FAMILIES COPING WITH THE LOSS OF FATHER BY DEATH OR DIVORCE

BY

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to investigate the psychosocial adjustment of women and their children following the loss of father by death or divorce. It was hypothesized that the affective adjustment of women and their children would be adversely affected by the loss of father by either death or divorce. However, different patterns of social adjustment to the loss of father by death versus the loss of father by divorce were predicted: widows and divorcees would report significantly more social adjustment problems than married women, but divorcees would report significantly more interpersonal friction and resentment than widows and married women. Similarly, it was hypothesized that the children of widows would show significantly more shy-anxious behavior than the children of divorcees and married women; while the children of divorcees would show significantly more anti-social behavior than the children of widows and married women.

Potential widowed, divorced, and married subjects were identified from the obituaries of the Winnipeg newspapers, the legal records of the Manitoba Court of Queen's Bench, and a survey of four schools in the St. Vital area of Winnipeg, respectively. Letters explaining the study were sent to these potential subjects and those who were interested in participating returned a brief questionnaire. From these responses, 15 families from each of the three groups were then selected for the study for a total of 45 families. The selected volunteers were generally representative of all responders on several demographic variables. The final study sample consisted of families in which the mothers had been married only once and the children ranged in age from 3 to 16 years old. None of the widows and divorcees had remarried, nor were any of them living common law. All of the widows and divorcees had been bereaved of or permanently separated from their husbands within the last two years, with the majority of

these women being in their second year of bereavement or separation. Families in which the women were widowed, divorced, or married were well matched in terms of the number, age, and sex of the children, mother's age, length of marriage, working status, occupation, religion, and the time elapsed since the death or separation, but widows and divorcees experienced a greater loss in average monthly income than married women within the last two years.

Interviews were conducted in the families' homes in the evening by three trained interviewers all of whom were graduate students in psychology. Various family and demographic information was obtained in the interviews with the women. The affective and social adjustment of the women and children was assessed by self-report questionnaires.

The results indicated that contrary to prediction, widows, divorcees, and married women did not differ significantly on the measures of affective and social adjustment. However, widows and divorcees reported more positive and negative life changes and sought help from family, friends, the church, and professionals significantly more frequently than married women within the last two years. As predicted, divorcees reported significantly more friction and resentment in their relationships with friends, family, and co-workers than widows and married women.

The boys and girls of widows and divorcees reported significantly lower affective adjustment than the boys and girls of married couples, as was hypothesized. Furthermore, it was found that boys from intact families whose fathers were infrequently available to them had lower affective adjustment than boys and girls from intact families in which the fathers were frequently available to them. Contrary to prediction, the boys and girls of widows, divorcees, and married women did not differ significantly on either mothers' or teachers' ratings of shy-anxious behavior or anti-social behavior. Boys from intact families whose fathers were infrequently available to them

tended to be rated by their mothers as showing more anti-social behavior than the children of widows, divorcees, and married couples in which the fathers were more frequently available. The results of the study were discussed in terms of their implications for future research.

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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

There is a substantial body of research demonstrating an association between marital disruption and psychosocial maladjustment of the bereaved (Clayton, 1973; Note 1; Epstein, Weitz, Roback, & McKee, 1975; Greenblatt, 1978; Parkes, 1972; Vachon, 1976) and the divorced (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978).[1] Research in the area of stressful life events has shown that the loss of a family member by death or divorce constitutes a crisis situation. Compared to other stressful life events, death and divorce are consistently rated as requiring the most change or readjustment by both adults (Cochrane & Robertson, 1973; Grant, Gerst, & Yager, 1976; Holmes & Masuda, 1974; Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Masuda & Holmes, 1967; Paykel, Prusoff, & Uhlenhuth, 1971; Paykel & Uhlenhuth, 1972) and children (Gersten, Langner, Eisenberg, & Orzek, 1974). Furthermore, marital disruption has been found to bear a highly consistent relationship to the incidence of adult psychiatric disorders. Without exception, all of the 11 studies reviewed by Crago (1972) showed that mental hospital admission rates were greatest for the divorced, intermediate for the widowed and single, and lowest for the married.

There are several similarities and differences between the crises of death and divorce for the affected family members. The events of death and divorce are similar in that they are both perceived as being very undesirable by those affected (Gersten, Langner, Eisenberg, & Orzek, 1974; Paykel, 1974), both involve the loss of a most important person for those affected, and, as was noted above, both are subjectively rated as being extremely stressful. On the other hand, the events of death and divorce differ in the case of marital partners in

[1] See Appendix A for a more lengthy review of the literature on psychosocial adjustment of women and their children to the loss of father by death or divorce.

that divorce is anticipated by marital discord and separation, whereas death of spouse may be unanticipated or anticipated for only a brief time prior to its occurrence; death, but not divorce, is an uncontrollable event in most cases; the quality of the marital relationship differs prior to the loss in the cases of death and divorce; and the relationship continues, to various degrees, after divorce, but not after death. These similarities and differences probably hold for children who have lost a parent by death or divorce, except that loss by death and divorce are both likely to be outside of the children's control.

In view of these similarities and differences, one might expect both common and unique adjustment reactions of family members to the loss of a spouse or parent by death or divorce. A considerable body of research has investigated the psychosocial adjustment of women and their children to the loss of the father by death or divorce. However, there have not been any studies which have directly compared how families differentially cope with the loss of the father by death versus the loss of the father by divorce. I will now briefly review some of the findings on the problems associated with the loss of the father by death or divorce for the mother, the children, and mother-child relationships.

Psychosocial Adjustment of Widows Following the Death of Their Husbands

In the case of loss of husband by death, several well-controlled prospective studies have found that the bereaved commonly experience feelings of depression, anxiety, and a host of psychosomatic symptoms immediately following their spouse's death (Clayton, 1974; Gerber, Wiener, Battin, & Arkin, 1975; Maddison & Viola, 1968; Parkes, 1972; Parkes & Brown, 1972; Polak, Egan, Vandenbergh, &

Williams, 1975; Wiener, Gerber, Battin, & Arkin, 1975; Williams, Lee, & Polak, 1976). After one year, most widows have improved considerably, but a small minority continue to have adjustment problems. Those who do not improve typically have severe immediate grief reactions (Bornstein, Clayton, Halikas, Maurice, & Robins, 1973; Parkes, 1965, 1970, 1975a) and are characterized by their young age (Ball, 1977; Clayton, 1975; Maddison & Viola, 1968) and lack of social, economic, and personal supports (Bornstein et al., 1973; Gerber et al., 1975; Maddison & Walker, 1967; Parkes, 1975a; Polak et al., 1975). Sudden death has also been found to be related to poor adjustment (Ball, 1977; Parkes, 1975b; Polak et al., 1975), but other studies have found contradictory results (Clayton, Halikas, Maurice, & Robins, 1973; Maddison & Walker, 1967; Schwab, Chalmers, Conroy, Farris, & Markush, 1975).

Psychosocial Adjustment of Divorcees Following Separation from Their Husbands

In the case of divorce, several controlled studies (Blumenthal, 1967; Briscoe & Smith, 1974; Briscoe, Smith, Robins, Marten, & Gaskin, 1973; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1976, 1977) and uncontrolled studies (Goode, 1956; Weiss, 1975) have shown that divorce is a crisis state and is associated with subjective distress and social maladjustment. Marital conflict and emotional upset peak at the time of separation (Goode, 1956), but social adjustment problems persist even one year after the divorce (Hetherington et al., 1976, 1977). Furthermore, the relationship between divorce and psychosocial maladjustment appears to be interactional in nature. That is, emotional problems existing prior to and during the marriage can contribute to marital breakdown and the stress of marital separation and divorce can lead to emotional problems (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978). A number of factors have

been found to be associated with poor adjustment of the divorced, including: long marriages and old age (Goode, 1956; Hetherington et al., 1977; Weiss, 1975), lack of social, economic, and personal supports (Goode, 1956; Weiss, 1975), and continued conflict with the ex-spouse (Hetherington et al., 1977).

Psychosocial Adjustment of Children from Fatherless Families

Regarding the adjustment of children who have lost their father by death or divorce, there is a large body of research linking fatherless families with anti-social behavior in children (Herzog & Sudia, 1973; Kellam, Ensminger & Turner, 1977; Hetherington & Deur, 1971; Rutter, 1971). However, studies which have broken down fatherless families by specific types of paternal separation have consistently found delinquency rates to be significantly higher for children from families broken by parental separation or divorce, but only slightly and non-significantly higher in families broken by parental death, compared to delinquency rates for children from intact homes in which both parents are living together (Brown, 1966; Douglas, Ross, Hammond, & Mulligan, 1966; Gibson, 1969; Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Gregory, 1965). Furthermore, with only one exception (Morrison, 1974), studies which have compared children from divorced families with children from intact families have found significantly higher rates of anti-social behavior for the children from divorced families (Hetherington et al., 1977; Kalter, 1977; McDermott, 1970).

Since anti-social behavior appears to be associated with parental separation and divorce, it is possible that the stress and conflict prior to the parental separation, not father absence per se, may be the key factors related to the anti-social behavior of children. In fact, several studies have shown that family tension and discord are more strongly associated with anti-social behavior in children than father

absence per se (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Herzog & Sudia, 1973; McCord, McCord, & Thurber, 1962; Rutter, 1971). Moreover, Nye (1957) found significantly more parental maladjustment, psychosomatic problems and delinquent behavior in children, and disturbances in parent-child relationships in unhappy intact families than in fatherless families.

A few controlled studies have directly compared the psychosocial adjustment of children who have lost a parent by death versus children who have lost a parent by divorce. In each of these studies (Felner, Stolberg, & Cowen, 1975; Hetherington, 1972; Tuckman & Regan, 1966), it was found that children who have lost a parent by death show significantly more shy, anxious, and inhibited behavior, while children who have lost a parent by divorce show significantly more anti-social behavior than children from intact families. Furthermore, there is some evidence that these differential patterns of coping with the loss of a parent by death versus divorce may persist into later life. A large body of retrospective studies suggests that early parental loss by death may be associated with adult depression (Akiskal & McKinney, 1975; Birtchnell, 1969; Brown, 1968; Heinicke, 1973) while early parental loss by divorce may be associated with juvenile delinquency and adult criminal behavior (Bendiksen & Fulton, 1975; Brown, 1968; Gregory, 1958, 1965; Markusen & Fulton, 1971; Oltman & Friedman, 1967). However, these findings must be accepted with caution because of the many serious methodological shortcomings in the retrospective research such as the use of inappropriate control groups and deficient data gathering, the fact that a myriad variables intervene between early loss of a parent and adult adjustment, and finally, the fact that most individuals who lose a parent at an early age by death or divorce do <u>not</u> suffer maladjustment in their adult life.

Mother-Child Interactions in Fatherless Families

While a considerable amount of research has documented the problems associated with the loss of the father by death or divorce for individual family members, few studies have examined mother-child relationships following the loss of the father. Parkes (1975a) found that 51 of 60 widowed mothers who had children reported behavior problems in their children within the first two months of bereavement. Moreover, behavior problems in the child were significantly correlated ($r = .26$, $p < .05$) with poor adjustment of the widow. Similarly, the study by Hetherington et al. revealed substantial problems in mother-child relationships during the first year of divorce. Ratings of children's aggression and other deviant child behaviors were significantly correlated with mothers' self-reports of their feelings of competence, self-esteem, anxiety, and depression and observational measures of poor parenting behavior. Furthermore, direct observation of divorced mothers and their children depicted a pattern of "coercive" interactions in which both mother and child used noxious behaviors to control the behavior of the other. In summary, the findings from these studies suggest that the psychosocial adjustment problems of mothers and their children who have lost the father by death or divorce are interrelated.

Purpose and Research Hypotheses

The purpose of this research is to compare families coping with two different types of father loss, loss of father by death and loss of father by divorce, with families in which the parents are married and living together. Two major areas of psychological functioning were assessed: affective adjustment and social adjustment. The following hypotheses were advanced:

Hypothesis 1

Widows and divorcees will report significantly more affective adjustment problems than married women.

Hypothesis 2

Widows and divorcees will report significantly more social adjustment problems than married women.

Hypothesis 3

Divorcees will report significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of interpersonal friction and resentment than widows and married women.

Hypothesis 4

Boys and girls from widowed and divorced families will report significantly more affective adjustment problems than boys and girls from married families.

Hypothesis 5

a. Boys and girls from widowed families will have significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of shy-anxious behavior than boys and girls from divorced and married families.

b. Girls will have significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of shy-anxious behavior than boys.

Hypothesis 6

a. Boys and girls from divorced families will have significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of anti-social behavior than boys and girls from widowed and married families.

b. Boys will have significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of anti-social behavior than girls.

CHAPTER 2 - METHOD

Identification of Potential Subjects

The first step in the study was to identify potential subjects for each of the following three groups: families who lost the father by death, families who lost the father by divorce, and intact families in which the parents were married and living together. The following inclusion criteria were specified a priori: the family must consist of a mother who has been married only once and whose children all fell in the age range of 3 to 16 years old. The criterion of being married only once was used to prevent confounding of the tests of family status by previous marital statuses (e.g., widowed, separated, divorced). The age criterion for the children permitted a focus on predominantly school-aged children who were dependent on their mothers.

Additionally, widowed mothers and divorced mothers must have been widowed or permanently separated from between 5 and 25 months, must not have been remarried, and must not have lived common law with a man since the death or separation. The criterion of time elapsed since the death or separation was used to equate the widowed and divorced groups on these two stressful life events, allowing for a focus on the psychosocial readjustment to the loss after the initial emotional turmoil had subsided. The criteria of not having remarried or lived with another man since the death or separation were used to insure that the widowed and divorced groups were indeed "father absent" groups. Control of this variable is most important in view of Hetherington, Cox, and Cox's (1977) finding that developing a relationship with the opposite sex was the most important factor in fostering positive psychosocial adjustment in divorced women. Finally, the spouses of married women must have been living with their families and working in Winnipeg. This criterion was used to help insure that the married group was indeed a "father present" group.

Identification of widowed families. Potential subjects for the widowed group were identified through the obituaries of the Winnipeg Free Press and the Winnipeg Tribune, graciously provided by the Widows' Consultation Service of the Young Women's Christian Association. All obituaries for widows whose husbands were age 45 or younger at the time of their death, who lost their husbands between May 1, 1976 and January 31, 1978, and who had children were used. There were 116 widowed families who met these criteria. All of these widows were contacted by means of a letter (see Appendix B) and were asked to fill out a brief questionnaire (see Appendix C) providing the following information: previous marriage(s), remarriage, number, age and sex of the children, mother's age, education, and working status, and the cause of the husband's death.

Those interested in learning more about the study and possibly participating in it were asked to provide their name, address, and telephone number along with the other information and to return the questionnaire to me in an enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope. Those who were not interested in learning more about the study were asked to provide the family-demographic information and to return it to me in like manner. This procedures guaranteed the anonymity of widows who did not wish to identify themselves.

Identification of divorced families. Potential subjects for the divorced group were identified from the legal records of the Manitoba Court of Queen's Bench. Divorced women who met the following criteria were used:

1) The wife petitioned for divorce from her husband in the period from February 1, 1977 to April 30, 1978;
2) The wife had custody of children in the age range of 4 to 15;
3) The wife "ceased to cohabit with her spouse" during the period from May 1, 1976 to January 31, 1978, and
4) The wife had not been previously married.

A total of 2,726 divorce records for the period between February 1, 1977 and April 30, 1978 were perused. From these records, 106 divorced families (3.8% of the total number of records perused) were identified which met the inclusion criteria. Only women who petitioned for divorce were included because in all cases in which the husband petitioned for divorce, the wife was living with another man at the time of the petition. Thus, including these divorced women would jeopardize comparability with their widowed counterparts with respect to post-separation opposite sex relationships. Furthermore, the 17 cases in which the husband petitioned for divorce constituted a small percentage (5.7%) of the total of 123 cases meeting the other criteria outlined above.

The 106 divorcees meeting the inclusion criteria were contacted by means of a letter similar in format to that sent to widows (see Appendix D). They were asked to fill out a brief questionnaire (see Appendix E) containing the same information asked of the widows with the exception of one question asking the date they ceased to cohabit with their husband. Divorcees followed the same procedure as widows in returning the questionnaire to me.

Identification of married families. Potential subjects for the married group were identified from a survey of four schools in the St. Vital School Division in Winnipeg. In each of the four schools, teachers gave a letter addressed to "Parents" to pre-selected children and instructed them to take the letter home and to give it to their parent(s). The letter was similar in format to that sent to widows and divorcees (see Appendix F) and included a brief questionnaire (see Appendix G) similar in format to that sent to widows and divorcees with the exception that it asked for the mother's marital status. The parents were asked to follow the same procedure as widows and divorcees in returning the questionnaire to me.

In two schools, each with an enrollment of approximately 600 students spanning kindergarten to Grade 9, every fourth student on the school register was selected to carry a letter home, for a total of 150 letters for each of the two schools. In a third school, with an enrollment of approximately 500 students spanning kindergarten to Grade 6, approximately every third student on the school register, skipping students in a Special Education class, was selected to carry a letter home, for a total of 170 letters. In the fourth school, with an enrollment of approximately 230 students spanning Grade 7 to Grade 9, approximately every third student on the school register, skipping students in a Special Education class, was selected to carry a letter home, for a total of 80 letters. In all, a total of 550 letters were sent home with school children to their parent(s).

Subject Selection

Two weeks after the letters had been sent out to the widowed, divorced, and married persons who had been identified as potential subjects, those who responded and indicated an interest in learning more about the study and possibly participating in it and who met the inclusion criteria were delineated. An attempt was made to select 15 families from each of the three groups and to match the groups on the following variables in descending order of importance: number, sex, and age of the children, time elapsed since the death or separation (i.e., the date on which the divorcee "ceased to cohabit with her spouse", according to her response on the questionnaire), and the mother's current working status and education.

After potential subjects for all three groups had been selected and matched, they were contacted by telephone by me. The purpose of the study and the requirements for subjects' participation were clearly outlined at this time (see Appendix H). Confidentiality of findings was

assured. At this time, an appointment for an interview was scheduled for those subjects who agreed to participate in the study. Those who indicated an interest in the study but who were not selected for study were sent a letter explaining the study in greater detail and thanking them for their interest (see Appendix I). At the completion of the study, all those who responded to the letter were sent a summary of the results (see Appendix J).

Response rate and characteristics of widowed responders. The responses from potential subjects for the widowed group are presented in Table 1. Excluding letters that were returned to sender, the final response rate was 43.1%. Of those who volunteered to participate in the study, only 16 met the inclusion criteria. Fortunately, all of the 15 widows who met the inclusion criteria agreed to participate in the study when contacted by telephone.

The characteristics of all widowed responders are compared in Table 2. As can be seen, studied volunteers, non-studied volunteers, and non-volunteers did not differ significantly on the following variables: mother's age, number of boys, number of girls, time elapsed since death of the father, mother's education and work status, and whether or not their marriage to the deceased husband was the first. However, these groups did differ significantly on boy's age, $F(2,67) = 6.35$, $p < .005$. Also, approaching statistical significance was the difference between groups on the girl's age, $F(2,48) = 2.66$, $p < .10$. In both of these cases, the children of studied volunteers had the lowest mean age, while the children of non-studied volunteers had the highest mean age, with the children of non-volunteers falling in between. These differences are not surprising since the pre-specified inclusion criterion for children's age was between the ages of 3 and 16. Thus, of those who volunteered to participate in the study, those with young children were selected, while those with older children were not selected.

TABLE 1

Responses from Widows

Volunteered and met inclusion criteria	16	(13.8%)
Volunteered but did not meet inclusion criteria	19	(16.4%)
Non-Volunteers who returned the questionnaire	9	(7.7%)
Non-Responders	58	(50.0%)
Letters returned to sender	14	(12.1%)
TOTAL	116	(100.0%)

Final response rate (excluding letters returned to sender) = 43.1%

TABLE 2

Characteristics of Widowed Families Who Volunteered and Were Studied, Who Volunteered but Were Not Studied, and Who Did Not Volunteer

Characteristic	Studied Volunteers (n=15)	Non-Studied Volunteers (n=20)	Non-Volunteers (n=9)	Statistic
Mother's age	35.2	38.5	37.9	$F(2,41)=1.00$, $p > .10$
Number of boys	1.2	1.7	1.9	$F(2,41)=1.80$, $p > .10$
Boys' age	8.3	13.8	11.5	$F(2,67)=6.35$, $p < .005$
Number of girls	1.0	1.2	1.2	$F(2,41)= .43$, $p > .10$
Girls' age	11.3	15.5	13.5	$F(2,48)=2.66$, $p < .10$
Time since death (months)	16.8	14.5		$t(33)=1.71$, $p > .10$
Education				$X^2(4)=5.74$, $p > .10$
Grade school	2	5	1	
High school	10	9	8	
University	3	6	0	
Work Status				$X^2(6)=1.84$, $p > .10$
Housewife	5	7	3	
Student	2	2	0	
Part-time	4	4	2	
Full-time	4	7	4	
First Marriage				$X^2(2)=3.98$, $p > .10$
Yes	15	20	8	
No	0	0	1	
Remarried				$X^2(2)=8.15$, $p < .05$
Yes	0	0	2	
No	15	20	7	

Note. - To assess between group differences on the continuous variables, univariate F tests were used in the three-group case, while Student's t test was used in the two-group case. X^2 tests were used to assess between group differences on all categorical variables.

Finally, the responder groups differed significantly in terms of rate of remarriage, $X^2(2) = 8.15$, $p < .05$. None of the volunteers had remarried, while two of the non-volunteers had remarried. A third non-volunteer indicated that she would have volunteered for the study, but that she was planning to remarry soon. Thus, it appears that those widows who had remarried or were planning to remarry were leas inclined to participate in the study than those widows who had not remarried, perhaps desiring to look forward to the future and to leave the past behind them. In summary, the widows who were selected for study appear to be fairly representative of all widowed responders, except in terms of the factors that were pre-specified in the inclusion criteria. That is, widows who were selected for study had younger children and had not remarried compared with all other widowed responders.

Response rate and characteristics of all divorcees. The responses from potential subjects for the divorced group are presented in Table 3. Excluding letters that were returned to sender, the final response rate was 43.9%, which is remarkably similar to the response rate for widows. There were 14 women who did not meet the inclusion criteria or could not be interviewed. One woman could not be interviewed because of illness and one refused to be interviewed. Seven women were excluded because they were living common law with a man. Another woman was excluded because she had been separated from her children for 4 years and because her ex-husband was not the father of her children. Two women were excluded because they had children older than 16 years of age that they did not mention in their response to the questionnaire. One woman was excluded because she was widowed before her divorce was finalized, and another woman was excluded because her only child had a severe physical handicap.

The characteristics of the total population of divorced families are presented in Table 4. Some information was available on divorcees

TABLE 3

Responses from Divorcees

Volunteered and met inclusion criteria	23	(21.7%)
Volunteered but did not meet inclusion criteria or could not be interviewed	14	(13.2%)
Non-Volunteers who returned the questionnaire	6	(5.7%)
Non-Responders	55	(51.9%)
Letters returned to sender	8	(7.5%)
TOTAL	106	(100.0%)

Final response rate (excluding letters returned to sender) = 43.9%

TABLE 4

Characteristics of Divorced Families Who Volunteered and Were Studied, Who Volunteered but Were Not Studied, Who Did Not Volunteer, and Who Did Not Respond

Characteristic	Studied Volunteers (n=15)	Non-Studied Volunteers (n=22)	Non-Volunteers (n=6)	Non-Responders (n=63)	Statistic
Mother's age	31.8	30.2	32.2	30.8	$F(3,102)= .36, p > .10$
Number of boys	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	$F(3,102)= .12, p > .10$
Boys' age	8.7	10.9	9.7	8.6	$F(3,118)=2.58, p < .10$
Number of girls	1.0	.9	1.2	.9	$F(3,102)= .29, p > .10$
Girls' age	9.8	8.9	7.9	7.7	$F(3, 95)=2.29, p > .10$
Length of marriage[a]	10.7	10.2	10.0	10.3	$F(3,102)= .04, p > .10$
Time since separation (months)	16.5	16.8	14.0	15.7	$F(3,102)= .54, p > .10$
Education					X^2 (4) =8.01, $p < .10$
Grade school	0	6	0		
High school	10	14	3		
University	5	2	1		
Work Status					X^2 (6) =4.64, $p > .10$
Housewife	2	8	2		
Student	1	1	0		
Part-time	2	4	0		
Full-time	10	9	4		
First marriage[b]					
Yes	15	22	6		
No	0	0	0		
Remarried[b]					
Yes	0	0	0		
No	15	22	6		

Note. - Between group differences were assessed by univariate F tests for the continuous variables and by X^2 tests for the categorical variables.

[a] Information on the length of marriage was available for divorcees, but not for widows and married women, from the divorce court records.

[b] Chi square analysis on the first marriage and remarriage variables was not performed since all of the divorcees had been married only once.

who did not return the questionnaire from their divorce records. As can be seen, studied volunteers, non-studied volunteers, non-volunteers, and non-responders did not differ significantly on the following variables: mother's age, number of boys, number of girls, girls' age, length of marriage, and time elapsed since the separation. There was a trend approaching significance for studied volunteers to have younger boys than non-studied volunteers, $F(3,118) = 2.58$, $p < .10$. Again, this is not surprising since the criteria specified selecting young children. Also, the age of boys was very similar in the studied volunteer, non-volunteer, and non-responder groups.

Studied volunteers, non-studied volunteers, and non-volunteers did not differ significantly on mother's work status, whether or not their marriage to their divorced husband was their first, and rates of remarriage. There was a trend approaching significance for non-studied volunteers to have a lower level of education than either studied volunteers or non-responders, $\chi^2(4) = 8.01$, $p < .10$. In summary, the divorcees who were selected for study appear to be very representative of the total population of divorcees meeting the inclusion criteria.

Response rate and characteristics of married responders. The responses from potential subjects for the married group are presented in Table 5. The final response rate from the school survey was 28.2%, which was lower than the response rates for both widows and divorcees. This reponse rate may be a conservative estimate. In selecting every third or fourth student from the school registers, it is possible that more than one student from the same family may have carried a letter home. In fact, for the 155 responders, 9 returned more than one questionnaire. It is possible that other responders may have returned just one questionnaire. Similarly, some of the non-responder families may have received more than one questionnaire. Secondly, it is possible that some of the students may not have actually delivered the

TABLE 5

Responses from Married

Volunteered and met inclusion criteria	39	(7.1%)
Volunteered but did not meet inclusion criteria		
Married	29	(5.3%)
Widowed, Separated, or Divorced	27	(4.9%)
Non-Volunteers who returned the questionnaire		
Married	45	(8.2%)
Widowed, Separated, or Divorced	6	(1.1%)
Responders who returned more than one questionnaire	9	(1.6%)
Non-Responders	395	(71.8%)
TOTAL	550	(100.0%)

Final response rate = 28.2%

letter to their parents. However, it is also possible that this study on single-parent families had less salience for married women than for widows or divorcees.

There were 33 responders who were excluded because they were either widowed, separated, or divorced. Interestingly, this group constituted 21.3% of all the responders from the school survey. Two of the volunteers subsequently refused to be interviewed when contacted by telephone. One family was excluded because the father was away from his family approximately 3 to 4 months a year on business, thus failing to meet the inclusion criterion of living with one's family and working in Winnipeg. The remainder of the married families who were excluded did not meet the inclusion criteria for children's age.

The characteristics of all married responders from the school survey are presented in Table 6. Studied volunteers, non-studied volunteers, and non-volunteers did not differ significantly on the following variables: number of boys, number of girls, girls' age, mothers' work status, and whether or not their marriage to their husband was their first. However, the groups did differ significantly on both mothers' age, $F(2,111) = 3.26$, $p < .05$, and boys' age, $F(2,161) = 6.23$, $p < .005$. In both of these cases, studied volunteers had the lowest mean age, while non-volunteers had the highest mean age, with non-studied volunteers falling in between. This finding suggests that older women with older boys were less likely to volunteer for the study than younger women with younger boys. The groups also differed significantly in terms of mothers' education, $X^2(4) = 9.82$, $p < .05$, with studied volunteers having attained a higher educational level than either non-studied volunteers or non-volunteers.

In summary, the married families who were selected for study appear to be fairly comparable to the married responders who were not studied. Studied volunteers had significantly younger mothers and boys than non-volunteers. However, this does not present a problem

TABLE 6

Characteristics of Married Families Who Volunteered and Were Studied, Who Volunteered but Were Not Studied, and Who Did Not Volunteer

Characteristic	Studied Volunteers (n=15)	Non-Studied Volunteers (n=54)	Non-Volunteers (n=45)	Statistic
Mother's age	33.7	35.2	38.2	$F(2,111)=3.26, p < .05$
Number of boys	1.1	1.5	1.4	$F(2,111)= .80, p > .10$
Boys' age	8.5	10.2	13.2	$F(2,161)=6.23, p < .005$
Number of girls	1.0	1.3	1.6	$F(2,111)=1.91, p > .10$
Girls' age	10.1	11.9	13.0	$F(2,158)=1.47, p > .10$
Education				$X^2(4) =9.82, p < .05$
Grade school	0	6	11	
High school	10	37	30	
University	5	11	4	
Work Status				$X^2(6) =5.56, p > .10$
Housewife	6	27	25	
Student	1	0	1	
Part-time	2	13	8	
Full-time	6	14	11	
First marriage				$X^2(2) =2.26, p > .10$
Yes	15	47	38	
No	0	7	6	

Note. - Between group differences were assessed by univariate F tests for the continuous variables and by X^2 tests for the categorical variables.

since the pre-specified inclusion criteria called for young children with young mothers. On the other hand, it is difficult to say if the study sample is representative of all the families surveyed in St. Vital, in view of the relatively low response rate.

Final Sample of Families Studied

The final sample consisted of 15 families in each of the three groups. There were 15 girls in each group and there were 18 boys in the widowed group, 16 boys in the divorced group, and 17 boys in the married group. All of the families were white, except for one black family in the widowed group and one oriental family in the married group. All of the women in the widowed and divorced groups lived alone with their children, except for one family in the widowed group in which the mother's sister was living with them and had been living with the family prior to the father's death. None of the husbands of the widows died by suicide.

The characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 7. As can be seen, the widowed, divorced, and married groups were well matched with respect to a number of characteristics. These groups did not differ significantly on the following variables: mother's age, number of boys, boys' age, number of girls, girls' age, length of marriage, time elapsed since the death or separation for the widowed and divorced groups, respectively, family size, religious preference, mother's work status and occupation, and type of housing. The groups did differ significantly on mother's education, $X^2(4) = 10.41$, $p < .05$, with widowed women having a lower level of education compared with divorced and married women.

The groups also differed significantly on monthly income 1-2 years ago, $X^2(4) = 11.88$, $p < .05$, with widowed and divorced families having a higher income level than married families. The groups also differed

TABLE 7

Characteristics of Families Studied

Characteristic	Family Status[a] Widowed	Divorced	Married	Statistic
Mother's age	35.0	31.2	33.7	$F(2,42)=1.61, p > .10$
Number of boys	1.2	1.1	1.1	$F(2,42)= .08, p > .10$
Boys' age	8.3	8.7	8.5	$F(2,48)= .06, p > .10$
Number of girls	1.0	1.0	1.0	$F(2,42)= .00, p > .10$
Girls' age	11.3	9.8	10.1	$F(2,42)= .81, p > .10$
Length of marriage	12.4	10.7	12.7	$F(2,42)=1.02, p > .10$
Time since death or separation (months)	16.8	16.5		$t(28) = .02, p > .10$
Family size (number of children)				$\chi^2(6) =1.97, p > .10$
1	2	3	3	
2	10	9	8	
3	1	2	3	
4	2	1	1	
Religion				$\chi^2(6) =8.39, p > .10$
Protestant	7	7	7	
Catholic	6	2	6	
Jewish	0	2	0	
None	2	4	2	
Education				$\chi^2(4) =10.41, p < .05$
Partial high school or less	10	2	4	
High school graduate	2	7	5	
University training	3	6	6	
Work Status				$\chi^2(6) =8.00, p > .10$
Student	1	1	1	
Housewife	6	2	6	
Part-time	4	1	2	
Full-time	4	11	6	
Occupation				$\chi^2(4) =4.42, p > .10$
Housewife-Student	7	3	7	
Clerical-unskilled	5	9	4	
Professional-administrative	3	3	4	

TABLE 7 (continued)

Characteristic	Family Status[a] Widowed	Divorced	Married	Statistic
Monthly income 1-2 years ago				$X^2(4) = 11.88, p < .05$
< $750	0	1	0	
$750-$1500	8	3	12	
> $1500	7	11	3	
Current monthly income				$X^2(4) = 11.00, p < .05$
< $750	7	4	0	
$750 - $1500	5	8	7	
> $1500	3	3	8	
Housing				$X^2(4) = 7.19, p > .10$
House	13	8	11	
Apartment	2	5	2	
Townhouse/ Condominium	0	2	2	

Note. - To assess between group differences on the continuous variables, univariate F tests were used in the three-group case, while Student's t test was used in the two-group case. X^2 tests were used to assess between group differences on all categorical variables.

[a] $n = 15$ for each family status.

significantly on current monthly income, $X^2(4) = 11.0$, $p < .05$. However, in this case, married families now had a higher income level than widowed and divorced families. Thus, since the time of death or separation, widowed and divorced families experienced a drop in income level, while married families experienced a gain in income level in the same 1-2 year time period.

In summary, the widowed, divorced, and married groups were well-matched on most of the family-demographic variables. Since the purpose of the study is to examine how the psychosocial adjustment of mothers and their children is related to the type of father loss, the successful matching of groups helps to rule out rival hypotheses that could otherwise be invoked to explain any differences between the groups in terms of psychosocial adjustment. However, since drop in income level was found to covary with both types of father loss, this variable must be considered as a plausible rival alternative to father loss per se in explaining any differences between groups in terms of psychosocial adjustment.

Independent Variables

The independent variables consisted of two experimental groups and a control group. The two experimental groups consisted of families who had recently experienced different types of father loss: loss of father by death and loss of father by divorce. The control group consisted of married families in which the father was present and living with his family.

Causal interpretation of the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables is limited in this type of design because of non-equivalence of the groups (no random assignment of subjects to treatment conditions) and because pre-test measures on the dependent variables, obtained prior to the introduction of the independent variables,

are lacking. Thus, in this type of quasi-experimental field research, it becomes important to control for the influence of possibly important extraneous variables through careful matching of the experimental and control groups and by appropriate statistical controls in the data analysis.

Dependent Variables

Two major areas of psychosocial functioning were assessed for all family members: affective adjustment and social adjustment. Affective adjustment refers to how the individual feels about himself, including the private behaviors of affect, cognition, and self-concept. Social adjustment on the other hand, refers to the degree to which an individual meets societal expectations in various areas of role functioning.

Measures on the mother. There were three measures on the mother:

1. Affect Balance Scale (ABS, Appendix K) - Bradburn's (1969) Affect Balance Scale was used to assess the affective adjustment of the women in this study. The scale consists of five items dealing with positive affect and five items dealing with negative affect (answered "yes" or "no") and the following question dealing with overall happiness: "Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days -- would you say you're very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy these days?" A two week period was assessed. A high score on the positive affect dimension indicates a high degree of positive affect, while a high score on the negative affect dimension indicates a high degree of negative affect.

In two separate studies, Bradburn (1969; Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965) found that positive affect correlated positively with overall happiness and that negative affect correlated negatively with overall

happiness, but that positive affect and negative affect were only weakly correlated. Furthermore, he found that measures of psychological symptomatology (e.g., worries, psychosomatic complaints, feelings of impending nervous breakdown, etc.) correlated positively with negative affect, but were weakly correlated with positive affect. On the other hand, measures of sociability and experiencing novelty were correlated positively with positive affect, but were weakly correlated with negative affect. Bradburn argued that these findings suggest two independent dimensions of an individual's subjective sense of affective adjustment: positive affect and negative affect. However, Wilson (1967) argued that Bradburn found independent dimensions because the positive and negative affect items he developed were not directly opposite in nature. This assertion was corroborated in a study by Brenner (1975) who found that using different items to assess positive and negative affect resulted in a correlation of -.52 between positive affect and negative affect. With regard to reliability, in a 3-day follow-up of a random sample of 200 subjects, Bradburn (1969) obtained gamma values for test-retest reliability ranging from .76 to .83 for the affect measure.

