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Adjustment counseling with children of divorced parents

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ADJUSTMENT COUNSELING WITH CHILDREN OF DIVORCED PARENTS

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ADJUSTMENT COUNSELING WITH CHILDREN OF DIVORCED PARENTS

A Dissertation Presented to the
Faculty of the School of Education
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In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the degree
Doctor of Education

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by

Barbara A. Bebenese

December, 1979

Approval Sheet

We the undersigned do certify that we have read this dissertation and that in our individual opinions it is acceptable in both scope and quality as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.

Accepted November 1979

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Abstract

The present investigation was designed for the purpose of measuring the differential effects divorce adjustment counseling has on the child's self-concept, intellectual functioning, school and home behavior. Sixty-one children of divorced parents in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades participated in the study. Twenty-one students were assigned to the treatment group. The treatment group utilized structured group activities that dealt with the issues a child faces as he moves through the stages of a loss. These stages as established by Kubler-Ross are Denial, Anger, Bargaining, Depression and Acceptance. Twenty students were assigned to the treated control group. Selected activities chosen from Dinkmeyer's DUSO-II Manual were used with the children in the treated control group. The subject of divorce was not discussed. The remaining twenty children were assigned to the control group. The control group was used as a comparison group for statistical purposes. The control group did not receive any form of counseling.

The treatment and treated control groups met twice a week for thirty minutes for five weeks.

The instruments chosen to obtain pre- and post-group measures were the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test, the School Behavior Checklist and the Louisville Behavior Checklist. The paired T-test and one-way analysis of variance were used to analyze the data.

It was found that the treatment group when compared to the treated control group improved significantly in the areas of self-concept, school and home behavior. The treated control group when compared to the control group improved significantly in the areas of self-concept, school and home behavior.

From this it was apparent that group counseling regardless of the model or techniques chosen does aid the child in feeling better about himself and helps him to successfully function in his environment. However, when a child is faced with a crisis (i.e., divorce of parents), by dealing with the issue directly it has a more powerful effect in improving the child's self-concept, school and home behavior.

Adjustment Counseling with Children of Divorced Parents

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Society's message seems clear to the one-parent family: "Divorce between adults, when necessary, is acceptable. Divorce when there are children involved is a tragedy. A child deprived of a two-parent home is in for it. The damage done to the children because of divorce is potentially extensive and irreversible. In order for children to make it, they have to be raised as close to the two-parent ideal as possible and with as little interruption as possible. It is the child who pays while the parent plays (Ricci, 1979)." It is unfortunate that this belief (stated in its harshest form) pervades throughout many facets of society. Divorce is on the list of societal taboos and somehow the belief that if this taboo is ignored or not acknowledged then it will go away. But, Divorce is not going to go away and neither are the children that are affected by divorce.

The divorce rate has increased 125 percent since 1961 (Luepnitz, 1978). In the year 1978 there was a divorce for every two marrieges (Hunt, 1978). Of these divorced couples, 64 percent had children under the age of eighteen years. These statistics represent an annual increase of one million children or over thirteen million children in the United States that are presently

affected by divorce (Wilkinson & Bleck, 1977), or that will experience divorce if the current trend continues. Of this thirteen million, 20 percent are enrolled in elementary schools (Barnard, 1978), and it is predicted that this percentage will, in the next five years, more than likely increase to 30 percent (Walters, 1976).

It is apparent that parents are no longer staying together for "the sake of the children," but breaking up "for the sake of the children (Epstein, 1974, p. 147)." The parents are generally recognizing that their unhappy relationships may very well be deleterious to the children. "Psychologists, marriage counselors, clergymen, lay people espouse a new conventional wisdom. This wisdom holds that a divorce is preferable to bringing up children in a loveless home; that in other words, a broken home is psychologically healthier for children than a damaged one (Epstein, 1974, p. 147)."

Despert (1953) was one of the earliest professionals to emphasize the fact that divorce was not necessarily worse for children than the maintenance of an unhappy marriage. The studies of Nye (1957), Landis (1960), and the review of other related studies by Lamb (1978) tend to substantiate Despert's position. Nye investigated the effect of divorce and the effect of unhappy homes on a total of 566 seventh- and eighth-grade students who had experienced divorce in early (5 1/2-7 years old) and later latency (8-11 years old). Nye took into consideration the economic status of the parents; he considered those children that had more problems than other children; and he also considered if the mother was the head of the household or if step-parents

were involved. Each variable was appropriately weighed for the purpose of statistical analysis. The results indicated that adolescents from divorced homes showed significantly better adjustment (X^2 = $p < .01$) than those from unhappy, unbroken homes in psychosomatic illnesses, delinquency behavior, and parent-child adjustment.

Burchinal's (1964) summary of Landis's study indicated that children from divorced homes seem to participate more in family counseling, shared their problems with their parents more readily, reported less criticism of peer relationships and achieved economic maturity earlier than did those children of unhappy, intact homes.

Lamb's (1978) conclusions to his review of the relevant research on divorce indicated that embittered marital relationships and hostile or rejecting parent-child relationships provide a context that scarcely facilitates psychological development, and may indeed retard it. Such an environment is not invariably preferable to divorce, and is often less desirable.

In other words, these studies suggest that there is less psychiatric disturbance in children from broken homes than in those from intact but unhappy homes. Nevertheless, it cannot be predicted which will be the better situation for any given child. Children of divorced parents are at a potential risk psychologically. Divorce can be beneficial to children, inasmuch as it signals the termination of hostilities, uncertainties, and harmful hatefulness. On the other hand, family dissolution and the associated severance of important formative relationships can be dangerous to the psycho-social adjustment of young children (Lamb, 1977).

However, when separation and/or divorce is chosen, certain reactions and coping skills emerge in order that the child might better handle the crisis. "Some of the readers may object to the term 'crisis' used to describe the divorce experience. However, in families that we studied, there were more in which at least one family member did not report distress or exhibit disrupted behavior . . . We did not encounter a victimless divorce (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1976, p. 8)." Divorce is an external event; children react to the emotional consequences and implications inherent in it. Divorce is not an internal affliction but a developmental crisis to be coped with by all individuals involved. Furthermore, there have been studies that have shown how children, in particular, respond to this crisis.

One such investigation done by Wallerstein and Kelly (1976 & 1977) studies 131 children and adolescents from sixty divorcing families over a period of five years. The children were interviewed shortly after the initial parental separation and one year later. Experiences of thirty-one children in later latency (8-11 years old) were obtained through interviews conducted by Wallerstein and Kelly. These children perceived the realities of their families' disruption and parental turbulence with soberness and clarity. Feelings of shame emerged. These children were ashamed of the divorce and disruption in their family, despite their awareness of the commonness of divorce. They were ashamed of their parents and their behaviors, and lied loyally to cover these up; and they were ashamed of the implied rejection of themselves in the father's departure, making them, in their own eyes,

as unlovable. They developed ways of coping with the profound underlying feelings of loss (the loss of the family structure they had known) as well as the feelings of rejection, of helplessness and loneliness, the fears for the uncertain future that lay ahead for their newly-diminished family. Their "whole world seemed filled with symbols and events of death, damage, loss and emptiness (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976, p. 23)."

Buckley's (1974) theoretical investigation concluded that children of divorce do experience an object loss not unlike those children who experience death, which precipitates a mourning reaction. Buckley states that the degree to which a child is able to complete the grief work, a necessary step in the resolution of mourning, will differentially affect their later adjustment. Butler's (1977) investigations also support the belief that separation/divorce is psychologically comparable to death and frequently evokes similar responses of disbelief, shock, and denial.

Divorce is a process of grieving as a result of the profound sense of loss (Hawener, 1975). For children, separation and divorce create a kind of "suspended animation"--life is not the same, yet there are residual hopes that parents will return and restore the family to its previous norms (Pitcher, 1969). In this situation, the grieving process is prolonged by the elements of uncertainty, hope, and intermittent contracts with the absent parent. Kubler-Ross (1969) observed that, regardless of causes, grief progresses through identifiable stages of denial and isolation, anger, bargaining,

depression and acceptance.

Divorce is a family matter rather than simply a marital phenomena. Each member of the divorce goes through the process of the transition from one "type" of family structure to another "type" of family unit. Significant hostilities between and emotional separation of the spouses have usually preceded the divorce by months or years. Therefore, it follows that divorce is a complex, dynamic, social process rather than a discreet event.

Because of the stress each individual family member is feeling, they may not be able to offer support to other family members. It is generally recognized by family professionals that at the time when children require great emotional support and new coping skills, their parents are more often than not preoccupied and emotionally drained from their own separation ordeals so that they cannot meet the special needs of the children (Guerney & Jordey, 1979; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976 (a); Steinzor, 1970; Stuart & Abt, 1972; Heatherington et al., 1978; Coke, 1977).

When children were rated on the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (Like Stress Scale--Holmes & Rahe, 1967), as to the stress caused by divorce, they were given scores of 217 (Guerney & Jordey, 1979). The score of 100 units assigned for the death of a parent (highest score) gives an idea of what 217 points might mean. Three hundred points are considered the basis for high risk of depressive clinical symptoms.

Divorce can be trying, even for the hardiest of individuals

(Gardner, 1976; Kessler, 1976; Grollman, 1969). "Though the child's experiences are difficult to measure . . . it is commonly agreed upon by behavioral scientists that the separation and divorce experience is damaging to the child (Stuart & Abt, 1972, p. 201)."

How badly the child is affected depends on the constitutional make-up of the child. Some persons may want to hold on to the belief that children are not affected by their parent's conflicts. The contrary is true: every child experiencing a separation and/or divorce suffers (Heatherington, 1976; Gardner, 1974; Stuart & Abt, 1972; Kessler, 1976; Butler, 1977).

Statement of the Problem

Faced with society's divorce taboo, the parents preoccupation with their own adjustment, and the emotional and behavioral responses a child exhibits as he progresses through the stages of loss in reaction to the separation/divorce, it is apparent that persons in the helping professions must supply a means of helping children through this period of transition.

Since the potential emotional response of some children to a separation and/or divorce is similar to the stress responses of death, it becomes necessary, to understand the differences between divorce stress and death stress and the stages of mourning that a child may progress through in order for the counselor, to aid the child in the adjustment process.

Bernard (1978) cites five major differences between divorce

stress and death stress. The first difference is seen in the "time" element of the two. Death is a moment in time. While sickness might be prolonged, death is quick and certain. Divorce, on the other hand, is a slower, more ambiguous process. Visitation and the long legal process leave children uncertain as to the changes which will occur in their lives.

The second difference between death and divorce is in the ceremonial event that marks the death that aids in the transition, where there is no formal ceremony to mark the event of the separation/ divorce. To be more specific, death is surrounded with ceremony. For a few days the routine stops and everyone mourns together. With divorce there is no specific time set aside for mourning. Furthermore, everyone is not together. Half of the child's relatives are often on "the other side." Mother and father's friends are split. Generally, there are many things going on to hinder the child's expression of his or her grief.

A third difference is that death is irreversible. Therefore, children will usually not be encouraged to hope that the absent parent will return. Changes are more likely to occur during the adjustment period when a child is facing a divorce. For instance, Bobby is nine years old and has accepted that his mother will not be living with the rest of the family anymore. This is confirmed when Bobby visits his mother and sees her very happy with her new boyfriend. If, however, his mother and her boyfriend discontinue their relationship, Bobby may begin to hope again that his mother will return to the

family. Bobby might slip back to an earlier reaction of denying his parents' separation and hoping for reconciliation.

Environmental factors also play a part in differentiating these two crisis situations. Another example will be used to better explain Bernard's fourth difference between divorce stress and death stress. Jenny is in the fourth grade. Jenny's dad dies of a terminal illness. Soon after the funeral, Jenny expresses anger that her father will not be at the school play. "He said he'd be there." The adults in Jenny's life will probably be patient with her at this point in her adjustment. They will say that her father loved her dearly and that he said that he would go to the play because he wanted to very much. Jenny will be encouraged to think kindly of her dead father and will be told that she must try to adjust to her personal tragedy. Now, assume that, instead, Jenny's father left their home to file for divorce. If Jenny expresses anger toward her father for breaking a promise to her, it is much more likely that she can find an adult in her world to reinforce her anger. Her mother might be carrying her own anger toward her spouse, and neighbors may use Jenny's anger to reinforce their own understanding of the separation. In fact, it is socially more acceptable to express anger toward an absent parent than it is toward the memory of a dead parent. Therefore, the adjustment of the child to the separation may be hindered by the environment or an unhealthy emotional reaction may be learned.

Finally, research studies which have compared children of divorced parents and children of a deceased parent indicate that

subsequent emotional development for the two groups will be different (Bendikson, 1975; Felner, Stolberg & Cowen, 1975; Hetherington, 1972). For instance, Hetherington (1972) reported that children of divorced parents will be more disruptive and aggressive, while those of deceased parents are more often referred to counselors for depression and anxiety. As can be seen from Bernard's beliefs concerning the differences between divorce stress and death stress, a separation/divorce can become a long process that because of external factors can hinder the child's adjustment process.

The child's adjustment process can be examined from the standpoint of comparing the phases of Kubler-Ross's loss model (1969) to the child's emotional reactions to separation and divorce. Professionals (Hozman & Froiland, 1976; Bernard, 1978; Gardner, 1976; Magid, 1977; Wiseman, 1953; Hetherington, 1976), who have studied and counseled children that have experienced a separation and/or divorce situation support the appropriateness of the Kubler-Ross loss model for those children who are experiencing the object loss created by the separation/divorce and the subsequent mourning and grief response.

The loss model consists of five stages and progress in the following order: Denial, Anger, Bargaining, Depression and Acceptance. It should be understood that not all children go through all stages in the *same* order or are *at* the *same* point in the model for each of their concerns. Often individuals progress through different phases of the divorce at different rates. The child may be in the denial

stage regarding some parts of the separation/divorce and in other stages regarding other aspects of the divorce. That is, the child could be in the denial stage as regarding the psychological impact but in the acceptance stage as far as the physiological separation between the noncustodial parent and the child.

While this is simply one working approach to counseling children of divorce, and at each of the various stages different techniques or supplemental approaches may be utilized, it has been reported as a successful method in working with these children (Gardner, 1976; Hozman & Froiland, 1977; Wiseman, 1975; Bernard, 1978). Divorce is generally an unsettling experience. Its effect can cause an individual to atrophy or it can be an opportunity for growth. By using this particular approach to the clients, growth can be enhanced. However, little quantitative measures have been obtained to study the therapeutic effects of this model (or any other model) for children of divorced parents (Stuart & Abt, 1972; Kessler, 1978; Froiland, 1978; Magid, 1979; Bernard, 1978).

Need for the Study

Taking into consideration the social responsibility of establishing a support system for children of divorce in order to help them cope with changes associated with divorce and in finding a means of modifying or eliminating the deleterious sequelae to divorce, it is necessary that various methods need to be investigated to see if, in fact, divorce adjustment counseling does help in the

child's adjustment to the crisis of divorce.

A survey of various community health agencies, child development centers, divorce adjustment centers and persons who are directly involved with divorce counseling with children (see Appendix A), as well as reviewing the literature, provided a general consensus that counseling children who experience a separation/divorce is a service that should be made available to such children. It was also noted that divorce is a disruption of life and the focus for realistic as well as unrealistic feelings, fears, fantasies and projections occur in the child. Confusion and misunderstanding are also added to the list of reactions to the parents' divorce. Clarifying, understanding and accepting those reactions and putting them in a proper perspective through group counseling for children of divorce can help the child and allow him to adjust to the situation and make the best of it (Kapitz, 1977; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976 (b); Westman, 1970).

An additional deficit is the paucity of adequate research of the effect of divorce adjustment counseling for children. Current research concentrates on obtaining pre-divorce counseling scores and post-group scores had not compared the changes that occurred with the children who had participated in the group counseling with other children who had experienced divorce but had not participated in the divorce adjustment counseling experience.

Even though various techniques and approaches such as role playing, puppetry, the use of games, films, various children's books on

divorce, open-ended sentences, drawing activities and other structured group activities were being used (Kessler, 1976; Gardner, 1976; Bernard, 1978; Green, 1978; Kaplan, 1979), the pairing of various structured group activities with the stages of Kubler-Ross's loss model had not been attempted.

The information obtained from this study adds to the knowledge of divorce adjustment counseling with children by providing quantitative measures that will show if, in fact, children who receive divorce adjustment counseling show significant improvement in adjustment and acceptance of the divorce as compared with those children who do not participate in this kind of therapeutic activity.

At the onset of this investigation, several questions came to mind: does divorce adjustment counseling that incorporates structured group activities with the stages of Kubler-Ross's loss model help in improving a child's self-concept? Is there an attitude or perception change that occurs about the divorce or an attitude change towards the parents? Does this counseling help the child in working through those issues that are conflicting with intellectual functioning in order that school performance will improve? Does a child's behavior as noted by his parents or teachers, improve as he participates in this divorce adjustment counseling group?

By dealing with those issues, behaviors and emotions that a child faces (as he progresses through the stages of loss) when he experiences a dissolution of the family, assists the child in moving towards a positive acceptance of his situation and therefore aid in

his overall adjustment?

Do children who have divorced or soon-to-be divorced parents that do not experience the counseling intervention achieve the same overall adjustment as children who have the aid of the counseling experience?

In an attempt to answer these questions, the purpose of the proposed investigation is to compare pre- and post-test results of those children who were members of the divorce adjustment group with the pre- and post-test results of children who did not participate in the divorce adjustment counseling sessions.

The overall goal is to minimize or prevent the consolidation of psycho-pathological responses and to facilitate that transition to the new family relationship following the divorce.

Sample and Data Gathering Procedures

Approximately twenty children who have or are experiencing a separation and/or divorce by their parents will be divided into three groups of approximately five to ten each. One group (treatment) participated in the structured group activities that follow Kubler-Ross's loss model for a period of five weeks. Selected activities from Dinkmeyer's DUSO-II kit were used with the children in the treated control group. The other group (control) did not participate in any divorce counseling activities.

Each group one week prior to the first meeting of the divorce adjustment counseling and one week after the last group session were

administered the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test (Otis & Lennon, 1968) to measure intellectual functioning. To measure the change in self-concept, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Piers, 1969) was administered. The behavior of the child as noted by parents and teachers before and after treatment (or in the case of the control group--any behavior change occurring over the same interval of time as the group session) was obtained, by having the parents respond to the statements of the Louisville Behavioral Checklist (Miller, 1974). Teachers were asked to respond to the statements on the School Behavior Checklist (Miller, 1974).

An informal evaluation form was given to all participants who were members of the treatment and treated control groups in this study and to their parents to elicit their opinions of the group sessions and their thoughts concerning the value of having counseling help groups for children of separation and/or divorce.

Hypotheses

The object of the present study is to assess divorce adjustment counseling with children and its impact on the child's overall adjustment. Pre- and post-group measures were obtained for the treatment and the treated control and control groups. The following hypotheses, stated in null form, are made:

1. There is no significant difference between the intellectual functioning of the treatment, treated control, and control groups as measured by the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test.

2. There is no significant difference between the self-concept of the treatment, treated control, and control groups as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

3. The individual subscale scores (Behavior, Intellectual and School Status, Physical Appearance and Attributes, Anxiety, Popularity, Happiness and Satisfaction) of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale show no significant difference between the treatment, treated control, and control groups.

