The implications of such an interpretation are two-fold: 1. if the intact group is unrepresentative then comparisons with the intact group would be biased in favor of this group, and 2, the research hypotheses (especially Hypothesis 1) may not be accurately tested with respect to school report grades and self-esteem. The observed clumping at the top end of the scale on school grades and self-esteem is not present in the one-parent (Displays 2, 5) and remarried (Displays 3, 6) samples. The other variables (FAM, FS, HRIT, HRIP) appear symmetrical for the three family form samples.

Another observation apparent on the stem and leaf displays is the clumping at the low end of the distributions for all dependent variables with the exception of Health Resources Inventory Parent. In order to determine if the same children received low scores across the dependent variables, the distributions were analyzed linking child ID numbers to the scores. In general, there were very few children who consistently received low scores. There was only one child who received low scores on more than two variables, This exceptional case was a child (ID#139) who received low scores, with respect to the distribution of scores, on school

report grades; self-esteem, and teacher rating and who lives in a remarried family. The scores of this child could affect comparisons of means on these variables across family form because the mean is the "center of gravity" and greatly affected by extreme values. This characteristic is not true of the median — the measure of central tendency used for exploratory data analysis.

The next step of the procedure was to construct five-number summaries from the stem and leaf displays. The five-number summary is a short-hand version of the distribution which includes essential information about level, spread quartile distance, range, and outliers of a particular distribution of data. The five-number summaries are easily calculated from the stem and leaf displays and consist of the median, the lower quartile value, the upper quartile value, the lowest score, and the highest score. The following data a also included in Chart 1: number of cases (#), median depth (M), fourth depth (F), the distance between fourths (df), the value of 1.5 times the distance between fourths (1.5 df), outlier cutoff values, and outlier scores. The distance between fourths (i.e., the third quartile value minus the first quartile value) is used to calculate outlier's in the following way:

upper outlier value > Q3 + 1.5 df and lower outlier value < Q1 - 1.5 df.

The 1.5 multiplier value is the conventional rule-of-thumb value used in exploratory data analysis. The identification of outliers is important in exploring data. General trends are the focus but exceptions are also identified and explained. Additional information about five-number summaries can be found in Emerson and Strenio (1983). The five-number summaries of the six dependent variables for intact, one-parent, and remarried family groups are presented in Chart 1, Appendix E.

Box and whisker plots are constructed from five-number summaries visually provide the central tendency and spread of each variable under study. The box includes scores between the first and third quartiles (i.e., the middle 50% of the distribution) including a line which represents the median of the data array. The whisker extends from the box to the extreme values (highest, lowest, or adjacent). If values lie outside upper or lower fences (1.5)

times the distance between the upper and lower quartiles) then the whisker extends to the adjacent value and the outlier scores are marked by dots.

The box and whisker plots of the six dependent variables for intact, one-parent, and remarried groups are presented in Graphs 1-6. Appendix E. A number of observations can be made about these plots. First, the boxes are overlapping for each of the six dependent variables. Therefore, the groups are not vastly dissimilar regarding spread. This means that the majority of each group falls within similar scores on the six variables — the majority of the children from intact, one-parent, and remarried families look similar on the dependent variables. Second, with one exception (child 111 on FAM-Graph 3 and FS-Graph 4), there are no children who are outliers on two or more variables. That is, the samples do not contain extreme low or high values of an individual across many variables. This means that the samples do not contain children with severe problems in many areas (i.e., achievement, self-esteem, behavior) which is reasonable because the population of the study is nonclinical. Third, with the exception of the remarried group on school report grades (Graph 1), the whiskers (extent of spread) are overlapping across family form. The groups appear similar on the basis of box and whisker plots.

A final step of the exploratory data analysis for the total sample was to calculate and place notches on the box and whisker plots presented in Graphs 1-6. Velleman and Hoaglin (1981) state the following:

When we use boxplots to compare batches, we are tempted to note batches that are "significantly" different from each other or from some standard batch. Our eyes tend to look for non-overlapping central boxes; but unfortunately the hinges, which determine the extent of the box are inappropriate guides to significance (pp. 73).

Velleman and Hoaglin recommend the use of notches to indicate significance and they suggest that "two groups whose notched intervals do not overlap can be said to be significantly different at roughly the 5% level" (p. 73-74). Notches are placed on the box and whisker plots symmetrically around the median (median $\pm 1.58 \times df/\sqrt{n}$).

A careful examination of the notches on Graphs indicates the following significant differences (nonoverlapping notches).

- 1. School Report Grades intact greater than one-parent and remarried groups.
- 2. Health Resources Inventory Teacher intact and remarried greater than one parent group.
- 3. Health Resources Inventory Parent intact greater than one-parent and remarried groups.

These results are similar to the results obtained from the confirmatory approaches presented in Part I of the present chapter. More specifically, the results of exploratory data analyses were the same as the results of the ANOVA except here there were no significant differences between the groups on self-esteem and the intact group received higher parent ratings than the one-parent group in addition to the remarried group. The exploratory data analysis results are thought to be more accurate because they are less affected by extreme scores and because distributions, can be compared which provides a more complete picture of the results. Therefore, the strengths of the exploratory approach were that it provided a closer, more direct analysis of the data and the results were not overly or inappropriately influenced by extreme scores.

The results of the exploratory data analysis provided further evidence for rejecting Hypothesis 1 because intervals around the medians of three of the six dependent variables differed across the intact, one-parent; and remarried groups. At the same time, the results of the exploratory approach did not indicate, on the whole, that there were three separate and distinct groups. The boxes and extensions of whiskers were not vastly dissimilar. These results suggest that it would be difficult, if not impossible, for a teacher to distinguish between children living in various family forms without prior knowledge. Therefore, the exploratory data analysis indicates that Hypothesis 2 is not rejected — the same conclusion reached earlier on the basis of discriminant analysis and homogeneity of correlation matrices procedures. The apparent inconsistency of rejecting Hypothesis 1 and not rejecting Hypothesis 2 will be further discussed in Chapter V in which results and implications from the various statistical

approaches will be synthesized.

G. Custody Sample

In Part I of the present chapter, two statistical procedures were used to analyze the data from the custody sample: 1. one-way analysis of variance to test the difference between means of the mother, father, and joint custody groups on the six dependent variables (Hypothesis 3) and 2. Pearson correlations between the six dependent variables and years in the new family (Hypothesis 4), satisfaction with custody (Hypothesis 5), satisfaction with access (Hypothesis 6), and days per year visit with the noncustodial parent (Hypothesis 7). In Part II of the present chapter, box and whisker plots of the dependent variables will be examined to determine if the level and spread of each dependent variable differ for mother, father, and joint custody arrangements. Then Pearson correlations with unusual observations removed will be examined to determine the extent or lack of relationship between the dependent variables and the custody and access variables.

1. Boxplots of the Dependent Variables

Box and whisker plots of school grades, self-esteem, family process, family satisfaction, teacher rating, and parent rating measures for the custody sample are presented in Graphs 7-12. Appendix E. Children in mother, father, and joint custody arrangements were compared on each of the six dependent variables. The box and whisker plots were constructed from stem and leaf displays and from the five-number summaries (median, lower fourth, upper fourth, extreme low, extreme high score). The five-number summaries of each dependent variable for mother, father, and joint custody groups are presented in Chart 2, Appendix E. Also, the outlier cutoff values or fences were calculated using the usual rule of thumb (i.e., lower fence = Q1 - 1.5 df; upper fence = Q3 + 1.5 df). Notches were calculated and placed on the box and whisker plots using the formula: median ± 1.58 x df//n.

The level (medians) of the distributions are generally similar across the three custody types. Also, the three boxes (spread) for each variable are generally overlapping.

These results are similar to the results of the oneway ANOVA's presented in Part I of the chapter. However, two variables show some differences. First, the self-esteem of father custody children is higher than that of mother custody children (Graph 8). This result is detected by the lack of overlapping notches. The finding must be interpreted with caution because there were only 4 children in the father custody group. On the other hand, it is noteworthy that the father custody children had higher self-esteem scores than the mother custody children. It is also noteworthy that two of these four children are males and two are females. Hence, sex does not seem to be an explanatory variable in this case. Second, the median of the father custody children for parent rating (HRIP) is 23 points lower than that of the mother custody children and 35 points lower than that of the joint custody group. Also, the joint custody box on parent rating is almost monoverlapping with the father custody box suggesting that joint custody parents rate their children higher than father custody parents. The three lowest HRI's of the father custody children were completed by the fathers suggesting that perhaps fathers who have custody rate their children lower than parents who have joint cuttody. Interestingly, these same children have higher self-esteem scores than children with mother custody. Finally, it is also noteworthy to point out that the medians of four (SRG, FAM, HRIT, HRIP) of the six variables are highest for the joint custody group. One can conclude that joint custody may show promise for the future but the results do not provide enough evidence to reject Hypothesis 3.

2. Pearson Correlations

For Part II of the chapter, Pearson correlations were computed between the six dependent variables and years in the new family, child satisfaction with custody, child satisfaction with access, and days per year visit with the noncustodial parent. However, these correlations were computed with unusual observations deleted. The unusual observations were identified by the Minitab Regression Program on the basis of having a large standardized residual (residual/std. dev. of residual). That is, a score was considered unusual and deleted if there was a large distance between that score and the y

on x regressionaline. Each of the deleted values was checked on a y by x plot to ascertain the efficacy of the Minitab identification procedure. In all cases the Minitab identified "far out" observations as being unusual. The ID numbers and scores (x,y) of the deleted observations are presented in Charts 3 and 4. Appendix E.

Pearson correlations between the dependent variables and custody and access variables are presented in Table 12 with unusual observations included and in Table 14 with unusual observations deleted. Only significant correlations (one-tailed) and where significant status has changed will be reported here.

The number of years in the new family is inversely related to teacher ratings in the one-parent group and inversely related to school grades and self-esteem in the remarried group. These results are consistent with the previous results reported in Table 12 except the correlation between teacher ratings and years in the new family was also significant for the remarried group with unusual observations included. The results are in the opposite direction of what was expected on the basis of the review of literature and research. In the present sample, the longer the child lives in the new family, the lower the scores on school grades, self-esteem, and teacher rating.

For both one-parent and remarried groups, a positive correlation exists between satisfaction with custody arrangements and both family assessment and family satisfaction variables. The significant relationship between satisfaction with custody arrangements and family satisfaction for the one-parent group was previously masked by outlier values. These findings are according to expectation.

Also congruent with expectations is the positive correlation between satisfaction with access and family satisfaction in the one-parent sample. This relationship was also previously masked by outlier values and inding suggests that children's satisfaction with their current family increases who her satisfaction with access arrangements. The previous significant correlation between self-esteem and satisfaction with access changed to a nonsignificant correlation from .28 to .12) after the two outlier cases were removed. The inverse relationship between satisfaction with access and parent rating in

Pearson Correlations Between the Dependent Variables and Custody/Access Variables — Unusual Observations Deleted

Custody/Access Variables	SRG (n)	SE (n)	FAM,	FS (n)	HRIT (n)	A HRIP
	One-Pare	nt Family	Sample			
Years in the New Family	.19 (41)	.07 (40)	.03 (35)	.11 (41)	46** (37)	- 12 (40)
Satisfaction with Custody	·.02 . (41)	.05 (40)	.31° (35)	.31* (40)	07 (36)	09 (40)
Satisfaction with Access	.20 .(41)	· (40)	.23 (35)	(39)	.24 (37)	- <u>.31</u> • (39)
Days/year Visit with Noncustodial Parent	, 24 (39)	.09 (38)	. (33)	.15 (39)	.39• (34)	.14 (37)
	Remarri	ed Family	Sample			
Years in the Family	56** (30)	58 ** (31)	29 (27)	23 (30)	<u>+.15</u> (26)	·.25 (32)
Satisfaction with Custody	.10 - (26)	.10 (28)	.39* (24)	.44 • (27)	32 (22)	24 (28)
Satisfaction with Access	11 (26)	.04 (27)	.08° (24)	.03 (27)	.14 (22)	21 (28)
Days/year Visit with Noncustodial Parent	· · .14 (27)	.17 (28)	17 (26)	.16 (28)	.20 (23)	25 (28)

Note: underlined correlations changed from significance to nonsignificance or from nonsignificance to significance with unusual observations deleted

the one-parent group indicates that the children more satisfied with access received lower custodial parent ratings. This inverse relationship was previously masked by the two outlier values. Although this finding is dire tly opposite of the hypothesized relationship between the two variables, it does make sense. The research suggests that children in one-parent families experience divided loyalties between the custodial and noncustodial parents. The finding that children more favorable to access arrangements receive lower ratings by the custodial parent may reflect tension between custodial and noncustodial parents.

Finally, the teacher ratings of children in one-parent families increased with an increase in the number of days per year children spent with the noncustodial parent. This finding is consistent with the previous results (Table 12). However, the previous significant positive relationship between school report grades and days per year visit with the noncustodial parent for the one-parent group changed to a nonsignificant relationship with the one outlier case removed (from .27 to .24). Overall, the correlations were somewhat changed by deleting unusual observations — some were raised and others were lowered. However, the results continue to lack evidence for confirming Hypotheses 4, 5, 6, and 7 which remain rejected.

H. Married Sample

For Part II of the chapter, Pearson correlations were computed between the Short Marital Adjustment Test and the dependent variables with unusual observations deleted (see Charts 5 and 6 for the ID's and scores of the unusual observations). The Pearson correlations with observations included are presented in Table 13 and with unusual observations deleted in Table 15.



Pearson Correlations Between Dependent Variables and Marital Adjustment Unusual Observations Deleted

Marital Adjustment	SRG	SE	FAM	FS	HRIT	HRIP
	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	(n)	~(n
	Int	act Family	Sample			
Short Marital		.07	.02	. 09	.03	.26••
Adjustment Fest	(112) .	(113)	(107)	(115)	(109)	(116
	Remarr	ied Family	Sample			
Short Marital	.00	.21	.05	.27	.09	- :08
Adjustment Test	(28)	(28)	(25)	(29)	(22)	(29

For both analyses (i.e., with unusual observations included and deleted), the only significant correlation was that between parent rating and marital adjustment in the intact group which may be an artifact of the method, i.e., parents completed both instruments. However, the lack of correlation between the SMAT and the other variables is noteworthy because it suggests that child measures of grades, self esteem, family process, family satisfaction and behavior in school may not be overly dependent on parents' marital adjustment in a nonclinical sample of children from middle-class neighborhoods. At any rate, the results do not provide evidence for accepting Hypothesis 8 which remains rejected.

I. Summary

Part II provided another way to look at the data. The exploratory procedures provided a closer view of the data at a more direct level of analysis. Also, correlations were computed with the more extreme of exceptional cases removed. The results of these procedures revealed that, for the most part, the conclusions to be reached from the data are similar to those reached on the basis of statistical procedures used in Part I. That is, the exploratory procedures confirmed the more traditional confirmatory approaches. In conclusion, one can be surer of what the data are indicating or not indicating by using various ways to analyze the data. Emphasis will be placed on the results from the exploratory procedures because they are thought to show trends better than the results of the confirmatory analyses. The synthesis and implications of the results require elaboration; the topic of the next chapter.

The objectives of the present chapter are to discuss the findings of the research study within the context of existing experimental studies from which the 8 hypotheses were derived, to discuss the significance of the present findings, to present limitations and delimitations of the study, and to offer suggestions for further research. Accordingly, the chapter is organized into the following four sections: A. Findings and Existing Research, B. Relevance of the Findings, C. Limitations and Delimitations, and D. Directions for Further Research.

A. Findings and Existing Research

The hypotheses as stated in Chapter II deal with three major areas regarding the functioning of children living in intact, one-parent, and remarried families. First, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were concerned with testing the importance of family form regarding various aspects of children's functioning in intact, one-parent, and remarried families. Secondly, Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 6, and dealt with various custody and access issues and their relevance to the functioning of children from one-parent and remarried families. Thirdly, Hypothesis 8 was concerned with the relevance of marital adjustment to the functioning of children living in intact and remarried families. The relationship between findings from existing research studies and findings from the present study will be discussed according to these three major areas.

1. Importance of Family Form

The results of the exploratory data analyses showed differences between children from intact, one-parent, and remarried families on three of the six dependent variables. Students from intact families received higher school report grades than students from one-parent and remarried families. Students from intact and remarried families received higher teacher ratings of their behavior than students from one-parent families. Also, students from intact families received higher parent ratings of their behavior than students from one-parent and remarried

families. Therefore, in the areas of academic achievement and teacher and parent perceptions of behavior, students from the sampled intact families were rated higher than those from one-parent families. Also, students from intact families were rated higher than students from remarried families in the areas of academic achievement and parent perceptions of behavior. Finally, students from remarried families were rated higher than students from one-parent families on teacher perceptions of behavior. The three variables that clearly showed differences were those defined as external to children, i.e., these measures represent teacher and parent evaluations of child function.

It is perhaps appropriate to speculate about the meaning of these differences between children from various family forms. It could be that children especially from one-parent families are expected to show signs of problems by teachers and parents — self-fulfilling prophecy. Perhaps single parents experience task overload which might fit with an increase in child problems. Or, it could be that children in one-parent and, to a lesser extent, remarried families actually function at a lower level than children from intact families. If this is true then one might wonder why this might be true. Perhaps, models for healthy family interactions are required for one parent and remarried families. The conclusion about the need for models of healthy family functioning is made by Garfield (1980) and Jones (1978). The development of these models could assist both parents and children to improve their functioning in alternate family forms. If family transitions fit with problems in child functioning then it is essential to focus on positive solutions. At any rate, these findings suggest that family form is an important factor regarding the functioning of children as perceived by teachers and parents.

Upon close examination, however, there are three reasons why the conclusion that family form is important needs to be made with caution. First, there were no differences between children living in intact, one-parent, and remarried families on perceptions of familial interactions or family process and family satisfaction measures. Secondly, as stated previously, the measures that showed differences were external to the children, whereas, the measures that did not show differences were internal variables. That is, school report grades

and teacher and parent perceptions of behavior require an evaluation of children by someone other than the children themselves. Santrock and Tracy (1978) found using a video-tape that the same child was perceived more positively by teachers when he was identified as coming from an intact family as compared to being identified as living in a divorced family. Social stigma may operate in favor of children from intact families but against children from one-parent and remarried families. Thirdly, discriminant analysis, homogeneity of correlation matrices, and the exploratory analyses did not adequately differentiate children into intact, one-parent, and remarried families.