2. Internal and External Negative Feelings (Appendix L) - The author constructed a scale of 10 negative feelings. Subjects were instructed to rate how often they had experienced these feelings in the past two weeks on 7-point scales ranging from "never" to "always". Five of these items were designated as "internal feelings" because they implied a condition that was related to the self: Ashamed, Hopeless, Troubled, Inadequate, and Guilty. The remaining five items were designated as "external feelings" because they implied a condition that was related to external sources: Angry, Resentful, Bitter, Aggravated, and Overwhelmed. A high score on each of the internal and external negative feelings subscales indicates a high degree of affective adjustment problems.

3. The Social Adjustment Scale (SAS, Appendix M) - The Social Adjustment Scale was used to assess the social adjustment of the women in this study. This instrument is one of the best developed measures of social adjustment available (Weissman, 1975). A modified version of a predecessor scale, this scale was tailor made to assess the social adjustment of depressed women (Weissman & Paykel, 1974). Role performance in work (worker, housewife, or student), social and leisure activities, extended family, marital, parental, and family relationships are assessed. Each role area includes assessments of instrumental task performance, interpersonal relations, friction and resentment, and feelings and satisfactions.

The self-report format of the SAS was used in this study. Individual items are rated on a five-point scale with a high score on all of the subscales indicating a high degree of social adjustment problems. The nine items dealing with marital adjustment were excluded in this study, yielding a total of 33 items. Each item is descriptively anchored. A two week period was assessed.

The psychometric properties of the scale have been well established. Edwards, Yarvis, Mueller, Zingale, and Wagman (Note 2) have recently found the mean test-retest reliability coefficient over a two-week period to be .80. With regard to validity, the overall adjustment score of the self-report version of the scale has been shown to correlate significantly with interview ($r = .72$, $p < .001$) and informant rating ($r = .74$, $p < .001$) formats of the same scale (Weissman & Bothwell, 1976) and with self-reports and clinicians' ratings of depression and psychiatric symptomatology (Weissman, Prusoff, Thompson, Harding, & Myers, Note 3). Moreover, the scale has accurately differentiated acutely depressed patients from recovered depressed patients (Weissman & Bothwell, 1976) and psychiatric patients from normal community controls (Edwards et al., Note 2; Weissman et al., Note 3) in each of the role areas and in overall adjustment.

Measures on the children. There were two measures on the children:

1. The Self-Appraisal Inventory (SAI, Appendices N & O) - The Self-Appraisal Inventory (Popham, Note 4) was used to assess the affective adjustment of the children in this study because the test items sample the domain of items relating to children's feelings of emotional adjustment (e.g., "I am often unhappy."). The scale has primary and intermediate level forms, consisting of 36 and 77 questions, respectively. Questions are answered on a "yes" or "no" basis. Children ages 5 to 9 were administered the primary level form, while children ages 10 to 16 were administered the intermediate level form. Preschool children were not administered the SAI because of difficulties they had in understanding the questions and the nature of the task. The questions were administered verbally to young children who could not read the questions. The forms were explained to the older children and they were asked to fill them out by themselves. Assistance was provided whenever necessary. The score on each subscale of the SAI was divided by the total number of items for that scale, so as to yield an equivalent scoring system for the two forms of the SAI. A high score on all of the SAI subscales indicates a high degree of affective adjustment.

The scale provides self-evaluations in the areas of family, peer, scholastic and general well-being. Overall test-retest reliability over a two week period has been estimated at .73 for the primary level and .88 for the intermediate level. The scale has face validity in that the items deal explicitly with how the child feels about himself (e.g., "I am a good student"). More rigorous empirical validations of the scale have yet to be undertaken. Finally, the items are not disguised, thus allowing the possibility of socially desirable responding. Nevertheless, the SAI is the only instrument available to assess young children's evaluations of themselves.

Also, the same question dealing with the overall happiness of the mothers was used with the children: "Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days -- would you say you're very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy these days?"

2. The Behavior Problem Checklist (BPC, Appendix P) - The social adjustment of the child was assessed by the Behavior Problem Checklist developed by Quay and Peterson (Note 5). This measure consists of 55 items describing behavioral adjustment problems of children, each of which was rated on a 3-point scale (no problem, mild problem, or severe problem) by the child's mother, and, with the mother's approval, the child's teacher. The factorial structure of the scale is consistent with a large body of research which has identified two major dimensions of behavioral maladjustment in children that are relatively independent: shy-anxious behavior (Personality-Problem) and anti-social behavior (Conduct-Problem) (Hewitt & Jenkins, 1946; Kohn, 1977; Kohn & Rosman, 1973; Lorion, Cowen, & Caldwell, 1975; Peterson, 1961; Quay, 1972). The score for each subscale is the number of items on the subscale which have been checked as either "mild problem" or "severe problem". This scoring system is used since research has shown that it correlates very highly (.98 to .99) with weighted scoring of the mild and severe ratings (Quay & Peterson, Note 5). A high score on each subscale indicates a high degree of social adjustment problems.

In a recent article, Quay (1977) has comprehensively reviewed the reliability and validity of the Behavior Problem Checklist. Beginning with reliability, studies examining inter-rater reliability (agreements between parents or teachers) have revealed correlations ranging from .67 to .75 for the Personality-Problem subscale and correlations ranging from .77 to .78 for the Conduct-Problem subscale, while studies examining test-retest reliability of the scale over short periods of time (e.g., two weeks) have reported even higher reliability

estimates. In terms of validity, the Behavior Problem Checklist has accurately discriminated between children referred to child guidance clinics and normal children; it has been shown to be sensitive to behavior changes resulting from therapeutic interventions; and it has been found to be significantly related to other measures of behavioral deviance and to academic under-achievement.

Moderator Variables

The role of social, economic, and personal supports and assets in allaying potential adverse effects of stressful life events has figured prominently in public health formulations of stress and dysfunction (Antonovsky, 1974; Caplan, 1974; Caplan & Killilea, 1976; Cobb, 1974; Cohen, 1971; B.P. Dohrenwend, 1961). However, it is only recently that research has demonstrated that these "host resistance" factors can moderate the relationship between stress and dysfunction (Cobb, 1976; B.S. Dohrenwend, 1973; Gottlieb, 1976; Liem & Liem, Note 6; Lindenthal, Thomas, & Myers, 1971; Luborsky, Todd, & Katcher, 1973; Myers, Lindenthal, & Pepper, 1974, 1975).

In this study, a number of variables that may moderate the psychosocial adjustment of the widows, divorcees, and their children were examined (see Appendix Q). These variables fell into eight general classes:

1. Socioeconomic status variables - These included the mother's educational level, occupation, current monthly income, change in income following the loss of the husband, type of housing, and employment prior to the loss of the husband.

2. Other family-demographic variables - These included the mother's age, number of boys and girls, age of boys and girls, and prior marital satisfaction.

3. Information about the father and father substitutes - Women from all three groups were asked how much time their husbands spent with their children 1-2 years ago. Divorcees and married women were asked how much time their husbands currently spend with their children. Finally, widows and divorcees were asked if there was a man who acted as a father substitute to the children, and, if so, how much time he currently spends with the children.

4. Social supports - There were five questions answered on a "yes" or "no" basis and nine questions answered on a five-point rating scale that dealt with the social and emotional support provided by family, friends, and other community members during the mother's time of crisis. These questions were summed, resulting in a score ranging from 0 to 50. The social supports measure was administered to widows and divorcees only.

5. History of counseling for psychosocial problems - Mother - This included the presence or absence of previous counseling, the type of counseling, if any, and when the mother was counseled. Children - This included the presence or absence of previous counseling, the type of counseling, if any, and when the child was counseled.

6. Situational aspects of the death and current feelings about the death (for widows only) - This included five questions, each rated on a three-point scale, dealing with the suddeness of the death, opportunity to talk with the husband about the death prior to the death, and current feelings of guilt, anger, and preoccupation with the husband's death.

7. Situational aspects of the divorce and current feelings about the divorce (for divorcees only) - This included five questions, each rated on a three-point scale, dealing with who insisted most on the divorce, suddeness of the decision to divorce, current positive and negative feelings towards the ex-husband, and wishes for reconciliation.

8. Current relationship with the ex-husband (for divorcees only) - This included five questions, each rated on a five-point scale, dealing with the current relationship with the ex-husband. These items were summed, yielding a score ranging from 0 to 25.

A systematic analysis of the moderating effects of these different classes of variables on the psychosocial adjustment of the widowed, the divorced, and their children was conducted. Regression analyses were used to determine which of these variables were the best predictors of outcome on the dependent variables.

Interview Procedure

One appointment was scheduled for an interview for all subjects who agreed to participate. All interviews were conducted by two trained interviewers and myself. The interviewers, two males and one female, were all graduate students in psychology. The interviewers were trained in two sessions, which were devoted to familiarization with the interview procedures and measurement instruments and each interviewer conducted one pilot interview. Each interviewer interviewed an equal number (5) of families from each of the widowed, divorced, and married groups. All interviews were conducted in the families' homes in the evening and the interviews ranged in length from one to three hours. All interviews were completed in the 18-day period from June11, 1978 to June 28, 1978. Interviewer bias was minimized by the fact that assessment of all the dependent measures was done by self-report or ratings of other family members (i.e., mothers' ratings of children's behavior).

During the appointment, the interviewer began by further explaining the nature of the study to the mother and attempting to develop rapport. Next, the interviewer interviewed the mother on the items covered in the interview schedule (see Appendix Q). Following the

interview, the assessment instruments, the ABS, the Internal and External Negative Feelings Questionnaire, the SAS, and the BPC (one for each child in the family), were explained to the mother and she was asked to complete them by herself. While the mother was completing the assessment instruments, the interviewer explained the SAI to the children and asked them to complete it by themselves. The interviewer administered the SAI verbally to children who could not read the questions. The interviewer also answered any questions the mother and her children had regarding completion of the assessment instruments.

After the mother and her children had completed all of the assessment instruments, the mother was asked if she was willing to consent to have her children's behavior rated by their teachers on the BPC. If she agreed, she was asked to sign a form providing parental consent for the teacher's rating (see Appendix R). For those who consented, a letter (see Appendix S) was sent to the children's teacher, along with a copy of the parental consent form and a copy of the BPC, asking them to fill out the BPC and return it to me in an enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope. After all this was done, the interviewer further discussed the study with the family and reminded the mother that she would be sent a brief summary of the results of the study when it was completed.

The rate of teacher's return of the BPC is presented in Table 8. The request for teachers to complete the BPC was not sent in 11 cases either because the child was a pre-schooler or because the mother refused to give her consent. Three questionnaires were returned with the face sheet having been removed so that the subject could not be identified. Hence, these responses were unusable and were classified as "not returned". The final response rate was quite high, 80%. Furthermore, the rate of response was remarkably similar across the three groups.

TABLE 8

Teachers' Rate of Return of the Behavior Problem Checklist for Different Family Statuses

	Family Status		
Response	Widowed	Divorced	Married
Returned	22	22	24
Not returned	6	5	6
Not sent	5	4	2

Final response rate - 80.0%.

CHAPTER 3 - RESULTS

For each hypothesis, the analysis of variance was used to test between group differences when a single dependent variable was specified. When more than one dependent variable was specified, the multivariate analysis of variance was used.[1] All between group differences were tested at $\alpha = .05$ level of significance. The Scheffe (1959) multiple comparison technique was used for post hoc probing of all significant univariate F tests. The Scheffe method was chosen because of its versatility (it can be used for both pairwise and complex contrasts and it is not dependent on equal ns per group), its robustness to violations of assumptions, and its efficient control of Type I error rate (Petrinovich & Hardyck, 1969). Discriminant analysis was used for post hoc probing of significant multivariate F tests to determine the linear combination of dependent variables that would maximize the differences between group centroids (Huberty, 1975).

In view of the quasi-experimental nature of the design, it was decided that statistical control of nuisance variables that were highly correlated with the dependent variables would improve the power of hypothesis testing. One set of variables that has been consistently found to be related to various measures of psychosocial adjustment is measures of socioeconomic status (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1969). Thus, the following preliminary steps were taken before testing between group hypotheses. Multiple regression analyses were performed on each of the dependent variables using the following socioeconomic status variables as predictors: current monthly income, work status,

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[1] All multivariate and univariate analyses of variance were done using Version V of Finn's (1976) MULTIVARIANCE program.

occupation, education, and type of housing.[2] If any of these variables were found to be significantly related to the dependent variable in question, they were used as covariates in either the univariate or multivariate test of the hypothesis. Whenever covariance analysis was used, a test was first performed to determine if the assumption of homogeneity of within group regression slopes (or parallelism of regression hyperplanes in the multivariate case) was met.

Another preliminary concern in the data analysis was the power of the statistical tests to detect differences at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Power analysis, using Kirk's (1968) method, was used to determine the power of the tests to detect differences on one standard error unit, $\sqrt{e}$, for all of the hypotheses regarding mothers and their children. All of the hypothesis tests for the mothers had power, 1-B, equal to .70. For the children, tests of the main effect of family status had power equal to .95, .90, and .85 and for mothers' ratings on the BPC, the children's ratings on the SAI, and the teachers' ratings on the BPC, respectively. The main effect for sex differences for the children had power greater than .99 for all of the dependent measures. The family status X sex interaction effect had power equal to .70 for the mothers' ratings on the BPC. Power to detect this interaction effect was less than .70 on the SAI and teachers' ratings on the BPC. In summary, the statistical tests used were powerful enough to detect differences of one standard error unit for all of the hypotheses.

The Women

Women from the three different family statuses were asked to rate their marital happiness for three different time periods: overall, during the first year of marriage, and 1-2 years ago. The results of

[2]All multiple regression analyses were done using the BMD 02R stepwise regression program (Dixon, 1973).

these ratings are presented in Table 9 and are compared with the results obtained in Hetherington's (1972) study. For each of the different time periods, widows reported the highest degree of marital happiness followed by married women, while divorcees reported the lowest degree of marital happiness. As can be seen, the overall marital happiness ratings corresponded closely with and replicated Hetherington's findings. The multivariate test showed that the groups differed significantly on these three marital happiness ratings, F (6,80) = 21.58, $p < .0001$ (see Table 10). Discriminant analysis revealed that the dependent variable, marital happiness 1-2 years ago, was the strongest contributor to the significant multivariate test. This variable had the largest standardized discriminant function coefficient on the first discriminant function which was statistically significant, Bartlett's $X^2(6) = 78.94$, $p < .0001$. The discriminant function centroids for the three groups are graphically depicted in Figure 1. As can be seen, the first discriminant function separates the married and widowed groups from the divorced group. This shows that divorcees rated their marital happiness lower than widowed and married women, particularly at the time of separation.

Hypothesis 1. According to the first hypothesis, widows and divorcees would report significantly more affective adjustment problems than married women. The mean affective adjustment scores for the women are presented in Table 11. As can be seen, married women reported the lowest degree of affective adjustment on the Negative Affect subscale of the ABS and on both Internal and External Negative Feelings. Multiple regression analysis determined that current monthly income and type of housing were significant predictors of the Negative Affect subscale of the ABS, F (2,42) = 5.53, $p < .05$, accounting for 21% of the variance in this measure. Current monthly income and the quality of housing were both inversely related to Negative Affect. However, none of the socioeconomic status variables

TABLE 9

Mean Marital Happiness Scores at Different Time Periods for Women from Different Family Statuses

	Family Status[a]		
Time Period	Widowed	Divorced	Married
Overall	4.87	3.27	4.27
First year of marriage	4.60	3.93	4.13
1-2 years ago	4.87	1.60	4.27
Happiness in marriage (from Hetherington, 1972)	4.75	2.79	4.12

[a] $n = 15$ for each family status

TABLE 10

Summary of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Discriminant Analysis on Marital Happiness Ratings for Women from Different Family Statuses

Source	df	F	p	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients	
Family Status				First Discriminant Function	Second Discriminant Function
Rao's multivariate F test	6,80	21.58	$p < .0001$		
Univariate F tests					
Overall marital happiness	2,42	12.25	$p < .0001$	-.34	.69
First year marital happiness	2,42	1.67	$p > .20$	.81	.42
Marital happiness 1-2 years ago	2,42	78.50	$p < .0001$	1.26	-.32

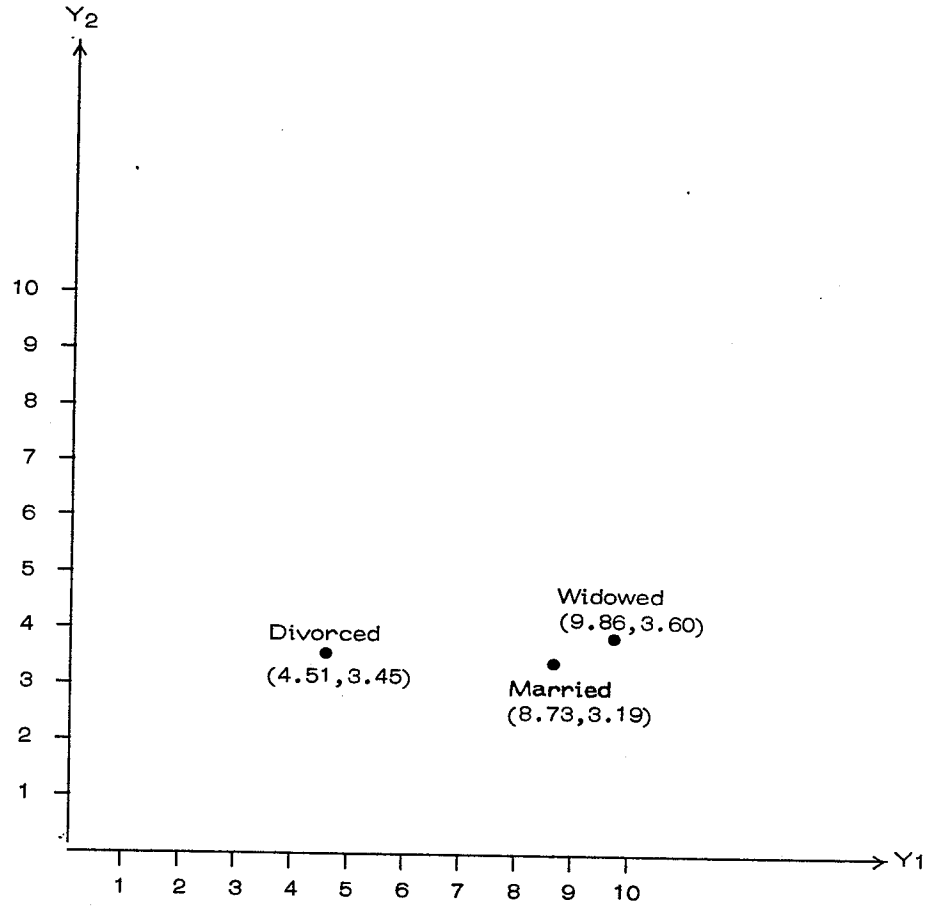

Figure 1. Discriminant function centroids of the different family statuses on women's marital happiness ratings.

Note. - Axis Y_1 represents the first discriminant function, while axis Y_2 represents the second discriminant function.

TABLE 11

Mean Affective Adjustment Scores for Women from Different Family Statuses

	Family Status[a]		
Affect Measure	Widowed	Divorced	Married
Bradburn's Affect Balance Scale			
Positive Affect	3.73	4.20	3.93
Negative Affect	1.93	2.20	1.33
Negative Feelings			
Internal	13.60	13.27	11.73
External	16.47	16.73	14.00

[a] $n = 15$ for each family status

were significant predictors of scores on the Positive Affect scale of the ABS or on the Internal and External Negative Feelings subscales. Thus, income and housing were used as covariates in the multivariate analysis of covariance to test the differences between groups on the two subscales of the ABS. The test for parallelism of regression hyperplanes, $\underline{F}$ (8,70) = 1.03, $\underline{p} > .40$, indicated that this assumption was met.

The multivariate test on the two subscales of the ABS, $\underline{F}$ (4,78) = 1.22, $\underline{p} > .20$, indicated that the groups did not differ significantly on this measure. Similarly, the multivariate analysis of variance showed that the groups did not differ significantly on the Internal and External Negative Feelings measure, $\underline{F}$ (4,82) = .67, $\underline{p} > .50$. Likewise, the groups did not differ significantly in terms of self-reported happiness, $X^2(4) = .65$, $\underline{p} > .90$ (see Table 12). Thus, although the means on the measures of affective adjustment on the women were in the hypothesized direction, statistical significance tests did not support the first hypothesis that widows and divorcees would report significantly more affective adjustment problems than married women.

Hypothesis 2. The second hypothesis stated that widows and divorcees would report significantly more social adjustment problems than married women. The mean scores on the SAS for the women are presented in Table 13. From this table one can see that divorcees had the highest mean on the Total Social Adjustment score compared with widowed and married women. However, in examining the mean scores on the four subscales of the SAS, it is apparent that the groups differ substantially only on the Friction and Resentment subscale, with divorcees reporting a higher average score on this subscale than widows and married women.

Multiple regression analysis determined that occupation was a significant predictor of Total Social Adjustment, $\underline{F}$ (1,43) = 4.84, $\underline{p} < .05$, accounting for 10% of the variance in this measure. Occupational status was inversely related to the Total SAS score. Thus,

TABLE 12

Happiness Ratings for Women from Different Family Statuses

	Family Status		
Happiness Rating	Widowed	Divorced	Married
Very Happy	4	4	3
Pretty Happy	9	10	10
Not Too Happy	2	1	2

TABLE 13

Mean Social Adjustment Scale Scores for Women from Different Family Statuses

	Family Status[a]		
Score	Widowed	Divorced	Married
Performance	15.67	15.93	14.80
Interpersonal Relations	9.27	10.73	9.93
Feelings & Satisfactions	17.33	17.67	17.40
Friction & Resentment	8.80	10.60	8.73
Total Score	51.07	54.93	50.87

[a] $n = 15$ for each family status

occupation was used as a covariate in testing the differences between groups on the Total Social Adjustment score. The test for homogeneity of within group regression slopes was not significant, F (2,39) = .62, $p > .50$, indicating that this assumption was met. The test for differences between groups on the Total Social Adjustment score was found to be approaching statistical significance, F (2,41) = 2.69, $p < .08$. However, it appeared from the inspection of means that this difference may have resulted solely from the divorcees' relatively high score on the Friction and Resentment subscale. Since a separate prediction was made regarding friction and resentment (Hypothesis 3), a multivariate analysis of covariance was performed on the Performance, Interpersonal Relations, and Feelings and Satisfactions subscales, excluding the Friction and Resentment subscale. The test for parallelism of regression hyperplanes was not significant, F (6,74) = .60, $p > .70$, indicating that this assumption was met. The differences between groups on these three subscales were not significant, F (6,78) = .81, $p > .50$, thus failing to support the second hypothesis that widows and divorcees would report significantly more social adjustment problems than married women.

Hypothesis 3. The third hypothesis stated that divorcees would report significantly more friction and resentment than widows and married women. As was previously mentioned, divorcees did, in fact, have the highest mean score on the Friction and Resentment subscale of the SAS compared with widows and married women. None of the socioeconomic status variables were significant predictors of Friction and Resentment. Analysis of variance on this subscale revealed significant differences between the groups on this measure, F (2,42) = 3.82, $p < .05$. Scheffe's post hoc comparison revealed that divorcees reported significantly more Friction and Resentment than widows and married women, Scheffe's F (2,42) = 7.78 which exceeded the critical

value of $F'(2,42) = 6.46$ at $\alpha = .05$.[3] Thus, the third hypothesis that divorcees would show significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of friction and resentment than widowed and married women was clearly supported.

The Children

Hypothesis 4. Turning now to the findings on the psychosocial adjustment of the children, the fourth hypothesis stated that the children of widows and divorcees would report significantly more affective adjustment problems than children from intact families in which the parents are married. The mean scores on the SAI for children from different family statuses are presented in Table 14. On all of the subscales and on the total SAI score, boys and girls from widowed and divorced families reported more affective adjustment problems than boys and girls from married families. Boys whose mothers were widowed consistently had the lowest SAI scores. The results of the two-way multivariate analysis of variance on the four subscale scores are presented in Table 15. None of the socioeconomic status variables were found to be significant predictors of the Total SAI score. Thus, no covariates were used in this analysis. As predicted, there was a significant main effect for family status, $F(8,152) = 1.93$, $p < .06$. Discriminant analysis revealed that the Family subscale was the strongest contributor to the significant multivariate test. This variable had the largest standardized discriminant function coefficient on the first discriminant function which was statistically significant, Bartlett's $\chi^2(8) = 14.96$, $p < .06$. Figure 2 graphically depicts the

[3] $F' = (J-1) F_{.05;\nu_1,\nu_2} = 2 \times 3.23_{.05;2,42} = 6.46_{.05;2,42}$ where J equals the number of groups and ν_1, ν_2 stand for the numerator and denominator degrees of freedom of the critical F value. See Kirk (1968) for an elaboration of the Scheffe method.

TABLE 14

Mean Self-Appraisal Inventory Scores for Children from Different Family Statuses

Family Status	n	Score				
		Family	School	Peer	General	Total
Widowed						
Boys	16	.71	.71	.69	.75	.71
Girls	12	.75	.77	.78	.82	.78
Divorced						
Boys	13	.83	.72	.72	.84	.79
Girls	14	.77	.68	.81	.78	.77
Married (All Ss)						
Boys	15	.88	.80	.83	.87	.84
Girls	15	.91	.87	.83	.91	.88
(High father present Ss)						
Boys	11	.94	.81	.83	.86	.85
Girls	10	.92	.88	.82	.93	.89
(Low father present Ss)						
Boys	4	.72	.77	.83	.89	.79
Girls	5	.89	.85	.85	.87	.87

TABLE 15

Summary of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Discriminant Analysis on SAI Scores for Children from Different Family Statuses

Source	df	F	p	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients	
				First Discriminant Function	Second Discriminant Function
Family Status					
Rao's multivariate F test	8,152	1.93	$p < .06$		
Univariate F tests					
Family	2,79	5.18	$p < .01$	-.62	.50
School	2,79	3.52	$p < .05$	-.14	-1.17
Peer	2,79	2.55	$p < .09$	-.19	.34
General	2,79	3.20	$p < .05$	-.34	.09
Sex					
Rao's multivariate F test	4,76	.68	$p > .60$		
Univariate F tests					
Family	1,79	.01	$p > .90$	.47	
School	1,79	.50	$p > .40$	-.14	
Peer	1,79	2.37	$p > .10$	-1.05	
General	1,79	.17	$p > .60$	.04	
Family Status X Sex Interaction					
Rao's multivariate F test	8,152	.82	$p > .50$		
Univariate F tests					
Family	2,79	.57	$p > .50$	.43	-.05
School	2,79	.67	$p > .50$	.56	-.37
Peer	2,79	.67	$p > .50$	-.95	.56
General	2,79	1.11	$p > .30$	.40	.85

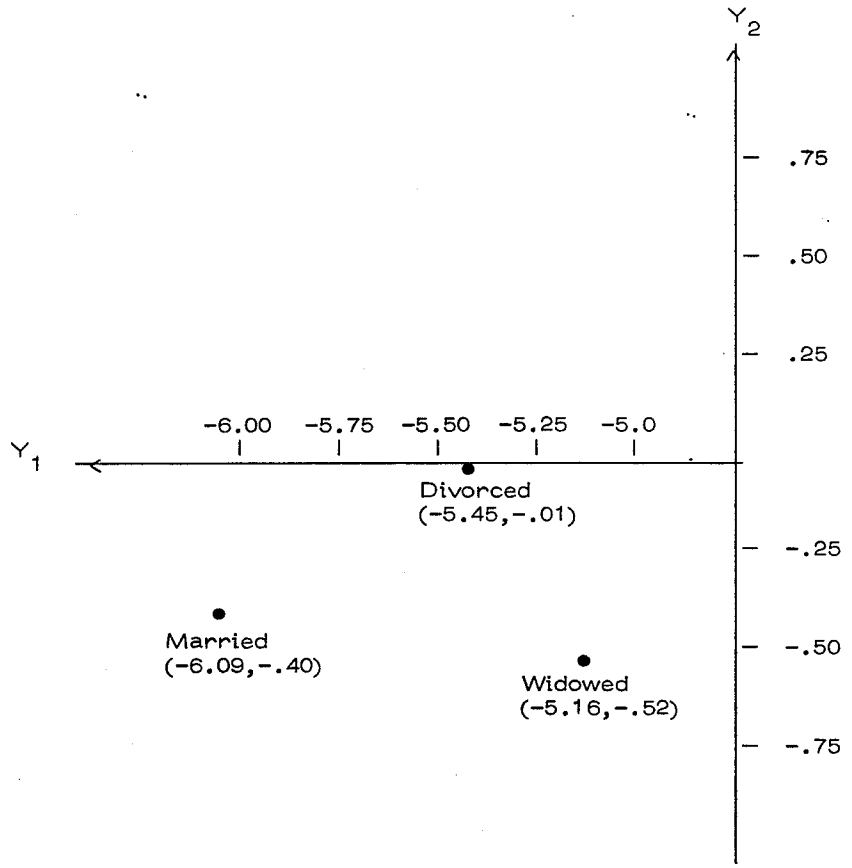

Figure 2. Discriminant function centroids of the different family statuses on children's SAI ratings.

Note. - Axis Y_1 represents the first discriminant function, while axis Y_2 represents the second discriminant function.

discriminant function centroids of the different family statuses on children's SAI ratings. As can be seen, the first discriminant function separates the married group from the divorced group and the widowed group. The effects for the sex of the child, $\underline{F}$ (4,76) = .68, $\underline{p} > .60$, and the family status X sex interaction, $\underline{F}$ (8,152) = .82, $\underline{p} > .50$, were not statistically significant.

The happiness ratings for children from different family statuses are presented in Table 16. Inspecting this table, it appears that both boys and girls from married families tended to rate themselves as more happy than boys and girls from widowed and divorced families. Boys from widowed families tended to have the lowest happiness ratings. Chi square analysis of sex of the child X happiness rating revealed that, overall, boys and girls did not differ significantly in their ratings of happiness, $X^2(2) = .64$, $\underline{p} > .70$. Since there was no significant effect for sex of the child, boys and girls were combined to perform a chi square analysis on family status X happiness rating. The results of this analysis showed a trend approaching significance for the children from different family statuses to differ in their self-rated happiness, $X^2(4) = 7.67$, $\underline{p} = .10$, with the children of widows and divorcees rating themselves as less happy than the children from intact families.

In summary, the fourth hypothesis that boys and girls from widowed and divorced families would report significantly more affective adjustment problems than boys and girls from married families was supported by findings on the SAI, particularly on the Family subscale, and, suggestively, on the happiness ratings. In both cases, boys from widowed families reported the lowest affective adjustment.

Further exploration of Hypothesis 4. Further probing of the data revealed interesting results when the children from the married group were subdivided into a high father present group (children whose fathers were present more than 15 hours per week) and a low father present group (children whose fathers were present less than 15 hours per week).

TABLE 16

Happiness Ratings for Children from Different Family Statuses

Sex	Happiness Rating	Family Status: Widowed	Divorced	Married (All Ss)	Married (High father present Ss)	Married (Low father present Ss)
Boys	Very Happy	4	6	9	7	2
	Pretty Happy	10	6	6	4	2
	Not Too Happy	2	1	0	0	0
Girls	Very Happy	5	6	10	8	2
	Pretty Happy	6	6	5	2	3
	Not Too Happy	1	2	0	0	0

This line of investigation was suggested by a study by Blanchard and Biller (1971) in which it was found that boys from father absent families and boys from low father present families (i.e., those in which fathers were present less than 6 hours per week) did not differ significantly on a variety of measures of academic achievement, but that both of these groups had significantly poorer achievement scores than boys from high father present families (i.e., those in which fathers were present more than 15 hours per week).

Inspecting the means in Table 14, it appears that boys from low father present families had lower SAI scores, particularly on the Family subscale, than boys from high father present families. A 2 x 4 analysis of variance on the Total SAI score was performed to evaluate the effects of sex of the child (boys vs. girls) and family status (widowed, divorced, high father present, and low father present). It was not possible to perform a multivariate analysis of variance on the subscale scores because of the small number of Ss in the low father present group. The results of this analysis showed a significant main effect for family status, F (3,77) = 3.79, $p < .02$. There were no significant effects for sex of the child, F (1,77) = .99, $p > .30$, or the sex X family status interaction, F (1,77) = .48, $p > .60$. A Scheffé post hoc comparison was used to compare the means of boys and girls from widowed and divorced families and boys from low father present families with the means of boys and girls from high father present families and girls from low father present families on the Total SAI score. This post hoc analysis found Scheffé's F (3,77) = 8.41 to exceed the critical value of F'(3,77) = 7.90 at $\alpha = .01$. Thus, boys and girls from widowed and divorced families and boys from low father present families had significantly lower Total SAI scores than boys and girls from high father present families and girls from low father present families.

Since it appeared that the Family subscale score showed the greatest margin between the high father present and low father present groups, the same analysis was performed on this variable. Once again, there was a significant main effect for family status, F (3,77) = 4.52, $p < .01$, but no significant effects for sex of the child, F (1,77) = .03, $p > .80$, or the sex X family status interaction, F (3,77) = 1.11, $p > .30$. The same post hoc comparison among means was performed. Again, Scheffé's F (3,77) = 10.19 exceeded the critical value of F' (3,77) = 7.90 at $\alpha = .01$ indicating that boys and girls from widowed and divorced families and boys from low father present families had significantly lower scores on the Family subscale of the SAI than boys and girls from high father present families and girls from low father present families.

A similar pattern was found on the happiness ratings as was found on the SAI scores when the married group was divided into high father present and low father present groups. Children from the high father present group tended to have the highest happiness ratings, while children from the low father present group had similar happiness ratings to those children from the widowed and divorced families. Unfortunately, statistical analysis of the high father present and low father present groups could not be performed because of the small number of Ss in these groups. For contingency tables with more than one degree of freedom, a minimum expected frequency of 5 per cell is generally regarded as adequate (Hays, 1963).

Thus, a very interesting and unpredicted finding emerged when the children from intact families were divided into high father present and low father present groups. Boys, but not girls, from married families in which the father was infrequently available resembled children from widowed and divorced families in their SAI ratings, differing significantly from children from married families in which the father was frequently available. This difference was most pro-

nounced on the Family subscale of the SAI. Finally, both boys and girls from low father present families tended to have lower happiness ratings than boys and girls from high father present families.

Hypothesis 5. According to the fifth hypothesis, children from widowed families would be rated as having significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of shy-anxious behavior than children from divorced and married families. The mean scores for children from different family statuses on the BPC, as rated by both mothers and teachers, are presented in Table 17. Examining the means on mothers' ratings of their children on the Personality Problem (PP) subscale, it is apparent that children from widowed families had the lowest scores on this subscale, contrary to prediction. It was also hypothesized that girls would be rated as displaying significantly more shy-anxious behavior than boys. As was predicted, girls had higher mean scores on this subscale than boys in each of the groups except the married group. None of the socioeconomic status variables were significant predictors of mothers' ratings on the PP subscale. The results of a 2 x 3 analysis of variance showed that the main effect for sex of the child, F (1,90) = .03, p >.80, the main effect for family status, F (2,90) = .94, p >.30, and the sex X family status interaction, F (2,90) = .33, p >.70, were all not statistically significant.