4. The behavior of the children as measured by the Louisville Behavior Checklist (parent response) indicates no significant difference between the treatment, treated control, and control groups.

5. The individual subscales of the Louisville Behavior Checklist (Infantile Aggression, Hyperactivity, Antisocial Behavior, Aggression, Social Withdrawal, Sensitivity, Fear, Inhibition, Academic Disability, Immaturity, Learning Disability, Prosocial Defeat, Rare Deviance, Neurotic Behavior, Psychotic Behavior, Somatic Behavior, Sexual Behavior, Severity Level) show no significant difference between the treatment, treated control, and control groups.

6. The behavior of the children as measured by the School Behavior Checklist (teacher response) indicates no significant difference between the treatment, treated control, and control groups.

7. The individual subscales of the School Behavior Checklist (Low Need Achievement, Aggression, Anxiety, Academic Disability, Hostile Isolation, Extraversion, Total Disability) indicate no significant difference between the treatment, treated control, and control groups.

8. The five 9-point global scales of the School Behavior Checklist (listed below) indicate no significant difference between the treatment, treated control, and control groups. The five scales are as follows:

1. How would you personally rate this pupil's intellectual ability?

2. How would you rate this pupil's overall academic skills?

3. How would you rate this pupil's overall academic performance?

4. How would you rate this pupil's social and emotional adjustments?

5. How would you rate this pupil's personal appeal?

9. The treatment group shows no significant difference from the treated control group.

10. The treatment group shows no significant difference from the control group.

11. The treated control group shows no significant difference from the control group.

12. The treatment and treated control group, together, show no significant difference from the control group.

Definition of Terms

In order to insure that ambiguities remain at a minimum, terms that will be used throughout this investigation will be defined as

follows:

Acceptance: Acceptance is defined as facing the inevitable reality. The individual becomes willing to accept, while not necessarily liking the divorce styled life. The person does not forget the lost person, but is no longer angry, depressed, or preoccupied with it (Kaplan, 1979).

Adjustment: Adjustment is defined as the adaptation the person has made to the separation and/or divorce situation. The individual has altered his perceptions, attitudes, behaviors, and emotions to fit the new life style that is the result of the divorce of the parents.

Anger: Anger is commonly recognized as an emotional reaction that often results when one is interfered with, injured, or threatened. Activities of overt or concealed attack or offense usually accompany this emotion. In a divorce situation, these hostile emotions are focused toward someone or something, frequently outside the individual involved (Hozman & Froiland, 1977).

Bargaining: Bargaining is an attempt made by the person to negotiate, to make "a deal" (usually not clearly defined) in order to manipulate a reconciliation concerning the divorce (Hozman & Froiland, 1977).

Broken Home: A broken home occurs when one parent, either mother or father, leaves the family unit (due to death, divorce, military separation, etc.). For the purpose of this study, "broken home" will refer to the family unit break-up due to divorce, unless otherwise stated.

Crisis: "A crisis in the family life refers to events or happenings outside or inside the family unit, which upset the traditional ways of interacting, thus demanding a change in the family system (Dodson, 1977, p. 23)."

Denial: Denial is a refusal to accept a reality, either actual or potential. Denial occurs when one chooses not to accept reality and then builds a system that is more in keeping with the desired rather than the real world (Hozman & Froiland, 1977).

Depression: Depression is defined as a feeling of despondency in response to a condition of loss or disappointment. In the case of divorce, the depression results in the reality of a loss or the potential loss of relationship. Depression most often consists of an exaggeratedly lowered mood, accompanied by a decrease in feelings of self-worth (Hozman & Froiland, 1977).

Intact Family: An intact family refers to a family unit that consists of a mother, father, and child or children living in the same household.

Object Loss: Object loss occurs when an individual loses "something or someone" that held a strong emotional attachment. In the case of a separation and/or divorce, the child "loses" the family unit as it once existed as well as the removal of one parent from the family unit.

Self-Esteem: Self-esteem is viewed as the affective portion of the self. That is, not only does a person have certain ideas of who he/she is, but has certain feelings about who he/she is (Hanachek,

1978).

Self-Concept: Self-concept refers to that particular cluster of ideas and attitudes that an individual has about their awareness at any given moment in time. Another way of looking at it is the organized cognitive structure derived from experiences of our own self (Hanachek, 1978).

Single-Parent Home/Family: The single-parent family is defined as one parent and child/children that make up the family unit regardless of extended family members that reside at the same residence.

Limitations

A number of limitations to the quality and generalizability of the findings are imposed by the research procedures. A few of the more salient limitations will be discussed below.

The applicability of these findings is somewhat limited by the subject population. Since the population is initially limited to those children in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades who are or who have experienced a separation and/or divorce situation by their parents. This decreases the sample size considerably. Also, those children who have experienced a separation and/or divorce by their parents, but are in a newly found family unit as a result of remarriage will not be part of the sample.

The population will be drawn from two local school systems, Williamsburg-James City County School System, and the Newport News School System. The generalizability of the findings will be limited

to those populations that are similar to those found in the Williamsburg-James City County Schools and those found in the Newport News School System.

Before the child can participate in the divorce adjustment counseling group, permission must be obtained from the parents. It was noted from the pilot study (Mennenga, 1979) that even though there were many (more than ten) children known to have experienced a separation/divorce by their parents, that only three parents allowed their children to participate in the group. When two elementary schools in the Newport News School System, B. C. Charles Elementary School and Reservoir Elementary School were surveyed for the pilot study to determine the parental interest in having their children participate in the counseling help group for children of separated and/or divorced families, only eight parents from each school responded to the survey even though the principals of each school had estimated that they knew of more than twenty children in each school who had gone through the break-up of the family unit by divorce. As a result, the population sample size is again limited by the permission that must be obtained from the parent before the child can participate in the group.

Another limitation that occurs simply from speculation is that those parents who allow their children to participate in the Divorce Adjustment Counseling group sessions have possibly all along been concerned about the adjustment of their child or children to their divorce and therefore have explored other approaches in helping

the child in his/her adjustment process. It follows that, if the child has been receiving support from the parent from the onset of the separation and that the parent is continuing in the support by allowing the child to receive additional aid from a counselor, then that child possibly is not exhibiting those emotional and behavioral reactions that children not receiving the support from their parents exhibit. This, again, lessens the generalizability to other populations of children of divorce since the "kind" of sample is possibly not totally representative of "all" children that face the crisis of divorce.

It is tempting to overgeneralize and to describe the reactions children have to their parents' divorce. But divorces are different and children are different, and the interactions of the two can lead in many directions. There are compatable divorces and angry divorces, divorces where child support is considered obligation and divorces where the courts must take over. In some divorces, both parents continue to live in the same city and in others, one parent is no longer present. In some divorces, both parents love their children, in others, there is little or no love to be shared. The cause of divorce, the length of time a child knows of the impending separation, the age and sex of the child, all these and many more variables contribute to the type of reactions a child will have.

The review of the literature was limited to the resources found in the library of The College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Virginia; the library of Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia; the library of Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia; the library of

the University of Southern Mississippi, Hattisburg, Mississippi; and the library of the University of Colorado at Denver, Denver, Colorado.

Ethical Considerations

The ethical guidelines established by the American Psychological Association and the American Personnel and Guidance Association were followed.

Permission was obtained from each parent before a child was allowed to participate in the counseling help groups for children of divorce and the Students' Growth Group. A copy of the permission form is found in Appendix B.

Confidentiality of all test scores was maintained. Those parents requesting the results of the test scores for his/her child were given access to the test results. The scores were interpreted for the parents by a qualified counselor. If the test results of the child and/or if in the opinion of the experimenter, the child may require further counseling, following the termination of the counseling group, the parents were so advised.

Summary

During the 1980s it is estimated that 50 percent of the children enrolled in elementary schools will experience a divorce by their parents. Taking into consideration the social responsibility of establishing a support system for children in divorce in order to help them cope with changes associated with divorce and in finding a

means of modifying or eliminating the deleterious sequelae to divorce, it is necessary that various methods need to be investigated to see if, in fact, divorce adjustment counseling and/or group counseling does help in the child's adjustment to the crisis of divorce.

The researcher has selected to follow the stages of Kubler-Ross's Loss Model in counseling children of divorced families since the review of the literature indicated that the behavioral and emotional responses to divorce are similar to the response a child exhibits due to the death of a loved one.

A selected group of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students from two area school systems participated as members in either the treatment (Divorce Adjustment Counseling), the treated control (Students' Growth Group), or the control (non-treated) groups. Pre-post measures for intellectual functioning, self-concept, home and school behavior are obtained through the use of the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, the Louisville Behavior Checklist, and the School Behavior Checklist.

Plan of Presentation

For the balance of this study, the researcher will present the related research and the methodology. The reports reviewed are pertinent to the investigation, the chosen mode of treatment, the designated population, and the instruments that were used to assess the treatment effects. The methodology will include a description of the subjects, a validation of the instruments to be used, an outline of the treatment

method, the procedure for the collection of data, the experimental design and the statistical method of analysis.

Chapter II

SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE

In this chapter, the literature review is organized into four main areas of consideration. The first area presents the child's reactions and responses to the separation/divorce of his parents. This section is followed by investigations that compare and contrast divorced families with intact families and fam lies that have experienced a parental loss due to the death of the parent. Section three examines the theoretical implications of comparing the responses emitted from children who experience a parental death or loss of the parent because of divorce, and how these responses follow the stages of Kubler-Ross's loss model. The final section of chapter two examines the position of using group counseling and therapy to facilitate the adjustment and acceptance of the parental divorce by the child.

Children's Reactions and Responses to Parental Separation and Divorce

Although there is a dearth of empirical studies about the impact of divorce on children, other literature does exist including reports of clinicians and others focusing on the kinds of problems that emerge and how to deal with them (Despert, 1962; Gardner, 1976; Grollman, 1969; Weiss, 1975; Stuart & Abt, 1972; and Steinzor, 1970).

There is general agreement in this body of literature that children do have considerable difficulty at this time. The difficulty may be temporary or it may last for a period of several years (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976-77). Difficulty can take a variety of forms, including symptom formation, behavior problem, and interpersonal difficulty. Experiences for a child when parents separate/divorce are not exactly the same in every situation. The problems that do emerge should be considered in terms of the developmental stage of the child, and the fact that the interaction of the child with parents and the interaction of parents during the period prior to, during and after the seperation may be important in child adjustment. The assumption is that parental divorce is a single event, when in effect the term "separation/divorce" covers a variety of experiences or constellations of experiences ranging from major dislocations to virtually no change in living arrangements and/or family interactions (Jacobson, 1978). Divorce is a complex, dynamic social process rather than a discrete event. The child's reactions, therefore, can range along a continuum from complete denial to overwhelming feelings of grief and rage. Several individual studies will be examined before subdividing the responses a child may emit because of the separation/divorce of his parents into categories that will be explained in greater detail.

Wallerstein and Kelly (1976 b) interviewed thirty-one children in later latency and noted the impact divorce had shortly after the initial parental separation and one year later. From these interviews, a variety of reactions were noted. Some children viewed

the family disruption with soberness and clarity; others found it very difficult to keep their anxiety under control. For some, the divorce event was threatening and painful. Composure for some of the children was maintained by denial and distence. For this particular age group, intense anger temporarily obliterated the more painful affective responses. Their anger was well organized and object-directed. For half of the children, their anger was directed at either the father or mother, only a few of the children were angry at both parents. The children expressed their anger in varied ways: temper tantrums, increased misbehavior, diffused demandingness, and dictatorial attitudes.

Fears and phobies seemed to increase, for it was difficult for them to sort out reality from phobic elaborations. A fourth of the children worried about being forgotten or abandoned completely by their parents. Only a few children in this particular age group felt that they were responsible for the divorce, but Wallerstein and Kelly noted that lying and stealing increased dramatically which indicated that these children wanted to "get caught" and be punished because of the guilt fantasies they had.

A shaken sense of identity was apparent. The child's identity had centered around, "I am the son/daughter of John and Mary Smith." This thought was related to their sense of who they were and who they would become in the future. Now, that had been changed or just simply disappeared.

> Critical to this new sense of stress is that during latency years the child's normal conception of his own identity is closely tied to the external family structure and developmentally dependent on the physical presence of the parental figure not only for nurture, protection and control, but also for the consolidation of age-appropriate identification (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976, p. 23).

Loneliness, the sense of being left outside, the sad recognition of being powerless, were other emotions felt by the later latency child. They realized and/or felt that the parent had withdrawn his/her interest away from him because they were too busy in their own world.

It was difficult for the child to take sides. For if they sided with one parent, then they would be betraying the other parent which could evoke real anger and further rejection resulting in severe psychic or real penalties. So, the child refrained from choices which left him/her with no one to turn to. Somatic symptoms of headaches and stomachaches were common and in many cases could be relieved if Dad rubbed them away.

Deterioration in school work and peer relationships were noted. Wallerstein and Kelly observed that the behaviors and emotions the child exhibited at home were opposite to those behaviors and emotions he/she exhibited at school. For example, if a child was feeling pressed and frightened at home, at school he would begin to act out a bossy, controlling, and devious role at school. The ability to concentrate in class decreased and aggression on the playground increased.

The one year follow-up showed that all but four of the fifteen had resumed pre-divorce achievement and social adjustment. However, half of the children were still suffering from shame, fears of being forgotten, lost and abandonment. Anger and hostility still were predominate in one-third of the children. Fifty percent of this group of later latency still gave evidence of depressive behavior patterns, coupled with low self-esteem. Twenty-five percent showed more open distress and disturbance than at the initial visit. Regardless of whether the child was "better" or "worse" after the one year follow-up, relatively few children were able to maintain a good relationship with both parents.

Weiss (1975) observed from case studies over a period of five years that some children will bounce back after the initial trauma but other children will display excessive nailbiting, an increase in nightmares, hyperactivity and minor accidents. In several case studies, some children had developed skin rashes which were not in evidence prior to the parental divorce. Not only did these children develop physical and behavioral reactions to the separation/divorce, but many of the children, to replace the absent parent, overidentified with that parent. They mimicked the mannerisms, behavior, and even when playing pretended to have the same occupation as the absent parent.

The child's anger about his parents' divorce was directed most vehemently towards the custodial parent. The child displayed his anger by being belligerent, by intense negativism, and balkiness

and his/her persistent opposition towards, in most cases, the mother. However, some children were afraid to express anger towards the parent they were staying with for fear they would expel them and total abandonment was intolerable. The child's play became more aggressive and his verbalized fantasies were full of scenes of killings, blood and death.

The later latency child in Weiss's studies felt more guilt and responsibility for the separation than did younger children or adolescents. As did Wallerstein and Kelly, Weiss observed after a period of a year that the child returned to pre-divorce behavior. The child seemed to "let go" of his symptomatic responses more easily if he/she had siblings to help him/her work through the child's problems.

From Steinzor's (1970) clinical case studies, he recorded children in later latency sharing intense feelings of guilt and shame because of the families' dissolution. Guilt, in part, came from a sense of responsibility for what had happened and the feeling of shame or embarrassment for what his/her parents had done. Steinzor continues to state that these feelings of guilt and shame interfered with the objective interpretation of those facts of life over which children have no control.

McDermott (1970) evaluated intake records of 116 children up to the age of 14, whose parents divorced over a three year period. The records of the children were examined for material directly relating to the divorce and its relation to the individual developmental

history of the child. The approach of the study was to give impressions that were salient among sub-groups of children rather than focusing intently on individual cases.

Depression--moderate, severe, or predominant--in the clinical picture was found in 34.3 percent of the divorce group. Sometimes the depression was overt; the child who constructed hangman's nooses, the child who frequently swallowed sharp objects he had put in his mouth, or the one who daydreamed of killing himself. Usually, however, it was covert. In fact, it seemed as if the evaluators picked up the depression even though the most dramatic features in the cases were acting out behaviors. In some children, hidden depression was seen through accident-prone behavior, with many bicycle accidents in recent months, with children this is described as unconcern for their own safety. Even more subtle were the marked symptoms of fatigue and boredom. Running away from home, the specific symptom so frequently seen, was noted most commonly to be an effort to run away from depressive and hostile-aggressive feelings in the child and as he perceived them in others. Other reasons for running away had to do with attempts for a reunion with the absent parent, sometimes with the articulated fantasy that if the child ran away it would make people notice and look for him, and repetitively allay the child's fear of abandonment, temporarily reassuring him that he was still wanted.

In some cases, McDermott noted an alternation between inward depression and outward aggression, with the eruption of aggressive symptoms in some cases as a reaction to this submerged depression

which can no longer be tolerated. Furthermore, McDermott commented that there was a common theme of children being made to feel small, weak and incredibly vulnerable by the whole divorce experience. This was often noted on psychological testing--children felt unable to fend for themselves and in dire danger of being injured, crushed, or stepped on by external forces. However, McDermott saw in his clinical evaluations the attempts of the child to assert himself as "somebody" rather than remain even momentarily in the helpless inconspicuous role of "nobody."

In regard to the child's involvement in the divorce, McDermott believes that the child has an extraordinary readiness to the experience of separation as an expression of hostility on the part of the parent, and to assume that this action was justified by the child's wrongdoing, the child then identifying with the hostile rejecting parent, accepting the fantasy of a crime that deserves punishment and assuming the guilt which an act requires. In McDermott's evaluation of the clinical records, the child seemed to have a need to become responsible for the divorce. For example, a child who began to steal after the divorce, acting out feelings of deprivation, but then retrospectively falsified his behavior indicating to the examiner that his stealing was the reason for the divorce of his parents. Sometimes, an act would become through repetition a pattern of chronic misbehaviors, as if the child felt that he had had the power to break up his parents through a piece of behavior, forced him to continue it in a further attempt to influence adults and counter his

own helplessness.

Identification problems were recorded by the clinicians of oedipal-aged (4-5 years old) children. There were links between the presenting symptom and their image of the devalued father which they appeared to be living and re-enacting. Some children seemed almost forced into sexual acting out when they had had fathers who were described as "no-good," over-sexed, and promiscuous. There was a high correlation between the child's symptom and the description of the absent parent, suggesting that identification with a part or fantasized part of that parent was a way of dealing with the loss and the conflict surrounding it for both mother and child. Many times the mother claimed that the onset of the child's symptoms followed a visit with the father sometime after the divorce. Eleven children were noted to have run away immediately after a visit with the father--a father who had quit the family and himself set a precedent. In the many cases that McDermott evaluated, it was quite openly evident that the mother forced the child to follow in his father's footsteps as she saw those footsteps. But usually, there was an unconscious conspiracy of both mother and child, to recreate the lost father through the child's identification with his traits, leading to the mother-child struggle which brought them to the clinic. This often seemed to provide a mechanism through which she could continue to suffer and punish the father through the child. Sometimes there was direct displacement or attack upon the child: a child described as a cheater who was stealing money in school, much like the father

who had lost his job for dishonesty--the reason given for the divorce.

A fourth area that McDermott evaluated was the child's superego development. During the divorce period, sudden changes in what was approved and disapproved occurred, as well as disruptions in the children's ongoing imitations of their parents. The youngsters could not internalize parental moral demands over impulse expression while the parents were splitting up and acting out toward each other. It was as if parents were really not parents during that time, but were temporarily distorted, inconsistent, and corruptible. These problems seemed later reflected in the children whose superegos contained holes for the expression of sadistic impulses experienced or witnessed earlier during the time of divorce.

