

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

PATERNAL BEHAVIORS,
THE PROCESS OF DIVORCE AND DESCRIPTORS
OF DIVORCED MEN

BY

LILY C. GILLESPIE

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LILY C. GILLESPIE

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the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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MASTER OF SCIENCE

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ABSTRACT

The first main purpose of this study was to describe the personal characteristics of the father who seeks to maintain ongoing contact with his children after divorce. The second purpose was to examine certain factors in the divorce process which might facilitate his doing so. Data were anonymously obtained by the use of mail-back questionnaires from 43 divorced fathers. The fathers in this study had been divorced for less than 10 years and had at least one child under 18 years of age.

Only the first three hypotheses were statistically testable. One of these three hypotheses was partially supported. It was discovered that the more masculine role oriented fathers and the older fathers were less likely to maintain frequent contact with their children after divorce. On the other hand, the better educated fathers and the fathers who had been involved with their children when they were infants were more likely to do so. Further analysis of the data revealed other significant findings. First of all, it was discovered that a high percentage of the low contact fathers reported having unfriendly feelings toward the ex-spouse. Secondly, and perhaps following from the first finding, was the finding that a low score on the Fisher subtest called Feelings of Anger (FOA) was also weakly negatively associated with contact. Although the association

was not significant the trend was in the expected direction. Finally, the data suggested that joint custody fathers have a higher level of contact than non-custody fathers.

The findings of this study suggest that there is a need for joint custody to be considered as the best option for the divorcing family. The findings also suggest that it is the legal aspect of the process of divorce that exacerbates tensions and prolongs conflicts between divorcing partners.

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In Dedication
To The Memory of My Father
William Roger Gillespie
(1916 - 1974)

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Divorce Rates

The divorce rate in Canada showed a marked increase from 1968 to 1969, following the enactment of the first federal divorce law. Although the provinces continued to take care of their own divorce proceedings after 1968 (Kubat & Thornton, 1974), the grounds were the same all across the country and there was an easing of grounds for petitioning for divorce (Kubat & Thornton, 1971). In 1971, according to Statistics Canada, (Stack, 1981), 16,431 or 48.7% of all divorcing couples had children. This number increased to 35,112 or 51.9% divorcing couples by 1981, and to 36,354 (53%) by 1983 (Stack, 1983).

Divorce is no longer seen by family researchers only as an event in the lives of individuals but as a process that affects daily behavior, self-esteem and overall adjustment, for a long time. Longitudinal research on the adjustment of children to divorce has shown that this is especially true for them. It is also true that the most common separation or post-divorce¹ family situation ".... is one in which the children live with a single mother and have intermittent or no contact with the father", (Schwartzberg, 1981, p. 119).

¹ For the remainder of this thesis, the term "divorce" will be used to denote separated or divorced men or families.

Research has also found that the importance of the father's role in the lives of his children does not decrease even though a divorce has occurred and he is no longer a part of their daily lives. The two most important factors affecting the maintenance of the paternal relationship would seem to be the personal characteristics of the father and the process of the divorce itself. That a continuation of the father-child relationship is important to the well-being of the child in the post-divorce family is an accepted fact (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1976; Seagull & Seagull, 1977). Research has shown that children adapt more quickly to divorce if they have access to both parents in the post-divorce stage and if the relationship between the parents is not one of bitterness and hostility (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). The variation in father-child contact in the post-divorce family is extreme. Some fathers go to great lengths to maintain a meaningful relationship with their children after divorce. Such fathers are not content to be weekend or visiting fathers, forced into a peripheral relationship with their children that diminishes over time. Other fathers, at great cost to themselves personally, or perhaps, just because it is easier, drop out of their children's lives and make no effort to continue the father-child relationship.

Prior to the 1980's research concerning the post-divorce family focused on the adjustment and

experiences of the mother and the children. Since then more studies have focused on the father and his experiences. One such study by Gersick (1979) made an attempt to describe divorced fathers, 20 of whom were custodial and 20 of whom were not.

Research has been done in the last decade on the different forms of custody and Wallerstein and Kelly (1977) partially described the non-custody or joint-custody fathers who do and do not maintain regular contact with their children. However, no attempt has been made to investigate the differences, in terms of experiences during the process of divorce, between the regular contact father and the father who has irregular or no contact with his children after divorce.

Who is the father who seeks to maintain contact with his children? Does the high contact father resemble Gersick's custodial father? Is his fathering behavior influenced by his experience in his family of origin, by his level of education and by his adjustment to divorce?

A divorce ends a marriage; it does not, however, end other family relationships, including parent-child and parent-parent. This idea was expressed well by Hess and Camara (1979, p. 1) when they stated that, "Divorce changes the relationships among family members; it does not end them". The father-child relationship is not one which

should be terminated by a divorce and a custody arrangement which limits the father's role in his childrens' lives.

Problem Statement And Purposes Of The Study

For the purposes of this study, level of contact was described by examining paternal behaviors in the post-divorce family. A central focus of the study was to compare the level of paternal contact with certain other measurable factors, such as adjustment to divorce and characteristics such as androgyny, masculinity or femininity. Comparisons were also made between contact and family of origin relationships/experiences, the decision to divorce and the structure of the family of procreation. The assumption is that there are relationships between paternal contact, the process of divorce and the personal characteristics of the father.

The two main purposes of the study were to:

- 1) Examine and describe the personal characteristics of the father who seeks to maintain ongoing contact with his children in the post-divorce period;
- 2) Examine certain factors or aspects of the divorce process which might facilitate the maintenance of paternal behaviors and, therefore, of optimal contact.

A third purpose of the study, one which the researcher included based upon personal observations of post-divorce fathering behaviors, was to

- 3) Investigate whether the presence of at least one boy in the family makes a difference in the level of paternal involvement in the post-divorce stage.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

Divorce As A Process

Divorce is no longer conceptualized as an event by family researchers. It is now considered to be a process, one wherein the patterns of the family are changed but not ended (Schwartzberg, 1981). The process of divorce often begins well before the legal divorce and can extend for several years after it. Researchers have described different phases in the process. The four phases which Bowlby (1960) identified were denial, protest, despair and detachment. These four phases are experienced as a part of the emotional divorce, which is one of six different experiences of divorce described by Bohannan (1970). The six are: the emotional divorce, the legal divorce, the economic divorce, the coparental divorce, the community divorce and the psychic divorce.

According to Bohannan (1970) these six 'divorces' are all happening at the same time, which is what creates the chaos and complexity of the divorce experience. He describes them as follows: "(1) the emotional divorce, which centers around the problem of the deteriorating marriage; (2) the legal divorce, based on grounds; (3) the

economic divorce, which deals with money and property; (4) the coparental divorce, which deals with custody, single-parent homes, and visitation; (5) the community divorce, surrounding the changes that every divorcee experiences; and (6) the psychic divorce, with the problem of regaining individual autonomy" (pp. 29-32).

Bohannan (1970) differentiates between emotional divorce and psychic divorce. The former is part of the process of detachment from the couple identity. The latter is the final detachment of the individual from the collective meanings of the marriage and is often not completed until a new marriage is begun.

The Wallerstein and Kelly study (1980) also focuses on the idea of divorce as a process, one "which begins with the escalating distress of the marriage, often peaks at the separation and legal filing, and then ushers in several years of transition and disequilibrium before the adults are able to gain, or to regain, a sense of continuity and confidence in their new roles and relationships" (p. 4).

Effects On The Parents

Sex differences in adjustment

Hetherington et al. (1976) found that divorced parents felt a greater degree of anxiety, anger, and rejection, and were more depressed and had more feelings of personal

incompetence than married parents. They also discovered differences between husband and wife reactions to divorce. Whereas the men in their study suffered from feelings of rootlessness, lack of structure in their daily lives and identity problems due to the loss of their dual role of husband-father, the women were prone to feeling helpless and unattractive and mourned the loss of their identity as a "married woman".

Both parents were prone to feelings of guilt and failure towards their children for not having kept the family intact (Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978). Such feelings were common even if the parent also felt relief at ending a bad marriage. Both initiators and non-initiators were liable to feel they had failed their children and even though the non-initiator felt no guilt or fault at the ending of the marriage (s)he was still likely to feel guilt about what the divorce might do to the children.

The fear of being rejected by their children was common to fathers, particularly to fathers whose pre-divorce relationship with their children was not a particularly close one. Most often the mother had been the primary caretaking parent and "many men are afraid that their children would prefer to be with their mother" (Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978, p. 12).

Issues involved in the identity of the initiator

The issue of who initiates the legal divorce is a complex one and must be separated from the issue of who is the original or "real" initiator of the divorce. Vaughan (1977) suggests that "... an early stage in the uncoupling process occurs as one or the other of the partners begins to question the coupled identity". This partner Vaughan labels the "initiator". The initiator is not necessarily the partner who begins legal proceedings nor, necessarily, the partner who is first to suggest the divorce.

Researchers have found that identifying who is the leaver and who is left is a somewhat complex issue. Many so-called "leavers", i.e. the partner who was the first to ask for the divorce, did so only after years of feeling emotionally "left" by their spouse. Initiator status has been identified by some researchers as the partner who was the first to actually suggest the divorce (Kitson, 1982; Spanier & Thompson, 1984) and by others as the partner who made the final decision to divorce (Pettit & Bloom, 1984; Zeiss, Zeiss & Johnson, 1980). Women have been found to be the initiators of the divorce more often than men (Bloom, Hodges & Caldwell, 1983; Buehler, 1987; Buehler, Hoban, Robinson & Levy, 1985/86; Pettit & Bloom, 1984; Spanier & Thompson, 1984; Zeiss et al., 1980). Although women tend to be the initiator in the sense that they are the first to suggest the divorce, men are more often the partner who is

first to withdraw psychologically from the marriage. The result of the distancing behavior of the male is, according to Goode (1956, p. 55), ".... to force the other spouse to ask for the divorce first".

According to Wallerstein and Kelly (1980), men who initiated the divorce were prone to feelings of guilt. If the guilt was extreme then the father was less likely to maintain contact with his children. If, however, he felt guilty but had his guilt feelings under control (i.e. they were not extreme) or if his guilt was due to leaving his children with a psychologically incompetent mother, then he was more likely to maintain contact and an active role in his children's lives.

Weiss (1975), on the other hand, suggested that the spouse who initiated the divorce (i.e., the original initiator) would also be the one who would be least likely to feel angry or rejected and therefore would be more likely to attempt to establish a friendly relationship with the ex-spouse. This was further elucidated by Vaughan (1977) who defined the initiator as the "... partner (who) no longer (finds) the coupled identity self-validating" (p. 325). Vaughan contended that divorce is more difficult for the other partner, who she described as the "significant other", for (s)he "still finds the marriage a major source of stability and identity" (p. 325).

The initiator, as the partner who cares the least and

thus has the least to lose if the marriage disintegrates, also has a longer time in which to adjust to the idea of divorce, to establish a separate identity and to deal with feelings of anger. The change to an uncoupled identity is thus not as great a threat to the security and self-esteem of the initiator as it is to that of the non-initiator. For the above reasons it is possible to assume that in the case of the father being the initiator, he would be more likely to continue his relationship with his children. The extent of his involvement would be affected by the degree of bitterness and anger displayed towards him by his ex-wife.

The least disturbed post-divorce relationship was found by Goode (1956) to be between spouses who had mutually agreed to terminate the marriage. In this case the mourning period was usually brief.

When the decision to divorce was not mutually agreed upon, Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) found that the psychological divorce took from 18 months to several years. They also found sex related differences in the adjustment time. Men were usually earlier to restabilize (within the second year), whereas the women were most often found to be into the third year after the divorce before they restabilized. According to Wallerstein and Kelly (1980, p. 4) restabilization happens when the divorced individual is ".... able to gain, or to regain, a sense of continuity and confidence in his/her new roles and relationships".

By the fifth year after the divorce just over half the women and two-thirds of the men felt positively about the divorce (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Even though more men than women felt positively about the divorce at the 5 year mark what is perhaps more significant is that the increases were greater for women. Another increase which was slightly higher for women than for men from the 6 months to the 5 year mark was in the percentages of those who enjoyed good psychological health. Whereas the ratios for the sexes were both 1/3 at the 6 month mark, the percentages had expanded to 50% of the men and 57% of the women by the fifth year. Women particularly showed gains in the areas of self esteem and in the "lifting of depression" (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980, p. 72). This was the case even if the woman was not the initiator, and can probably be explained by looking at the very structure of the modern North American family. As noted by Luepnitz (1986, p. 9), "the post-divorce family can also be an improvement". This is probably more true for women, who, in the model intact family, carry the main burden of child care. The role of father, on the other hand, has traditionally been a peripheral one in terms of child care. Therefore, it is possible that a divorce can correct, or at least improve, some of the problems created by roles in the whole or "intact" family (Luepnitz, 1986).

Effects on the Children

Role changes

Divorce necessitates a new and confusing role for the child within the family context. In the intact marriage in North American society the child is usually a symbol of the commitment of the parents to the marriage and to the family. In phenomenological terms, children increase the "objectivation" of the marriage. According to Berger and Kellner (1964), children "... form the most important part of the supporting chorus (of the marriage)" (p. 16). Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) also stress the importance of the child's role in the marriage when they contend that the child "represent(s) the continuity and expectation of a shared future" (p. 102 - 103).

The divorce effectively destroys these psychological meanings. The child's world is changed, for the most part, at a level beyond his comprehension. What happens with the divorce of the parents is, in effect, the death of the family as the child knows it. Losing a part of his/her world (usually the father), or having it labeled as "bad" by the custodial parent, is likely to have a negative effect on the child's self image and his/her future relationships (Committee on the Family Group, 1980). This would be particularly true for boys who had relied on their fathers as a male role model.

A further complication, increasing the child's feelings of insecurity and jeopardizing his/her self-esteem, is the possibility of self blame. Not having any other logical way to account for the break-up of his/her parents' marriage, the child will often blame himself/herself for it.

It has not been the break-up of the parental marriage but, rather, father absence that has traditionally been used to account for the plethora of emotional difficulties experienced by these children (Longfellow, 1979). Longfellow concluded that this was a simplistic analysis and that many other factors have been shown to be implicated more strongly in the child's adjustment to his/her changed universe than the mere fact of father absence.

More significant to the child's adjustment than father absence, although related to it, are "life event changes". These changes include the quality of the single parent mother's emotional and psychological adjustment, the continuing relationship between the parents and the presence of an outside support system, including extended family members, friends and/or teachers.

It has been the conclusion of several researchers (Rutter, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975, 1980; Hetherington et al., 1976) that the relationship between the parents is central to the adjustment of the child. The less conflicted the relationship is and the more supportive the coparent is of

the single parent mother, the greater the adjustment of the child.

Sex differences in adjustment

At the 18 month follow-up to their study Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) found that twice as many girls as boys were emotionally adjusted to the divorce. Since mothers gain custody in 90% of all divorces (DeFrain & Eirick, 1981; United States Bureau of Census, 1979; Goode, 1956) this differentiation could possibly be explained by the finding that a child's adjustment to divorce is increased by living with the same-sex parent (Hetherington et al., 1978). Since the mother is most often the custodial parent girls should, as a group, do better than boys.

Boys in the Wallerstein and Kelly study (1980), were still found to be intensely opposed to the divorce at the 18th month after the final decree. More boys than girls were depressed and plagued by feelings of being rejected by their fathers. The most highly disturbed group of all, according to Wallerstein and Kelly (1980, p. 172), were the pre-adolescent boys: "they remained preoccupied with sorrow over the departure of the beloved father". Hetherington et al., (1978), posited that boys living with a single parent mother would suffer on two counts: from the lack of paternal discipline and from the absence of the father as a male role model.