Examining the teachers' ratings of the children on the PP subscale, one can see that girls from divorced families had the highest mean score on this measure, followed by boys and girls from widowed families, while boys and girls from married families had the lowest mean scores on this measure. Finally, the only case in which girls had a higher mean score on the PP subscale than boys was for the divorced group. None of the socioeconomic status variables were significant predictors of teachers' ratings on the PP subscale. The results of a 2 x 3 analysis of variance showed that the main effect for sex of the child, F (1,62) = .01, p >.90, the main effect for family

TABLE 17

Mean Behavior Problem Checklist Scores for Children
from Different Family Statuses as Rated by Mothers and Teachers

Rater	Family Status	n	Score: Personality Problem	Score: Conduct Problem
Mothers	Widowed			
	Boys	18	2.56	5.00
	Girls	15	3.20	3.67
	Divorced			
	Boys	16	3.63	5.19
	Girls	15	3.87	5.60
	Married (All Ss)			
	Boys	17	4.06	6.76
	Girls	15	3.47	3.53
	(High father present Ss)			
	Boys	12	3.08	4.75
	Girls	10	3.50	3.50
	(Low father present Ss)			
	Boys	5	6.40	11.60
	Girls	5	3.40	3.60
Teachers	Widowed			
	Boys	13	3.38	3.62
	Girls	9	3.22	1.44
	Divorced			
	Boys	10	2.80	2.30
	Girls	12	3.50	2.25
	Married (All Ss)			
	Boys	12	2.75	1.33
	Girls	12	2.17	1.33

status, F (2,62) = .48, $p > .60$, and the sex X family status interaction, F (2,62) = .23, $p > .70$, were all not statistically significant.

To summarize, the fifth hypothesis that children from widowed families would display significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of shy-anxious behavior than children from divorced and married families was not supported by either mothers' ratings or teachers' ratings. Also contrary to prediction, girls were not rated as displaying significantly more shy-anxious behavior than boys by either mothers or teachers.

Further exploration of Hypothesis 5. When the children from married families were subdivided into high father present and low father present groups, one can see from Table 17 that boys from the low father present group had the highest mean score on mothers' ratings on the PP subscale compared with children from all other groups. However, the results of a 2 x 4 analysis of variance showed that the main effect for sex of the child, F (1,88) = .02, $p > .80$, the main effect for family status, F (3,88) = 1.29, $p > .20$, and the sex X family status interaction, F (3,88) = .96, $p > .40$, were all not statistically significant. On teachers' ratings on the PP subscale, it was not possible to subdivide children from married families into high father present and low father present groups due to the small number of subjects. Thus, further probing of father availability to children in intact families failed to reveal any significant differences on mothers' ratings on the PP subscale.

Hypothesis 6. The sixth hypothesis stated that children from divorced families would be rated as having significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of anti-social behavior than children from widowed and married families. From inspection of Table 17, one can see that boys from married families had the highest mean score on mothers' ratings on the Conduct Problem (CP) subscale. Boys and girls from divorced families had the next highest mean scores, followed by boys and girls

from widowed families, with girls from married families having the lowest mean score on mothers' ratings on the CP subscale. It was also predicted that boys would be rated as showing significantly more anti-social behavior than girls. In all but the divorced group, boys had higher mean scores on mothers' ratings on the CP subscale than girls.

Multiple regression analysis found that mothers' occupation was a significant predictor of the mothers' ratings of their children on the CP subscale, F (1,94) = 4.46, $p < .05$, accounting for 5% of the variance in this measure. Mothers' occupational status was inversely related to their ratings of their children on the CP subscale. Thus, mothers' occupation was used as a covariate in testing between group differences on the mothers' ratings on the CP subscale. The test for homogeneity of within group regression slopes was not significant, F (5,84) = .71, $p > .60$, indicating that this assumption was met. The results of a 2 x 3 analysis of covariance revealed that the main effect for sex of the child, F (1,89) = 1.62, $p > .20$, the main effect for family status, F (2,89) = 1.13, $p > .30$, and the sex X family status interaction, F (2,89) = 1.20, $p > .30$, were all not statistically significant.

On the teachers' ratings of the children on the CP subscale, boys from widowed families had the highest mean score, followed by boys and girls from divorced families, while boys and girls from married families had the lowest mean scores on this measure. None of the socioeconomic status variables were found to be significant predictors of teachers' ratings on the CP subscale. The results of a 2 x 3 analysis of variance revealed that the main effect for sex of the child, F (1,62) = .97, $p > .30$, the main effect for family status, F (2,62) = 1.37, $p > .20$, and the sex X family status interaction, F (2,62) = .98, $p > .30$, were all not statistically significant.

In summary, children from divorced families had higher mean scores on mothers' ratings on the CP subscale than boys and girls from widowed families and girls, but not boys, from married families.

However, this difference did not reach statistical significance, thus failing to support the sixth hypothesis that children from divorced families would display significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of anti-social behavior than children from widowed and married families. As was predicted, boys displayed more anti-social behavior than girls, according to the mothers' ratings. Again, however, this difference failed to reach statistical significance. Finally, teachers' ratings on the CP subscale also failed to support the sixth hypothesis.

Further exploration of Hypothesis 6. From Table 17 one can see that on the mothers' ratings on the CP subscale, the subdivision of children from married families into high father present and low father present groups revealed dramatic differences between the boys from these subgroups. Compared with boys from widowed and divorced families, boys from low father present families had the highest mean score on mothers' ratings on the CP subscale, while boys from high father present families had the lowest mean score. This important difference is otherwise obscured when children from all married families are lumped together and considered as a single group.

The results of a 2 x 4 analysis of covariance revealed that neither the main effect for sex of the child, $F(1,87) = 1.99$, $p > .10$, nor the main effect for family status, $F(3,87) = 1.60$, $p > .10$, were statistically significant. However, the sex X family status interaction approached statistical significance, $F(3,87) = 2.21$, $p < .10$. This trend is reflected in the high score of boys from the low father present group on mothers' ratings on the CP subscale.

On the teachers' ratings on the CP subscale, it was not possible to divide the children from married families into high father present and low father present groups due to the small number of subjects. In summary then, an important trend was found on mothers' ratings of their children on the CP subscale when the children from married

families were subdivided into high father present and low father present groups. This trend, which approached statistical significance, was for boys from low father present families to have the highest score on mothers' ratings on the CP subscale.

Intercorrelations of Dependent Measures

The intercorrelations of the dependent measures on the women are presented in Table 18.[4] Eleven of the 21 correlations were statistically significant. The intercorrelations of the ABS measures and the Happiness question replicated the findings of Bradburn (1969). Positive Affect was positively correlated with Affect Balance, $\underline{r} = .35$, $\underline{p} < .01$, and the Happiness question, $\underline{r} = .48$, $\underline{p} < .001$. On the other hand, Negative Affect was negatively correlated with Affect Balance, $\underline{r} = -.46$, $\underline{p} < .001$, and the Happiness question, $\underline{r} = -.13$, $\underline{p} > .10$. However, Positive Affect and Negative Affect were virtually unassociated, $\underline{r} = .01$, $\underline{p} > .10$. Also, Positive Affect and Affect Balance, which presumably tap a positive, non-pathological, emotional state, were not significantly associated with either of the Internal and External Negative Feelings subscales or the Total SAS score. On the other hand, all of the intercorrelations between Negative Affect, Internal and External Negative Feelings, and the Total SAS score were statistically significant.

The intercorrelations of the dependent measures on the children are presented in Table 19. Thirteen of the 15 correlations were statistically significant. The Happiness question correlated fairly highly in a positive direction with the Total SAI score, $\underline{r} = .60$, $\underline{p} < .001$, considering that the Happiness measure consisted of only one item. The Total SAI score and the Happiness question were both negatively

[4]All correlational analyses were performed on the SPSS Pearson product-moment correlation program (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975).

TABLE 18

Intercorrelations of Dependent Measures on the Women[a]

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Positive Affect (ABS)						
2 Negative Affect (ABS)	.01					
3 Affect Balance (ABS)	.35**	-.46***				
4 Happiness	.48***	-.13	.16			
5 Internal Negative Feelings	.07	.41**	-.16	-.18		
6 External Negative Feelings	-.04	.38**	-.19	-.35**	.60***	
7 Total Social Adjustment Scale Score	-.02	.52***	-.13	-.39**	.42**	.45***

[a] $n = 45$

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

TABLE 19

Intercorrelations of Dependent Measures on the Children

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Score[a]					
2 Happiness[a]	.60***				
3 Personality Problem[b] (Mothers' Ratings)	-.42***	-.12			
4 Conduct Problem[b] (Mothers' Ratings)	-.42***	-.31**	.30**		
5 Personality Problem[c] (Teachers' Ratings	-.29**	-.28*	.25*	.26*	
6 Conduct Problem[c] (Teachers' Ratings)	-.35**	-.21*	.15	.44***	.26*

---

a
b $n = 85$
c $n = 96$
$n = 68$

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

correlated with both mothers' and teachers' ratings of the PP and CP subscales of the BPC. This indicates that the higher the self-reported affective adjustment of the children, the fewer the social adjustment problems for these children, according to their mothers and teachers.

Mothers' ratings of the PP and CP subscales of the BPC were moderately positively correlated, $r = .30$, $p < .01$, as were teachers' ratings, $r = .26$, $p < .05$. The correlations between mothers' and teachers' ratings on the PP subscale and the CP subscale were $r = .25$, $p < .05$, and $r = .44$, $p < .001$, respectively. Thus, the children's behavior at home, as reported by their mothers, was only moderately related to their behavior at school, as reported by their teachers. These findings are consistent with the results of previous studies which have found only a moderate association between behavioral adjustment problems at home and at school (Bernal, Delfini, North, & Kreutzer, 1976; Johnson, Bolstad, & Lobitz, 1976; Wahler, 1969, 1975).

The correlations between the dependent measures on the women and the dependent measures on their children are presented in Table 20. Only 11 of the 42 correlations were statistically significant. Of the 11 significant correlations, one was in the opposite direction one might intuitively expect. The correlation between the women's Total SAS score and mothers' ratings of their children on the PP subscale was $r = -.23$, $p < .05$, indicating that the higher the self-reported social maladjustment of the women, the lower the social maladjustment of the children on the PP subscale.

Womens' overall Happiness was the most highly associated variable with the children's Total SAI score, $r = .27$, $p < .01$. Several measures on the women were significantly associated with their children's overall happiness, including: Negative Affect, $r = -.20$, $p < .05$, Affect Balance, $r = .29$, $p < .01$, Internal Negative Feelings, $r = -.24$, $p < .05$, and the Total SAS score, $r = -.21$, $p < .05$. Once again, women's overall Happiness was the most highly correlated

TABLE 20

Correlations between Dependent Measures on the Women and Dependent Measures on the Children

Dependent Measures on the Children	Dependent Measures on the Women: Positive Affect (ABS)	Negative Affect (ABS)	Affect Balance (ABS)	Happiness	Internal Negative Feelings	External Negative Feelings	Total Social Adjustment Scale Score
Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Score[a]	.02	-.10	.17	.27**	.01	.12	.08
Happiness[a]	-.07	-.20*	.29**	-.01	-.24*	-.08	-.21*
Personality Problem[b] (Mothers' Ratings)	-.13	.02	.01	-.45***	-.03	-.06	-.23*
Conduct Problem[b] (Mothers' Ratings)	.07	.07	.03	-.12	.20**	.08	.35***
Personality Problem[c] (Teachers' Ratings)	-.07	.07	.05	-.21	.12	.05	.14
Conduct Problem[c] (Teachers' Ratings)	-.14	.24*	-.20*	-.05	.15	-.01	.13

[a] $n = 85$
[b] $n = 96$
[c] $n = 68$

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

variable with their ratings of their children on the PP subscale of the BPC, $r = -.45$, $p < .001$. Women's Internal Negative Feelings' and Total SAS scores correlated $r = .20$, $p < .01$, and $r = .35$, $p < .001$, with their ratings of their children on the CP subscale of the BPC, respectively.

None of the measures on the women were significantly correlated with teachers' ratings of their children on the PP subscale of the BPC. Finally, women's Negative Affect and Affect Balance were most highly associated with teachers' ratings of their children on the CP subscale of the BPC, correlating $r = .24$, $p < .05$, and $r = -.20$, $p < .05$, respectively. In summary, correlational analysis revealed that measures of psychosocial adjustment of the women were only weakly to moderately associated with measures of psychosocial adjustment of their children.

Counseling for Psychosocial Problems for Women and their Children

Information on the history of counseling for psychosocial problems for widowed, divorced, and married women is presented in Table 21. Ten of the widows, fourteen of the divorcees, and one of the married women had received some type of counseling at some time in their lives. Thus, almost all of the divorcees, two-thirds of the widows, but only one of the married women had received some type of counseling. This association between family status and having ever been counseled was statistically significant, $X^2(2) = 23.94$, $p < .0001$. Interestingly, the only married woman who had been counseled sought help when she discovered that her husband had cancer. This happened several years ago and her husband's cancer had been effectively treated since the time of the initial diagnosis.

The categories for the type of counseling and when the women were counseled are not mutually exclusive. Hence, chi square analysis

TABLE 21

Counseling for Psychosocial Problems for Women from Different Family Statuses

	Family Status[a]		
	Widowed	Divorced	Married
Ever Counseled			
Yes	10	14	1
No	5	1	14
Type of Counseling			
Clergy (Minister, Priest, or Church Group)	8	1	0
Widow's Consultation Service	5	0	0
Alcoholics Anonymous or Al Anon	0	2	0
Marital or Family Counseling (with a Social Worker, Psychologist or Psychiatrist)	2	8	0
Individual Counseling (with a Social Worker, Psychologist or Psychiatrist)	2	6	1
No Counseling	5	1	14
When Counseled			
Last 1-2 years	10	7	0
Prior to last 1-2 years, but during marriage	0	9	1
Prior to marriage	0	1	0
Never	5	1	14

[a] $n = 15$ for each family status

of this data was not possible. Five of the widows received supportive counseling from a visiting widow, an indigenous non-professional counselor, from the Widows' Consultation Service. On the other hand, the majority of the divorcees received either marital, family, or individual counseling with a social worker, psychologist, or psychiatrist. Also, eight of the widows mentioned receiving social support from a minister, priest, or church group, while only one of the divorcees mentioned receiving support from the clergy. Thus, it appears that divorcees tended to seek formal professional counseling, while widows tended to rely more on the informal social supports of the church and other widows.

All ten of the widows who sought counseling did so following the death of their husbands. Similarly, seven of the divorcees sought counseling following the separation from their husbands. However, nine of the divorcees were counseled during their marriage and prior to the separation, with the counseling focusing on marital problems in most cases. Interestingly, only one of the divorcees had ever been counseled professionally prior to the marriage. This suggests that, by and large, the divorcees had not experienced psychosocial problems before their marriages to such an extent that they had sought professional counseling.

Information on the history of counseling for psychosocial problems for children from widowed, divorced, and married families is presented in Table 22. Three of the boys and three of the girls from widowed families and two of the boys and five of the girls from divorced families had received some type of counseling at some time in their lives. In married families, one girl whose father was frequently available and three boys whose fathers were infrequently available had received counseling at some time in their lives. Thus, compared with children from married families whose fathers were frequently available, children from widowed and divorced families had a higher rate of

TABLE 22

Counseling for Psychosocial Problems for Children from Different Family Statuses

	Family Status							
	Widowed		Divorced		Married (High father availability Ss)		Married (Low father availability Ss)	
	Boys (n = 18)	Girls (n = 15)	Boys (n = 16)	Girls (n = 15)	Boys (n = 12)	Girls (n = 10)	Boys (n = 5)	Girls (n = 5)
Ever counseled								
Yes	3	3	2	5	0	1	3	0
No	15	12	14	10	12	9	2	5
Type of Counseling								
Child Guidance Clinic (with a Social Worker, Psychologist or Psychiatrist)	1	1	2	1	0	1	3	0
Family or Individual Counseling (with a Social Worker, Psychologist or Psychiatrist)	2	2	0	4	0	0	1	0
No Counseling	15	12	14	10	12	9	2	5
When Counseled								
Last 1-2 years	3	3	2	5	0	1	3	0
Prior to last 1-2 years	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0
Never	15	12	14	10	12	9	2	5

counseling for psychosocial problems. Furthermore, three of the five boys from married families whose fathers were infrequently available had received counseling from a Child Guidance Clinic professional. This latter finding is consistent with the fact that boys from low father present families had relatively low scores on the SAI and relatively high scores on the CP subscale of the BPC. Chi square analysis of sex of the child by having every been counseled revealed no significant association between these two variables, $X^2(1) = .08$, $p > .70$. Thus, boys and girls were combined in a test of the association between family status and having ever been counseled. The association between these two variables did not reach statistical significance, $X^2(3) = 4.84$, $p < .20$. Once again the categories for the type of counseling and when the children were counseled are not mutually exclusive. Thus, chi square analysis of this data was not possible.

All of the children from widowed families who were counseled received counseling following the death of their fathers. All of the children from divorced families who were counseled also received counseling following their parents' separation, but two of the girls had started counseling treatment prior to the separation. Similarly, all of the children from married families who were counseled received counseling within the last 1-2 years, but one of the boys had started counseling treatment before this time.

Positive and Negative Life Changes and Helpful Resources

The positive and negative life changes in the last two years reported by women from different family statuses are reported in Table 23. From this table, one can see that divorcees reported more positive life changes than widows and married women; while widows and divorcees reported more negative life changes than married women. A multivariate analysis of variance was performed on the positive and negative life changes reported by the women. The multivariate test

TABLE 23

Positive and Negative Life Changes in the Last Two Years Reported by Women from Different Family Statuses

	Family Status[a]		
Positive Life Changes	Widowed	Divorced	Married
Increased self-esteem and personal competence	10	12	2
Closer relationships with and/or better management of children	4	4	2
Increased financial security	1	2	7
Increased enjoyment of life	0	4	1
Job and career-related changes	2	4	1
Decreased emotional stress	1	2	0
Improved marriage	0	0	1
Total Positive Life Changes	18	28	14
Mean Number Positive Life Changes	1.20	1.87	.93
Negative Life Changes			
Loneliness	9	4	0
Concerns about raising and managing children	5	6	3
Difficulty making decisions alone	6	1	0
Hostility towards others	3	1	0
Difficulties relating to men	0	4	0
Increased emotional stress and/or loss of self-esteem	2	5	0
Decreased financial security	2	1	0
Stress of working and being a parent	1	4	2
Death of a family member	1	0	2
Boredom	0	0	2
Other	2	3	1
Total Negative Life Changes	31	29	10
Mean Number Negative Life Changes	2.07	1.93	.67

[a] $n = 15$ for each family status

was statistically significant, F (4,82) = 8.73, p <.0001. Discriminant analysis showed that the negative life changes variable loaded most highly on the first discriminant function which was statistically significant, Bartlett's $X^2(4) = 29.45$, $p < .0001$ (see Table 24), and which accounted for 81% of the variance in the discriminant analysis. The positive life changes variable loaded most highly on the second discriminant fuction which was statistically significant, Bartlett's $X^2(1) = 6.63$, $p < .01$, and which accounted for 19% of the variance in the discriminant analysis. The discriminant function centroids are graphically depicted in Figure 3. The first discriminant function, negative life changes, separated the widowed and divorced groups from the married group. The second discriminant function, positive life changes, separated the groups equally. Also, the number of self-reported positive life changes and negative life changes showed only a weak positive correlation, $r = .18$, $p > .10$. This suggests that the positive life change and negative life change dimensions were relatively independent.

Looking at the positive life changes in Table 23 in more detail, one can see that increased self-esteem and personal competence were the most frequently mentioned positive life changes by widows and divorcees. More than two-thirds of the widows and divorcees reported increased self-esteem and personal competence since the death of or separation from their husbands, while only two of the married women reported this change in the same time period. "Self-awareness," "growth," and "better coping" were some of the terms widows and divorcees used to describe this change. Also, widows and divorcees frequently mentioned specific skills they had recently acquired, such as learning how to drive, learning how to manage the finances, and learning the household chores their husbands had formerly performed. Next, more of the widows and divorcees than the married women felt that they were closer to their children or that they had better learned how to manage their children. Few of the widows and divorcees felt

TABLE 24

Summary of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Discriminant Analysis on Positive and Negative Life Changes Reported by Women from Different Family Statuses

Source	df	F	p	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients	
				First Discriminant Function	Second Discriminant Function
Family Status					
Rao's multivariate F test	4,82	8.73	$p < .0001$		
Univariate F tests					
Positive life changes	2,42	6.91	$p < .005$	.37	.94
Negative life changes	2,42	13.82	$p < .0001$	.86	-.54

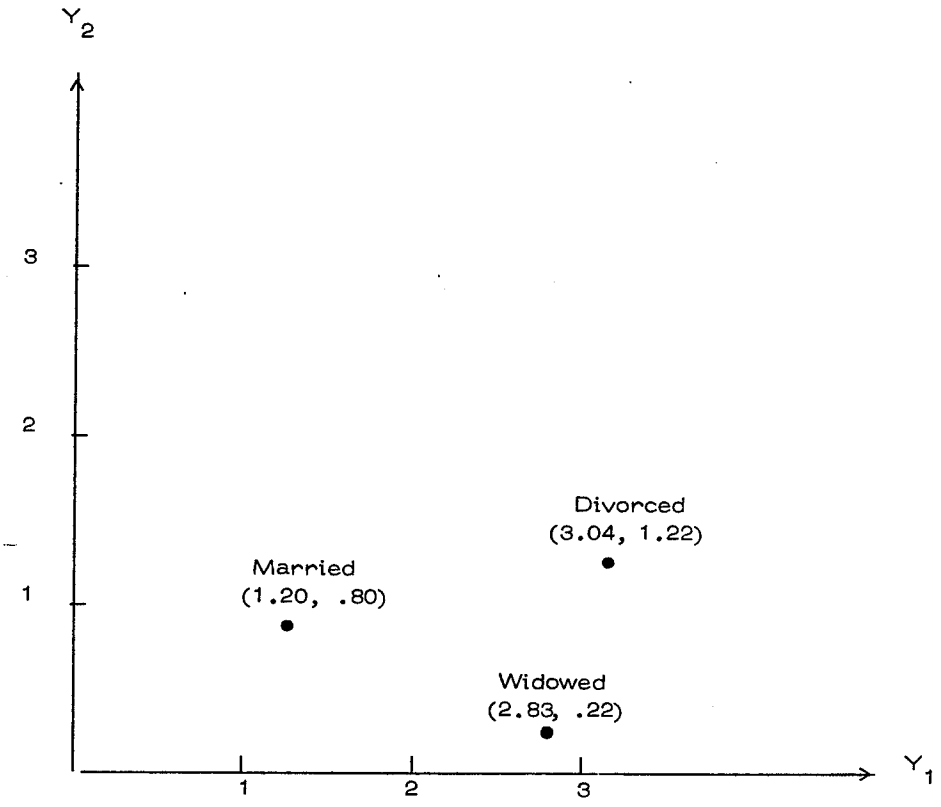

Figure 3. Discriminant function centroids of the different family statuses on positive and negative life changes.

Note. - Axis Y_1 represents the first discriminant function, while axis Y_2 represents the second discriminant function.

that their financial situation had improved, but this was the most frequently mentioned positive life change by the married women.

More of the divorced women than widowed or married women stated that they had enjoyed life more fully since their separation. Widows and divorcees reported more positive changes in their jobs or career and less emotional stress than married women. Finally, one married woman said that her marriage had improved in the last two years.

Turning to negative life changes, loneliness was the most frequently mentioned negative change by widows. Nine of the widows, four of the divorcees, but none of the married women stated that loneliness was a problem. Several of the women from each family status were concerned about raising and managing their children, but divorcees and widows mentioned this concern more frequently than married women. Several of the widows also reported difficulty making decisions alone and hostility towards others while only one of the divorcees and none of the married women felt that these were problems. Difficulties relating to men were exclusively reported by divorcees. Widows and divorcees also reported increased emotional stress, loss of self-esteem, and decreased financial security as negative life changes, but none of the married women mentioned these problems. Divorcees stated that working and being a parent was a stressful life change more often than widows and married women. One widow and two married women had lost a parent or sibling by death in the past two years. Finally, two of the married women mentioned feeling bored, while none of the widows or divorcees reported this feeling. Other negative life changes mentioned were the stress of having to learn new skills around the house, a restricted social life, unemployment, family problems, job discrimination and stigmatization of divorcees, and marital problems.

The helpful resources in adjusting to life changes in the last two years reported by women from different family statuses are presented in Table 25. One can see that widows and divorcees reported more helpful resources than married women. Analysis of variance showed this to be a statistically significant difference, $F(2,42) = 7.32$, $p < .005$. One can see that having a supportive family and friends living in the city was the most frequently mentioned helpful resource by widows and divorcees. Widows reported religious faith and work as helpful resources, while divorcees felt that services for single-parents were helpful resources. Counseling, financial security, an active social life, having a car, having a reliable babysitter, and life insurance were other helpful resources reported by the women.

Moderators of Psychosocial Adjustment for Widows, Divorcees, and their Children

A number of variables that may moderate the psychosocial adjustment of the widows, divorcees, and their children were examined. The variables that were entered into stepwise multiple regression equations to predict the psychosocial adjustment criterion variables on widows, divorcees, and their children are presented in Table 26. There were 27 and 29 predictor variables used in multiple regression analyses on the widows and divorcees, respectively. These variables covered the following general categories: socioeconomic status variables, family-demographic variables, information about the father and father substitutes, social supports, counseling for the women, situational aspects of the death and current feelings about the death (for widows only), situational aspects of the divorce and current feelings about the divorce (for divorcees only), and the current relationship with the ex-husband (for divorcees only). Additionally, the following variables were used in regression analyses for the children of widows and divorcees: counseling for the child and the child's age and sex.

TABLE 25

Helpful Resources in Adjusting to Life Changes in the Last Two Years Reported by Women from Different Family Statuses

	Family Status[a]		
Helpful Resources	Widowed	Divorced	Married
Supportive family and friends living in the city	6	11	1
Religious faith	5	1	0
Work	3	0	1
Counseling	1	1	1
Financial security	1	1	2
Services for single-parent women	0	3	0
Other	5	6	2
Total Helpful Factors	21	23	7
Mean Number Helpful Factors	1.40	1.53	.47

[a] $n = 15$ for each family status.

TABLE 26

Variables Entered into Stepwise Multiple Regression Equations to Predict the Psychosocial Adjustment of Widows, Divorcees, and their Children

Widowed women	Divorced women
1. Mother's age	1. Mother's age
2. Length of Marriage	2. Length of marriage
3. Number of boys	3. Number of boys
4. Number of girls	4. Number of girls
5. Religion	5. Religion
6. Education	6. Education
7. Work status	7. Work status
8. Work status 1-2 years ago	8. Work status 1-2 years ago
9. Occupation	9. Occupation
10. Current monthly income	10. Current monthly income
11. Change in monthly income from 1-2 years ago	11. Change in monthly income from 1-2 years ago
12. Housing	12. Housing
13. Overall marital happiness	13. Overall marital happiness
14. First year marital happiness	14. First year marital happiness
15. Marital happiness 1-2 years ago	15. Marital happiness 1-2 yrs ago
16. Counseling for the mother	16. Counseling for the mother
17. Social supports	17. Social supports
18. Time since husband's death	18. Time since separation
19. Cause of husband's death	19. Grounds for divorce
20. Time spent talking with husband about the possibility of his death	20. Who insisted most on the divorce
21. Suddeness of husband's death	21. Suddeness of decision to petition for divorce
22. Current positive feelings about the deceased husband	22. Current positive feelings about the ex-husband
23. Current negative feelings about the deceased husband	23. Current negative feelings about the ex-husband
24. Time spent thinking about the deceased husband	24. Time spent thinking about being together with the ex-husband
25. Time father spent with children 1-2 years ago	25. Current relationship with the ex-husband
26. Father substitute	26. Time father spent with the children 1-2 years ago
27. Time father substitute spends with the children	27. Time father spends with the children now
	28. Father substitute
	29. Time father substitute spends with the children

TABLE 26 (continued)

Widows' children	Divorcees' children
28. Counseling for the child	30. Counseling for the child
29. Child's age	31. Child's age
30. Child's sex	32. Child's sex

The following criterion variables were selected for the widows and divorcees: the Positive Affect, Negative Affect, and Affect Balance scores of Bradburn's measure, the Total Negative Feelings score (the sum of the Internal and External Negative Feelings scores), and the Total Social Adjustment Scale Score. For the children, the following criterion variables were used: the Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Score, the mothers' ratings on the Personality Problem (PP) subscale and the Conduct Problem (CP) subscale of the BPC, and the teachers' ratings on the same two subscales of the BPC. The levels of the F ratio for entering a variable into the multiple regression equation and the F ratio for removing a variable from the equation were both set at $p < .05$ in all cases.

Widows and their children. The stepwise multiple regression analyses for widows' psychosocial adjustment are summarized in Table 27. There were no significant predictors of the widows' Positive Affect. The number of boys in the family was a significant predictor of the widows' Negative Affect, $F(1,13) = 9.34$, $p < .01$, accounting for 42% of the variance in this measure. Thus, the more boys in the family, the more Negative Affect reported by the widowed mothers. The widows' overall marital happiness ratings were positively related to the Affect Balance scale, $F(1,13) = 12.93$, $p < .01$, accounting for 49% of the variance in this measure. Thus, the higher the overall marital happiness reported by the widows, the higher the emotional adjustment reported by the widows.

Counseling for the widow was a significant predictor of the Total Negative Feelings score, $F(1,13) = 9.87$, $p < .01$, accounting for 44% of the variance in this measure. Those widows who were counseled had higher Total Negative Feelings scores than those who were not counseled. Current negative feelings about the deceased husband and current monthly income were both significant predictors of the Total Social Adjustment Scale Score, $F(2,12) = 9.79$, $p < .01$, accounting for 62%

TABLE 27

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analyses for Widows' Psychosocial Adjustment

Criterion Variable	Step	Predictor Variable Entered	Simple r	Multiple R	df	F
Negative Affect	1	Number of boys	.65	.65	1/13	9.34**
Affect Balance	1	Overall marital happiness	.71	.71	1/13	12.93**
Total Negative Feelings	1	Counseling for the mother	.66	.66	1/13	9.87**
Total Social Adjustment Scale Score	1	Current negative feelings about the deceased husband Somewhat negative	.66	.66	1/13	9.95**
	2	Current monthly income	-.64	.79	2/12	9.79**

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

of the variance in this measure. Having somewhat negative feelings about the deceased husband was positively related to social maladjustment, while current monthly income was inversely related to social maladjustment.

To summarize briefly, none of the predictor variables were consistently related to the various measures of psychosocial adjustment for the widows. The number of boys in the family was positively related to widows' Negative Affect. The widows' overall marital happiness was positively related to their emotional adjustment during bereavement. Widows who had received some type of counseling had significantly higher Total Negative Feelings scores than widows who had not been counseled. Finally, having somewhat negative feelings about the ex-husband was positively related to the Total Social Adjustment Scale Score, while current monthly income was inversely related to this measure.

A summary of the stepwise multiple regression analyses on the psychosocial adjustment of widows' children is presented in Table 28. There were no significant predictors of either the mothers' ratings on the PP subscale or the teachers' ratings on the CP subscale. Housing and the amount of time the mother spent talking with the husband about the possibility of his death were both significant predictors of the Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Score, $\underline{F}\ (3,24) = 6.62$, $\underline{p} < .01$, accounting for 45% of the variance in this measure. Children who lived in a house, as opposed to an apartment, had relatively high Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Scores. Children whose mothers had talked a little or not at all with their husbands about the possibility of their dying had relatively low Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Scores.

Housing and the mother's current feelings about the deceased husband were both significant predictors of mothers' ratings on the CP subscale, $\underline{F}\ (2,30) = 18.26$, $\underline{p} < .01$, accounting for 55% of the variance in this measure. Again, children who lived in a house had relatively

TABLE 28

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analyses of the Psychosocial Adjustment of Widows' Children

Criterion Variable	Step	Predictor Variable Entered	Simple r	Multiple R	df	F
Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Score	1	Housing	.47	.47	1/26	7.18*
	2	Time spent talking with husband about the possibility of his death		.67	3/24	6.62**
		Not at all	-.25			
		A little	-.28			
Conduct Problem (Mothers' Ratings)	1	Housing	-.62	.62	1/31	19.06**
	2	Current negative feelings about the deceased husband		.74	2/30	18.26**
		Somewhat negative	.37			
Personality Problem (Teachers' Ratings)	1	Time spent talking with husband about the possibility of his death		.53	2/19	3.81*
		Not at all	.52			
		A little	-.34			
	2	Mother's age	.35	.65	3/18	4.31*

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

low scores on the CP subscale. Children whose mothers had somewhat negative feelings about their deceased husbands had relatively high scores on mothers' ratings on the CP subscale. For the teachers' ratings on the PP subscale, the amount of time the mother spent talking with the husband about the possibility of his death and the mothers' age were both significant predictors, $F(3,18) = 4.31$, $p < .05$, accounting for 42% of the variance in this measure. Once again, children whose mothers did not talk at all with their husbands about the possibility of their dying had relatively high scores on the teachers' ratings of the PP subscale. Also, the older the widow, the more problems rated by teachers on the PP subscale for the widows' children.

In summary, on two of the measures of psychosocial adjustment for the widows' children, the type of housing the family lived in was the best predictor variable. Children whose families lived in a house had relatively high Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Scores and relatively low scores on mothers' ratings of the CP subscale, compared with children whose families lived in apartments. The amount of time the mother spent talking with her husband about the possibility of his death was the best predictor of teachers' ratings on the CP subscale and the second best predictor of the Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Scale. Children whose mothers did not talk at all with their husbands about the possibility of their death were more shy and anxious in their behavior, as viewed by teachers, and reported poorer self-evaluations than children whose mothers talked at greater length with their husbands about the possibility of the husband's death. Mother's age was positively related to teachers' ratings on the PP subscale, and mothers having somewhat negative feelings about their deceased husbands was positively related to mothers' ratings of their children on the CP subscale.

Divorcees and their children. The stepwise multiple regression analyses for divorcees' psychosocial adjustment are summarized in Table 29. Mother's age was a significant predictor of divorcees' Positive Affect, F (1,13) = 9.40, $p < .01$, accounting for 42% of the variance in this measure. The younger the divorcee, the more Positive Affect she reported. The divorcee's current relationship with her ex-husband and the presence of a father substitute for the children were both significant predictors of divorcees' Negative Affect, F (2,12) = 6.86, $p < .05$, accounting for 53% of the variance in this measure. The better the relationship with the ex-husband, the less self-reported Negative Affect by the divorcees. Having a father substitute for the children, however, was positively associated with Negative Affect. Current positive feelings about the ex-husband and the time elapsed since the separation were both significant predictors of Affect Balance for the divorcees, F (3,11) = 8.75, $p < .01$, accounting for 71% of the variance in this measure. Divorcees who reported having somewhat positive or very positive feelings about their ex-husbands had significantly higher Affect Balance scores than those divorcees who reported feeling not at all positive about their ex-husbands. Surprisingly, time elapsed since the separation was inversely related to Affect Balance.