Moreover, the distinction between internal and external measures of child functioning is crucial in understanding the findings of the present study. As noted, external ratings of children showed differences across family form, whereas internal measures did not show these differences. Perhaps children are less influenced by family form than both their teachers and parents perceive children to be influenced by family form. Furthermore, it may be that the external perceptions of children who have experienced family transitions are congruent with a negative bias toward divorce and alternative family forms rather than a "true" indication of child functioning. The external perceptions of children may be actually measuring adult experiences and perceptions of family transitions; possible difficulties adults perceive with respect to family transitions. These ideas are speculative and require further investigation.

Therefore, evidence from the present study leads to the conclusion that family form may be an important factor for children's functioning as perceived by outsiders but perhaps not as important from children's perspectives. If family form is relevant to the functioning of children, the present findings suggest that it must be considered within the context of many other variables (e.g., age; sex; internal resources; relationships with parents, extended family, peers; etc.).

The following conclusion on family form was made on the basis of the literature reviewed (Emery, 1982; Hess & Camara, 1979; Marotz-Baden, Adams, Bueche, Munro, & Munro, 1979): Family form (intact, one-parent, remarried) may be less important than family process (intrafamilial relationships) to children's functioning. This comparison was not

however, children's perceptions of the family were measured by the Family Assessment Measure (FAM). The FAM measured children's perceptions of communication, affective expression, and affective involvement in the family. There were no differences on the FAM between children from intact, one-parent, and remarried families. Accordingly, it may be concluded on the basis of the present study that children's perceptions of family process did not differ across family form. Family process, at least from the child's point-of-view, can be of similar quality regardless of family form. Finally, children's perceptions of their family is considered an extremely important indicator of intrafamilial relationships.

In summary, the findings of the present study indicate that family form is an important variable to consider regarding various aspects of children's functioning. This is particularly relevant when considering those aspects of children's functioning which are assessed by outsiders — teachers and parents. Conversely, internal aspects, i.e., children's perceptions of themselves or of relationships within their families and children's satisfaction with their families, do not appear to be dependent on or to vary across family form. In addition, using both confirmatory and exploratory data analyses, it was found that the children from intact, one-parent, and remarried families did not show vastly dissimilar results on the dependent variables. Therefore, without prior knowledge a teacher would likely be unable to correctly classify students in various family forms. Finally, the conclusions of the present study are in agreement with the more recent studies in this area of research reported in Chapter II which suggest that family process variables are important with respect to child functioning in cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects.

2. Joint Custody

Children in mother, father, and joint custody arrangements were compared on various aspects of functioning — school report grades, self-esteem, child perception of family process, child satisfaction with the family, teacher ratings and parent ratings of child behavior. According to a number of researchers (Luepnitz, 1982; Rothberg, 1983; Steinman,

1981; Watson, 1981), joint auxiody shows promise for the future. This statement is especially true if the divorced parents can learn mutually satisfactory ways of negotiating over child issues (e.g., visiting arrangements, child care issues, etc.) and if the parents relate to each other in a nonconflicting, positive manner. The results of the present study did not indicate major differences between the mother custody (83%), father custody (6%), and joint custody. (11%) children on the six dependent variables under study. One could conclude on the basis of these results that it does not make any difference to the functioning of children whether they live in mother, father, or joint custody arrangements.

However, there are three reasons why the above conclusion must be considered tentative rather than definite. First, the number of children in father and joint custody arrangements was very small — 4 father custody children and 8 joint custody children. Secondly, in comparing the means presented in Table 10 (Chapter II), the joint custody children ranked highest on 4 of the 6 variables (SRG, FAM, FS, HRIP) and second on 2 of the 6 variables (SE, HRIT). The median comparisons using exploratory procedures were also similar. Thirdly, children in the father custody arrangement displayed higher self-esteem scores than children in mother custody arrangements using the exploratory data analysis procedures. For the reasons listed above, it seems most appropriate to conclude that joint custody may show promise for the future but more research is required at this time. Joint custody is probably most effective when both parents prefer it to one-parent custody and when they cooperate together regarding practical issues.

3. Custody and Access Issues

The discussion of custody and access issues will be limited to the results of the analyses in which unusual observations were deleted. In general, the significant Person correlations between years in the new family and the dependent variables were inverse. One of these correlations was significant for the one-parent group (teacher rating of behavior) and two were significant for the remarried group (school grades and self-esteem). In other words, the longer the child lived in the new family, the lower the grades, self-esteem and teacher

ratings. These results contradict findings reported by Kinard and Reinherz (1986), Kurdek et al. (1981), Nelson (1981), and Schlesinger (1982).

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Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1979) found that disturbance in family interaction and problem behavior in the children of divorced families increased over the first year following divorce and improved markedly over the course of the second year. The average number of years in the new family was 6.7 years for the one-parent group and 5.6 years for the remarried group in the present research study. Of the 76 children in the sample, only 9 children lived in the new family less than 2 years. Consequently, over 80% of the children living in one-parent and remarried families lived in the "new" family for more than 2 years. It may be that there are "peaks" and "valleys" of child functioning in the new family depending on the time spent-in the new family. More specifically, it could be that child functioning in one-parent and remarried families gets better before it gets worse a number of times (first few months, second year, fourth year, ...) after the child's parents separate or divorce. Long-term longitudinal research studies would be required to ascertain this possibility.

Allen and van de Vliert (1984) provide a theoretical perspective on transitional processes. They define role transition as "... the process of changing from one set of expected positional behaviors in a social system to another" (p. 3). This process of change or transition could fit with role strain of the individual experiencing acute differences in expected positional behaviors. Allen and van de Vliert (1984) define strain as "... acute cognitive and affective disturbance, i.e., discomfort, disequilibrium, anxiety, perplexity, and uneasiness—in a word, distress" (p. 14). Children experiencing family transitions may go through strain during the divorce process and later. For example, consider a child from a remarried family. The following transitions could result in role strain—from intact to a temporary arrangement with one parent, from a more established one-parent family to a new remarried family with built-in siblings, from the remarried family with built-in siblings to a remarried family with a new sibling, etc. The inverse correlations between time in the new family and child functioning were stronger in the remarried family than in the one-parent family.

Perhaps the birth of a baby that is biologically "tied" to the mother and Tather has some temporary (time-limited) influence on the functioning of the stepsiblings.

The point to be made here is that peaks and valleys of child functioning may occur along with various alterations in the child's environment including changes in behavioral expectations of the particular child. The situation is actually more complicated than this because along with role transition and role strain are antecedent conditions, moderators, reactions, and consequences in Allen and van de Vliert's model of the role transition process (p. 11) However, this analysis may suggest a possible multi-curvilinear relationship between years in the new family and various aspects of child functioning. Individual children would have to be followed over time to ascertain this hypothesis — a time-series analysis.

The second major issue regarding custody and access is the relationship between children's satisfaction with custody and access and the dependent variables. It was found that children's perceptions of family process (FAM) and their satisfaction with their family (FS) correlated directly with their satisfaction with custody arrangements for both one-parent and remarried groups. This is not surprising and is according to Hypothesis 5. Family satisfaction also correlated directly with satisfaction with access for the one-parent group. It seems clear that dhildren more generally satisfied with their families will also be more satisfied with their custody and access arrangements.

The significant difference between satisfaction with custody and access for the one-parent group (4.0 and 3.0 on a 5 point scale, respectively) reported in Table 11 deserves elaboration. It is also important to notice the lack of difference between satisfaction with custody and access for the remarried group (both 3.3 on a 5-point scale) reported in Table 11 of Chapter IV. Prosen and Farmer (1982), Sager et al. (1983), and Walker and Messinger (1979) suggest that the remarried family form is more open than other family forms. That is, information moves in and out of the remarried family unit more easily. Perhaps this explains the lack of difference between satisfaction with custody and access as reported by children in the sampled remarried families. One-parent families may be more closed which may lead to greater differentiation between satisfaction with custody (day-to-day life in the family unit)

and access (visitation arrangements) of the sampled one-parent children. Secondly, the comparison mentioned above may result from children in remarried families being further removed from the access arrangement. As reported in Table 11, the children in remarried families visited less frequently with their noncustodial parents (average of 19.8 days/year) than children living in one-parent families (average of 31.3 days year). At the same time, the remarried family children were more satisfied with access arrangements (3.3) than one-parent family children (3.0). Perhaps children from the remarried family group are slightly more satisfied with access arrangements than children from the one-parent group because access is less of an issue for them — they have a "replacement figure" in the stepparent. These two hypotheses are tentative and require further study.

Another way to interpret these results is to focus on the greater satisfaction of custody for the children in one-parent families. One might speculate as to why one-parent children rated their custody arrangements (4.0) higher than they rated their access arrangements (3.0) and higher than the remarried children rated both their custody and access arrangements (3.3). The custodial parent seems to play a major role in the lives of children from the parent families. As a result, there may be great effort on the part of the children (and perhaps parents also) to develop an extremely close relationship. In other words, the warm, satisfactory relationship between custodial parents and one-parent children may evolve from the fact that they only have each other on a regular basis after the divorce. Parentified children in one-parent families would perhaps confirm this interpretation. That is, in some cases, the older sibling may take the place of the noncustodial parent. Weltner (1982) points out that there is an increase in enmeshment of the family system from the two-parent to the one-parent family which is congruent with this interpretation.

Returning to correlations between the dependent variables and satisfaction with custody and access, a negative correlation between parent ratings and satisfaction with access arrangements was found in the one-parent group (r=-.31). This finding was unexpected and not generally found in the existing literature and research. The might speculate why custodial parents rated children lower who were more satisfied with access arrangements. Perhaps,

children more satisfied with access arrangements are more removed from their custodial parent. The issue of divided loyalties is mentioned frequently in the research literature and the higher inverse relationship may be congruent with this emphasis. Of course, the explanation may be more simple. It could be that these children actually display behavior congruent with the parental ratings. At any rate, this relationship requires further study.

The final major issue regarding custody and access investigated was the relationship between time spent with the noncustodial parent and the dependent variables. There was only one significant correlation between the dependent variables and the number of days per year children from one-parent and remarried families visited with the noncustodial parent teacher rating of children in one-parent families. This finding is consistent with Svanum, Bringle, and McLaughlin (1982) who found that father absence was inconsistently and often weakly related to cognitive development in children and inconsistent with Hess and Camara (1979), Hetherington (1979b), and Jacobson (1978b). The average number of days per year children in the sample visited with the noncustodial parent was quite low (mean of 31.3 in the one-parent group and a mean of 19.8 in the remarried group). Since 83% of the sample was mother-custody, the noncustodial parent was the father for the most part. These findings suggest that the noncustodial father does not play a major role in the children's lives with respect to children's functioning. Perhaps this finding would be reversed if noncustodial fathers spent more time with their children. According to a number of researchers reported in Chapter II (Ahrons, 1980; Friedman, 1980; Koch & Lowery, 1984), there are numerous mutual benefits of close, continuing relationships for both fathers and chidren after the divorce.

4. Marital Adjustment

Pearson correlations were calculated between the level of marital adjustment as measured by the SMAT and the dependent variables (SRG, SE, FAM, FS, HRIT, HRIP).

Results of these correlations indicated a significant positive relationship between marital adjustment in the intact group and parent rating of child behavior. All other correlations were

nonsignificant. On the basis of the existing research, it was expected that these correlations would be high positive because marital discord is implicated by many researchers as a factor contributing to child problems (Emery, 1982; Rutter, 1984). On the basis of existing research, He was concluded that there is a weak association between marital discord and child problems in the general population (O'Leary & Emery, 1984). The lack of relationship between these factors is likely due to the population under scrutiny in the present research study. The sample was selected from the nonclinical population. The relationship between marital adjustment and various aspects of child functioning may be more crucial in a clinical population. Perhaps, marital adjustment is lower in a clinical population. In the present sample, the median SMAT score of parents from intact families was 63.0 and 62.5 for the remarried families out of a total possible score of 76. Also, in general, serious child behavior problems were not reported (median of 198 and 180 on the HRIP for intact and remarried groups, respectively, out of a total possible score of 250). Therefore, it is possible that the sample of the present study failed to adequately tap either marital discord or child problems and, as a result, the study was silent with respect to the relationship between marital and child problems.

B. Relevance of the Findings

The purpose of this section of the chapter is to discuss the relevance of the findings from the research study. The findings of the present study are consistent with a caution made by Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1982):

The best statistical predictions indicate that an increasing number of parents and children are going to go through a series of transitions and reorganization in family ties and household structure. There has been a tendency to take extreme and equally invalid views of these changes. Some writers take a gloom and doom perspective that the effects of divorce are destructive and enduring and that households headed by one parent are a pathogenic deviation from the "normal" nuclear family. Others assume the political stance of denying that one-parent households headed by women

have problems in addition to financial exigencies (p. 285).

That is to say, findings from the present study suggest that children from one-parent and remarfied families do not radically differ from children living in intact families but, at the same time, family form may be a factor to consider among others. Findings also indicate that difficulties regarding custody and access may exist for the postdivorce family. Perhaps the most appropriate stance to take is a neutral stance regarding the experience of family transitions on children.

Having proposed a neutral stance with respect to research, it is important for therapists and mental health workers to be aware of the problems of family change and reorganization as well as indicators of healthy family functioning in dealing with children and parents experiencing family transitions. Wilcoxon (1985) states:

A counselor's awareness of healthy family characteristics could be quite valuable in providing assurance that healthy family processes are not completely eroded, but rather are undergoing adjustment and change. In fact, it is quite possible that these every characteristics have brought the family to its current stage of readiness for entry into a new phase of growth and development, (p. 498).

Mental health workers, therapists, and educators can provide hope for the family by offering supportive affirmation when possible.

The present research findings are significant because they suggest that, in spite of family transition, children living in one-parent and remarried families are as satisfied with their families as children living in intact families. The way children perceive themselves in their families is an important consideration with respect to children's functioning.

The family sociological theory of symbolic interactionism emphasizes the relevance of person, perceptions of their experiences. By implication, the symbolic interactionist construct of definition of the situation adds to the discussion and findings of the research study. Stryker and Statham (1985) hold that "the underlying premise of symbolic interactionism is that the subjective aspects of experience must be examined because the meanings people assign to things ultimately organize their behavior" (p. 320). According to this theory the definition of

the situation serves to organize and orient behavior. Further, persons create the meanings to which they respond and which guide and organize their behavior. The exercise of creating meaning is not done in a vacuum but rather through the process of social interaction according to symbolic interaction theory. Stryker and Statham state the following on this topic: "that meaning is derived from an interpersonal process implies that reality is defined through that process rather than independent of it" (p. 321). The findings of the present study indicate that children's definition of the situation as it pertains to the family is similar regardless of family form. The application of the symbolic interactionist perspective to understanding family dynamics during transitions seems promising and merits further development.

The findings of the present study along with the review of literature and research point to the relevance of considering process elements in studying the fit between shild functioning and family transitions. Montgomery and Fewer (1985) conceptualize process as "what is 'going on' (Laing & Esterson, p. 22) in families" (p. 63). For the present study, family process referred to intrafamilial interactions or relationships and was operationally measured by the Family Assessment Measure. It was found that children's perceptions of family process were similar regardless of the family form to which they belonged. This suggests that the important qualitative factor of family process can be independent of family form. Qualitative interactions within the family (child to child, parent to child, parent to parent) and their relationship to family transitions requires further theoretical development and experimental research studies.

The family systems theoretical perspective (Barnes, 1985; Montgomery & Fewer, 1986) could provide an appropriate frame of reference for guiding research in the area of family transitions. The focus of family systems theory is on the family as a whole. The family consists of various subsystems — individual, marital dyad, child-child dyad, parent-child dyad, and various riads. It seems reasonable to use the family systems perspective to understand the interaction or process among the subsystem levels and their fit within the family as whole. According to Lowery and Settle (1985):

Another model evident in the current divorce literature is the family systems or family processes approach. This approach indicates that the relationships among family members do not end when divorce occurs; the relationships are merely altered (Hess & Camara 1979; Huntington, 1982; Musetto, 1978). Even the relationship between husband and wife is continued through the children. Within this framework, the problems associated with divorce cannot be understood unless they are examined in light of the continuing relationships among the family members. (p. 456)

The use of family systems theory in understanding custody and access issues appears fruitful but awaits further application and study. The present study points to the need for this application and research, i.e., the questions outnumber the answers.

Finally, the relevance of the present study with respect to custody and access issues requires mention. First joint custody shows promise but further research is required to ascertain its benefits. Secondly, more studies are necessary to investigate the long-term (i.e., more than 5 years) relationship between family transition and children's functioning. Thirdly the balance between child satisfaction with custody and access merits further study. Fourthly, the impact of the visiting relationship between noncustodial parents (father) and children was minimal for the present sample. It seems plausible that more involvement by noncustodial fathers would result in their having greater impact on children but this also requires further research. In conclusion, with respect to custody and access issues, the relevance of the present study is primarily confined to a directive for further research.

C. Limitations and Delimitations

The present study is thought to provide many contributions to the existing body of research on family transitions but it is not without <u>limitations</u>. The first limitation of the study is that the results have limited generalizability or external validity. This is due to the following sample characteristics: only two age groups of children participated, the sample was not random because principals and parents had to agree to participate in the study, socioeconomic status could have been more rigorously controlled, and only 212 children out of

the original 950 (22%) actually participated in the study.

A second limitation of the present study relates to the complexity of one-parent and remarried families. These family forms are not homogeneous for there is a wide variety of types within each family form. This is likely true of intact families as well. The present study did not control for all types of intact, one-parent, and remarried families but rather lumped children together from each family form.

A third limitation of the study is that family process. (intrafamilial interactions) variables were not directly observed but inferred from children's perceptions of family process (FAM). This is an important variable and it was, admittedly, not adequately investigated in the present study. However, the study provided stimulation and retrong recommendation for taking family process variables seriously.

The present study is comprehensive but not without <u>delimitations</u>. First, a major delimitation of the present study is that the impact of previous marital discord was not isolated from the impact of current living arrangements for children in one-parent and remarried families. A longitudinal study which followed the same children over time from discordant intact families, through one parent and remarried family living with frequent checkpoints could better isolate the effects of marital discord. A time-series design would help in this query.

The second major delimitation of the present study is that it was basically a correlational study. Relationships between and among a limited number of variables were examined and explained. The relationships and interrelationships among the variables selected provided a somewhat contrived but manageable context for studying child functioning in various family forms. However, there is a multiplicity of reciprocally interacting factors impinging on child functioning and a correlation study, such as the present one, is probably most appropriate for understanding these factors and how they relate to each other.

A final delimitation of the study is the type of instruments used to measure marital adjustment and various aspects of child functioning. There were no direct observational measures; rather marital adjustment, family satisfaction and process, self-esteem, and

behavior in school and at home were measured by using subjective, perceptual incuments. However, according to Symbolic Interaction Theory, perceptions provide one window into reality and, as a result, are crucial in understanding human functioning. At any rate, the limitations and delimitations point to the need for further research in the area of family transitions, the topic of the last section.