The converse may also be true. Peterson and Zill (1986) found that boys living with their fathers were just as emotionally adjusted as those who lived with both parents. In contrast to this, girls who lived with their fathers were both more depressed and more withdrawn than if they lived with a single parent mother.

Despite the fact that research has shown that girls who live with their fathers only do fairly poorly, in terms of their psychological and emotional growth, the importance of the father to the health and adjustment of his daughters should not be underestimated. The father is, in fact, of major importance to the growth and adjustment of his daughters.

Research studies which have focused on women who lost contact with their fathers when they were children, due either to death or divorce, have concluded that these women had more relationship and self-esteem problems as adults than women who grew up in families with fathers. Ross and Matas (1987) also reported that these women did not feel that they were ambitious and/or successful. From her survey on the feelings of children in divorced families, Walker (1986) concluded that girls missed their fathers more than boys did after the divorce.

Loyalty conflicts

The child's reaction to parental divorce is further complicated when there are loyalties to both parents. These

feelings of conflicting loyalties, which are often quite intense, depend on three things: the child's separate relationship with each parent, the ability of the coparents to put the needs of the child above their own feelings of bitterness or anger, and the level of overt conflict between the parents (Schwartzberg, 1981). Enduring conflict, particularly loyalty conflicts, resulted in what Wallerstein and Kelly (1980, p. 177) described as ".... a continuing stressful environment for children".

The parental relationship

Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) also found that one-third of the children in their study of 60 divorced families were exposed to a great deal of parental anger and bitterness during visits from the non-custodial parent. Visits were more often ruined in this way for older children than for younger ones, whom the parents were more likely to shield from these negative emotions. In general, younger children were protected from parental conflict and unresolved hostilities to do with the marriage and/or divorce. Divorcing parents, it seems, tended not to fight in front of the younger children.

In cases where the divorced mother continued to enjoy the support of her ex-husband, the parent-child relationship was least threatened (Hetherington et al., 1976). This supportive relationship between the ex-spouses would usually

carry over to the parent-child relationship, enhancing the child's contact with both the custodial and the non-custodial parent. If the child had little or no contact with the non-custodial parent (usually the father), the child was prone to feelings of intense loneliness and rejection. This was the case even if the pre-divorce relationship between the father and the child wasn't particularly close. It is obvious that a co-operative, friendly, relationship between the coparents goes a long way in mitigating the negative effects of the divorce on the long-term well-being of the child.

Age variables

At all age levels the major factor in a child's adjustment was his/her relationship with the custodial parent. If this was a good, supportive and healthy relationship the child adjusted much better, even if the relationship with the non-custodial parent left much to be desired. In these cases a good continuing relationship with the non-custodial father was the "icing on the cake", second only to the intact family wherein all relationships were mutually supporting, loving and healthy. Thus, at all age levels, the most highly adjusted and happy children had good continuing relationships with both parents, who were friendly and supportive of each other (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1980).

Younger children were just as affected as older children and adolescents, perhaps more severely, by conflicted, negative situations. However, as has already been mentioned, the younger children were most likely to be shielded from parental bitterness and anger (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975).

Adolescents, on the other hand, were not so protected. They were, as a group, most prone to conflicts to do with the issue of loyalty. This struggle, precipitated by the expectation that the child align himself with one parent, resulted in feelings of despair, guilt, and frequently depression (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974). Other psychological consequences particular to adolescents included rejection, a fear of abandonment or loss of love and a fear of personal marital failure (Sorosky, 1977).

Teachers, interviewed by Wallerstein and Kelly (1974), observed that adolescents were unable to develop and keep friendships if they had been exposed to a great deal of marital conflict. Whether the conflict had occurred in the pre-divorce or the post-divorce family made no difference to this outcome.

The Importance Of Paternal Contact

The Committee on the Family Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry (Committee, 1980) emphasized the importance of

the sensitivity of young children to "patterns of attachment" within the family. The "patterns" to which they refer are essentially developmental in nature and change with the changing needs of the child. Both the parents, the extended family and the home are important in the creation and the maintenance of the child's psychological universe, which is essentially what these "patterns" constitute. The Committee on the Family Group (1980) emphasized that parents "... even, or especially, divorcing parents - have a responsibility for continuing to construct an emotional universe for their young children" (p. 851).

Pedersen (1976) concluded, from his literature review on the subject, that the effects of father absence are extensive, influencing everything from the intellectual level of the child to the increased incidence of delinquent behavior. The most important factor relative to continued contact was the character of the relationship between the parents. Mothers in both intact and divorced families were found to be more effective if they had the support of the husband (or ex-husband). The mother's relationship with her children in the post-divorce family was changed on the one hand by the altered structure of the family and, on the other, by the "emotional meanings that the father's absence has to her" (Pedersen, 1976, p. 460).

Ongoing contact was found to be essential to the child's feelings of being loved by the non-custodial parent.

If the contact was nil or infrequent, if access to the parent was limited, the child was likely to feel rejected, unwanted and unloved by the absent parent.

The difficulties for the child which are inherent in the process of divorce can be turned into some positive gains for the child. This can happen only "if everyone stays in contact" (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980, p. 860). The child's needs are best fulfilled by the two parent "team" or, at the very least, by access to both parents separately.

More than anything else the Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) study emphasized that the child needs both parents. Their research "demonstrated the adverse effects of cutting a child off from his or her psychological parents" (p. 860).

What Factors Facilitate Post-Divorce Paternal Contact?

Adjustment to divorce

It stands to reason that the more adjusted to divorce the couple is, the more likely that a friendly post-divorce relationship will exist. If the trauma associated with detachment from the couple/marriage relationship has passed, leaving little residue of bitterness and anger, then friendly relations are possible. It should follow then, that the higher the adjustment to or acceptance of the divorce, the more likely it is that the non-custodial father would maintain regular contact with his children.

Attitude of the mother

Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) identified several factors which were related to maternal anger. In some of the cases wherein the mother continued to be angry and bitter, the father stopped visiting. In the remaining cases, however, maternal anger served to "strengthen the father's perseverance" (p. 126). These researchers also found that the negative attitude of the mother to the coparent was of "fading significance over time" (p. 131). These reactions were dependent upon the personalities of the non-custodial fathers and specifically upon the individual's level of determination to maintain contact with his children.

In cases where the mother expressed friendly feelings toward the ex-spouse and encouraged visiting, the fathers continued to have regular contact with their children. This situation, as has been noted previously, appears to be the best one, both for parents and for children.

Psychology of the father

Depression of the father, loneliness, guilt and feelings of rejection are the four most significant psychological factors implicit in whether the father does or does not maintain contact with his children. Depressed fathers were found by Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) to visit either sporadically or not at all. If, however, the man was lonely but otherwise psychologically "intact", he was likely

to seek to maintain contact.

Guilt was an even more complex reaction. Fathers typically felt guilty if:

- a) they had initiated the divorce;
- b) they were leaving what they perceived to be a very close father-child relationship; and,
- c) they left the child with a mother who was not psychologically well or who was not otherwise completely competent as a person or as a parent.

Fathers visited more if they were able to overcome or otherwise come to terms with their feelings of guilt. Generally, the level of maturity and the overall psychological health of the father facilitated his continuing contact with his child. This kind of man, according to Wallerstein and Kelly (1980), was able to support his children's "continued growth into maturity and independence" (p. 260).

Feelings of rejection were usually a reaction more often found in men who had not initiated the divorce, who were opposed to it, and who were to varying degrees taken by surprise by it. If they felt rejected by their wives they often felt, or expected to feel, rejected by their children. These fathers were "preoccupied with shame, grief, lowered self-esteem", and their "expendability in the family system" (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980, p. 127).

Other factors which were found to facilitate contact were:

- a) the father's economic security;
- b) the educational level of the father;
- c) the anger of the children; and,
- d) whether a visiting relationship was established immediately after the physical separation.

The actual physical separation was found to be an important phase in establishing a visiting routine: "If weakened at this time, the relationship may be more difficult to restore" (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980, p. 131).

Personal characteristics of the father

Men who sought custody or who sought to maintain maximum contact with their children were likely, according to Gersick (1979) in his study of 40 divorced fathers, to share the following characteristics/backgrounds:

- were more likely to come from traditional families;
- were more likely to have had a more intense relationship with their mothers than with their fathers (i.e. the mother was the most significant parent);
- were more likely to have had a distant but respectful father-child relationship;
- were likely to have siblings of both sexes;

- were more likely to be middle or last-born children than first born or only children;
- were more actively involved with child care when their child was younger;
- were likely to feel like the wronged party, betrayed by the wife; and,
- were older, more conservative and better educated than those who did not seek custody of their children.

Gersick's group of custodial fathers were disappointed in the relationship they had had with their own fathers and were determined to be emotionally involved with their own children. These fathers cared deeply about their children and were willing to make career sacrifices in order to raise them. As Gersick (1979, p. 322) noted ".... many of the difficulties the men faced as a result of taking custody were exactly the same as those widely experienced by single parent mothers".

Sex of the child

In their analysis of the June 1975 "current population survey" in an article for Family Relations, Spanier and Glick (1981, p. 334) correlated marital stability/instability with the sex and presence of children: "Women who have at least one son are most likely to remain in their first marriage. One example of the converse is that women

with two children who have two girls, as opposed to two boys or one girl and one boy, are more likely to become divorced or separated; the differences are not large but are statistically significant". Spanier and Glick speculated that the traditional reasons that fathers have had for wanting sons, to carry on the family name or to pass on the family farm/business to, may still be in force in our society.

A further speculation, that of the researchers Hetherington et al., (1978), is that a woman with sons may not choose divorce as an alternative as often as women with daughters. Women would, they contend, hesitate to raise sons without a father to serve as a role model or to help in parenting and disciplining.

For whatever reasons, reluctance to divorce does seem to be positively associated with the presence of at least one boy in the family. This being so, it would be possible to speculate that non-custodial or joint-custodial fathers would be more likely to maintain on-going contact with their children if at least one son was involved.

The Legal Divorce

Constituants of the legal divorce

Another factor in the process of divorce which has a major influence on the relationships and the adjustment of

the post-divorce family is the legal divorce. This is true whether it is division of property and money that is being negotiated or child support, custody and visitation rights. It is true, as Fishel (1985, p. 27) contends, that "Dividing the assets of a marriage equitably between the two parties is a difficult task, but dividing the children is impossible". The coparental divorce is only one of the three main "constituents" of the legal divorce. Bohannan (1970) describes these three main constituents as:

- a) the legal divorce - based on grounds;
- b) the economic divorce, which deals with the settlement of money and property; and,
- c) the coparental divorce, which deals with issues to do with the children of the marriage - with custody, visitation and support payments.

Of central importance to the well-being and adjustment of the children, the coparental divorce is fraught with hazards which are potentially disastrous to the post-divorce family.

The traditional divorce

Traditionally, divorce settlements have been reached either by litigation or by negotiation between the partners' lawyers. In litigation, where the partners are unable to reach an amicable agreement, it is the court which makes the decisions and rules on questions concerning property and

children. The major problem with court intervention is that there is usually a winner and a loser. Obviously, litigation would tend to encourage and prolong conflict and negative interaction between divorcing spouses. Parent-child relationships would no longer be natural but legal, court-granted and court-enforced.

Studies done by Hetherington et al. (1976) and Wallerstein and Kelly, (1980) indicate that it is not the fact of divorce but the process, particularly the legal aspect of the process, that is responsible for the continuing stress of both parents and children in the post-divorce family. In this system children are treated as another part of the property to be fought over (Scheiner, Musetto & Cordier, 1982). When disputes over custody and visitation continue after the legal divorce, the adjustment period of the children is prolonged. According to Ross and Matas (1987, p. 17), "The adversarial legal system is extremely detrimental for divorcing families. It encourages and rewards anger, retaliation and unfairness". If it is the case, as researchers claim, that one of the factors which facilitates a child's adjustment to divorce is a co-operative, conflict-free coparental relationship, then it is obvious that the traditional adversarial system of divorce is part of the problem. The adversarial approach to divorce does not solve problems; it creates more (Ilfeld, Ilfeld & Alexander, 1982). It is in the best interests of

the children that a different system be established (Scheiner et al., 1982). The lack of success of the old system is reflected by the statistics on the large number of families who return to court after the initial ruling. Some return again and again. It is also reflected by the lack of co-operation between the coparents: by the many fathers who do not keep up their support payments and by the mothers who deny their ex-spouse access to the children (Emery & Wyer, 1987).

Mediation

Mediation is a relatively new approach to resolving the disputes of divorcing couples and is usually a court-ordered response when negotiations between the couple break down. In mediation, a trained third party conciliates between the partners to facilitate communication and foster a co-operative approach in order to reach agreements which are satisfactory to both parties. This approach is especially important when questions concerning the children are involved. The most significant difference between the traditional adversarial approach and mediation is that the latter facilitates a spirit of co-operation whereas the former encourages competition. In mediation, all family members should be winners and the children should be able to continue to have a healthy relationship with both psychological parents.

The central task of the divorcing family is to redefine rules, roles and relationships. A certain amount of flexibility, of willingness to give and take, is necessary to ensure that this happens with a minimum of pain for all involved.

The major advantages of mediation stem from the following: firstly, in mediation the partners have a greater opportunity to openly express their needs and wishes; secondly, the partners have the opportunity to develop neglected skills in dealing with each other in a positive manner; and, thirdly, the feeling the partners have of ownership of an agreement that has been negotiated between themselves and is mutually acceptable. This sense of ownership, researchers have found, increases the probability of both partners adhering to their agreement, be it fathers maintaining support payments or mothers facilitating visitation (Kressel & Prvitt, 1985).

Mediation thus has the potential for maximizing benefits for both parents and children. The major goals of mediation are to settle disputes amicably and, in so doing, ensure that the partners reach an agreement that is fair and equitable to both. Reconciliation is never a "goal" per se, of mediation (Emery & Wyer, 1987).

There are still a number of questions concerning mediation which need to be answered:

- a) Who should do the mediation, lawyers or trained mental health professionals?
- b) Which disputes of the couple (if not all) are most important to deal with in mediation?
- c) Should mediation be limited to private practice or should it be a public service?
- d) Should joint custody be a goal of mediation? (Emery & Wyer, 1987).

Despite the fact that these important questions remain to be answered, mediation does seem to be a success in many cases. It is the conclusion of the researchers Emery and Wyer (1987, p. 479) that "Mediation appears to hold the potential to alleviate some sources of stress for divorcing spouses and their children, and it may ease court loads and increase compliance with divorce agreements in the process".

Custody

Types of custody. It is simplistic to categorize custody as either "non" or "joint" as there are at least two sub-categories for each "style". These styles are described by Ross and Matas (1987) as follows:

- a) Absolute sole custody, wherein one parent is granted complete control of the children's lives and the other parent has neither access nor visiting rights.

- b) Sole custody, which was the usual "style" of custody prior to the present decade. In Canada, in 90% of cases, sole custody was granted to the mother. In this style the mother has sole physical custody and the father is granted limited visitation rights.
- c) Legal joint custody, wherein the parents must discuss any major decisions affecting their children. The other parent must always be consulted.
- d) Physical joint custody, in which the children spend approximately equal time with each parent.

Reasons for disputing custody. Parents who dispute custody would seemingly do so from the belief that their children would be better off living with them than with the other parent. They believe that they are the parent who is better able to provide for the child's needs, whether those needs are physical or emotional.

The real reasons may be hidden, even to the parent who chooses to contest custody. Other possible reasons are as follows:

- a) An attempt to maintain a relationship with the ex-spouse;
- b) An attempt to "reinvolve" the other spouse who has withdrawn from the relationship;

- c) An attempt at revenge;
- d) An attempt to bolster or validate their own feelings of self worth;
- e) An attempt to "justify" their own position; and,
- f) An attempt to hold on to or maintain a relationship with a child who is "parentified" and thus is a necessary component of the parent's mental health and emotional stability (Scheiner et al., 1982).