The divorcee's current relationship with her ex-husband, the presence of a father substitute, and the suddeness of the decision to petition for divorce were all significant predictors of divorcees' Total Negative Feelings, F (4,10) = 17.99, $p < .01$, accounting for 88% of the variance in this measure. Once again, the better the relationship with the ex-husband, the lower the Total Negative Feelings score; while the presence of a father substitute was positively associated with the Total Negative Feelings score. Divorcees who decided to petition for divorce more than two weeks after the only separation had significantly lower Total Negative Feelings scores than divorcees who petitioned for divorce either immediately after the only separation or after more

TABLE 29

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analyses
for Divorcees' Psychosocial Adjustment

Criterion Variable	Step	Predictor Variable Entered	Simple r	Multiple R	df	F
Positive Affect	1	Mother's age	.65	.65	1/13	9.40**
Negative Affect	1	Current relationship with the ex-husband	-.56	.56	1/13	5.94*
	2	Father substitute	.52	.73	2/12	6.86*
Affect Balance	1	Current positive feelings about the ex-husband		.76	2/12	8.00**
		Very positive	.17			
		Somewhat positive	.67			
	2	Time since separation	-.56	.84	3/11	8.75**
Total Negative Feelings	1	Current relationship with the ex-husband	-.70	.70	1/13	12.48**
	2	Father substitute	.57	.86	2/12	16.79**
	3	Suddeness of decision to petition for divorce		.94	4/10	17.99**
		Less than two weeks after the first separation	.12			
		More than two weeks after the first separation	-.37			
Total Social Adjustment Scale Score	1	Current relationship with the ex-husband	-.68	.68	1/13	8.59*
	2	Suddeness of decision to petition for divorce		.80	3/11	6.70**
		Less than two weeks after the first separation	-.08			
		More than two weeks after the first separation	-.52			

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

than one separation. The divorcee's current relationship with her ex-husband and the suddeness of her decision to petition for divorce were both significant predictors of the Total Social Adjustment Scale Score, F (3,11) = 6.70, $p < .05$, accounting for 64% of the variance in this measure. Once again, the better the relationship with the ex-husband, the lower the Total Social Adjustment Scale Score. Also, women who petitioned for divorce after the first separation had significantly lower Total Social Adjustment Scale Scores than women who petitioned for divorce after more than one separation.

Briefly summarizing the results of the multiple regression analyses of predictors of divorcees' psychosocial adjustment, some clear patterns are evident. First, the current relationship with and positive feelings about the ex-husband were the best predictors of the psychosocial adjustment of divorcees. The measure of the current relationship with the ex-husband was the best predictor of all three indices of psychosocial maladjustment and the second best single predictor (i.e., the second highest simple r) of the Affect Balance measure of emotional adjustment, $r = .62$, $p < .01$. Secondly, the presence of a father substitute for the children and the decision to petition for divorce after more than one separation were associated with psychosocial maladjustment. Age of the divorcees was inversely related to Positive Affect.

A summary of the stepwise multiple regression analyses on the psychosocial adjustment of divorcees' children is presented in Table 30. There were no significant predictors of the teachers' ratings on the PP subscale. The time since the separation and the mothers' marital happiness one to two years ago were both significant predictors of the Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Score for divorcees' children, F (2,24) = 7.51, $p < .01$, accounting for 38% of the variance in this measure. The longer the time since the separation and the more the mothers' marital happiness one to two years ago, the higher the Total Self-Appraisal

TABLE 30

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analyses of the Psychosocial Adjustment of Divorcees' Children

Criterion Variable	Step	Predictor Variable Entered	Simple r	Multiple R	df	F
Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Score	1	Time since separation	.42	.42	1/25	5.35**
	2	Marital happiness 1-2 years ago	.29	.62	2/24	7.51**
Personality Problem (Mothers' Ratings)	1	Overall marital happiness	-.54	.54	1/29	12.03**
	2	Father substitute	-.43	.70	2/28	13.44**
Conduct Problem (Mothers' Ratings)	1	Overall marital happiness	-.46	.46	1/25	6.57*
	2	Suddeness of decision to petition for divorce		.66	3/23	5.84**
		Less than two weeks after the first separation	-.39			
		More than two weeks after the first separation	-.10			
Conduct Problem (Teachers' Ratings)	1	Overall marital happiness	-.70	.70	1/20	19.62**
	2	Occupation	-.30	.79	2/19	16.07**

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Inventory Score. The mothers' overall marital happiness and the presence of a father substitute for the children were both significant predictors of the mothers' ratings on the PP subscale, $\underline{F}$ (2,28) = 13.44, $\underline{p} < .01$, accounting for 49% of the variance in this measure. The more the mothers' overall marital happiness, the fewer problems rated by the mothers on the PP subscale. The presence of a father substitute was also associated with fewer problems on mothers' ratings on the PP subscale.

The mothers' overall marital happiness and the suddeness of the decision to petition for divorce were both significant predictors of mothers' ratings on the CP subscale, $\underline{F}$ (3,23) = 5.84, $\underline{p} < .01$, accounting for 44% of the variance in this measure. The higher the overall marital happiness, the fewer the problems on the CP subscale rated by the divorced mothers. Also, children whose mothers decided to petition for divorce after only one separation, and, in particular, within two weeks of the only separation, had significantly lower scores on mothers' ratings of the CP subscale than children whose mothers decided to petition for divorce after more than one separation. The mothers' overall marital happiness and their occupation were both significant predictors of the teachers' ratings on the CP subscale. Once again, the higher the overall marital happiness, the fewer the problems on the CP subscale rated by the teachers. Also, the higher the mothers' occupational rank, the fewer the problems on the CP subscale rated by the teachers.

Briefly summarizing the results of the stepwise multiple regression analyses on the psychosocial adjustment of divorcees' children, another clear pattern emerges. The mothers' overall marital happiness was the best single predictor of the mothers' ratings on both the PP and CP subscales and the teachers' ratings on the CP subscale. The greater the mothers' overall marital happiness, the better the children's psychosocial adjustment on these measures. The mothers'

marital happiness one to two years ago was the second best predictor of the Total Self-Appraisal Inventory Score, while the time since the separation was the best predictor of the children of divorcees' scores on this measure.

CHAPTER 4 - DISCUSSION

The many findings on how mothers and their children adjust socially and emotionally to the loss of the father by death or divorce will be discussed in the same order in which they were presented in the previous chapter.

The Women

Beginning with the marital happiness ratings, the widows reported the highest degree of marital happiness followed by the married women, with the divorcees reporting the lowest marital happiness. The widows and married women did not vary greatly on the ratings of the three time periods: overall, during the first year of marriage, and one to two years ago. However, as one might expect the divorcees rated their marital happiness highest during the first year of their marriages and lowest one to two years ago (at the time of the separation). Thus, in terms of marital happiness, these three groups of women did not differ on their ratings of when they were first married, but they differed greatly on their ratings of one to two years ago, when the divorcees decided to separate from their husbands. The overall marital happiness ratings for the three groups closely matched those found by Hetherington (1972). It appears that the widows tend to focus on the positive aspects of their marriage, idealizing their relationship with the lost husband, relative to both the married and divorced women. The divorcees' overall marital happiness ratings were not dramatically tainted by the recent separation, as these ratings were considerably higher than those for marital happiness one to two years ago.

Hypothesis 1. Turning now to the emotional adjustment of the women, the first hypothesis that widows and divorcees would report

more affective adjustment problems than married women was not supported. The widows and divorcees had higher mean scores on each of the measures of negative affect than married women. However, these differences were not statistically significant. Divorcees had the highest mean score on the positive affect measure, relative to widowed and married women, but again this difference was not statistically significant.

There are several possible explanations of why the first hypothesis was not supported. One explanation rests on the nature of the measurement instruments. The measures of affective adjustment used in this study were transparent in nature, thus allowing subjects to respond in a socially desirable manner. Hence, widows and divorcees may have disguised negative feelings to portray themselves in a more positive, emotionally adjusted light.

Secondly, the first hypothesis may not have been supported because of the volunteer subjects used in this study. In summarizing research on the volunteer subject, Rosenthal and Rosnow (1969) point out that volunteers are better educated, less authoritarian, more sociable, higher in self-disclosure, and better adjusted socially and emotionally than non-volunteers. Thus, it is possible that the widows and divorcees who volunteered to participate in the study may have been significantly better adjusted psychosocially than those who did not volunteer. The non-volunteers may have felt that they did not want to open up and reveal themselves for psychological study during a period of emotional turmoil.

However, probably the most convincing explanation for the failure to support the first hypothesis is that the emotional turmoil associated with the husband's death or separation from the husband may have substantially subsided with the passage of time. Only three of the widows and three of the divorcees had been widowed or separated for less than 14 months. Thus, time may have healed the emotional

wounds of the majority of widows and divorcees. All of the controlled studies of widowhood that have demonstrated significantly higher affective maladjustment for widows compared to matched married controls (Clayton, 1974; Gerber, Wiener, Battin, & Arkin, 1975; Maddison & Viola, 1968; Parkes & Brown, 1972; Polak, Egan, Vandenbergh, & Williams, 1975) have compared these groups during the first year of widowhood. In the only long-term follow-up study of widowhood, Parkes and Brown (1972) found that widows did not differ significantly from matched controls after the second, third, and fourth years of bereavement on measures of depression and psychosomatic symptoms.

Similarly, in the only controlled, prospective study of divorce, Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1977) found that compared with married women divorcees reported lower self-esteem and emotional adjustment up to one year after divorce. However, they also found that these differences diminished over time, with a substantial improvement occurring between the first and second years of divorce for the divorced women. Briscoe, Smith, Robins, Marten, and Gaskin (1973) found significantly more "psychiatric illness" in divorced women within the first two years of the divorce than in matched married controls. However, two-thirds of the divorcees were interviewed within 14 months of the issuance of the divorce decrees. Also, their method of assessing "psychiatric illness" must be considered suspect. First, the psychiatric diagnoses were based on interviews conducted by the authors, all of whom were physicians, who were not blind to the research hypotheses. Secondly, no evidence was presented pertaining to the reliability of their judgments of "psychiatric illness". These criticisms cast much doubt on the validity of their findings, given the notorious unreliability of psychodiagnostic classification systems (Spitzer & Fleiss, 1974).

Finally, Blumenthal (1967) found significantly more emotional maladjustment for divorcees than matched married controls on interview ratings and one self-report questionnaire. However, there was no

information on how long the divorcees had been separated or how reliable the interview ratings were. Also, all of the subjects had children with severe physical or developmental problems (phenlyketonuria, other forms of mental retardation, and cystic fybrosis), thus indicating an unrepresentative sample of divorcees and marrieds. Thus, it appears that while widows and divorcees undergo significant emotional upset during the first year of bereavement and divorce, the results of this study and others dealing with widowhood (Parkes & Brown, 1972) and divorce (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1977) indicate that most widows and divorcees do not experience significantly greater affective maladjustment compared to matched married controls during the second year of bereavement and divorce.

Hypothesis 2. The second hypothesis that widows and divorcees would report significantly more social adjustment problems than married women was also not supported. In view of the significant correlations between the measures of negative affect and social maladjustment, the same reasons mentioned above can be invoked to explain the failure of widowed, divorced, and married women to differ in terms of social adjustment during the second year of bereavement and separation. All of the controlled studies of widowhood have focused on emotional problems and visits to physicians and psychiatrists regarding these problems, neglecting the area of social relations. Glick, Weiss, and Parke's (1974) follow-up study of 49 widows two to four years after their husbands' deaths examined social readjustment patterns. They found that 88 percent of the widows had positive social readjustments, either moving toward remarriage or establishing stable relationships with family and friends, while only 12 percent of the widows had significant social adjustment problems. In a study of 300 widows in Chicago, Lopata (1973) found that the widows initially experienced feelings of loneliness and isolation from friends, especially couples, with whom they had socialized when their husbands were living. However, as time

passed, these widows reported feeling more independent, competent, and socially active than before their husbands' deaths.

The Hetherington et al. study is the only one that examined the social adjustment of divorced women. They found that divorcees experienced restrictions in their social lives in the two years following divorce. Contacts with married friends and participation in social activities declined rapidly after the divorce for divorcees compared with married women. These women complained that they felt "trapped" or "walled in" their children's worlds. The social life of the divorced women improved significantly over the two year period, although divorcees remained less active than married women even two years after divorce. While this finding in the Hetherington et al. study is at odds with that found in this study, one must note that the ages of the children differed in the two studies. All of the children in the Hetherington et al. study were pre-schoolers, while the majority of the children in this study were school-aged. Thus, the women in this study may have felt less restricted in their social lives by their children than the women in the Hetherington et al. study, who may have had to devote more of their time to child care.

Hypothesis 3. The third hypothesis that divorcees would show significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of friction and resentment than widows and married women was supported in this study. Hetherington et al. found that the relationships between divorced partners were characterized by anger and resentment, and that these feelings persisted longer for the divorced women than for their ex-husbands. The results of the present study extend those of Hetherington et al., suggesting that divorcees' friction and resentment spills over into relationships besides those with the ex-husband. The questions used to assess friction and resentment dealt with arguments with and feelings of being let down by family, friends, children, and co-workers. From a social learning viewpoint, it appears that the friction and resent-

ment in the divorcees' relationships with their ex-husbands generalizes to relationships with others. However, it is also possible that divorcees' self-reported friction and resentment following divorce stemmed from interpersonal friction existing prior to marriage, and not from marital friction.

The results of this study did not ascertain whether friction and resentment generalized to divorcees' relationships with both men and women. If the generalization hypothesis is correct, one might expect friction and resentment to be more prevalent in divorcees' relationships with men than in their relationships with women. Several findings support this assertion. First, in this study, four of the divorcees mentioned difficulties in getting along with men as a negative life change, while none mentioned difficulties in getting along with other women. Secondly, Hetherington et al. found that divorcees had significantly more conflict in their relationships with their sons following the divorce than in their relationships with their daughters. Certain characteristics of the sons may have reminded the divorcees of their husbands and served to elicit hostile reactions at times.

Finally, in an earlier study, Hetherington (1972) found that the adolescent daughters of divorcees exhibited more inappropriate behaviors in relating to a male interviewer than a female interviewer. She argued that the daughters of divorcees had failed to learn appropriate ways of interacting with males, modeling after the behavior of their unattached, divorced mothers. Thus, future research should examine the degree of friction and resentment in divorcees' relationships with men and women to clarify the speculation that divorcees' friction and resentment generalizes most strongly to their relationships with other men.

The Children

Hypothesis 4. The fourth hypothesis that boys and girls of widows and divorcees would report significantly more affective adjustment problems than boys and girls of married women was supported by the data. The children of widows and divorcees had lower SAI scores and happiness ratings than the children of married couples. As one might expect, on the SAI the largest difference between children from these different types of families was found for their affective adjustment in the family situation. Furthermore, the boys of widows had both the lowest SAI scores and the lowest happiness ratings of any of the groups.

This is the first controlled study providing objective evidence of the emotional upset of children following the loss of their fathers by either death or divorce. Neither the sex of the child nor the type of loss qualified the relationship found between father loss and depressed affect. That is, the data indicate father loss per se is associated with depressed affect in children. This finding is consistent with a large body of evidence linking experiences of loss or separation with depressed affect in both humans (Akiskal & McKinney, 1975; Bowlby, 1973) and monkeys (Mineka & Suomi, 1978). A variety of theoretical viewpoints have been invoked to explain this association, ranging from social learning views of learned helplessness (Seligman, 1975) and loss of reinforcement (Lewinsohn, 1974) to psychoanalytic views of "anger turned inward" resulting from introjection of the lossed love object (Freud, 1917). Unfortunately, all of these viewpoints provide post hoc explanations of the phenomenon, failing to offer differential predictions. Thus, none of these theoretical viewpoints are relatively better than the others in explaining this association.

With the development of new sources of support and social reinforcement and the resolution of the "grief work" process, the depression typically abates. What is interesting in this study is that

affective adjustment problems persisted one to two years later for the children but not for their mothers. Some writers (see Grollman, 1967, 1969) have suggested that many widows and divorcees do not discuss the death or divorce with their children at much length. In case studies of nine young children who had lost a parent by death within the last six months, Becker and Margolin (1967) found that the surviving parents tended to insulate their children from the deaths and to promote avoidance and denial of feelings relating to the deaths. Especially during the first year of bereavement and separation, widows and divorcees may be wrestling with their own grief and anger and may not have the resources to help their children explore, understand, and eventually accept their feelings about losing their fathers. The widows and divorcees had the support of family, friends, the clergy, and professionals to help them deal with their feelings about the death or separation. Their children, however, may have had very little support and opportunity to discuss and eventually resolve their feelings about the loss. Future studies dealing with children's adjustment to father loss would do well to consider the hypothesis that opportunities for support from and discussion with the mother about the father's death or the parental separation may facilitate the children's grief resolutions.

From the present cross-sectional data, it is difficult to ascertain if these "hidden effects" of death and divorce on children are merely transitory reactions or perhaps potentially more long-standing emotional adjustment problems. Evidence from the correlations between the time elapsed since the death or separation and the total SAI score suggests that the emotional adjustment of the children of divorcees, but not that of children of widows, improves with the passage of time. The time since the separation was the best predictor of divorcees' children's total SAI score, $\underline{r} = .42$, $\underline{p} < .01$; but the time since the father's death was virtually unassociated with widows' children's total SAI score, $\underline{r} = -.08$, $\underline{p} > .10$.

Parental divorce may result in reduced family conflict while allowing the children an opportunity for continued interaction, albeit at a lesser frequency, with their fathers. Thus, improved quality of interaction between the children and each of their divorced parents may be important in alleviating the emotional adjustment problems of the children. The children of widows, on the other hand, continue to suffer the loss of their fathers without compensation. This loss appears to be most important for the boys of widows, who lose a beloved father and positive male role model with which to identify. Whatever the case may be, further research on children's adjustment to the loss of the father by death or divorce should include measures from the child's viewpoint. While few studies dealing with children's psychosocial adjustment use self-report measures on the children, the results of this study attest to the fruitfulness of using a measure such as the SAI. Furthermore, prospective, longer-term follow-up studies are needed to clarify changes in children's emotional adjustment over time following the father's death or the parents' divorce.

Further exploration of Hypothesis 4. Another interesting finding on the children's emotional adjustment emerged when the children of married couples were subdivided into high father present and low father present groups. When this was done, it was found that boys, but not girls, from low father present families, along with the children of widows and divorcees, had significantly lower SAI scores and happiness ratings than the children of high father present, married couples. Once again, this finding was most pronounced with respect to the children's affective adjustment in the family situation. While no other studies have examined the relationship between father availability and psychosocial adjustment, Blanchard and Biller (1971) found a significant relationship between father availability and academic achievement for boys. Boys from father absent families and low father present families did not differ from each other with respect to academic achievement,

but both of these groups had significantly lower academic achievement than boys from high father present families.

In this study, infrequent availability of the fathers to their children may have been indicative of problems in the father-son relationships. All of the fathers who were infrequently available to their children lived with their families and worked in the same city. Thus, these fathers appear to have been neglecting the social and emotional needs of their children. If this is the case, the fathers' lack of caring for their children, as reflected in their lack of time spent with the children, may be responsible for their sons' relatively low self-esteem. In a review of the literature on this subject, Lynn (1974, pp. 250-251) found several studies demonstrating that children who are warmly accepted by their fathers tend to have high self-esteem, while children who are neglected or rejected by their fathers tend to have low self-esteem. The results of the present study suggest that only boys who are neglected by their fathers tend to have relatively low self-esteem. Thus, further research is needed to determine possible sex differences in the relationship between parental availability, from both fathers and mothers, and the self-esteem of boys and girls.

The results of this study and that of Blanchard and Biller (1971) point to the importance of assessing the degree of father availability in intact families that are used as comparison groups in studies of father absence. Important differences between father absent and father present families on the variables of interest might otherwise be obscured if there is no control for the degree of father availability. A final caveat should be mentioned in interpreting the role of father availability found in this study. There were very few children from low father present families in this study, thus allowing the possibility of sampling error. Further studies with larger samples of children from low father present families are needed to determine the replicability of the association between father availability and the affective adjustment of children found in this study.

Hypothesis 5. The fifth hypothesis that the children of widows would report significantly more social adjustment problems in the form of shy-anxious behavior than the children of divorcees and married women was not supported. Also contrary to prediction, girls were not rated as displaying more shy-anxious behavior than boys. On the teachers' ratings, the children of widows had higher scores than the children of married couples on the PP subscale, but this difference was not statistically significant.

Failure to support the fifth hypothesis may have been due to the type of sample that was studied. The majority of the children of widows in this study had never received any type of counseling. In contrast, two of the previous studies demonstrating significantly more shy-anxious behavior in the children of widows than in the children of divorcees or married couples studied clinic referred children (Felner, Stolberg, & Cowen, 1975; Tuckman & Regan, 1966). It is possible that the hypothesized differences between children from different types of families with respect to shy-anxious behavior only become evident when deviant, clinic referred children are studied. Thus, shy-anxious behavior may be the typical deviant response of most children to a parent's death, but not the typical normative response of most children to a parent's death. Similarly, the hypothesized sex difference in shy-anxious behavior may not have been obtained because normal children were studied. Once again, the finding that girls are more shy-anxious than boys has been most consistently reported in studies of clinic referred children (Quay, 1972).

The only other study suggesting relatively high shy-anxious behavior in the children of widows focused exclusively on adolescent daughters (Hetherington, 1972). Compared with the daughters of divorcees and married women, the daughters of widows were significantly more anxious and inhibited in their interactions with a male interviewer, but not with a female interviewer. Thus, shy-anxious

behavior may only be evident for the children of widows when the sex of the target person with whom the child interacts is considered or when older children are studied.

Another possible reason for the failure to support the fifth hypothesis is that shy-anxious behavior may be an immediate and transitory reaction of children to a parent's death. None of the previous studies have related the time elapsed since the parent's death to children's shy-anxious behavior. Perhaps the children in this study may have initially appeared shy, anxious, and depressed following the father's death, but this reaction may have dissipated one to two years later, so that differences between the groups of children were no longer apparent at the time of the study.

Further exploration of Hypothesis 5. An interesting trend emerged when children from married families were subdivided into high father present and low father present groups. Boys from low father present families had the highest mean score on mothers' ratings on the PP subscale compared with children from all other groups. While this difference did not reach statistical significance, it is an interesting suggestive finding that merits further study with a larger sample size. It is possible that paternal neglect or rejection is positively associated with social inhibition in boys. Further research on father availability is needed to clarify this speculation.

Hypothesis 6. The sixth hypothesis that the children of divorcees would display more social adjustment problems in the form of anti-social behavior than the children of widows and married couples was also not supported. The children of divorcees had higher mean scores on the mothers' ratings on the CP subscale than the boys and girls of widows and the girls, but not the boys, from married families, but this difference was not statistically significant. The girls of divorcees had higher mean scores on the teachers' ratings on the CP subscale than the girls of widows and married couples, but this difference was not statistically significant either.

Also, contrary to prediction, boys were not rated as significantly more anti-social in their behavior than girls. On the mothers' ratings on the CP subscale, boys had higher scores than girls in all but the divorced group. Also, boys had higher scores on the teachers' ratings on the CP subscale than girls in the widowed and divorced groups, while the boys and girls of married couples were rated equally by teachers.

Failure to support the sixth hypothesis may have been due to the type of sample that was studied. The majority of the children of divorcees in this study had never received any type of counseling. However, most of the previous studies demonstrating significantly more anti-social behavior in the children of divorcees than in the children of widows and/or married couples studied children referred to clinics or psychiatric inpatient services (Felner et al., 1975; Kalter, 1977; McDermott, 1970; Tuckman & Regan, 1966). Once again, extreme reactions to parental divorce may take the form of anti-social behavior, but most children may react to their parents' divorce without an exaggerated anti-social response. Similarly, previous findings that boys display more anti-social behavior than girls come from studies of deviant children (Quay, 1972).

One study examining normal children's reactions to parents' divorce found that the children of divorcees were significantly more non-compliant to mother's directions than the children of married couples (Hetherington et al., 1977). However, that study differed from the present one in that they studied younger children (pre-schoolers) and used more fine grain, observational measures of parent-child interactions. Thus, the differences in findings between the two studies may have been due to differences in the samples studied and the measurement methods used.

Hetherington et al. also found that the differences between the children of divorcees and the children of married couples with regard

to non-compliance to mothers' directions were greatest during the first year of divorce. The groups still differed after two years, but these differences had diminished considerably with the passage of time. Thus, anti-social behavior of children may be a transitory reaction to parental separation and divorce. Along the same line, Jacobson (1978) found that during the first year of parental separation the amount of time children ages 7 to 13 had lost with their fathers was significantly negatively correlated with mothers' ratings of their children on several broad-band factors: aggression ($\underline{r} = -.50$, $\underline{p} < .05$), inhibition ($\underline{r} = -.62$, $\underline{p} < .01$), learning disability ($\underline{r} = -.55$, $\underline{p} < .05$), total behavior problems ($\underline{r} = -.60$, $\underline{p} < .01$), and the clinical severity of behavior problems ($\underline{r} = -.47$, $\underline{p} < .05$). The data suggest that a full range of children's behavior problems, not just anti-social behavior, are associated with the loss of father availability during the first year of separation. Unfortunately, small sample size prevented Jacobson from analyzing these associations separately for boys and girls. It is possible that boys may have reacted to their fathers' absence more with anti-social behavior, while girls may have reacted more with shy-anxious behavior. Also, Jacobson did not follow-up these families past the first year of separation. Thus, it is impossible to determine if the correlations between loss of father availability and children's behavior problems during the first year of separation would have been attenuated with the passage of time.

Thus, in the case of divorce, it may be that most children initially react to their parents' separation with anti-social behavior, but this may be a temporary reaction that subsides with the passage of time. By and large, the average differences between groups in regard to anti-social behavior were in the hypothesized direction, which is consistent with Hetherington et al.'s finding of slight but diminished differences between the children of divorcees and the children of married couples with respect to non-compliance. The tension and dis-

ruption surrounding the parental separation may be responsible for the anti-social response of the children following parental separation. This speculation is consistent with findings that family tension and discord are more strongly associated with anti-social behavior in children than father absence per se (see Rutter, 1971). In a later section, further evidence from this study will be presented that demonstrates that marital tension and discord, not loss of father availability as Jacobson's data suggest, is most strongly related to anti-social behavior in children following parental separation.

Further exploration of Hypothesis 6. Subdividing the children of married families into high father present and low father present groups, an interesting trend approaching significance was found. Boys from low father present families tended to have higher scores on mothers' ratings of the CP subscale than children from any of the other groups. Again, this finding is based on a very small sample and needs to be retested in future research to determine its replicability. However, this finding is consistent with previous research showing that father absence is more strongly related to delinquency rates for boys than for girls (Lynn, 1974).

Intercorrelations of Dependent Measures

The intercorrelations of the dependent measures for the women replicate the findings of Bradburn (1969), demonstrating two relatively independent dimensions of affective adjustment: positive affect and negative affect. Also, consistent with Bradburn's findings, positive affect was directly associated with the measures of affect balance and happiness, while negative affect was inversely related to these measures. Furthermore, the positive affect and affect balance measures were not significantly related to any of the measures of affective and social maladjustment, while negative affect was significantly associated with all of the measures of affective and social maladjustment.

The finding of two relatively unassociated dimensions of affect may be due to the content of the items in the Bradburn scale. As Wilson (1967) has pointed out: "The positive items seem to refer to positive feelings in relation to success and energy, while the negative items, rather than referring to negative feelings about failure and fatigue, refer instead to negative emotional feelings of a general nature (p. 303)." Studies using items more opposite in nature to assess positive and negative affect have found the two dimensions to be significantly negatively correlated (e.g., Brenner, 1975). Similarly, in the present study, the Total Social Adjustment Scale scores, which range from maladjustment to positive adjustment, were significantly correlated with only the negative affect dimension of Bradburn's scale. Thus, studies using measures other than the Bradburn scale have failed to support Bradburn's theory of two independent dimensions of positive affect and negative affect.

Turning to the intercorrelations of the measures of psychosocial adjustment for the children, almost all of these correlations revealed statistically significant associations between the measures in the appropriate directions. Furthermore, these significant associations were obtained on measures from divergent sources: the children, their mothers, and their teachers. Thus, the results of this correlational analysis support the validity of all of the measures of psychosocial adjustment for the children. Furthermore, this study provided the first evidence on the validity of the SAI. While few studies on the psychosocial adjustment of children use self-report measures, the results of this study suggest the utility of the SAI for future research.

Only 10 of the 42 correlations between the measures on the women and the measures on their children showed significant associations in the appropriate direction. Furthermore, the magnitude of these statistically significant correlations was generally low (r's ranging from .20 to .45). The only measure on either the women or the

children that showed a consistent relationship with the other measures was the children's self-rated happiness. Four of the seven correlations between the children's happiness and the measures of psychosocial adjustment for the women were statistically significant in the appropriate direction. However, in view of the overall pattern of weak correlations, these significant correlations between children's self-rated happiness and the measures of psychosocial adjustment for their mothers may have been due to chance.

From this data then, it appears that there is only a weak relationship between the women's psychosocial adjustment and that of their children. It may be that there was not enough range in the psychosocial adjustment scores for women and their children for there to be strong correlations between these two sets of measures. If the sample had been studied during the first year of bereavement and separation in which there may have been more range in psychosocial adjustment, stronger correlations may have been obtained. On the other hand, the relationship between the psychosocial adjustment of women and that of their children may depend specifically on the mother-child relationships. Thus, direct observation of mother-child interactions, as was done in the study of divorce adjustment by Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1977), may be needed to determine how mothers and children mutually shape each others' social and emotional adjustment.

Counseling for Psychosocial Problems for Women and their Children

All but one of the divorcees (93 percent) had received professional counseling at some time in their lives, while only one of the married women (7 percent) had ever received professional counseling. The widows fell in between the divorcees and the married women with respect to rates of professional help-seeking, with 4 of the 15 widows (27 percent) having sought professional counseling. While none of the

women in this study had been treated on an inpatient basis, the results of this study with respect to outpatient counseling are consistent with previous findings on the relationship between marital status and inpatient psychiatric treatment. In separate reviews of this literature, Crago (1972) and Bloom, Asher, and White (1978) both concluded that all of the studies in this area have invariably reported that admission rates to inpatient psychiatric services are greatest for the separated and divorced, intermediate for the widowed, and lowest for the married.

Studies of admissions to outpatient psychiatric clinics, however, have generally found that divorcees have relatively high admission rates, while widows and married women have relatively low rates, differing little from one another (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978). Similarly, Briscoe and Smith (1975) found that none of 22 bereaved depressives had seen a psychiatrist, while 31 of 43 divorced depressives (72 percent) had seen a psychiatrist. Finally, only three percent of the widows in Clayton's (1974) study had seen a psychiatrist, while none of the married controls had seen a psychiatrist. Thus, the results of this study are consistent with previous studies in showing that divorcees tend to seek professional counseling significantly more than widows and married women, with widows rates of professional help-seeking being only slightly higher than those for married women.

Another interesting finding was that while divorcees largely sought professional help, widows tended to seek the informal support of the clergy and non-professional visiting widows. This finding points to the importance of the role informal caregivers play in providing support during the crisis of bereavement (Walker, MacBride, & Vachon, 1977). For example, Parkes and Brown (1972) found that widows, compared with matched married controls, visited a minister significantly more often following their spouses' deaths.

This finding of differential patterns of help-seeking during the crises of bereavement and divorce suggests that the unique problems

associated with these two types of crisis may be an important but often neglected (Gourash, 1978; Gurin, Veroff, & Feld, 1960) variable in determining help-seeking patterns. In the crisis of divorce, the central problem is that of disturbed interpersonal relations. Thus, divorcees seek the expert help of mental health professionals who are trained to effect improved interpersonal relations. In the crisis of bereavement, on the other hand, the central problem is more of a spiritual one that is concerned with the meaning of life and death, transcending human relations. Thus, widows seek the appropriate expert help of clergymen and other widows who have undergone and resolved the same life crisis. Future research on help-seeking would do well to consider the nature of the precipitating problem as a variable influencing the pattern of help-seeking.

Other interesting findings emerged regarding the time at which widows and divorcees sought help. All of the 10 widows who sought help did so following their husbands' death, suggesting that the husband's death was the causal factor leading to help-seeking for psychosocial adjustment problems. The divorcees, on the other hand, sought help at equal levels both during the marriage and following the separation. Only one of the divorcees sought help prior to marriage and she did so while living common-law with her husband to be. This finding suggests that problems in marital relations, rather than personality or psychiatric problems of the women prior to the marriage, led to marital separation.

Previous studies from a psychiatric perspective have found that significantly more divorcees than matched married controls can be diagnosed as psychiatrically disturbed (Blumenthal, 1967; Briscoe, Smith, Robins, Marten, & Gaskin, 1973; Briscoe & Smith, 1974). From this data, these researchers have erroneously concluded that psychiatric disorder is a significant cause of marital separation. This conclusion is unwarranted because these studies provided no evidence that

psychiatric disorder was present prior to either the marriage or the separation and divorce. Thus, conceptual bias appears to have prevailed over empirical demonstration in these studies.

In a more carefully interpreted study, Bowen and Gerritsen (Note 7) attempted to unravel the complex nature of cause and effect in the relationship between divorce and psychopathology. Based on interviews with 21 divorced persons who were being treated for some form of psychopathology, the authors concluded that there was no consistent causal relationship between divorce and psychosocial adjustment problems. Rather several different patterns were found, indicating complex interactions between divorce and psychopathology. Five of the subjects indicated that psychiatric problems prior to their marriages led to marital breakdown; 11 of the subjects felt that adjustment problems developed during the marriage; and 5 of the subjects felt that their adjustment problems followed the marital separation. Similarly, in a study comparing 880 persons seen at a mental health center with 2414 community controls with respect to the experience of stressful life events, Smith (1971) found that separation and divorce preceded the onset of non-alcoholic psychiatric disorders almost equally as frequently as it followed the onset of such disorders. Furthermore, separation or divorce and drinking problems were the only stressful life events associated with psychiatric disorders that preceded the onset of psychiatric problems.

To be sure, individuals with psychiatric problems, especially those requiring hospitalization, appear predisposed to divorce if they marry, as the data presented by Bloom, Asher, and White (1978) clearly demonstrate. On the other hand, the results of this study and those by Bowen and Gerritsen (Note 7) and Smith (1971) show that disturbed marital relations and the stress of separation and divorce can lead to psychosocial adjustment problems requiring professional help. Further research in the form of longitudinal studies of couples

planning to marry is needed to clarify the complex inter-relationship of separation/divorce and psychopathology.

Turning now to the findings on the rates of counseling for the children, it was found that more of the children of widows and divorcees had received some type of counseling than the children of married couples in which the father was frequently present. Furthermore, all of the children of the widows and most of the children of divorcees who were counseled started treatment following the father's death or the marital separation. This finding suggests that the loss of the father by either death or divorce precipitated counseling help for these children. Thus, a small minority of the children of widows and divorcees were seen for counseling following the loss of their fathers, while only one of the children of married couples in which the father was frequently available received counseling in the same time period.

Three of the five boys, but none of the girls, of married couples in which the fathers were infrequently available had received some type of counseling. This group of boys whose fathers were infrequently available had relatively low self-esteem, high ratings of anti-social behavior and tended to have received professional help for these problems. Once again these findings underscore the importance of father availability for positive psychosocial adjustment of boys. Further research with larger samples is needed to determine the replicability of these findings.

Positive and Negative Life Changes and Helpful Resources

The results of this study showed that widows and divorcees experience significantly more positive and negative life changes than married women following the death of or separation from their husbands. These findings are consistent with those of previous scaling studies which have shown that death of a family member and divorce are rated as

requiring the most life changes or readjustment, relative to other stressful life events (e.g., Grant, Gerst, & Yager, 1976; Holmes & Masuda, 1974). However, this study extends previous research by specifying the types of life changes widows and divorcees undergo and by documenting the positive, growth aspects associated with these two types of life crisis, as well as the undesirable negative aspects.

Several clusters of negative life changes appear to be common to both widows and divorcees from this data: parenting problems, problems in interpersonal relations, emotional problems, and financial problems. Although there were no significant differences between the groups on the dependent measures of affective and social adjustment, the widows and divorcees indicated that they had experienced these problems in the last two years more frequently than did the married women. This finding lends support to the speculation that widows and divorcees had experienced significant affective and social adjustment problems since the death or separation, but that these problems had improved considerably by the time of the study, one to two years later. The finding of self-reported financial problems is consistent with the finding of decreased monthly income for the widows and divorcees. While there were no observations of family interaction in this study, the reports of parenting problems by both the widows and divorcees suggest that a focus on family interaction following the loss of the father by death or divorce would be a fruitful avenue for future research.