McDermott concluded that the reactions of children in this divorce study went far beyond those to the process of loss of a family unit and parent alone. The disruption marked by the divorce experience itself as well as its management echoed in the child for sometime. The symptoms could be classified as predelinquent and, because of external and internal forces, began to become a part of their character formation.

Mcgarb's (1978) experiences with children of divorce has noted varied responses to the family dissolution, as did Wallerstein, Kelly, and McDermott. Mcgarb emphasizes the importance of looking at multiple variables that relate to the adjustments the child has to make following the divorce of the parents. Mcgarb holds that these adjustments have potential traumatic effects- the learning of

divorce, the occurrence of divorce, and the changes that often occur after divorce, including a redefinition of feelings and attitudes toward parents, and the potential of parents using a child during the pre- or post-divorce period. Hetherington's (1978) findings support Mcgarb's contentions that those parents who used their child as an alliance against the other parent evidenced more confused conflict, guilt, and hostility than other children. Just the awareness that divorce may take place may create inordinate anxiety in the child. Adjusting to the fact of divorce, defining new relationships with parents, and new adjustments in school and with peer groups by recognition of the implications of parents' failure in marriage have the potential for generating substantial stress.

Mcgarb saw the phenomenon similar to the loss of a parent through death represented in her case studies. The grieving and mourning process had to run its course. The mourning process reaction manifestations vary with age, sex, level of psychosexual development, previous history and current living arrangements. In her case evaluations, Mcgarb noted that the divorce frequently stimulates feelings of separation anxiety, mixed with feelings of helplessness and rejection. A large component of most children's reactions was anger. Symptoms of general irritability, poor sleeping patterns, and loss of appetite often occur initially. Enuresis was the most commonly noted psychiatric symptom that appears to be related to divorce. In fact, it appeared twice as often in children of divorced families as in children of intact families.

The developmental approach to understanding the responses of a child to the separation/divorce, as Mcgarb sees it, gives the clinician/counselor a better understanding of what reactions may be expected of an elementary school age child. Mastery is a central issue for the school age child. The primary psychosocial task for him is one of industry, reflecting an intense need to achieve (Erikson, 1964). Development of various intellectual, academic, and physical skills and the motivation to master them is a dominant concern during this period. A healthy self-concept is dependent upon the expression of this drive towards mastery. Divorce can interfere with this process (Sugar, 1970; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976). In particular, as evidenced in Mcgarb's clients, anxiety and fears can become expressed in poor school performance. Also, peer relationships play an important part in the socialization process at this time (latency age) and sexual identification is crystallized. With divorce, it becomes difficult for the child to focus his attention outside the family on school and peer relationships as would normally occur.

Because the child's increased cognitive understanding of time, history and events, the school age child is much more aware of the long-term significance and meaning of divorce. Mcgarb noted that children of this age frequently actively hope and wish that their parents will get back together again and become confused by overly friendly relationships which raise their hopes, and become angry at overly hostile relationships between their parents. Children of this age frequently expressed anger toward one of the parent

figures. Loyalty conflicts--which parent to love and side with--take on realistic significance for the child of this age.

The most striking response that Mcgarb observed as did Wallerstein and Kelly (1976) was that of sadness and grieving. The loss of the father represented the loss of certain protective functions as well as role model and companion, which is of central importance to children during this time.

Luepnitz (1979) conducted a study to determine the duration of effects that divorce has on children, the specific problems the child faced, as well as coping strategies they employed. The subjects, twelve females and twelve males, were selected from a "normal" rather than clinical population. A sign-up sheet was circulated among the students who were taking Introductory Psychology at SUNY/AB who had parents who divorced before they were sixteen years old. The median age of the subjects was nineteen years. The subjects were interviewed for one and one-half to two hours. Independent raters coded the transcripts of the interview on thirty key questions. Inter-rater agreement was 96 percent. Eighty-three percent of the subjects reported feeling stress during at least one phase of the divorce, i.e., pre-divorce, transition, or post-divorce. Half of the sample experienced most stress during the marital conflict, i.e., pre-divorce. Twenty-five percent were most stressed by post-divorce problems; eight percent by "transition" problems, and sixteen percent reported that the divorce was not a major stress for them at all. (Luepnitz felt that these subjects were denying that divorce was stressful.)

The factors that acted as the major stresses for each subject will be examined first. Five themes appeared for those persons who found the pre-divorce phase to be the major stress: (a) there was a fear of physical violence, i.e., parents would injure each other; (b) the subjects were afraid to bring friends home for fear of the scene they might find; (c) parental discord sometimes caused financial hardships, e.g., when a father refused to bring home a paycheck; (d) the subjects reported being envious of families who were harmonious; (e) a number of the subjects had experienced multiple separations before the final separation, and the child felt the frustration and confusion of not knowing what the parents planned to do.

Four themes emerged for those subjects who found the transition phase to be the major stress: (a) the actual announcement of the divorce made them feel worried and rejected; (b) there was fear that he would have to choose between the parents in court; (c) tensions escalated in the home between the announcement of the divorce and the actual "moving out" of the father; and (d) there was a fear that they would not see their father anymore.

Major problems which emerged from the histories of those who found the post-divorce phase to be a major stress were: (a) embarrassment when other kids would talk about their fathers; and (b) they missed their father for companionship and affection.

The subjects who were placed in the no-hassle divorce category were either because no aspect of the divorce stressed them (N=3) or because other life circumstances were so traumatic as to make the

divorce seem trivial. The subjects in this group reported having seen no fighting between parents, and the divorce had been handled in a civil matter. Most importantly, the subjects had free access to both parents, and had a lot of support from parents, siblings and friends.

Luepnitz identified nine coping strategies in the sample. Somaticizing was reported by over half of the subjects. Complaints included vomiting, facial twitches, hair falling out, weight loss and gain, and an ulcer. Among all responses reported, somaticizing was apparently the only personal reaction which had no adaptive value for the sufferer. Luepnitz thought it might be better labeled a "reaction" than a "coping method." Withdrawal for a number of children, active avoidance of parental conflict (e.g., "running upstairs and blocking my ears") was a key strategy.

Some children engaged in elaborate fantasies as a way of avoiding the problems of the divorce or the fighting. On the other hand, the older the subject, the more he/she intervened in the parental fights. The great majority of individuals in this sample sought alternate souces of gratification to help block the home stress. The subjects put a lot of energy into school assignments, extracurricular activities, scouts, sports, to simply avoid the home situation. In avoiding the home situation, a very popular coping strategy was to spend as much time as possible outside the home. Older subjects described involvement with activities, as well as simply spending evenings and weekends with friends.

Many of the subjects described attaining social support from siblings or one best friend. Some of the subjects latched onto an uncle, a friend's father, or a teacher as well. A potent coping strategy was interpretation of cognitive restructuring of events. The subjects used the process of reflection, leading to a certain decision to take more control over his/her fate. Seeking help from service agencies was used only in one case.

The more salient responses to separation and divorce will now be examined. It will become clearer that the responses that a child of divorce exhibits are all inter-related to each other. Even though the symptoms appear to be similar, the reasons for the behavior may have different causes.

Denial

Gardner (1976) posits that denial is one of the most primitive of the defense mechanisms. What easier way is there to avoid suffering the outward psychological reactions of a trauma than to deny its existence? The individual protects himself from such pain by blotting from conscious awareness the fact that the trauma exists. Generally, unconscious forces operate to bring about this state of psychological blindness. Gardner believes that the family patterns, however, play a significant role in determining whether the child of divorce will utilize this mechanism.

There are certain parental personality characteristics, modes of interaction, and ways of dealing with the child that may

contribute to his utilizing the denial mechanisms as a way of handling the separation trauma. Parents who never fight in front of their children provide them with a continuous lesson in inapptopriate suppression and repression of angry feelings. Gardner states that although a fight may represent a failure in the parents' ability to settle their differences in a more civilized manner and to have dealt the the conflict at earlier stages of initiation, it should inevitably occur, at times, in the healthy marriage. The parents who strictly enforce the rule of never fighting in front of their children may contribute to their becoming inhibited in expressing anger. Accordingly, they may contribute to the child's repressing his angry reactions to the divorce (Kelly & Berg, 1978), and contribute thereby to his utilizing the denial mechanism.

There are parents who are generally silent and non-communicative people. The general atmosphere in the home is a quiet one and people may only communicate about matters that are essential to the proper functioning of the household. When a separation takes place, they are not likely to communicate very much regarding details of what is going on, especially their emotional reactions. Gardner noted that in such an atmosphere it is hard to imagine a child not developing denial himself.

Gardner observed several common manifestations of the denial mechanism in the child. There are children who will react to the announcement of the separation with such calm that the departing parent may question his child's involvement and affection. Even though

the child may be told that the departed parent is no longer going to be living in the home, the child may repeatedly ask when he or she is going to return. Each time he questions as if he had never before been told the answer.

The child may involve himself in play and fantasy that serves the function of restoring the absent parent (Oshman, 1975). Gardner (1976) describes the child fantasizing that he is involved in various activities with his father, e.g., driving the car or sailing. Or, the child may play the role of the absent father in such games as "house." Although this is to a certain degree normal, Gardner observes that a child of divorce may become obsessed with such a role. Of course, through identification with the absent father he hopes to regain him (Miller & Dollard, 1941).

Related to such idealization is the denial that an absent parent is disinterested. In the extreme, a child may still insist that the departed parent still loves him even though the latter has not been seen or heard from in many years. The notion is obviously related to the child's wish to avoid the painful realization that the absent parent no longer loves him. Sometimes, such denial will be fostered by the remaining parent, who may tell the child such things as: your father still loves you, he just can't show it. Although such a comment may be well-meaning on the part of the present parent, it is misguided.

The child may deny concerns over the separation but may become very concerned over the welfare of another person or pet. Clearly, as Gardner states, "the child is displacing his worries over the

well-being of the departed parent onto a substitute (p. 102)." Repression of hostility is also generally operative here (Stuart & Abt, 1972). The child is angry at the parent who has left the home, is too guilty to express it overtly, and so transforms the wish that something will happen to the departed parent into the fear that it will (Wiseman, 1975). If he is too guilty to express even that, the fear will be displaced onto a surrogate such as the remaining parent or a pet. The result for the child, as Gardner (1976) has observed, is an obsessive concern for the welfare of his pet while appearing to be oblivious to the fact that a parent has just left the household forever.

Anger

Before proceeding with the anger response of the child to the family dissolution, a distinction between anger and hostility needs to be made. Anger often connotes an internal state whereas hostility implies externally directed action (Weiss, 1975).

The child of divorce has usually been exposed to an inordinate amount of frustrating experiences. The constant dissention between his parents prior to the separation deprives him of the calm and loving environment (Horn, 1976). And following the separation, he usually feels abandoned--and this cannot but make him feel angry. The divorce situation usually provides other sources of anger as well. The child may resent being different from his peers. They have two parents living in the household; he only has one (Hetherington, 1976).

Resentments towards the spouse may be directed toward the child.

A mother, for example, may repeatedly berate her son with such comments as, "You remind me of your father," and "You're just like your father." She may use such identification as justifications for scapegoating him (Lamb, 1977). And being so used is likely to engender reactive hostility in him. He may even take the parental "hint" and exhibit the very behavior the parent accuses him of manifesting. Such compliance may enable him to gain attention that he would otherwise not get (McDermott, 1970).

The child may find a source of anger in the fact that his mother may have had to take on a job and is increasingly absent. The mother may resent her children for their very existence--lessening as they do her chances for remarriage, restricting her dating, necessitating her having contact with their father, and providing her with new responsibilities she might prefer to do without. And the father too, to a lesser extent, may resent the children for these reasons as well. The child will sense these parental frustrations and react in kind (Mead, 1971).

The child may handle his anger in a variety of ways. As mentioned, by its very nature the divorce situation is likely to inhibit the child in expressing his anger. One parent has already left the household; expressing resentment might result in his seeing even less of him. And he may fear exhibiting hostility toward the remaining parent, lest he or she leave as well (Bowlby, 1973).

Denial is one of the most common mechanisms that the child may utilize to deal with his hostility. Most often this is

unconscious--the child is really not aware that he is angry; although, at times, a child may be aware that he is but will be afraid to admit it to others (Gardner, 1976).

When asked how he feels about some of the obviously anger-provoking situations attendant on the separation, the child may respond with a host of rationalizations. For example, in one case study (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1977), the child replied, "My father (a physician) can't come and see me because he'd have to leave his patients and some of them might die." Another child in response to the question regarding her feelings about her father's limited involvement since leaving home, stated, "It doesn't bother me. I know he has to spend so much time working to send us money that he hasn't time to see us or call us (Gardner, 1976, p. 182)."

All children experience occasional nightmares. The child of divorce is more likely to have nightmares and this relates, more than anything else, to repression of the hostility engendered by his parents' separation and his fear of becoming consciously aware of such anger (Gardner, 1976). Central to the nightmares, are the child's own repressed hostilities, and the fears the child experiences through dreams are most commonly of his <u>own</u> anger. The child of divorce is likely to exhibit an increase in the frequency of his nightmares, especially around the time of separation (Bowlby, 1973).

As repressed anger strives for release, the tension and anxiety attacks may increase. The child may become hyperirritable, cry easily, and react in an exaggerated fashion to the most minor

noxious stimuli. He may develop tics. Most commonly, these are of the eyes (blinking) and the mouth (grimacing and puckering movements). When more severe, the head and shoulders may become involved and various vocal tics (grunting noises, frequent throat clearing) may appear (Weiss, 1975; Grollman, 1969).

A related phenomenon is the anxiety attack. Generally, this is seen in the child whose general level of tension is already quite high. In these episodes, the child suddenly becomes extremely tense. There may be sweating, palpitations, shortness of breath, trembling, and fears that he may die.

> The most common cause of such states in the child of divorce, in my opinion, is the threat of intense hostile feelings erupting into conscious awareness. Such a child is generally so guilt-ridden over his angry feelings that powerful repressive forces must operate to keep them out of conscious awareness. So repressed, they may build up; then, when they threaten eruption into conscious awareness, the child becomes overwhelmed with fear of the consequences of their expression (Gardner, 1976, p. 184).

Projection and phobias may be another response that the child exhibits to the parental separation. The less direct contact we have with a person, the greater the likelihood that we will harbor distortions about the individual (Oshman, 1975). When parents separate the child is likely to develop distortions about the absent parent that would not otherwise have arisen. The child of divorce is likely to either idealize or devalue the absent parent. The devaluation process is facilitated by the child's viewing the parent leaving as a hostile act. The absent parent may then be seen as so

hostile that the child expects to be injured or severely maltreated in other ways. With such anticipations, the child may dread his contact with the parent and even become phobic with regard to him or her (Mcgarb, 1978; Anthony, 1974).

The development of compulsions and compulsive rituals is another way in which the child may deal with his anger. Examples of this would be excessive handwashing, organizing and reorganizing his toys, or objects in his room, adhering to a stringent ritual before bedtime of undressing, folding his clothes, brushing his teeth, etc. (Gardner, 1970).

The child's repressing his hostility and directing it towards himself can contribute to his becoming depressed. When self-recriminations are present, this mechanism becomes more obvious. Gardner (1976) believes that when the clinician substitutes the word "father" or "mother" whenever the patient's name appears on a self-flagellation statement, one will generally get a clearer understanding of what is going on in the child.

There are children who, instead of repressing anger release it directly when the hostile release is antisocial and unaccompanied by significant guilt, it is said to be acted out. After all, such children are being deprived and frustrated and it is reasonable to assume that some of them will act out their anger (Konopka, 1964). A sibling may be a convenient and safe scapegoat, or the parent with whom the child lives may become the focus, the absent parent not being so readily available. The parent who initiated the divorce proceedings

may be selected as the target regardless of how justifiable the move and regardless of how little was his or her contribution to the difficulties. From the child's point of view, that parent caused the separation and that parent should be blamed. The forms of acting-out behavior vary according to the child's age and level of sophistication. They range from temper tantrums through bullying peers, disruptive behavior in the home and classroom, cruelty to animals, fire-setting, defiance of authority and on to a wide range of other types of antisocial behavior (Hetherington, 1976; Goldstein, 1973; and Westman, 1970).

Superego development may be altered by the divorce of the parents. In the intact home, when one parent is not on the scene, the other is generally available to teach, discipline, and impart those values that contribute to healthy superego development (Biller & Bahm, 1971). When separation occurs, and the custodial parent is temporarily absent, the child is more likely to be left with those who have less authority and hence less influence on superego development (Epstein, 1974).

The identification with the acting-out parents may be strong. The child of divorce is often observer to some of the most cruel behavior that one individual can visit upon another. The child may develop acting-out behaviors via the simple mechanism of emulation of the parent. The principle of "if you can't fight 'em, join 'em," he takes on the parental antisocial attitudes to be an ally, rather than the target of the hostilities he not only observes but fears

may be directed at him as well (Gardner, 1976). A problem associated with the emulation of the parents' behavior is the parental sanction of a child's antisocial acting-out--common whenever a child exhibits antisocial behavior--both within and out of the divorce situation. A parent may not be able to act his own hostilities because of internal inhibitions or the awareness of the consequences of doing so (Raschke & Raschke, 1977; Hetherington, 1972). The child lends himself well to the acting-out of such parental impulses. In a divorce situation, the acting-out behavior is generally directed toward one spouse and encouraged by the other. He may willingly side with one parent against the other as a general pattern, or may switch sides and take the position of the parent he is with at the particular time. The child may serve as an informer for both parents--creating more confusion, guilt and anxiety in the child (McDermott, 1968).

By acting-out, the child may be compensating for feelings of impotence (Goldstein, 1978). Goldstein states that the child of divorce almost always feels insecure, especially around the time of separation. After all, his family--the most stabilizing force in his life--has fallen apart and cannot but make him feel insecure. Angry feelings, especially when acted out, can provide the child with a specious sense of power. The child of separation is usually a frightened child, fearful of many consequences of a parent having left and fearful that the remaining parent may abandon him as well (Bowlby, 1973; Gardner, 1976; Stuart & Abt, 1972). He may utilize a variety of counterphobic maneuvers to deny such fear. He may, for example, climb dangerous

places, run across the street in front of traffic, or play with matches, just to prove to himself that he cannot be harmed.

A child may become delinquent in order to provoke punishment. This need not be done in the service of assuaging guilt; rather it may represent an attempt to gain an absent father's attention or even his return to the home. It becomes a bargaining tactic devised by the child, or a "sort of deal" to manipulate reconciliation (Hozman & Froiland, 1977). If the child becomes so unmanageable that his mother cannot handle him, she may resort to enlisting the father's aid in providing control. Although such involvement with the father may be painful, the child appears to feel that it is worth the price. In other words, if his choice is one of having no father at all or a father who reprimands, disciplines and punishes, he chooses the latter alternative. Although the provocation may result in punishment and various kinds of parental alienation, they do not generally result in the parent's further abandoning his child (Kurdek & Siesky, 1978), and he is thereby reassured that the parent will not abandon him even further or that the remaining parent will not leave him (Hozman & Froiland, 1977).

Another way of handling the anticipation of abandonment that results from the separation is for the child himself to become the initiator of rejection. His antisocial acts serve to keep people at a distance. He thereby becomes the one who controls the situation in which separation from another person has taken place, not the one who must passively suffer abandonment (LeShan, 1978).