Joint custody. In most cases, unless the divorce occurred when the child was very young, a child has two psychological parents. The primary attachment may be to one parent, often the mother who spends so much time with the child in the first few years of his/her life, but the child is usually psychologically attached to both parents. A divorce does not change this fact. According to Scheiner et al. (1982, p. 104), "a psychological parent supports the intrinsic loyalty of the child toward both parents and encourages the child having a continuous, positive relationship with the other (psychological) parent".

It would seem that joint custody, as the custodial style which encourages a child's continuing relationship with both parents, is the best possible custodial alternative. Joint custody prevents what Ross and Matas (1987) refer to as a "parentectomy". A parentectomy is

basically the cutting off of one parent (usually the father) by the other, sole-custody, parent.

Many advocates of mediation believe that joint custody should be one of the aims and goals of mediation (Scheiner et al., 1982). Besides being the best choice for the continuing well-being of the children, joint custody has been shown to have other benefits, one of which is the reduction of post-divorce conflict (Ilfeld et al., 1982). Joint custody fathers have been shown by researchers to maintain a much higher level of involvement with their children in the post-divorce family (Bowman & Ahrons, 1985).

Physical joint custody would seem, in the majority of cases, to be the best choice both for parents and for children. It is a choice which allows fathers to continue in their parenting roles and relationships after a divorce has occurred. Barring that possibility, legal joint custody would seem to be the next best choice. A man divorces his wife. He does not, as a father, divorce his children. Joint custody recognizes this fact.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

This study was designed to identify the man who seeks to maintain ongoing contact with his children in the post-divorce period and to investigate some of the factors in the divorce process which might facilitate his doing so. Data were collected by means of questionnaires which were anonymously mailed to the researcher by the respondents. The respondents were separated (involved in divorce proceedings) or divorced male parents. The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance (Siegal, 1956) and Crosstabulation tables were used to analyze the data.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis I

Adjustment to divorce, as measured by Fisher's scale, will be positively associated with paternal contact.

Adjustment to divorce has been defined as an acceptance by the divorcee of new social roles and statuses to meet the requirements of a new situation through a change in points of view and habit (Zadrozny, 1959).

The adjusted individual would have met the challenge involved in the role and status changes from being married to being single. When children are involved there is a further challenge in adjusting to the role and relationship changes inherent in being a "live-out" father. Adjustment to divorce would necessitate a certain amount of flexibility, both in attitude and in terms of adjusting to changes in patterns of living and relating. The adjusted divorced father, having successfully undergone the change from married to single father, should be able to maintain an on-going positive relationship with his children.

Hypothesis II

High scores on androgyny or femininity in the BEM sex role inventory will be positively associated with paternal contact.

Androgenous persons are thought to be more flexible individuals than traditionally sex-typed males and females. Direct support for a relationship between androgyny and flexibility and androgyny and empathy is lacking in research done to date. There does, however, appear to be support for the belief that androgenous individuals have more effective interpersonal skills and, hence, relationships (Tomszak,

1983). It was also concluded by Bem and Lenny (1976) that more androgenous individuals respond not so much to the expectations of the sex role as to interactional and situational "cues". This implies that androgenous persons are more sensitive and empathetic than are persons who adhere to traditional male roles. Some of the sex-stereotypes associated with femininity are sensitivity, compassion, the ability to empathize and self-disclose, being emotional and understanding and being more expressive of inner feelings (Goldberg, 1980; Indvik & Fitzpatrick, 1982; Pleck, 1976). An androgenous male (one who has a high score on both masculine and feminine traits) or a feminine male, would be assumed to have a high rating in the expressive traits traditionally associated with being female, traits which are necessary attributes of nurturing individuals. A man who is highly sex-typed in the masculine role would be less able to enter into a nurturing, mutually satisfying, relationship with his children. It would seem that the traditional masculine image of a man who is always in control, strong and silent, is one which would interfere with positive parenting. Klein and Pełow (1982) noted this and concluded that traditional masculine characteristics interfere with good parenting, wherein the needs are to be sensitive, responsive, warm and accepting. According to these researchers "it is little wonder that men find it difficult to be comfortable in a fathering niche" (Klein &

Pelow, 1982, p. 16).

Hypothesis III

A resemblance to Gersick's "custodial" fathers will be positively associated with paternal contact.

Gersick (1979) was able to assign a set of characteristics to his group of 20 custodial fathers which differentiated them from his group of 20 non-custodial fathers. The custodial fathers were, as a group, reared in traditional families wherein the fathers went out to work daily and the mothers stayed at home to "take care of" home and children. These men had closer relationships with their mothers than their fathers, with whom they had a more distant, but "respectful", relationship. In other words, mother was "Mom", enacting the expressive role and nurturing her children, whereas father remained "Father" - the bread winner, the disciplinarian, the distant parent.

Gersick (1979) also found that his custodial fathers were more likely to be middle or last-born children who had siblings of both sexes. One can only speculate about the reasons why first-born, only child and brothers-only men would not fit into the custodial fathers group. Firstly, oldest children are categorized as high achievers, as

ambitious self-promoters. Such a man would be goal oriented and highly motivated career wise, less inclined to give much of himself to his family. Secondly, only children, although there is little research to support this, are considered to be more selfish and less concerned with, or able to adjust to, the needs of others. Such individuals would also be unlikely to have the expressive qualities that would best fit them for family and parenting roles.

Why having siblings of both sexes is of consequence is also open to conjecture. Perhaps it is the case that women, their needs, their personhood, would be more real to a man who had had sisters as well as brothers while he was growing up. Having had sisters would be particularly likely to facilitate a man's relationship(s) with his daughter(s).

Gersick's custodial fathers were also found to be more actively involved with their children when the children were younger. The paternal role has become a more gratifying one as there is now more societal support and recognition for being an involved father. Paternal interaction with the infant (or young child) can be gratifying in itself. Active involvement in the child's early years would mean that the father-child bond was established, as were patterns of interaction and activity. Such a father would not likely be anxious about his relationships with his children, about his importance to them, or about what he would "do with" them for a stretch of time.

Gersick also found that the custodial fathers were more likely to feel like the wronged party, betrayed by the wife. Although hurt and perhaps angry, these men would feel little guilt. Just because their partner wanted a divorce would not mean that they should lose their relationship(s) with their children as well. In fact, feeling like the wronged party, particularly if the spouse had been involved in an extra-marital affair, these men would be more likely to fight for custody. Their sense of justice, "I'm not the one that wanted the divorce", "The divorce isn't my fault, why should I give up my kids?" would likely influence their decision to fight for custody.

Gersick's custodial fathers were also older than his group of non-custodial fathers. Older fathers would, presumably, have older children. The father-child relationship would be well established, the children less dependent on the mother-child bond. The courts are also more likely to grant the custody of older children to their fathers. In the case of younger children, the courts almost always grant custody to the mother, assuming that the younger child is in need of the special nurturing relationship that it is believed that mothers are best able to provide.

Another characteristic of Gersick's custodial fathers was conservatism. Conservative men, particularly in regards to the family, would tend to believe in the family, in

marriage and in the responsibilities of parents to their children. Children would be considered a continuation of the male family line and, as such, the man's "property" to be taken care of.

Finally, the custodial fathers, Gersick found, were better educated. Education could be related in several ways to a man's seeking and/or obtaining custody. First of all, and perhaps most obviously, better educated men would have better jobs and higher incomes. Such fathers would be seen by the courts to be better able to provide for their children. Education could also mean that these men would know how to gain custody of their children, they would not automatically assume that they didn't have a chance to obtain custody. High education would also be likely to be associated with a higher adjustment to divorce. Such men would know where to go for support and would be likely to have the resources to continue their pre-divorce life-style.

Hypothesis IV

A mutual decision to divorce will be positively associated with paternal contact.

If a couple had mutually agreed to divorce the mourning period should tend to be brief and less traumatic for the partners (Goode, 1956). In such cases the post-divorce

relationship would tend to be less disturbed or conflict prone, there would be fewer recriminations, less guilt, anger and rejection. Both partners would, depending on the time between the individual recognition that a divorce was a possibility and the decision to divorce, have established a life apart from the couple identity. Such people would also likely have related to their children separately for some time and would find the transition to single parenthood easier. If, on the other hand, the decision to divorce was non-mutual, the individuals could face a lengthy adjustment period, one which could possibly last for several years (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980).

The mutual-decision divorce would leave both parents psychologically intact, leaving the father free to maintain his parent-child relationships and, possibly, face less negative resistance from his ex-spouse. Both parents would be more able to put their children's needs first as they would have their own feelings and needs in proper perspective.

Hypothesis V(a)

Men who were first to withdraw psychologically from the marriage will have a higher rate of contact with their children in the post-divorce period than will men whose ex-spouse was the first to withdraw psychologically.

The definition of the "real" initiator of the divorce ascribed to by the present researcher was first defined by Vaughan (1977) as the partner who is first to question the "coupled identity", that is, the partner who is identified by one or both partners as being first to withdraw psychologically. Using this definition, the "initiator" is not necessarily the partner who first suggested the divorce nor the partner who was first to initiate legal proceedings.

On the negative side, being the first to withdraw from the coupled identity could lead to feelings of guilt (Wallerstein and Kelly, 1980). On the other hand, this partner would be more likely to take a positive view of the divorce, for his identity would no longer be tied in to the couple. He would also be less likely to experience feelings of rejection and anger (Weiss, 1975) and would have more time to adjust to the idea of divorce. If he were able to keep his guilt under control, a man who was the initiator, as defined by Vaughan (1977), should be more likely to maintain contact with his children.

Hypothesis V(b)

Men who were the first to suggest the divorce will have a higher rate of contact with their children in the post-divorce period than will men whose ex-spouse was the first to suggest the divorce.

The partner who is first to suggest the divorce may do so because he/she has picked up on the signals of the other partner (assuming that the other partner has withdrawn psychologically from the marriage). The partner may suggest the divorce because he/she believes it is the only option, because he/she wants to gauge the others reaction, or to shock the other partner and stimulate discussion about a marriage considered to be in trouble. When one partner suggests the divorce because the marriage has clearly become intolerable, he/she should have little guilt about it. As the one to take the first step he/she would also be more likely to feel in control - the divorce would not be something that is happening without his/her consent. In the case where the father is first to suggest the divorce, this would allow him to preserve his feelings of competence and his self-esteem. Feeling competent, in control and good about himself should enable him to continue his parent-child relationship(s).

Hypothesis VI

The presence of at least one male child in the family will be positively associated with paternal contact.

Spanier and Glick (1981) found a positive correlation between marital stability and the presence of at least one boy in the family. They speculated that women would be less likely to initiate a divorce if they had one son; this was due to the hesitance and doubt of the women regarding their ability to parent or discipline a boy on their own. They also speculated that the traditional reasons for wanting sons are still in place in our society: to carry on the family name, to "head" the family, to pass along the family farm or business. If these traditional reasons are still in place, it is possible that if at least one son has been born to the couple the marriage is intrinsically more stable; the woman has done her duty, so to speak, and provided an heir. Whatever the reasons, the fact remains that research (Spanier & Glick, 1981; Hetherington et al., 1978) has shown a relationship between stability of the marriage and the presence of a son, or sons, in the family.

Selection of the Sample

One hundred questionnaires were sent to divorced men, all but three of whom lived in Manitoba. Most of the men lived within the city of Winnipeg and the remainder lived in rural communities in the southern section of the province. The criteria for selection were:

- 1) age between 20 and 65;
- 2) divorced no more than 10 years;
- 3) at least one child born of the marriage who is less than 18 years of age;
- 4) have no more than one set of children of divorce;
- 5) be either a non-custodial or a joint-custodial father; and,
- 6) live within a 5-hour drive of his children.

The sample was a "snowball" sample. The researcher obtained the names of approximately 50 men who fit the criteria from friends and acquaintances. These men were subsequently telephoned by the researcher and given such information as the purpose of the study, the procedure for collection of data, and the assurance of anonymity. The researcher requested participation with the understanding that the respondent would have the option to decide not to participate after he had received and examined the research instruments. The option to request the results of the study was given to each participant. Mailed questionnaires were used to collect data and a self-addressed, stamped envelope was included to facilitate return of the questionnaire to the researcher. A letter was included with the questionnaires, repeating some of the information given in the telephone call and stating that a follow-up phone call would be made to each respondent by the researcher two weeks

after the research instrument was mailed to him. The researcher also offered the respondent time to discuss any of his concerns. If the participant requested the results of the study at the time of the initial phone call he was able to retain his anonymity. If, however, he requested the results when he returned the questionnaires, he was not able to remain anonymous.

All of the men contacted by the researcher agreed to provide their addresses so that the research instruments could be sent to them. The researcher also contacted a senior member of the FATHERS organization who addressed and mailed the questionnaires to members.

As a further possible means of obtaining the sample, the researcher contacted a columnist with the Winnipeg Free Press, who wrote a short note about the study in his column. As a result, the researcher received six calls from divorced men - four of whom met the criteria and agreed to participate in the study. The remaining six questionnaires were distributed by men who were participating in the study and asked for an extra copy of the research instrument "for a friend".

Data collection

All data were collected between April and September of

1987. The instruments were mailed to each respondent with a return, self-addressed stamped envelope enclosed. This method of data collection ensured anonymity. It was believed that the subjects would answer the questions more honestly if anonymity was assured.

The Research Design

Research Instruments And Measures

Data were obtained by means of questionnaires. These consisted of items about personal information, a Familism Scale (Bardis, 1959), Fisher's Adjustment to Divorce Inventory (Fisher, 1976) and the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) (Bem, 1974).

The personal information questionnaire

Demographic information was included in the questionnaire, which included age, number of years married, number of years or months separated before the divorce, number of years divorced, number, ages and sex of children, and education and employment information. Questions were also asked to determine the man's present marital status, frequency of contact with the children, the man's present relationship with his ex-spouse, whether support payments were made and the level at which this was perceived as a

burden. Information was also gathered regarding who initiated the separation and/or the divorce, the degree of the father's perceived involvement with his children in their infancy and pre-school years and whether the father had attempted to, or thought about, gaining custody of the children. Questions were also asked about the family of origin, such as relationship with parents when growing up and birth order, in order to compare with Gersick's (1979) custodial fathers. The final question in the personal information questionnaire contained 16 separate items which together composed the Familism Scale (Bardis, 1959). The Familism Scale was given as a measure of conservatism, one of the descriptors of Gersick's custodial fathers.

Fisher's adjustment to divorce inventory (1976)

Fisher's Adjustment to Divorce Inventory is a 100 item questionnaire designed by Fisher as a part of his doctoral dissertation in 1976. He revised it in 1978 to the form used in the present research. Fisher designed his questionnaire to measure an individual's adjustment to the ending of what Fisher referred to as a "love relationship". The responses use a five choice Likert type scale which ranges from almost-always to almost-never. There is a total score for overall adjustment and six subtest scores:

feelings of self-worth, disentanglement from love relationship, feelings of anger, symptoms of grief, rebuilding social trust and, social self-worth.

The two subtests "feelings of self-worth" (FSW) and "symptoms of grief" (SOG) deal with the divorcee's personal adjustment. The first subtest determines whether the divorcee has feelings of being worthwhile, self-confidence, and of being capable of intimacy and closeness. The second scale determines how emotionally intact the divorcee is, having dealt with feelings of sadness, depression and loneliness.

The subtests "disentanglement from love relationship" (DLR) and "feelings of anger" (FOA) deal with the divorcee's relationship with the ex-spouse. The former subtest measures whether the divorcee is "emotionally" divorced from the ex-spouse and has accepted the divorce as best for everybody in the family. The latter subtest establishes whether the divorcee has a comfortable relationship with the ex-spouse, one which is free from anger, blame and hurt.