D. Directions for Further Research

The final task of the present chapter is to recommend directions for further research on the basis of what has been learned from the present research study. It will be assumed that financial resources are limited but do not preclude necessary, high-quality research.

The interactional relationships between children and parents, siblings, teachers were mentioned various times throughout the research study. For example, many researchers quoted in Chapter II suggest that intrafamilial relationships or family process variables are extremely crucial in understanding child functioning. In addition, if a child's definition of the situation evolves from the child's network of social interactions then a consideration of these sequences of behavior is crucial from a theoretical stance as well. Therefore, research studies on children's functioning in intact, one-parent, and remarried family forms could include family process variables to a greater extent than was done in the present study. In addition to child perceptions of family processes (FAM), further research studies could include observations of interactions between children and parents, teachers, siblings, peers, etc. These interactions could be video-taped and subsequently analyzed by various observers. Sequential analytic methods reviewed by Cousins and Power (1986) could be used to analyze the data. This research strategy would preclude a large sample but it would provide an in-depth investigation of process variables.

The present research study lacked sensitivity to changes in families over time. For example, the short-term and long-term impact of divorce and remarriage on children before, during, and after these family transitions was not tapped. Family researchers could use a longitudinal research strategy in which a sample of children would be investigated over a

10-year period, for example. If the children were all initially from intact families, it is likely that approximately 1/3 of them would experience family transitions during the study. This research strategy would be capable of identifying "peaks" and "valleys" if they exist on a number of dependent variables.

A third direction for further research on family transitions would be to investigate effective models of healthy family functioning in one-parent and remarried family forms. Issues like custody, access, information flow, openness, role definition, and authority and control could be investigated to develop research-based models of healthy family functioning in alternative family forms.

Research in the three areas mentioned above is sorely needed. The present study provides a necessary beginning or first step in understanding the experience of children in various family forms. However, it provides more questions than answers and, as a result, it points to the need for more consistent and conclusive experimental studies in the area of family transitions for practice and for theory-building purposes.

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APPENDIX A PERIMENTAL STUDIES 127

Amato, P. R. (1986). Marital conflict, the parent-child relationship, and child self-esteem. Family Relations, 35, 403-410.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to provide more data on the effects of interparental conflict on an important child variable — self-esteem,

Subjects:

- 402 families (195 families with a grade 3 student and 207 families with a Grade 10

201 intact families, 73 remarried families, 128 one-parent families

Instruments/Measures:

- Children's Interview Schedule
- Parent's Interview Schedule
- Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

Findings:

1. Marital conflict was negatively associated with self-esteem among primary school girls but not among primary school boys.

.. Weak negative associations between conflict and self-esteem were found for male and female adolescents.

3. Marital conflict was negatively associated with the quality of child-father relationship in all groups except among primary school boys.

4. The negative effects of conflict tended to be strongest when children's relationships were poor with both parents.

Bernard, J. M., & Nesbitt, S. (1981). Divorce: An unreliable predictor of children's emotional predispositions, Journal of Divorce, 4, 31-42.

Purpose

The study was designed to investigate the emotional predispositions of children from divorce or disruption and children from intact families.

Subjects:

- 56 children 6-12 years old enrolled in a summer school program to aid children in reading and math
 - 19 from divorced families
 - 8 from disrupted families (conflict & fighting)
 - 29 from intact families
- 70 regular school children 6-12 years of age
 - 35 from divorce families
 - 35 from intact families

Instruments/Measures:

Children's Emotional Projection Instrument

Findings:

There was no evidence to suggest that children of divorce or disruption are more hampered emotionally than children from intact families.

Christensen, A., Phillips, S., Glasgow, R. F., & Johnson, S.M. (1983). Parental characteristics and interactional dysfunction in families with child behavior problems: A preliminary investigation. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 11, 153, 166.

Purpose:

The study was designed to examine the intercorrelations between marital disturbance, parental psychopathology, interactional dysfunction, and parental cognitions,

Subjects:

- 36 families with a "problem" child between 4 and 12 years of age 9 families with a non-problem child between 4 and 12 years of age

Instruments/Measures

- Bi Polar Adjective Checklist
- Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale
- Psychological Screening Inventory
- Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale
- Marital Status Inventory
- Upsetting Behavior Questionnaire
- Child Development Scale
- Problem Situations Scale
- Home observations

Findings:

- 1. Parental perceptions of child behavior problems are associated with marital discord and parental negative behavior toward the child but not with the behavior of the target child.
- 2. Child can be the scapegoat of parental distress in the marriage.

Cooper, J.E., Holman, J., & Braithwait, V.A. (1983). Self-esteem and family cohesion: The child's perspective and adjustment. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 45. 153-159.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to investigate family interactions — not solely adult interactions — and their relationship to children's self-esteem.

Subjects:

467 school children (258 boys, 209 girls) from the fifth and sixth grades of six schools in Canberra, Australia.

ments/Measures:

- Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory
- Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale
- Child and Family Questionnaire
- Family Cohesion Index
- Teacher Questionnaire

Findings.

- 1. Family cohesion has an important influence on the development of self-concepts in children.
- Where children perceive conflict between parents or between themselves and their parents; lower self-esteem can be expected.
- 3. Family structure (one or two parents) does not have the most damaging effect on children's self-esteem. There was no difference in self-esteem between children in cohesive one-parent families and cohesive two-parent families.

Emery, R. E., & O'Leary, K. D. (1982). Children's perceptions of mastral discord and behavior problems of boys and girls. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 10, 11-24.

Purpose

The study was designed to determine if there is a differential impact of marital discord on boys and girls.

Subjects:

- 50 clinic children (25 boys and 25 girls) between the ages of 8 and 17 who lived in intact homes with their natural parents

Instruments/Measures

- Short Marital Adjustment Test'
- Behavior Problem Checklist
- . Children's Perception Questionnaire (statements about the child's home and school life)

Findings:

- 1. Marital discord was most strongly related to conduct problems in boys.
- 2. Boys and girls perceived parental marital discord with equal and moderate accuracy.
- 3. Children's feelings of nonacceptance were not significantly related to ratings of marital?

Emery, R.E., & O'Leary, K.D. (1984). Marital discord and child behaver problems in a nonclinic sample. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 12, 411-420.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between marital discount in nonclinic two-parent families and children's behavior in home and at school.

Subjects:

132 mothers and their children in grades 2, 3, 4 and 5.

Instruments/Measures:

Behavior Problem Checklist
Children's Behavior Checklist
Short Marital Adjustment Test
O'Leary Porter Scale (overt marital hostility)

-Findings

C:

1. Low correlations between marital discord and child behavior problems.

. Mothers ratings of marital discord were more consistently associated with their own than with teacher ratings of child behavior.

Jaffe, P., Wolfe, D., Wilson, S., & Zak, L. (1986). Similarities in behavioral and social maladjustment among child victims and witnesses to family violence. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 56, 142-146.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to assess the impact of exposure to family violence on boys in comparison to physically abused and nonabused boys.

Subjects:

- 32 boys (4 to 16 years old) who were exposed to family violence (wife-battering)

18 boys (6 to 16 years old) who had been physically abused by their parents

15 boys (6 to 16 years old) who were neither exposed to family violence nor had been physically abused by their parents

Instruments/Measures:

Child Behavior Checklist

Findings:

1. Boys who were exposed to family violence showed adjustment difficulties that resembled problems shown by children who were abused by their parents.

2. Both boys who witnessed family violence and boys who were abuse by their parents differed from children of nonviolent families.

F. (1957). Child adjustment in broken and in unhappy unbroken homes. Marriage and Family Living, 19, 356-361.

The purpose of the study was to determine if children in broken and unbroken but unhappy homes differed in terms of adjustment.

Subjects:

- Boys and girls in grades 9, 10, 11 and 12
- 158 children in broken families 112 children in unhappy unbroken families

Instruments/Measures:

Questionnaire

Findings:

1. Adolescents in broken homes showed less psychosomatic, less delinquent behavior, and better adjustment to parents than do children in unhappy unbroken homes.

2. The two groups did not show differences in the areas of adjustment in school, church, or delinquent comparisons.

3. No evidence was found to suggest that there were more adjustment problems in families with "sole" parents than those in which the parent was remarried or in unhappy . unbroken homes.

Disunited unhappy homes were related to poor adjustment in parents as well as in children.

Porter, B., & O'Leary, K.D. (1980). Marital discord and childhood behavior problems. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 8, 287-295.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to assess the relationship between parental hostility toward each other and child psychopathology.

Subjects:

- 64 clinical children (27 boys and 37 girls) aged 5 to 16 years old from intact families.

Instruments/Measures:

- Behavior Problem Checklist
- Short Marital Adjustment Test
- O'Leary Porter Scale (overt marital hostility)

Findings:

Overt marital hostility correlated significantly with behavior problems of boys but not with behavior problems of girls.

Raschke, H.J., & Raschke, V.J. (1979). Family conflict and children's self-concepts: A comparison of intact and single-paarent families. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 41, 367-374.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to assess the effects of family conflict and family structure intact, single parent, reconstituted on children's self-concept.

Subjects:

289 children in grades 3, 6, and 8.

Instruments/Measures:

- Piers-Haries Chidren's Self-Concept Scale
- Ques

Findings |

1. Family structure made no difference in children's self-concepts.

2. Children who perceived greater conflict in their families had lower self-concepts.

3. The greater the perceived happiness of their parents, the self concept of children from both intact and single-parent families was higher.

Ganong, L., Coleman, M., & Brown, G. (1981). Effect of family structure on marital attitudes of adolescents. Adolescence, 16. 281-288.

Purpose:

The present study was designed to determine if differences exist in attitudes and beliefs about marriage and family life among adolescents living in intact, single-parent, or reconstituted families.

Subjects:

- 127 males and 194 females from 15 17 years old
- 48 adolescents from single-parent families,
- 48 from reconstituted families, and
- 225 from intact families

· Instruments/Measures;

- **Questionnaire**
- attitude toward marriage scale
- divorce attitude scale

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marriage role expectation scale

Findings:

- Attitudes toward marriage and family life appear to differ only slightly among adolescents living in intact, single-parent, or reconstituted families:
- 2. Adolescents from reconstituted families were more positive in attitude toward divorce than were adolescents from broken or intact families.

 3. Single-parent family adolescents held more traditional attitudes toward marriage role than
- did adolescents from other family types.

Grossman, S.M., Shea, J.A., & Adams, G.R. (1980). Effects of parental divorce during early childhood on ego development and identity formation of college students. *Journal of Divorce*, 3, 263-272.

Purpose:

The present study was designed to assess the level of ego development, locus of control, and identity achievement in college students who come from intact, divorced, and divorced-remarriage family backgrounds.

Subjects:

294 college students

- 24 from divorced-remarriage families
- · 8 from divorced families
- 261 from intact families

Instruments/Measures:

- Ego-Identity incomplete sentence blank Locus of Central Scale
- Incomplete Sentences Blank

Findings:

Divorce backgrounds were not predictive of lower scores on the measures. No evidence was found for the argument that remarriage may attenuate negative consequences of divorce on college students development.

Guidubaldi, J., & Cleminshaw, H. (1985). Divorce, family health, and child adjustment. Family Relations, 34, 35-41.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to determine if the stress of divorce is associated with the health of divorced family members when compared to the health of intact family members.

Subjects:

- 699 children (341 from divorced families and 358 from intact families) in grades 1, 3, and 5.

Instruments/Measures:

- WISC-R
- Hanemann Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale:
- Vineland Teacher Questionnaire
- Sells and Roff Peer Acceptance
- Rejection Rating
- Locus of control
- Parent interview

Findings:

Marital status was related to health favoring intact family members.

Hetherington, E.M., Cox, M., & Cox, R. (1978). The aftermath of divorce. In J.H. Stevens, Jr. & M. Mathews (Eds.), Mother/child father/child relationships (pp. 149-176): Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to examine changes and stresses experienced by family members and factors related to alterations in parent-child interactions in the two-year period following divorce.

Subjects:

- 96 families
- 24 intact families with preschool girls
- 24 divorced families with preschool girls
- 24 intact families with preschool boys
 - 24 divorced families with preschool boys

Instruments/Measures:

- Parent interviews
- Parent personality inventories Personal Adjustment Scale, of the Adjective Checklist, the Socialization Scale of the California Personality Inventory, Ratter's I-E Scale, and Spielberger's State-Trait Anxiety Scale
- Structured diary record
- Parent-child laboratory interaction observation
- Checklist of child behavior
- Parent rating scale of child behavior

Findings:

- 1. Divorced mothers and fathers encountered marked stresses in practical problems of living, self-concept and emotional adjustment, and interpersonal relations following divorce.
- Disruptions occurred in parent-child relations in many divorced families.
- 3. Children in divorced families were more dependent, disobedient, aggressive, whining, demanding, and unaffectionate than children in intact families.
- 4. A peak of stress in present-child interactions appeared one year after divorce and marked improvement, particularly in mother-child relations occurred thereafter,
- 5. A conflict deden intact family is more deleterious to family members than a stable homes situation in which parents are divorced.

Hodges, W.F., Tierney, C.W., & Buchsbaum, H.K. (1984). The cumulative effect of stress on preschool children of divorced and intact families. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 46, 611-617.

Purpose:

The study was designed to investigate the impact of divorce by looking at the cumulative effect of stressful life events on preschool children and their parents.

Subjects:

- Mothers of 30 children from divorced families and mothers of 60 children from intact
- children were a mean age of 4.4 years old
- there were 44 boys and 46 girls

Instruments/Measures:

- Parent Information Questionnaire
- Parent Checklist of Child Behavior
- Child's Life Event Inventory
- Parent's Life Event Inventory
- Divorced Parents Questionnaire
 - Teacher's Checklist

Findings.

- 1. Cummulative stress was related to adjustment of children of divorce as perceived by parents and teachers.
- 2. Four general pathways for stress to affect child development were suggested by the results:
 - a. divorce may directly affect aggression, distractibility, and acting out toward parents;
 - b. divorce may increase the likelihood of certain circumstances that, in turn, predict adjustment in children, such as economic problems and geographic mobility;
 - c. some parent life stressors may produce an additive effect to the stress a divorce on the child;
 - d. there was one strong interactive effect with divorce and economics in predicting perceived anxiety and depression in preschool children. Only children of divorce were described as affected by adverse economics.
- 3. What emerged in this study was the importance of the psychological climate of the home and the centrality of economic conditions for adjustment in the preschool child.

Kanoy, K.W., Cunningham, J.L., White, P., & Adams, S.J. (1984). Is family structure that critical? Family relationships of children with divorced and remarried parents. Journal of Divorce, 8, 97-1050

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to delineate how interaction among various subsystems and the mother's well-being are related to perceptions of self and family for children with divorced and married parents.

Subjects: *

45 mothers and their 74 children from divorced families 44 mothers and their 79 children from intact families

Instruments/Measures:

For mothers:

- Family Relation's Inventory
- Blair's Divorcee's Adjustment Inventory
- Tennessee Self-Concept Scale
- Internal-External Scale

For children:

- Social Schemes
- Self-Concept Referents Test
- Bills Index of Adjustment and Values
- Branfenbrenner Parent Behavior Questionnaire

Findings:

Variables related to quality rather than quantity of family interaction were the best predictors of children's responses.

The salience of all of the family subsystems (mother-father, mother-child, father-cl was evident in both family structures.

Divorce may necessitate developing stronger and healthier relationships to maintain the individual well-being of family members and to aid in establishing a healthy binuclear ے amily.

Luepnitz, D.A. (1979). Which aspects of divorce affect children? The Family Coordinator. 28, 79-85.

Purpose

The purposes of the study were to investigate a non-clinical population of individuals who had known parental divorce, to gain insight into the duration of the effects of divorce, and to determine which aspect of the divorce affects children.

Subjects:

12 males and 12 female undergraduate students whose parents had divorced before they were 16 years old

Instruments/Measures:

1. Interviews

Findings:

1. Divorce was a major stressor for children.

2. Fifty percent of the sample reported that it was the marital conflict which had produced most of their distress.

3. Subjects did not describe the divorce as having long-term effects on them.

MacKinnon, C.E., Brody, G.H., & Stoneman, Z. (1982). The effects of divorce and maternal employment on the home environments of preschool children, Child Development, 53, 1392-1399.

Purpose

The study was designed to compare properties of intact and single-parent divorced households that have been found to relate to cognitive and social development.

Subjects:

- 60 families
 - 20 mother-headed single-parent families
 - 20 married mother employed families
- 20 married mother homemaker families
- children were 3-6 years of age

Instruments/Measures:

Home observation for the measurement of the environment inventory Rheingold and Cook Checklist — sextyping instrument

Findings:

Preschool children residing in mother headed divorced households experienced less stimulation than children residing in intact households.

Paddock-Ellard, K., & Thomas, S. (1981). Attitudes of young adolescents toward marriage, divorce, and children of divorce. Journal of Early Adolescence, 1, 303-310.

Purpose:

The purpose of this study was to compare the attitudes of thirteen and fourteen-year old early adolescents from intact homes with those of early adolescents of divorce marriage, divorce, and children of divorce.

Subjects:

234 eighth grade students.

118 male

108 female

Instruments/Measures:

Questionnaire

Findings:

As a whole, the responses were positive on all three measures of attitude, with early adolescents from intact homes exhibiting significantly more positive attigudes than early adolescents of divorce.

Rosenthal, P.A. (1979). Sudden disappearance of one parent with separation and divorce: The grief and treatment of preschool children. *Journal of Divorce*, 3, 43-53.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to examine the effect of parental divorce on young children.

Subjects:

- 24 children 2-4 years of age
 - 14 boys
- 10 girls
- from 2-4 years old

Instruments/Measures:

Clinical therapeutic interviews

Findings:

The feelings that surround the loss of one parent affected children less than the relationship the child had with the remaining parent and the supportive/facilitative environment.

Rutter, M. (1971). Parent-child separation: Psychological effects on the children. Journal Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines, 11, 233-260.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to examine the psychological effects of parent-child separation on school-aged children.

Subjects:

families of 9-12 year old children

Instruments/Measures:

- interviews
- questionnaires

Findings:

1. A child's separation from his family constitutes a potential cause of short-term distress but separation is of little direct importance as a cause of long-term disorder.

2. Separation experiences have some association with the later development of antisocial behavior but this is due not to the fact of separation itself, but rather to the family discord which precedes and accompanies the separation.

3. Both active discord and lack of affection are associated with anti-social disorder but a good relationships with one parent can go some way toward mitigating the harmful effect of a quarrelsome unhappy home.