Loneliness and difficulty making decisions alone were the most frequently mentioned negative life changes by widows. On the other hand, a frequently mentioned negative life change more unique to divorcees was the role problem of being both a worker and a parent. These problems more or less unique to widows and to divorcees may be explained, in part, by the working status of widows and divorcees. More of the widows were housewives and thus probably spent more time by themselves, allowing more time to experience feelings of

loneliness. More of the divorcees, on the other hand, worked fulltime, thus experiencing the pressure of having to be both provider and parent. Divorcees may have been less lonely than widows because of more opportunities to interact with co-workers, their ex-husbands, and other men, and they may have had less difficulty making decisions alone than widows because they had already made the most difficult decision of petitioning for divorce from their husbands.

Another interesting finding was that of significantly greater positive life changes for widows and divorcees than married women.. Relative to married women, widows and divorcees reported more increases in self-esteem and personal competence, improved relations with their children, and positive career-related changes. Married women most frequently mentioned increased financial security as a positive life change. Crisis theorists such as Caplan (1974) have long asserted that mastery of major life crises can have a positive, growth producing effect. The findings of this study corroborate such assertions. The growth effects reported by widows and divorcees included both an affective component, as reflected in improved self-esteem and closer relationships with the children, and an instrumental component, as reflected in increased personal competencies and career-related changes. These growth effects were most pronounced for the divorcees, suggesting the positive aspects of making the decision to change and get out of a bad marital situation. These findings of affective and instrumental growth are worthy of further investigation, as an alternative to the more traditional exclusive focus on the pathological reactions to undesirable life crises.

One should bear in mind that the events of increased self-esteem and personal competence for widows and divorcees reflect changes in the last two years, not absolute levels of coping. Thus, the data do not suggest that widows and divorcees have higher self-esteem and personal compoetence than married women, but rather that widows and

divorcees experienced more increases in these areas in the last two years than married women.

Finally, it was found that widows and divorcees reported significantly more helpful resources in adjusting to life changes in the last two years than married women. This finding is not surprising in view of the fact that widows and divorcees reported significantly more life changes that they might need help coping with than married women. Consistent with previous findings on help-seeking patterns (Gourash, 1978), both widows and divorcees reported turning more to family and friends for help than to professional counselors or special services for single-parent women. Also, consistent with the previously reported finding that widows tend to seek help from the clergy, widows reported that religious faith was an important resource in adjusting to their husbands' deaths. Since widows and divorcees tend to rely on informal social supports during their time of crisis, further research is needed on the activities and outcomes associated with the use of informal support systems (Gottlieb, 1976).

Moderators of Psychosocial Adjustment for Widows, Divorcees and their Children

The moderating effects of several classes of variables on the psychosocial adjustment of widows, divorcees and their children were systematically examined in this study. Stepwise multiple regression analyses were used to determine the best predictors of the various measures of psychosocial adjustment. With one exception (Parkes, 1975a), all previous studies of factors predictive of good or poor adjustment following a spouse's death or marital separation examined the role of each factor one at a time, often without considering the magnitude of the association between the predictor and criterion variables. Thus, this study improved upon previous research by considering a wide array of predictor variables, including those suggested

to be important in previous studies, and by using the appropriate statistical techniques to determine those predictor variables most strongly associated with the criterion variables. Finally, this study provided the first analysis of predictors of psychosocial adjustment for children who had lost their fathers by death or divorce.

Widows and their children. For widows, the number of boys was the best predictor of the Negative Affect score. As the reader will recall, the boys of widows had the lowest Total SAI scores. The widows may have experienced considerable difficulty learning how to deal with their depressed sons, feeling unable to compensate for their husbands' loss to these boys. Hetherington et al. found that divorcees with boys experienced significant psychosocial adjustment problems and conflict in managing their sons. The findings of this study suggest that a similar pattern may occur for widows. Future research on mother-son interactions following the father's death is needed to clarify this matter.

Widows' overall marital happiness was strongly related to their Affect Balance scores. Thus, women who were happy during their marriages were well adjusted emotionally after their husbands had died. This finding is consistent with previous studies (Parkes, 1975a; Raphael, 1977) which have supported Lindemann's (1944) early clinical observation that widows who have had an ambivalent marital relationship are at risk for pathological grief. Thus, Freud's (1917) hypothesis that introjection of ambivalent feelings about the lost spouse is associated with excessive guilt and "anger turned inward" may have some merit. However, the association between marital happiness prior to the husband's death and emotional adjustment following the husband's death is also consistent with social learning theorists' (Mischel, 1968) views that the best predictor of future behavior is past behavior in the same situation.

Widows who had received counseling following their husbands' deaths had the highest Total Negative Feelings scores. This shows that those who felt the need for help most were receiving help and supports the need for a service such as that provided by the Widows' Consultation Service to all recently widowed women in the city.

Having somewhat negative feelings about the deceased husband was the best predictor of the Total SAS score. This is consistent with the previously discussed findings that ambivalence in the marital relationship is a risk factor in bereavement adjustment. Current monthly income was inversely related to the Total SAS score, which is consistent with Parke's (1975a) finding that low socioeconomic status is related to poor adjustment during bereavement.

Turning to predictors of psychosocial adjustment for the widows' children, the type of housing the family lived in was the best predictor of the Total SAI score and the mothers' ratings on the CP subscale. Children who lived in a house were better adjusted than children who lived in an apartment. In many cases, upon the husband's death, the balance of the mortgage on the house he and his family bought was paid for by the bank through a special provision in the mortgage contract. Thus, a significant potential financial burden for many of the widows living in houses was removed. However, widows who live in apartments must endure the financial burden of keeping up the rent payments. This financial stress may indirectly affect the adjustment of the children of widows. On the other hand, it may be that the low social class standing of apartment dwelling families, regardless of the father' death, may be the factor associated with poor adjustment of the children.

Widows with somewhat negative feelings about their husbands also tended to have children with conduct problems. Thus, an ambivalent or conflicted marital relationship may lead to anti-social behavior in the children. From this data, it is impossible to tell if this association was present prior to the father's death or if the children's anti-social

behavior developed in response to their mothers' possible disturbed grief reactions following the father's death.

The time the widows spent talking with their husbands about the possibility of their death was the best predictor of teachers' ratings on the PP subscale and the second predictor entered on the Total SAI score. Children whose mothers talked little or not at all with their husbands about their possible deaths had more adjustment problems than children whose mothers talked at greater length with their husbands about this subject. This is consistent with Parke's (1975a) finding that no opportunity to discuss death with the spouse was associated with poor bereavement adjustment for widows. Mothers who have talked with their husbands about the possibility of death may be better able to explain and discuss father's death with their children, thus helping children to work through their grief over father's death.

Divorcees and their children. Moving on to predictors of divorcees' psychosocial adjustment, mother's age was the best predictor of the Positive Affect subscale of the ABS, with older women reporting more positive affect. This finding appears to contradict those of previous studies (e.g., Goode, 1956; Hetherington et al., 1977) reporting that older women experience more adjustment problems than younger women following divorce. However, given that the positive affect measure is independent of measures of negative affect, this may not be the case. Perhaps older women experience a greater sense of freedom and liberation from a bad marriage than younger women who may not have been married as long. In fact, divorcees' age was significantly correlated with their length of marriage ($r = .69$, $p < .05$). Having made the decision to separate from their husbands, older women may be optimistic about starting a new life and developing a new identity.

Divorcees' current positive feelings about their ex-husbands were the best predictor of the Affect Balance score. Interestingly, 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. Thus, an amicable relationship that is not characterized by either pining for or bitterness toward the ex-husband is best for divorcees' emotional adjustment.

Similarly, the current relationship with the ex-husband was the best predictor of all of the measures of affective and social maladjustment. This finding is consistent with that reported by Hetherington et al. and attests to the continued importance of the relationship with the ex-husband even following the divorce. The questions used to assess the current relationship with the ex-husband dealt with emotional and financial support provided by the ex-husband, agreement on child rearing and visitation privileges, how well the divorced partners were getting along, and the number of court visits regarding conflicts that were made following the separation. Thus, the less support from and the more conflict with the ex-spouse, the poorer the adjustment of the divorcees. Even one to two years after separation, the adjustment of divorcees is closely tied to their relationships with their ex-husbands, suggesting that "emotional divorce" requires more time. Hetherington et al. found that developing a satisfying relationship with another member of the opposite sex was the most important factor for positive psychosocial adjustment of divorcees.

Having a father substitute for the children was the second variable entered in the stepwise regression analyses for both the Negative Affect subscale of the ABS and the Total Negative Feelings measure. Women whose children had a father substitute reported greater feelings of emotional maladjustment than women whose children did not have a father substitute. It is possible that divorcees who sought a father substitute for their children did so because they were having trouble managing their children. Thus, divorcees experiencing emotional problems sought help in dealing with their children, as Hetherington

et al. have shown that child management is a major problem for women following divorce.

The suddeness of the decision to petition for divorce was the third variable entered in the stepwise regression analyses for the Total Negative Feelings measure and the second variable entered for the Total SAS score. Women who petitioned for divorce more than two weeks after the "first and only" separation reported fewer adjustment problems than women who petitioned for divorce within two weeks of separating or women who sought divorce after more than one separation. Thus, there appears to be a happy medium in deciding when to seek a divorce. It may be wise not to judge the situation too hastily nor to stay in a bad situation for too long before deciding to seek a divorce.

Let us now consider the predictors of the psychosocial adjustment of divorcees' children. First the time since the separation was the best predictor of the Total SAI score. As time passed, the affective adjustment of divorcees' children improved. Secondly, the womens' marital happiness at the time of the separation was the second variable entered on this measure. The more happy the couple was upon separating, the better the affective adjustment of the children. Thus, an amicable settlement between the divorced partners and the passage of time foster positive affective adjustment in the children.

The overall marital happiness of the divorcees was the best predictor of children's scores on mothers' ratings on the PP and CP subscales and teachers' ratings on the CP subscale. Marital happiness has been shown to relate to disturbed marital interactions (Jacobson & Martin, 1976). Thus, these findings clearly show that marital tension and discord are the best predictors of children's behavior problems following divorce. These findings are consistent with those of previous studies (see Rutter, 1971) showing that marital tension and discord, not father absence, are the critical factors in the development of anti-social behavior in the children of divorce.

Having a father substitute was associated with fewer shy-anxious behavior problems according to mothers' ratings on the PP subscale, indicating the salutary effects of having a father substitute for the children. Children whose mothers petitioned for divorce within two weeks of the first and only separation had relatively few conduct problems according to their mothers. Thus, a sudden decision to divorce may quickly reduce marital conflict and help to diminish the anti-social behavior of the children. Finally, the occupational status of divorcees was inversely related to conduct problems rated by teachers. Thus, women in low-paying, low-status jobs have children who are relatively more anti-social than children whose mothers have a higher occupational status. This corroborates the negative life change reported by divorcees of having to be both a parent and a worker, particularly for women in low status jobs.

There is one further finding from the regression analyses worth noting. Only one of the 26 correlations between changes in monthly income following the death or separation and the various measures of psychosocial adjustment for widows, divorcees, and their children was statistically significant (see Appendix T). Furthermore, the direction of this correlation was counter-intuitive: divorcees experiencing the greatest loss in monthly income reported the highest degree of positive affect. These findings suggest that the income loss associated with loss of the father by death or divorce was not a key factor in the psychosocial adjustment of widows, divorcees, and their children.

In summary, the results of the multiple regression analyses have suggested a number of variables that may moderate the psychosocial adjustment of widows, divorcees, and their children. While there was some indication that the type of housing and discussion with the husband about the possibility of his death were related to the adjustment of widows and their children, these findings were not clear-cut. On the other hand, consistently strong relationships were found between

divorcees' ratings of happiness in marriage and conflict with the ex-spouse following separation and the post-divorce adjustment of divorcees and their children. Nevertheless, these findings must be regarded as tentative in view of the small sample sizes studied and the fact that data was collected at only one point in time. Further research using longitudinal designs and larger sample sizes is needed to determine variables, assessed at the time of the death or separation, that predict the psychosocial adjustment of women and children from widowed and divorced families at later follow-up periods.

Such research is important in determining the characteristics of widowed and divorced families that have a "high risk" for psychosocial maladjustment. As well, factors that are associated with positive, growth-producing experiences in the adjustment of family members to the crises of loss of father by death or divorce can be identified. Thus, potential guidelines for preventive interventions with "high risk" fatherless families can stem from this type of research. For example, from the present research it would appear that an important clinical target for interventions with divorcees and their children would be to attempt to reduce conflict and to promote amicable relationships between the ex-spouses following divorce. Hopefully, future research in this area will stimulate policies and actions that improve the "quality of life" of women and children from fatherless families.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN FOLLOWING THE LOSS OF FATHER BY DEATH OR DIVORCE: A LITERATURE REVIEW

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Approximately 10% of children in the U.S. (Hetherington & Deur, 1971) and Canada (McConville, 1978) are raised in single-parent families. The majority of single-parent families are headed by mothers with fathers being absent. Furthermore, the number of single-parent families is increasing with rising divorce rates accompanied by decreases in marriage rates in the last decade (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978). These statistics reflect a growing social concern since research has shown that marital disruption due to either death or divorce presents special problems and life changes for the widowed (Greenblatt, 1978), the divorced (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978), and the children from these father-absent families (Herzog & Sudia, 1973). Moreover, father-absent families are generally viewed by the public as being deviant and pathological (Brandwein, Brown, & Fox, 1974).

In view of these concerns, a thorough review of the research on father-absent families is needed to clarify how women and children adjust socially and emotionally to father loss. The purpose of this paper is to provide such a review on two of the major types of father loss: paternal death and parental divorce. The focus of this review will be on the separation experiences and the processes of change and re-adjustment to father loss by women and children. Hereafter, I will use the terms father loss and father absence to refer to both the loss of husbands for women and the loss of fathers for children when referring to father absence from the whole family.

Before reviewing this literature, there are several similarities and differences between the crises of death and divorce for the affected family

members that are worth noting. The events of death and divorce are similar in that they are both perceived as being very undesirable (Gersten et al., 1974; Paykel, 1974); both involve the loss of a most important person for those affected; and both are subjectively rated as being extremely stressful (e.g., Masuda & Holmes, 1974). On the other hand, the events of death and divorce differ in that divorce is anticipated by marital discord and separation, whereas death of father may be unanticipated or only briefly anticipated; death, but not divorce, is an uncontrollable event in most cases; the quality of the marital relationship differs prior to the loss in the cases of death and divorce; the relationship may continue, to various degrees, after divorce but not after death; and divorce is socially stigmatized while the death of a father is not. In view of these similarities and differences, one might expect both common and unique adjustment reactions of women and children to the loss of father by death or divorce.

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

Unfortunately, there are many methodological problems in this type of naturalistic, field research that make it difficult to render definitive conclusions about the psychosocial adjustment of women and children following the loss of father by death or divorce. Thus, before reviewing the literature on this topic, I will discuss some of the important methodological issues involved in research on father-absent families.

Definition of Father Absence

As Shinn (1978) has pointed out, one of the most pervasive problems in research on father absence is the definition of terms. Many of the studies in this area have compared women and/or children from "broken homes" and those from "intact homes" on various measures of psychosocial adjustment. Such gross comparisons gloss over many important aspects of the separation experience, such as: brief versus long-term separation, temporary versus permanent separation, single versus multiple separations, separation from mother versus separation from father, cause of the separation (e.g., death, divorce, etc.), the length of the separation, the age of the mother and children at the onset of the separation, father availability following the separation, and the availability of substitute relationships with father figures following the separation. Each of these factors may have profound consequences on the outcome of studies of father absence. Thus, precise definitions of the independent variable, father absence, are needed to clarify the exact nature of potentially widely differing separation experiences.

Sampling

Another major methodological issue is that of representative sampling. Two sampling strategies have generally been used. The first involves sampling subjects from the records of guidance clinics or psychiatric services. The results of studies using this type of sampling procedure cannot

be generalized to the normal population of those experiencing the type of separation that is under investigation. While women and children from father-absent families may be over-represented in guidance clinics or psychiatric services, one cannot conclude from such findings that separations from father are associated with psychopathology in the general population.

A better strategy is to attempt to sample subjects from the total population of those experiencing the type of separation that is to be studied. For example, in studies of the crises of death and divorce, obituaries, vital statistics records, and divorce court records have been used to identify potential subjects. This procedure is also not without its problems, however. Studies using this procedure often have response rates from subjects of less than 50%. This introduces the possibility of bias resulting from the use of volunteer subjects. Whenever possible, it is desirable to obtain any information on refusers, such as demographic data, so as to determine the representativeness of the study sample compared to the entire population. In summarizing research on the volunteer subject, Rosenthal and Rosnow (1969) point out that volunteers are better educated, less authoritarian, more sociable, higher in self-disclosure, and better adjusted socially and emotionally than non-volunteers. Thus, studies of volunteer subjects from father-absent families may underestimate psychosocial adjustment problems of the total population. However, one can also argue that following father loss, subjects who are emotionally troubled may volunteer to participate in a study simply for the opportunity to talk to someone. Whatever the case may be, the problem of bias resulting from the selection of volunteer subjects can be reduced if similar sampling procedures are used to select subjects from father-absent families and comparison subjects from father-present families.

Experimental Design and Control

Investigations of father-absence are weak in terms of the criteria of

internal validity (Campbell & Stanley, 1966) because of the natural selection of subjects into groups (i.e., groups are non-equivalent because subjects cannot be randomly assigned to treatment groups) and because pre-test measures on the dependent variables, obtained prior to father absence, are lacking. Thus, causal interpretation of the effects of the independent variable, father absence, on the dependent variable, psychosocial adjustment, is limited in such studies. However, as Farrant (1977) has argued, the plausibility of rival alternative hypotheses in such studies can be reduced by controlling for potentially important extraneous variables through matching of "experimental" and "comparison" groups on those variables.

In studies of father absence, it is necessary to control for several aspects of the separation experiences that were previously mentioned. First, one must demonstrate that fathers or substitute fathers are not available to father-absent families, while fathers must be available to father-present families. Blanchard and Biller (1971) have argued that father availability should be considered a continuum rather than a dichotomy. Once the particular independent variable of interest has been decided on (e.g., cause of father absence), other aspects of father absence (e.g., length of the separation) must be controlled for by matching.

Another important nuisance variable that needs to be controlled in studies of father absence is socioeconomic status (SES). SES covaries with both the status of being a father-absent family (McConville, 1978) and measures of psychosocial adjustment for both adults (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1969) and children (Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958). Thus, effects on psychosocial adjustment due to SES might otherwise by attributed to father absence if SES were not controlled for. There are several potential measures of SES, including: the mother's occupation, working status, education, income, and housing. It is difficult to know which of these measures to choose for purposes of matching. Thus, it is desirable to match mothers from both father-absent families and father-present families on several of these variables.

It may be very difficult to match father-absent families and father-present families in terms of income in view of the superior earning power of father-present families, resulting from higher salaries paid to men and the potential of incomes from both the husband and wife. Finally, drops in SES following father loss can be obtained by inquiring about both present and past (i.e., prior to father loss) SES variables. Downward shifts in SES accompanying father loss may be associated with psychosocial adjustment. In this type of quasi-experimental research, when the "experimental" group is untypically low on a factor, such as income in the case of father-absent families, with respect to the "comparison" group, Campbell and Stanley (1966) recommend using covariance analysis rather than matching to control for that factor. Thus, income and other SES variables can be controlled for statistically by using them as covariates in analyzing the differences between father-absent and father-present families on a given measure.

There are limitations to the matching approach in attempting to equate "experimental" and "comparison" groups on relevant nuisance variables. The first problem is that matching is subject to differential statistical regression effects. Thus, when reducing the population of father-present families to select those that can be matched on SES, for example, with father-absent families, one is selecting an extremely deviant sample with respect to SES compared to the general population. Thus, the "experimental" and "comparison" groups may have different regression slopes to their respective population means on the dependent variables that are examined. Since SES is correlated in the same direction with both family status and psychosocial adjustment, the deviant "comparison" group will regress to a higher population mean than the more representative "experimental" group. The unfortunate consequence of this matching-regression problem is that it will lead to erroneous conclusions favoring differences between groups on the "experimental" variable. As was previously mentioned, when such is the case, Campbell and Stanley (1966) recommend using covariance

analysis to statistically control for differences between the "experimental" and "comparison" groups on the nuisance variable. Also, Farrant (1977) has argued that differential regression effects may not present a problem when the "experimental" and "comparison" groups are initially representative of their respective populations.

One final problem with the matching strategy is that one cannot match groups on all potentially relevant variables. Farrant (1977) has argued that while it is incumbent upon the experimenter to control for empirically established confounding factors, it is not necessary to control for conjectural factors that have not been shown to have a confounding effect. In summary, while matching is not without its problems, equation of "experimental" and "comparison" groups through matching on demonstrated nuisance variables, along with covariance analysis, can be used to strengthen experimental control in studies of father absence. The benefits of enhanced internal validity, however, may be gained only at the expense of decreased generalizibility of findings, when matching reduces the universe of potential subjects who can be studied.

Another important methodological consideration is the use of cross-sectional versus longitudinal designs. While useful information can be gained from cross-sectional studies, prospective, longitudinal designs are preferable in this area of research. Prospective studies are preferable because they permit examination of changes in the process of psychosocial adjustment over time following father loss. Thus, both short-term and long-term adaptations to father loss can be discerned from research using longitudinal designs.

Measures of Psychosocial Adjustment

Many studies of father-absence have relied solely on interviewers' ratings of adjustment, psychiatric diagnoses, or rates of admission to psychiatric services or juvenile offenses. Such measures typically have no demonstrated reliability or validity and, as such, provide only crude

indices of psychosocial adjustment. There is a sore need for research on father absence to employ psychometrically established measures. There are three major domains of psychosocial adjustment for women and children from father-absent families: affective adjustment, social adjustment, and family adjustment. Affective adjustment refers to the emotional state of the individual, including the private behaviors of affect, cognition, and self-concept. Social adjustment, on the other hand, refers to the degree to which the individual meets societal expectations in various areas of role functioning. Finally, family adjustment deals with how the family as a system copes with changes and how individual family members interact with one another. A multimethod approach can be used to measure adjustment in these domains from the viewpoints of the individual himself (e.g., self-report questionnaires), significant others (e.g., mothers' ratings of children's behavior), and unbiased external observers (e.g., direct observation of family interaction).

Much of the research on father-absent families has focused on the negative aspects of psychosocial adjustment to father loss. However, crisis theorists such as Caplan (1974) have long argued that successful mastery of major life crises can have growth-producing effects. Thus, measures on the positive, as well as the negative, aspects of psychosocial adjustment to father loss are needed. The inclusion of measures of psychosocial growth is needed to avoid the frequently unstated assumption that the status of being from a father-absent family is pathological.

DEATH AND DIVORCE AS STRESSFUL LIFE EVENTS

In the past decade, much research has been devoted to the study of the role of stressful life events in the development of various physical and psychological disorders (B.P. Dohrenwend & B.S. Dohrenwend, 1976). This research has included, but has not been limited to, the stressors of death and divorce. In this research, a number of stressful life events, such as birth of a child, job or financial loss, physical injury, etc., are typically examined in their relationship to a variety of indices of physical and psychological disorders. The results of such studies have shown the experience of stressful life events to be associated with heart disease, fractures, childhood leukemia (Holmes & Masuda, 1974), neurotic and psychosomatic symptoms (Berkman, 1971; Coates, Moyer, & Wellman, 1969; B.S. Dohrenwend, 1973 a & b; Langner & Michael, 1963; Paykel, 1974; Uhlenhuth, Lipman, Balter, & Stern, 1974), depression (Ilfeld, 1977; Markush & Favero, 1974; Paykel, Myers, Dienelt, Klerman, Lindenthal, & Pepper, 1969), attempted suicide (Cochrane & Robertson, 1975; Paykel, Prusoff, & Meyers, 1975), psychiatric impairment (Eisler & Polak, 1971; Myers, Lindenthal, & Pepper, 1971; Myers, Lindenthal, Pepper, & Ostrander, 1972), schizophrenia (Birley & Brown, 1970; Brown & Birley, 1968), and childhood behavior problems (Gersten, Langner, Eisenberg, & Orzek, 1974).

In an attempt to quantify the magnitude of stressful life events, Holmes and Rahe (1967) have developed a scaling procedure for the 43 events covered in their instrument. For each event, respondents are asked to assign a value indicating the amount of change or readjustment necessitated by the experience of the particular event. Scaling studies have consistently found that the loss of a family member by death or divorce to be rated as requiring the most change or readjustment by both adults (Cochrane & Robertson, 1973; Grant, Gerst, & Yager, 1976; Holmes & Masuda, 1974; Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Masuda & Holmes, 1974; Paykel, Prusoff, & Uhlen-

huth, 1971; Paykel & Uhlenhuth, 1972) and children (Gersten et al., 1974). Furthermore, research by Paykel (1974) has shown that the experience of "exit" events (e.g., death of a family member, separation, divorce, family member leaving home, etc.) precedes the onset of depression in adults. Thus, death and divorce appear to be the most potent stressful life events.

In spite of this impressively consistent evidence that stressful life events are associated with physical and psychological disorders, there are a number of methodological problems in this research (for detailed discussions of these issues, see B.S. Dohrenwend & B.P. Dohrenwend, 1974 and Rabkin & Struening, 1976). For the purpose of this review, suffice it to say that there is a need to move beyond the amply demonstrated association between the experiences of loss of a family member by death or divorce and psychopathology. Research using longitudinal designs is needed to determine the specific problems and the processes of change following loss of a family member by death or divorce. Also, greater attention to the role of moderating factors in cushioning the blows of losing a family member and examination of the growth-producing aspects of successful adaptations to such losses is needed.

PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT OF WIDOWS AND DIVORCEES

Marital disruption due to death or divorce has been found to bear a very consistent relationship to the incidence of adult psychiatric disorders. Without exception, all of the studies reviewed by Crago (1972) and Bloom, Asher, and White (1978) showed that admission rates to inpatient psychiatric services were greatest for the divorced, intermediate for the widowed and single, and lowest for the married. Furthermore, research has suggested disproportionately high mortality rates, including death by suicide, for both widows (Epstein, Weitz, Roback, & McKee, 1975) and divorcees (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978) following conjugal loss. In this section, research on the psychosocial adjustment patterns of women following loss of spouse by death or divorce will be reviewed.

Widows

In reviewing the literature dealing with the process and predictors of bereavement adjustment, I will focus primarily on prospective studies that have used some type of comparison group. While many such studies have examined the adjustment of both widows and widowers, much of this research has focused on widows since the ratio of widows to widowers is about four to one (Vachon, 1976).

Process of adjustment during bereavement. The psychological effects of death of spouse on the bereaved surviving spouse have been illustrated in a number of classic case studies, including Freud's (1917) paper on "Mourning and Melancholia", Lindemann's (1944) study of the bereaved who lost a family member in the Coconut Grove Nightclub fire in Boston, and Marris' (1958) study of 72 London widows and their families. These studies have suggested that the normal grief reaction passes through three stages: a first stage of shock and disbelief in which the bereaved denies the reality of the death, a second stage of despondency and despair in which the bereaved feels intense pain, upset, and depression over the loss, and a

final recovery stage in which adjustment to the loss is made (Averill, 1968). Clayton (1973) argues that the psychological symptoms that clearly dominate the picture of bereavement constitute "a normal depressive reaction" to the loss of a spouse by death.

A number of studies have reported a significant increase in affective adjustment problems for widows during the first year of bereavement. Clayton and her colleagues have conducted a series of investigations on the widowed in St. Louis. In the first study (Clayton, Desmarais, & Winokur, 1968), more than half of the 40 relatives of recently deceased hospital patients reported the symptoms of depressed mood, sleep disturbance, and crying immediately after the loss. Over 80% of these relatives reported improvement in these symptoms at two to four months follow-up.

In a second study (Clayton, Halikas, & Maurice, 1971), 76 white widows and 33 white widowers reported similar symptoms immediately following the death of their spouses. They reported that 35% of these subjects manifested a depressive syndrome similar to that found in clinically depressed patients (Clayton, Halikas, & Maurice, 1972). In a 13 month follow-up of these subjects, Bornstein, Clayton, Halikas, Maurice & Robins (1973) found that 17%, as compared with 35% at one month, could be diagnosed as depressed. Furthermore, most of those who were depressed at 13 months had been depressed at one month. Clayton (1974) compared this sample with matched controls from the community who were married and found significantly more depressive symptoms for the bereaved than for the non-bereaved. Furthermore, the young bereaved had more physical symptoms and were hospitalized more often than the older widowed (Clayton, 1975).

Parkes (1972) has conducted a number of studies on bereavement adjustment in England and in the U.S. In reviewing the case notes of eight London general practitioners for consultations with 44 women two years before and 18 months after the deaths of their spouses, Parkes (1964a) found that their consultation rates increased significantly during bereavement. However, older widows requested consultations more for physical symptoms,

while younger widows requested consultations more for psychiatric symptoms. In another study, Parkes (1964b) found a greater than expected proportion of persons admitted to a psychiatric ward within six months of the death of a spouse. The majority of such patients were women over age 40 with a depressive reaction. Parkes (1965) studied 21 patients admitted to two hospitals following the death of a family member and found a host of presenting symptoms, including anxiety, depression, insomnia, guilt, and self-reproach.

Parkes (1970) followed-up 22 London widows under age 65 at one, three, six, nine, and thirteen months after the deaths of their spouses. The most frequently reported immediate reaction was a feeling of numbness followed by intense grief and distress. Seven of the widows were classified as being severely disturbed during the first week of bereavement, with all but two having significantly improved after 13 months. Ten of the widows were classified as being moderately disturbed during the first month of bereavement, while only five were so classified after 13 months. Thus, while most of the widows improved with the passage of time, six widows continued to have severe affective adjustment problems after 13 months. However, all subjects were referred by general practitioners, thus suggesting a biased sample of widows with poor health.

Parkes and Brown (1972) prospectively followed-up 49 widows and 19 widowers in Boston under age 45 and compared them with a matched group of married persons. Depression, disturbances of sleep, appetite, and weight were significantly more common among the bereaved than the non-bereaved during the first year. The bereaved also had more hospital admissions, consultations with mental health professionals or clergymen, and increased use of tranquilizers, alcohol, and tobacco than the non-bereaved during the first year of follow-up. Two to four years later, the depression of the bereaved had improved significantly.

In a retrospective study, Maddison and Viola (1968) compared 132 Boston widows and 243 widows from Sydney, Australia who had lost their

husbands between the ages of 45 and 60 with matched groups of married women. They found that 21% of the Boston widows and 32% of the Sydney widows had significant health problems 13 months after the deaths of their husbands, as compared to only 4.5% of the matched controls.

There are two controlled studies of the effects of crisis intervention on the psychosocial adjustment of the bereaved whose findings are pertinent here. Polak and his colleagues (Polak, Egan, & Vandenbergh, 1975; Williams, Lee, & Polak, 1976; Williams, Polak, & Vollman, 1972) studied the effects of recent sudden death on the crisis coping of families in Denver. In addition to a group who received crisis intervention, there was an untreated control group and a comparison group of non-bereaved families, all of whom were compared at six month follow-up. Most of the recently deceased were males whose spouses were predominantly white, lower class women in their 40's. Compared with the non-bereaved group, both the treated and untreated bereaved groups showed significantly more psychiatric symptomatology and depressed mood, reported more stress in coping with intrapersonal, family, and social problems, and had less income, missed more days of work, and reported more indirect economic losses.

A very similar design was used in a study of the effects of crisis intervention on bereavement adjustment by Gerber and his associates (Gerber, Wiener, Battin, & Arkin, 1975; Wiener, Gerber, Battin & Arkin, 1975). Treated and untreated bereaved groups and a comparison group of non-bereaved subjects were selected from families who received medical care from the Montefiore Hospital Medical group in New York City. The sample was predominantly composed of women over 60 years of age with middle to high SES standings. The results indicated that within the first 15 months of bereavement, the untreated bereaved visited their physicians significantly more often, took medications (e.g., tranquilizers and anti-depressants) more frequently, and reported more feelings of ill health than the non-bereaved.

In summary, research has clearly shown that the bereaved commonly experience feelings of depression, anxiety, and a host of psychosomatic symptoms immediately following the loss of spouse by death, but that these affective adjustment problems are considerably improved one year later. Much less is known about the long-term affective adjustment of widows. In the only long-term follow-up study of widowhood, Parkes and Brown (1972) found that widows did not differ significantly from matched controls after the second, third, and fourth years of bereavement on measures of depression and psychosomatic symptoms. These data suggest that the affective adjustment problems commonly reported in studies of the first year of bereavement may be transitory grief reactions. However, further research is needed to determine the replicability of these findings.

All of the controlled studies of widowhood have focused on emotional problems, neglecting the area of social relations. Glick, Weiss, and Parke's (1974) follow-up study of 49 widows two to four years after their husbands' deaths examined social readjustment patterns. Several distinct patterns of readjustment were found. Fourteen widows had either remarried or were actively moving toward remarriage. Twenty-seven widows appeared to be adopting the widow role with no intention of remarrying. This pattern varied from living relatively independently of adults, depending on kin, to non-maritally-oriented relationships with men. The remainder of the sample experienced severe long-term psychosocial adjustment problems. In a study of 300 widows in Chicago, Lopata (1973) found that widows initially experienced feelings of loneliness and isolation from friends, especially couples with whom they had socialized when their husbands were living. However, as time passed, these widows reported feeling more independent, competent, and socially active than before their husbands' deaths.

Walker, MacBride and Vachon (1977) have suggested that family and friends are initially very supportive and available following a spouse's death, but that these contacts rapidly decline as widows continue to mourn

their husbands' deaths. This may result both from the social withdrawal of widows who desire to be alone and from the discomfort married couples may feel when with widows. The results of Lopata's study suggest that the social readjustment of widows depends upon their income, education, and social relationships prior to loss. Controlled research is needed to clarify social readjustment patterns of widows following conjugal loss.

Predictors of adjustment during bereavement. A number of factors have been found to moderate the psychosocial adjustment to conjugal loss during the first year of bereavement. Several studies have shown that young widows adjust more poorly than older widows (Ball, 1977; Clayton, 1975; Maddison & Viola, 1968; Maddison & Walker, 1967; Parkes, 1964a). This appears to be the case particularly for young widows, those under age 45, whose husbands die suddenly and unexpectedly (Ball, 1977; Parkes, 1975 a & b; Polak et al., 1975). Parkes (1975b) has suggested that a lingering illness allows the bereaved to prepare for the loss, providing time to talk with the spouse about the possibility of his or her death and to make necessary financial and practical arrangements. Also, the death may also come as an emotional and financial relief in such cases. Sudden death, on the other hand, comes as a shock, allowing no time to prepare for the loss. Dichotomizing his sample of widows, Parkes found that 13% of the "short preparation" group as compared to 60% of the "long preparation" group were rated as having a good outcome after 13 months. These differences persisted two to four years later with 6% of the "short preparation" group as compared to 65% of the "long separation" group having good outcomes. Furthermore, none of the "short preparation" group had remarried, while 65% of the "long preparation" group had either remarried or were moving towards remarriage.

However, other studies have found that the duration of the spouse's illness prior to death to be unassociated (Clayton et al., 1973; Maddison & Walker, 1967) or positively associated (Gerber, Rusalem, Hannon, Battin, & Arkin, 1975; Schwab, Chalmers, Conroy, Farris & Markush, 1975) with

intense grief reactions. Vachon (1976) has reconciled this discrepancy by suggesting that lingering illness is associated with poor adjustment only for older widows (i.e., those over age 65), while sudden death is associated with poor adjustment for younger widows (i.e., those under age 45).