The subtest "rebuilding social trust" (RST) deals with the divorcee's new "love relationship". This subtest measures whether the divorcee is capable of intimacy and trust - of letting others, especially a new partner, get close.

The last subtest, "social self-worth" (MSC), deals with the divorcee's relationships with friends. It measures

social adjustment and determines the divorcees acceptance of his/her new role as a single person.

According to Fisher (personal communication, Feb. 1987) the face validity of his instrument is good. Most people who read the 100 items comment on their relevance. Fisher noted that researchers using the instrument have found that both divorce adjustment and scores on the FDAS improve the longer people are separated. According to Fisher, this indicates that the FDAS is, in fact, measuring divorce adjustment. In the information package accompanying the questionnaires Fisher reported that, in divorce seminars conducted at the Fisher Institute, there has been found to be a high correlation between the ratings participants give each other on growth and divorce adjustment and the gain on the comparison scores between the pre-test and the post-test.

Fisher also reported that the alpha internal reliability of his instrument is good and that the total score reliability is .985 while the reliability of the subtests range from .87 to .93. Although no validity statistics are available, Fisher claimed that there are several "indications" of validity. A sample population of 500 people was used to norm and standardize the scale. The scoring results of these standardized scores are plotted on a profile sheet. Percentile rank order scores are used.

Bem sex role inventory (BSRI)

Bem's (1974) Sex Role Inventory was administered to subjects to yield a level of masculinity, femininity or androgyny. This particular scale is one of the most frequently used measures of androgyny. The Bem Sex Role Inventory was devised by Sandra Bem and published first in 1974. Bem revised the scoring system in 1977. Subjects are scored and classified as masculine, feminine, androgenous or undifferentiated. The BRSI consists of 60 personality characteristics, 20 of which are masculine stereotypes, 20 feminine stereotypes and 20 filler items. The respondents rate themselves for each characteristics on a 7 point scale in which 1 is "never or almost never" and 7 is "always or almost always true".

The contact measure

Lacking any other previously devised and tested scale, a contact measure was devised by the researcher using question 11 from the demographic information questionnaire (see Appendix A). From question 11, it was possible to obtain a level of frequency of contact between father and child, ranging from "never" to "daily".

The "daily" or "weekly" contact fathers constituted the high contact group, the "monthly" contact fathers

constituted the medium contact group and the "yearly"--"never" contact fathers constituted the low contact group.

Gersick's custodial fathers

Gersick (1979) identified 10 "characteristics" of custodial fathers from his comparison study of custodial and non-custodial fathers. Five of the characteristics concern family background. Others are: age, conservatism, educational level, feelings about the divorce and, finally, level of involvement with their children when they were infants and/or toddlers.

The subjects of the present research were divided into 2 groups for each of Gersick's "Characteristics". Group 1 for each test included individuals who "fit" the characteristics, Group 2, those who did not. Crosstabulations with level of contact were made for characteristics 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 10. The Kruskal-Wallis 1-way Anova was used for characteristics 6, 7, 8 and 9.

Data Analysis

Non-parametric tests were used to analyze the data. When ordinal and nominal data are obtained non-parametric tests are used so that it is possible to avoid having to make the assumptions associated with the use of parametric tests. The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was

used to 'test' the relationships and Crosstabulation tables were used to analyze the data. In cases where Crosstabulation tables were used, statistics were not computed as there were too many cells with expected frequencies less than 5. Where statistical testing of hypotheses was possible, the .05 level of confidence was used.

CHAPTER IV

Results

Description of the Sample

Of the 100 mailed questionnaires, 57 were returned. Four were returned undone and ten were unusable for the following reasons: In four cases the father had custody; in two cases the children lived more than a 5-hour drive away; in one case the children were all older than 18; in one case the ex-couple had never been married; and, in the final two cases, the questionnaires were returned after the data had been analyzed.

The final sample consisted of 43 men, six of whom were separated but involved in divorce proceedings and 37 of whom had been divorced no more than 10 years. Ages ranged from 32 to 60 years, with a mean age of 41. The man's age at the time of marriage ranged from 19 to 31, with a mean of 24. Length of time married ranged from three years to 22 years, with a mean of 12 years. Thirty-one (72%) of the sample had been married between 6 and 15 years. The length of time legally divorced ranged from one month to 10 years, with a mean of 3 years. Thirty-nine percent had been divorced from 1 to 5 years. The total number of children for the sample was 86, with a modal number of 2 children per father. Fifty-two of the children were boys, 34 were girls. There

were 14 one-child families, 12 of whom were boy-only families. The age range of the children was from 5 to 27 (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
PROFILE OF FAMILY BY CHILDREN

<u>No. of Children</u>		<u>Mean Age in Years</u>
Boys - 52		12.9
Girls - 34		14.6
Total - 86		13.6
<u>Family Size (Minimum - 1, Maximum - 8)</u>		
1 child - 14	33%	1 Sex families
(boys only - 12)		
(girls only - 2)		Boy only - 18
2 children - 24	56%	(1 or more)
3 children - 2	5%	Girl only - 7
4 children - 1	2%	(1 or more) —
5 children - 0	-	Total — 25
6 children - 1	2%	—
7 children - 0	-	—
8 children - 1	2%	—
Total N = 43	100%	—
<u>Modal No. of children - 2</u>		

The largest percentage of the respondents (37.2%) were divorced and living alone, while a further 12% were separated (involved in divorce proceedings) and living alone. Of the divorced men, 23.5% reported being remarried

(See Appendix B). Joint custody fathers constituted 44.2% of the sample and 41.9% were non-custody fathers. This high percentage of joint custody fathers is indicative of the current trend towards joint custody as a viable option for divorcing parents (Ross & Matas, 1987). The remainder reported a variety of custodial arrangements (see Table 2). Only 18.6% reported not having considered trying to get custody of their children, while a sizeable majority (81.4%) had considered trying for custody.

TABLE 2
CUSTODY ARRANGEMENTS/SATISFACTION

Variable	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Non-custody	18	41.9
Joint-custody	19	44.2
1 child each parent	2	4.7
Custody of 1 son only	1	2.3
Still in courts	1	2.3
Custody of 2 oldest only	1	2.3
Unknown	1	2.3
Thought of trying for custody	35	81.4
Did not consider trying for custody	8	18.6
Satisfied with present custodial arrangement	27	62.8
Not satisfied with custodial arrangement	16	37.2

Despite this fact, 62.8% reported being satisfied with their present custody arrangement, while the remainder (37.2%) were not. Only 4 fathers saw their children on a daily basis. Twenty-two saw their children weekly and 6 saw their children once a month. Only 3 of the remaining fathers reported that they never saw their children (one of these 3 fathers lived with "some of" his children).

Thirty-four (79%) of the fathers reported paying support for the maintenance of their children. The majority perceived this as a duty and a responsibility. Thirteen (28%) of the fathers who did, or were supposed to, pay support, perceived this responsibility negatively (see Table 3).

The respondents work at a wide variety of occupations, with only 2 reporting being unemployed at the time of the study. Twenty-eight percent of the respondents classified themselves as "professionals with advanced degrees". An even higher percentage (42%) reported that their income was in excess of \$50,000 (see Appendix B for Demographic Information).

TABLE 3

**SUPPORT PAYMENTS AND PERCEPTION OF THE
FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY**

Value Label	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Pay Support	34	79
Do not pay support	9	21
Perception of Payment		
As a duty/responsibility	21	49
As a burden	6	14
Responsibility and burden	1	2
Other financial arrangements made	1	2
A legally directed duty	1	2
As a duty/equal time means equal expenses	2	5
"Something I want to do for my son"	1	2
"I do not mind supporting my children - my role as a parent continues"	1	2
Was a burden - now bankrupt	1	2
"A burden when I was paying - my wife was remarried"	1	2
Unjustly used and excessive in regards to child's needs	1	2
Unfair	1	2
"If the children need anything I will purchase it for them within reason"	1	2
"I feel the costs should be shared equally and I should have equal say in how the money is spent"	1	2
Burden to support the ones living with me	1	2
(No comment)	2	5

Tests of HypothesesHypothesis I

Adjustment to divorce, as measured by Fisher's Scale, will be positively associated with paternal contact.

Adjustment to divorce was measured by using Fisher's Adjustment to Divorce Inventory in which scores on six subtests are added to yield a total adjustment score (see Table 4). Levels of adjustment were determined with 37% of the respondents falling into the highly adjusted category, 46% in the medium-high category, 12% medium-low and 5% low

TABLE 4
**BREAKDOWN OF ADJUSTMENT SCORES
BY SUBTESTS**

	FSW	DLR	FOA	SOG	RST	MSC	Total
Total Possible	125	110	60	120	40	45	500
Max Score	125	110	57	120	40	43	485
Min Score	59	43	16	52	14	17	243
Mean	103	96	44	104	33	35	416
Fisher's Mean	97	92	43	95	28.5	32.5	377

(see Table 5). The raw scores were broken down into levels with the top 20 percent constituting the level of high adjustment and the bottom 20 percent constituting the level of low adjustment. This break down into levels was done by the present researcher.

TABLE 5

LEVELS OF ADJUSTMENT USING THE FISHER SCALE,
BY RAW SCORES AND PERCENTAGES

Level	Raw Scores	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
High	440-500	16	37
Medium-high	378-439	20	46
Medium-low	310-377	5	12
Low	240-309	2	5

A measure of contact was devised using levels of frequency of contact. Three levels of contact (low, medium and high) were determined: 62.8% of the fathers fell into the high contact category, 18.6% were medium-contact and 18.6% were low contact (see Table 6).

The Kruskal-Wallis 1-way analysis of variance test was used to determine if any relationship existed between scores on the Fisher scale and the level of paternal contact. The Kruskal-Wallis yielded an H of 0.9586 (corrected for ties), which is significant at the 0.6192 level (see Table 7). The results indicate no relationship between adjustment to

divorce and paternal contact. Hypothesis I was not supported.

TABLE 6
FREQUENCY OF CONTACT

	Variable	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
High	Daily	4	9.3
	Weekly	n = 23	53.5
Medium	More than once a month	7	16.3
	Once a Month	n = 1 8	2.3
Low	Several times a year	4	9.3
	Once a Year	1	2.3
	Less than once a year	1	2.3
	Never	n = 2 8	4.7

TABLE 7
KRUSKAL-WALLIS 1-WAY ANOVA BETWEEN DIVORCE
ADJUSTMENT AND LEVEL OF CONTACT

Level of Contact	n	Mean Score on Fisher	Mean Rank of Fisher Score
High	27	423.7	23.3
Medium	8	417.0	21.4
Low	8	388.8	18.4

415.9 = mean for sample
 $H = 0.9586$, $P = 0.6192$

Hypothesis II

High scores on androgyny or femininity in the BEM sex role inventory will be positively associated with paternal contact.

Hypothesis II was tested by means of the Kruskal-Wallis for the variables femininity and contact. The H was 1.9954 (corrected for ties), significant at the 0.36887 level (see Table 8). These results indicate that there was no relationship between feminine sex role level as measured by the BSRI and paternal contact.

It was not possible to use the Kruskal-Wallis for the variables androgyny and contact as there is no real "score" on androgyny. Crosstabulations were done instead.

TABLE 8
KRUSKAL-WALLIS 1-WAY ANOVA BETWEEN
BEMFEM AND LEVEL OF CONTACT

Level of Contact	n	Mean Score on BEMFEM	Mean Rank on BEMFEM Score
High	27	4.6	23.6
Medium	8	4.5	16.5
Low	8	4.3	22.0
4.5 = mean for sample H = 1.9954, P = 0.3687			

Crosstabulations were made between sex role ratings using the BSRI and level of contact. Androgenous and feminine individuals had the highest percentage (both were 29.6%) of those who had daily-weekly contact with their children. On the other hand, masculine individuals just comprised 14.8% of the high group (see Table 9).

TABLE 9
LEVEL OF CONTACT BY BEM

Level of Contact	n	<u>BEM</u>			
		Andr %	Undiff %	Masc %	Fem %
High	27	29.6	25.9	14.9	29.6
Medium	8	12.5	37.5	37.5	12.5
Low	8	50.0	12.5	25.0	12.5

Hypothesis III

A resemblance to Gersick's "custodial" fathers will be positively associated with paternal contact.

Gersick isolated 10 "characteristics" of his group of custodial fathers. The respondents of the present study were compared to Gersick's custodial fathers (See Appendix B and Appendix C for Descriptions of the Respondents by Gersick's "Characteristics").

This hypothesis was tested in two different ways. First of all, a score was obtained as a measure of fit for each respondent with Gersick's custodial fathers (see Table 10). The total possible score was 20, indicating a perfect resemblance to Gersick's custodial fathers. The range for the present sample was from 6 - 16, with the largest percentages (18.6% each) scoring 9 and 11.

TABLE 10

**PRESENT SAMPLES FIT WITH GERSICK'S
CUSTODIAL FATHERS**

"Score" on Gersick	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
6	1	2.3
7	4	9.3
8	4	9.3
9	8	18.6
10	4	9.3
11	8	18.6
12	3	7.0
13	4	9.3
14	2	4.7
15	3	7.0
16	2	4.7

Maximum Possible - 20

Mean: 10.7

The Kruskal-Wallis was used to test this hypothesis. The H was 5.8470 (corrected for ties), significant at the 0.0537 level, indicating that the relationship was in the expected direction (See Table 11).

TABLE 11

KRUSKAL-WALLIS 1-WAY ANOVA BETWEEN
GERSICK AND LEVEL OF CONTACT

Level of Contact	n	Mean Score on Gersick	Mean Rank of Gersick Score
High	27	11.1	23.9
Medium	8	11.3	25.1
Low	8	8.6	12.4

10.7 = mean for sample
 $H = 5.8470, P = 0.0537$

Each of the 10 characteristics on Gersick's scale was also examined separately. Crosstabulations were made for characteristics 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7 and 10, these characteristics were not testable as not enough cells contained expected frequencies greater than 5. The Kruskal-Wallis was used to test characteristics 6, 8 and 9 (See Table 12). Significant relationships were found between contact and an active involvement with the child when the child was younger, and between fathers age and contact. The average age of the high contact group was 39.6 years. The average age of the medium contact group was 44.8 years and of the low contact group, 43.5 years. Age was negatively associated with contact (i.e. the older the father, the less contact he had with his children). Crosstabulations for contact and education indicated that 51.9% of the group of 27 men who saw their children weekly were highly educated.