Santrock, J.W., & Tracy, R.L. (1978). Effects of children's family structure status on the development of stereotypes by teachers. Journal of Educational Psychology, 70, 754-757.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to determine if there is a stereotype on the part of teachers that entails negative expectations of children from divorced families and positive expectations of children from father present families.

Subjects:

30 undergraduate student teachers and graduate teachers

Instruments/Measures:

video-taped presentation of an 8 year old boy in which 1/2 of the teachers were told the child was from an intact family and 1/2 of the teachers were told the same child was from a divorced family.

Findings:

The child who was perceived as coming from an intact family was seen more positively than the same child perceived as coming from a divorced family.

Vess, Jr., J.D., Schwebel, A.I., & Moreland, J. (1983). The effects of early parental divorce on sex role developments of college students. *Journal of Divorce*, 7, 83-95.

Purpose:

The study was designed to examine the long-term effects of early parental divorce on sex role development of college students.

Subjects:

- 219 college students

- 84 whose parents divorced before the 10th birthday

135 whose parents remained married

Instruments/Measures:

- Personal Attributes Questionnaire

- Gough Feminity Scale

- Demographic Questionnaire

Findings:

There were no significant differences between subjects from divorced and intact families regarding sex-role development.

Wallerstein, J.S. (1984). Children of divorce: Preliminary report of a ten-year follow-up of young children. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 34, 444-458.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to provide an overview of the effects and reactions to divorce of children ten years after the divorce.

Subjects

30 children aged 12-18 years old (14 boys and 16 girls) who were 2 1/2 to 6 at the time of divorce and their 40 parents.

Instruments/Measures:

- Interviews
- Questionnaires

Findings:

Those who were youngest at the time of marital breakup fared better in the ensuing years than their older siblings.

Wallerstein, J.S., & Kelly, J.B. (1980a). Surviving the breakup: How children and parents cope with divorce. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Purpose:

The goals of the study were:

- 1. to understand children's experience of divorce linkage between early responses to separation and other factors;
- 2. to follow children and adolescents over time to assess the impact of divorce on their development;
- 3. to examine the changes in parent-child relationships, and
- 4. to study the experiences of adults during divorce.

Subjects:

60 families with a total of 131 children ranging in age from 3 to 18 years old.

Instruments/Measures:

- Clinical interviews
- Divorce-specific assessments of children
 - Child data forms
 - Information from counselling sessions

kindings:

- 1. The divorced family is less adaptive economically, socially, and psychologically to the raising of children than the two parent family.
- 2. Children of different ages were affected by the divorce in different ways 18 months after the divorce:
 - a. preschool children were frightened, confused and blamed themselves;
 - b. early latency children expressed feelings of sadness, loss, fear, anger, insecurity, and rejection;
 - c. later latency child had a more realistic understanding of divorce but was ashamed by their parents behavior and felt divided loyalties, lonely and rejected;
 - d. adolescents were the most openly upset by the divorce expressing strong feeling of anger, sadness, shame, and embarrassment.
- 3. At five years after the divorce 34% of children were happy and thriving, 29% were doing reasonably well, and 37% were depressed.

Whitehead, L. (1979). Sex differences in children's responses to family stress: A re-evaluation. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 20, 247-254.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to determine if marital discord is related to antisocial behavior in girls and to determine if there is an association between marital discord and neurotic behavior in children and if there are any clear-cut sex differences in the incidence of this behavior.

Subjects:

2775 first-borns aged seven years old

Instruments/Measures:

- Parental Questionnaire
- Teacher Assessment
- Medical Examination
 - Health Visitors Ratings

Findings:

- 1. Marital disharmony may be associated with antisocial and emotional disorders in children of both sexes.
- 2. Divorce may be more strongly associated with disturbance in boys.
- 3. The signs of juvenile maladjustment associated with parental discord outweigh those associated with parental separation.

Bernard, J.M., & Nesbitt, S. (1981). Divorce: Argunreliable predictor of children's emotional predispositions. *Journal of Divorce*, 4, 31-42.

Purpose:

The study was designed to investigate the emotional predispositions of children from divorce or disruption and children from intact families.

Subjects:

- 56 children 6-12 years old enrolled in a summer school program to aid children in reading and math
 - 19 from divorced families
 - 8 from disrupted families (conflict & fighting)
 - 29 from intact families
- 70 regular school children 6-12 years of age
 - 35 from divorce families
 - 35 from intact families

Instruments/Measures:

Children's Emotional Projection Instrument

Findings

There was no evidence to suggest that children of disperce or disruption are more hampered smotionally than children from intact families.

Copeland, A.P. (1984). An early look at divorce: Mother-child interactions in the first post-separation year. Journal of Divorce, 8, 17-30.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to determine how observed interactions between mothers and children add to understanding the divorce experience for children of different ages and genders.

Subjects:

- 61 children aged 6-12 years old and their mothers participated in this study
 - 31 boys
 - 31 girls
 - Mothers were separated 2-12 months from their spouses

Instruments/Measures:

Observational techniques and videotapes

Findings:

1. Younger children (6-8 year olds), especially boys, have less positive, engaged relationships with their mothers immediately following parental separation but their relationships are improved by the second half of the year.

Older children (9-12 year olds), especially boys, have more synchronous and positive interactions at the beginning than at the end of the post-separation year.

Boys respond more negatively to divorce than girls.

Children's age influences their adjustment.

Guidubaldi, J., Perry, J.D., Clentan, H.K., & McLoughlin, C.S. (1983). The impact of parental divorce on children: Report of the nation wide NASP study. School Psychology Review, 12, 300-323.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of parental divorce on children and to unravel the complex effects of potential mediating factors such as social class, sex, age, and family support systems.

Subjects:

- 699 children in grades 1, 3, and 5 from divorced (n=341) and intact (n=358) families.

Instruments/Measures:

- WISC-R
- WRAT
- Hanemann Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale
- Vineland Teacher Questionnaire
- Sells and Raff Peer Acceptance
- Rejection Rating
- Locus of control
- Optimism pessimism scale
- Child and parent interviews

Findings:

1. Results indicated extensive differences favoring intact family children which persisted when IQ and SES measures were controlled.

2. Within the divorced-family group, boys and older children had lower social and academic adjustment stores.

Hammond, J.M. (1979). Children of divorce: A study of self-concept, academic achievement, and attitudes. The Elementary School Journal, 80, 55-62.

Purpose:

The study was designed the compare children from divorced and intact families on academic achievement, self-concept, and attitudes toward the family.

Subjects:

- 165 elementary school children
- 82 from divorced families
- 83 from intact families

Instruments/Measures:

- achievement in reading and mathematics
- Walker Problem Behavior Identification Checklist
- Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale
- Attitude Toward Family Questionnaire
- Hammond Children of Divorce Questionnaire

Findings:

- 1. There were no significant differences in self-concept or reading and mathematics achievement between children of intact and divorced families.
- 2. Teachers rated boys from divorced families higher on "acting out" and "distractibility" behaviors than boys from intact families.
- 3. Boys from divorced families rated their families as less happy than boys from intact families.
- 4. Boys from divorced families were less satisfied with the time and attention they received from their mothers than boys from intact families.
- 5. Children from divorced families were less satisfied with the time and attention they received from their fathers than children from intact families.
- 6. Children from divorced families responded more positively and realistically to divorce than children from intact families.

Hetherington, E. M. (1979b). Family interaction and the social, emotional, and cognitive development of children after divorce? In T.B. Brazelton & V.C. Vaughan, III (Eds.), The family: Setting priorities, (pp. 71-87). New York: Science & Medicine Publishing Go.

Purpose-

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between family interaction, parenting behaviors, and the emotional, social, and cognitive development of children in the 2 years following divorce.

Subjects:

- 96 families
- 24 intact with boys
- 24 intact with girls
- 24 divorced with boys
- 24 divorced with girls

Instruments/Measures: The following assessments were completed 2 months, 1 year and 2 years following divorce:

interviews and structured diary records of parents

- observations of the parents and their children interacting in the laboratory and at home checklist of children's behavior

personality scales on the parents

Findings:

1. Patterns of family interaction change dramatically in the 2-year period wing divorce and the behavior of the divorced father becomes less important than that in the social personality and cognitive development of their child.

Highly involved fathers played an extremely important role as a support support

the children and the mother.

3. Children with well-adjusted, competent, responsive mothers were adapting well in the home and school 2 years after the divorce.

Hetherington, E.M., Cox, M., & Cox, R. (1979). Play and social interaction in children following divorce. Journal of Social Issues, 35, 3-49.

Purpose:

The study was designed to examine play patterns and social interactions in the school setting of children from divorced families and a matched group of children in non-divorced families.

Subjects:

 24 male and 24 female preschool children from middle class, white, divorced families in which the mother had custody of the child and equal number of male and female children of non divorced families.

Instruments/Measures:

- observational measures of children's free play and social interaction in the school setting
 teacher ratings of the children's behavior
- peer nomination measures
- a sociometric measure of popularity

Findings:

1. Disturbance in family interaction and problem behavior in the children of divorced families increased over the first year following divorce and improved markedly over the course of the second year.

2. The adverse effects were more marked and enduring for boys than girls although the boys' behavior had also become less disturbed by the end of the second year.

Hodges, W.F., Wechsler, R.C., & Ballantine, C. (1979). Divorce and the preschool child Cumulative stress. Journal of Divorce, 3, 55,77.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to imine the effects of divorce on preschool children.

Subjects:

- 52 preschool children (average age = 4.4 years old).
- 26 children from intact families
- 26 children from divorced families

Instruments/Measures:

- Observation Checklist
- Teacher Checklist
- Parent Checklist

- There were relatively few differences between children of divorce and children from intact families.
- Children of divorce were more withdrawn in structured situations than children from intact families while in structured situations the reverse was true. Parents rated children of divorce as less cooperative.
- 4. Limited financial resources predicted more negative adjustment for children of divorce.
- For children of divorce the presence of younger, parents, limited financial resources, and geographic instability predicted maladjustment while these variables were not related to maladjustment for children from intact families.
- A single traumatic event of parents separating early in childhood may be less important than the quality of life and number of life stressors provided by day to day living.

Parish, T.S., Dostal, J.W., & Parish, J.G. (1981). Evaluations of self and parents as a function of intactness of family and family happiness. Adolescence, 16, 203-210.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to look at children's evaluations of themselves and their parents as a function of intactness of family and family happiness.

Subjects:

284 children in grade 5 through 8

Instruments/Measures:

Personal Attribute Inventory for Children

Findings:

1. Regardless of the intactness of the family, happiness within the family was found to be important regarding children's views of themselves and their parents.

Regardless of the happiness of the family, intactness of the family was found to be important regarding children's views of themselves and their parents.

3. More positive evaluations of self and parents were made by children happy families than by children from unhappy families and by children from intact families than by children from divorced families.

Raschke, H.J., & Raschke, V.J. (1979). Family conflict and children's self-concepts: A comparison of intact and single-parent families. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 41, 367-374.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to assess the effects of family conflict and family structure intact, single parent, reconstituted on children's self-concept.

Subjects:

- 289 children in grades 3, 6, and 8.

Instruments/Measures:

- Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale
- Questionnaire

Findings:

1. Family structure made no difference in children's self-concepts.

2. Children who perceived greater conflict in their families had lower self-concepts.

3. The greater the perceived happiness of their parents, the self concept of children from both intact and single-parent families was higher.

Experimental Studies: Cognitive, Affective, Behavioral Effects of Divorce

Santrock, J.W., & Warshak, R.A. (1979). Father custody and social development in boys and girls. Journal of Social Issues, 35, 112-125.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to determine the effects of father custody on children's social development.

Subjects

- 60 families with children 6-11 years of age (27 girls and 33 boys)
 - 20 father custody
 - 20 mother custody
 - 20 intact

Instruments/Measures:

- video-taped observations
- interview of children and parents
- Adaptive Behavior Inventory for Children .br self-report scales
- teacher ratings

- 1. There were no main effects attributable to family structure.
- 2. Children living with the opposite sex parent were less well-adjusted than children living with the same sex parent.
- 3. There was a high positive correlation between the parent's use of authoritative parenting and ratings of the social competence of the child.
- 4. Contact with additional caretakers (e.g., noncustodial parent, baby-sitters, relatives, day-care centers, friends) was positively related to the child's warmth and social conformity.

Experimental Studies: Cognitive, Affective, Behavioral Effects of Divorce

Svanum, S., Bringle, R.G., & McLaughlin, J.E. (1982). Father absence and cognitive performance in a large sample of six-to eleven-year-old children. Child Development, 53, 136-143.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to assess the effects of father absence on achievement and IQ test scopes of children.

Subjects:

- 6109 children from 6 to 11 years of age
- 5493 from-intact families
- 616 from father absent families

Instruments/Measures:

- Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children
 - Wide Range Achievement Test

- 1. Father absence was inconsistently and often weakly related to cognitive development in children.
- 2. Differences attributable to father absence were largely accounted for by socioeconomic status.

Experimental Studies: Cognitive, Affective, Behavioral Effects of Divorce

Touliatos, J., & Lindholm, B.W. (1980). Teachers' perceptions of behavior problems in children from intact, single-parent, and stepparent families. Psychology in the Schools, 17, 264-269.

Purpose:

The study examined differences in the incidence of behavior problems between children living with both natural parents and those in single-parent and stepparent families.

Subjects:

- 3644 children in kindergarten to Grace 8
- 2991 from intact families
- 355 from single-parent families
 - 298 from reconstituted families

Instruments/Measures:

Quay's Behavior Problem Checklist

Findings:

1. Compared to children from intact homes, those living with mother only had more problems checked on all five scales of the checklist; those with father only, more Socialized Delinquency; those with mother and stepfather, more Conduct Problems and Socialized Delinquency, and those with father and stepmother, more Conduct Problems.

2. The effect of sex, social class, and grade in school was magnified for children from single-parent and stepparent families.

Desimone-Luis, J., O'Mahoney, K., & Hunt, D. (1979). Children of separation and divorce: Factors influencing adjustment. Journal of Divorce, 3, 37-42.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to inspect data on a wide range of demographic factors in relation to the adjustment of children of divorce.

Subjects:

- single-parent members of Parents Without Partners Incorporated
 - 25 of their children 7-13 years of age

Instruments/Measures:

Louisville Behavior Checklist

Findings:

1. A dramatic drop of income followed separation in the families of all deviant children.

2. The deviant children were 6 to 9 years old.

Ellison, E.S. (1983). Issues concerning parental harmony and children's psychosocial adjustment. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 5373-80.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to clarify the concept of parental harmony and its relationship to the psychosocial adjustment of school-aged children from married and divorced families.

Subjects*

- 20 families with children 8 to 12 years of age
- 10 divorced families
- 10 intact families

Instruments/Measures:

Parent and Child Interviews

- 1. There was a positive correlation between the degree of parental harmony in divorced couples and their children's assessment of their own psychosocial adjustment.
- 2. Parental harmony has some predictive significance for the effect of marital disruption on children.
- 3. There were no significant differences between the psychosocial adjustment of children from divorced and intact families.

Hess, R.D., & Camara, K.A. (1979). Post-divorce family relationships as mediating factors in the consequences of divorce for children. *Journal of Social Issues*, 35, 80-96.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to compare the social and school behavior of children from divorced and intact families and to examine the effect of relationships among members in both family types.

Subjects:

- 32 families with children 9-11 years of age
 - 16 divorced
- 16 intact

Instruments/Measures:

- ent, child, teacher interviews
- school performance records
- teacher ratings
 - a behavior checklist

- 1. The relationship among family members appeared to be more potent influences on child behavior than was marital status.
- 2. The negative effects of divorce were greatly mitigated when positive relationships with both parents were maintained.
- 3. The child's relationship with the non-custodial parent (father) was as important as the continuing relationship with the mother.

Hodges, W.F., & Bloom, B.L. (1984). Parent's report of children's adjustment to marital separation. *Journal of Divorce*, 8, 33-50.

Purpose:

- The present study addressed the following questions:
- 1. Is there an age of unusual vulnerability to divorce as perceived by the parents?
- 2. Do the sex differences documented in the literature with boys having greater problems than girls, exist at all age levels?
- 3. Does the subsequent marital status of the parents predict their perception of the post-separation adjustment of the child?
- 4. What are the implications of the relationships of age and sex of the child to adjustment to parental divorce for the development of intervention programs?

Subjects:

107 children (53 boys & 54 girls) aged 1-18 years old and their parents (separated 6-18 months)

Instruments/Measures:

- Interview (parent, children)
- Child Behavior Checklist

- 1. Younger children were report to exhibit more acting-out behavior while older children showed more depression.
- Boys were described as having more problems than girls.
 Children under 7 demonstrated statistically significant decline in adjustment from separation to 18 months. No time effects were observed for children between age 7-18.
- 4. Children whose parents were still separated or who had remarried by 18 months were more maladjusted than children whose parents had divorced.

Jacobson, D. S. (1978a). The impact of marital separation/divorce on children: Il Interparent hostility and child adjustment. Journal of Divorce, 2, 3-19.

The study was designed to determine if there is, an association between the psychosocial adjustment of children and the expression of interparent hostility that children experience.

Subjects:

30 families including 51 children ranging in age from 3 to 17, all of whom experienced a marital separation in the 12-month period prior to the interview.

Instruments/Measures:

- Interviews with parents and children
 - Hostility Schedule
- Louisville Behavior Checklist

- 1. The findings suggest that an important aspect of child adjustment to the life events of parental separation is the amount of interparent hostility to which the children have been exposed. 2. The greater the amount of parental hostility, the greater the maladjustment of the child.

Jacobson, D.S. (1978b). The impact of marital separation/divorce on children: III Parent-child communication and child adjustment, and regression analysis findings from overall study. *Journal of Divorce*, 2, 175-194.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to examine the psychosocial adjustment of of the child, and the association between child adjustment and the amount of preparation they had for marital separation.

Subjects:

- 30 families including 51 children ranging in age from 3 to 17, all of whom experienced a marital separation in the 12-month period prior to the study. <u>Instruments/Measures</u>:
 - interviews with parents and children parent-child communications study the Louisville Behavior Checklist
- clinical rater form

- 1. The more attention from parents in dealing with the separation, the better the adjustment of children.
- 2. The more parental encouragement of discussion about the divorce, the better the adjustment of children.
- 3. Children who brought problems regarding the event to parents after the separation were better adjusted than those who did not.
- 4. The variable that accounts for the most variance in child adjustment in the first year after parental separation was the attention of parents to children in dealing with the separation. Time lost with the father since parental separation was the second most powerful predictor of childhood adjustment.

Kalter, N., & Rembar, J. (1981). The significance of a child's age at the time of parental divorce. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 5, 85-100.



The purpose of the study was to examine the association between the timing of parental divorce and it's impact on the development of children.