Several studies have shown that early negative reactions to spouse's death strongly predict later poor adjustment (Bornstein et al., 1973; Parkes, 1965, 1970, 1975a; Polak et al., 1975). Two studies (Parkes, 1975; Raphael, 1977) have supported Lindemann's (1944) early clinical observation that widows who have had an ambivalent marital relationship are at risk for pathological grief. Thus, Freud's (1917) hypothesis that introjection of ambivalent feelings about the lost spouse is associated with excessive guilt and "anger turned inward" may have some merit. However, the association between marital happiness prior to the spouse's death and emotional adjustment following the spouse's death is also consistent with social learning theorists' (Mischel, 1968) views that the best predictor of future behavior is past behavior in the same setting.

Finally, social and economic supports have been consistently related to good adjustment (Bornstein et al., 1973; Gerber et al., 1975; Lopata, 1973; Maddison & Walker, 1967; Parkes, 1975a; Polak et al., 1975). Maddison and Walker (1967) found that widows' perceived support from significant others to be the best predictor of psychosocial adjustment. Compared with widows who were well adjusted, widows who were poorly adjusted reported that significant others blocked expression of affect, did not allow for review of the past, did not provide for their needs, and oriented them towards the present and future significantly more frequently.

With one exception (Parkes, 1975a), all of these studies of factors predictive of good or poor adjustment following a spouse's death examined the role of each predictor one at a time, often without considering the magnitude of association between predictor and criterion variables. This leads to the possibility of spurious findings because of inflated Type I error rates resulting from multiple testing and because of trivial magnitudes of associ-

ation between the variables. Further research in this area needs to consider a wide array of predictor variables, using multiple regression analysis to determine those predictor variables most strongly associated with the criterion variables.

Divorcees

In reviewing the literature on the correlates of marital disruption, Bloom, Asher, and White (1978) found the marital statuses of separation and divorce to be positively associated with rates of psychiatric disorders, motor vehicle accidents, disease morbidity, suicide, homicide, and disease mortality. However, there are competing theoretical explanations of these relationships. In the case of spouse's death, one can attribute widows' reactive depression in controlled studies to the uncontrolled, externally imposed event of spouse's death with some confidence. In the case of divorce, on the other hand, one can argue that separation and divorce result from prior psychosocial problems of the marital partners, just as easily as one can argue that marital discord and separation precipitate psychosocial problems in the divorced. In this section, I will review studies dealing with the process and predictors of divorce adjustment.

Process of adjustment following divorce. In one of the classic studies of divorce adjustment, Goode (1956) studied 425 divorced women between the ages of 20 and 38 from Detroit. He found increases in affective adjustment problems in a substantial proportion of the sample during the separation process: 62% experienced difficulty sleeping; 67% reported increased loneliness and poor health; 43% reported reduced work efficiency; and many also reported increased drinking, smoking, and memory problems. Divorcees reported the greatest stress, in terms of these affective adjustment problems, at the time of separation, with their affective adjustment improving with the passage of time.

In another classic study, Locke (1951) compared a divorced group of 201 divorced couples and 123 divorcees without their ex-spouses with a

happily married group of 200 couples and four married couples without their mates. Locke incorporated a large number of items into a structured interview to develop a measure that would differentiate the divorced from the happily married. He found that the items that successfully differentiated the two groups clustered into the following categories: marital disagreements and conflicts, parental influences, sexual behavior, the desire to have children, personality differences and interests, and financial factors.

Weiss (1975) has recently provided a clinical description of approximately 150 separated or divorced men and women participating in seminars for the recently separated. While lacking in methodological rigor, this study deserves mention because it provides insight into the process of divorce adjustment. Weiss found that a strong recurrent theme in the maritally separated and divorced was the feeling that the decision to marry was a mistake. Even when positive feelings between couples had faded, they reported fears of and reluctance to separate because of strong emotional attachments and practical considerations. Those factors that the separated and divorced gave as reasons for the separation were similar to those identified by Locke (1951): incompatible personality characteristics, poor communication, infidelity, and psychosocial adjustment problems of the spouse.

Following separation, Weiss found a number of common problems that he termed "separation distress". These affective adjustment problems included: continuing preoccupation with the image of the ex-spouse with accompanying feelings vacillating from bitterness and a sense of betrayal to a desire for reunion, loss of self-esteem and feelings of failure, anxiety, difficulty sleeping, loss of appetite, memory problems, increased smoking and drinking, and feelings of loneliness. On the other hand, Weiss also found that many of the separated and divorced experienced feelings of euphoria and relief following the separation.

A number of recent studies of divorce adjustment have appeared that have included comparison groups. Blumenthal (1967) interviewed 50 divorcees

and 280 non-divorced persons and compared them on a variety of indices of psychosocial maladjustment, including: drinking problems, depression and suicidal behavior, treatment for psychiatric problems, and perceived "nervous breakdowns". Controlling SES through covariance analysis, Blumenthal found significantly more psychosocial adjustment problems for the divorced than the non-divorced. He argued that psychiatric problems precipitated divorce by citing the fact that 65% of the reasons for the divorce were suggestive of psychiatric problems. These reasons were primarily adultery, incompatibility, and drinking problems which could just as easily be interpreted as problems in living stemming from unhappy marriages.

Briscoe, Smith, Robins, Marten, and Gaskin (1973) compared 139 divorced persons one to two years after divorce with 61 married controls from the community. Structured interviews were used to elicit information pertinent to the diagnosis of psychiatric disorder. They judged that 75% of the divorced women compared to 20% of the married women had some type of psychiatric disorder. Of the divorced women, 40% were judged as having psychiatric depression and 11% were diagnosed as anti-social personality. Furthermore, divorced women were more likely to have sought psychiatric outpatient treatment than married women. From this data, the authors concluded that psychiatric disorder is a significant cause of marital breakdown. However, this conclusion is unwarranted because they presented no evidence to suggest that psychiatric disorder was present prior to marriage or divorce.

In a further report, Briscoe and Smith (1974) compared 40 divorced couples with 28 married couples from the original sample with respect to diagnosis of psychiatric disorder. They found that 92% of one or both partners in the divorced group compared to 43% of one or both partners in the married group had a psychiatric disorder. They also found that those in the married group who considered marital separation were judged as having a psychiatric disorder significantly more frequently than those who had not considered marital separation. There are two major methodological

problems that cast some question on the validity of the findings in these studies. First, the authors who made the psychiatric diagnoses were blind to neither the research hypotheses nor the marital statuses of the subjects. Secondly, the authors presented no evidence as to the reliability of their psychiatric diagnoses. Given the notorious unreliability of psychiatric diagnosis (Spitzer & Fleiss, 1974), their findings may provide more of an indication of the authors' pathology bias than of the psychosocial adjustment problems of divorcees.

In another study, Morrison (1974) compared the divorced and married parents of children seen at a psychiatric clinic with respect to psychiatric diagnoses. He found that divorced men, but not divorced women, were significantly more likely to be judged as psychiatrically disturbed than married men and women. Twice as many divorced women than married women were diagnosed as having an affective disorder or an "undiagnosed" disorder, but these differences were not statistically significant.

By far the most methodologically sophisticated and informative investigation of divorce adjustment is the recent study by Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1976, 1977). The authors compared divorced, mother-headed families with first and second-born children with a matched control group of intact families. The final sample consisted of 24 families with boys and 24 families with girls in each of the divorced and intact groups for a total of 96 families. Divorced and intact families were well matched with respect to number and ages of the children, parents' age, education, income, and length of marriage. Divorced families with step-parents were excluded. The sample was predominantly young, white, and upper middle class with respect to SES. The groups were studied prospectively with evaluations conducted at two months, one year, and two years following the divorce. A variety of measures were used to assess the psychosocial adjustment of all family members, including: interviews, structured diary records for the parents, personality scales for the parents, parent and teacher ratings of children's behavior, and observations of parent-child interactions in the home and in the laboratory.

For now, I will discuss only the results on the divorce adjustment of the women. In terms of practical problems, they found that the households of divorced men and women were initially more disorganized than those of intact families, but this improved significantly after two years. Divorcees also reported more economic stress with the burden of having to maintain two households, but this was unrelated to psychosocial adjustment problems.

The relationship between the divorced partners was a significant problem at two months, but improved with time. Roughly two-thirds of the contacts between divorced partners at two months involved conflict. Common sources of conflict concerned finances, child management and visitation issues, and other opposite sex relationships. In spite of bitter feelings, attachments to the ex-spouse remained strong initially. Even after one year, divorced partners experienced feelings of ambivalence and regret over the dissolution of the relationship, but these feelings had significantly abated after two years.

Divorcees reported significantly more affective adjustment problems than married persons. The divorced reported feelings of depression, anxiety, anger, rejection, and incompetence, and these problems were more sustained for women than for men. Social adjustment problems were prevalent for the divorced during the two year time period, especially for divorced women. Contacts with old married friends declined over time for both divorced men and women. While divorced men were involved in many social activities at one year, the social life of divorced women was very restricted at one year, with many women complaining that they felt "walled in" and "trapped" with their children.

In summary, following separation and divorce, women experience significant affective and social adjustment problems. Controlled research has shown that divorcees report feelings of anxiety, depression, anger, incompetence, loneliness, and other "psychiatric symptoms" significantly more frequently than married women. Marital tension heightens with the stress of separation, but this stress continues to be strongly felt even one

year after the divorce. Divorcees initially experience economic stress; they feel "cut off" in social relationships; their daily structure tends to be disorganized; and their overall social functioning is impaired. Divorcees with children feel the burden of having to provide and care for their children on their own, often with limited social and economic supports and few opportunities for social intercourse and self-development (Brandwein, Brown, & Fox, 1974; Rose & Price-Bonham, 1973). However, two years following divorce, the psychosocial adjustment of divorcees is significantly improved.

Furthermore, the relationship between divorce and psychosocial maladjustment appears to be interactional in nature. That is, research has suggested that psychosocial maladjustment can contribute to marital breakdown and the stress of marital discord and separation/divorce can lead to psychosocial maladjustment (Bowen & Gerritsen, Note 1; Smith, 1971). Further longitudinal research is needed to clarify the complex relationship between marital disruption and psychosocial maladjustment.

Predictors of adjustment following divorce. There has been little systematic research on the factors that moderate divorce adjustment. However, a few studies have suggested potential moderating factors. Long marriages and old age have been found to be associated with poor adjustment (Goode, 1956; Hetherington et al., 1977). Divorced women with two or more children (Goode, 1956) and women with boys (Hetherington et al., 1977) have been shown to be at risk for poor adjustment. On the other hand, social and economic supports have been shown to relate to positive adaptation to divorce (Goode, 1956; Weiss, 1975).

Relationship factors have also been shown to be associated with divorce adjustment. For example, Goode (1956) found that being ambivalent about the divorce, having the divorce imposed by the spouse, and having positive feelings about the spouse after the divorce figured in poor adjustment reactions. For unattached divorcees, Hetherington et al. found the current relationships with the ex-spouse to be the best predictor

of divorcees' psychosocial adjustment. Finally, Hetherington et al. found that developing a satisfying relationship with a member of the opposite sex was the most important factor in facilitating a healthy social and emotional adjustment to the crisis of divorce. In view of the dearth of research in this area, further studies are needed to determine the best predictors of divorce adjustment for women.

Summary

In summary, research has clearly shown that relative to married women, widows and divorcees experience significantly more affective and social adjustment problems during the first year following loss of spouse by death or divorce. Considerably less is known about the long-term psychosocial readjustment of widows and divorcees. The few long-term follow-up studies suggest that the psychosocial adjustment of widows and divorcees improves with the passage of time. Several moderating factors that either help or hinder long-term adjustment for widows and divorcees have been identified. Further longitudinal research is needed to help clarify if loss of husband by death or divorce precipitates only temporary stress reactions or more potential long-term readjustment problems and to help in determining the role of various moderating factors in positive and negative adjustment to the loss of a spouse.

In view of the previously mentioned differences between the crises of death and divorce, one might expect some unique reactions to these two different life crises. Only one study has compared adjustment during bereavement and divorce. Briscoe and Smith (1975) compared 22 bereaved depressives from Clayton's (1975) study with 43 divorced depressives from Briscoe et al.'s (1973) study, all of whom had been bereaved or divorced for less than two years. Only subjects who were diagnosed as psychiatrically depressed were studied. They found that divorced depressives experienced significantly more impaired thinking, suicidal thoughts, and irritability and received psychiatric services more frequently than bereaved depressives.

The results of this study suggest that divorcees have more psychosocial adjustment problems than widows. The specific nature of these differences appears to be in more angry feelings (i.e., suicidal thoughts and irritability) for divorcees. Given that many marital relationships that end in divorce are riddled with conflict and discord, one might expect divorcees to continue to be angry following divorce. Furthermore, the friction and resentment divorcees feel towards their ex-spouses may generalize to other relationships, particularly those with the opposite sex. Further research is needed to examine this hypothesis as well as other possible differences in adjustment reactions to loss of spouse by death or divorce.

PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT OF CHILDREN FROM FATHER-ABSENT FAMILIES

There has been a considerable amount of research on the social and emotional adjustment of children from father-absent families (Biller, 1974). Several studies have found that children from father-absent families, particularly boys, have disproportionately high rates of anti-social behavior and juvenile delinquency (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Gregory, 1965a; Rutter, 1971). However, much of the research in this area is fraught with methodological problems previously mentioned. In a comprehensive review of the literature, Herzog and Sudia (1973) carefully re-appraised the best controlled studies and concluded that the relationship between father absence and childhood behavior problems, particularly delinquency, was equivocal. In this section, I will review research that is pertinent to the short-term and long-term adjustment of children to loss of father by death or divorce.

Adjustment to Father Loss During Childhood

Children who lose father by death. There are an abundance of case studies describing children's reactions to the death of a parent (Arthur & Kemme, 1964; Bowlby, 1972; Furman, 1974; Kirkpatrick, Samuels, Jones, & Zweibelson, 1965; McConville, 1974; Miller, 1971; Schowalter, 1975). Bowlby (1972) has argued that children's reactions to separation from a parent pass through three stages: an initial stage of "protest" in which children cry and rebel, followed by a stage of "despair", in which they become depressed and withdrawn, and a final stage of "detachment", in which the children lose interest in their parents if they do not return. Silverman and Englander (1975) found that all of the 19 widows with dependent children that they studied reported that their children initially reacted to the news of father's death with disbelief and denial. Five children (9%), most of whom were boys, were reported as withdrawing and having school adjustment problems. Parkes (1975a) found that 85% of the widows in his sample who had young children reported that their children developed one

or more behavior problems within the first 8 weeks of bereavement.

Unfortunately, there have been only a few studies which have provided some controlled, objective data on the short-term effects of loss of a parent by death on children's adjustment. Caplan and Douglas (1969) compared 71 depressed and 185 non-depressed children seen at an outpatient psychiatric clinic in Montreal with respect to different types of parental loss. They found that significantly more of the depressed children (11.3%) than the non-depressed children (3.8%) had recently lost a parent by death. This finding was obtained for both boys and girls.

Tuckman and Regan (1966) studied 1767 children referred to outpatient psychiatric clinics in Philadelphia with respect to family status. They compared the types of referral problems for children whose parents were widowed, separated, divorced, unmarried, or married. They found that the children of the widowed had a significantly higher percentage of referral for anxiety and neurotic symptoms than the children from other family statuses. These differences were most pronounced for children ages 6 to 11, but they were not statistically significant when analyzed separately for boys and girls.

Similarly, in a study of referral patterns to a preventively-oriented school mental health program for primary graders, Felner, Stolberg, and Cowen (1975) found that children who had lost a parent by death were significantly more shy and anxious than matched controls from both married and separated/divorced families. Hetherington (1972) compared female adolescents from families in which the mothers were either widowed, divorced, or married. She found that the daughters of widows showed more inhibition, rigidity, avoidance, and restraint around males than the daughters of divorcees or married women.

In summary, the few controlled studies on children's bereavement reactions have shown that children who have lost a parent by death are significantly more shy, anxious, and depressed than children who have not suffered parental loss or children who have lost a parent by separation,

divorce, desertion, or other causes. This pattern of depression and withdrawal suggests that children grieve following the death of a parent. However, further longitudinal research is needed to determine how children's psychosocial adjustment to paternal death changes over time and whether or not children's age and sex qualify the relationship between paternal death and childhood depression (Brown, 1968, 1972).

Children who lose father by divorce. Several studies have documented the behavioral problems of children whose parents have divorced. Wallerstein and Kelly (1974, 1975, 1976, 1977; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1975, 1976, 1977) have presented the preliminary results of a five year longitudinal study on the effects of parental divorce on children. Sixty families with 131 children between the ages of two and 18 years from Marin County, California consented to an unsolicited six week crisis intervention program immediately following divorce. All children were drawn from a normal population, excluding children who were emotionally or intellectually deviant prior to divorce. The sample was predominantly young, white, and middle- to upper-class. Data covering a number of areas of psychosocial functioning were collected in clinical interviews, but objective measures were not used. Also, the authors did not study untreated divorced controls or a comparison group of intact families.

Thus far, one year follow-up data on 58 of these families have been reported. The majority of children of all age groups were reported as having significant psychosocial adjustment problems immediately following parental divorce. After one year, more than 50% of the children had improved, but the remainder of the children experienced sustained adjustment problems. Pre-school children did not appear to understand the divorce and many blamed themselves for their parents' separating. Pre-school girls had more problems at follow-up than pre-school boys, with many appearing to be anxious and dependent.

School-aged children experienced mixed feelings of sadness, anxiety, and anger. Many of these children had conflicts of divided loyalty, wished

for their parents to reconcile, and openly expressed anger towards their parents. Academic performance and peer relationships deteriorated for many of these children. Boys, in particular, missed their fathers and rebelled against their mothers for what they perceived to be mother driving father away. Increased irritability and aggressiveness and alignment with one parent against the other characterized the adjustment patterns of many of the school-aged children.

In the previously mentioned study by Caplan and Douglas (1969), significantly more of the depressed children (23.9%) than the non-depressed children (12.3%) seen at an outpatient psychiatric clinic had recently lost a parent by divorce, desertion, or illness. McDermott (1968) studied 16 nursery school children, 10 boys and six girls, whose parents were recently divorced. He found that 10 of the children (62%) showed acute behavioral problems following parental divorce. While no objective measures of children's behavior were used, McDermott felt that the majority of these children were sad and angry and that these upset feelings were primarily manifested in aggressive behavior, especially for the boys.

In a second study, McDermott (1970) compared 116 children whose parents were divorced with 1349 children from intact families, all of whom were seen at a children's psychiatric hospital. He found that the children of divorce showed significantly more anti-social behavior at home and at school, and that the appearance of such behavior was of shorter onset than the presenting problems for children from intact families. Again, McDermott felt that depression underlied this anti-social behavior in many cases, although depression was usually judged to "covert" or "hidden" and thus, inferred from the anti-social behavior.

Three controlled studies (Felner et al., 1975; Hetherington, 1972; Tuckman & Regan, 1966) previously mentioned in the discussion of children who lost a parent by death have also reported a relationship between parental divorce and anti-social behavior in children. Tuckman and Regan (1966) found that boys, but not girls, whose parents were separated or divorced

had significantly higher rates of referral for psychiatric treatment for aggression and anti-social behavior than children from all other family statuses. These differences were found only for school-aged children (ages 6 to 17).

Similarly, Felner, Stolberg, and Cowen (1975) found that of those primary grade children referred for psychological help, children whose parents were separated or divorced were rated by their teachers as displaying significantly more anti-social behavior at school than children whose parents were either married or widowed. Sex differences were not analyzed in this study. Hetherington (1972) found that the adolescent daughters of divorcees were similar to the adolescent daughters of widows in that they were anxious in their interactions with men. However, the daughters of divorcees coped with this anxiety through attention-seeking from males and early heterosexual behavior, whereas the daughters of widows were more shy and inhibited in their interactions with men.

In a study of 387 cases seen at the children's psychiatric service of the University of Michigan, Kalter (1977) compared the referral problems of boys and girls whose parents were either separated, divorced and not remarried, divorced and remarried, or married and never divorced. He found that children whose parents had separated or divorced, regardless of whether or not they had remarried, did not differ from one another with regard to referral problems. However, these children showed significantly more aggressive behavior towards their parents, drug involvement, and sexual behavior than children whose parents were married and never divorced.

Breaking down the analysis by age and sex, Kalter found that for boys between the ages of 7 and 11, those whose parents were divorced showed significantly more aggressive behavior towards parents and siblings than children whose parents were married and never divorced. Older boys whose parents were divorced or remarried showed significantly more aggression towards their parents and had significantly more conflicts with

the law than boys whose parents were married and never divorced. For girls age 12 years and older, those whose parents had divorced and remarried showed significantly more aggression towards their parents and peers, sexual behavior, and drug involvement than girls whose parents were married and never divorced. Similar differences between girls whose parents were divorced but who had remarried and girls whose parents were married and never divorced were found, but the sample size was too small in this case to detect statistically significant differences. Thus, important age and sex differences in the relationship between children's anti-social behavior and parental marital status were noted in this study.

The study by Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1977) on family adjustment to divorce also reported significantly more anti-social behavior for pre-school children whose parents were divorced than for pre-school children whose parents were married. These findings were most pronounced for boys whose parents were divorced, as they showed high rates of non-compliance to parental directions and aggressive behavior. While the children of divorced parents became less anti-social two years following divorce, they still remained significantly more anti-social than children whose parents were married after two years.

Only one study has failed to report significantly more anti-social behavior in children whose parents are divorced compared with children whose parents are married. Morrison (1974) compared 40 children whose parents were separated or divorced with 72 children from intact families, all of whom were seen at the children's psychiatric clinic of the University of Iowa. He found no statistical differences between these two groups of children on several psychiatric diagnostic ratings. Furthermore, contrary to McDermott's (1970) finding, he found no differences between the children of divorcees and the children of married couples with respect to the length of onset of the presenting problems.

Several studies have examined delinquency rates by specific types of parental absence from the family. These studies have consistently found

delinquency rates to be significantly higher for children from homes broken by parental separation or divorce, but only slightly and non-significantly higher in homes broken by parental death, compared to delinquency rates for children from intact families in which the parents are married and living together (Brown, 1966; Douglas, Ross, Hammond, & Mulligan, 1966; Gibson, 1969; Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Gregory, 1965a).

Since anti-social behavior appears to be associated with parental separation or divorce and not with parental death, it has been suggested that the tension and discord prior to the parental separation, not father absence per se, are the most important factors in the development of anti-social behavior for children (Rutter, 1971). In fact, several studies have shown that marital tension and discord and poor family climate are more strongly associated with anti-social behavior of children than father absence per se (Glueck & Glueck, 1962; McCord, McCord, & Thurber, 1962; Rutter, 1971). Rutter (1971) found that a combination of low parental warmth and high marital tension and discord was most strongly related to anti-social behavior in children. He also found that a significantly higher percentage of children who had a poor relationship with both parents displayed anti-social behavior than children who had a good relationship with one or both parents in families in which there was high marital tension and discord. Finally, Rutter found that the association between marital tension and discord and anti-social behavior of children was obtained for boys, but not for girls.

Jacobson (1978 a & b) studied 51 children, ages 3 to 17, from 30 families in which the parents had separated or divorced within the last year. She found that both loss of time with father and inter-parent hostility were strongly correlated with a variety of behavioral problems of the children. Also, these associations were strongest for children aged 7 to 13.

Several studies have shown marital tension and discord in intact families to be associated with anti-social behavior of children. In two different studies (Johnson & Lobitz, 1974; Oltmanns, Broderick, & O'Leary,

1977), marital adjustment was found to be negatively correlated with rates of anti-social behavior for children seen at psychological clinics. Furthermore, Oltmanns et al. also found that the parents of children seen at their clinic had significantly lower marital adjustment ratings than a comparison group of parents from the community. Finally, Nye (1957) found significantly higher rates of anti-social behavior for children from unhappy intact families than for children from homes in which the father was absent.

Further evidence that marital tension and discord, rather than father absence, are most strongly related to the development of anti-social behavior in children is provided in studies examining the influence of step-fathers and father substitutes on the conduct of children of divorce. Several studies have shown that the presence of a step-father or father substitute does not reduce the likelihood of anti-social behavior for the children of divorce (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Kalter, 1977; Kellam, Ensminger, & Turner, 1977; McCord, McCord, & Thurber, 1962). Rutter (1971) found that children whose parents had remarried and were again experiencing marital tension and discord had significantly higher rates of anti-social behavior than for children whose parents had experienced marital problems only once. However, there is, as yet, no data on how children's anti-social behavior changes if the parent remarries into a positive relationship.

Several other variables have been considered as important in explaining the relationship between parental separation/divorce and anti-social behavior of children. Parental maladjustment and the difficulties mothers have coping following divorce have been mentioned as factors that may lead to anti-social behavior of their children. Parental maladjustment, particularly as reflected in poor parenting behavior, will be discussed as a variable influencing children's anti-social behavior in a later section dealing with how family systems cope with parental separation/divorce. Finally, the low SES of many father-absent families may play a role in the development of anti-social behavior. Few of the studies in this area of

research have attempted to control families' SES. Thus, low SES either existing prior to or following parental separation/divorce needs to be examined more carefully in future research as a potentially relevant variable in the development of children's anti-social behavior.

In summary, the results of several controlled studies have clearly shown that children whose parents are separated or divorced show disproportionately high rates of anti-social behavior. This association appears to be most pronounced in school-aged boys, but there is some evidence that adolescent girls whose parents are divorced also show anti-social behavior. This sex difference is consistent with previous research demonstrating that boys generally display more anti-social behavior than girls (Quay, 1972). Several studies have suggested that the development of anti-social behavior for the children of divorce is related to the marital tension and discord of the parents. The only two prospective studies of children's adjustment to parental divorce (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1977; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976) have suggested that while the anti-social behavior of children improves with the passage of time, it nevertheless remains a problem for many children one to two years following divorce. Furthermore, longitudinal research is needed to clarify the long-term psychosocial adjustment of children to parental divorce. A final caveat is that much of the research in this area has been done on deviant samples (i.e., those referred for psychosocial treatment) and thus the conclusions of these studies may not be generalizable to the normal population of divorced families.

Adjustment to Father Loss During Adulthood

There is a large body of retrospective studies that have examined the psychosocial adjustment of adults who have lost a parent during childhood. Typically in this research, a group of psychiatric patients is compared with some type of control group with respect to various types of early parental loss. Unfortunately, the reason for parental loss and the sex of the parent lost is not examined in many of these studies. In view of these

and other methodological problems, several writers who have reviewed this literature have concluded that the relationship between early parental loss and neurosis and schizophrenia in adulthood is equivocal (Birtchnell, 1972; Gregory, 1958, 1965b, 1966; Oltmann & Friedman, 1965, 1966). On the other hand, several studies have shown that psychiatric patients who have attempted suicide have higher rates of early parental loss (with the cause of the loss unspecified) than community controls (Kettner, 1968) and non-suicidal psychiatric patients (Batchelor & Napier, 1953; Bruhn, 1962; Greer, 1964b; Walton, 1958). In this section, I will briefly review those retrospective studies dealing specifically with early paternal death and early parental separation/divorce in relationship to psychosocial adjustment during adult life.

Adults who lost father by death during childhood. In a previous review of this literature, Heinicke (1973) concluded that depressed patients, compared with normal community controls, experience a higher rate of early parental death before age 15; and that the severely depressed, compared with the mildly depressed, experience a higher rate of early parental death. However, focusing only on early paternal death, I found three studies that reported significantly higher rates of early paternal death for depressed patients compared with community controls (Birtchnell, 1972; Brown, 1961; Dennehey, 1966) and four studies reporting no significant differences in early paternal death between depressed patients and normal community controls (Brown, Harris, & Copeland, 1977; Hopkinson, & Reed, 1966) and general hospital patient controls (Abrahams & Whitlock, 1969; Munro, 1966). Thus, the relationship between early paternal death and depression in adulthood is not firmly supported by the research.

On the other hand, three studies have found higher rates of early paternal death in depressed psychiatric patients compared with non-depressed psychiatric patients (Beck, Sethi, & Tuthill, 1963; Gay & Tonge, 1967; Hill & Price, 1967), while two have reported no significant differences in comparing such groups regarding early paternal death (Birtchnell, 1970a; Munro & Griffiths, 1969). Furthermore, three studies have reported signi-

ficantly higher rates of early paternal death in the severely depressed compared with the mildly depressed (Beck, Sethi, & Tuthill, 1963; Brown, Harris & Copeland, 1977; Wilson, Alltop, & Buffaloe, 1967). Finally, several studies have found significantly higher rates of early parental death for suicidal psychiatric patients compared with non-suicidal psychiatric patients (Adam, 1973; Birtchnell, 1970b; Dorpat, Jackson, & Ripley, 1965; Gay & Tonge, 1967; Greer, 1966; Greer, Gunn, & Koller, 1966; Hill, 1969; Levi, Fales, Stein & Sharp, 1966). Two studies found no differences between suicide completers and controls with respect to rates of early paternal death (Bunch, Barraclough, Nelson, & Sainsbury, 1971; Flood & Seager, 1968), while one study reported such a difference (Paffenbarger & Asnes, 1965).

In summary, while there is no consistent evidence that early paternal death is associated with adult depression, there is some evidence that severe depression and suicidal behavior is associated with early paternal death as Heinicke (1973) concluded. However, it does not appear that this is a strong association, as the differences between groups of depressed patients and comparison groups were usually small. This brings into question the role of factors that may moderate this relationship. The role of the age and sex of the child at the time of paternal death cannot be adequately evaluated from the existing research. Furthermore, the many important factors that intervene between early paternal death and adjustment in adulthood have not been examined. Hilgard, Newman, and Fisk (1960) have suggested that a good relationship with the father prior to his death, a strong surviving mother, and social supports may facilitate positive adjustment to early paternal death. However, there is no evidence to support these assertions at this time. Controlled, prospective research is needed to determine if early paternal death leads to susceptibility to depression in later life and the factors that moderate this relationship (Birtchnell, 1969).

Adults who have experienced parental separation/divorce during childhood. The literature on the adult adjustment of those who experienced parental separation/divorce during childhood is much more clear than that on the adult adjustment of those who experienced paternal death during

childhood. Research has consistently shown that compared to normal community controls, adults who have been convicted of criminal offenses or who have been diagnosed as psychopathic have significantly higher rates of early parental separation or divorce (Greer, 1964a; Gregory, 1958; Oltman & Friedman, 1967; Oltman, McGarry, & Friedman, 1952; Markusen & Fulton, 1971), with only one study failing to support this conclusion (Bendiksen & Fulton, 1975). It is unclear from this research whether the adults who experienced parental separation or divorce lived with their mothers following marital breakdown. While the importance of the age of the children at parental separation/divorce cannot be determined from this research, most of the research has shown that the relationship between early parental separation/divorce and anti-social behavior in adulthood to be obtained most strongly for men.

Another consistent finding in this area is that psychiatric patients who have shown some type of suicidal behavior have significantly higher rates of early parental separation/divorce than psychiatric patients who have not shown suicidal behavior (Adam, 1973; Dorpat, Jackson, & Ripley, 1965; Greer, 1966; Koller & Castanos, 1968), with only one study failing to report this difference (Gay & Tonge, 1967). In summary, retrospective research has suggested that adults who have experienced early parental separation/divorce are at risk for anti-social and suicidal behavior. Since a myriad of variables intervene between early parental separation/divorce and adult adjustment and since most of those who experience early parental separation/divorce are <u>not</u> maladjusted in adult life, further research is needed to determine variables that moderate this relationship.

Summary

Research has suggested that children who lose father by death or divorce experience both short-term and long-term psychosocial adjustment problems. However, the crises of paternal death and parental separation/divorce appear to be differentially associated with maladaptive reaction

patterns. Children who lose father by death appear to be shy, anxious, and depressed initially and to be predisposed to severe depression and suicidal behavior in later life. On the other hand, children who lose father by separation or divorce show anti-social behavior in childhood and anti-social and suicidal behavior in adult life. Furthermore, the relationship between early paternal death and shy, anxious, and depressed behavior of children must be regarded as tentative at this time, while the literature strongly suggests that loss of father by separation or divorce is associated with anti-social behavior of children.

In reviewing this literature, however, it is evident that many of the studies suffer from methodological shortcomings. One problem is the lack of inclusion and control of variables that moderate the relationship between father loss and psychosocial maladjustment. In the case of parental separation/divorce, there is consistent evidence that family tension and discord, not father absence, are associated with anti-social behavior primarily for boys. In the case of paternal death, however, little is known about factors that moderate children's adjustment. A second problem is that many of the studies have examined deviant samples of children, thus limiting the generalizability of findings. Thirdly, there have been few controlled, prospective studies that allow for examination of changes in children's psychosocial adjustment over time. Finally, there is a strong pathology bias in the literature on the psychosocial adjustment of children from father-absent families. In view of the many social and economic problems faced by many mother-headed, single-parent families (Brandweir, Brown, & Fox, 1974; Ilgenfritz, 1961), it is important to bear in mind that the majority of children from such families do not show sustained adjustment problems. Thus, future research should heed these methodological concerns and balance its study of the problems of children from father-absent families with a focus on the strengths and possible growth experiences of fatherless children as well.

ADJUSTMENT OF FAMILY SYSTEMS TO FATHER LOSS BY DEATH OR DIVORCE

The term "family system" refers to the communication and interactions between family members. In the case of father-absent families in which the father has died, the family system is usually confined to mothers and their children. In the case of parental divorce, however, the family system also includes interactions between the mothers and children and the father who is no longer living with the family. In this section, I will review the literature on the adjustment of family systems to loss of father by death or divorce.

Families Who Have Lost Father by Death

There has been little systematic investigation of loss of father by death on family systems. In a case study, Becker and Margolin (1967) studied seven families with children under seven years of age within six months of a parental death. Six of the seven deaths were fathers. They found that parents hesitated to tell the children about the death and none of the parents allowed their children to attend the funeral. Parents avoided sharing their feelings about or discussing the death with their children. Thus, surviving parents tended to protect and insulate their children from the pain of the loss, promoting denial and avoidance about the parents' deaths.

In another case study, Silverman and Englander (1975) studied 52 women who were recently widowed with children under age 16. They too found that the widows avoided talking about the death and expressing their feelings of grief in front of the children. Most of the mothers felt that their children gave meaning to their lives at this time of crisis. Some of the widows had difficulties in understanding and managing their children, when the children became socially withdrawn and experienced school adjustment problems.

Parkes (1975a) found that children's behavior problems were significantly correlated ($r = .26$, $p < .05$) with poor adjustment of widowed mothers. However, he did not provide any data on the nature of mother-child interactions that may have contributed to these mutual adjustment problems. In a study of crisis intervention with bereaved families, Polak, Egan, Vandenbergh, and Williams (1975) found that families with good communication and problem-solving skills tended to adjust better to parental death than families lacking in these skills.

In a further report of this study, Vollman, Ganzert, Picher, and Williams (1971) argued that families who lost a member who played a key role in the family system experienced significant adjustment problems. Role reallocation was particularly difficult in cases in which the father had exclusively performed instrumental, task-oriented functions. As well, they felt that the loss of a family scapegoat who played a key role in family conflict resulted in an upset in family equilibrium.

In summary, few studies have provided any objective information on how family systems cope with the loss of father by death. The few available studies suggest that widows tend to protect and insulate their children from the pain of father's death. Furthermore, there is some suggestion that families with poor communication skills tend to adjust poorly to father's death. In a review of the literature on family interaction and children's psychosocial adjustment, Hetherington and Martin (1972) found that children who are shy and anxious tend to come from families in which the parents are anxious themselves and use a high degree of control, restriction, and overprotection in managing their children. This finding may have particular relevance in understanding the adjustment of family systems to loss of father by death. However, future research, using direct observation of family interaction, is needed to clarify how family interaction patterns relate to the adjustment of individual family members.