TABLE 12
TESTS AND CROSSTABULATIONS FOR HYPOTHESIS III

1. Level of Contact by Traditional Family of Origin

Level of Contact	n	<u>Family Description</u>	
		Traditional	Non-Traditional
High	27	73.1	26.9
Monthly	8	62.5	37.5
Yearly	8	75.0	25.0

2. Level of Contact by Relationship with Mother

Level of Contact	n	<u>Relationship with Mother</u>	
		Close	Other
High	27	51.9	48.1
Medium	8	50.0	50.0
Low	8	25.0	75.0

3. Level of Contact by Relationship with Father

Level of Contact	n	<u>Relationship with Father</u>	
		Distant/Respectful	Other
High	27	63.0	37.0
Medium	8	37.5	62.5
Low	8	62.5	37.5

4. Level of Contact by Presence of One or Both Sexes

Siblings

<u>Level of Contact</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Siblings of 1 Sex Only</u>	<u>Siblings of Both Sexes</u>
High	27	55.6	44.4
Medium	8	37.5	62.5
Low	8	62.5	37.5

5. Level of Contact by Birth Order

Birth Order

<u>Level of Contact</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Middle or Last</u>	<u>First or Only</u>
High	27	59.3	40.7
Medium	8	75.0	25.0
Low	8	25.0	75.0

6. Level of Contact by Involvement in Child Care When the Child was Younger

KRUSKAL-WALLIS 1-WAY ANOVA
INVOLVEMENT BY CONTACT

<u>Level of Contact</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean Rank of Involvement</u>
High	27	25.5
Medium	8	17.9
Low	8	14.3

H = 6.3562, P = 0.0417

7. Level of Contact by Feelings about the Divorce

<u>Level of Contact</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Feelings about the Divorce</u>	
		<u>Hurt and Betrayed</u>	<u>Other</u>
High	27	33.3	66.7
Medium	8	75.0	25.0
Low	8	25.0	75.0

8. Level of Contact by Age

KRUSKAL-WALLIS 1-WAY ANOVA
AGE BY CONTACT

<u>Level of Contact</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Mean Rank</u>
High	27	39.6	18.3
Medium	8	44.8	32.1
Low	8	43.5	24.3

41.3 = mean for sample
 $H = 7.9043$, $P = 0.0192$

9. Level of Contact by Familism

KRUSKAL-WALLIS 1-WAY ANOVA
FAMILISM BY LEVEL OF CONTACT

<u>Level of Contact</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Mean Rank of Familism Scale</u>
High	27	22.53
Medium	8	16.81
Low	8	25.44

$H = 2.0164$, $P = 0.3649$

10. Level of Contact by Education

Level of Contact	n	<u>Level of Education</u>		
		High School or less	Univ	Grad
High	27	22.2	25.9	51.9
Medium	8	50.0	25.0	25.0
Low	8	50.0	37.5	12.5

Hypothesis IV

A mutual decision to divorce will be positively associated with paternal contact.

In the majority of cases (23 or 54%) the decision to divorce was made by the wife. This fits the findings of other research (Fishel, 1985). The decision to divorce was mutual in only 13 (30%) cases (See Table 13). This hypothesis was not testable as not enough cells contained expected frequencies greater than 5. The number of cells with expected frequencies greater than 5 must not be more than 20 percent of the total number of cells.

Crosstabulations were made between a mutual decision to divorce and level of contact. Group 1 consisted of the group who had mutually decided to divorce ($n = 13$). Group 2 comprised the non-mutual group ($n = 30$). Of the high contact group of fathers 63.0% were from the non-mutual group and 37.0% were from the mutual group (See Table 14).

TABLE 13
INITIATOR STATUS AND THE DECISION TO DIVORCE

	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Who made the decision to divorce?		
Me	7	16
Ex-wife	23	54
Mutual	13	30
Who was first to withdraw psychologically from the marriage?		
Me	13	30
Ex-wife	24	56
Both	6	14
Who first suggested the divorce?		
Me	13	30
Ex-wife	28	65
Unknown	2	5
Who filed for the legal divorce?		
Me, with consent	12	28
Ex-wife, with consent	17	39
Me, without consent	2	5
Ex-wife, without consent	9	21
Unknown	3	7

TABLE 14
LEVEL OF CONTACT BY DECISION TO DIVORCE

<u>Level of Contact</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Divorce Decision</u>	
		<u>Non-Mutual</u>	<u>Mutual</u>
High	27	63.0	37.0
Medium	8	87.5	12.5
Low	8	75.0	25.0

Crosstabulations were made for a further breakdown of decision to divorce and contact. Group 1 ($n = 7$) was identified as the group wherein the decision to divorce was made by the respondent. Group 2 ($n = 23$) was the group who said that the ex-spouse had made the decision. Group 3 ($n = 13$) comprised the mutual group (See Table 15). Of the high contact fathers ($n = 27$) 18.5% reported that they had made the decision to divorce, 44.4% reported that the ex-wife had made the decision and 37.0% reported that the decision was mutual.

TABLE 15

FURTHER BREAKDOWN OF LEVEL OF CONTACT
BY DECISION TO DIVORCE

Level of Contact	n	<u>Divorce Decision</u>		
		Mine	Ex-Wife	Mutual
		%	%	%
High	27	18.6	44.4	37.0
Medium	8	12.5	75.0	12.5
Low	8	12.5	62.5	25.0

Hypothesis V

a) Men who were first to withdraw psychologically from the marriage will have a higher rate of contact with their children in the post-divorce period than will men whose ex-spouse was the first to withdraw psychologically.

Thirteen (30%) of the respondents said they were the first partner to withdraw psychologically from the marriage (see Table 13). Once again, this hypothesis was not testable as not enough cells contained expected frequencies greater than 5.

Crosstabulations were made between psychological withdrawal and contact. Of the high contact group ($n = 27$) 33.3% said they had withdrawn first, whereas 51.9% said the

wife had withdrawn first. Only 14.8% reported that the withdrawal was mutual (see Table 16).

TABLE 16
LEVEL OF CONTACT BY PSYCHOLOGICAL WITHDRAWAL

<u>Level of Contact</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Initial Withdrawal</u>		
		<u>Me</u>	<u>Ex-Wife</u>	<u>Both</u>
		%	%	%
High	27	33.3	51.9	14.8
Medium	8	35.5	50.0	12.5
Low	8	12.5	75.0	12.5

- b) Men who were the first to suggest the divorce will have a higher rate of contact with their children in the post-divorce period than will men whose ex-spouse was the first to suggest the divorce.

Thirteen (30%) of the respondents reported that they were the first partner to suggest the divorce. Twenty-eight (65%) reported that their ex-wives were first to suggest the divorce (see Table 13).

As it was not possible to test Hypothesis V(b), Crosstabulations were made between whose suggestion it was to divorce and level of contact. Of the high contact

fathers, 30.8% reported that they had made the suggestion to divorce while 69.2% reported that their ex-wives had made the suggestion (See Table 17).

TABLE 17
LEVEL OF CONTACT BY SUGGESTION OF DIVORCE

<u>Level of Contact</u>	n	<u>Initial Suggestion</u>	
		Me %	Ex-Wife %
High	26	30.8	69.2
Medium	8	37.5	62.5
Low	8	28.6	71.4

Hypothesis VI

The presence of at least one male child in the family will be positively associated with paternal contact.

Only 7 respondents out of the sample of 43 reported having girl-only families. Eighteen reported having boy-only families (See Table 1).

Hypothesis VI was not testable as not enough cells contained expected frequencies greater than 5. Crosstabulations were made between the presence of at least one son in the family and level of contact. Of the high

contact fathers, 85.2% reported having at least one son while 14.8% reported having no sons (See Table 18).

TABLE 18
LEVEL OF CONTACT BY PRESENCE OF SON

<u>Level of Contact</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Presence of Son</u>	
		<u>Son</u>	<u>No Son</u>
		<u>%</u>	<u>%</u>
High	27	85.2	14.8
Medium	8	75.0	25.0
Low	8	87.5	12.5

Further Exploratory Analyses

Further analyses were performed to test for the effects of the following variables on paternal contact in the post-divorce period: The father's present relationship with his ex-spouse; custody status; and the father's residual feelings of anger toward his ex-spouse. Each variable will be discussed separately.

Present Relationship with Ex-Spouse

The respondents reported a variety of feelings toward their ex-spouses, ranging from "very close" to "bitter hatred". The "unfriendly" group (Group 2) consisted of 27 respondents who reported a negative post-divorce

relationship with the ex-spouse. The "friendly" group (Group 1) consisted of 16 respondents who reported a positive relationship with the ex-spouse (See Table 19).

TABLE 19
PRESENT RELATIONSHIP WITH EX-SPOUSE

Value Label	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Group 1:		
Very close	1	2
Friendly	5	12
Friendly, but distant	10	23
Group 2:		
"We tolerate each other"	10	23
Unfriendly	4	9
Very conflicted	5	12
"I feel friendly, she remains hostile"	1	2
Very conflicted: "I never want to see her again"	1	2
50% of the time - tolerate 50% of the time - unfriendly	1	2
No contact at all	2	5
Very conflicted and unfriendly: "No communication on her part"	2	5
"Bitter hatred on my part"	1	2

Crosstabulations were made between level of contact and feelings toward the ex-spouse. Of the high contact fathers 51.9% reported friendly feelings toward the ex-spouse and 48.1% reported unfriendly feelings. A high percentage of the low contact groups (87.5% each) reported having unfriendly feelings toward the ex-spouse (see Table 20).

TABLE 20
LEVEL OF CONTACT BY FEELINGS TOWARD THE EX-SPOUSE

<u>Level of Contact</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Feelings</u>	
		<u>Friendly</u> <u>%</u>	<u>Not Friendly</u> <u>%</u>
High	27	51.9	48.1
Medium	8	12.5	87.5
Low	8	12.5	87.5

Custody Status

It should be recalled that 44.2% of the respondents had joint custody. Crosstabulations were made between custody status and level of contact. Of the high contact fathers; 64% were joint-custody whereas 36% were non-custody. The low contact fathers, on the other hand, consisted of 83.3% non-custody fathers and 16.7% joint-custody fathers (See table 21). The data suggest that joint custody fathers have a higher level of contact than non-custody fathers.

TABLE 21
LEVEL OF CONTACT BY CUSTODY STATUS

Level of Contact	n	<u>Custody Status</u>	
		Non-Custody %	Joint Custody %
High	25	36.0	64.0
Medium	6	66.7	33.3
Low	6	83.3	16.7

Feelings of Anger

Feelings of anger (FOA) toward the ex-spouse was measured as a sub-test of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Inventory. The relationship between FOA and contact was tested by means of the Kruskal-Wallis, which yielded an H of 5.2104 (corrected for ties), significant at the 0.0739 level (see Table 22). Although this is not a significant association, the trend is in the expected direction.

TABLE 22
KRUSKAL-WALLIS 1-WAY ANOVA
BETWEEN FOA AND LEVEL OF CONTACT

Level of Contact	n	Mean Score on FOA	Mean Rank of FOA Score
High	27	45.7	24.8
Medium	8	44.0	21.1
Low	8	37.3	13.4
43.8 = mean for sample			
H = 5.2104, P = 0.0739			

Strengths and Limitations of the Study

Family researchers have, in the past, relied on the responses of women when conducting research on the family. Researchers Cromwell and Olson (1985) emphasized the need for family researchers to collect data from both men and women, using observational methods as well as self-report. These researchers were especially critical of the use of female only samples and the reliance on self-report methods. Other researchers have also written on the importance of including male samples in divorce research (Ahrons, 1983; Kitson and Raschke, 1981). Ahrons stated:

"Much of our current knowledge about divorce is based on the responses of women ... To understand the coparental relationship requires information from both individuals who comprise the parental or former spouse subsystem" (p. 67).

In a partial effort to right some of the imbalance in divorce research the present research study included men only. Custody is still being awarded to women in a majority of cases and yet research has shown that the fathers continuing presence is essential to the child's healthy growth. While a major strength of the present study is that it does concentrate on the male view, this may also be considered a limitation as it is still a one-sex study.

Another major limitation of the study is reliance on the self-report method. Personal interviews were not

conducted as it was decided that ensuring anonymity might allow the respondents to be more truthful in their responses.

Another limitation was the small sample size. A sample of 43 makes it difficult to statistically analyze the results. A further limitation regarding the sample was that it was a "snowball" sample. This particular sample turned out to be quite homogeneous, highly educated with high incomes. If a sample with a greater variety in educational and income levels had been obtained, the results might be more generalizable, and more analyzable.

A final limitation lies within the nature of the contact measure which is basically a quantitative measure. Quality of contact is impossible to assess from a quantitative measure. Unfortunately, only observational methods would measure quality contact and even these would be subject to observer bias.

CHAPTER V

Discussion, Summary and Conclusions

The major objectives of this study were to discover who is the father who maintains contact with his children after divorce and what are some of the factors in the process of the divorce that facilitate his doing so. The six hypotheses of the study were designed to help answer these questions. This section includes a discussion of the results of the hypotheses tests and those of the further analyses, implications of the study, a summary of the findings, conclusions and suggestions for further research.

Discussion Of Hypotheses Results

Hypotheses I, II and III were designed to help answer the first major question of the study: Who is the man who maintains contact with his children after divorce? The results of each hypothesis will be considered separately.

Hypothesis I

Adjustment to divorce, as measured by Fisher's scale, will be positively associated with paternal contact.

The hypothesis was not supported.

As a whole, the sample used in the present study would appear to be well adjusted to divorce according to the Fisher scale. They collectively scored above the 50th percentile on all subtests of the scale (See Appendix D). Generally, the sample was also a group of high contact fathers yet no relationship was found between adjustment and contact. Men who scored low on adjustment were just as likely to maintain frequent contact with their children as men who scored high. Although the mean score of the high contact group was 34.9 points higher than the mean score of the low contact group, this is a nonsignificant difference on a scale with a maximum of 500 and considering the small sample size.

There are a number of possible explanations for a lack of association between contact and adjustment. One explanation is that men who are highly adjusted may be so because they have been divorced for a relatively long time. Such men would, however, tend to have older children who, due to their developmental stage, would be spending time with peers that they would have spent with a parent at a younger age. These men, though adjusted to the divorce, would therefore tend to have less consistent contact with their children.

Consistent with other studies was the finding that the woman is the partner who is most likely to seek the divorce

(Bloom et al., 1983; Buehler, 1987; Buehler et al., 1985/86; Pettit & Bloom, 1984; Spanier & Thompson, 1984; Zeiss et al., 1980). As was discussed in the literature review, men who are the non-initiators feel less guilt about the divorce (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Such men, despite feeling hurt and angry, would also tend to seek to maintain an on-going relationship with their children. It is probable that they would perceive the divorce as something that was forced upon them, something that they had not wanted. One father recalled that initially he had felt angry, hurt, and "betrayed by the legal system". Feeling this way, it is very improbable that this man would be willing to relinquish his relationship with his children. He would tend, if getting physical custody of his children was an impossibility, to demand joint custody and equal time with them.

Although it seems logical, at first, that adjustment to divorce would correlate positively with frequency of contact, on closer examination it is also logical that it would not. Men who are not adjusted, who are left with residual feelings of guilt and/or anger, would not necessarily be willing to lose their relationships with their children. They would likely resent any pressure to do so. Given that it is women who seek the divorce in a majority of cases, it even becomes logical to assume the opposite of the original hypothesis: that low adjustment

would be positively associated with continued paternal contact in the post-divorce family.

One other possibility exists - that there is no relationship between adjustment to divorce from a wife and the contact that is maintained with children. These may be two distinctively different areas.

Hypothesis II

A higher score on androgyny or femininity in the BEM sex role inventory will be positively associated with paternal contact.

The hypothesis was not supported.

Although no association was found between androgyny or femininity and contact the results of the crosstabulations reveal a negative association between masculinity and contact. This finding indicates that men who score higher on traditional masculine traits have less contact with their children.

It would seem that the traditionally sex-typed male, whose traits include rationality, independence, competitiveness and aggressiveness, is best suited to the work place - the so-called "instrumental" domain. These traits may handicap men in the parenting role; they do not

suit men for an active parenting role or for close relationships with their children (Parson & Bales, 1955). It is also probable that the masculine male, caught up in the bustle of the all important work-a-day world, would have little time for active involvement with his children. For these men, the parent-child relationship would always take second place to career concerns.

Hypothesis III

A resemblance to Gersick's "custodial" fathers will be positively associated with paternal contact.

The hypothesis was partially supported.

Although no significant association was found between an overall "fit" with Gersick's custodial fathers ($H = 5.85$, $P = .054$), the relationship was in the expected direction. Three characteristics were found to correlate separately with contact - one negatively and two positively. Firstly, age was found to be negatively associated with contact. Whereas a characteristic of Gersick's custodial fathers was older age, older age was not a factor in the continued contact of non or joint-custody fathers with their children. Why this should be true is, ironically, for the same reason it is true that older age is a characteristic of custodial

fathers: the relative age of the children. Older age is a characteristic of Gersick's custodial fathers for the simple reason that older fathers have older children. Fathers are more likely to be granted custody of older children than of younger ones. Older children are more likely to be allowed a say in who they wish to live with after a divorce. The custodial father would obviously tend to be older due to these factors.