Subjects:

- 144 outpatient children of divorced families
 - 76 children 7-11 years of age
 - 68 children 12-17 years of age

Instruments/Measures:

- Emotional Disturbance Scale
- Presenting Complaints Checklist

Findings:

1. No pronounced relationship between the age of the child during the divorce process and the degree of later emotional disturbance.

2. Taming of parental divorce was associated with different kinds of vulnerabilities—marital dissolution earlier (age 0-2 1/2) was associated with separation-related difficulties during latency and divorce during the oedipal phase showed the greatest effects in adolescent children.

Kulka, R.A., & Weingarten, H. (1979). The long-term effects of parental divorce in childhood on adult adjustment. Journal of Social Issues, 35, 50-77.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to investigate potential long-term consequences of experiencing a parental divorce on separation prior to age 16 by examining a variety of measures of adult adjustment and psychological functioning.

Subjects:

- 2,460 survey respondents 21 years of age or older contacted in 1957.
- 2,264 adults contacted in 1976

Instruments/Measures:

Structured Interview

Findings:

1. There is little evidence for the existence of any long-term effects of coming from a home broken by parental divorce or separation.

2. Relationships between psychological distress and early experiences with parental divorce appear to have weakened over the past two decades and coming from a non-intact family of origin has at most only a modest effect on adult adjustment.

Kurdek, L.A., Blisk, D., & Siesky, Jr., A.E. (1981). Correlates of children's long-term adjustment to their parents' divorce. Developmental Psychology, 17, 565-579.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to assess the nature and correlates of adjustment to divorce of children whose parents had been separated about 4 years.

Subjects:

- 58 children 8-17 years of age
- 24 of these children for a 2 year follow-up

Instruments/Measures:

- home visits
- California Psychological Inventory
- Adjective Checklist
- locus of control
- interpersonal reasoning
 - questionnaires
- parent rating of children's behavior
- divorce adjustment scores
- Personality Inventory for Children

Finding

1. There were few divorce-related problems in children in the sample.

Over the 2-year follow-up the children's understanding of and feelings about the divorce remained stable.

The child who was well adjusted to divorce had parents who were not recently separated, was older, had internal locus of control, and had a high level of interpersonal reasoning.

4. Children's level of divorce adjustment was related to their more global personal adjustment.

Kurdek, L.A., & Siesky, Jr., A.E. (1980a). Effects of divorce on children: The relationship between parent and child perspectives. *Journal of Divorce*, 4, 85-99.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to investigate how parents see their children affected by divorce and how children perceive various aspects of divorce

Subjects:

71 divorced parents and their 130 children (65 boys and 65 girls) from 5 to 19 years of age

Instruments/Measures:

parent and child questionnaires

Findings:

1. Favorable reactions and adjustments to divorce were seen in children who defined divorced in terms of psychological separation, shared views of the divorce with friends, had relatively positive evaluations of both parents, and saw themselves as having acquired strengths and responsibility as a result of the divorce.

2. Unfavorable reactions and adjustments were related to children's commenting on the extent of parental conflict in the preseparation period, defining divorce in child-oriented terms, experiencing problems in peer relations, and viewing both parents in negative terms.

Moore, D., & Hotch, D.F. (1982). Parent-adolescent separation: The role of patental divorce: Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 11, 115-119.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to examine the effects of parental divorce on parent-adolescent separation.

Subjects:

- 85 males and 87 females 18-21 years of age

Instruments/Measures:

questionnaire including Emotional Separation and Personal Control items

Findings:

Parental divorce/separation influenced adolescent home leaving for males which indicates that males experience more adjustment problems after parental divorce than females.

Nelson, G. (1981). Moderators of women's and children's adjustment following parental divorce. Journal of Divorce, 4, 71-82.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to determine the strongest moderators of the relationships between the crisis of parental divorce and the psychosocial adjustment of divorced women and their dependent children.

Subjects:

. 16 girls and 15 boys 4-14 years of age and their separated/divorced custodial mothers

Instruments/Measures:

- Measures of women's adjustment
 - Affect Balance Scale
 - Negative Feelings Questionnaire
 - Social Adjustment Scale

Measures of children's adjustment

- Self-appraisal Inventory
- Behavior Problem Checklist

Interviews

Findings:

1. Relationship factors were the strongest moderators of women's and children's adjustment following parental divorce. Women who were somewhat positive about their ex-husbands, as compared to those who were either very positive or not at all positive, had the best emotional adjustment.

2. An amicable settlement between the divorced partners and the passage of time foster

positive emotional adjustment in the children.

3. Divorced women's ratings of their happiness in marriage was a stronger moderator of children's behavioral adjustment than the divorcee's current relationships with their ex-husbands.

Nunn, G.D., Parish, T.S., & Worthing, R.J. (1983). Perceptions of personal and familial adjustment by children from intact, single-parent, and reconstituted families. Psychology in the Schools, 20, 166-174.

The purpose of the study was to investigate children's personal and familial adjustment to determine if this varied as a function of familial configuration and gender.

Subjects:

- 566 children (252 females and 314 males) from grades 5 through 10
 - 41 children from divorced single-parent families
 - 99 children from divorced remarried families
 - 426 children from intact families

Instruments/Measures:

- The Personal Attribute Inventory for Children
- State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children
- Behavior Rating Profile

Findings:

1. There was less positive adjustment among children from divorced families (whether the remaining parent remarried or not).

There were mixed findings regarding comparisons of psychosocial adjustment between single-parent and remarried groups.

3. Males appeared to be favorably affected within the single-parent configuration while females were more favorably adjusted within the reconstituted family.

Nye, F. (1957). Child adjustment in broken and in unhappy unbroken homes. Marriage and Family Living, 19, 356-361.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to determine if children in broken and unbroken but unhappy homes differed in terms of adjustment.

Subjects:

Boys and girls in grades 9, 10, 11 and 12

158 children in broken families 112 children in unhappy unbroken families

Instruments/Measures;

Questionnaire:

Findings:

1. Adolescents in broken homes showed less psychosomatic, less delinquent behavior; and better adjustment to parents than do children in unhappy unbroken homes.

2. The two groups did not show differences in the areas of adjustment in school, church, or delinquent comparisons.

3. No evidence was found to suggest that there were more adjustment problems in families with "sole" parents than those in which the parent was remarried or in unhappy unbroken homes:

4. Disunited unhappy homes were related to poor adjustment in parents as well as in children.

Pett, M.G. (1982). Correlates of shildren's social adjustment following divorce. Journal of Divorce, 5, 25-39.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to examine family correlates of children's social adjustment following divorce.

Subjects:

206 divorced families and their 411 children (210 boys and 201 girls) 2-18 years of age

Instruments/Measures:

- Personal Adjustment and Role Skills Scale II (children's social adjustment)
- parental social adjustment scale
- assessment of parental feelings and general well being,
- interview schedule

Findings:

1. The strongest single correlate of children's adjustment was the quality of their relationship with the noncustodial parent.

Other significant correlates of adjustment were the custodial parent's ability to maintain emotional and social adjustment, the parent's age (directly correlated) number of previous marriages (inversely correlated) the children's current reaction to the divorce, and parental satisfaction

Rosen, R. (1979). Some crucial issues concerning children of divorce. Journal of Divorce, 3, 19-25.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to examine the effects of custody and access on the adjustment of children.

Subjects:

- 92 subjects from 9 to 28 years of age whose parents divorced in the 10 year period prior to the study
- 25 subjects matched on sex, age, occupation or education, and religion

Instruments/Measures:

- interviews
- Incomplete Sentences Blank
 - Thematic Apperception Test
- Human Figure Drawing

- 1. No significant differences were found between mother custody and father custody groups on any measures of child adjustment.
- 2. Divorce was perceived as least traumatic where freedom of access had been predicted.
- 3. No significant differences in general adjustment were revealed in a comparison between the sample and control groups.
- 4. Interparental turbulence emerged as the single most significant factor in relation to the adjustment of the sample.

Ambert, A.M. (1982). Differences in children's behavior toward custodial mothers and custodial fathers. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 44, 73-86.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to determine if there was a difference between children's behavior toward their custodial mothers and custodial fathers.

Subjects:

- 20 custodial mothers
 7 custodial fathers
- Instruments/Measures:
- interviews
 - observed interactions

- 1. Custodial fathers reported better child behaviors than custodial mothers.
- 2. The children of custodial fathers verbalized their appreciation for their custodial parent more frequently than children of custodial mothers.
- Behavior of children in low SES mother-headed families was more difficult than that of high SES mother-headed families.
- 4. Satisfaction with the experience of parenting was greatest for custodial fathers, moderate for higher SES custodial mothers, and lowest for lower SES custodial mothers.

Beal E.W. (1979). Children of divorce: A family systems perspective. Journal of Social Issues, 35, 140-154.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to report on marriage and divorce as processes through which emotional attachments of family members are established and resolved.

Subjects

40 divorced families with 100 children 4-18 years of age

Instruments/Measures

- clinical interviews
- school reports
- psychiatric evaluations

Findings:

1. By focusing on the concepts of emotional attachment in general and child focus in particular, results suggest that the family's own emotional equilibrium significantly contributes to the functioning of children and parents during and following the divorce process.

2. Families with a mild degree of child focus contained the stress between parents.

3. Families with a severe degree of child focus turn stress on the child (ren) and children adapted poorly, as a result. These families were characterized by a high level of conflict and little "give and take".

Furstenberg, Jr., F.F., Nord, C.W., Peterson, J.L., & Zill, N. (1983). The life course of children of divorce: Marital disruption and parental contact. American Sociological Review, 48, 656-668.

Purpose:

study was designed to examine the incidence of marital disruption in children's lives, the type of living arrangements children experience following a disruption, and the amount of contact children maintain with the outside parent.

Subjects:

2279 children-7-11 years old in 1747 households and school information on 1682 children

Instruments/Measures:

parent and child interviews

- 1. There is a pronounced rise in the rates of marital disruption for more recent cohorts, and the risk of disruption remains considerable for children in early adolescence (approximately 39% by age 15).
- 2. The majority of the children had no direct contact with their outside parent in the past year.
- 3. Frequent contact with the outside parent occurred in 16% of the disrupted families.
- 4. Only 3% of the respondents had a joint custody arrangement.
- 5. Provision of child support, residential propinquity of the outside parent, and length of time since separation were the most important factors in accounting for the amount of contact between the outside parent and the child.

Guidubaldi, J., & Perry, J.D. (1984). Divorce, socioeconomic status, and children's cognitive-social competence at school entry. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 54, 459-468.

Purpose

The purpose of the present study was to examine the predictive significance of divorced versus intact family status of kindergarten children and to assess the amount of predicted variance that is independent of a composite SES factor.

Subjects:

115 children in kindergarten

26 single parent family 89 intact family

Instruments/Measures:

- Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test
- Draw-A-Person
- Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt Test
- Wide Range Achievement Test
- Metropolitan Readiness Test
- Academic Rating
- Sells and Roff Scale of Peer Status

 Kohn Social Competence Scale
- Vineland Social Maturity Scale

- 1. Children from divorced family homes enter school with significantly less social and academic competence than those from intact families.
- 2. Single-parent status resulting from divorce predicts poor academic and social school entry competence in addition to and independent of SES.
- 3. Both single-parent status and SES have been shown to be more powerful and consistent predictors of competence than other family background and infant health-development variables.

Kinard, E.M., & Reinherz, H. (1986). Effects of marital disruption on children's school aptitude and achievement. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 48, 285-293.

Purpose:

The study was designed to provide an opportunity to assess the effects of marital disruption on children's academic performance and to clarify the role of important intervening variables in mediating the effects of marital disruption.

Subjects:

- 150 fourth grade children
 - 33 early disrupted from one-parent families
 - 30 recently disrupted from one-parent families
 - 87 from two-parent families

Instruments/Measures:

- parent questionnaires teacher questionnaires
- Preschool Screening System (cognitive skills)
- Short Form test of Academic Aptitude -
- California Achievement Test

Findings:

1. Children in recently disrupted families (during early school years) had more problems in certain areas of school performance than children in early disrupted families (before entering school) and children in never disrupted families.

2. Chidren in recently disrupted families had the lowest scores on language and total achievement in Grade 4 and were perceived by third-grade teachers as being the least productive.

3. Children in never disrupted families had the highest scores and were rated the most productive.

4. Scores for children in the early disrupted families fell between the other two groups and were generally not significantly different from either.

5. The results suggest that parental separation or divorce may not necessarily have long-term negative consequences.

Kurdek, L.A., & Siesley, Jr., A.E. (1980b). Sex-role self-concepts of single divorced parents and their children. Journal of Divorce, 3, 249-261.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to explore the sex-role self-concepts of single divorced custodial parents and their children.

Subjects:

- 74 divorced parents, (60 mothers and 14 fathers)

92 children (43 boys and 49 girls) from 10-14 years of age

Instruments/Measures:

- BEM Sex-Role Inventory
- Child Sex-Role Inventory

Findings:

1. Both custodial mothers and fathers evidenced high levels of androgyny (high masculinity high femininity) when contrasted with published norms.

2. Parent and child sex role self-concepts were not directly related to each other.

3. Children were classified as mostly either androgynous or undifferentiated (low masculinity - low femininity) with boys being more androgynous and girls were undifferentiated when contrasted with available norms.

4, Both boys and girls were significantly more androgynous than a matched sample of

children whose parents were not divorced.

Roy, C.M., & Fuqua, D.R. (1983). Social support systems and academic performance of single parent students. The School Counselor, 30, 183-193.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to determine if single-parent families of high achieving students had greater social support than single-parent family of low achieving children.

Subjects:

10 male and 12 female children 7-18 years of age living in a single-parent family.

Instruments/Measures:

reports card grades questionnaire

Findings:

An adequate social support system may mediate the negative effects of single parent family status on children's academic performance.

Schlesinger, B. (1982). Children's viewpoints of living in a one-parent family. Journal of Divorce, 5, 1-23.

Purpose.

The purpose of the study was to determine children's reviewpoints on living in a one-parent family.

Subjects:

40 children living in one-parent families 12-18 years old

Instruments/Measures:

questionnaire

Findings

1. Children of one-parent families were quite resilient and showed many strengths.

2. These children were saying to parents that they have feelings, that they know what is going on, and that they want to be told about the details of the separation.

3. The separation seems to affect children but over time the hurt appears to lessen and they seem to live a normal family life with one parent at home.

Weiss, R.S. (1979). Growing up a little faster: The experience of growing up in a single-parent household. Journal of Social Issues, 35; 97-111.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to determine the consequences for children of living in a single-parent household.

Subjects:

- 200 single-parents
 - married couples
- children ranging in age form six to young adult from twenty families
 - twenty adolescent children

Instruments/Measures:

interviews

Findings:

1. Children living in single-parent families shared managerial responsibility with the parent.

2. Consequences for children growing up in a single-parent family may be a fostering of early maturity.

Zakariya, S.B. (1982). Another look at the children of divorce: Summary report of the school needs of one-parent children. *Principal*, 62, 34-37.

Purpose

The study was designed to compare the school performance or children from one and two parent households.

Subjects:

- 18,000 children from one and two parent families

Instruments/Measures:

School Records

Findings:

1. Two parent children received higher grades than one parent children.

2. Children from one parent households displayed a higher frequency of absenteeism than shildren from one parent households.

3 A higher family income was strongly correlated with the number of parents in the home.

Abarbanel, A. (1979). Shared parenting after separation and divorce: A study of joint custody. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 49, 320-329.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact on children of living in a joint custody situation.

Subjects:

- 4 families — 8 parental homes with children 4 to 12 years of age

Instruments/Measures:

- interviews
- home visits

- 1. Children appeared well-adjusted with no; severe behavioral problems.
- 2. Joint custody was working effectively in the four families in the study.
- 3. Four factors contributed to the success of joint custody arrangements:
 - a. Commitment to the arrangement,
 - b. parents' mutual support,
 - c. flexible sharing of responsibility, and
 - d. agreement on the implicit rules of the system.
- 4. Joint custody offers advantages and disadvantages to all family members.

Bowman, M.E., & Ahrons, C.R. (1985). Impact of legal custody status on fathers' parenting postdivorce. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 47, 481-488.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to compare the parenting one year after divorce of 28 joint-custodial fathers with 54 noncustodial fathers. Specifically, the study was designed to determine if joint custody fathers spend more time and are more involved with their children than are noncustodial fathers and if they also have more interaction with their former spouses.

Subjects:

- 54 mother custody cases
- 28 joint custody cases

Instruments/Measures:

Three indicators of fathers' involvement:

- physical contact
- Parental Involvement Scale (activities with the children)
- Coparental Interaction-Scale (shared responsibility and decision making)

- 1. It custody fathers had more contact with their children and involved in parenting postdivorce than were the noncustodial fathers.
- 2. Joint custody fathers reported greater sharing of parental responsibilities with their former wives than did noncustodail fathers.
- 3. Moderate levels of interparental conflict did not appear to seriously restrict father-child interaction.

Luepnitz, D.A. (1982). Child Custody: A study of families after divorce. Toronto: D.C. Heath and Company.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to compare various custody arrangements to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any evidence that would support a legal presumption for custody in the mother?

2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of maternal, paternal and joint custody from both adult's and children's point of view?

3. How do families in the three custody types restructure their daily lives or what constitutes successful coping after divorce?

Subjects:

- 16 custodial mothers
- 16 custodial fathers
- 18 parents with joint custody
- 91 children order to qualify for the study the following had to apply:
 - 1. the family had at least one child under 16.
 - 2. the custodial spouse had not remarried, and
 - 3. the final separation occurred at least two years prior to the interview:

Instruments/Measures:

- Piers-Harris Self-Concept Test for Children
- Parental Rating of Child Behaviors
- TAT task (family was to make up stories about cards)
- Rank-Stress Seale
- Interview

- 1. The self-concept of children in maternal, paternal, and joint custody were not significantly different from each other.
- 2. Children's self-concept scores were significantly lower in families that had sustained high conflict after divorce regardless of custody type.
- . Parents' ratings of their children were independent of custody type.
- 4. There were no differences in emotional atmospheres of families headed by men and by women.
- 5. There were no differences in the levels of spouse conflict by custody type.
- 6. There were no differences in childhood adjustment among the three custody arrangements.
 - . Parental conflict predicted poorer adjustment of children.
- 8. Restructuring of the family after divorce required the following:
 - a. parents adapted cross-gender skills, ...
 - b. children were given more responsibility around the house and more decision-making power within the family,

- c. mestamily's relationships with the outside word was expanded to include neighbors, dures, church friends; Big Brothers, and therapists.
- 9. Joint custody had more advantages and fewer disadvantages than either maternal or paternal custody.