Grief and Depression

In grief, the individual is gradually able to give up the lost object and accommodate to the deprivation. The frustrations and anger the person feels over the loss is gradually dissipated as the individual acquires substitutive gratifications. The individual introjects the lost object and turns the rage he feels toward the object onto its internalized image. The rage is not only a reaction to the loss of "abandonment" but is a reflection, as well, of the ambivalence that exists toward it. The depressive's self-flagellation, then, is understood as hostility felt toward the loss object, but directed against oneself (Kubler-Ross, 1969).

Although there are definite differences between the reactions a child may experience following a divorce and those he may suffer after the death of a parent, there is a certain similarity as well. One such similarity is the occurrence of a grief reaction. A discussion of the grief reaction following the death of a loved one can be helpful in understanding the grief that a child may feel at the time of separation. Generally, after the death of a loved one, the mourners become preoccupied with thoughts of the departed person. This preoccupation provides for a piecemeal desensitization to the trauma. Each time one thinks about the dead person, the pain associated with his or her loss becomes a little more bearable. Such a repetition appears to be part of the natural process of accommodating to a trauma (Howener & Phillips, 1975; Grollman, 1969 and 1967).

Although the child of divorce does not actually lose a parent,

he may never again live with the departed parent, and is likely to react grievingly to the separation. It would be unnatural for a child who understood what was occurring not to react with a grief response. However, there are rare situations where the child actually welcomes the separation because it promises a cessation of the misery he has been suffering, then the failure to have a grief reaction would of course not be unnatural. Parents who inhibit the child in expressing his feelings by such comments as "be brave," and "big boys and girls don't cry," will generally squelch the child's natural expression of grief. Parents who show little tolerance for the child's repetitious questioning may be depriving him of the reiterative discussion and preoccupation that is crucial if the grief reaction is to provide desensitization and catharsis. Parents who provide little or no information about the separation further impede the child's profiting from a grievous response. The failure on the parents' parts to appreciate and encourage grieving at this crucial time may cause the child to suppress and repress his reactions to the separation (Moriarty, 1967; Lamers, 1969).

A state of depression in the child is generally characterized by: loss of appetite; diminished interest in and concentration on studies; general apthy; loss of enjoyment from play and peer relationships; helplessness; hopelessness; irritability; self-deprecation; and withdrawel. Parental separation is a depressing event and children do become depressed in response (Grollman, 1970).

In McDermott's study (1970) of 116 children of divorced

parents, about one-third were considered depressed. In some children the depression manifested itself overtly with self-destructive fantasies, and behaviors. In others, it was covert and revealed itself through the child's accident-prone behavior and lack of concern for his safety. Some children alternated depressive states with hostile acting-out, suggesting that when anger was internalized, depression occurred and that when it was acted out, the depression lifted.

In part, the depression of children is reactive. The loss of a parent from the home is something to be depressed about. Accordingly, it is one of the expected reactions to the separation. If the child has not exhibited a healthy mourning experience, the pent-up feelings may contribute to a general feeling of discontent. Such states rob the child of the capacity for enjoyment and contribute to depression (Moriarty, 1967; Howener & Phillips, 1975).

Another factor that may contribute to a child being depressed is parental depression, especially in the parent with whom the child lives. If the custodial parent welcomes the separation and sees it as an opportunity for a better life, it is likely that the child will take a more positive attitude toward it as well. If, however, the custodial parent becomes distraught and depressed and views it as the end of his or her life, then the child is likely to react similarly (Hetherington, 1976).

The loss of a love object is one of the most important etiological factors in depressive reactions (Buckley, 1974), and the child of divorce has certainly sustained such a loss. The

healthy child is usually able to tolerate such a loss because he generally has another parent who can help to make the deprivation more tolerable. In addition, he has the capacity to find substitute gratifications with other adults. Accordingly, the depressions of such children are usually short-lived. If, however, the child has been overdependent on the departed parent, the loss is felt much more acutely, and the depression may become more severe. The feelings of helplessness may become profound as the child comes to fear that he cannot survive. Generally, such a child has been overprotected and made to feel that his very existence depends on his remaining close to such a parent (Bowlby, 1973; Furman, 1974).

Another factor that may contribute to a child's depression is his interpreting the parent's leaving as a rejection and abandonment of him, rather than of the remaining parent. He not only considers the parent's leaving as a statement that he is not loved, but in addition, that he is not lovable. He essentially follows this sequence of reasoning: "If he loved me, he would stay. His leaving means that he doesn't love me. If he doesn't love me, I am unlovable." The resultant feelings of self-loathing contribute to the child's depressive reaction (Kelly & Berg, 1978).

Redirecting against himself the rage felt toward one or both parents is another element common to the child's depression. This mechanism occurs in children who are excessively fearful of expressing their anger. Generally, such children grow up in homes in which they have been made to feel guilt over their angry

feelings--especially when felt toward parents and other loved ones. Even without such a background the child of divorce is in a particularly difficult situation with regard to the expression of his anger. He may fear expressing anger toward the departed parent, lest he see even less of him; and he may fear directing it toward the custodial parent, lest he or she too will abandon him. In spite of this added danger of anger expression, most children do let it out. The child who is extremely guilty over hostile expression may find that there is only one safe target: himself. Such a child's self-recrimination is hostility actually felt toward one of the parents, but diverted against the self (Hetherington, 1976; Kelly & Berg, 1978).

Blame and Guilt

Long before the parents' decision to separate is made, the child is introduced to the concept of blame. In their fights parents usually blame each other for the difficulties between them and so it is only natural that when separation does take place the child tends to think along the lines of who was at fault. The child is likely to look upon the parent who has initiated the separation proceedings to be the one who was at fault. He does not appreciate fully the often subtle contributions of both parents to the difficulties or that the party who first decides on separation may have done so only after years of tolerating terrible humiliations and indignities and may be in reality, the less culpable of the two parents (Kelly & Berg, 1978; Rogers, 1972).

The word guilt is referred to as the affect associated with a notion of wrongdoing. When an individual harbors the thoughts or desires that are considered reprehensible by the significant figures in his milieu, he is likely to feel guilty about them. And, if he acts them out he is likely to feel more guilty (Despert, 1953). Associated with the ideas of wrong-doing are feelings of worthlessness (Singer, 1978)--as if the child is saying to himself, "How terrible a person I am for what I have done." Generally, there is an anticipation of punishments in the guilt reaction, but this may not be clearly realized. The guilt reaction is inappropriate when it is exaggerated, when the consensus of significant individuals is that the act is not blameworthy and when the individual fancies himself responsible for an event for which he was in no way responsible. Guilt reactions, especially those of the inappropriate type, are common among children of divorce (Gardner, 1976).

There are situations in which parental differences over the raising of the children are a significant factor in the marital discord and this can result in the child's feeling that the separation was his fault. When a father complains bitterly that he is overwhelmed by the financial burdens of the household, then leaves, and does not fulfill his financial commitments to the family, the child is also likely to feel guilty (Hetherington, 1976).

Most children with separated or divorced parents have loyalty conflicts. Most youngsters are brought up with a deep sense of commitment to the members of their family, especially their parents. All

children are supposed to love and respect their parents, and may even learn to feign or profess such attitudes if they do not in fact exist. Even when the marriage is faltering, both parents may continue to attempt to foster in the child these attitudes towards the spouse. At this time, however, the child may not be required to take sides or express preferences. But when the separation occurs, the child may find himself in a situation where his loyalty is overtly tested, where he is required to make decisions and take actions that reveal, without question, his preferences. At such times, a child's feelings of guilt may be profound--even to the point of paralyzing him from taking action or making decisions (Hozman & Froiland, 1977; Bane, 1976).

Some children take the side of whichever parent they are with at the time in order to avoid alienating that parent; but they will at the same time feel guilty over their disloyalty toward the absent parent. Some children will feel guilty for having a better time with their father on visiting days than with their mother at home. Or, visitation schedules may be rigidly defined in the separation agreement and divorce decree. The child's needs for a visit of specific length at a particular time may not be consonant with that his parents have legally agreed upon. A child may feel guilty and disloyal if he does not wish to visit with a parent at a particular time, or to have a visit shorter than the allotted period (Cline & Westman, 1971; Crumley, 1973).

Guilt may be used as a mechanism to gain control over the uncontrollable. One of the most common reactions of children of divorce,

especially in the period around the time of separation, is the feeling that they were somehow the cause of their parents' difficulties--when there is absolutely no evidence that this was the case. The child may consider his having been "bad" to be the cause and he may promise his parents repeatedly that he will forever be "good." Any indiscretion or transgression, no matter how slight, may be seized upon as the cause, and the preoccupation may reach obsessive proportions. The child may repent the act(s) he considers to have caused the separation in order to strengthen his notion that it caused his parents' separation. The child may even start doing bad things in order to maintain this notion (Hozman & Froiland, 1977; Steinzor, 1969; Stuart & Abt, 1972). McDermott (1970) describes a child who began to steal after the divorce and then claimed that his parents separated because of his stealing.

Although many factors may operate in the development of this delusion of guilt, the one that is most significant and frequent is the need to control the uncontrollable. Implicit in the statement, "It's my fault," is the notion of control. The child feels helpless to change his parents' minds regarding the divorce decision. If, however, he can convince himself that he was the cause--that something he did brought about the decision to separate--it follows that there is something he can do to bring about a reversal of the decision. If he can delude himself into believing that his being bad caused his parents to separate, then all he need do is to be good and they will reconcile (Gardner, 1976; Hozman & Froiland, 1977; Grollman, 1969).

A child may place the blame of the divorce on himself in order

to deny parental fallibility. It makes a child feel more secure to see his parents as perfect. A separation is a clear statement of deficiency in at least one parent. The child with the inordinate need to maintain images of parental perfection may consider the defect to have been his rather than theirs and may dredge up a host of deficiencies to confirm this notion. Generally, the professed defects are similar in kind to those utilized to gain a specious sense of control over the uncontrollable ("I was bad," "My allowance is too big," "I fight too much with my sister."); however, here they serve to maintain the delusions of parental infallibility (Kelly & Berg, 1978; Despert, 1962).

A child's self-blame may relate to his guilt over expressing the hostility toward one or both parents that is generally engendered by the divorce. The parent who leaves the home is viewed by the child as an abandoner and this cannot but make the child angry. As mentioned, the child of divorce may fear expressing anger toward the parent who has left the home, lest he see even less of him; and he may fear expressing anger toward the parent with whom he lives, lest that parent leaves him also. If the parents believe that a child's being angry at them is inappropriate, "wrong," or "bad," then the child is likely to become even more inhibited. Observing the parents' altercations and the destructive effects of their anger on one another can so frighten a child that he may become inhibited in expressing his anger (Freudenthal, 1959; Rice, 1970; Pecot, 1970).

Abandonment Fears, Abandonment and Flight from the Home

The child of divorce will often consider the departing parent to be abandoning him. Although continually reassured that this is not the case--that he is still loved very much--he tends to maintain this view. His world becomes a shaky place indeed. If one parent can leave the home, what is to prevent the remaining parent from doing the same thing? The child living in an intact, relatively stable home is not concerned to a significant degree with a breakup of the home (Kelly & Berg, 1978; Gardner, 1976; Freudenthal, 1959). For the child of divorce such an event is part of his scheme of things. If the custodial parent was the one who was instrumental in causing the departed parent to leave, what is to prevent his being similarly ejected from the household? The resulting insecurity and instability can indeed be frightening (McGord, 1962).

The parents' preoccupation with their conflicts prior to the separation and with the various legal and other details attendant on the separation may give them little time for an emotional investment in their children (Wiseman, 1975; Felner, 1977). Although the parents may still be in the house, the children already feel abandoned. And when a parent then leaves the home, further feelings of rejection are engendered. In addition, the new obligations that the custodial parent may then have to assume may result in the child's having less time with the remaining parent than he had before.

The child may react with the panic states in which there is

sweating, palpitating, trembling, agitations, and an assortment of fears such as his getting sick with no one to care for him, and even dying (Gardner, 1976). Although the abandonment fear may contribute to such states, other factors are often operative. The child may harbor intense hostility toward one or both of the parents and his guilt over such hostility may result in his repressing his anger when his rage presses for release, anxiety may result which compounds the fears he is already experiencing (Insel, 1976).

A child may cling excessively to the custodial parent. Separation anxieties may develop and the child may refuse to visit friends or go to school (Bowlby, 1973). Or, some children, in order to win the affection of each of their parents, will say to each that which he knows will ingratiate him. Accordingly, when with the father will side with him against the mother, refrain from saying positive things about her, and confine himself to those negatives that he knows his father wishes to hear. And he will involve himself similarly with his mother. In this way, the child attempts to ensure that he is in the good graces of both parents and he may thereby avoid further rejection and abandonment (Hozman & Froiland, 1977; Grollman, 1969).

Some children will try to lessen their feelings of abandonment by provoking punishment from one or both parents. They are willing to suffer pain that such punishments entail for the reassurance that the parent is very much there. What better way is there to confirm a parent's existence than to be struck or maltreated by him? Other factors, of course, may be operating in such behavior. The provocative

behavior may serve as an outlet for the hostility the child feels over the separation. He may feel guilt over his anger and the punishment he elicits may help assuage such guilt. He may welcome the punishment as a way of strengthening his own superego controls. Such strengthening may be more necessary when a parent is absent (Gardner, 1976).

As mentioned, most children consider themselves abandoned by the parent who leaves the home when separation takes place. In most cases this notion is false and the departing parent maintains an active interest in the children. However, there are cases in which the term is appropriate. Either the parent cuts himself off from the children entirely, or his contacts are so infrequent and/or made with so little feeling that the children are essentially deprived of a meaningful relationship with him or her.

When abandonment occurs, it is common for the remaining parent to protect the child from what he or she considers to be the deleterious effects of revealing to the child the truth about the abandoning parent. Statements that are frequently utilized in the service of this goal include: "I guess he forgot. His memory was never very good." "He loves you inside; he just can't show it," and "He doesn't want to be mean; he can't help it." Parents who protect their children in this way are generally well-meaning, but it further impedes the child's adjustment to the reality of the situation (Grumley & Blumenthal, 1973; Hart, 1976).

At times, a child's fleeing from the home at the time of

separation may be a way of coping with his fears of abandonment. His running away may enable him to fantasize himself the rejecter rather than the one rejected (Gardner, 1976). It is as if he were saying: "It is not I who have been abandoned; I am the abandoner. I decide if and when separation from my parents is to occur." He thereby gains a specious sense of control over a situation that is in fact beyond his power. In addition, the concern and attention that the runaway child gets may reassure him that he is still wanted, and this serves to lessen abandonment fears. This is especially the case when he is finally "found." The family's sighs of relief, thanking God that he is alright, etc., all make the child feel wanted. Even if he is punished for what he has done, the attention-getting purpose has been served. For with the punishment comes the reassurance that his absence has caused pain and that he really has been missed. In addition, running away provides the child with a false sense of ego enhancement. It is not he who is the weak and impotent one who helplessly suffers rejection; he himself has the power to reject and his running away is a demonstration of this (Rice, 1970; McCord, 1962).

The child's running away from the home may be a hostile act that provides him with vengeful gratification. He may actually enjoy thinking about the grief his parents are suffering over his absence. It is as if the child were saying: "My father has hurt me by leaving; I'll hurt him in the same way." Alternatively, the child may project his own hostility onto his family and flee them because they are perceived as hostile to him (McDermott, 1970). Or, if the child

considers his having been "bad" to be the cause of the separation, he may run away from home in order to avoid causing more trouble. Or the child may believe that the guilt his act will engender in his parents will be so great that they will remain together in order to avoid further flights and other manifestations of the pains they have caused their child. The flight can be a guilt-producing device, designed to manipulate the parents into staying together (Hozman & Froiland, 1977; Kaplan, 1979).

Fleeing the home can serve to help the child deny the fact of the separation. If he is not home to observe a parent's absence, he can believe that the parent is still there. Or the child may be fleeing the general home atmosphere of loneliness and depression, that the separation has caused (Cline, 1971). At times, the child will flee in order to find the departed parent and convince him to return. Sometimes the child may wish to live with the parent who has left the house and he runs from home in an attempt to regain him. There are times when identification with the departed parent appears to be operating. For example, McDermott (1970) describes eleven children who ran away from home after visits from fathers who had previously left the family, thereby imitating the "leaving behavior" of their fathers.

Lower Self-Esteem

Deprivation of parental affection results in a low self-esteem which is at the center of the responses a child has to the family dissolution (Hamachek, 1978). The attempt to compensate for feelings of low self-esteem plays a crucial role in the origin and maintenance

of such symptomatology. The child who boasts does so, in part, to bolster a lagging self-esteem. The child who refuses to apply himself to his academic work fears, among other things, that his deficits will thereby be exposed. The child who runs away from home hopes to find more loving (and thereby more ego-enhancing) parents or to evoke enough guilt and fear in his parents to stimulate them to provide him with more affection (and hence, enhanced feelings of self-worth) (Singer, 1978; Rosenthal, 1978).

The child of divorce, more than the child living in an intact home, is likely to be deprived of parental love. Certainly, more departing parents are deeply involved with their children and regret the pain and frustrations that the separation is causing them. In spite of formidable attempts on the departing parent's part to reassure the child he is still loved, the child is still likely to consider himself to have been abandoned. He generally goes further and assumes that he has been rejected because he is unlovable. The child judges his own self-worth by what his parents' view of him is. If he believes that a parent does not love him, he concludes that he is unlovable (Gardner, 1976).

The separation and the inevitable feelings of insecurity it produces in the child (important people can abandon one at any time; home stability is fragile at best) make the child feel small and vulnerable. An important source of protection and guidance is no longer so readily available. Such feelings of insecurity, lack of protection, and helplessness cannot but lower the child's self-esteem

(Hamachek, 1978).

Information from both parents helps the child gain a sense of what he is really like and the knowledge of his assets contributes to his feelings of high self-worth. With one parent gone, he is deprived of one source of potentially esteem-enhancing information (Weisel, 1976). When the child takes sides with one parent in the parental conflict, he risks alienating the other. The loss of affection that his disloyalty (feigned or real) may result in cannot but lower his feelings of self-worth. If he subscribes to the view that the "good" child is one who is loved by both parents, then his alienation of one will make him "bad" and hence loathesome (Gardner, 1956).

Divorce is usually a situation that places new burdens on each of the parents. Mother is now all alone in caring for the day-to-day needs of the children. Except for those who are wealthy, divorce creates economic hardships. Mother would be much more available and attractive to most other men were it not for the children. Father, too, may see visitations as a source of restriction on his life. Even if the parents do not verbalize these frustrations and resentments, the children are likely to sense them. And feeling oneself a burden on one's parent cannot but contribute to a child's feeling of low self-esteem (Hetherington, et al., 1976).

The child may be used as a scapegoat. A mother, for example, may take out on the child the resentment she feels toward her husband. Being used as the target of hostility cannot but make the child feel loathesome (Gardner, 1976).

The economic privations that a divorce often causes may play a role in lowering a child's self-esteem. This is especially true when the divorce results in a significant lowering of the family's lifestyle. Although material possessions do not play a significant role in determining one's self-esteem, they do have an effect.

If the child lives in a community where there are few children from divorced homes, he may feel very different from the others and less worthy than those living in intact homes. If, in addition, he is stigmatized because of his parents' divorce, he may feel even less worthwhile (Epstein, 1974; Richards & Willis, 1976).