On the other hand, the older non-custodial father, with older children, would tend to have less regular contact with them. Interaction with peers on the weekends rather than with the non-custodial parent would tend to be a priority with adolescents - especially children older than 10 years - who are less dependent upon adults for nurturing.

The two characteristics the present sample shared with Gersick's custodial fathers were higher education and an active involvement with their children when they were infants. Again, one can speculate that the reasons that higher education is a characteristic of custodial fathers are the same reasons that it is also a characteristic of non-custodial fathers who maintain contact. One such "reason" is simply that a higher education will usually mean a better, higher-paying job. Such men will have more monetary resources to actively fight for custody of their children. Financially secure fathers, all other things being equal, may also be perceived by the courts as best

able to meet the needs of their children.

The educated man would also tend to be more aware of his rights as a parent and less likely to be intimidated by the legal system. He would also be less likely to buy into the prevailing cultural notion that children should be with their mothers. All of this applies to the highly educated non-custodial father who maintains contact with his children.

The highly educated father would be likely to be better able to separate his marital and parental relationships: divorcing his wife does not mean divorcing his children. He knows that a continuing relationship with his children is his right, just as monetary support is a continuing obligation. He may also be aware that it is best for the children if he does remain a part of their lives. It could be argued that a better education makes for greater flexibility as a human being, and that such a man would be better able to compromise and negotiate with his ex-spouse concerning the shared parenting of their children.

That the high contact fathers were actively involved with their children when they were infants is not surprising. An active involvement with the child when s/he was an infant would mean that a father-child bond was established and that a relationship was in place. The ending or curtailment of such a relationship would be difficult for both father and child. It is also possible

that most mothers would be supportive of the continuation of an active father-child relationship. It is probable, on the other hand, that a woman who had perceived her ex-spouse as having very little to do with the children within the intact marriage would be resentful of and resistant to his attempt to be actively involved in the post-divorce stage.

The minimal support for Hypothesis III may simply lie in the fact that the group of fathers in the present sample are NOT custodial fathers. They should not fit - if they did they would be custodial fathers!

For the purposes of this study, the what of the divorce process that affects contact concentrated on the mutuality of the divorce decision and initiator status. Hypotheses IV and V (a and b) were designed to examine the relationship between initiator status and level of contact and, as such, will be discussed together.

Hypothesis IV

A mutual decision to divorce will be positively associated with paternal contact.

Hypothesis IV was not testable.

Hypothesis V(a)

Men who were first to withdraw psychologically from the marriage will have a higher rate of contact with their children in the post-divorce period than will men whose ex-spouse was the first to withdraw psychologically.

Hypothesis V(a) was not testable.

Hypothesis V(b)

Men who were the first to suggest the divorce will have a higher rate of contact with their children in the post-divorce period than will men whose ex-spouse was the first to suggest the divorce.

Hypothesis V(b) was not testable.

Contrary to past research findings, no relationship was found in the present study between contact and mutuality of the divorce decision. It is possible that there is no such thing as a truly mutual divorce - even though the spouses agree to divorce, it is usually a decision in the mind of one spouse before it is a decision in the mind of the other. Thus, self-reported mutuality has little meaning and would be unlikely to have an affect on whether the father continues contact with his children.

After inspecting the data related to Hypotheses V (a and b), it may be possible to conclude that the identity of

the initiator, in any of its definitions, does not impact upon the father's continuing relationship with his children. It may be observed that in 13 cases the respondents reported that they had been the first partner to withdraw psychologically from the marriage. In 13 cases the respondents also reported that they had been the first partner to suggest the divorce. However, in only 6 of these 13 cases did the respondents report that they had been the first to withdraw psychologically and the first to suggest the divorce (See Table 23).

TABLE 23

**BREAKDOWN OF COMBINATIONS OF WHO WAS
FIRST TO WITHDRAW PSYCHOLOGICALLY AND WHO WAS
FIRST TO SUGGEST THE DIVORCE**

	<u>n</u>
Ex-spouse did both	17
Respondent did both	6
Respondent withdrew first psychologically, ex-spouse was first to suggest the divorce	7
Ex-spouse withdrew first psychologically, respondent was first to suggest the divorce	7
Mutual psychological withdrawal, Ex-spouse was first to suggest the divorce	4
Mutual psychological withdrawal and mutual suggestion to divorce	1
Mutual psychological withdrawal. No response as to who first made the suggestion to divorce	1

In 17 cases the men reported that the women were the "initiators" of the divorce, both in terms of being first to withdraw psychologically and in terms of being first to suggest the divorce. In only 6 cases did the respondents report that they had been first to withdraw psychologically and that they had been first to suggest the divorce. In 7 cases in the present study where the man was first to withdraw psychologically it was the woman who finally suggested the divorce. The reasons that women more often suggest the divorce may be quite complex. It is possible that men perceive divorce to be replete with losses for them - loss of the home, the children, the care and companionship of the spouse, even if the relationship leaves a lot to be desired. The male who fits the traditionally masculine sex role finds his sources of personal satisfaction apart from the home and the family anyway. This being so, his motivation for leaving would be weak; it simply doesn't matter to him what it's like at home. A man might even hesitate to end an unsatisfying marriage for fear of the financial repercussions and of the knowledge that the courts favour women when it comes to child custody.

The woman has losses of her own to consider in ending a bad marriage but, usually, loss of the children is not one of them. Once her marriage becomes unbearable, faced with the lack of emotional "presence" of her partner, a woman is likely to suggest divorce. Even less traditional women,

women who have become involved in careers and in "making it" in the instrumental domain, are more likely to be attuned to the emotional underpinnings of their marriages than are their male partners. It is a popular idea that women are the "choosers" when it comes to entering into a relationship. It is possible that women are also, in a majority of cases, the choosers when it comes to ending it. Furthermore, the woman is unlikely to lose the home or custody of the children, financial support is likely to be provided for the children and perhaps for maintenance of herself.

Questions about the identity of the initiator concerning who is the first to withdraw psychologically are perhaps the most difficult to answer honestly. In two cases known to the researcher personally the wife, reacting to her husband's isolating behavior, which often became emotionally abusive, suggested and filed for divorce. Both men reacted with hurt and bewilderment. Both contended that their wives had been first to withdraw psychologically. Both wives had felt "left" years before.

Hypothesis VI

The presence of at least one male child in the family will be positively associated with paternal contact.

The hypothesis was not testable.

The sixth hypothesis is more concerned with the structure of the family than with "who" or "what". This hypothesis is based on the strength of personal observations of divorced families by the researcher and the finding, as reported in the literature review, that women with sons are less likely to seek divorce (Spanier & Glick, 1981).

Only seven fathers in the present sample had girl-only families. These fathers were not found to be less involved with their daughters after divorce than were fathers with sons only or sons and daughters. The fact that the hypothesis was not supported may be due to the small number of girl-only families in this study or to the non-representativeness of the sample. Sex of the child may not be significant at high SES levels. It may also be the case that fathers in the 1980's get just as much satisfaction out of a continuing relationship with daughters as they do with sons. Joint custody may be another factor in that such fathers should have a more natural day-to-day relationship with their children. A non-custodial father with visiting rights only could easily fall into the trap of becoming a "Santa Claus" father, one who is so unsure of his status with his children that he attempts to buy their love with things. Such a father would possibly have greater difficulty in deciding on activities that would be entertaining to

entertaining to himself and to his daughter(s).

The joint custody father has a greater opportunity for a mutually satisfying relationship with his children, of either sex. The satisfaction he derives from this relationship has more to do with the mutual love and connectedness between parent and child than with activities they can enjoy together.

Discussion Of Results Of The Further Analyses

Further analyses were done to determine whether the data obtained in investigating the six hypotheses could be used to draw any further conclusions about factors which influence paternal contact. The three findings that were examined were:

- a) The association of the father's present relationship with his ex-spouse and his continuing contact;
- b) The association of the father's score on the Fisher subtest which deals with angry feelings (FOA) with his continuing contact; and,
- c) The different levels of contact between joint custody and non-custody fathers.

Each of these three will be discussed separately.

Present Relationship With Ex-Spouse

The use of Crosstabulations revealed that the percentages of "friendly" and "not friendly" fathers were similar in the high contact group. There were, however, significant differences in the percentages in the low contact groups (12.5% friendly and 87.5% unfriendly in each group). Unfortunately, the data obtained during the present study did not reveal the source of the conflict. We do not know which came first - the conflict or the lack of contact. Are these fathers angry because their ex-spouses are denying them access to their children or is the conflict at the basis of the lack of contact? In other words, does the conflict cause low contact or does low contact cause conflict? Five men expressed their anger and frustration in letters to the researcher, which they included when they returned their completed questionnaires. Two of these men were frustrated and angry because of what they perceived as an unfair bias in favour of women by the legal system. One wrote:

"My intense hatred towards my ex-wife is in the fact that she has my sons and toys with me in regard to their visitation rights. If all things were equal, she would never have gotten custody."

The other father expressed much the same feeling:

"... I resent deeply the bias in favour of women by the courts for custody of the children where, in cases like mine, it can be shown that men have been good providers. I wanted an arrangement where the children would live with me one year and

the next with her. But I was told that wouldn't be acceptable to the courts. That's justice?"

One father, sent the research instruments by the FATHERS Organization, called the researcher from jail - where he had been sent for six weeks for assaulting his former father-in-law. The assault had occurred during a dispute over visitation. He expressed his feelings concerning the unfairness of his not seeing his children even though he was maintaining his financial responsibility: "I make my support payments regularly and I'm not an abusive father, why can't I see my kids?" In his perception it is the courts, especially lawyers, who are winning - and winning big: "So far I've spent \$6,000 and my father-in-law, who is paying my wife's expenses, has spent \$21,000. A man who gets custody of his kids can expect to pay, on average, \$40,000 in court costs".

FOA - The Fisher Subtest On Anger

Closely connected to the analysis of the respondent's feelings toward his ex-spouse is his score on FOA - feelings of anger. The FOA subtest basically establishes whether the respondent has a friendly relationship with the ex-spouse, free from anger, blame and hurt. It was discovered that a low score on FOA, which indicates that feelings of anger still exist toward the ex-spouse, was weakly associated with

low paternal contact, the expected direction. The anger expressed by these men seems to be based on factors dealt with in the legal settlements to do with property, child support and custody. The conflict between the ex-spouses was exacerbated by the legal process, by resentment about court costs, the size of the support payments and the uses to which the father perceived that the support was put (see Table 24).

TABLE 24

QUOTES CONCERNING THE QUESTION OF
FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Q: How do you perceive this financial responsibility (i.e. support payments)?

- As a duty "but the money should be spent on the child not on holidays for the wife".
 - "I think they use it to pay the mortgage".
 - "As a legal directed duty. This section of the law became the section of greatest alienation for me".
 - "Unjustly used and excessive in regards to the child's needs".
 - "I feel the costs should be shared equally and I should have an equal say in how the money is spent".
 - "Unfair. My former wife almost makes as much as I do. She wants my child, gets her, she should pay any expenses. I should have full control over monies I want to give my daughter. This way my ex-spouse controls the expenditures on the child. I have absolutely no say. My former wife is very capable of handling any expenses on her own".
-

It would seem, based on the results of this study, that a father's residual feelings of anger, blame and hurt may be associated with a lower level of father-child contact in the post-divorce family. As was the case in the last item studied (present relationship with ex-spouse), it was not possible to determine which came first - the anger or the lack of contact. The question remains: are these men angry because they are being denied access to their children or is their anger toward the ex-spouse preventing them from seeing their children regularly? It may also be possible that some of the men are being denied access because of continuing hostilities with the ex-spouse, who uses access as a weapon.

Custody - Joint or Non?

It was found, as would be expected from its very nature and definition, that fathers with joint custody had a higher level of contact. Joint custody, depending on whether it is legal or physical, allows for greater involvement by the father than do most non-custody arrangements. Although legal joint custody may be very similar to sole custody in terms of both physical and financial arrangements, physical joint custody usually means a 50-50 time split between parents (Ross & Matas, 1987). This study thus adds to the evidence from past studies that fathers who have a joint custody arrangement will maintain regular contact with their

children (Ahrons, 1979; Ahrons, 1983; Bowman & Ahrons, 1985). As was discussed in the literature review, a major benefit of the joint custody arrangement was found to be a reduction of conflict in the post-divorce family (Ilfeld et al., 1982). Given the legal right to continue his relationship with his children the father is unlikely to engage in conflict with his ex-spouse which is due to visitation.

Implications Of The Findings

Residual feelings of anger and a continuing conflicted relationship with the ex-spouse work against a father's maintaining a relationship with his children. It is assumed in this study, as has been shown in research on the well-being of children of divorce, that a continuing relationship with both parents is desirable (Mitchell, 1985; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). It is true that in some cases it is not, most particularly in cases where abuse has occurred. It is also true that children should never be coerced or forced into continuing a relationship they do not want - or forced into spending more time than they want with the non-custodial father (Seagull & Seagull, 1977). However, assuming first of all that the father-child relationship is a healthy, positive one, the following implications for professionals can be made from the

findings, especially the findings of the "further analyses":

The ability of divorced parents to coparent is often negatively affected by the legal issues involved in the divorce. Lawyers often prevent communication and a friendly relationship, advising their clients not to discuss certain things with the ex-spouse. The implication here is that a less adversarial system, one which allows both partners to "win", is a healthier one for divorcing parents. Mediation may be the answer in that it encourages and permits a more co-operative relationship between the ex-spouses. It also allows the partners to come to an agreement about sharing parenting that both can "own". There is the added implication that lawyers should not be involved in mediation. The appropriate professional is more likely one who is aware of child development and is trained in family and counselling issues.

From the finding that joint custody (whether legal or physical) is associated with greater involvement between the father and his children comes the implication that joint custody should be encouraged as an option for those who want it and are able to make it work (Bowman & Ahrons, 1985; Ross & Matas, 1987). Mediation, with its focus on the best interests of the child, should especially encourage the joint custody option. Mediation should always be open to those couples who find themselves unable, for whatever reason, to live with the custody arrangement they had agreed

upon. The stringent - and expensive - system which presently exists serves only to exacerbate already conflicted situations and prevent or prolong the stabilization of new roles and relationships.

Summary

This study was designed to learn more about who is the man who maintains contact with his children in the post-divorce period and what it is about the process of divorce that facilitates his doing so. Other factors were also examined: whether the presence of at least one son in the family resulted in the father maintaining more regular contact; the effect on contact of the continuing anger and conflict between the coparents and, finally, whether type of custody makes a difference to amount of contact. More specifically, it was the purpose of this study, in identifying who and what, to help interested specialists facilitate a more co-operative relationship between the coparents. A co-operative coparental relationship is one which is best for all members of the divorced family, one which is especially important for the continuing well-being of the children.

The data were collected by the use of these three instruments:

- 1) Demographic Information Questionnaire,

- 2) Fisher's Divorce Adjustment Scale, and,
- 3) Bem's Sex Role Inventory.

The research instruments were administered by mail to 100 men, most of whom resided in the city of Winnipeg. Forty-three out of the fifty-seven who returned the questionnaires met the criteria set for the study. These 43 divorced men constituted the sample used.

The first three hypotheses were designed to answer the question "who" is the father who maintains contact with his children in the post-divorce stage? The fourth and fifth hypotheses were designed to answer the question "what" is it about the process of divorce that facilitates continuing contact? The sixth hypothesis concerned the structure of the family of procreation. Fathers who maintained a high level of contact were predicted to have the following characteristics: be better adjusted; have a higher score on femininity or androgyny on the BSRI and share the characteristics of Gersick's custodial fathers. These characteristics are: came from a traditional family, have had a close relationship with the mother; have had a reserved relationship with the father; have had siblings of both sexes; were the middle or last-born child; had been involved in child-care when their children were younger; were more conservative; were likely to feel like the wronged party, betrayed by the wife; were older and better educated.