Rothberg, B. (1983). Joint custody; Parental problems and satisfactions. Family Process, 22, 43-52.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to explore the parental satisfactions and dissatisfactions with joint custody of their children.

Subjects:

30 papents (14 men and 16 women) with joint custody of their children 25 children (12 boys and 13 girls) between the ages of 6 and 18 years old

Instruments/Measures:

"interviews

- 1. The following were problems with joint custody:
 - a. >difficulties with transitions, logistical problems, and the stress of children moving back and forth in adjusting to two environment;
 - b. dealing with ex-spouses;
 - c. financial strain;
 - d. geography.
- 2. Joint custody being fitted children in that they had better access to both parents.
- 3. Parents generally felt that the arrangement was a positive one.

Steinman, S. (1981). The experience of children in a joint-custody arrangement: A report of a study. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 51, 403-414.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to examine the psychological experience and impact of joint custody upon children and their parents.

Subjects:

24 families with 32 children (17 girls and 15 boys) from 4-15 years old whose parents have joint custody.

Instruments/Measures:

- parent interviews
 child interviews
- Family Drawing (projective)
- Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

- 1. Parents who chose joint custody found the arrangement satisfactory despite some difficulties; they felt it to be congruent with their value system, life-style, and relationship with their children.
- 2. Children valued the joint-custody arrangement because it gave them access to both parents.
- 3. In general, children did not like the inconvenience of going back and forth between two homes and about 1/3 of the children felt overburdened by the demands and requirements of maintaining a strong presence in two homes.
- 4. The most crucial and beneficial components of joint custody for the children lie in the attitudes values, and behavior of their parents.

Watson, M.A. (1981). Custody alternatives: Defining the best interests of the children. Family Relations, 30, 474-479.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of custody arrangements on children and their families.

Subjects: 1

- 11 adults who have joint custody arrangements for their children with their previous
- 6 adult males who have sole custody of their children
- ·3 children of the above parents, ages 8, 9, and 10 years who have been living in a variety of custody arrangements for an average of 3.6 years

Instruments/Measures:

interviews

Findings:

1. In joint custody arrangements, child care was shared; fathers as well as mothers tended to feel a primary committee to their children.

2. Children asserted to their best interests were served when they could spend approximately equal points of time with each parent.

3. One predictor of successful alternative custodial arrangements may be the pre-divorce involvement of the parents and children and, in particular, the involvement of the father with the children. with the children.

Clingempeel, W.G., Brand, E., & Ievoli, R. (1984). Stepparent-stepchild relationships in stepmother and stepfather families: A multimethod study. Family Relations, 33,

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to describe the characteristics of stepparent-stepchild relationships in stepmother and stepfather families.

Subjects: 615 stepmother and 16 stepfather families and their children 9-12 years of age

Instruments/Measures':

Social Demographic and Marital History Questionnaire

Child Report of Stepparent Behavior Inventory

Parent and Stepparent Report of Child Behavior toward the Stepparent Inventory

Behavioral Observations: Family Problem Solving System

Findings:

1. Stepparent-stepdaughter relationships in both stepmother and stepfather families were more problematic than stepparent-stepson relationships.

2. Lower scores on Love and higher scores on Detachment dimensions were found for

stepparent-stepdaughter relationships.

3. Girls emitted a lower proportion of positive verbal and a higher proportion of negative problem solving behavior toward their stepparents than did boys.

4. Stepparents did not differ in their responses to boys and girls on any of the behavioral measures.

& Canona I U (1004) Tec. Coleman, M., & Ganong, L.H. (1984). Effect of family structure on simily attitudes and expectations. Family Relations, 33, 425-432.

Purpose:

The purpose of the present study was to examine the effects of family structure and family integration on children's attitudes towards marriage, marriage roles, and divorce.

Subjects:

- 531 male and 660 female high school and college students 15-22 years of age
- 867 students in intact families
- 91 students in stepfather families
 35 students in stepmother families
- 170 students in mother only families
- 28 students in father only families

Instruments/Measures:

- 72 item questionnaire including
 - Attitude Toward Marriage Scale
 - Marriage Role Expectations Scale
 - Divorce Opinionaire
 - Orientation to Parent Scales

Findings:

- 1. Children from family structures with high family integration scores had more positive. attitudes towards marriage than those who perceived themselves as moderately close or distant from parents but attitudes toward divorce were not affected by levels of family integration.
- 2. Subjects from single-parent and stepfamily households living with their mothers were most favorable toward divorce and those from intact households were the least favorable.
- 3. Stepchildren do not differ from persons raised in other family structures.
- 4. Stepchildren are not adversely affected by parental remarriage.

Caosbie-Burnett, M. (1984). The centrality of the step relationship: A challenge to family therapy and practice. Family Relations, 33, 459-463.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to assess the relative importance of the marital relationship versus the stee relationship (stepfather-stepchild) to overall happiness with the family.

Subjects:

- 87 mother-stepfather households
- 128 of their adolescent children (63 girls, 65 boys)

Instruments/Measures:

- questionnaife
- overall happiness with the family
- marital happiness
- establishment of a mutually suitable relationship between the stepfather and stepchildren perceived nurturance between the stepfather and stepchildren
- comfort with stepfather discipline

Findings:

The establishment of mutually suitable relationship between a stepfather and his stepchildren had a greater effect on family happiness than did the quality of the marital relationship.

Halperin, S.M. (1983). Differences in stepchildren's perceptions of their stepfathers and natural fathers: Implications for family therapy. Journal of Divorce, 7, 19-30.

The purpose of the study was to compare stepchildren's perceptions of their stepfathers, stepchildren's perceptions of their natural fathers, and a control group's perceptions of their natural fathers.

Subjects:

- 140 children from 10 to 12 years old
 - 70 children from intact families
 - 70 children from stepfamilies

Instruments/Measures':

Adjective Checklist (Ward)

Findings:

1. Stepchildren did not display more negative perceptions of their stepfathers as compared to their natural fathers.

2. Stepchildren perceived both their stepfathers and their natural fathers less positively and

more negatively than the control children perceived their natural fathers.

· Lutz, P. (1983). The stepfamily: An adolescent perspective. Family Relations, 32, 356-375.

Rurpose:

The purpose of the study was to investigate adolescent perceptions of stressful and non-stressful aspects of stepfamily living.

Subjects:

103 children (59 girls, 44 boys) from 12-18 years old living in stepfamilies

Instruments/Measures:

Stress Questionnaire

Findings:

1. Issues pertaining to divided loyalty and discipline were perceived to be stressful by the greatest number of adolescents.

2. Issues pertaining to social attitudes and being a member of two households were perceived to be stressful by the least number of adolescents.

Perkins, T.F., & Kahan, J.P. (1979). An empirical comparison of natural-father and stepfather family systems. Family Relations, 18, 175-183.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to examine the family system differences between natural-father and stepfather families.

Subjects:

- 40 natural- and stepfather families
- children 12-15 years old

Instruments/Measures:

- The Family Concept Q-sort
- Semantic Differential
- Demographic Questionnaire
- Interaction-reaction Questionnaire

Findings:

- 1. Stepparent families were found to function less well as natural-parent families.
- 2. Stepchildren understood their stepfathers less than natural children understood their fathers.
- 3. Stepfathers rated their stepchildren as less good than natural fathers rated their children.

Santrock, J.W., Warshak, R., Lindbergh, C., & Meadows, L. (1982). Children's and parent's observed social behavior in stepfather families. Child Development, 53, 472-480.

Purpose:

The purpose of the study was to examine the effects of remarriage on the parent's and the children's social behavior.

Subjects:

- 36 children from 6-11 years of age and their parents
 - 12 children in intact families
 - 12 children in divorce families
 - 12 children in remarried families

Instruments/Measures:

video-taped observations of parent-child interaction

Findings:

1. Boys in stepfather families showed more competent social behavior than boys in intact families and parenting behaviors were more competent in the families of stepfather boys. Also, marital conflict was more intense between the parents of intact-family boys.

2. Girls in stepfather families showed more anxiety than girls in intact families but there was no corresponding link with parenting behavior when the stepfather and intact families were compared. There was some indication that there was greater marital conflict between the parents of the stepfather girls than the intact family girls.

3. There were no differences between divorced and intact families, and between boys and girls in divorced families.

4. There was a trend for boys in stepfather families to be more mature than children in divorced families.

5. The social behavior of children is not necessarily less competent in stepfather and divorced families than in intact families.

6. Parenting behavior, the sex of the child, and marital conflict in any type of family structure were implicated as possible explanations of the child's social behavior.

Strother, J., & Jacob, E. (1984). Adolescent stress as it relates to stepfamily living: Implications for school counselors. The School Counselor, 31, 27-103.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to ascertain what adolescents believe to be the stressful and non-stressful aspects of stepfamily living and to determine whether the level of stress for the adolescent stepchildren diminished over time.

Subjects:

28 male and 35 female students from 13 to 18 years old

all participants entered their stepfamily when they were adolescents

Instruments/Measures:

Questionnaire designed to measure perceived stress in 12 areas of stepfamily life

Findings:

1. Overall stress related to stepfamily issues was not high (mean of 2.12 on a 4-point scale with 1 as low and 4 as high).

2. The category of discipline yielded the highest level of stress (mean = 2.52) and the area of social issues was found to be least stressful (mean = 1.50).

3. Adolescents who had lived in a stepfamily 2-3 and 3-4 years yielded higher mean stress scores than those who had lived in a stepfamily 0-2 years.

Wilson, K.L., Zurcher, L.A., McAdams, D.C., & Curtis, R.L. (1975). Stepfather and stepchildren: An exploratory analysis from two national surveys. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 37, 526-536.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to determine if there were any differences between children raised in stepfather families and those raised in natural father families in social and social-psychological characteristics.

Subjects:

- National Opinion Research Center Sample
 - 1174 natural-father family respondents 18 years of age and older
 - 43 stepfather family respondents 18 years of age and older
- Youth in Transition Survey Sample
 - 1573 natural-father family adolescents
 - 79 stepfather family adolescents

Instruments/Measures

- NORC survey questionnaire
- YIT survey questionnaire

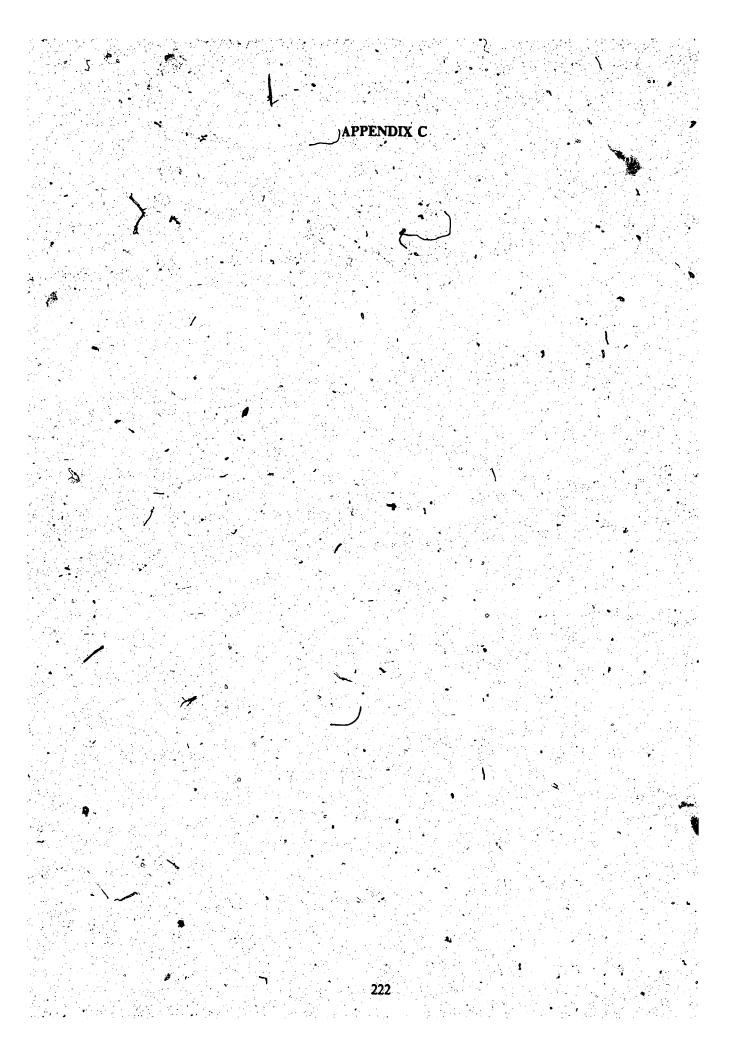
Findings:

1. There were no substant adifferences between individuals who had experienced stepfather families and those who had experienced natural father families in the selected social and social-psychological characteristics.

As in a natural-parent family, children in stepfather families can experience a predominantly positive, negative, or mixed family milieu.

INSTRUMENTS. 208

The Culture-Free SEI, Form B. (pp. 209-211), the Family Assessment Measure (pp. 212-214), the Family Satisfaction Scale (p. 215), the Health Resources Inventory (pp. 216-218), and the Background Information Form (pp. 219-221) have been removed due to the unavailability of copyright permission.



February 28, 1986

Dear Parent:

The students in your child's class and their parents are being requested to participate in a University of Alberta research study titled "A Comparative Analysis of School-Aged Children Living in Intact, One-Parent, and Remarried Families." The study is being conducted by David L. Mensink for his doctoral dissertation under the supervision of Dr. D.D. Sawatzky, Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta.

The purpose of the research study is to compare students from intact, one-parent, and remarried families using academic, self-esteem, and behavioral measures. The results of the study will provide unique and interesting information for parents, teachers, principals, family researchers, and family therapists. Your participation in this study would be valuable because family forms are changing and we need to know more about all the various types of families. All information collected will be kept completely confidential and results will be reported only for groups (e.g. Grade 6 students) and not for individuals.

Enclosed in this package are instructions for completing the instruments, a parental consent form, a description of the purpose and procedures of the research study, and a number of instruments. If you agree to participate in the study, please complete and return the Background Information Form and the Health Resources Inventory with the signed parental consent form. If you do not want to participate in the research study, please indicate this on the parental consent form and return it to us along with the blank instruments.

Your prompt response to this request would be greatly appreciated. If you have any questions please call Dave Mensink at 455-7205 (evenings). A summary of the results will be sent to all those who participate in this important study. Thank-you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely.

David L. Mensink Doctoral Student D.D. Sawatzky Thesis Supervisor

INSTRUCTIONS

- 1. Read the purpose and procedures of the research study.
- 2. Sign the Parental Consent Form if you agree to participate in the study.
- 3. Complete the Health Resources Inventory and the Background Information Form enclosed in this package. The items on the Health Resources Inventory and many on the Background Information Form pertain only to the child named on those two instruments.
- 4. The Culture-Free Self Esteem Inventory, the Family Assessment Measure, and the Family Satisfaction Scale are included for your information. Do not fill them out.
- 5. Mail the Parental Consent Form and the completed Health Resources Inventory and Background Information Form in the self-addressed, stamped envelope.

If you do not want to participate in the research study, check the box on the Parental Consent Form and mail it in the self-addressed, stamped envelope along with the blank instruments. This will prevent a follow-up telephone call.

PLEASE COMPLETE AND RETURN THE QUESTIONNAIRES AS SOON AS POSSIBLE. THANK-YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR INTEREST AND PARTICIPATION IN THIS IMPORTANT RESEARCH STUDY.

Purpose and Procedures of the Research Project

A Comparative Analysis of School-Aged Children Living in Intact, One-Parent, and Remarried Families

Purpose of the Research Project:

To compare students from intact, one-parent, and remarried families using academic; self-esteem, and behavioral measures.

Procedures of the Research Project:

- 1. The parents of students in grade 6 and grade 9 will complete the following instruments:
 - a. Health Resources Inventory a behavioral rating form
 - b. Background Information Form a general information questionnaire about your family.

The parents who agree to participate in the study will complete these instruments and mail them in the self-addressed, stamped envelope along with the signed Parental Consent Form.

- 2. Teachers will complete a separate Health Resources Inventory for each student for whom parental permission has been granted.
- 3. The students for whom parental permission has been granted will be asked to complete the following three instruments:
 - a. Culture-Free Self Esteem Inventory a self-esteem questionnaire,
 - b. Family Assessment Measure a family questionnaire.
 - c. Family Satisfaction Scale a family satisfaction questionnaire.
- A copy of the Culture-Free Self Esteem Inventory, the Family Assessment Measure and the Family Satisfaction Scale are included for your information. Students will complete these instruments at school.
- 4. The researcher will collect report card grades and group ability test scores from local school records.