Families Who Have Lost Father by Divorce

Much has been written about the plight of children caught in the middle of the struggle between their divorced parents (Anthony, 1974; Despert, 1962; Roberts & Roberts, 1974). Sugar (1970) has discussed a number of complicating factors in the divorce situation for the family system, including: how to explain divorce to children, children's feelings of longing for the departed father and desire for parental reconciliation, parental conflicts regarding visitation, child management, and child support payments, loyalty conflicts in which the child feels torn between the two parents, and dating and remarriage of the parents. In this section, I will review research and theory regarding the adjustment of family systems to loss of father by divorce.

Westman and his colleagues (Cline & Westman, 1971; Westman, 1971,1972; Westman, Cline, Swift, & Kramer, 1970) have reported two studies on family problems following divorce. In the first study, 105 consecutive divorce cases involving children who were seen at a family court were examined. They found that 52% of these cases had hostile parental interactions following divorce which required court intervention, with 31% having more than one court intervention. They found that the events leading to court intervention could be broken down into several categories: conflicts regarding parenting, conflicts regarding financial support, the parents turning the children against one another, the children playing the parents against one another, and conflicts perpetuated by the extended family.

In the second study, Westman and his colleagues examined 23 consecutive cases of children whose parents were divorced and who were seen at a children's psychiatric clinic. In all of these cases, the parents had significant conflicts regarding finances and the children following divorce. They also found that many children felt responsible for their parents' divorces. The authors argued that the parental disputes on issues involving the children reinforced the feelings of the children that they were to blame for the situation.

Kelly and Wallerstein (1975, 1976) found that children whose parents had displayed relatively little conflict prior to divorce had considerable difficulty understanding the divorce and often felt responsible for the divorce. On the other hand, children in families with considerable conflict and fighting tended to be aggressive, but they were also able to find gratifications outside of home. Thus, the level of parental conflict may be differentially related to children's adjustment patterns.

At one-year follow-up, almost half of the fathers had developed better relationships with their children, while almost half of the mothers, most of whom had custody of the children, had developed more conflicted, unsatisfying relationships with their children. Furthermore, the deterioration in the quality of mother-child relationships following divorce was associated with psychosocial maladjustment of the children. Continued parental conflict was also related to poor adjustment for the children.

Within the first year following divorce, the more mothers communicated with their children about the divorce, the better adjusted were the children in Jacobson's study (1978c). Children who brought problems to their mothers and who had mothers who spent some time explaining divorce to them were the best adjusted. Furthermore, the longer children knew about their parents' marital difficulties, the better adjusted were the children.

By far the most exemplary study of interaction patterns of families in which the parents have divorced is that by Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1977). Using direct observation of family interaction, the authors found significant problems in parent-child interactions during the first year of divorce compared with a matched control group of intact families. However, after two years, interaction patterns between divorced parents and their children had improved considerably.

Compared to married parents, divorced parents made fewer maturity demands of and were less affectionate and consistent with their children one year after divorce. The children of divorced parents, particularly boys, were also less compliant to their parents than the children from intact

families. Divorced mothers and fathers differed significantly in their methods of managing their children. Divorced mothers tended to be restrictive, as reflected in their frequent use of negative commands and sanctions, while divorced fathers tended to be permissive, using fewer commands and more positive sanctions, in the management of their children. These findings are consistent with Wallerstein and Kelly's (1976) observations that divorced fathers tend to indulge their children during visits, while divorced mothers suffer the brunt of the conflict with their children from day-to-day.

The most significant interactional problems were observed between divorced mothers and their sons. Divorced mothers communicated less well with, were less consistent with, and used more negative commands and sanctions and fewer positive commands and sanctions with their sons than with their daughters. However, boys whose parents had divorced showed high rates of non-compliance and other aversive behaviors in interactions with their mothers. On the other hand, girls whose parents had divorced tended to be more whiny, complaining, and dependent. Problems in family interaction were significantly correlated both with rates of deviant child behaviors and with mothers' feelings of self-esteem, competence, anxiety, and depression. Hetherington et al. argued that the relationship between divorced mothers' psychosocial adjustment and that of their children is bi-directional in nature. That is, the dysfunctional interaction patterns appeared to be reciprocally maintained by divorced mothers and their children.

The authors reported two factors that were associated with mother-child interaction patterns in divorced families. First, an amicable relationship with the ex-husband, as reflected in agreement on child management, little conflict between the divorced partners, maturity of the father and mother, and frequent contact between mature fathers and their children, was found to be most strongly associated with positive mother-child interactions. Secondly, the positive support provided by relationships with close friends,

relatives, and intimate boyfriends was also associated with good mother-child relationships in this study.

Several other studies have also found the quality of parent-child relationships to be important in the development of anti-social behavior for children whose parents are divorced (Glueck & Glueck, 1962; McCord, McCord, & Thurber, 1962; Rutter, 1971). In their review of the literature on family interaction patterns and anti-social behavior of children, Hetherington and Martin (1972) concluded that extreme parental permissiveness or restrictiveness, hostility and rejection, the use of physical punishment, and inconsistency are all related to anti-social behavior of children. Thus, anti-social behavior for children whose parents are divorced may be rooted in family conflict and maladaptive parent-child interactions.

Patterson (1976) has proposed a social learning view of the development and maintenance of anti-social behavior of children which appears to be particularly applicable to the situation of families in which the parents have divorced with its emphasis on the role of the family system. According to this view, children from conflict-ridden families learn to be anti-social in their relations with others by modeling the maladaptive interactions of their parents. The anti-social behavior of children is reinforced by the parents in disturbed family systems. Patterson has used the term "coercive interactions" to describe and to explain the manner in which anti-social behaviors of children and maladaptive parent management styles are mutually reinforced and, hence, maintained in dysfunctional family interaction patterns.

In "coercive interactions," one party terminates the aversive behavior of the other through the use of aversive behavior. Thus, the aversive behavior of each party is reinforced by the termination of aversive behavior in the other. Positive behaviors, on the other hand, are mutually ignored in such interactions and thus remain at a low frequency of occurrence because they are not reinforced. The results of the Hetherington et al. study, using the family interaction coding system developed by Patterson,

support this social learning view of "coercive interactions" in divorced families.

In his pioneering research, Patterson (1974 a & b) has found that behavior modification techniques can be successfully used to "reprogram the social environment" of disturbed families. In this approach, parents, many of whom were divorced mothers in Patterson's research, are trained in the use of behavioral child management techniques. Controlled research has shown that the systematic application of positive reinforcement for desirable social behavior and aversive contingencies (e.g., time-out, response cost, ignoring) for undesirable social behavior is effective in improving the social behavior of children who display serious anti-social behavior.

Tooley (1976) has presented a psychoanalytic formulation of the anti-social behavior of boys whose parents are divorced that considers the dynamics of the family system. According to this view, parental conflict culminating in the departure of the father from the family is a stressor that arouses the anxiety of boys. Perceiving the world as hostile and themselves as vulnerable, boys use aggressive behavior as a defense mechanism in an attempt to control an unpredictable environment and their own feelings of insecurity. Mothers' adjustment problems following divorce and their difficulties in controlling their children tend to confirm boys' upset and their perceived needs to defend themselves.

When divorce occurs during the oedipal stage of development, boys assume the posture of "man of the house," according to Tooley. Boys at this stage fail to develop internalized superego controls because of a lack of fear of retaliation from father and the lack of a father figure with which to identify. Thus, boys externalize sexual and aggressive impulses. However, Roberts and Roberts (1974) argue that the costs far outweigh the gains in this "oedipal victory," because boys emerge with feelings of fear and arrested personality development which will lead to future conflict with authority figures, the law and societal norms and expectations.

Tooley suggests that therapeutic interventions with single-parent mothers of aggressive boys should focus on supporting the mother and helping her to develop feelings of strength and competence. Supporting mothers should help them to better control their children, which will in turn reduce children's anxiety and aggressive behavior. While this psychoanalytic view is generally similar to Patterson's social learning view in its emphasis on family dynamics and in its therapeutic implications, it lacks the parsimony, specificity, and supporting empirical data base of Patterson's formulation.

Summary

The research and theory reviewed in this section underscore the importance of family interactions in the development and maintenance of adjustment problems of parents and children following paternal death and parental divorce. In the case of paternal death, several studies have found that widows avoid explaining or discussing father's death with their children. While some writers (e.g., Grollman, 1967) have suggested that it is important for parents to discuss the death of a family member with their children to help them to resolve their grief over the loss, there has been no research on this matter to date. Thus, further research is needed to determine how the communication and interaction patterns between widows and their children relate to the adjustment of individual family members.

In the case of divorce, research has clearly shown that conflict prior to and following parental separation and divorce is significantly related to "coercive interactions" between divorced mothers and their children. Adjustment problems and dysfunctional child management styles of divorced mothers and anti-social behavior of their children, particularly boys, appear to be reciprocally maintained through maladaptive interaction patterns. Finally, the adjustment of family systems to parental divorce appears to improve with the passage of time.

PROSPECTS FOR PREVENTIVE INTERVENTIONS

Since father loss by death or divorce is a stressor that is associated with psychosocial adjustment problems for women and children, there have been a variety of attempts at preventive intervention with these "high risk" groups. The rationale of such programs is that early identification and intervention may help to reduce the negative impact of these life crises on the affected family members (B.S. Dohrenwend, 1978). Thus, rather than waiting for individuals to seek help for problems that have become firmly entrenched, several different types of programs have been developed to reach out and prevent potentially long-term adjustment problems for entire populations of widows, divorcees, and their children.

Interventions with Widows and their Children

Traditionally, widows seek the support of family, friends, and clergymen during the crisis of bereavement. While family and friends are initially very supportive, they tend to withdraw as widows begin the long process of grief work (Walker, MacBride & Vachon, 1977). Beginning with Silverman's (1967, 1969) pioneering program, several services for the recently widowed have been developed which use women who have been widowed for several years and who have adjusted to their husband's deaths as helpers. Such programs capitalize on a readily available and plentiful source of natural helpers who can identify with and understand the grief of the recently widowed.

The focus of these programs is to provide help in an informal manner, relying primarily on the supportive friendships offered by the helping widows. One of the major roles of the helping widows is that of a good listener with whom the recently widowed can talk and openly grieve. Helping widows also provide practical assistance with child care, job hunting, and social activities in helping widows to readjust to the loss and to establish new patterns of living. Consumer evaluations of these programs have been uniformly positive, especially as reflected in rates of acceptance of service

greater than 50% (Barrett, 1978; DeGreaves, 1977; Gerber, 1969; McCourt, Barnett, Brennen, & Becker, 1976).

There has been only one controlled evaluation of the effects of various types of widows' groups on the psychosocial adjustment of widows. In this study (Barrett, 1978), 70 women who had been widowed for almost five years on the average, were randomly assigned to one of the following group treatments: a self-help group, a confidant group, a women's consciousness-raising group, or a waiting list control group. Group sessions were held for 7 weeks and were led by female doctoral students in clinical psychology. In the self-help and confidant groups, the leader's role was to facilitate discussion, with an emphasis on group discussion in the former and discussion between pairs of widows in the latter. The consciousness-raising groups were more structured with the group leaders covering several different topics of relevance to widows as women.

The results of this study showed that all of the experimental groups and the control group improved on several questionnaire measures of psychosocial adjustment immediately following the program and at 14-week follow-up. Women in the experimental groups had significantly higher ratings of future health than women in the control group. The highest consumer satisfaction ratings were obtained for the structured consciousness-raising groups.

While the majority of widows do not seek the services of mental health professionals following the death of their husbands (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978; Clayton, 1974), a minority of widows experience severe psychosocial adjustment problems for which they seek professional help. A few intervention programs conducted by mental health professionals have been aimed at widows who are "at risk" for severe adjustment problems. In a controlled study, Polak and his associates (Polak, Egan, Vandenbergh, & Williams, 1975; Williams, Lee, & Polak, 1976) provided short-term crisis intervention to families who had recently experienced a sudden death in the family. Treatment was conducted by a team of mental health professionals and

focused on the adjustment of the family system to the loss. The authors found few differences between the treated and untreated bereaved groups at 6-month follow-up. The only significant differences favoring the treated bereaved group were that they made significantly more spontaneous agreements and were more democratic in representing individual family members needs than untreated bereaved families. The authors explained that their failure to find differences between the treated and untreated groups may have been due to the fact that the groups were not well matched prior to the intervention. The treated group had more families with suicidal and accidental deaths and thus may have been initially more maladjusted than families in the untreated group.

In a study by Gerber, Wiener, Battin, and Arkin (1975), recently bereaved spouses who were members of a pre-paid medical plan were randomly assigned to a crisis intervention group and a no treatment control group. Treatment was conducted by social workers and focused on the resolution of grief work. The results indicated that within the first 15 months of bereavement, the untreated bereaved visited their physicians significantly more often, took medications (e.g., tranquilizers and antidepressants) more frequently, and reported more ill health than the treated bereaved. Thus, crisis intervention had beneficial outcomes in this study.

A final controlled intervention study for the bereaved is that by Raphael (1977). She identified widows "at risk" for severe psychosocial maladjustment from the population of recent widows. All widows were interviewed immediately following their husbands' deaths on a variety of factors felt to be predictive of poor adjustment, including: a lack of social support, traumatic circumstances of the death, a previously highly ambivalent marital relationship, and other life crises. "High risk" widows were selected and randomly assigned to treated and untreated groups. All interventions were conducted by the author within the first three months of bereavement. Treatment was non-directive in nature with a focus on grief work and the expression of affect regarding the deceased spouse. The

treated and untreated groups, which were well-matched on a number of variables, were compared on a self-report measure of health 13 months after their husbands' deaths. The results indicated that the treated group had significantly better adjustment on several aspects of physical and emotional health than the untreated group. Furthermore, those treated widows who had accomplished a significant degree of grief work during treatment had better outcomes than those treated widows who had accomplished less grief work during treatment.

In summary, the results of several controlled studies of preventive intervention programs for recently bereaved widows have supported the efficacy of non-professional helping widows and mental health professionals in facilitating positive bereavement adjustment. In view of the demonstrated equality and often times superiority of non-professional helpers compared with professional helpers in several areas of mental health intervention (Durlak, 1979), future research on the process and outcome of preventive interventions for the bereaved should examine the relative efficacy of non-professional helping widows and mental health professionals.

Disappointingly, there have been no programs aimed specifically at the bereavement adjustment of children. While some authors have described how widows can be helped to explain and discuss father's death with children (Silverman & Englander, 1975), there has been no research on preventive interventions with bereaved children. Thus, further research and program development is clearly needed on preventive interventions with bereaved children.

Interventions with Divorcees and their Children

In the case of marital breakdown, there are several conceivable points in time at which preventive interventions can be initiated. The least frequently considered time for intervention is also that which provides the greatest opportunity for potential long-range benefits: prior to the development of marital discord. In a longitudinal study of couples planning to

marry, Markman (Note 2) found that a lack of communication and problem-solving skills was predictive of later relationship problems. In view of these findings, Markman has developed a pilot program for the primary prevention of marital discord. In this program, behavioral techniques are employed to teach various communication and problem-solving skills to couples who are "at risk" for marital problems. Evaluation of the effects of this program is currently in progress.

Many couples seek help for problems arising during their marriages. Recent research has indicated the beneficial effects of marital and family therapy (Gurman & Kniskern, 1978; Paquin, 1977), particularly for behaviorally-oriented therapy (Jacobson & Martin, 1976). However, few studies have examined the long-term effects of marital and family therapy, with no studies indicating that marital separation and divorce can be prevented. Furthermore, there is much controversy but little research dealing with the issue of when an amicable separation, as opposed to reconciliation, should be the therapeutic goal.

A large percentage of divorcees seek the help of mental health professionals (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978). In the past few years, a variety of programs for the recently divorced have been developed (Fisher, 1973; Sheffner & Suarez, 1975; Welch & Granvold, 1977). These programs are educational and therapeutic in nature, are often conducted on a group basis, and typically cover the topics of legal and financial issues, parenting and child care, and psychosocial adjustment to divorce.

Unfortunately, there has been only one controlled evaluation of divorce adjustment groups thus far. In this study (Kessler, 1978), recently divorced persons were randomly assigned to either a structured group, an unstructured group, or a control group. Group leaders for the unstructured group used a non-directive style to facilitate group discussion and to promote group cohesion. Leaders for the structured groups were more directive and focused on assertiveness and social skills training for specific problematic situations for divorced persons. The results showed that

after 8 weeks of intervention, those who had participated in the divorce adjustment groups reported significantly higher self-esteem than those in the control group. Furthermore, divorced persons in the structured group reported significantly higher self-esteem and consumer satisfaction with treatment than divorced persons in the unstructured group.

Kelly and Wallerstein (1977; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1977) have described a short-term crisis intervention program for families with dependent children in which the parents have recently divorced. In this program, mental health professionals helped the entire family system to deal with divorce. Interventions varied according to the specific needs of individual families, focusing on relationship problems between the divorced partners, individual problems of divorcees, parenting problems, and the problems of children. While the authors felt that their intervention was successful for many of the school-aged children, no data were presented to support this assertion.

Summary

A variety of short-term preventive intervention programs have been developed for the recently widowed and divorced. Controlled research has demonstrated the beneficial effects of such programs for widows, but there has been almost no evaluative research on the effects of such programs for divorcees. Thus, further research is needed in this area, particularly dealing with the key therapeutic ingredients of such programs. One final neglected area in need of research and program development is that of the adjustment of children who have recently lost a parent through death or divorce. Several writers (e.g., Grollman, 1967, 1969) have discussed ways in which parents can help their children deal with loss, but there have been almost no programs geared specifically to the needs of the children of widows and divorcees. In view of the potential adjustment problems for these children, research on preventive interventions for children following the loss of a parent is sorely needed.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, there is a good deal of research indicating that women, children, and family systems experience short-term psychosocial adjustment problems following the loss of father by death or divorce. Emotional upset of women and children appears to be associated with either type of separation experience. However, the type of father loss may be differentially associated with social adjustment patterns for women and their children. Women and children who have lost father by death tend to be withdrawn, anxious, and depressed, while women and children who have lost father by divorce tend to be angry and anti-social. There is some evidence suggesting that these different types of maladaptive styles of coping are rooted in family interaction patterns prior to and following the loss of father. In the case of divorce, there is clear and consistent evidence that the anti-social behavior of boys is related to marital tension and discord. In view of the fact that early paternal death is more rare of an event than early parental divorce, there is considerably less literature and, hence, less information on the adjustment of bereaved children.

Much of the literature on the psychosocial adjustment of women and children from father-absent families follows a pathology model in its focus on the problems of such families. The pathology orientation of this research is related to the fact that many of the investigations in this area have examined deviant samples of women and children (i.e., those undergoing psychiatric treatment). Furthermore, cross-sectional research on the short-term adjustment problems of women and children following father loss has added to the pathology focus. The two-parent family has long been cherished as one of the backbones of the social and moral fibre of North American society. Thus, the rising incidence of the socially deviant father-absent family is a change that may be viewed as threatening to the status quo and as requiring condemnation as pathological.

Rather than condemning or condoning the rise in father-absent families, one can alternatively conceptualize the losses of father by death or divorce as life crises that require change and a process of readjustment with both positive and negative aspects for all members. The psychosocial adjustment of women and their children from father-absent families is viewed in the context of their social situation, according to this perspective. Blechman and Manning (1976) have presented a social learning analysis of single-parent families, arguing that the status of becoming a single-parent family is associated with decreased social rewards and increased social costs.

From this perspective, the psychosocial adjustment problems of widows, divorcees, and their children are a reflection of the special problems of their new social situation. First of all, women and children must disengage themselves emotionally from previously strong attachments to another person. During this time of separation anxiety and stress, the family is downwardly economically mobile and must realign family roles. Women must often assume the dual roles of sole parent and provider. The many women who previously played emotionally expressive, nurturing roles in the family must now learn to assert themselves as an authority figure in interactions with their upset children and in their interactions in a male-dominated society. Having to assume multiple role functions means that the single-parent mother has less time for herself and, thus, that she and her family will become more socially isolated. Being from a father-absent family may be a social stigma and relationships with old friends may fade.

On the other hand, the loss of father by death or divorce also presents opportunities for positive, growth experiences for women and their children. The loss of a close, emotional relationship forces one to re-examine one's priorities in life and thus may lead to a new direction and sense of identity. Becoming the sole parent and sharing the loss with children may initially present problems, but it may also eventually lead to closer mother-child relationships. Finally, both women and children from father-absent families must become more independent and assume more responsibility

for tasks previously performed by father. Thus, women and their children may learn new social skills and competencies following the loss of father by death or divorce.

Future research is needed then to examine both the positive and negative life changes experienced by women and children following loss of father by death or divorce. Studies using longitudinal designs will allow for a focus on the processes of change in the family system, as well as examining the short-term and long-term outcomes of father loss. Finally, factors that moderate either positive or negative adjustment of families to the crises of father loss by death or divorce should be examined in future research. Hopefully, research will clarify the assets and liabilities of father-absent families and stimulate the development of social and institutional supports that improve the quality of life of father-absent families.

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APPENDIX B

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

WINNIPEG, CANADA
R3T 2N2

Dear Mrs.

With the support of the Widows' Consultation Service of the YWCA and the University of Manitoba, I am conducting a research project for my doctoral degree under the direction of Dr. James Nickels, Department of Psychology, University of Manitoba. The project is concerned with the satisfactions, dissatisfactions, and social participation of women and their children from families in which the father is present or absent due to either death or divorce. This study should provide valuable information which will help us to better determine the concerns of mothers and their children.

Your name was selected from the obituaries of the Winnipeg newspapers, graciously provided by the Widows' Consultation Service. All widows with children whose husbands were 45 years old or younger at the time of their death and who lost their husbands between May 1, 1976 and January 31, 1978 are being contacted.

If you are interested in learning more about the study and possibly participating in it, I would appreciate your taking a few minutes to answer the questions on the enclosed form, including the identifying information (name, address, and phone number). I hope that everyone who is interested in participating will have the opportunity to do so, but if there are a large number of people who are interested, this may not be possible. If you are selected, I will be phoning you within the month to explain more about the study and to see if you are interested in participating. All people who fill out the form with the identifying information will be sent a summary of the results when the study is completed. If you are not selected, I will send you a letter explaining more about the study within the month. Even if you are not interested in learning more about the study, you can still greatly help me by answering the questions on the enclosed form, excluding any identifying information.

Please place the completed questionnaire in the enclosed, self-addressed stamped envelope and mail it to me as soon as possible. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at home at 284-2332 after 6 p.m.. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Geoffrey Nelson, M.A.
Department of Psychology
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba R3T 2N2

APPENDIX C

1. Was your marriage to your deceased husband your first marriage?
   Yes _____ No _____

2. Have you remarried? Yes _____ No _____

3. Please indicate the age(s) and sex of your child(ren).

Age	Sex
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

   Are any of your children adopted?
   Yes _____ No _____

4. What is your current working status?
   full time ____ part time _____ full time housewife _____ student _____

5. What is your age? _____

6. What is the highest level of education you have attained?
   _____ University training
   _____ High school graduate or some high school
   _____ Grade school and/or junior high school

7. What was the cause of your husband's death?
   _____

8. Are you interested in learning more about the study? Yes _____ No _____

   If you answered Yes, please answer the next three questions.
   If you answered No, you may skip the next three questions.

9. Name _____

10. Address _____

11. Phone number _____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!

Please place the completed form in the enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope and mail it to me as soon as possible.

APPENDIX D

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

WINNIPEG, CANADA
R3T 2N2

Dear Mrs.

With the support of the University of Manitoba, I am conducting a research project for my doctoral degree under the direction of Dr. James Nickels, Department of Psychology, University of Manitoba. The project is concerned with the satisfactions, dissatisfactions, and social participation of women and their children from families in which the father is present or absent due to either death or divorce. This study should provide valuable information which will help us to better determine the concerns of mothers and their children.

Your name was selected from the legal records of the Manitoba Court of Queen's Bench. All women with children in the age range of 4 to 15 years old who were divorced between February 1, 1977 and April 30, 1978 are being contacted.

If you are interested in learning more about the study and possibly participating in it, I would appreciate your taking a few minutes to answer the questions on the enclosed form, including the identifying information (name, address, and phone number). I hope that everyone who is interested in participating will have the opportunity to do so, but if there are a large number of people who are interested, this may not be possible. If you are selected, I will be phoning you within the month to explain more about the study and to see if you are interested in participating. All people who fill out the form with the identifying information will be sent a summary of the results when the study is completed. If you are not selected, I will send you a letter explaining more about the study within the month. Even if you are not interested in learning more about the study, you can still greatly help me by answering the questions on the enclosed form, excluding any identifying information.

Please place the completed questionnaire in the enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope and mail it to me as soon as possible. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at home at 284-2332 after 6 p.m. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Geoffrey Nelson, M.A.
Department of Psychology
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3T 2N2

APPENDIX E

1. Was your marriage to your divorced husband your first?
   Yes _____ No _____

2. Have you remarried? Yes _____ NO _____

3. Please indicate the age(s) and sex of your child(ren).

Age	Sex
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

   Are any of your children adopted?
   Yes _____ No _____

4. What is your current working status?
   full time _____ part time ____ full time housewife ____ student _____

5. What is your age? _____

6. What is the highest level of education you have attained?
   _____ University training
   _____ High school graduate or some high school
   _____ Grade school and/or junior high school

7. When did you permanently cease to live with your ex-husband?
   _____

8. I am interested in learning more about the study. Yes _____ No _____

   If you answered Yes, please answer the next three questions.
   If you answered No, you may skip the next three questions.

9. Name _____

10. Address _____

11. Phone number _____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!!

Please place the completed form in the enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope and mail it to me as soon as possible.

APPENDIX F

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

WINNIPEG, CANADA
R3T 2N2

Dear Parents:

With the support of your local school division and the University of Manitoba, I am conducting a research project for my doctoral degree under the direction of Dr. James Nickels, Department of Psychology, University of Manitoba. The project is concerned with the satisfactions, dissatisfactions, and social participation of women and their children from families in which the father is present or absent due to either death or divorce. This study should provide valuable information which will help us to better determine the concerns of mothers and their children.

Your child was randomly selected to carry home this letter to you. That is, roughly every third name on the school roster was chosen and that child was given a letter to take home to his parents. Having already obtained widowed and divorced women with children to participate in the study, I am particularly interested in finding married women who are interested in learning more about the study.

In any event, if you are interested in learning more about the study and possibly participating in it, I would appreciate your taking a few minutes to answer the questions on the enclosed form, including the identifying information (name, address, and phone number). I hope that everyone who is interested in participating will have the opportunity to do so, but if there are a large number of people who are interested, this may not be possible. If you are selected, I will be phoning you within the month to explain more about the study and to see if you are interested in participating. All people who fill out the form with the identifying information will be sent a summary of the results when the study is completed. If you are not selected, I will send you a letter explaining more about the study within the month. Even if you are not interested in learning more about the study, you can still greatly help me by answering the questions on the enclosed form, excluding any identifying information.

Please place the completed questionnaire in the enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope and mail it to me as soon as possible. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at home at 284-2332 after 6 p.m. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Geoffrey Nelson, M.A.
Department of Psychology
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba R3T 2N2

APPENDIX G

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

(These questions are to be answered by the child's mother)

1. What is your marital status?
   Married _____ Widowed _____ Separated or Divorced _____

2. If you are married, is this your first marriage? Yes _____ No _____

3. Please indicate the sex and age(s) of your child(ren).

Age	Sex
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

   Are any of your children adopted?
   Yes _____ No _____

4. What is your current working status?
   full time _____ part time _____ full time housewife _____ student _____

5. What is your age? _____

6. What is the highest level of education you have attained?
   _____ University training
   _____ High school graduate or some high school
   _____ Grade school and/or junior high school

7. Are you interested in learning more about the study? Yes ____ No _____

   If you answered Yes, please answer the next three questions.
   If you answered No, you may skip the next three questions.

8. Name _____

9. Address _____

10. Phone number _____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!!

Please place the completed form in the enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope and mail it to me as soon as possible.

APPENDIX H

Outline of Telephone Interview

May I speak with Mrs. _____, please. Hello, Mrs. _____, my name is Geoff Nelson and I am with the Department of Psychology at the University of Manitoba. A couple of weeks ago you filled out a questionnaire I sent you about the study I am doing for my doctoral degree. Do you remember this? Thank you very much for sending me that information.

At that time, you indicated an interest in learning more about the study. Are you still interested? Good. If you have a few minutes now, I would like to tell you more about the study. What I am interested in studying is mothers and their children from single-parent and two-parent families. The single-parent families will be ones where the mother has been recently widowed or divorced. I will be focusing on the personal satisfactions and dissatisfactions and various aspects of the lifestyle of both the mothers and their children. Hopefully, this study will provide valuable information on the concerns young mothers have raising children from these different family backgrounds. Would you be interested in taking about an hour of your time to participate in an interview for this study? Good.

Let me just check a few things. Is there anyone living with you now besides (your husband and) your children? (Does your husband work in Winnipeg?) Good. Let me just check to see that I have the correct address for you. Do you live at _____?

Let me explain to you a few more details about the study. The study will consist of one interview which can be done in your home sometime during the evening. You will be interviewed and then you and your children will be asked to fill out a few brief questionnaires. All of the information we collect will be kept strictly confidential and I will send you a summary of the results of the study when it is completed.

Your children must be present for part of the appointment. When would be a convenient time for you? Do you have a paper and pencil handy? You will be

interviewed by _____. My telephone number is 284-2332 in case you need to reach me before the appointment and my name again is Geoff Nelson. Any questions? Thank you very much.

Note. - All parenthesized remarks were directed to married women only.

APPENDIX I

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

WINNIPEG, CANADA
R3T 2N2

Dear

A few weeks ago, you filled out a questionnaire I sent you about a study I am doing for my doctoral degree. Thank you very much for your response. There were many people who were interested in the study, and I have selected a smaller number to interview for the study. While you were not among those selected, I would like to thank you for your interest. However, I would like to explain to you more about the study at this time.

I am interested in studying some of the personal feelings and satisfactions and some aspects of the social life of women and their children from single-parent and two parent families. The single-parent families I am studying are families in which the father has recently died and families in which the father and mother have recently gone through the process of divorce. The death of the father and the divorce of mother and father sometimes create difficult times for the mother and her children, and I am interested in how they adjust to these difficult changes, compared to married women and their children who do not experience these changes. Hopefully, this study will provide valuable information on the concerns young mothers have raising children from these different types of families.

When the study is completed, I will send you a summary of the results. I hope to be able to do this by September of this year. If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to telephone me at home at 284-2332.

Thank you again for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Geoffrey Nelson
Department of Psychology
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3T 2N2

GN:jkn

APPENDIX J

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

WINNIPEG, CANADA
R3T 2N2

Dear

A few months ago I wrote you a letter explaining a study I was doing for my doctoral degree in psychology at the University of Manitoba. The study was concerned with how women and their children cope with the loss of the father by death or divorce. You returned a questionnaire to me stating that you were interested in learning more about the study and some of you consented to be interviewed for the study. Thank you for your interest and cooperation. The study is now completed and I would like to share with you some of the major findings.

I studied three groups of families, namely those in which the mother was widowed, divorced, or married. These families had children in the age range of 3 to 16 years old. The husbands of the widows had died within the last two years and the divorcees had been separated within the last two years. I sent letters to the women from these different types of families and a large number responded, indicating that they would be interested in learning more about the study and possibly participating in it.

Fifteen families from each of these three groups were then selected for an interview for a total of 45 families. An attempt was made to select families who were similar in terms of number, age and sex of the children, mother's age, length of marriage, working status, and occupation, and the time elapsed since the death or separation. While the groups did not differ greatly on these factors, both widows and divorcees had suffered a greater loss in average monthly income in the last two years compared with married women who tended to gain in total family income in the last two years. None of the widows and divorcees who were interviewed had remarried, nor were any of them living common law.

All interviews were conducted in the families' homesin the evening by three trained interviewers all of whom were graduate students in psychology. The women were interviewed and both the women and their children filled out questionnaires dealing with positive and negative feelings, social adjustment, and childhood behavior problems.

All of the results of the study were analyzed in terms of average differences between the groups (widows, divorcees, married) as a whole, not in terms of individual families. Thus, the method of group comparisons used in analyzing the results of this study cannot be used to provide you with information about how your own family compares with others.

On the average, women from widowed, divorced, and married families did not differ greatly in terms of their own reports of positive and negative feelings, happiness, and social adjustment. Divorcees, however, reported more friction and resentment in their relationships with friends, family, and co-workers, in the form of arguing or feeling that others had let them down, than widows or married women. Significantly more of the widows and divorcees were involved in some type of counseling in the past few years compared with married women. Widows tended to seek the support of the church (ministers, priests, church groups) or a visiting widow from the YWCA's Widows' Consultation Service. Several widows also felt that religious faith was helpful in adjusting to their husband's death. Divorcees, on the other hand, were more likely to have sought the services of professionals (marriage counselors, social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists). However, having a supportive family and friends living in the same city was the most frequently mentioned helpful factor in coping with the crises of death and divorce.

Widows and divorcees reported more negative changes in their lives in the past two years than married women. Widows and divorcees both mentioned loneliness, concerns about raising their children by themselves, and financial insecurity as negative life changes. Widows also stated that they had difficulties making decisions on their own, while divorcees reported problems getting along with men and the stress of having to be both the sole provider (worker) and parent for their children.

Divorcees reported the greatest number of positive changes in their lives compared with widowed and married women. The most frequently mentioned positive life change by divorcees dealt with feelings of increased self-esteem, competence, and enjoyment of life. Feeling more "self-aware," "confident," "in control," and "coping better" were some of the words divorcees used to describe these feelings. These same feelings of increased self-esteem and competence were also the most frequently mentioned positive life changes by widows. In particular, widows mentioned confidence from learning new skills regarding tasks that their husbands had formerly performed. Many widows reported learning how to drive the car, manage the family finances, and do household chores such as lawn care, starting the furnace, fix leaky faucets, etc. for the first time in their lives. The most frequently mentioned positive life change by married women was increased financial security.

Some interesting findings emerged regarding the children. Children whose parents were married were divided into those whose fathers were frequently available to them and those whose fathers were less frequently available to them. When this was done, it was found that boys from married families whose fathers were infrequently available to them had more conduct problems (fighting, not doing what they were told by their parents, etc.) than children from widowed, divorced, and married families in which the fathers were more

frequently available. The school-aged children (those 5 years of age and older) filled out a questionnaire dealing with their feelings of self-esteem. It was found that boys and girls from widowed and divorced families and boys from married families in which the fathers were infrequently available to them reported lower self-esteem than boys and girls from married families in which the fathers were frequently available to them. The groups did not differ greatly in terms of whether or not the children had received some type of counseling, with the exception that boys from married families whose fathers were infrequently available to them had the highest rate of receiving some type of counseling. Thus, having a father who spends time with his children appears to be important for the self-esteem of many of the school-aged children.

In summary, this study provided valuable information on how widows, divorcees, and their children adjust to the loss of their husbands and fathers. Hopefully; this information will be used to provide better services and resources for single-parent families. I will be taking my doctoral examination within the next couple of months and, partly through your help, I should obtain a Ph.D. degree in psychology. Thanks again for your cooperation. If you have any questions about the study, feel free to call me at home in the evening at 284-2332.

Sincerely yours,

Geoffrey Nelson, M.A.

GN:jkn

APPENDIX K

Affect Balance Scale

During the past two weeks did you ever feel. . .	Answer Yes	No
Positive Feelings		
1. Pleased about having accomplished something?	( )	( )
2. That things were going your way?	( )	( )
3. Proud because someone complimented you on something you had done?	( )	( )
4. Particularly excited or interested in something?	( )	( )
5. On top of the world?	( )	( )
Negative Feelings		
1. So restless that you couldn't sit long in a chair?	( )	( )
2. Bored?	( )	( )
3. Depressed or very unhappy?	( )	( )
4. Very lonely or remote from other people?	( )	( )
5. Upset because someone criticized you?	( )	( )

Overall Happiness

Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days -- would you say you're very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy these days?