Although many of the reactions that the child may have to parental separation arise in an attempt to enhance feelings of self-worth, they generally lower the child's self-esteem even further. Intrinsic to guilt is a feeling of self-loathing. If a child tries to lessen guilt over hostility to a parent, for example, he may turn the hostility inward and become depressed. Although spared the guilt and the anticipated repercussions of his expressing his anger, the depression and associated recrimination result in an even greater loss of self-esteem. The child who projects his anger may also spare himself the lowered self-esteem associated with awareness of his hostility, but he then suffers with esteem-lowering fears of those upon whom he has projected his hostility. The child who holds in and suppresses resentment, who does not assert himself in the service of dealing with anger-provoking situations, suffers with the dissatisfaction with himself that is inevitably associated

with pent-up resentment. Although regression may provide certain pleasures, the child cannot but feel ashamed over his immaturity and fearful that peers will learn of his childish behavior. Shame and fear compromise significantly one's feelings of self-worth (Gardner, 1976).

The child may try to hide the separation from his friends. Although protected thereby from their anticipated ridicule, he suffers with the lowered feelings of self-worth attendant to his fears of disclosure and the inner shame associated with the knowledge of what he is doing. And when his secret is revealed, he suffers even more shame and social alientation than if he had disclosed the separation in the first place (Richards & Willis, 1976; LeSham, 1978).

The child who plays one parent against the other in an attempt to win favor may suffer guilt and feelings of disloyalty over his duplicity--and these feelings will generally lower his feelings of self-worth. On the other hand, the child who does not report back to one parent information about the other when requested to do so, may also feel disloyal and unworthy (Raschke & Raschke, 1977; Hamachek, 1978).

Reconciliation Preoccupations

The usual reaction of most children to the announcement of their parents' separation is to plead that they not separate. Except in the rare situation when the child has been so traumatized by the departing spouse that he welcomes the separation, children would

generally prefer to live with the pains and frustrations and discomforts of their parents' dissension than to be deprived of one of them. The child by nature is very narcissistic and is not generally affected by arguments that mommy or daddy cannot stand the pain anymore and will be happier living out of the home. Nor can he project himself too well into the future and believe that he may be better off when his parents are separated. The children's pleas that the parents not separate can be one of the most guilt-provoking experiences a divorcing parent may have to suffer and there are many who remain together in order to avoid such guilt (Gardner, 1976).

Probably the most common reason for the persistence of reconciliation preoccupations in the child is the failure of the parents to become psychologically divorced. Although they may be legally divorced, and even remarried to others, they may still maintain a psychological tie that can be quite strong. The persistence of such ties is the most powerful contributing factor to continuing reconciliation fantasies in the child. The most common manifestations of such a tie is the maintenance of hostilities. Arguments over alimony, support, visitations, etc., can persist for years. The child appreciates at some level that a hostile relationship is much deeper than one with little or no emotional involvement. The child of hostile parents appreciates that his parents still need one another. Sensing their continuing needs for one another cannot but engender hopes that his parents will once again live together (Kessler, 1976; Hozman & Froiland, 1977).

The child may actually foment difficulties between the parents

and help perpetuate their fighting out of the appreciation that any contact between them is more likely to bring about reconciliation than having no contact at all.

Benevolent ties between parents also contribute to the child's reconciliation fantasies. Seeing his parents still getting along well cannot but stimulate fantasies of reconciliation (Gardner, 1976; Grollman, 1969).

With greater receptivity on society's part to varying life styles, the "on the fence" arrangement is becoming more widespread. People go on for years never making a final decision. The departing spouse comes back and forth, never being able to decide what to do. In such situations, the child cannot but have persistent reconciliation fantasies. The children may add to the frequency of the visits and contacts by structuring situations that encourage or provide the parents with excuses for such involvements. They may, for example, insist that both parents be present at every possible school function, birthday party, etc. (Kessler, 1976; Epstein, 1974).

And just as the children may try to find excuses to promote their parents having contact with one another, the parents themselves may use similar tactics. Mother may call father for advice on inconsequential matters or tell him about something cute the child did that day. Father too may find justifications for contacting mother about trivial things that pertain to the children. Some such involvements perpetuate reconciliation fantasies in the child (Hetherington, 1976).

A common parental contribution to reconciliation preoccupations in a child is such fantasies on the part of a parent. A mother who persists in her hopes that she may ultimately be reunited with her husband makes it extremely difficult, if not impossible, for her children to resign themselves to his departure (Weiss, 1976).

Factors within the child also contribute to reconciliation preoccupations. One is when the departed parent offers the child much more gratification than does the custodial parent. Another is the child whose guilt over his parents' separation is a manifestation of the need to control and uncontrollable situations. He may be preoccupied with notions that the divorce took place because he was "bad" and conversely that they will reconcile if he is "good" (Gardner, 1976).

Immaturity and Hypermaturity

In response to a trauma, to any situation in which a child's usual satisfactions are not adequately provided for, it is common for him to regress to earlier developmental levels in the hope of regaining gratifications enjoyed previously (Gardner, 1976; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976). Or the child may remain fixated at the level he has reached in order to avoid taking on the newer demands attendant to higher levels of maturation. And parental separation is the kind of trauma that may result in such regressions or fixations.

Following the separation a child may start sucking his thumb again, using baby talk, and becoming in general more infantile and demanding. Morrison (1974) found enuresis to be twice as common in

children of divorced homes than in children living in intact homes. The child may feign illness (stomachaches, headaches, nausea, etc.) in order to have an excuse to avoid the demands of school and to remain home and be put to bed and pampered. Temper tantrums, irritability, and low frustration tolerance may be exhibited more frequently. The child may respond to the new responsibilities of living in a one-parent home by whining and complaining that he just cannot do the things asked of him. He may become clinging and refuse to go out and play or visit friends, when he had previously done so without difficulty (McDermott, 1970; Westman, 1972). A younger child in the household will often provide a model for each regressive manifestation and makes their appearance more likely.

Generally, such fixations and regressions are transient and clear up within a few weeks or months following the separation. When they persist, other factors are usually operating, the most common of which is parental overprotection and other forms of encouragement of the immature behavior. And the divorced parent is very likely to provide such encouragement of the immature behavior (Hetherington, et al., 1976; Raschke & Raschke, 1977). Overindulging a child is one of the most common ways to assuage such guilt. Visiting fathers, especially, are prone to do this. They, as the "abandoners," almost routinely feel guilty and are most likely to attempt to alleviate such guilt by providing the child with continual fun, games, and freedom from discipline during their limited visitation time. Because the father sees the children when he is not working, he has the time

for these indulgences (Gardner, 1976; Hetherington, et al., 1976).

Either parent may see the separation as a threat to feelings of parental adequacy. The parent may therefore overindulge the child, thereby hoping to prove his or her competence. Or the parents may compete with one another over who can be the better parent, and the degree to which one can keep the child happy may be used as the measure of competence. Each parent may overindulge the child in order to win his affection away from the other, to gain an ally in the parental conflict. Such a child is being used as a vehicle to express parental hostility and is being bribed to serve as a pawn in the parents' battle(Hetherington, 1976).

When parents separate, the children are generally required to assume new responsibilities and obligations. Some regress in response to the new demands, and others rise to the occasion and attain a new salutary maturity. There are others, however, whose new maturity is spurious. It has an exaggerated, misguided, or inappropriate quality that indicates a basic speciousness. It is referred to here as hypermaturity.

The child may manifest hypermaturity by becoming a caricature of an adult. He or she may take on adult mannerisms, and speech intonations and affectations. Large words and adult terminology may be utilized at every opportunity. The child may become paternalistic to other children and treat them in a condescending manner. Scolding, reprimanding, disciplining, and lecturing younger children may become quite common. At school, the child may become teacher's helper. The

teacher may welcome the help and be delighted with the child; the classmates, however, may refer to the child as a "goody-goody" or "teacher's pet" (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976 a & b).

A number of factors may operate both singly and in combination to produce such behavior. At times, there is parental sanction. The parents may be impressed with the child's adult-like behavior and even show him or her off to friends, thereby encouraging premature acquisition of adult behavioral patterns. Seductive behavior and utilization of the child as a surrogate for the absent parent can also contribute to the child's developing the hypermaturity adaptation. The dependent parent may try to get the child to replace the absent parent, who served as protector, and may use various coercive methods (such as guilt evocation) to achieve this end (Gardner, 1976).

Even without parental sanction, the child himself may assume the role. At times, it serves to regain the lost parent by the process of incorporation and identification. Such an adaptation is seen most frequently following the death of a parent, but is utilized by children after parental separation as well (Grollman, 1969; Lamara, 1969). The adaptation may be a way of compensating for the sense of impotence that the child may feel over the separation. Children are weak and helpless; they have no choice but to bear the rejections, abandonments, and other forms of maltreatment they may suffer. By assuming adult status, the child gains a delusional protection from such indignities. By becoming an adult himself--and self-reliant--he reduces such anxieties.

The hypermaturity may be an attempt to regain the parent who has left the home. The girl may have learned that father left mother because she was not a good wife in order to attract father back to the household. Similarly, the boy, learning that father was asked to leave the house because he was not a good husband, may become hypermature in an attempt to attract the mother. The children may understand that the separation took place because one or both of the parents was "bad." Accordingly, they may try to be very "good" in order to protect themselves from being ejected from the household. And assuming an adult role, in which the child behaves in an exemplary fashion, can provide protection against this eventuality (Gardner, 1956).

Children of Divorced Families Compared and Contrasted with Children of Intact and Other Unconventional Families

Even though children that experience the divorce of their parents respond or react to the event in varied ways, are their responses that different from other children that experience a stressful event? Do children of divorce differ in their behaviors, self-concept, personality development when compared to children from intact homes or unhappy, unbroken homes? A review of the following studies will serve to answer these questions.

Stolberg, Mauger, Zinober, and Marks (1976) administered the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) to 300 subjects ranging in age from twelve to eighteen years. The subjects who had

been in psychotherapy for a minimum of ten sessions were selected from thirty centers throughout the United States. This population was broken down into four groups: children who experienced a parental divorce and a parental death; children who were in foster homes, and those children who were in intact homes. T-scores of each of the four samples were compared by sex and residential status. An analysis of variance design was used.

The results of the investigation indicated that from death and divorce situations, children tend to have higher Psychopathic Deviate scores ($\bar{X}$=77.39) than do children from foster and intact homes ($\bar{X}$=75.41; $p < .05$). The Masculinity-Femininity scale indicated that the intact group had the highest score ($\bar{X}$=60.45, $p < .05$) when compared with the divorce ($\bar{X}$=55.43), death ($\bar{X}$=53.75), and the foster home group ($\bar{X}$=54.95). The divorce group evidenced more acting behaviors and unusual thought content as indicated from the scores on the Schizophrenia scale when compared with children from a normal population.

MMPI profiles were constructed for the children of divorced parents. T-scores were found for sex, marital status, and age of divorce. The investigators used an analysis of variance design. It was found that children who experienced divorce after the age of six had higher Hysteria, Paranoia, and Schizophrenia scores than did children from intact families. The authors felt that these results implied that children of divorce had greater emotional reactivity, isolation and withdrawal tendencies, developed a lack of interpersonal

trust, and had stronger feelings of alienation. Girls had higher scores ($\bar{X}$=79.69) than the boys ($\bar{X}$=74.40) on the Psychopathic Deviate scale, which implies that girls tended to act out more than boys when compared with their own sex group. It was noted that children living with their mother had higher Hypochondriasis scores ($\bar{X}$=65.68) than those children who lived with their fathers ($\bar{X}$=55.83).

When the authors compared their results to other investigations, some differences were observed. Hetherington (1972) found inappropriate sexual acting out sex role behaviors, aggressiveness and anxiety higher for girls from divorced homes than for girls from intact homes. Boys from broken homes showed more inappropriate sex role behavior, anti-social behavior and immoral behavior than did boys from intact homes. In contrast to what Stoberg et al. found, Hetherington (1972) and Biller and Bahm (1970) observed no behavioral problems if the divorce occurred before the age of five. However, there was congruence in the investigations that supported Stoberg's et al. findings that children who experienced a divorce after the age of six had higher Hysteria and Paranoia scores. The writer concluded that even if the scores were skewed, the sample indicates a need to work with children of divorce before they reach adolescence. The writer also proposed that a myriad of learning related factors might influence the observed behavior patterns. These learning theory phenomena are modeling and behavior shaping. A major influence on the child's behavior is the personality of the remaining parent. The child may be reinforced for imitating the behavioral characteristics of the surviving or custodial parent

or behavior that is complimentary to the parent. For example, if the divorced parents are violent and yell at each other, the child may imitate that kind of aggressive behavior.

Because of this imitative behavior theory, the conflict that preceded or followed the divorce seems to affect children of divorce. Stewart (1973) clinically evaluated 240 outpatients ages seven-fourteen. There were 186 males in the sample and fifty-four females. The children were divided into two groups, Traumatic and Non-traumatic Parental Separation based on the reports of the parents. The presenting problem was used as the dependent variable. The independent variables were the following: the sex of the child at the time of the separation; the psychosexual stage of the child at the time of separation; the sex of the absent parent; the length of separation; the frequency of separation; the race of the child and his family; and the religious affiliation. A 2x2 corrected chi-square design ($P < .05$) was used to report the significant differences between the parent and school reported presenting problems. Children with past histories of traumatic separation were separated from those of non-traumatic separations based on the frequency of the presenting problem. The following is a summary of the restuls of Stewart's findings.

The children in the experimental group had a higher incidence of stealing, lying, and poor bladder control. They had a lower incidence of regression and hyperactivity. No significant difference was found for school reported behavior. Boys had a higher incidence of stealing, lying, and poor bladder control and a lower incidence of

affect disturbances. No significance was assigned to the difference between girls and boys in school reported behaviors. Girls had a higher incidence of lying and a lower incidence of anxiety. Mother-absent children had a higher incidence of school reported poor self-image problems, and a lower incidence of peer problems. No significant difference was noted in the parental reports between the two groups. Father-absent children had a higher incidence of retardation and trouble with the legal authorities. Children in later latency had a higher incidence of stealing and lying and a lower incidence of fears. Children in early adolescence at the time of the initial clinic contact had a higher incidence of lying and a lower incidence of physical and somatic complaints. The school reports showed no significant difference between the groups. Children with repeated separations had a higher incidence of stealing, lying, and poor bladder control and a lower incidence of hyperactivity. Children of the middle income families had a higher incidence of lying and a lower incidence of hyperactivity. The same children had a lower incidence of school reported emotional adjustment problems. White children had a higher incidence of lying and a lower incidence of regressive behavior. The same children had a higher incidence of school reported problems associated with poor self-image. Christian children had a higher incidence of lying. Protestant children had a lower incidence of self-concept difficulties. Catholic children had a lower incidence of school reported attention-seeking behavior. Even though Jewish children had a lower incidence of affect disturbances

and physical/somatic complaints, they had a higher incidence of school reported poor self-image problems.

Kalter (1977) followed a sample of 400 children (41.49 percent of sample were children of divorce) from the Youth Services of the Department of Psychiatry at the University of Michigan, ages seven to twelve and up for one year. He noted that the parental hostility before and after the divorce had been the salient factor in attempting to understand the nature of the stress with which the child of divorce must contend.

Jacobson (1978) also investigated the effect the interparent hostility had on the adjustment of the child. Jacobson studied the impact that parental conflict had on children ages three to seventeen, during a twelve-month period following the parental separation. The two instruments that were used in this study were the Louisville Behavior Checklist (LBCL) (Miller, 1974), and the Hostility Schedule (HI) (Jacobson, 1978). Separate forms for children ages three to six and seven to thirteen were used with the LBCL. The sample involved thirty families and fifty-one children. The ages of the respondents were between twenty-three and fifty-four years of age. They had been married from five to twenty-four years and were in various stages of separation ranging from ten to 343 days with a mean of 140 days. The Hostility Index I (HI-I) was given two weeks prior to the research interview and Hostility Index II (HI-II) was given to determine the conflict prior to the marital separation. A significant association between the interparent hostility and child adjustment was found for

the HI-II. No significant association between HI-I and child adjustment was noted. HI-II had a significant ($p < .05$) association with aggression, inhibition, and the overall severity level scales of the LBCL. The broader bands of the LBCL (aggression, inhibition, cognitive or learning disability and total disability) were significantly associated with HI-II. Jacobson concluded that for children aged three to fourteen the greater the amount of interparent hostility experienced prior to the marital separation, the greater the maladjustment. HI-I also showed a significant association between the overall severity level, sensitivity, and rare deviance scales of the LBCL. The greater the conflict which results in greater maladjustment was again supported by the scores of the aggression (.086) ($p < .001$) and the cognitive or learning disability (.063) ($p < .001$) of the LBCL. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients for interparent hostility and the LBCL for ages seven to thirteen resulted in the following scores ($p < .05$): Sensitivity r=.57; Academic Disability, r=.57; Learning Disability, r=.59; Neurotic Behavior, r=.60; Clinical Severity Level, r=.57; and Psychiatric Behavior, r=.52. Jacobson indicated that these findings have importance for the assessing of situations and planning interventions during the first year after parental separation.

Raschke and Raschke (1977) investigated the effect that family conflict had on a child's self-concept. The Raschkes used the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Piers, 1969), and constructed a questionnaire that was given to the parents and school personnel.

The population (N=289) for this study consisted of students in grades three, six and eight in the public schools in a large southeastern city. In the analysis of the data, correlational analysis and factor analysis were used to test the hypotheses. Interval techniques were used with nominal and ordinal data. The Pearson's Product Moment correlations were used in analyzing the sub-scales of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the independent variables of conflict, family structure, as well as background information obtained from the questionnaire. Zero order correlations between self-concept scores and respondents' age (r=.00, n.s.), sex (r=.07, n.s.), and race (r=.02, n.s.) indicated that there were no significant relationships between the self-concept scores and these background characteristics. The correlations between self-concept and feelings about home (r=.10, $p < .05$), feelings about school life (r=.28, $p < .001$) and feelings of personal happiness (r=.28, $p < .001$), were all statistically significant.

Raschke and Raschke found no significant relationships between self-concept and the number of older (r=.06, n.s.), or younger (r=.04, n.s.) siblings or how the respondents felt about their fights with their siblings (r=.02, n.s.). However, they did find those who reported getting along better with their siblings also had higher self-concept scores (r=.13, $p < .05$). In examining the relationship between self-concept and family structure (intact, single-parent mother, mother and stepfather, father and stepmother, foster parents, grandparents, reconstituted family) there was no significant correlation between self-concept scores and family structure. Significant correlations

were found between the questionnaire and the self-concept scores. The actual questions and correlations with self-concept scores were as follows:

> Is there fighting in your family? Correlation with self-concept: $r=.18$, $p<.001$.
>
> Do the grownups you live with fight with each other? Correlation with self-concept: $r=.14$, $p<.01$.
>
> How happy do you think the grownups you live with are? Correlation with self-concept: $r=.27$, $p<.001$.