ALL INFORMATION WILL BE KEPT COMPLETELY CONFIDENTIAL

Summary of the Procedures

Instrument	Completed By	Time to Complete
Culture-Free Self Esteem Inventory	students in school	10 minutes
Family Assessment Measure	students in school	10 minutes
Family Satisfaction Scale	students in school	5 minutes
Health Résources Inventory	parents at home and teachers in school	10 minutes
Background Information Form	parents at home	10 minutes

The approximate time involvement of those participating in the study will be as follows:

parents: 20 minutes

students: 25 minutes

teachers: 10 minutes for each participating child in their class

	(parent's name) a	agree to participate and to l
	(child's name) participate	e in a University of Alberta research
tudy. I understand tha	at the study will be conducted by	David L. Mensink (Ph.D. studen
or his doctoral disser	station aunder the supervision of	Dr. D.D. Sawatzky, Professor
ducational Psychology	at the University of Alberta. I	also realize that all information as
		tely confidential from the universi
nd school staffs.		
	Signature: —	
	Date:	

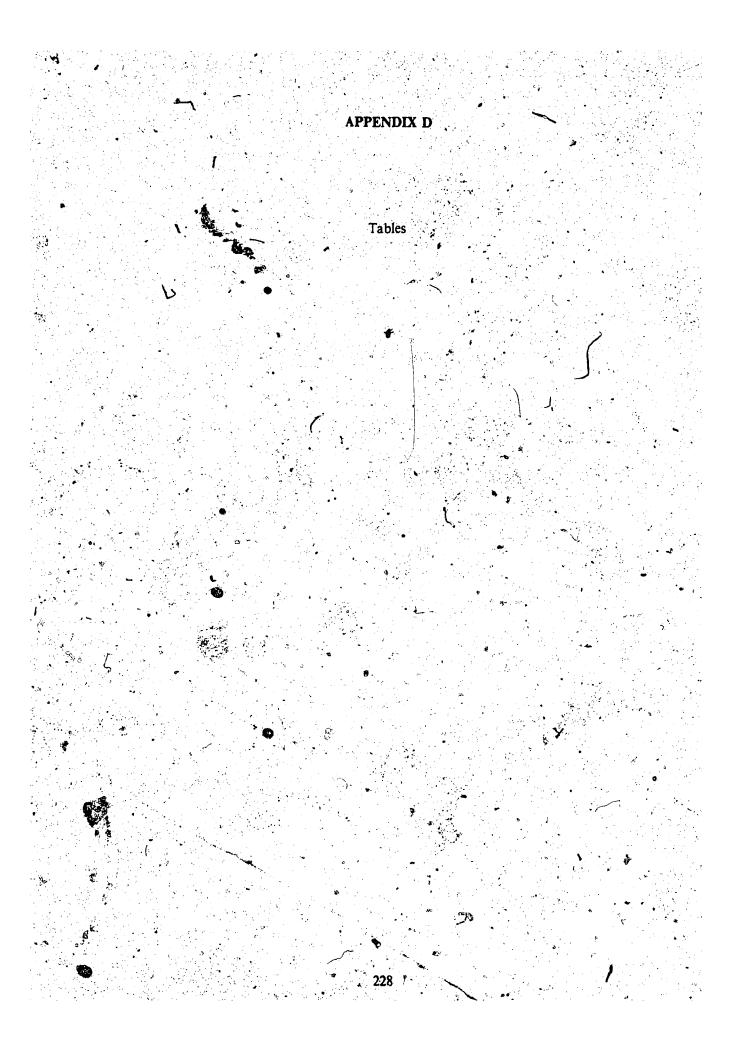


Table 16
Summary Table of F-Ratios for School Report Grades (Family Form ANOVA)

	Sum of		Mean		Signif	
Source of Variation	Squares	DF	Square	F	of F	
Main Effects	242.472	4	60.618	4.749	0.001	
Family Form	213.657	2	106.828	8.369	0.000	
Grade	9.548	. 1	9.548	0.748	0.388	
Sex	9.418	1	9.418	0.738	0.391	
2-way Interactions	65.743	. 5	13.149	1.030	0.401	
Form by Grade	23.256	2	11.628	0.911	0.404	
Form by Sex	37.019	2	18.509	1.450	0.237	
Grade by Sex	18.562	1	18.562	1.454	0.229	
3-way Interactions	2.642	2	1.321	0.103	0.902	
Form by Grade by Sex	2.642	2	1.321	0.103	0.902	
Explained	310.857	11	28.260	2.214	0.015	
,Residual	2514.751	197	12.765			
Total~	2825.608	208	13.585			

Table 17.
Summary Table of F-Ratios for Self-Esteem (Family Form ANOVA)

	Sum of		Mean		Signif
Source of Mariation	Squares	DF	Square	.	of F
			(
Main Effects	171.738	- 4	42.934	3.382	0.011
Family Form	121.080	.2	60,540	4.769	0.009
-Grade	38.745	1,	. 38.745	3.052	0.082
Sex	32.663	1 .	32.663	2.573	0.110
2-way Interactions	19.608	. _o 5	3.922	0.309	0.907
Form by Grade	12/496	. 2	6.248	0.492	0.612
Form by Sex	2.650	2 *	1.325	0.104	0.901
Grade by Sex	5.752	1	5.752	0.453	0.502
3-way Interactions	55.020	· 2	27.510	2.167	0.117
Form by Grade by Sex	55.020	2	27.510	2.167	0.117
Explained	246.366	11	22.397	1.764	0.062
Residual	2513.615	. 198	12.695		
Total	375 9.981	209	13.206	•	

Table 18
Summary Table of F-Ratios for Family Assessment Measure (Family Form ANOVA)

	Sam of		Mean		Signif
Source of Variation	Squares	DF	Square	F	of F
Main Effects	218.001	4	54.500	0.286	0.887
Family Form	142.850	2	71.425	0.374	0.688.
Grade	15.327	1	15.327	0.080	0.777
Sex	58.478	1	58.478	0.307	0.580
2-way Interactions	1606.843	. 5	321.369	1.685	0.140
Form by Grade	1241.908	. 2	620.954	3.256	0.041
Form by Sex	383.48	2	191.742	1.005	0.368
Grade by Sex	128,732	1	128.732	0.675	0.412
3-way Interactions	539.323	2	269.661	1.414	0.246
Form by Grade by Sex	539.323	2	269.661	1.414	0.246
Explained	2364.167	11	214.924	1.127	0.343
Residual	33760.193	177	190.736)	
Total	36124.360	188	192.151		

Table 19
Summary Table of F-Ratios for Family Satisfaction Scale (Family Form ANOVA)

	Sum of		Mean		Signif
Source of Variation	Squares	DF	Square	F_	of F
Main Æffects	946.894	4	236.723	2.652	0.024
Family Form	217.884	2	108.942	1.221	0.034
Grade	317.358	1	317.358	3.556	0.061
Sex	401.364	1	401.364	4.497	0.035
2-way Interactions	463.117	٠ خ	92.623	1.038	0.397
Form by Grade	204.962	2	102.481	1.148	0.319
Form by Sex	86.186	2	43.093	0.483	0.618
Grade by Sex	169.603	1	169.603	1.900	0.170
3-way Interactions	84.159	2	42.080	0.471	0.625
Form by Grade by Sex	84.159	2	42.080	0.471	0.625
Explained	1494.171	11	135.834	1.522	0.126
Residual	17492.906	196	89,250		
Total	18987.077	207	91.725		

Table 20 Summary Table of F-Ratios for Health Resources Inventory Teacher (Family Form ANOVA)

	Sum of		Mean		Signif
Source of Variation	Squares	DF	Square	F.	of F
				# S	
Main Effects	31897.188	4	7974.297	7.044	0.000
Family Form	. 21703.740	2	10851.870	9.585	0.000
Grade	942.101	~ 1	942.101	0.832	0.363
Sex	5498.642	``1	5498.642	4.857	0.269
2-way Interactions	5805.870	5	1161,174	1.026	0.404
Form by Grade	4332.958	2	2166.479	1.914	0.151
Form by Sex	. 1180.111	2	590.056	0.52T	0.595
Grade by Sex	43.103	1	<i>4</i> 3.103	0.038	0.846
3-way Interactions	1909.487	2	954.744	0.843	0.432
Form by Grade by Sex	1909.487	2	954.744	0.843	0.432
Explained	39612.545	11	3601.140	3.181	0.001
Residual	201520.718	178	1132.139		
Total	241133.263	189-	1275.837	¥	

Summary Table of F-Ratios for Health Resources Inventory Parent (Family Form ANOVA)

Sum of		Mean	•	Signif
Squares	DF	Square	F.	of F
19463.449	4	4865.862	6.342	0.000
11352.474	2	5675.237	7.397	0.001
25 0.467	1	250.467	0.326	0.568
6094.869	1	6094.869	7.944	0.005
- 731.171	5 -	146.234	0.191	0.966
2:573	2	1.286	0.002	0.998
492.691	2	246.346	0.321	0.726
140.892	1	140.892	0.184	0.669
353.977	. 2	176.989	0.231	0.794
353,977	2	1 76 ,989	0.231	0.794
20548.597	. 11	1868.054	2.435	0.007
150381.172	196	767,251		
170929.769	207	825.748		
	Squares 19463.449 11352.474 250.467 6094.869 731.171 2.573 492.691 140.892 353.977 353,977 20548.597 150381.172	Squares DF 19463.449 4 11352.474 2 250.467 1 6094.869 1 731.171 5 2.573 2 492.691 2 140.892 1 353.977 2 353.977 2 20548.597 11 150381.172 196	Squares DF Square 19463.449 4 4865.862 11352.474 2 5675.237 250.467 1 250.467 6094.869 1 6094.869 731.171 5 146.234 2.573 2 1.286 492.691 2 246.346 140.892 1 140.892 353.977 2 176.989 353.977 2 176.989 20548.597 11 1868.054 150381.172 196 767.251	Squares DF Square F 19463.449 4 4865.862 6.342 11352.474 2 5675.237 7.397 250.467 1 250.467 0.326 6094.869 1 6094.869 7.944 731.171 5 146.234 0.191 2.573 2 1.286 0.002 492.691 2 246.346 0.321 140.892 1 140.892 0.184 353.977 2 176.989 0.231 353.977 2 176.989 0.231 20548.597 11 1868.054 2.435 150381.172 196 767.251

Table 22
Canonical Discriminant Functions

		Percent of	Canonical	After	. Chi-		
Function	Eigenvalue	Variance	Correlation	Function	Square	Df -	Probability
					29.99	12	.0035
1	0.14	71	.35	1	9.00	5	.1090
* 2	0.06	29 `	0.23				

Table 23
Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients

Varyables .	Function 1	Function 2
School Grades	4	.01
Self-Esteem		.56
Family Assessment	40	56
Family Satisfaction	.19	.64
HRI Teacher	•34	82
HRI Parent	.41	.48

Table 24

Pooled Within-Groups Correlations Between Discriminating

Variables and Canonical Discriminant Functions

Yariables Function 1	Function
Variables Function 1 School Grades .81*	/ 16
HRI Teacher .75°	51
HRI Parent .71°	.31
Self-Esteem .40	.46*
Family Satisfaction .10	.41•
Family Assessment .02	• .16•

Table 25

Group Centroids (Means)

Family Form Function 1	Function 2
Intact .26	.04
One-Parent63	.27
Remarried 34	34

Table 26
Summary Oneway ANOVA Table for School Report Grades —
Mother, Father, Joint Custody Groups

	Sum of_		Signif.
Source	Squares DF	Square	. F of F
Between Groups	, 2.761 2	1.381	.090 .914
Within Groups	1025.539 67	15,307	선 및 16 5 전 1 5 전 4 5 1 1 2 전 1 2 4 4 5 5 6 6 1 3 4 5 7 5 7 6 7 6 7 7 7 7

Table 27

Summary Oneway ANOVA Table for Self-Esteem Mother, Father, Joint Custody Groups

	Sum of		Signif.
Source	Squares D	OF Square	F of F
Between Groups	46.976	2 23.488	1.389 .256
Within Groups	1149,672	68 16.907	

Table 28

Summary Oneway ANOVA Table for Family Assessment Measure —

Mother, Father, Joint Custody Groups

Source Squares DF Square F of Between Groups 296.767 2 148.384 .695 .504

Within Groups 12177.816 57 213.646

Table 29

Summary Oneway ANOVA Table for Family Satisfaction Scale
Mother, Father, Join Custody Groups

	Sum of Signif.
Source	Squares DF Square F of F
Between Groups	42.791 2 21.396 .243 .785
Within Groups	5819.035 66 88.167

Table 30

Summary Oneway ANOVA Table for HRI Teacher - Mother, Father, Joint Custody Groups

		\	Sum of			Signif.
Source		S	Squares DF	Square	F	of F
Between Groups	\sim		21 2	283.560	.141	:869
Within Groups		1185	512.315 59	2008.683		

Table 31

Summary Oneway ANOVA Table for HRI Parent — Mother, Father, Joint Custody Groups

	Sum of	Signif.
Source	Squares DF	Square F of F
Between Groups	1612.935 • 2	806.468 1.005 .372
/Within Groups	52982.717 66	_802.768
【레펜, 레벨, 스마트 트 및 레트트 () 워크트 () 워크트		

Displays Charts Graphs

Display 1 Stem and Leaf Display of School Report Grades, for Intact Group (Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

1: 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4

1: 3 3 3 3 3 3

1: 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2

1: 1

1: 0 0 0

-: 9 9 9

7

6 6

. 5

Display 2

Stem and Leaf Display of School Report Grades
for One-Parent Group

(Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

2: 0 0

1: 9 9 9

1: 8 8 8 8 8

1: 7 7 7

1: 6

1: 5 5 5 5

1 1 1 1

3 2 4

1: 2 2^2

1: 1 1 1 1

1: 0 0 0

: 9 9 9 9 9

Display 3 .Stem and Leaf Display of School Report Grades for Remarried, Family Group (Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

Display 4 Stem and Leaf Display of Self-Esteem for Intact Group

(Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

```
2: 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4
```

2: 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

2: 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

1: 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9

1:8888888888

1: 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7

1:

1: 5 5 5

1: 4 4 4 4 4

1. 3 3

1:

1: 1 1

1: 0 0

Display 5 Stem and Leaf Display of Self-Rateem for One-Parent Group (Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

Display 6 Stem and Leaf Display of Self-Esteem for Remarried Group (Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

2: 4

2: 3 3 3 3 3 3

2: 2 2 2 2

2: 1 1 1

2: 0 0 0

1: 9 9

.1: 8 8

1:7

1: 6

1 . . . 5

1:444

1: 3 3 3

1: 2

1 -

٦٠

Display 7 Stem and Leaf Display of Family Assessment Measure for Intact Group

(Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

13 : 3

, 12 : 0 0 0 5 6 6 7

11:000011222223333445666789

10:555566666777888899999

10:000001111122222223444444

9:1223333355555667788889999

8:00133333367789

7:23344456

6:

5:1

Display 8

Stem and Leaf Display of Family Assessment Measure for One-Parent Group

(Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

12 : 3 4 4

11:00288

10:0173455666779

9:0134678

8:112266

7:56

de.

Display 9
Stem and Leaf Display of Family Assessment Measure
for Remarried Group

(Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

13 : 0

12 : 2 8

11 : 2 4 7

10:02578

9:0367788888

8:13689

7 : 6

6 : 7 9

Display 10 Stem and Leaf Display of Family Satisfaction Scale for Intact Group (Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

6:00000011122223335688

5 : 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 6 6 6 6 6 7 7 7 7 8 9

4:55555566667777788888999

4:000001111122333333333444

3:12345568777889999

2:189

1 : 7 7

.13

· Display 11

Stem and Leaf Display of Family Satisfaction Scale for One-Parent Group (Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

6:00

5 1 1 2 3 3 3 4 4 5 5 6 6 7 8 8 8

4 1 0 1 1 2 3 4 5 5 6 7 7 9 9 9 9 9

3:35567778

Display 12 Stem and Leaf Display of Family Satisfaction Scale for Remarried Group

(Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

5:001245669

: 0 0 0 2 3 4 4 6 6 7 9

Display 13

and Leaf Display of Health Resources Inventory Teacher for Intact Group

(Stem: tens; heaves: units)

24 : 1 2 5 8

23 : 0 2 2 3 3 4 6 7 9 22 ·: 0 0 0 1 3 3 3 3 4 5 5 6

21:11,2,45678

20:1222344445567777

19: 0 1 1 1 2 3 3 3 4 4 4 5 7 8 8 9 18: 2 3 3 4 5 5 5 6 7 7 7 8 8 17: 0 0 1 2 2 2 3 4 5 5 6 9 9

16:112367889

15:045666799

14 : 1 2 8 8

13:1279

12 : 1

11:

Display 14 Stem and Leaf Display of Health Resources Inventory Teacher for One-Parent Group

(Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

23 : 2 4 8 22 : 5 21 : 1 6 8

20 : 3 5

19 : 1 3 7

18:6 17 : 1 6 8

16:3788

15 : 1 3 4 5 6 6

14:0479

13: 12:344

11:4

10 : 3 9

: 3

Stem and Leaf Display of Health Resources Inventory Teacher for Remarried Group

(Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

Display 16
Stem and Leaf Display of Health Resources Inventory Parent
for Intact Group

(Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

```
25 : 0 0 0 24 : 1 6 23 : 2 3 8 22 : 0 0 1 1 2 3 4 4 4 5 6 8 9 9 9 9 9 21 : 0 0 1 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 5 5 5 6 6 8 9 9 9 9 20 : 0 0 0 1 1 1 2 2 4 4 5 5 7 7 7 8 8 9 9 9 19 : 1 1 1 1 1 3 3 3 3 4 4 4 4 4 4 7 7 8 8 9 9 9 9 18 : 1 1 3 4 4 6 6 6 6 7 7 7 7 8 8 9 9 9 9 18 : 1 1 3 4 4 6 6 6 6 7 7 7 7 8 8 9 9 9 9 18 : 1 1 3 4 4 6 6 6 6 7 7 7 7 8 8 9 9 9 9 18 : 1 1 2 4 4 4 4 5 6 7 8 15 : 1 1 2 4 4 4 4 5 6 7 8 15 : 1 1 2 4 4 4 4 5 6 7 8 15 : 1 1 2 4 4 4 4 5 7 9 14 : 0 2 5 5 8 13 : 0 9 12
```

Display 17 Stem and Leaf Display of Health Resources Inventory Parent for One-Parent Group (Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

23 : 2 7

22 : 6

21; 269

20 : 0 4 4 5 6

19: 5

18:0458899

17 : 2 9

16 : 0 0 1 4 6 6 7 9

14:45789

13:0889

Display 18 Stem and Leaf Display of Health Resources tentory Parent for Remarried Group

(Stem: tens; Leaves: units)

21 : 4 6 7

20 : 5 6 9

19:00367

18:014577

17:1278

16:0'9

15:3568

14 : 1

13: 3 4 7

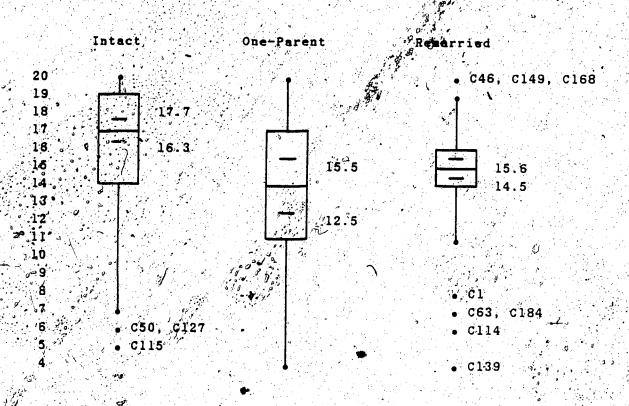
12 : 6 8

	#33	15 1.5 dr = 3 2	Outliers: 4, 6, 7, 8, 20	#33	M 17	#29 Remarried	M 15 R 8 89 0 107 1 67 1.5 dr = 27 Outlier cutoffs (62, 134) Outliers: none	258
Five Number Summaries of the Bependent Total Sample School Report Grades	#42 One-Parent	F 11, 11 1 4 1.5 dr = 9 20 Outlier cutoffs (2, 26)	liers: none Self Est	#42		#35 Camily Assessment Messure	F 9.5 90.5 103 108 17.5 124 17.5 0utlier cutoffs (64.5, 134)	
		14 5 11.6 rtlier cu		#135 .Intact	F 34.5 18 21 23 6 F 34.5 18 23 5 0 1.5 dr = 7.5 24 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0		M.63 102 dr 153 15 15 15 15 15 15 1	Legend: # - number of cases. M median depth F fourth depth dr fourth spread