Very happy ( ) Pretty happy ( ) Not too happy ( )

APPENDIX L

Internal and External Negative Feelings Questionnaire

During the past two weeks, how often have you felt:

1. Ashamed

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Almost Never	Rarely	/ Occasionally	Often	Almost Always	Always

2. Angry

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Almost Never	Rarely	/ Occasionally	Often	Almost Always	Always

3. Resentful

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Almost Never	Rarely	/ Occasionally	Often	Almost Always	Always

4. Hopeless

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Almost Never	Rarely	/ Occasionally	Often	Almost Always	Always

5. Troubled

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Almost Never	Rarely	/ Occasionally	Often	Almost Always	Always

6. Bitter

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Almost Never	Rarely	/ Occasionally	Often	Almost Always	Always

7. Aggravated

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Almost Never	Rarely	/ Occasionally	Often	Almost Always	Always

8. Overwhelmed

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Almost Never	Rarely	/ Occasionally	Often	Almost Always	Always

9. Inadequate

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Almost Never	Rarely	/ Occasionally	Often	Almost Always	Always

10. Guilty

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Almost Never	Rarely	/ Occasionally	Often	Almost Always	Always

APPENDIX M

Social Adjustment Scale

We are interested in finding out how you have been doing in the last two weeks. We would like you to answer some questions about your work, spare time and your family life. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions.

WORK OUTSIDE THE HOME

Please check the situation that best describes you.

I am ___1 a worker for pay ___4 retired
___2 a housewife ___5 unemployed
___3 a student (14)

Do you usually work for pay more than 15 hours per week? ___1 YES ___2 NO (15)

Did you work any hours for pay in the last two weeks? ___1 YES ___2 NO (16)

Circle the answer that best describes how you have been in the last two weeks.

1. How many days did you miss from work in the last two weeks? (Do not include as days missed any days of scheduled vacation.)

1=No days missed.
2=One day.
3=I missed about half the time.
4=Missed more than half the time but did make at least one day.
5=I did not work any days.
8=On vacation all of the last two weeks (17)

If you have not worked any days in the last two weeks, go on to Question 7.

2. Have you been able to do your work in the last two weeks?

1=I did my work very well.
2=I did my work well but had some minor problems.
3=I needed help with work and did not do well about half the time.
4=I did my work poorly most of the time.
5=I did my work poorly all the time. (18)

3. Have you been ashamed of how you do your work in the last two weeks?

1=I never felt ashamed.
2=Once or twice I felt a little ashamed.
3=About half the time I felt ashamed.
4=I felt ashamed most of the time.
5=I felt ashamed all the time. (19)

4. Have you had any arguments with people at work in the last two weeks?

1=I had no arguments and got along very well.
2=I usually got along well but had minor arguments.
3=I had more than one argument.
4=I had many arguments.
5=I was constantly in arguments. (20)

5. Have you felt upset, worried, or uncomfortable while doing your work during the last two weeks?

1=I never felt upset.
2=Once or twice I felt upset.
3=Half the time I felt upset.
4=I felt upset most of the time.
5=I felt upset all of the time. (21

6. Have you found your work interesting these last two weeks?

1=My work was almost always interesting.
2=Once or twice my work was not interesting.
3=Half the time my work was uninteresting.
4=Most of the time my work was uninteresting.
5=My work was always uninteresting. (22

WORK AT HOME-HOUSEWIVES ONLY ANSWER QUESTIONS 7-12 OTHERWIS GO ON TO QUESTION 13

Circle the answer that best describes how you have been in the last two weeks.

7. How many days did you do some housework during the last two weeks?

1=Every day.
2=I did the housework almost every day.
3=I did the housework about half the time.
4=I usually did not do the housework.
5=I was completely unable to do housework.
8=I was away from home all of the last two weeks. (23

8. During the last two weeks, have you kept up with you housework? This includes cooking, cleaning, laundry, grocery shopping, and errands.

1=I did my work very well.
2=I did my work well but had some minor problems.
3=I needed help with my work and did not do it about half the time.
4=I did my work poorly most of the time.
5=I did my work poorly all of the time. (24

9. Have you been ashamed of how you did your housework during the last two weeks?

1=I never felt ashamed.
2=Once or twice I felt a little ashamed.
3=About half the time I felt ashamed.
4=I felt ashamed most of the time.
5=I felt ashamed all the time. (2

10. Have you had any arguments with salespeople, tradesmen or neighbors in the last two weeks?

1=I had no arguments and got along very well.
2=I usually got along well, but had minor arguments.
3=I had more than one argument.
4=I had many arguments.
5=I was constantly in arguments. (26)

11. Have you felt upset while doing your housework during the last two weeks?

1=I never felt upset.
2=Once or twice I felt upset.
3=Half the time I felt upset.
4=I felt upset most of the time.
5=I felt upset all of the time. (27)

12. Have you found your housework interesting these last two weeks?

1=My work was almost always interesting.
2=Once or twice my work was not interesting.
3=Half the time my work was uninteresting.
4=Most of the time my work was uninteresting.
5=My work was always uninteresting. (28)

FOR STUDENTS

Answer Questions 13-18 if you go to school half time or more. Otherwise, go on to Question 19.

What best describes your school program? (Choose one)

Full Time ___1
3/4 Time ___2
Half Time or less ___3 (29)

Circle the answer that best describes how you have been in the last two weeks.

13. How many days of classes did you miss in the last two weeks? (Do not include as days missed any days of scheduled vacation.)

1=No days missed.
2=A few days missed.
3=I missed about half the time.
4=Missed more than half time but did make at least one day.
5=I did not go to classes at all.
8=I was on vacation all of the last two weeks. (30)

14. Have you been able to keep up with your class work in the last two weeks?

1=I did my work very well.
2=I did my work well but had minor problems.
3=I needed help with my work and did not do well about half the time.
4=I did my work poorly most of the time.
5=I did my work poorly all the time. (31)

15. During the last two weeks, have you been ashamed of how you do your school work?

1=I never felt ashamed.
2=Once or twice I felt ashamed.
3=About half the time I felt ashamed.
4=I felt ashamed most of the time.
5=I felt ashamed all of the time. (32)

16. Have you had any arguments with people at school in the last two weeks?

1=I had no arguments and got along very well.
2=I usually got along well but had minor arguments.
3=I had more than one argument.
4=I had many arguments.
5=I was constantly in arguments.
8=Not applicable; I did not attend school. (33)

17. Have you felt upset at school during the last two weeks?

1=I never felt upset.
2=Once or twice I felt upset.
3=Half the time I felt upset.
4=I felt upset most of the time.
5=I felt upset all of the time.
8=Not applicable; I did not attend school. (34)

18. Have you found your school work interesting these last two weeks?

1=My work was almost always interesting.
2=Once or twice my work was not interesting.
3=Half the time my work was uninteresting.
4=Most of the time my work was uninteresting.
5=My work was always uninteresting. (35)

SPARE TIME-EVERYONE ANSWER QUESTIONS 19-27.

Circle the answer that best describes how you have been in the last two weeks.

19. How many friends have you seen or spoken to on the telephone in the last two weeks?

1=Nine or more friends.
2=Five to eight friends.
3=Two to four friends.
4=One friend
5=No friends. (36)

20. Have you been able to talk about your feelings and problems with at least one friend during the last two weeks?

1=I can always talk about my innermost feelings.
2=I usually can talk about my feelings.
3=About half the time I felt able to talk about my feelings.
4=I usually was not able to talk about my feelings.
5=I was never able to talk about my feelings.
8=No applicable; I have no friends. (37)

21. How many times in the last two weeks have you gone out socially with other people? For example, visited friends, gone to movies, bowling, church, restaurants, invited friends to your home?

1=More than three times.
2=Three times.
3=Twice.
4=Once.
5=None. (38)

22. How much time have you spent on hobbies or spare time interests during the last two weeks? For example, bowling, sewing, gardening, sports, reading?

1=I spent most of my spare time on hobbies almost every day.
2=I spent some spare time on hobbies some of the days.
3=I spent a little spare time on hobbies.
4=I usually did not spend any time on hobbies but did watch TV.
5=I did not spend any spare time on hobbies or watching TV. (39)

23. Have you had open arguments with your friends in the last two weeks?

1=I had no arguments and got along very well.
2=I usually got along well but had minor arguments.
3=I had more than one argument.
4=I had many arguments.
5=I was constantly in arguments.
8=Not applicable; I have no friends. (40)

24. If your feelings were hurt or offended by a friend during the last two weeks, how badly did you take it?

1=It did not affect me or it did not happen.
2=I got over it in a few hours.
3=I got over it in a few days.
4=I got over it in a week.
5=It will take me months to recover.
8=Not applicable; I have no friends. (41)

25. Have you felt shy or uncomfortable with people in the last two weeks?

1=I always felt comfortable.
2=Sometimes I felt uncomfortable but could relax after a while.
3=About half the time I felt uncomfortable.
4=I usually felt uncomfortable.
5=I always felt uncomfortable.
8=Not applicable; I was never with people. (42)

26. Have you felt lonely and wished for more friends during the last two weeks?

1=I have not felt lonely.
2=I have felt lonely a few times.
3=About half the time I felt lonely.
4=I usually felt lonely.
5=I always felt lonely and wished for more friends. (43)

27. Have you felt bored in your spare time during the last two weeks?

1=I never felt bored.
2=I usually did not feel bored.
3=About half the time I felt bored.
4=Most of the time I felt bored.
5=I was constantly bored. (44)

Are you a Single, Separated or Divorced Person not living with a person of opposite sex? Please circle yes or no.

1=Yes, Please answer Questions 28 and 29.
2=No, Go on to Question 30. (45)

28. How many times have you been with a date these last two weeks?

1=More than three times.
2=Three times
3=Twice.
4=Once.
5=Never. (46)

29. Have you been interested in dating during the last two weeks? If you have not dated, would you have liked to?

1=I was always interested in dating.
2=Most of the time I was interested.
3=About half the time I was interested.
4=Most of the time I was not interested.
5=I was completely uninterested. (47)

FAMILY

Answer Questions 30-37 about your parents, brothers, sisters, in-laws, and children not living at home. Have you been in contact with any of these relatives in the past two weeks?
If yes, please answer Questions 30-37
If no, go on to Question 36

Circle the answer that best describes how you have been in the last two weeks.

30. Have you had open arguments with your relatives in the last two weeks?

1=We always got along very well.
2=We usually got along well but had some minor arguments.
3=I had more than one argument with at least one relative.
4=I had many arguments.
5=I was constantly in arguments. (48)

31. Have you been able to talk about your feelings and problems with at least one of your relatives in the last two weeks?

1=I can always talk about my feelings with at least one relative.
2=I usually can talk about my feelings.
3=About half the time I felt able to talk about my feelings.
4=I usually was not able to talk about my feelings.
5=I was never able to talk about my feelings. (49)

32. Have you avoided contacts with your relatives these last two weeks?

1=I have contacted relatives regularly.
2=I have contacted a relative at least once.
3=I have waited for my relatives to contact me.
4=I avoided my relatives, but they contacted me.
5=I have had no contacts with any relatives. (50)

33. Did you depend on your relatives for help, advice, money or friendship during the last two weeks?

1=I never need to depend on them.
2=I usually did not need to depend on them.
3=About half the time I needed to depend on them.
4=Most of the time I depend on them.
5=I depend completely on them. (51)

34. Have you wanted to do the opposite of what your relatives wanted in order to make them angry during the last two weeks?

1=I never wanted to oppose them.
2=Once or twice I wanted to oppose them.
3=About half the time I wanted to oppose them.
4=Most of the time I wanted to oppose them.
5=I always oppose them. (52)

35. Have you been worried about things happening to your relatives without good reason in the last two weeks?

1=I have not worried without reason.
2=Once or twice I worried.
3=About half the time I worried.
4=Most of the time I worried.
5=I have worried the entire time.
8=Not applicable; my relatives are no longer living. (53)

EVERYONE answer Questions 36 and 37, even if your relatives are not living.

36. During the last two weeks, have you been thinking that you have let any of your relatives down or have been unfair to them at any time?

1=I did not feel that I let them down at all.
2=I usually did not feel that I let them down.
3=About half the time I felt that I let them down.
4=Most of the time I have felt that I let them down.
5=I always felt that I let them down. (54)

37. During the last two weeks, have you been thinking that any of your relatives have let you down or have been unfair to you at any time?

1=I never felt that they let me down.
2=I felt that they usually did not let me down.
3=About half the time I felt they let me down.
4=I usually have felt that they let me down.
5=I am very bitter that they let me down. (55)

CHILDREN

Have you had unmarried children, stepchildren or foster children living at home during the last two weeks?
1=Yes, Please answer Questions 47 to 50.
2=No, Go on to Question 51. (66)

47. Have you been interested in what your children are doing, friends, school, play or hobbies during the last two weeks?

1=I was always interested and actively involved.
2=I was usually interested and involved.
3=About half the time interested and half the time not interested.
4=I usually was disinterested.
5=I was always disinterested. (67)

48. Have you been able to talk and listen to your children during the last two weeks? Include only children over the age of 2.

1=I always was able to communicate with them.
2=I usually was able to communicate with them.
3=About half the time I could communicate.
4=I usually was not able to communicate.
5=I was completely unable to communicate.
8=Not applicable; no children under the age of 2. (68)

49. How have you been getting along with the children during the last two weeks?

1=I had no arguments and got along very well.
2=I usually got along well but had minor arguments.
3=I had more than one argument.
4=I had many arguments.
5=I was constantly in arguments. (69)

50. How have you felt toward your children these last two weeks?

1=I always felt affection
2=I mostly felt affection.
3=About half the time I felt affection.
4=Most of the time I did not feel affection.
5=I never felt affection toward them. (70)

FAMILY UNIT

Have you ever been married, ever lived with a person of the opposite sex, or ever had children? Please circle.
1=Yes, Please answer Questions 51 to 53.
2=No, Go on to Question 54. (71)

51. Have you worrried about your partner or any of your children without any reason during the last two weeks, even if you are not living together now?

1=I never worried.
2=Once or twice I worried.
3=About half the time I worried.
4=Most of the time I worried.
5=I always worried.
8=Not applicable; partner and children not living. (72)

Answer Questions 52 and 53 even if your partner and children are not living.

52. During the last two weeks have you been thinking that you have let down your partner or any of your children at any time?

1=I did not feel I let them down at all.
2=I usually did not feel that I let them down.
3=About half the time I felt I let them down.
4=Most of the time I have felt that I let them down.
5=I let them down completely. (73

53. During the last two weeks, have you been thinking that your partner or any of your children have let you down at any time?

1=I never felt that they let me down.
2=I felt that they usually did not let me down.
3=About half the time I felt they let me down.
4=I usually felt they let me down.
5=I felt bitter that they let me down. (74

FINANCIAL-EVERYONE PLEASE ANSWER QUESTION 54.

54. Have you had enough money to take care of your own and your family's financial needs during the last two weeks?

1=I had enough money for needs.
2=I usually had enough money with minor problems.
3=About half the time I did not have enough money but did not have to borrow money.
4=I usually did not have enough money and had to borrow from others.
5=I had great financial difficulty. (7

C.C

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APPENDIX N

My name _____ Self-Appraisal Inventory - Primary Level

	Yes	No
1. Are you easy to like?	○	○
2. Do you often get in trouble at home?	○	○
3. Can you give a good talk in front of your class?	○	○
4. Do you wish you were younger?	○	○
5. Are you an important person in your family?	○	○
6. Do you often feel that you are doing badly in school?	○	○
7. Do you like being just what you are?	○	○
8. Do you have enough friends?	○	○
9. Does your family want too much of you?	○	○
10. Do you wish you were someone else?	○	○
11. Can you wait your turn easily?	○	○
12. Do your friends usually do what you say?	○	○
13. Is it easy for you to do good in school?	○	○
14. Do you often break your promises?	○	○
15. Do most children have fewer friends than you?	○	○

	Yes	No
16. Are you smart?	○	○
17. Are most children better liked than you?	○	○
18. Are you one of the last to be chosen for games?	○	○
19. Are the things you do at school very easy for you?	○	○
20. Do you know a lot?	○	○
21. Can you get good grades if you want to?	○	○
22. Do you forget most of what you learn?	○	○
23. Do you feel lonely very often?	○	○
24. If you have something to say, do you usually say it?	○	○
25. Do you get upset easily at home?	○	○
26. Do you often feel ashamed of yourself?	○	○
27. Do you like the teacher to ask you questions in front of other children?	○	○
28. Do the other children in the class think you are a good worker?	○	○
29. Are you hard to be friends with?	○	○
30. Do you find it hard to talk to your class?	○	○

		Yes	No
31.	Are most children able to finish their school work more quickly than you?	○	○
32.	Do members of your family pick on you?	○	○
33.	Are you any trouble to your family?	○	○
34.	Is your family proud of you?	○	○
35.	Can you talk to your family when you have a problem?	○	○
36.	Do your parents like you even if you have done something bad?	○	○

Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days -- would you say you're very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy these days?

Very happy ( ) Pretty happy ( ) Not too happy ( )

APPENDIX O

Self-Appraisal Inventory
Intermediate Level

My name _____

Example:

	True	Untrue
1. I like cherry pie	○	○
2. I want to be a movie star	○	○

	True	Untrue
1. Other children are interested in me.	○	○
2. School work is fairly easy for me.	○	○
3. I am satisfied to be just what I am.	○	○
4. I should get along better with other children than I do	○	○
5. I often get in trouble at home.	○	○
6. My teachers usually like me.	○	○
7. I am a cheerful person.	○	○
8. Other children are often mean to me.	○	○
9. I do my share of work at home.	○	○
10. I often feel upset in school.	○	○
11. I'm not very smart.	○	○
12. No one pays much attention to me at home.	○	○
13. I can get good grades if I want to.	○	○
14. I can be trusted.	○	○
15. I am popular with kids my own age.	○	○
16. My family isn't very proud of me.	○	○
17. I forget most of what I learn.	○	○
18. I am easy to like.	○	○

		True	Untrue
19.	Girls seem to like me.	○	○
20.	My family is glad when I do things with them.	○	○
21.	I often volunteer to do things in class.	○	○
22.	I'm not a very happy person.	○	○
23.	I am lonely very often.	○	○
24.	The members of my family don't usually like my ideas. .	○	○
25.	I am a good student.	○	○
26.	I can't seem to do things right.	○	○
27.	Older kids like me.	○	○
28.	I behave badly at home.	○	○
29.	I often get discouraged in school.	○	○
30.	I wish I were younger.	○	○
31.	I am friendly toward other people.	○	○
32.	I usually get along with my family as well as I should.	○	○
33.	My teacher makes me feel I am not good enough.	○	○
34.	I like being the way I am.	○	○
35.	Most people are much better liked than I am.	○	○
36.	I cause trouble to my family.	○	○
37.	I am slow in finishing my school work.	○	○
38.	I am often unhappy.	○	○
39.	Boys seem to like me.	○	○
40.	I live up to what is expected of me at home.	○	○
41.	I can give a good report in front of the class.	○	○
42.	I am not as nice looking as most people.	○	○
43.	I have many friends.	○	○
44.	My parents don't seem to be interested in the things I do.	○	○
45.	I am proud of my school work.	○	○

		True	Untrue
46.	If I have something to say, I usually say it.	○	○
47.	I am among the last to be chosen for teams.	○	○
48.	I feel that my family doesn't usually trust me.	○	○
49.	I am a good reader.	○	○
50.	I can usually figure out difficult things.	○	○
51.	It is hard for me to make friends.	○	○
52.	My family would help me in any kind of trouble.	○	○
53.	I am not doing as well in school as I would like to.	○	○
54.	I have a lot of self control.	○	○
55.	Friends usually follow my ideas.	○	○
56.	My family understands me.	○	○
57.	I find it hard to talk in front of the class.	○	○
58.	I often feel ashamed of myself.	○	○
59.	I wish I had more close friends.	○	○
60.	My family often expects too much of me.	○	○
61.	I am good in my school work.	○	○
62.	I am a good person.	○	○
63.	Others find me hard to be friendly with.	○	○
64.	I get upset easily at home.	○	○
65.	I don't like to be called on in class.	○	○
66.	I wish I were someone else.	○	○
67.	Other children think I am fun to be with.	○	○
68.	I am an important person in my family.	○	○
69.	My classmates think I am a poor student.	○	○
70.	I often feel uneasy.	○	○
71.	Other children often don't like to be with me.	○	○
72.	My family and I have a lot of fun together.	○	○

		True	Untrue
73.	I would like to drop out of school.	○	○
74.	Not too many people really trust me.	○	○
75.	My family usually considers my feelings.	○	○
76.	I can do hard homework assignments.	○	○
77.	I can't be depended on.	○	○

Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days -- would you say you're very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy these days?

Very happy ( ) Pretty happy ( ) Not too happy ( )

APPENDIX P

BEHAVIORAL CHECKLIST FOR CHILDREN

1. Name of Child _____

2. Age _____

3. Sex _____

4. Name of person completing this form _____

5. Relationship to child (circle one)

   a. Parent b. Teacher

Instructions:

Please indicate which of the following constitute problems, as far as this child is concerned. If an item does not constitute a problem, encircle the zero; if an item constitutes a mild problem, encircle the one; if an item constitutes a severe problem, encircle the two. Please complete every item.

0 - NO PROBLEM
1 - MILD PROBLEM
2 - SEVERE PROBLEM

0	1	2	1. Oddness, bizarre behavior
0	1	2	2. Restlessness, inability to sit still
0	1	2	3. Attention-seeking, "show-off" behavior
0	1	2	4. Stays out late at night
0	1	2	5. Doesn't know how to have fun; behaves like a little adult
0	1	2	6. Self-consciousness; easily embarrassed
0	1	2	7. Fixed expression, lack of emotional reactivity
0	1	2	8. Disruptiveness; tendency to annoy & bother others
0	1	2	9. Feelings of inferiority
0	1	2	10. Steals in company with others
0	1	2	11. Boisterousness, rowdiness
0	1	2	12. Crying over minor annoyances and hurts
0	1	2	13. Preoccupation; "in a world of his own"
0	1	2	14. Shyness, bashfulness
0	1	2	15. Social withdrawal, preference for solitary activities
0	1	2	16. Dislike for school
0	1	2	17. Jealousy over attention paid other children
0	1	2	18. Belongs to a gang
0	1	2	19. Repetitive speech
0	1	2	20. Short attention span
0	1	2	21. Lack of self-confidence
0	1	2	22. Inattentiveness to what others say
0	1	2	23. Easily flustered and confused
0	1	2	24. Incoherent speech
0	1	2	25. Fighting
0	1	2	26. Loyal to delinquent friends
0	1	2	27. Temper tantrums
0	1	2	28. Reticence, secretiveness
0	1	2	29. Truancy from school
0	1	2	30. Hypersensitivity; feelings easily hurt
0	1	2	31. Laziness in school and in performance of other tasks
0	1	2	32. Anxiety, chronic general fearfulness
0	1	2	33. Irresponsibility, undependability
0	1	2	34. Excessive daydreaming
0	1	2	35. Masturbation
0	1	2	36. Has bad companions
0	1	2	37. Tension, inability to relax
0	1	2	38. Disobedience, difficulty in disciplinary control
0	1	2	39. Depression, chronic sadness
0	1	2	40. Uncooperativeness in group situations
0	1	2	41. Aloofness, social reserve
0	1	2	42. Passivity, suggestibility; easily led by others
0	1	2	43. Clumsiness, awkwardness, poor muscular coordination
0	1	2	44. Hyperactivity; "always on the go"
0	1	2	45. Distractibility
0	1	2	46. Distructiveness in regard to his own &/or other's property
0	1	2	47. Negativism, tendency to do the opposite of what is requested
0	1	2	48. Impertinence, sauciness
0	1	2	49. Sluggishness, lethargy
0	1	2	50. Drowsiness
0	1	2	51. Profane language, swearing, cursing
0	1	2	52. Nervousness, jitteriness, jumpiness; easily startled
0	1	2	53. Irritability; hot-tempered, easily aroused to anger
0	1	2	54. Enuresis, bed-wetting
0	1	2	55. Often has physical complaints, e.g. headaches, stomach ache

APPENDIX Q

Interview Schedule

Date _____

Interviewer _____

Subject's Name _____

A. Demographic Information

1. Date of Birth _____ Age _____

2. Marital Status

   1. Married _____

   2. Widowed _____

   3. Divorced _____

3. Race

   1. White _____

   2. Black _____

   3. Oriental _____

   4. Native or Metis _____

4. Religion

   1. Protestant _____

   2. Catholic _____

   3. Jewish _____

   4. None _____

   5. Other _____

5. Children

Names	Ages	Sex
_____	____	____
_____	____	____
_____	____	____

Total number of children _____

6. Education

6 - Graduate or professional training _____

5 - University graduate _____

4 - Partial university training _____

3 - High school graduate _____

2 - Partial high school _____

1 - Junior high school _____

0 - Less than 7 years of school _____

7. Work

a. Do you have a job?

3 - Full-time _____

2 - Half-time _____

1 - Part-time _____

0 - No job _____

b. Occupation (if employed)

7 - Higher executive, major professional, proprietor of large concern _____

6 - Business manager, lesser professional, proprietor of medium-sized business _____

5 - Administrator, owner of small business, minor professional _____

4 - Clerical or sales worker, technician, owner of little business _____

3 - Skilled manual employee _____

2 - Machine operator, semi-skilled employee _____

1 - Unskilled employee _____

0 - None _____

c. Did you have a job 1-2 years ago?

Yes _____ No _____

If yes, what was the job? _____

8. Income

a. Total annual income (for the past year)

1.	0 - $ 2,499 ____	8.	$17,500 - $19,999 ____
2.	$ 2,500 - $ 4,999 ____	9.	$20,000 - $22,499 ____
3.	$ 5,000 - $ 7,499 ____	10.	$22,499 - $24,999 ____
4.	$ 7,500 - $ 9,999 ____	11.	$25,000 - $27,499 ____
5.	$10,000 - $12,499 ____	12.	$27,500 - $29,999 ____
6.	$12,500 - $14,999 ____	13.	$30,000 or more ____
7.	$15,000 - $17,499 ____		

b. Sources

1.	Job ____	6.	Unemployment ins. ____
2.	Spouse ____	7.	Savings/investments ____
3.	Family/friends ____	8.	Pension ____
4.	Welfare ____	9.	Family allowance ____
5.	Life insurance ____	10.	Other _____

c. Income for the past month: $_____

d. Average monthly income 1-2 years ago? $_____

9. Type of Housing

1. House ____
2. Apartment ____
3. Condominium ____
4. Mobile home ____
5. Other (specify) _____

B. Marital-Family Information

1. How long have you been (*were you) married? _____

2. Marital happiness

a. How would you rate your marital happiness?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Unhappy	Somewhat Unhappy	Neither Happy nor Unhappy	Somewhat Happy	Very Happy

b. How would you rate your marital happiness during the first year of your marriage?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Unhappy	Somewhat Unhappy	Neither Happy nor Unhappy	Somewhat Happy	Very Happy

c. How would you rate your marital happiness 1-2 years ago?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Unhappy	Somewhat Unhappy	Neither Happy nor Unhappy	Somewhat Happy	Very Happy

3. Time Father Spends with Children

a. On the average, how much time did your husband spend with the children 1-2 years ago?

_____ per day (hours) _____ per week (hours)

b. For the married and divorced only - On the average, how much time does your husband spend with the children now?

_____ per day (Hours) _____ per week (hours)

4. Father substitutes*

Is there any man, who acts like a father or big brother to your children? Yes _____ No _____

If yes, what is his relationship to you or the children (e.g., uncle, friend, etc.) _____

If yes, how much time does he spend with the children on the average?

_____ per day (hours) _____ per week (hours)

*For widowed and divorced only.

C. History of Psychiatric Treatment or Counseling

1. Have you ever received any type of psychiatric treatment or counseling?

1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____

2. If yes, what type of treatment?

1 - Paraprofessional counseling, AA groups, peer groups (e.g., Parents Without Partners, groups for the widowed or divorced) _____

2 - Outpatient therapy with a psychologist, social worker, or psychiatrist _____

3 - Partial psychiatric hospitalization _____

4 - 24-hour psychiatric hospitalization _____

3. If yes, when did you receive psychiatric treatment or counseling?

a. during the last 1-2 years 1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____

b. prior to the last 1-2 years, during the marriage 1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____

c. prior to the marriage 1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____

4. Have any of your children ever received any type of psychiatric treatment or counseling?

1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____

5. If yes, what type of treatment?

1 - Child Guidance Clinic or school guidance _____

2 - Outpatient therapy with a psychologist, social worker, or psychiatrist _____

3 - Partial psychiatric hospitalization or placement in a treatment center _____

4 - 24-hour psychiatric hospitalization or residential treatment _____

6. If yes, when did the children receive treatment or counseling?

a. during the last 1-2 years 1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____

b. prior to the last 1-2 years 1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____

D. Social Supports*

1. How many close personal friends did you have during the time of the death or separation?

1	2	3	4	5
0	1-2	3-4	5-6	more than 7

2. How did your relationship with these friends change following the death or separation?

1	2	3	4	5
Became Much More Distant	Became Somewhat More Distant	No Change	Became Somewhat More Close	Became Much More Close

3. During the time of the death or separation, was talking with these friends helpful or harmful?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Harmful	Somewhat Harmful	Neither Helpful Nor Harmful	Somewhat Helpful	Very Helpful

4. During the time of the death or separation, were your parents living in town?

1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____

5. How did you feel toward your parents following the death or separation?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Distant	Somewhat Distant	Neither Close Nor Distant	Somewhat Close	Very Close

6. During the time of the death or separation, was talking with your parents helpful or harmful?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Harmful	Somewhat Harmful.	Neither Helpful Nor Harmful	Somewhat Helpful	Very Helpful

7. During the time of the death or separation, were there any other family members or relatives living in town with whom you had contact?

1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____

8. If yes, was talking with any of these family members or relatives helpful or harmful?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Harmful	Somewhat Harmful	Neither Helpful Nor Harmful	Somewhat Helpful	Very Helpful

9. During the time of the death or separation, were there any professionals or other people in the community with whom you had contact?

1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____

If yes, whom? _____

_____

_____

10. If yes, was talking with any of these people helpful or harmful?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Harmful	Somewhat Harmful	Neither Helpful Nor Harmful	Somewhat Helpful	Very Helpful

11. Do you currently have a relationship with a member of the opposite sex?

1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____

12. If yes, how would you rate your happiness in this relationship?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Unhappy	Somewhat Unhappy	Neither Happy Nor Unhappy	Somewhat Happy	Very Happy

13. Have any family or friends lived with you since the death or separation?

1 - Yes _____ 0 - No _____ If yes, whom? _____

_____

_____

14. If yes, how would you rate the support these living companions have provided you?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Harmful	Somewhat Harmful	Neither Helpful Nor Harmful	Somewhat Helpful	Very Helpful

E. Situational Aspects and Feelings About the Death (for widowed only)

1. Before your husband died, were you able to talk with him about the possibility of his death and plan for the future?

1 - Not at all _____
2 - A little _____
3 - A fair amount _____

2. How did your husband die?

1 - Suddenly (less than 2 weeks' warning that his condition was likely to be fatal). _____
2 - Short warning (more than 2 weeks' warning but less than 2 months' warning that his condition was likely to be fatal) _____
3 - Prolonged death (more than 2 months' warning that his condition was likely to be fatal) _____

3. Describe the positive feelings you now have towards your husband. Would you say you feel:

1 - Very positive _____
2 - Somewhat positive _____
3 - Not at all positive _____

4. Describe the negative feelings you now have towards your husband. Would you say you feel:

1 - Very negative _____
2 - Somewhat negative _____
3 - Not at all negative _____

5. How often do you think about being together with your husband again?

1 - Never _____
2 - Sometimes _____
3 - Often _____

F. Situational Aspects and Feelings about the Divorce (for divorced only)

1. When you and your ex-husband talked about divorce, who was it that insisted most on the divorce?

   1 - Husband _____
   2 - Wife _____
   3 - Mutual _____

2. How quickly were the divorce proceedings started after you and your husband first discussed the possibility of divorce?

   1 - Suddenly (divorce proceedings started less than 2 weeks after the first separation) _____
   2 - Shortly (divorce proceedings started more than 2 weeks after the first separation) _____
   3 - Prolonged (divorce proceedings started after more than one separation) _____

3. Describe the positive feelings you now have towards your ex-husband. Would you say you feel:

   1 - Very positive _____
   2 - Somewhat positive _____
   3 - Not at all positive _____

4. Describe the negative feelings you now have towards your husband. Would you say you feel:

   1 - Very negative _____
   2 - Somewhat negative _____
   3 - Not at all negative _____

5. How often do you think about being together with your ex-husband again?

   1 - Never _____
   2 - Sometimes _____
   3 - Often _____

G. Post-Divorce Relationship with the Ex-Husband (for divorced only)

1. How do you feel about the emotional support your ex-husband is providing you now?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Unsupportive	Somewhat Unsupportive	Neither Supportive Nor Unsupportive	Somewhat Supportive	Very Supportive

2. How do you feel about the financial support your ex-husband is providing you now?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Unsupportive	Somewhat Unsupportive	Neither Supportive Nor Unsupportive	Somewhat Supportive	Very Supportive

3. How do you and your ex-husband agree on the matters of child rearing and visitation privileges?

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Mildly Agree	Strongly Agree

4. How do you and your ex-husband get along now?

1	2	3	4	5
Very Poorly	Fairly Poorly	Neither Well Nor Poorly	Fairly Well	Very Well

5. How many times have you and your ex-husband gone to court since the initial separation?

1	2	3	4	5
Four times or more	Three times	Two times	One time	Not at all

H. Open-Ended Questions

1. What positive changes have occurred in your life during the last 1-2 years?

2. What negative changes have occurred in your life during the last 1-2 years?

3. Can you think of anything that could have helped you to cope with these changes in your life in the last 1-2 years?

APPENDIX R

Consent Form

I, _____ (Mother's name), hereby consent to have my child, _____ (child's name), rated by his/her teacher, _____ (teacher's name), of _____ (name of school) on the Behavioral Checklist for Children. This rating is part of a research project in which my family and I are participating.

Signature _____

Witness _____

Date _____

APPENDIX S

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

WINNIPEG, CANADA
R3T 2N2

Dear _____:

_____, who is a student in your class, is participating
(child's name)
along with the rest of his/her family in a study that I am doing for my doctoral research at the University of Manitoba. I would greatly appreciate it if you would take five minutes to fill out a copy of the Behavioral Checklist for Children on _____, which I have enclosed.
(child's name)

I am enclosing a copy of a form on which _____
(child's name).
mother has given her consent to have you fill out the Behavioral Checklist for Children. When you have completed the form, please place it in the enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope and mail it to me as soon as possible. If you have any questions, please call me at 284-2332 after 6 p.m.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Geoffrey Nelson, M.A.
Department of Psychology
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3T 2N2

APPENDIX T

Correlations between Changes in Monthly Income Following the Death or Separation and the Dependent Measures on Widows, Divorcees, and their Children

Dependent Measures on the Women[a]	Family Status	
	Widowed	Divorced
Positive Affect (ABS)	.32	-.48*
Negative Affect (ABS)	-.29	-.25
Affect Balance (ABS)	.39	-.08
Happiness	-.28	-.19
Internal Feelings	.09	-.39
External Feelings	-.02	-.19
Total SAS Score	-.32	-.18
Dependent Measures on the Children		
Total SAI Score	.27[b]	-.02[c]
Happiness	-.13[b]	-.05[c]
Personality Problem (Mothers' Ratings)	.12[d]	-.14[e]
Conduct Problem (Mothers' Ratings)	.01[d]	-.20[e]
Personality Problem (Mothers' Ratings)	-.26[f]	-.15[f]
Conduct Problem (Mothers' Ratings)	-.19[f]	-.14[f]

[a]
[b] $n = 15$
[c] $n = 28$
[d] $n = 27$
[e] $n = 33$
[f] $n = 31$
$n = 22$

* $p < .05$