The Raschkes also checked to see whether intact families alone and in single parent families alone, if self-concept was related to fighting in the family, adults fighting, and perceived happiness of adults. In intact families (N=171) they found that self-concept was significantly related to fighting in the family ($r=.17$, $p<.05$), adults fighting ($r=.13$, $p<.05$), and perceived happiness of adults ($r=.27$, $p<.001$). It was also found that within single parent families (N=57) there were significant relationships between self-concept and fighting in the family ($r=.26$, $p<.05$), adults fighting ($r=.21$, $p<.05$), and perceived happiness of adults ($r=.30$, $p<.005$). Therefore, for all children in this sample, the greater the perceived happiness of their parent(s), the higher their self-concept. The authors suggested that it would appear beneficial to give more attention to conflict and its effects on the children.

In regards to the effect that divorce has on the self-concept of children, Singer (1978) did a comparative study of children from one-parent home environments, and children from two-parent home

environments. There were an equal number of males and female subjects in this sample of 120, first and third grade students. Three measures of self-concept were used: the California Test of Personality, the Primary Self-Concept Inventory, and the When Do I Smile Test. In analyzing the data, Singer used the statistical operations of analysis of variance, multivariate analysis of variance, and the Fisher t-test. The restuls indicated and supported that there was a statistically significant difference at the .05 level of significance between the reported self-concepts of children living in one-parent and two-parent homes. Children from two-parent homes had higher mean scores (44.6) than did children from one-parent homes (39.1). There was no significant difference found between the means of the first grade and third grade students.

Not only is the family environment a factor in determining the self-concept of the child, but how the child perceives that environment. Rosenthal (1978) found that Vocational Maturity, Occupational Aspirations, Self-Concept and School Achievement were significantly related to the child's perception of his/her mother and father. Rosenthal used five measures to determine how the child's perception of his environment affected his self-concept. They were: the Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire; the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale; the Vocational Developmental Inventory; the Occupational Aspirations Scale and determined the school achievement of each child by using the total of half-year averages of the 559 seventh, eighth, and ninth grade students. Multivariate analysis of variance and

regression analysis were used. A child's perception and behaviors which were attributed to maternal employment were the same for the single-parent and two-parent homes. However, children from single-parent homes did perceive their fathers differently than they did their mothers. Children in single-parent homes did not perceive their fathers as a loving and caring individual, as did children in intact homes. Children from divorced homes perceived their fathers as least demanding while children from separated homes perceived their fathers as most rejecting. A child's perception of the mother and father's love appeared to be a good self-concept indicator. High love scores were significantly related to high self-concept scores.

The child's perception of his parents effects his self-concept but Weisel (1976) noted that the self-concept of the parent can have an effect on the self-concept of the child. The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was given to twenty-one mothers of high self-esteem boys (7-13 years old) and to twenty-one mothers of low self-esteem boys. The High Self-Esteem group (HSE) of mothers had significantly higher ($p < .05$) self-esteem scores than did the Low Self-Esteem group (LSE). The HSE group evidence more control over their environment than did the mothers in the LSE group. Both the HSE and the LSE groups were equal on the measures of femininity. The mothers in the HSE group were more accepting, more consistent, more democratic, and more positively reinforcing. These mothers encouraged more intellectual and emotional autonomy. The LSE mothers were more angry, were more neglecting, and had more conflicts with their sons. The areas of

greatest difference between the HSE and LSE mothers were in the categories of Confidence, Competence, Contentment, and Connection to Others. Weisel concluded that a child's adjustment to a parental divorce and his subsequent self-esteem is largely determined by the self-esteem of the mother.

The self-concept of the child is not only immediately altered by the divorce of his parents, but also has long term effects on his self-concept. Bessinger (1977) measured the effect of parental divorce on 161 college students. The mean age of the sample was 19.9 years old and the parental separation took place when the students were between ten and sixteen years of age. Bessinger statistically analyzed the results obtained from the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale through the use of the t-test and Chi-square analysis. Bessinger found that those children who had experienced a parental loss through divorce were significantly different from those individuals who had experienced a parental loss because of death. Those students who had the family structure changed because of divorce had higher order needs ($p < .12$), greater intraception ($p < .12$), and stronger nurturance needs ($p < .10$). There was a significant decrease in the needs for dominance ($p < .01$) and Abasement ($p < .01$). The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale showed an overall lower self-esteem ($p < .10$) for those students who experienced a loss due to divorce as compared to those who experienced a loss because of the death of a parent. There was a decreased feeling of self-satisfaction ($p < .12$) and self-acceptance. There was also a tendency toward a lesser feeling

of personal worth (p .08), and a highly significant tendency toward reduced feelings of worth or value as a family member ($p < .02$).

Kaplan and Pokorny (1971) also investigated the long term effects of a broken home caused either by death or divorce. Kaplan and Pokorny sampled an adult population (N=500) who were twenty-one years or older that had experienced a parental loss during childhood and compared this group with persons from intact homes. They used the Rosenberg's Society and the Adolescent Self-Image test (Rosenberg, 1965) to measure the self-derogation of the individuals. Self-derogation was defined as the negative affect evoked in a person by his global consideration of his personal qualities, achievement and behavior. Subjects from broken homes showed significantly ($p < .05$) more self-derogation than individuals from intact homes. More self-derogation occurred if the loss of the parent occurred between the ages of nine and thirteen and if the parent did not remarry. The negroid race evidenced more self-derogation than did the caucasian race. Boys were more affected by a divorce when they lived with their fathers than girls if the broken home was due to divorce, where this had a more negative effect of self-derogation with boys than it did with girls.

The effect that separation/divorce has on lowering a child's self-concept and how this affects a child's academic performance (Hamachek, 1978) has been of a concern for counselors and educators. Studies conducted by Herzog and Sudia (1973) and Wasserman (1972) revealed that father absence, per se, does not seem to be a good

discriminator of academic problems. Factors such as socio-economic status, sex, age, time of separation from father, and attitudes towards achievement of the mother are all likely to influence the child's outcome.

Parson (1978) reviewed a study by Kelly that indicated all children (N=51) in this study had an identifiable downward change in school behavior and/or academic learning. Gonso (1977) compared the school behavior of six to ten year old male subjects from divorced homes with the same aged male subjects from intact homes, all from the same classroom over a period of eighteen months, and noted that teachers reported a significant increase in maladaptive behavior in those boys from divorced homes, over that eighteen-month period. Santrach's (1972) study as reviewed by Sutton et al., found that achievement and IQ scores both of girls and boys were significantly ($p < .05$) depressed if the father's absence occurred during the elementary school years of the child.

Pecot's (1970) theoretical investigation indicated that the child in school has a difficult time putting his full energy into the learning process because of the preoccupation with thoughts of the loss of the parent. The preoccupation with these thoughts shows itself in reduced motivation and in an interest to learn. The rejected feelings that the child harbors may be transferred to his peers and teachers. The child may become hypersensitive to what they say or do. The child may use his teacher and peers as scapegoats to project his anger. Hetherington (1972) also believed the negative effect that divorce has on a child pervades throughout the child's school

performance.

Conyers (1977) investigated school success of students from conventional and broken homes over a three-year period (1973-1976). One third of the students in the sample (N=2,000) came from homes that had been dissolved because of parental divorce, a small percentage of the students from broken homes was the result of a parental death, and the majority of the sample were children of intact homes. The records of these ninth grade students who had experienced a parental loss during later latency were examined for absenteeism, grade point average, truancy, suspension, expulsion, and dropout rates. The average IQ of the sample was 97-98 which was consistent over the three year period. Conyers used the students' +- distribution to analyze the results of her findings. All of her findings were significant beyond the .005 level of significance. In all areas of investigation children from unconventional homes had a higher number of days absent (13.2 vs 6.1); had a lower grade point average (1.76 vs 2.35); truancy was significantly higher over the three year period (15.6 percent vs 5.3 percent); evidenced a greater number of suspensions (12.5 percent vs 4.1 percent) and expulsions (3.8 percent vs 0.5 percent). The dropout rate for those children from broken homes over the three year period was again significantly greater (12.4 percent) than the dropout rate for those students from conventional homes (4.1 percent).

McNeal (1973) studied the relationship of broken homes to school success of junior high students. The 242 students from broken and unbroken homes were matched on IQ, sex, age, and the school they

attended. McNeal investigated the following seven areas: grade point average, teacher evaluation of work habits, standardized achievement scores, extra-curricular activities, peer evaluation of leadership ability, days absent and days tardy. A two-way analysis of variance was used to test for significance at the .05 level. McNeal's findings are presented as follows: students from unbroken homes (UH) had higher grade point averages (g.p.a.). Teachers evaluated the work habits of those students from UH as significantly better than those children from broken homes (BH). The students from BH were absent and tardy more often than those persons from UH. There was no significant difference in the standardized achievement scores, in the extra-curricular activities of the students or in the peer evaluation of leadership between the students from UH and BH. Females from BH had higher g.p.a. and better work habits than did boys from BH. The males from BH were absent and tardy more often than boys from UH. Also, the boys from BH were tardy more often than girls from BH. Females from UH had higher g.p.a. and were tardy less often than girls from BH. The g.p.a. for students from UH was significantly higher than the g.p.a. of students from BH. McNeal also observed that there appeared to be little difference in the child's school success as to whether he lived with his mother or father.

Another area of interest that is closely associated with school success, vocational maturity, was looked at by Woodbury and Pate (1974). An interesting twist was given to this investigation due to the fact that the sample of forty-two juveniles (mean age = 14.9

years) from divorced and intact homes were all adjudicated delinquents. The study compared the differences in scores on each of the six areas of the Cognitive Vocational Maturity Test (CVMT) between the two groups of delinquents. The random sample of the forty-two adjudicated delinquents was administered the CVMT, and the parental marital status was obtained from school social records. The parents who were divorced had been divorced for five to seven years. Analyses of variance and F-tests indicated a significant difference ($p < .01$) between the groups on the CVMT scores of Fields of Work, Work Conditions, Educational Requirements, Attributes Required, and Duties. The results suggested that delinquents with divorced parents possess less knowledge about careers and their attributes than do delinquents whose parents remained married. The authors concluded that vocational maturity is influenced by aversive parent-child relationships in the families of delinquents. Woodbury and Pate went on to say that marital status has a marked relationship to the cognitive dimensions of the delinquent's vocational maturity. The implication of this study is that behaviors associated with cognitive vocational maturity may be influenced by complex and often aversive family and parent-child relationships occurring in the families of delinquents.

A comprehensive review will be given to the final study presented in this section. Even though the children in this study were pre-school age children, the findings and conclusions support the theoretical positions of Gardner (1976), Luepnitz (1979), Grollman (1969), Pecot (1970), Hozman and Froiland (1976, 1977),

Bernard (1978), Wilkenson and Bleck (1978), Epstein (1974), Butler (1977), Despert (1962), Weiss (1975) and others that have been cited throughout this paper. The parental reactions to their divorce will also be presented, since it has been evidenced by previous studies in this section that a parent's response to the separation and divorce situation does have an effect on the child.

The findings of this study conducted by Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1976) are part of a two-year longitudinal study of the impact of divorce on family functioning and the development of the children. The first goal of the study was to examine the response to the family crisis of divorce, and patterns of reorganization of the family over the two-year period following divorce. The authors assumed that the family system would go through a period of disorganization immediately after the divorce, followed by recovery, reorganization and eventual attainment of a new pattern of equilibrium. The second goal was to examine the characteristics of family members that contributed to variations in the family processes. The third goal was to examine the effects of variations in family interaction and structure on the development of children.

The sample was composed of a total of ninety-six families from homes in which custody had been granted to the mother, and the same number of children and parents from intact homes. All patents were high school graduates and the large majority of the parents had some college education or advanced training beyond high school.

The study used a multimethod, multimeasure approach to the

investigation of family interaction. The measures used in the study included interviews, with structured diary records of the parents, observations of the parents and child interacting in the laboratory and the home, behavior checklists of child behavior, parent ratings of the child's behavior, and a battery of personality scales on the parents. In addition, observations of the child were conducted in the schools, peer nominations and teacher ratings of the child's behavior, and measures of the child's sex role typing, cognitive performance and social development also were obtained. The parents and children were administered these measures at two months, one year, and two years following divorce.

Hetherington, Cox and Cox used repeated measure MANOVAS involving test sessions, sex of child, sex of parent, and family comparison were performed for each measure on the interview and laboratory interaction task, and on the mood ratings, and on the amount of time spent in various activities reported in the structured diary records, and on the checklist and rating scales. A repeated measure MANOVA excluding the sex of the child variable was performed for the parents' personality measures. Correlational analyses of all variables within and across subgroups also were performed. In addition, multiple regression and cross lagged panel correlations were calculated for selected parent and child variables in an attempt to identify functional and causal relationships contributing to changes in the behavior of family members across time.

The results of the study will not be presented separately for each procedure used. Instead, the combined findings of the different

procedures will be used to discuss alterations in life style, stresses and coping by family members, family relations, and how these factors changed in the two years following divorce. The main practical problems of living encountered by divorced parents were those related to household maintenance, economic and occupational difficulties.

One of the sets of interview scales was family disorganization, which dealt with the degree of structure in prescribed household roles, problems in coping with routine household tasks, and the regulating and scheduling of events. On this scale and in the structured diaries, the households of the divorced parents were more disorganized than those of intact families, although this disorganization was most marked in the first year following divorce and had significantly decreased by the second year. Members of separated households were more likely to get pick-up meals at irregular times. Divorced mothers and their children were less likely to eat dinner together. Bedtimes were more erratic; the children were read to less before bedtime, and they were more likely to arrive at school late.

Hetherington, Cox and Cox found greater economic stress in divorced couples as opposed to married couples. Although the average income of the divorced families was equal to that of the intact families, the economic problems associated with maintaining two households led to more financial concerns and limitations in purchasing practices of divorced couples. Financial conflicts were one of the main sources of disagreement between divorced couples.

Interview findings, diary mood ratings and parent's personality

tests show many differences between the self-concepts and emotional adjustments of parents in divorced and intact families. In the first year following divorce, divorced mothers and fathers felt more anxious, depressed, angry, rejected and incompetent. The effects are more sustained for divorced mothers, particularly for divorced mothers of boys who at the end of two years were still feeling less competent, more anxious, more angry, and more externally controlled than were married mothers or divorced mothers of girls.

Two months following divorce about one third of the fathers and one quarter of the mothers reported an ebullient sense of freedom, which alternated with apprehension and depression. By one year, the elation had largely been replaced by depression, anxiety, or apathy. These negative feelings markedly decreased by two years.

An area in which stresses are experienced by most divorced couples was in social life and in establishing meaningful, intimate interpersonal relationships. Almost all of the divorced adults in this study complained that socializing in our culture is organized around couples and that being a single adult, particularly a single woman with children, limits recreational opportunities. Divorced men and women who had not remarried in the two years following divorce repeatedly spoke of their intense feelings of loneliness.

At two months following divorce, relations with the ex-spouse and children remained the most salient and preoccupying concern for divorced parents. Most (66 percent) of the exchanges between divorced couples in this period involved conflicts. The most common areas of

conflict were those dealing with finances and support, visitation and child rearing, and intimate relations with others. With time, both conflict and attachment decreased, although anger and resentment were sustained longer in mothers than fathers.

Hetherington, Cox and Cox noted that the interaction patterns between divorced parents and children differed significantly from those of intact families on many variables. Divorced parents make fewer maturity demands of their children, communicate less well with their children, tend to be less affectionate with children, and show marked inconsistency in discipline and lack of control over their children in comparison with married parents. Poor parenting is most apparent when divorced parents, particularly the divorced mothers, are interacting with their sons. Divorced parents communicate less, are less consistent, and use more negative sanctions with their sons than their daughters.

By two years after divorce, the parenting practices of divorced mothers have improved. Poor parenting seems most marked, particularly for divorced mothers, one year after divorce, which seems to be a peak of stress in parent-child relations. Two years following the divorce, mothers are demanding more autonomous mature behavior of their children, communicate better, and use more explanation and reasoning. They are more nurturant and consistent, and are better able to control their children than they were before. A similar pattern occurred for divorced fathers in maturity demands, communication and consistency, but they become less nurturant and more detached from their children with time.

The divorced mother tries to control her child by being more restrictive and giving more commands which the child ignores or resists. The divorced father wants the contacts with his child to be as happy as possible. He begins by initially being extremely permissive and indulgent with his children and becoming increasingly restrictive over the two year period, although he is never as restrictive as fathers in intact homes. The divorced mother uses more negative sanctions than the divorced father does, or than parents in intact families do. However, by the second year, her use of negative sanctions is declining as the divorced father's is increasing. In a parallel fashion, the divorced mother's use of positive santions increases after the first year as the divorced father's decreases. The "every day is Christmas" behavior of the divorced father declines with time. The divorced mother decreases her futile attempts at authoritarian control, and becomes more effective in dealing with her children over the two year period.

The findings on the behavior checklist show not only that children of divorced parents exhibit more negative benavior than do children of intact families, but also that these behaviors are most marked in boys and have largely disappeared in girls by two years after divorce. Children exhibit more negative behavior in the presence of their mothers than their fathers; this is especially true with sons of divorced parents. Divorced mothers may give their children a hard time, but mothers, especially divorced mothers, get rough treatment from their children. As previously cited, children are more likely

to exhibit oppositional behavior to mothers and comply with fathers. They also make negative complaining demands of the mother more frequently. Boys are more oppositional and aggressive; girls are more whining, complaining, and compliant. Divorced children show an increase in dependency over time, and exhibit less sustained play than children of intact families. The divorced mother is harassed by her children, particularly her sons. In comparison with fathers and mothers of intact families, her children in the first year do not obey, affiliate, or attend to her. They nag and whine, make more dependency demands, and are more likely to ignore her. The aggression of boys with divorced mothers peak at one year, then drops significantly, but is still higher than that of boys in intact families at two years. Similar to the divorced parents' behavior, one year following divorce seemed to be the period of maximum negative behaviors for children and great improvement occurred by two years, although the negative behaviors were more sustained in boys than in girls. The second year appears to be a period of marked recovery and constructive adaptation for divorced mothers and children.

A striking finding was that self-esteem, feelings of parental competence as measured by the interviews, state anxiety as measured by the Speilburger State-Trait Anxiety Scale, and the divorced mother's mood ratings of competence, depression, and anxiety on the Structured Diary Record, not only showed significant synchronous correlation with ratings of children's aggression and checklist frequency of anxious behaviors, bur also yield significant cross lagged panel correlates

that suggest that the child's behavior, particularly that of the son, is causing the emotional responses of the mother. The findings are similar but less consistent for mothers in intact families.

The impact of divorced fathers on children declined with time, and was significantly less than that of fathers in intact families. At two months following divorce, the number of significant correlations between paternal characteristics and behavior, and child characteristics is about the same as those in intact families. However, two years after the divorce, divorced fathers clearly are influencing their children less and mothers more. Divorced mothers are becoming increasingly salient relative to the divorced father in the social, cognitive and personality development of their children.

In summary, in this study divorced mothers and fathers encountered marked stresses in the area of practical problems of living, of self-concept and emotional distress, and in interpersonal relations following divorce. Low self-esteem, loneliness, depression and feelings of helplessness were characteristic of the divorced couple. Although the establishment of new intimate relations helped mitigate these effects, divorced parents were still less satisfied with their lives two years after divorce than were parents in intact families.