								259
			27 14 14			6289)		248.6
		-	, 	₩.		6 5 22 Z		1. 22
		Remarried	45 dr = ; toffs ers: n	ú	Remarried		Reservied	
		R'e n	46 1.5 dr er cutoff Outllers:		Rema	197 5.1.5 dr r cutoffs Outliers:	Ress	66. 1.5 dr = cutoffs (
			39 45 5 24 6 6 1.5 dr = 21 0utlier cutoffs (18, 0utliers: none			1 95 1.5 dr = 0utliers.	,	100
b l es			8.5 1.5 0			M 14		H 17 1 9 1 1 9 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
of the Dependent Variables of Sample		132	• >	her	#27		\$ 33	기 속 라 마는 작 용 회의 기본들이다. 기본 기본 기본 기본 기본 기본 기본 기본 기본
len t				Teac		Percent	•	
open	'i on		\$ E G	Health Resources Inventory - Teacher		5. 5. 7		\$ 5
the D	Family Satisfaction		54 13 560 13 5, 73.5)	entor		195 53 238 5, 274.5)		204 248 81 (69, 7285) none
al S	Sati	ent	19. (21. non	t Tnv	ent	79.5 79.5 (62.5,	en t	-
aries o Total	in i ly	One-Parent	49 5. 61.5 dr = 13.5 cutoffs (21.5, 0utliers: none	Mrcei	One-Parent	163 1.5 dr = cutoffs (Outliers: Resources	One-Parent.	179 5 dr = cutoffs tliers:
		On	1.5 dr cutoff	Reso	ů O	6 142 63 195 5 1 56 238 238 1 1.5 dr = 79.5 274: utlier cutoffs (62.5, 274: Outliers: 56	O De	
e Number Summaries			21 41 11 33 0utlier	ealth		20 1.5 142 1.56 0.0tlier c		1 150 1 127 0ut 1 ier
<u>ج</u> ق			F 11 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	=		~		2
		* 41			\$ 39		#41	
		· · · · ·	4¢ 10 68)			275)		267)
			53 68 5 (28, (213 248 62 (109.5,		2213 23 2513 68 73
		Intact	50 If = 1 of fs=		Intact	193.5 dr = 6 ffs (1)	act	1
		In	.5 ccut		Int		Intact	198 7 7 1.5 de = r catoffs Outliers: number of medana def fourth def
			43 17 1 0utlier 0utl			171:5 109 1 ler cu	4	1177 1177 1177 0 ou
			œ ις ~			62 .5 .1 .100 .0utlier		0 0 1177 0 1177 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
		1135	Z m		1124	∑ 6	134	X &
					•		•	

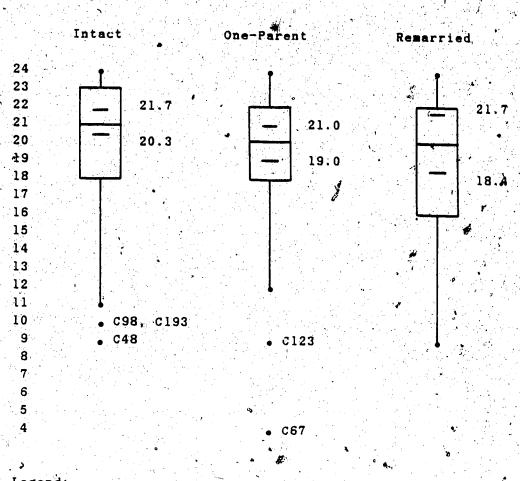
Graph 1

Boxplot of School Report Grades -- Total Sample



notches (median ± 1.58 x dr / √n)
C child (number is ID of child)
CID#: outliers

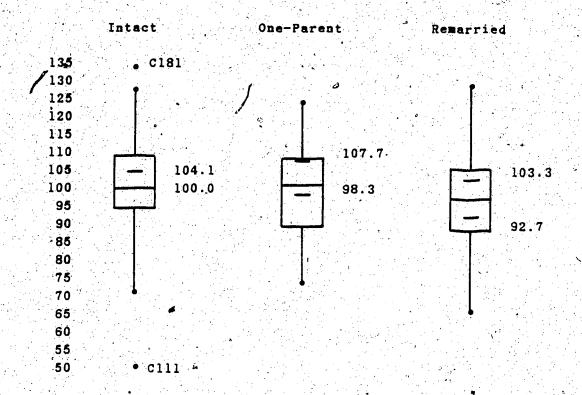
Boxplot of Self-Esteem



- notches (median \pm 1.58 \times de / \sqrt{n})
- child (number is ID of child)
- outliers

Graph 3

Boxplot of Family Assessment Measure -- Total Sample



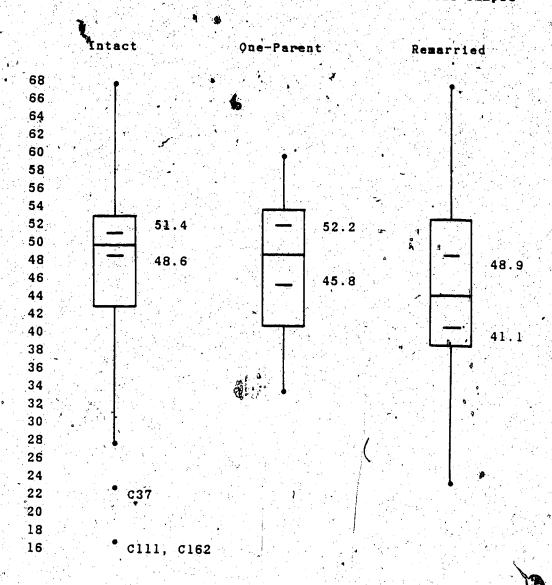
notches (median = 1.58 x dr / √n)

C child (number is ID of child)

CID# outliers

Graph 4

Boxplot of Family Satisfaction -- Total Sample

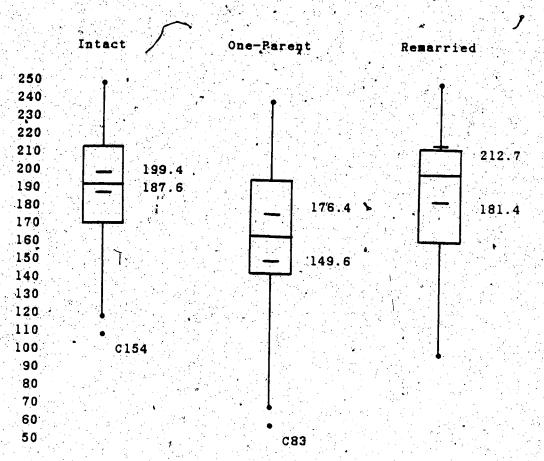


notches (median ± 1.58 x dr / √n)

C child (number is ID of child)

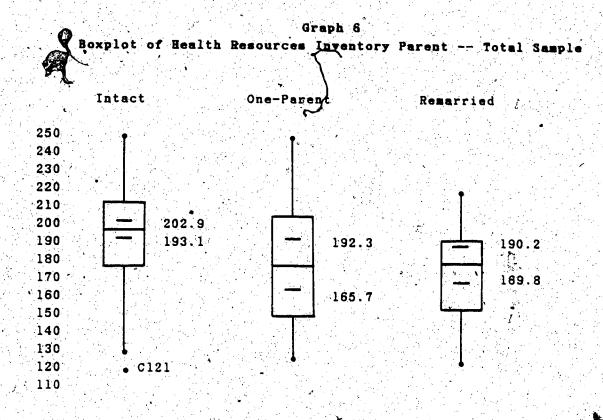
CID# outliers

Boxplot of Health Resources Inventory Teacher -- Total Sample



- notches (median \pm 1.58 x dr / \sqrt{n}) child (number is ID of child)
- CID# outliers





notches (median \pm 1.58 x dr $/\sqrt{n}$)

C child (number is ID of child)

CID# outliers

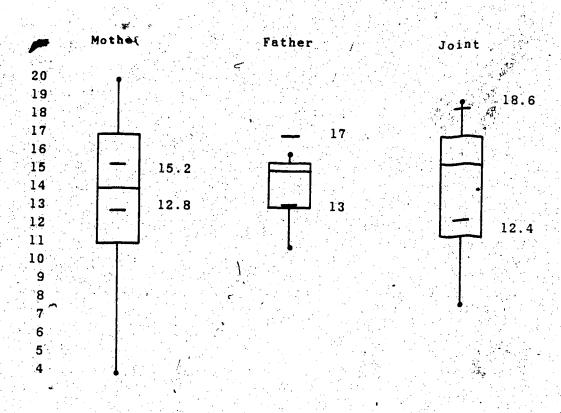
Chart 2
Chart 2
Chart 2
Custody Sample
Sample School Report Graden

Five Number Summaries of the Dependent Variable Gustody Sample

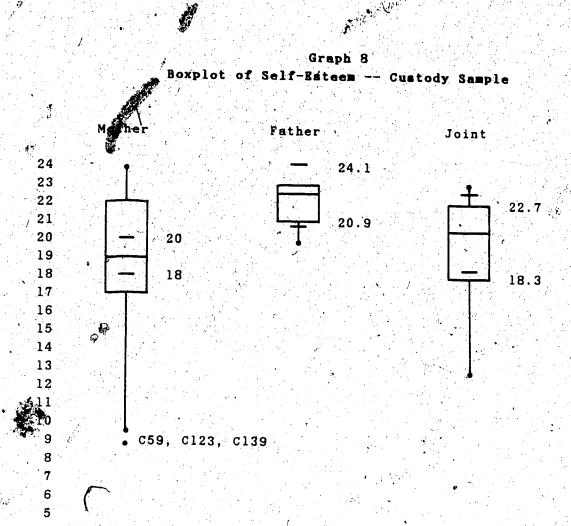
Joint Family Satisfaction Scale Health Resources Inventory Health Resources Inventory Outliers: none Father Father Father 0 Outlier cutoffs (100, 260) 207 Outliers: none Legend:

Graph 7

Boxplet of School Report Grades -- Custody Sample



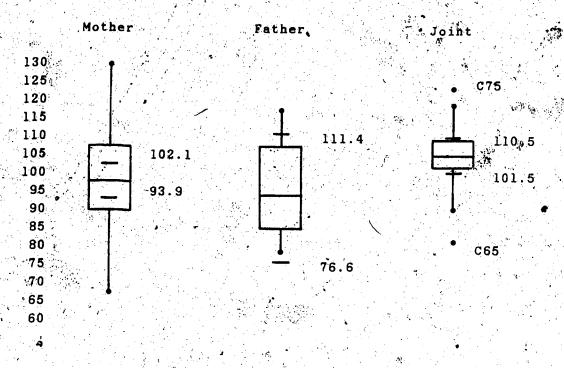
- notches (median ± 1.58 x dr / Vn)
- C child (number is ID of child)
- CID# outliers



notches (median \pm 1.58 x dr $/\sqrt{n}$) C child (number is ID of child) CID# outliers

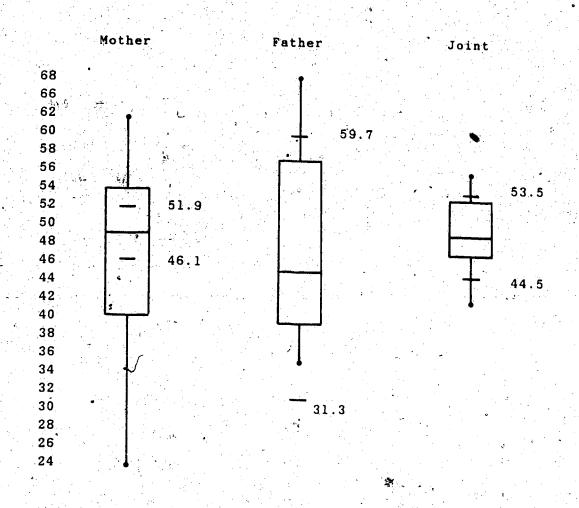
Graph 9

Boxplot of Family Assessment Measure -- Custody Sample



notches (median \pm 1.58 x d_F / \sqrt{n} C child (number is ID of child) CID# outliers

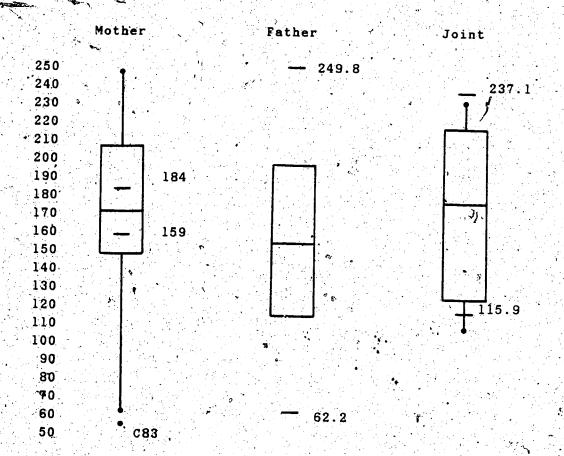
Graph 10 Boxplot of Family Satisfaction Scale Custody Sample



- notches (median \pm 1.58 x dr $/\sqrt{n}$) child (number is ID of child) CID# outliers

Graph 11

Boxplot of Health Resources Inventor Teacher -Custody Sample



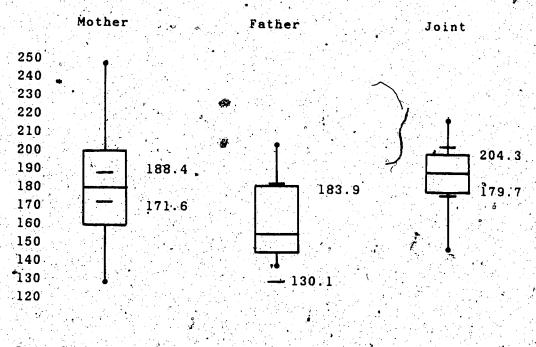
notches (median $\pm 1.58 \times d_F / \sqrt{n}$)

C child (number is ID of child)

CID# - outliers

Graph 12

Boxplot of Health Resources Inventory Farent -Custody Sample



notches (median \pm 1.58 x dr $/\sqrt{n}$ child (number is ID of child)

CID# outliers

Chart 3 Observation Deleted in the One-Parent Group

```
Variables:
               ID (Scores):
SRG, time
                82 (4, 15)
SRG, csat
                82 (4, 5)
SRG, asat
                82 (4, 5)
AG, visit
                82 (4, 0)
SE, time
                67 (4, 7); 123 (9, 8)
SE, csat.
                67 (4, 3); 123 (9, 3)
ŜE, asat
                67 (4, 1); 123 (9, 2)
SE, visit
                67 (4, 20); 123 (9, 0)
FAM, time
                none
FAM, csat
                none
FAM, asat
                none
FAM, visit
                none
FS, time
                none
FS, csat
                49 (35, 5)
FS, asat
                49 (35, 5); 66 (35, 5)
FS, visit
                none ^
HRIT, time
                13 (234, 11,; 134 (75, 4)
HRIT, csat
                82 (63, 5); 83 (56, 5); 134 (75, 3)
HRIT, asat
                82 (63, 5); 83 (56, 5)
                                      HRIT, visit
                64 (238, 0); 83 (56,0); 134 (75, 70)
HRIP, time
                81 (248, 2)
                .81 (248, 5)
HRIP, csat
HRIP, asat
                81 (248, 5); 117 (237, 4)
HRIP, visit
                81 (248, 75); 117 (237, 3)
```

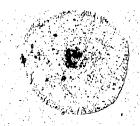
SRG = School Report Grades SE = Self-Esteem FAM = Family Assessment Measure FS = Family Satisfaction Scale HRIT = Health Resources Inventory HRIP - Health Resources Inventory Parent asat = satisfaction with access
csat = satisfaction with custody time = years in the new family visit = days/year visit with noncustodial parent

Chart 4 bservation Deleted in the Remarried Group Custody Variables

```
Variables:
               ID (Scores):
SRG, time
                 63 (7,4); 139 (4, 12); 184 (7, 4)
SRG, csat
                 114 (6, 3); 139 (4, 3)
SRG, asat
                 114 (6, 1); 139 (4, 2)
SRG, visit
                 114 (6, 0); 139 (4, 0)
SE, time
                 105 (13, 1)
SE, csat
                 59 (9, 5)
SE, asat
                 59 (9, 5); 139 (9, 2)
SE, visit
                 59 (9, 0) 139 (9, 0)
FAM, time
                 1 (130, 7); 184 (67, 4)
FAM, csat
                 184 (67, 3)
FAM, asat
                 184 (67, 2)
FAM, visit
                 none
FS, time
                 149 (27, 1); 199 (68, 3)
FS, csat
                 199 (68, 4)
FS, asat
                 199 (68, 4)
FS, visit
                 185 (24, 50)
HRIT, time
                 139 (95, 12)
HRIT, csat
                 139 (95, 3)
HRIT, asat
                 139 (95, 2)
HRIT, visit
                 139 (95, 0)
HRIP, time
                 105 (1?6, 1)
HRIP, csat
                 none
HRIP, asat
                 none
HRIP, visit
                 139 (128, 0)
SRG = School Report Grades
SE = Self-Esteem
FAM = Family Assessment Measure
FS = Family Satisfaction Scale
HRIT = Health Resources Inventory
HRIP = Health Resources Inventory Parent
```

visit = days/year visit with noncustodial parent

asat = satisfaction with access
csat = satisfaction with custody
time = years in the new family



Observation Deleted in the Intact Group

```
ID (Scores):
 36 (10, 73); 89 (9, 57)
 115 (5, 51); 121 (9, 56)
 127 (6, 57); 138 (9, 54)
 175 (7, 57)
 37 (13, 72); 48 (9, 57)
 54 (13, 60); 76 (11, 59)
 98 (10, 59); 193 (10, 49)
 204 (14, 74)
 37 (72, 72); 111 (51, 61)
 181 (133, 68)
 37. (21, 72); 79 (68, 59)
 111 (17, 61); 162 (17, 58)
 164 (68, 55)
 17 (121, 50)
 154 (109, 61)
 6 (142, 65); 121 (117, 56)
 154 (130, 61); 183 (246, 54)
```

SRG = School Report Grades

FAM = Family Assessment Measure FS = Family Satisfaction Scale

HRIT = Health Resources Inventory

HRIP = Health Resources Inventory Parent

smat = short marital adjustment test

Observation Deleted in the Married Group Marital Variable

Variab	TCS.		. (360)	C 25 S) :
		,	(Sco	

139 (4, 64) 139 (9, 64) FAM, smat none FS, smat none HRIT, smat 139 (95, 64) HRIP, smat none

Legend:

SRG = School Report Grades

SE = Self-Esteem

FAM = Family Assessment Measure

FS = Family Satisfaction Scale
HRIT = Health Resources Inventory
HRIP = Health Resources Inventory Parent

smat = short marital adjustment test