The level of paternal contact was predicted to be related to the mutuality of the divorce decision and to the identity of the initiator. Several further questions that weren't covered in the major hypotheses were examined in an effort to shed light on the two main questions.

Analyses of the data consisted of computations of the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance test and crosstabulations.

As a result of the testing of the formal hypotheses the following conclusions were reached:

- 1) Hypothesis I was not supported. No association was found to exist between adjustment and contact.
- 2) Hypothesis II was not supported. No association was found between scores for femininity and androgyny and contact. However, a negative association was found between masculinity and contact.
- 3) Hypothesis III was partially supported. A weak but non-significant association was found between resemblance to Gersick's custodial fathers and contact; the relationship was in the expected direction. All ten measures were examined separately; three analytical measures were found to have a significant relationship with contact. Education was found to be positively associated with contact as was involvement with the child

when s/he was an infant. Older age was negatively associated with contact.

- 4) Hypothesis IV was not testable as not enough cells contained expected frequencies greater than 5.
- 5) Hypothesis V(a) was not testable as not enough cells contained expected frequencies greater than 5.
- 6) Hypothesis V(b) was not testable as not enough cells contained expected frequencies greater than 5.
- 7) Hypothesis VI was not testable as not enough cells contained expected frequencies greater than 5.

It was not possible to test whether having at least one boy was a factor in whether the father maintained contact. In the present sample, fathers with girls only were apparently just as likely to be actively involved with them after divorce as they were with boys. The small size of the sample of girl-only families (7) leaves the results of this hypothesis in question. It may be that a larger sample would reveal a relationship in the expected direction.

Additional conclusions include:

- 1) Negative feelings toward the ex-spouse were associated with low levels of contact with the children. The more conflicted the relationship, the less likely the father was to maintain regular

contact. It was impossible from the present data to ascertain whether the father had negative feelings because his ex-spouse was hindering his continuing relationship with his children or if he didn't see his children because of his negative feelings. This fact has implications for further studies.

- 2) There was a weak negative association between FOA (a subset of Fisher's divorce adjustment scale) and contact. Men who show a lower score on FOA, indicating more anger, are less likely to have regular contact with their children.
- 3) Finally, it was suggested that joint custody fathers had a higher level of contact with their children than non-custody fathers.

Conclusions

This research study was not very successful in identifying who is the man who maintains contact with his children after divorce. It did however, identify to some degree who he is not: he is not masculine according to the Bem Sex Role Inventory; he is not necessarily well adjusted to the divorce, and he does not completely resemble Gersick's custodial fathers on any of the ten characteristics, excepting education and involvement in

child care when the child was an infant. It also appears that men who are angry, men who have a conflicted relationship with their ex-spouse, do not maintain regular contact with their children. It also seems that joint custody fathers see their children more than non-custody fathers. These last observations indicate that the source of greatest problems in the process of divorce may reside in an area not studied in the present research - the legal divorce. There are a number of things in our society that prevent men from becoming equal partners in parenting in the intact family, an imbalance which may either be worsened or corrected to some degree by a divorce.

Many men want to change the unequal opportunity to parent, many do not. Traditionally, men have been "freed" from child care - freed to go out and pursue their careers, knowing that their wives were caring for the children. This "freedom" was a fringe benefit to being male. These same men now feel as though they are fighting an uphill battle in the courts. Although women may feel there is a certain justice in this, they must never forget that it is their children who are suffering the most because of it. There are other things preventing men from being equal parents. The lack of role models for parenting, especially parenting after divorce, is one of them.

This researcher agrees with Champion's (1986, p. 154) conclusion that ".... the quality of the child's

relationship with the non-custodial father is as important to the child's adjustment as the quality of the child's relationship with the custodial mother". The imbalance in parenting in the intact family may be partially corrected after divorce if the father stays in contact and becomes involved actively in establishing a relationship with his children.

We can assume that divorce is a fact of modern day life - it is not going to go away. So it would seem to be in the best interests of all, of divorced families and of society in general, to implement social programs that will ease the role transitions that are necessary following divorce. Since an increasing number of parents are choosing joint custody and a more equal partnership in parenting, it is essential that they be able to negotiate and achieve satisfactory adjustment: adjustment in their new roles and relationships, adjustment for all members of the family.

Suggestions For Further Research

The results of the present study suggest the need for the research to be repeated with a larger, more representative sample. A more representative sample would help to determine whether the limitations of the present study are due to the sample size, sample homogeneity, the validity of the measures used or other factors.

The present study, in that it focused on a male-only sample, is as limited as female-only studies. There remains a need to study divorced men and women in a single investigation. One of the research needs is to clarify the reasons for the anger that men expressed. Is men's anger at their ex-spouses causing them to reject their other family ties after divorce, or are they angry because they are being denied access to their children by their ex-spouses? If the latter is the case, what are the ex-spouses reasons for denying access?

Further research, particularly longitudinal research, is needed on children who have experienced a parental divorce. Longitudinal research would permit a greater understanding of the long-term effects: does the trauma continue and what factors hinder or help in adjustment to the event? The longitudinal research that has been done (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980) suggests that the negative effects of divorce continue for many years for both adults and children. It is possible to assume from the findings of previous researchers (Rutter, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975/1980; Hetherington et al., 1976) that the negative effects of divorce can be alleviated by a continuing, healthy relationship with both parents. The children of divorce might perceive that there are benefits to be had from the divorce in terms of more involved parenting from the father. The divorce may even be found to correct some

of the role imbalances of intact families and allow for a deeper, more nurturant relationship between father and child.

The results of the present study suggest that the legal process of the divorce is a problematic area. This indicates that there is a need for research on families who have used mediation in an effort to re-establish a co-operative coparental relationship. It is obvious that the legacy of litigation and lawyer-protracted disputes over property and child custody is one of bitterness and anger, which may negatively impact upon the family for many years. Research on the effects of mediation could help to answer the so far unanswered questions about the benefits of mediation as an option for divorcing couples.

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APPENDIX A

MEASURE OF CONTACT

A measure of contact was devised using question 11 from the demographic information questionnaire.

<u>Item</u>	<u>Level of Contact</u>
11. a) I see my child(ren) daily	High
b) I see my child(ren) weekly	
c) I see my child(ren) more than once a month	Medium
d) I see my child(ren) once a month	
e) I see my child(ren) several times a year	
f) I see my child(ren) once a year	Low
g) I see my child(ren) less than once a year	
h) I never see my child(ren).	

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Description of Sample

Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Present Age		
21 - 30	0	0
31 - 40	23	53
41 - 50	18	42
51 - 60	2	5
	—	—
	43	100
Age When Married		
16 - 20	4	9
21 - 25	28	65
26 - 30	10	24
31 - 35	1	2
	—	—
	43	100
Length Of Time Married		
1 - 5 years	4	9
6 - 10 years	16	37
11 - 15 years	15	35
16 - 20 years	5	12
21 - 25 years	3	7
	—	—
	43	100
Length Of Time Separated Before Divorce		
0 - 5 months	1	2
6 - 11 months	1	2
1 - 5 years	39	91
6 - 10 years	2	5
	—	—
	43	100

Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Length Of Time Divorced		
1 - 5 months	7	16
6 - 11 months	5	12
1 - 5 years	17	39
6 - 10 years	8	19
Separated only	<u>6</u>	<u>14</u>
	<u>43</u>	<u>100</u>
Education		
Less than High School	6	14
High School	8	19
Some University	7	16
A University degree	5	12
Graduate Work	4	9
A Graduate degree	<u>13</u>	<u>30</u>
	<u>43</u>	<u>100</u>
Occupation		
Artist, writer, designer, crafts person	2	5
Farmer, agricultural worker	0	0
Self-employed	5	12
Manager, administrator, businessman	4	9
Professional with advanced degree (e.g. doctor, lawyer)	12	28
Teacher, counsellor, social worker, nurse	6	14
Technician, skilled worker	4	9
Student	0	0
Semi-skilled or unskilled worker	1	2
White collar (sales, clerical, secretary)	3	7
Computer supervisor	1	2
Retired	0	0
Data processing consultant	1	2
Unemployed	2	5
Businessman (temporarily a student)	1	2
Artist/technician	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>
	<u>43</u>	<u>99</u>

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Income Level		
Less than 5,000	1	2
5,000 - 9,999	1	2
10,000 - 14,999	1	2
15,000 - 19,999	2	5
20,000 - 24,999	2	5
30,000 - 39,999	11	26
40,000 - 49,999	7	16
50,000+	18	42
	—	—
	43	100
Income Since Separation/Divorce		
Increased	19	44
Decreased	11	26
Stayed the same	13	30
	—	—
	43	100
Present Marital Status And Living Arrangements		
Remarried, once	10	23.5
Divorced, living with someone	7	16.5
Divorced, living alone	16	37
Separated, living alone (in divorce proceedings)	5	12
Separated, living with someone (in divorce proceedings)	1	2
Divorced, live alone part time, with parents part time	1	2
Divorced, living with 1 son	2	5
Divorced, living with some of children	1	2
	—	—
	43	100

APPENDIX C
BACKGROUND INFORMATION
ACCORDING TO CHARACTERISTICS OF
GERSICK'S CUSTODIAL FATHERS

		Frequency	Percentage
1)	Traditional Family Of Origin Father worked, mother stayed at home	30	70
	Both parents worked	6	14
	Farm family	4	9
	Father died	2	5
	Divorced mother	1	2
2)	Relationship With Mother Close	20	47
	Reserved	18	42
	Distant	3	7
	"Loving, but she was an alcoholic, very difficult"	2	5
3)	Relationship With Father Close	11	26
	Reserved	25	58
	Distant	3	7
	"Never close, respected as authority - Father figure"	2	5
	"He abandoned when I was 6"	1	2
Which Parent Were You Closest To?			
	Father	6	14
	Mother	21	49
	Both	11	26
	Neither	4	9
	"Only had mother"	1	2

		Frequency	Percentage
4.	Were Likely To Have Siblings Of Both Sexes		
	Brothers only	6	14
	Sisters only	11	26
	Siblings of both sexes	20	47
	Only Child	6	14
5.	Were Likely To Be Middle Or Last-Born Children		
	Oldest child	13	30
	Youngest child	9	21
	Middle child	15	35
	Only child	6	14
7.	Feelings About The Separation/Divorce		
	Guilty	5	12
	Relieved	13	30
	Hurt, betrayed	13	30
	Hurt, sad, for the best	1	2
	Furious, betrayed by the legal system, hurt & betrayed by wife	1	2
	Irrelevant, had long been sep. by time divorced	1	2
	Relieved, regret because of children	1	2
	Marriage a mistake, no feelings	1	2
	Angry, guilty, relieved	1	2
	Guilty, hurt, betrayed	1	2
	Guilty, relieved, hurt & betrayed	1	2
	Guilty at leaving the children, felt no option but to go	1	2
	Relieved, hurt & betrayed	1	2
	Guilty, relieved	1	2
	Sad but right	1	2
	Like a failure	1	2

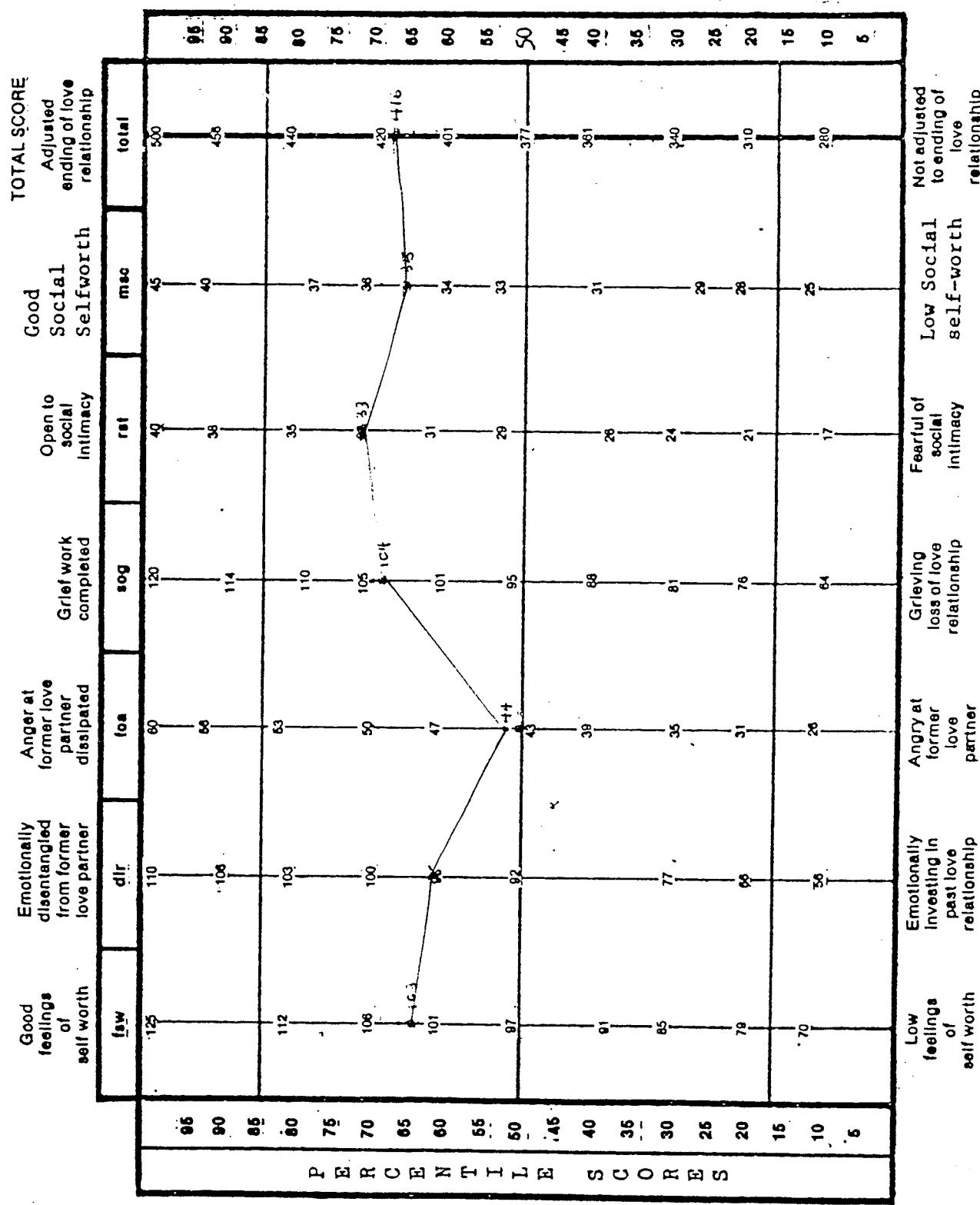
9. Levels Of Familism By Raw Scores And Percentages

Level	Raw Scores	Frequency	Percentage
Low	0 - 16	8	19
Low - medium	17 - 32	29	69
Medium - high	33 - 48	5	12
High	49 - 64	0	0

Characteristic 6 is not reported.

Characteristics 8 and 10 are reported in Appendix B.

APPENDIX D
FISHER'S DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT
SCALE PROFILE



APPENDIX E
LETTER TO POTENTIAL SUBJECTS

Date:

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Dear Mr. .

The divorce rate in Canada escalated rapidly following the legislation in 1968 which allowed the provinces to take care of all of their own divorce proceedings. In 90% of divorces the custodial parent is the mother.

Despite this fact, the father remains an important part of the child's world, even though he may not be a part of his/her everyday life. Some fathers maintain regular, on-going contact with their child(ren) after the final divorce, some do not.