In many divorced families, disruptions occurred in parent-child relations. Divorced parents infantalized and communicated less well with their children than did parents in intact families. In addition, they tended to be more inconsistent, less affectionate, and have less control over their children's behavior. The children in divorced

families were more dependent, disobedient, aggressive, whining, demanding, and lacking in affection. These effects were most marked in mother-son interactions. A peak of stress in parent-child interactions appeared one year after divorce and marked improvement, particularly in mother-child relations, occurred thereafter. Both personal and emotional adjustments and parent-child relations deteriorated in the year following divorce. This seemed to be a period when members of divorced families were testing a variety of coping mechanisms in dealing with changes and stresses in their new life situation. Many of these mechanisms were unsuccessful in reducing stress. However, by the second year following divorce a process of restabilization and adjustment was apparent.

The Loss Model--Death and Divorce

The theoretical and empirical studies cited earlier (Wallerstein and Kelly, 1976; Buckley, 1974; Epstein, 1974; and Butler, 1977) have shown that divorce evokes the same responses as death.

> Divorce shared with death the psychic and developmental hazard that loss in the external world will not be fully assimilated within the inner world of the individual, as a result of unresolved ambivalence and internal unmodified needs for the lost object (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1977, p. 15).

The child's world is filled with symbols of death, damage, loss and emptiness. The psychologically responsive person reacts with disbelief, shock, and denial, and these responses are apparent. The object loss precipitates a mourning reaction. The degree to which the child is

able to complete the grief work, a necessary step in the resolution of mourning, will differentially effect the later adjustment. Both the child and adult must achieve new and complex changes of relationships and self-concept. To achieve this, this must involve the completed mourning of the loss of the pre-divorce family and the renunciation of aspirations attached to it.

The causal relationship between childhood bereavement and later behavior disorders has been a matter of interest to both psychologists and sociologists. Bendriksen and Fulton's (1975) review of studies by Bloom and Rosenberg (1944), Klein (1948), Bowlby (1960 & 1961), Hilgard and Newman (1961), Granville-Grossman (1966), Dennehy (1966) and Brown (1966) points to the conclusion that mental illness, particularly schizophrenia and depressive psychoses frequently find their genesis in the trauma of childhood bereavement. Bendriksen and Fulton go on to state that the body of psychological literature dealing with this issue supports that conclusion that in the main, the emotional development of a child is profoundly impaired by parental loss, and that such a loss has serious psychiatric consequences for him throughout his adult life.

Bendriksen and Fulton's review of the sociological literature, on the other hand, shows an appreciation of the seriousness of parental loss for a child, but postulates less deleterious effects from the experience. Sociologists perceive the possibility that the intensity of the child's reaction to the death may be mitigated by parental "role" substitutes and that furthermore, the emotional and social

reaction to the death is more time-limited than is suggested in the psychological literature.

In contrast to a psychological tradition that tends to stress the unique aspects of a person's social and emotional life, Bendriksen and Fulton noted that sociological writers tend to emphasize the group-related character of life and to view the individual as a player of roles in an intricate network of families and social relationships. The death of a parent, while recognized as a traumatic experience for the child, is nevertheless viewed by sociologists as a problem in role loss. The introduction of a substitute or surrogate parent, it is argued, aids the child in his recovery from his loss by filling the social vacuum created by the death.

Hill (1958) contends, moreover, that the crisis caused by the death of a loved person has many aspects in common with other life crises such as war separation, divorce, desertion, and other experiences of loss or separation. In all of these instances, a disruptive vacancy has occurred on the person's role relationships and no longer is there. The particular love object or group of significant others with whom the person can gratify the affective needs to the relationship.

Eliot (1955) and Volkart and Michael (1957) propose furthermore that the loss of a parent by death or divorce in the contemporary nuclear family of today is possibly even more traumatic than it was in the traditional extended family setting of previous years. The reason for this, they submit, is that the priority of

affect in the nuclear family has cost the loss of the multi-responsibility dimension of roles, and secondly, the role substitutes in the nuclear family group are not as available, either under normal conditions or under crisis conditions, as was the case in the extended family.

Attempts to establish a causal connection between childhood bereavement and subsequent behavioral disorders have met with limited success. Gregory (1958) and Markusen and Fulton (1971) found in their review of the literature that while the methodology of the investigators included direct observation and clinical case studies, the research they employed for the most part was retrospective in character. In an attempt to avoid these difficulties in their own research, Markusen and Fulton (1954) employed an anterospective approach in their exploratory study of the problem. The present study done by Bendriksen and Fulton was a larger project designed to eliminate the inconclusive results of the earlier Markusen and Fulton investigations. It was undertaken to test the feasibility of a large scale re-interview of the original subjects who participated in the MMPI study of 1954. A sub-sample of 809 persons from the original 11,329 were used, including 264 bereavement subjects, 221 subjects for divorced or separated homes, and 324 subjects from intact families. The investigators controlled for various socioeconomic and demographic factors. Statistical analysis was computed by the use of Chi-square and F-ratio operations.

The data showed that the subjects from homes broken by death

or divorce report more major illnesses ($p < .08$) and more extreme emotionally distressful experiences ($p < .05$) than the subjects from intact families. The Markusen and Fulton study indicated that the bereaved subjects were less likely and the divorced subjects more likely to be major offenders. These distinctions did not appear in Bendriksen's and Fulton's study. There was, however, a consistency shown in divorced subjects and their siblings having more emotional problems, and it appeared again that divorce has extensive long term consequences for a child, compared to the intact and bereaved groups. Unlike bereaved children, Bendriksen and Fulton concluded, children of divorce are double victims, in that they experience separation without loss, and desertion without closure. They may be subject to the problems of moral causation where guilt or blame for the divorce remain unresolved, and/or they are subject to a structural displacement in the family, leading to a decreased opportunity to experience "normal" family interactions.

In Felner's review of the literature (1975) he noted that when divorce and/or death occur during childhood it tends to cause more adult suicide, depression, delinquency, and emotional maladjustment. In fact, Felner et al. (1975) noted from their own investigation that divorce subjects had higher overall maladjustment scores than did those persons that experienced a death. Felner's sample consisted of a total of 800 students who were rated by their teachers. The Teacher Referral Form and the AML (Acting, Moody, Learning Problems) scales were used. Divorce children had higher "acting out" scores as compared

to those children who experienced death. But, the subjects who experienced death tended to be more shy and anxious. Children of divorce were more restless ($p < .005$), exhibited more obstinate behavior ($p < .018$), disrupted class ($p < .10$), and were more impulsive ($p < .003$) than children who experienced the loss of a parent because of death. When Felner repeated the investigation, the sample size was increased (950) and the subjects were matched with a new control group, the children of divorce had higher overall maladjustment scores on all of the twelve sub-scales of the two tests used.

There is a grief cycle that occurs in children in the response to object loss (Jones, 1977; Hawener & Phillips, 1975; Clay, 1976; Nelson & Sartore, 1975). Initially, symptoms of somatic illness and physiological reactions frequently appear--a loss of appetite, decreased vigor, insomnia, nightmares, general nervousness, trembling, headaches, vomiting, excessive appetite, and social aloofness. Preoccupation with some aspect of the decreased or separated parent's life is common. For example, for a young boy, the father's smoking took on special significance as he spoke of his father's death (Hawener & Phillips, 1975).

Guilt usually plays an important role in grieving. Expressions of not having done enough while the person was alive or self-incriminations for failing to commit a saving act are frequently made by grieving adults. Similar guilt feelings are often present in young children in both death and divorce situations, but are related to children's thinking that their actions caused the person to die or that because of some defect in them their parents separated or

divorced (Hart, 1976).

Hostile reactions resulting from the survivor's feelings of anger at being left and separated from the loved one are often a part of the grief cycle. These children are frequently perceived as intentionally doing all they can to isolate themselves and to hurt those who are trying to help and understand them (Berg, 1978). Hostile reactions often cause the child to misbehave in school, and the consequent punishment may lead to more persistent hostility. The child, at school, may evidence an inability to concentrate on school work, exhibit an unusual amount of day dreaming, show tendencies to withdraw and evidence poor achievement (Jones, 1977). In addition to hostility, fears that the other parent will abandon the child are common responses in the grief cycle (Hart, 1976).

Children's patterns of interests and activities change with the onset of grief. The child may try to maintain old patterns, yet not be able to do so. It is as though the reasons for former activities were lost along with the loved one. For the child who has lost a parent through divorce, activities that would please the parent become meaningless; demonstrating good behavior to bring divorced parents together goes unnoticed by those who care (Nelson & Sartore, 1975). Regardless if the grief cycle was caused by the death of a parent or parental divorce, the child experiences a certain amount of stress (Konopka, 1964; Parson, 1978).

Bernard (1978) cites five major differences between divorce stress and death stress. A summary of the differences will be

presented at this time since the differences were explained in detail earlier in this study. The first difference is seen in the "time" element of the two. Death is a moment in time. Death is quick and certain. Divorce, on the other hand, is a slower, more ambiguous process. Visitation and the long legal process leave children uncertain as to the changes which will occur in their lives.

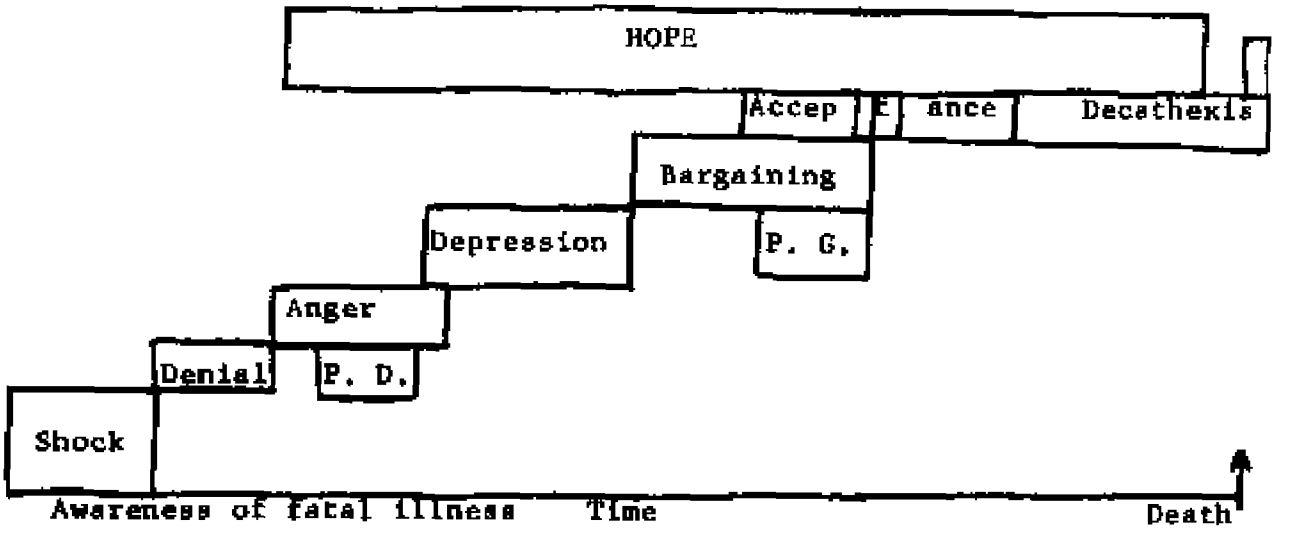
The second difference between death and divorce is in the ceremonial event that marks the death that aids in the transition, where there is no formal ceremony to mark the event of the separation/divorce. The lack of ceremony to mark the transition from one family structure to another can hinder the child's expression of his or her grief.

A third difference is that death is irreversible. Therefore, children will usually not be encouraged to hope that the absent parent will return. However, in divorce, the child always has hopes of reconciliation and this prolongs the stress caused by the situation.

Environmental factors also play a part in differentiating these two crises situations. Anger expressed by the child that the dead parent "promised" to do this or that will be met with understanding and patience. Anger expressed by the child toward the absent parent in the event of a divorce might be encouraged. In fact it is socially acceptable to express anger toward an absent parent than it is toward the memory of a dead parent. Therefore, the adjustment of the child to the separation may be hindered by the environment or an unhealthy emotional reaction may be learned. As can be seen from Bernard's

beliefs concerning the differences between divorce stress and death stress, a separation/divorce can become a long process that because of external factors can hinder the child's adjustment process.

The child's adjustment process can be examined from the standpoint of comparing the phases of Kubler-Ross's loss model (1969) to the child's emotional reactions to separation and divorce. Kubler-Ross observed that, regardless of cause, grief progresses through identifiable stages of denial and isolation, anger, bargaining, depression and acceptance. It should be understood that not all children progress through the stages in the same order or are the same point in the model for each of their concerns. Often, individuals progress through different stages at different rates, or may even regress to an earlier stage. Kubler-Ross explained this irregularity in progression and regression to earlier stages by the overlying maintenance of hope that exists in all individuals. A diagram of the stages and the maintenance of hope might help to better explain this phenomena.



P.D. = Partial Denial P.G.= Preparatory Grief Kubler-Ross (1969, p. 264)

Figure 1. Stages of Kubler-Ross's Loss Model

Of course, hope ends with death because it is irreversible. But, with divorce there is always the hope of reconciliation or remarriage to the former spouse. A child's hope is rekindled each time he sees his parents being friendly toward each other, or one or both parents might express that they still love their spouse, or when the parents contact each other to discuss issues pertaining to the child's discipline, maternal needs, social interactions, etc. A child might have progressed to the bargaining stage, but is thrown back into the depression stage when he realizes his "deal" won't work. The process of moving forward through the stages and then regressing to an earlier stage prolongs the adjustment process. Or the child may be in the denial stage regarding some parts of the separation/divorce and in other stages regarding other aspects of the divorce. That is, the child could be in the denial stage regarding the psychological impact, but in the acceptance stage as far as the physiological sepration between the non-custodial parent and the child. Until the child can accept all aspects of the divorce, his adjustment is hindered.

In the denial stage, the child refuses to accept the reality, either actual or potential, of the family dissolution. Such statements as "this can't be happening to me," "my parents aren't going to divorce" are heard. The child chooses not to accept objective reality and then

builds a system that is more in keeping with the desired rather than the real world. In order for the child to live with "his reality" he must block any stimuli that might threaten to disturb his fantasies. Certain behaviors are noted during this phase: the child does not want to discuss the divorce; does not want to think about the loss; keeps busy; becomes more of an achiever; does not feel sad or confused on the surface; refuses to have fun; makes less eye contact; idealizes the lost person; refuses to become involved with others; and starts arguments with peers and teachers (Kaplan, 1979).

During the anger stage the child frequently attempts to strike out at those who are involved in the situation. Anger is commonly recognized as an emotional reaction that often results when one is interfered with, injured or threatened. The child tries to blame the "evil" of separation on one parent. One parent <u>has</u> to be right, and the other <u>has</u> to be wrong. Activities of overt or concealed attack or offense usually accompany this emotion. The child thinks, "Why me? This is not fair!" "I hate my parents," "I don't love them anymore!" "I don't ever want to see them again." He blames others unreasonably for his own difficulties. He may act rude and uncooperative with others. Or he may become very sullen and withdrawn. He may feel resentment towards others and in particular towards the person who has left him in this predicament. Some children experience anger with themselves and begin to appear unkempt and unclean (Hozman & Froiland, 1977).

When denial and anger are not productive, children may enter

the bargaining stage. If the denial of reality did not make the child's reality come true, and if the child's anger did not cause people to respond the way he wanted them to, then the child may try to make a deal, as his next form of manipulation (Hozman & Froiland, 1977). Bargaining is an attempt to negotiate reconciliation with the parents. He thinks and behaves "as if . . ." such as, "If I do the best job at this activity that I can, maybe this loss won't really be true or irreversible," or "If I act the worst I possibly can, maybe the folks will get back together to help me (Kaplan, 1979, p. 77)."

Depression may occur when the child discovers that he cannot control or even have a measurable impact on the situation that so directly affects his or her life. The child may regret past "evil behaviors," directed toward one of the parents, or may feel guilt about lost opportunities. Eventually, a type of mourning about the impending loss sets in. The child feels isolated, sad, and empty. He may cry frequently, sometimes without apparent cause. The child may become passive and listless and do little work at home or at school. Some children have problems sleeping for a period of time. The child may also become silent and withdrawn or he may speak incessantly about the loss (Berg, 1978).

Acceptance comes when the child learns that there is an objective reality that exists, and while perhaps not liking that reality, he or she must admit that it is actual. The person does not forget the lost person or relationship, but is no longer angry, depressed, or preoccupied with it. The child begins to realize that

he cannot blame himself for all unpleasant situations and that the cause or outcomes of these situations may not be in the child's control. The child learns new coping behaviors that are more self-fulfilling than the behaviors currently in the child's repertoire (Rozman & Froiland, 1977). There is an acceptance of the now circumscribed relationship with the non-custodial parent and an adjustment to the revised relationship with the custodial parent.

The Use of Groups with Children

The child needs to explore his hopes, fears, and impact on others in an atmosphere where external evaluation is minimal. The atmosphere that seems most conducive to the learning delayed gratification, in learning to control emotional reactions, in dealing with abstractions, in formulating values, and in learning to give of himself to others is the children's group (Havinghurst, 1953). The child's capacity for altruism and social interest is certainly increased. Add to this the possibility for gaining self-understanding and the fact the child can emphathize with others, and the reason for group work with children becomes clearer (Rose, 1972).

It has been found that using the group method of intervention has proven to be a most effective method of therapy. Heinicke and Goldman (1960) pooled the restuls of seventeen investigations that studied the effects of group psychotherapy with children. Eighty percent of these studies had follow-up procedures. When the means were compared, the treated groups of children showed significantly

more improvement than the control groups ($p < .001$) even when the treatment group had more severe diagnosed problems. The follow-up studies also revealed that the treated groups had shown significant long-term adjustment ($p < .001$) when compared to the control groups. A bigger shift from partial adjustment to successful adjustment was exhibited in the treatment groups than was seen in the control groups after treatment.

From this it is found that the group is the major context of change and provides a major set of concepts and intervention procedures (Rose, 1972). Rose explains further that in group treatments, a child is presented with a wide range of relationships as opposed to the counselor-client relationship. There are many sources of feedback regarding the child's behavior and attitudes rather than just the one source of feedback. The individual can explore different friendships until he finds his own style; he can try out new forms of communication with others that clearly simulate the real world. Rose believes that in the group, the child can observe those procedures that were effective or ineffective. He can choose the best solutions and utilize them to help him cope with his problems.

Dinkmeyer (1975) believes the group is an effective approach with children because children are social beings and generally are interested in interaction. He goes on to state that children like to be part of a group and the group can be most effective in the process of the learning of the developmental tasks. The group is a good place

to deal with the child's problems.

> Group counseling provides the child an opportunity to reveal personal conviction and develop self-understanding. The child benefits from the corrective influence and encouragement from the group. Members come to understand their own behavior by observation of and identification with the behavior of others. The process gives them an opportunity to consider alternative havior and test reality (Dinkmeyer, 1968, p. 272).

In his position as a member of the group, the child has an opportunity to see that other children may have problems similar to his own (universalization).

The child is more involved with his peer relationships than he is in a direct way with his family, especially in mid to late latency (Rosenbaum, 1975). Thus, if there is a change in family structure the child's performance and production within a group is influenced. However, the group tends to be ego-supportive and helps the child reorient himself to his family through his work with his peers.

Bridge Elementary School in Lexington, Massachusetts, has a divorce counseling group for children who are experiencing or have experienced a parental divorce. They refer to the group as a "support group." "It's just nice to talk to kids who understand (Riley, p. 6)." The child's orientation to his peers tends to be paramount in importance. The statements and opinions of the group often carry more weight than anything a counselor can tell them (Dinkmeyer, 1975).