Little research has been done to clarify the reasons why there is such a vast difference in fathering behavior and child - father contact after divorce.

This study is an attempt to clarify the fathering experience in the divorced family and identify factors that facilitate continued contact.

Your help with the project would be very much appreciated. If you would be willing to talk to me about possibly taking part in my study, I would be most grateful. I can meet with you and leave the questionnaires for you to fill out at your convenience. A stamped, addressed envelope will be provided for you to return the questionnaires to me. This will ensure anonymity as no identifying marks will be added to the questionnaires (names, numbers) and I ask that you do not put your name on the questionnaires either.

I will be making a follow-up phone call to all participants two weeks after you have received the questionnaires. At that time I will also offer you equal time to discuss any of your concerns. Please call 269-7605 or 474-8344 for further information.

Sincerely,

Lily C. Gillespie
Masters Student,
University of Manitoba.

APPENDIX F

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

BACKGROUND QUESTIONS

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1. What is your age? _____ years.
2. How old were you when you married/began living with, the mother of your child(ren)?
_____ years old.
3. How long were you married?
_____ years _____ months.
4. How long were you separated before you were divorced?
_____ years _____ months.
5. How long have you been legally divorced?
_____ years _____ months.
6. How many children do you and your ex-spouse have?
_____ boys Age(s) _____
_____ girls Age(s) _____
7. What is your marital status? Please choose the one category that best describes your current status.
 - a) remarried, once. _____
 - b) remarried, more than once. _____
 - c) divorced, living with someone. _____
 - d) divorced, living alone. _____
 - e) other (please specify). _____
8. What is your custody arrangement?
 - a) non-custody. _____
 - b) joint custody. _____
 - c) other. _____
9. Did you ever think of trying to get custody of your child(ren)?
_____ yes _____ no

10. Are you satisfied with the present custodial arrangement?

_____ yes _____ no

11. How much time do you spend with your child(ren)? Please choose the category that best describes your time arrangement.

- a) I see my child(ren) daily. _____
- b) I see my child(ren) weekly. _____
- c) I see my child(ren) more than once a month. _____
- d) I see my child(ren) once a month. _____
- e) I see my child(ren) several times a year. _____
- f) I see my child(ren) once a year. _____
- g) I see my child(ren) less than once a year. _____
- h) I never see my child(ren). _____
- i) other, please explain. _____

12. If you do not see your child(ren) do you wish to explain why?
- _____

13. Please check any of the following that are relevant to you:

- a) I talk to my child(ren) on the phone almost everyday. _____
- b) My child(ren) spend at least one week of the summer holidays with me. _____
- c) I always remember my child(ren)'s birthday and do something for him/her. _____
- d) My child(ren) can call me any time they wish. _____
- e) I take my child(ren) for dental and/or doctor appointments. _____
- f) I always see my child(ren) during the Christmas season. _____

14. Indicate all of the following which are true for you in terms of child-care involvement before the divorce occurred.

- a) I attended prenatal classes with my wife. _____
- b) I was present at the birth(s) of my child(ren). _____
- c) I got up in the night with my child(ren) when they were babies/infants. _____
- d) I changed diapers daily. _____
- e) I bathed my child(ren) when they were babies/infants. _____
- f) I took time off work to care for my child(ren) when they were sick. _____
- g) Other, please describe. _____

15. What % of time did you spend doing the following when your child(ren) was(were) an infant?

	None 0%	less than 50%	approx. 50%	more than 50%
a) bathing	-----	-----	-----	-----
b) changing diapers	-----	-----	-----	-----
c) feeding	-----	-----	-----	-----
d) getting up at night	-----	-----	-----	-----
e) putting to sleep	-----	-----	-----	-----
f) other - rocking, dressing, holding, playing with baby, reading to baby	-----	-----	-----	-----

16. Who initially withdrew psychologically from the marriage?

- a) me. _____
- b) my ex-wife. _____
- c) both. _____

17. Who first suggested the divorce?

- a) me. _____
- b) my ex-wife. _____

18. The decision to divorce was

- a) mine. _____
- b) my ex-wife's. _____
- c) mutual. _____

19. Who filed for the legal divorce?

- a) me/with consent. _____
- b) my ex-wife/with consent. _____
- c) me/without consent. _____
- c) my ex-wife/without consent. _____

20. Which of the following best describes your feelings about the divorce?

- a) I felt guilty. _____
- b) I felt relieved. _____
- c) I felt hurt and betrayed by my wife. _____
- d) other, describe. _____

21. Which of the following statements best describes your present relationship with your ex-spouse?

- a) very close. _____
- b) friendly. _____
- c) friendly but distant. _____
- d) we tolerate each other. _____
- e) unfriendly. _____
- f) very conflicted. _____
- g) other. _____

22. How many siblings do you have (or, did you have when you were growing up)?

- a) only child. _____
- b) number of brothers. _____ older _____ younger
- c) number of sisters. _____ older _____ younger

23. Which of the following best describes your family when you were growing up?

- a) father worked, mother stayed at home. _____
- b) both parents worked. _____
- c) other, describe _____

24. Which of the following statements best describes your relationship with your father before you left home?

- a) a close, warm relationship. _____
- b) reserved, but supportive. _____
- c) a distant, cold relationship. _____
- d) other, describe _____

25. Which statement best describes your relationship with your mother before you left home?

- a) a close, warm relationship. _____
- b) reserved, but supportive. _____
- c) a distant, cold relationship. _____
- d) other, describe _____

26. Which parent did you feel closest to when you were growing up?

- a) father. _____
- b) mother. _____
- c) both equally. _____
- d) neither. _____
- e) other, describe _____

27. Which one of the following best describes your education?

- a) less than high school. _____
- b) high school diploma. _____
- c) some university/college. _____
- d) a college/university degree. _____
- e) some graduate work. _____
- f) a graduate degree. _____

28. Which one of the following best describes your occupation?
- a) artist, writer, designer, craftsman. _____
 - b) farmer, agricultural worker. _____
 - c) self-employed. _____
 - d) manager, administrator, businessman. _____
 - e) professional with advanced degree (for example doctor, lawyer). _____
 - f) teacher, counselor, social worker, nurse. _____
 - g) technician, skilled worker. _____
 - h) student. _____
 - i) semiskilled or unskilled worker. _____
 - j) white-collar (sales, clerical, secretary). _____
 - k) retired. _____
 - l) unemployed. _____
 - m) other: _____
29. If you hold a managerial position in a company, organization, or institution, how would you characterize the level of this position?
- a) not applicable; I am not in a managerial position. _____
 - b) president or chairman of the board. _____
 - c) vice-president or equivalent. _____
 - d) upper middle management, division manager. _____
 - e) lower middle management, department manager. _____
 - f) lower management, first or second level. _____

30. How would you classify your work if you are self-employed?

- a) not applicable, I am not self-employed. _____
- b) own a private business. _____
- c) free lance. _____
- d) consultant. _____
- e) contract work. _____

31. What is the annual total income of your household?
(Include income from all members and all sources.)

- a) less than \$5,000. _____
- b) \$5,000 to \$9,999. _____
- c) \$10,000 to \$14,999. _____
- d) \$15,000 to \$19,999. _____
- e) \$20,000 to \$24,999. _____
- f) \$25,000 to \$29,999. _____
- g) \$30,000 to \$39,999. _____
- h) \$40,000 to \$49,999. _____
- i) \$50,000 or more. _____

32. Has your income level changed since your divorce?

- a) increased. _____
- b) decreased. _____
- c) remained the same. _____

33. Do you pay alimony/child support?

_____ yes _____ no

34. How do you perceive this financial responsibility?

- a) as a duty. _____
- b) as a burden. _____
- c) other, describe _____

35. Below is a list of issues concerning the family in general, not your own. Please read all statements very carefully and respond to all of them on the basis of your own true beliefs without consulting any other persons. Do this by reading each statement and then circling only one of the following numbers: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4. The meaning of each of these figures is:

0: Strongly disagree	1: Disagree
2: Undecided	3: Agree
4: Strongly agree	

(For research purposes, you must consider all statements as they are, without modifying any of them in any way.)

- | | |
|-----------------------|--|
| 0 1 2 3 4 | a. A person should always support his uncles or aunts if they are in need. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | b. Children below 18 should give almost all their earnings to their parents. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | c. The family should consult close relatives (uncles, aunts, first cousins) concerning its important decisions. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | d. Children below 18 should almost always obey their older brothers and sisters. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | e. A person should always consider the needs of his family as a whole more important than his own. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | f. At least one married child should be expected to live in the parental home. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | g. A person should always be expected to defend his family against outsiders even at the expense of his own person safety. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | h. The family should have the right to control the behavior of each of its members completely. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | i. A person should always support his parents-in-law if they are in need. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | j. A person should always avoid every action of which his family disapproves. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | k. A person should always share his home with his uncles, aunts, or first cousins if they are in need. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | l. A person should always be completely loyal to his family. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | m. The members of a family should be expected to hold the same political, ethical, and religious beliefs. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | n. Children below 18 should always obey their parents. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | o. A person should always help his parents with the support of his younger brothers and sisters if necessary. |
| 0 1 2 3 4 | p. A person should always share his home with his parents-in-law if they are in need. |

APPENDIX G

FISHER'S DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT SCALE (FDA)

FISHER DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT SCALE

The following statements are attitude and beliefs that people frequently experience while they are ending a love-relationship. Keeping the love-relationship of your past marriage in mind, read each statement and decide how frequently the statement applies to your present feelings and attitudes. Do not leave any statements blank. If the statement is not appropriate for you in your present situation, answer the way you feel you might if that statement were appropriate.

Read each statement and circle only one of the following numbers: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. The meaning of each of these figures is:

1: almost always 2: usually 3: sometimes
4: seldom 5: almost never

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|-----|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1. | I am comfortable telling people I am separated from my love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 2. | I am physically and emotionally exhausted from morning till night. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 3. | I am constantly thinking of my former love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 4. | I feel rejected by many of the friends I had when I was in the love-relationship. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5. | I become upset when I think about my former love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6. | I like being the person I am. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 7. | I feel like crying because I feel so sad. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 8. | I can communicate with my former love-partner in a calm and rational manner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9. | There are many things about my personality I would like to change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 10. | It is easy for me to accept my becoming a single person. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 11. | I feel depressed. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 12. | I feel emotionally separated from my former love-partner. |

1: almost always 2: usually 3: sometimes
4: seldom 5: almost never

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|-----|--|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 13. | People would not like me if they got to know me. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 14. | I feel comfortable seeing and talking to my former love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 15. | I feel like I am an attractive person. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 16. | I feel as though I am in a daze and the world doesn't seem real. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 17. | I find myself doing things just to please my former love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 18. | I feel lonely. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 19. | There are many things about my body I would like to change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 20. | I have many plans and goals for the future. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 21. | I feel I don't have much sex appeal. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 22. | I am relating and interacting in many new ways with people since my separation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 23. | Joining a singles' group would make me feel I was a loser like them. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 24. | It is easy for me to organize my daily routine of living. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 25. | I find myself making excuses to see and talk to my former love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 26. | Because my love-relationship failed, I must be a failure. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 27. | I feel like unloading my feelings of anger and hurt upon my former love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 28. | I feel comfortable being with people. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 29. | I have trouble concentrating. |

1: almost always 2: usually 3: sometimes
4: seldom 5: almost never

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|-----|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 30. | I think of my former love-partner as related to me rather than as a separate person. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 31. | I feel like an okay person. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 32. | I hope my former love-partner is feeling as much or more emotional pain than I am. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 33. | I have close friends who know and understand me. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 34. | I am unable to control my emotions. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 35. | I feel capable of building a deep and meaningful love-relationship. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 36. | I have trouble sleeping. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 37. | I easily become angry at my former love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 38. | I am afraid to trust people who might become love-partners. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 39. | Because my love-relationship ended, I feel there must be something wrong with me. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 40. | I either have no appetite or eat continuously which is unusual for me. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 41. | I don't want to accept the fact that our love-relationship is ending. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 42. | I force myself to eat even though I'm not hungry. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 43. | I have given up on my former love-partner and I getting back together. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 44. | I feel very frightened inside. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 45. | It is important that my family, friends, and associates be on my side rather than on my former love-partner's side. |

1: almost always 2: usually 3: sometimes
4: seldom 5: almost never

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|-----|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 46. | I feel uncomfortable even thinking about dating. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 47. | I feel capable of living the kind of life I would like to live. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 48. | I have noticed my body weight is changing a great deal. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 49. | I believe if we try, my love-partner and I can save our love-relationship. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 50. | My abdomen feels empty and hollow. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 51. | I have feelings of romantic love for my former love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 52. | I can make the decisions I need to because I know and trust my feelings. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 53. | I would like to get even with my former love-partner for hurting me. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 54. | I avoid people even though I want and need friends. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 55. | I have really made a mess of my life. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 56. | I sigh a lot. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 57. | I believe it is best for all concerned to have our love-relationship end. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 58. | I perform my daily activities in a mechanical and unfeeling manner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 59. | I become upset when I think about my love-partner having a love-relationship with someone else. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 60. | I feel capable of facing and dealing with my problems. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 61. | I blame my former love-partner for the failure of our love-relationship. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 62. | I am afraid of becoming sexually involved with another person. |

1: almost always 2: usually 3: sometimes
4: seldom 5: almost never

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|-----|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 63. | I feel adequate as a male love-partner |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 64. | It will only be a matter of time until my love-partner and I get back together. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 65. | I feel detached and removed from activities around me as though I were watching them on a movie screen. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 66. | I would like to continue having a sexual relationship with my former love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 67. | Life is somehow passing me by. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 68. | I feel comfortable going by myself to a public place such as a movie. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 69. | It is good to feel alive again after having felt numb and emotionally dead. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 70. | I feel I know and understand myself. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 71. | I feel emotionally committed to my former love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 72. | I want to be with people but I feel emotionally distant from them. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 73. | I am the type of person I would like to have for a friend. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 74. | I am afraid of becoming emotionally close to another love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 75. | Even on the days when I am feeling good, I may suddenly become sad and start crying. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 76. | I can't believe our love-relationship is ending. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 77. | I become upset when I think about my love-partner dating someone else. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 78. | I feel I have a normal amount of self-confidence. |

1: almost always 2: usually 3: sometimes
4: seldom 5: almost never

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|------|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 96. | I feel as though I am the only single person in a couples-only society. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 97. | I feel like a single person rather than a married person. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 98. | I feel my friends look at me as unstable now that I'm separated. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 99. | I daydream about being with and talking to my former love-partner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 100. | I need to improve my feelings of self-worth about being a man. |

THE END

APPENDIX H
BEM'S SEX ROLE INVENTORY (BSRI)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*	Never or almost never true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually true	Always or almost always true
Defend my own beliefs							
Affectionate							
Conscientious							
Independent							
Sympathetic							
Moody							
Assertive							
Sensitive to needs of others							
Reliable							
Strong personality							
Understanding							
Jealous							
Forceful							
Compassionate							
Truthful							
Have leadership abilities							
Eager to soothe hurt feelings							
Secretive							
Willing to take risks							
Warm							
Adaptable							
Dominant							
Tender							
Conceited							
Willing to take a stand							
Love children							
Tactful							
Aggressive							
Gentle							
Conventional							
Self-reliant							
Yielding							
Helpful							
Athletic							
Cheerful							
Unsystematic							
Analytical							
Shy							
Inefficient							
Make decisions easily							
Flatterable							
Theatrical							
Self-sufficient							
Loyal							
Happy							
Individualistic							
Soft-spoken							
Unpredictable							
Masculine							
Gullible							
Solemn							
Competitive							
Childlike							
Likable							
Ambitious							
Do not use harsh language							
Sincere							
Act as a leader							
Feminine							
Friendly							