Children's groups possess the curative factors (Yalom, 1975)

of instillation of hope, universality, imparting of information, altruism, the corrective recapitulation of the primary family group, the development of socializing techniques, imitative behavior, interpersonal learning, group cohesiveness, catharsis and existential factors as do adult groups. The child believes that the group will "help" him to "feel better," and will help him "with his problems." In the group the child has the opportunity to see that other children have problems similar to his own and because of his helping and loving nature, the child demonstrates his social interest and cooperation (Sonstegard & Dreikus, 1975). Because of the many sources of feedback and the power of peer influence, the child learns better socializing methods, can explore different behavioral styles, and can explore different friendships until he finds his own style (Rose, 1972). The group cohesion for the child's group usually is developed in the process of four phases: the relationship of the members is developed through mutual acceptance and respect; an understanding of each member evolves; the interpretation phase emerges when the child begins to see himself in the other members of the group the final phase of reorientation develops as the child gains new perceptions and attitudes (Dinkmeyer, 1975). As Havinghurst has indicated (1953), the group is the place where the child can share his hopes and fears where external evaluation is minimal. They can talk to other kids who understand. And, most important of all for children, they come to realize that others have experienced divorce, that life is unfair and unjust at times, that ultimately there is no escape from some of

life's pain, that they must face the basic issues of life, and that they are ultimately responsible for their life no matter how much guidance and support they get from others (Yalom, 1975).

Children's groups not only possess the curative factors as do adult groups, but they progress through the stages and dimensions of group development as do adult groups. As explained by Mahler (1969) and Tuckman (1965) the group has four stages of development, each stage having a social process and task associated with it. Mahler's and Tuckman's stages can be briefly summarized through the use of the following diagram:

	Tuckman	Mahler
(social process)	Testing/Dependency	Setting Goals & Expectations
STAGE I		
(task)	Orientation	Involvement
(social process)	Intra-group Conflict	Exploring Problems & Feelings
STAGE II		
(task)	Emotional Response to Demand	Transition
(social process)	Cohesion	Acquiring Self-Understanding & Acceptance
STAGE III		
(task)	Exchange of Relevant Interpretations	Working
(social process)	Functional Role-Relatedness	Synthesis

	Tuckman	Mahler
STAGE IV		
(task)	Emergence of Solutions	Ending

(Sansburg; Drum & Knott, 1979).

Figure 2. Summary of Mahler's and Tuckman's Group Development Process

In brief, these models engage in attempts to discover through testing and leader dependent behavior what is acceptable behavior and what tasks are at hand. The next stage sees individuals expressing their individuality more, yet wavering between the previous security of dependency and conflict over resistence to group pressure to proceed with the identified work. The third phase is characterized by a resolution of differences with the resultant development of a spirit of exchange and mutual acceptance. Finally, the group is seen as moving into a true "work group" phase wherein the members are functionally related and capable of problem-solving or whatever the goals of conduct were initially set to be.

In comparing children's groups, it was found by Gratton in his article cited by Kraft (1971) that for children in later latency, mixed groups (boys and girls) worked well. Girls learned the often boisterous actions and productions of the boys and their presence gave a more realistic life aspect to the therapy for the boys. Ohlsen (Dinkmeyer, 1975) supports Gratton's conclusions in that he has found in his clinical practice that mixed grouping is more effective in helping children learn to relate to each other and promotes a better atmosphere for reality testing.

Not only is it advantageous to have both sexes in the group, but Gunalt (1961) believed that the group should consist of children at the different stages of loss so that each child will have the opportunity to associate with children who are at phases different from and complementary to his own stage in the loss model. Festinger (1954) points out that when motivated to evaluate their opinions and attitudes when no objective standard exists, people tend to compare themselves to those who are similar rather than different. The implication for grouping is that each individual may differ from the others in some characteristics, but that he needs to find someone from whom he is not too distant in terms of the presenting problem. It is important to have people in the group at different stages along the loss model continuum. The child can then have contact with those group members who are closer to the acceptance phase and the child can also help those other children who are not as far along the continuum as he (Liberman, et al., 1972).

The most effective size of the group for elementary school age children seems to be between five and ten members, while the duration of each session should average about thirty-five to forty minutes per meeting, approximately two times a week; or one to one-and one-half hours per meeting, once a week (Ginott, 1961; Dinkmeyer, 1975; Ohlsen & Gazda, 1965; Combs, et al., 1975; Ohlsen, 1973; Mahler, 1969; and Keat, 1974).

Elementary school age children need to be given "hands on activities" appropriate for their age (Mahler, 1969; Keat, 1974), as

well as just the sharing of feelings and thoughts (Rose, 1972; Dinkmeyer, 1973; Kessler, 1977; Havinghurst, 1953; Dinkmeyer & Muro, 1977). In contacting various ongoing divorce adjustment counseling groups around the country (Appendix A) and in the review of the literature (Cantor, 1977; Kessler & Bostwick, 1977; Bernard, 1978; Wilkinson & Bleck, 1977; Green, 1978; Granvold & Welch, 1977; Hozman and Froiland, 1976), activities such as role playing, puppetry, the use of music and pictures, video-vignettes, filmstrips, finger painting, drawing, games, puzzles, bibliography, problem-solving exercises, incomplete sentences, divorce coloring books, and psychodrama are all being used to help the child in his adjustment to the new family structure.

The format of these groups tended to be more structured than non-structured. Structured groups are favored over non-structured groups with divorce adjustment groups (Kessler, 1978). Subjects for Kessler's study were thirty volunteers who participated in the "Beyond Divorce: Coping Skills for Adults." Preselected subscales of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Fitts, 1964), the Self-Description Inventory (Ghiselli, 1971), and a Self-Report Questionnaire (Kessler, 1976) were used. The thirty volunteers were randomly divided into three groups of ten: (a) a structured group; (b) an unstructured group; and (c) a control group. Significant differences in an analysis of variance between the treatment groups and the control group were found on all three subscales of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and the Self-Description Inventory. The structured group had significantly higher mean scores than did the unstructured

group in a subsequent student t-ratio. Both treatment groups had significantly higher mean scores than did the control group on all the subscales ($p < .001$). Clients' levels of satisfaction with the structured group was significantly higher for the structured than the unstructured group on the Self-Report Questionnaire.

Kessler's study supports the earlier findings of the investigation conducted by Levin and Kurtz (1974). The subjects were twenty-one male and twenty female graduate students (mean age = 26.19), enrolled in a graduate course entitled, Introduction to Group Counseling. A modified form of the Group Opinion Questionnaire developed by Kapp, Glaser, Brissenden, Emerson, Winget and Kashdan (1964) was used to assess the participant's perception of their group experience on three dimensions: ego involvement, self-perceived personality change, and group unity. Groups were assigned randomly to structured or non-structured formats. The structured groups chose their exercises from Pfeiffer and Jones (1969, 1970, 1971, 1972), Malamud and Machover (1965), and Steiner (1970). The non-structured format was designed to parallel the traditional human relations training groups. Mean ego-involvement scores were higher under the structured format than under the non-structured format. The analyses of variance on the ego-involvement scores indicated a significant main effect for group format ($F = 10.14$, $df = 1/32$, $p < .01$). Self-perceived personality change was greater under the structured format than under the non-structured format ($F = 5.65$, $df = 1/32$, $p < .05$). Perceived group unity scores were higher under the structured format than

under the non-structured format. The analyses of variance indicated a significant main effect for group format ($F = 12.53$, $df = 1/32$, $p < .01$). In summary, participants in the structured groups reported higher levels of ego-involvement, greater self-perceived personality change and greater perceived group unity.

The conclusions that Levin and Kurtz came to were that greater ego-involvement and unity in structured groups may result from the greater opportunity for participation afforded to group members through the use of structured exercises. Such exercises not only permit but to some extent require all members to participate in the group interaction. In the non-structured format, the non-verbal, shy or apprehensive members can maintain an inactive role throughout the life of the group. The findings of greater self-perceived personality change in structured rather than in non-structured groups may result from a great opportunity to try out new behaviors in the structured format. Structured exercises not only give permission but often require participants to behave in ways which are not ordinarily encouraged or even sanctioned outside the group milieu; for example, honest feedback, expression of feelings, and confrontation. The results indicated that a non-structured and highly ambiguous groups situation does not provide the atmosphere which is most conducive to the development of a cohesive and productive group, as judged by the group participants.

This investigation seems to support earlier theoretical discussions (Bach, 1954; Rogers, 1970) that structured group exercises reduce the anxiety over free expression, facilitate participation by

less verbal members and provide the opportunity to try out new behaviors. Levin and Kurtz's review of the study of encounter groups by Lieberman, Yalom, and Miles also support the positive results of using structure in groups. Lieberman et al., classified the groups as either high or low-exercise groups. Participants in high-exercise groups saw their groups as more cohesive and constructive, felt they had learned more as a result of their group experience, and perceived their leaders as more competent and understanding than did participants in the low-exercise groups. Lee and Stahl (1978) in their explanation of the rationale for the use of structured group exercises noted that group exercises constitute a short-term parallel to real life situations and incorporate both formal and experiential learning modes. Group exercises increase the likelihood of learning and change because of their unique focus on both learning modes. Exercises promote client involvement and motivation and thus increase the potential for learning and transfer to the persons' lives within and outside the group.

The reasons a structured group format is favored over a non-structured group format can be ascertained from the studies cited above. However, persons in the field of divorce adjustment counseling with children (Kessler, 1977; Bernard, 1978; Hozman & Froiland, 1976; Green, 1978; Magid, 1977; Wilkinson & Bieck, 1977) seem to choose the structured group format because a structured group is a delimited learning situation with a predetermined goal and a plan to designed to enable each group member to reach that identified goal with the

minimum necessary frustration and the maximum ability to transfer the new learning to a wide range of life events. Divorce adjustment counseling falls into the category of structured group goals entitled Life Transition (Drum & Knott, 1977). Life Transition groups are designed to help individuals understand, evaluate, and bring to completion changes in their lives. These groups help the person to deal with both the unexpected and the planned upheavals that occur in life and they support people in their attempts to change. Life Transition groups typically focus on constructing future life styles based upon a clear understanding of how the past has contributed to one's present status, are highly dependent upon the healing, and nurturing forces present within the group members to help participants effect integration and readjustment, and are change-oriented with the direction of the change goal openly shared with all group participants. A structured group has a predetermined format, operational plan, and a specific number of planned sessions. Because of these characteristics a structured group format eliminates some of the more negative aspects that result from the non-structured group format (Sansburg, Drum & Knott, 1979). For example, the members of the group know exactly what the purpose and goals of the group are before they become a member. There is no floundering around for who is to be the leader or who is to be the "favorite" (Yalom, 1975), because the leader has already been determined before the group convenes, and the use of the exercises support only those responses that serve the purpose of the group. Therefore, the group members deal with only the proposed goals of

the group and do not wander off on other tangents.

The norms or rules for the group have already been established by the very use of the chosen exercises. The group members are not concerned with what is going on or what will happen next or what their function is as a member because it has already been determined for them. The group becomes a "working group" more quickly because the ambiguities of searching for the structure and goals, the interpersonal conflicts, the developing of group cohesiveness and the mutual commitment to the group (Yalom, 1974) that has to be worked through before the "working stage" of the non-structured group can be achieved is taken care of the first group session in the structured group format (Sansburg, Drum & Knott, 1978).

The development sequence in structured groups is diagramed as follows:

Stage	Task	Social Process	Group Process Issues
I	Orientation to goals & norms	Integration of membership	Community Group acceptance
II	Informing	Self-Disclosure within limits	Handling resistance cohesiveness
III	Understanding and application	Experimenting with new behaviors & feelings	Development of group norms
IV	Obtaining closure and evaluation	Solidifying gains and making transition	Termination

(Sansburg, Drum & Knott, 1979)

Figure 3. Development Sequence in Structured Groups

Stages I, II, and III can be achieved in the first structured group session. Stage III then continues for the duration of the group, with Stage IV overlapping with Stage III as the group nears termination. As can be observed, the structured group format speeds up group cohesiveness, lowers group resistances more readily, and reaches the productive stage more quickly than do non-structured groups (Sansburg, Drum & Knott, 1979).

Summary

As was evidenced by the review of the literature, a child's responses and reactions to the divorce of his parents is not done in isolation. The behavior of his parents play an important part in the child's responses. The symptoms that the child exhibits can be manifestations of several feelings and fears. Denial, anger, hostility, grief, bargaining tactics immaturity and psychosomatic symptoms all showed to be interrelated with the other. A child does not emit a single response to the family dissolution but many responses that can be manifested for the same reasons. For example, a child may deny the child either to withdraw or act out. Because he acts out, he feels guilty and is afraid of further abandonment and on and on. The reactions and responses of the parents and child are all circular --one feeling or thought that triggers another feeling or thought.

Children of divorce seem to fare less well than do children who experience a parental loss due to death or than children from intact homes. School performance, self-esteem, vocational maturity,

psychosocial and moral development are all impeded by the divorce of the child's parents.

Since it is believed that a divorce causes similar grief responses in a child as does the death of a parent, several child psychologists believe that the child of divorce goes through the same phases in responding to that event as does the child who loses a parent because of death. These phases are explained through the use of the stages of Kubler-Ross's loss model: denial, anger, depression, bargaining, and acceptance.

It was indicated that one of the better ways to help a child progress through these stages was through the use of structural group activities.

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this present study was to determine the differential effects that divorce adjustment counseling has on intellectual functioning, self-esteem, home and school behaviors, of a select group of elementary school age children.

In this section, the researcher will describe the subjects, their particular setting, the instruments to be used to measure the variables in question, the treatment to be applied, the procedures of data collection, the mechanics of research design, and the method of statistical analysis.

Population and Selection of the Sample

Two schools, Berkeley and Burton Elementary Schools, in the Williamsburg-James City County school system were selected by the Director of Instruction to participate in this study. The Principals of four elementary schools in the Newport School System: Epes Elementary, Denbigh Elementary, McIntosh Elementary, Charles Elementary agreed to participate in this study.

A survey letter (see Appendix C for sample) was sent to all students in the fourth and sixth grades in the above-mentioned elementary schools. Those separated/divorced parents who were interested in

allowing their child or children to participate in the Counseling Help Group for Children of Divorce, the Student's Growth Group, or the Control Group returned the permission form to the school principal. Even though a parent had given permission for their child to participate in the study, the child was given the choice whether he or she wanted to take part in this study. Approximately ten children initially decided they did not want to participate. After the children were assigned to their respective groups, several children and parents decided to terminate. The subject mortality for the treatment group was three, the treated control group maintained the original twenty-one participants. The control group lost five original members.

A letter was sent to all parents that indicated to which group their child had been assigned, the purpose of the study, and the necessity of the pre-post test measures. An Information Sheet (see Appendix D) was included on the mailing for the purpose of gathering demographic data, as well as the Louisville Behavior Checklist. Following the five-week counseling session, the parents were mailed a Parent Post-Group Evaluation form (Appendix E). The children in the treatment group were given the Children's Post-Group Evaluation form (Appendix F).

The children (N=10) from Berkeley Elementary School were given parental permission to participate in the group counseling and were assigned arbitrarily by the researcher to the Counseling Help Group for Children of Divorce. The children (N=12) of Burton Elementary School were designated to be members of the control group.

The fifteen children at Epes Elementary School were divided into two treated control groups (Group I, N=9; Group II, N=6). Six of the twelve children at Denbigh Elementary were randomly assigned to the treated control group and the remaining six children made up the control group. McIntosh Elementary had a treatment group of four and a control group of two. The seven children of Charles Elementary were members of the treatment group. There were a total of twenty-one children in the treatment group, twenty-one children in the treated control group, and a total of twenty children in the non-treated group.

Treatment and Data Gathering Procedures

The subjects of the treatment and the treated-control and non-treatment groups were administered the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test (Otis & Lennon, 1968) and the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Piers & Harris, 1969). The parents of the children who participated in this study were requested to respond to the Louisville Behavior Checklist (Miller, 1977). The teachers of their respective students were asked to respond to the statements on the School Behavior Checklist (Miller, 1977). All tests and behavior checklists were administered one week prior to and one week following the five-week period wherein the group counseling took place. All tests were administered and scored by qualified examiners who were employed by the researcher.

The treatment groups and treated control groups met for thirty minutes twice a week for five weeks. Structured group

activities created by this researcher that follow the stages of the loss model were used with the Counseling Help Group for Children of Divorce to deal with the issues that a child faces during and after a separation/divorce (see Appendix I). Selected activities from Dinkmeyer's Developing Understanding of Self and Others--Level 2 (Appendix H) were used with the children of the Student Growth Group. The control group received no treatment during the five-week period. The control group was used as a comparison group for research purposes.

Instrumentation

Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test, Elementary II, Forms J & K.

The Otis-Lennon test was constructed to yield dependable measurements of the "g" or general intellectual ability factor. Thus, the single total score obtained at a given level summarizes the pupil's performance on a wide variety of test materials selected for their contribution to the assessment of this general ability factor.

The Elementary II level is recommended for use with typical pupils in grades four through six. This test is comprised of eighty items arranged in spiral omnibus form. Time required for a period of testing consisting of fourty-five to fifty minutes.

Two parallel forms of the test--Forms J and K--were developed. Items appearing in these two forms were balanced with respect to their content, difficulty, and discriminating power. Thus, Forms J and K represent equally good measuring instruments and yield results that are directly comparable. The alternate form should be used for

retesting within a relatively short time interval.

The Otis-Lennon Deviation IQ is, in effect, a normalized standard score with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of sixteen points.

Reliability coefficients for the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability test have been determined on the basis of connected split-half correlations and the Kuder-Richardson and the alternate forms procedures. The correlation coefficients for the corrected split-half correlations is .95; for the Kuder-Richardson .91 and for the alternate forms reliability, it is .93. Standard error of the measurement in Points of Deviation IQ is 4.2.

Content Validity, Criterion Related Validity, and Construct Validity have all been well established for the Otis-Lennon (Otis & Lennon, 1969). Correlations between the California Achievement Test, the Ohio Survey Test and the Metropolitan Achievement test and the Otis-Lennon range of .50 to .80. The Otis-Lennon and the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale correlated at .60.

The standardization sample was selected to be as representative as possible of the entire United States educational system with respect to size and type of system, socioeconomic composition, and geographic region. The desired characteristics of the standardization sample were achieved primarily by using a stratified multistage probability sampling technique; however, as with most large sample surveys, different sampling procedures were used at different stages during the selection process. It was decided that testing a base

sample of approximately 0.4 percent of the total U.S. school population (about 12,000 pupils per grade) would yield the desired stability in the final norms as well as furnish adequate subsamples for special research needs.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (The Way I Feel About Myself). This self-report inventory can be completed in fifteen to twenty minutes. It requires a third-grade reading knowledge. This test consists of six subscales. They are follows: Behavior, Intellectual and School Status, Physical Appearance and Attributes, Anxiety, Popularity, and Happiness and Satisfaction.

> The scale was standardized on 1,183 children in grades 4-12 of one Pennsylvania school district. There appear to be no consistent sex of grade differences in means. The internal consistency of the scale ranges from .78 to .93 and retest reliability from .71 to .77. Correlates with similar instruments are in the mid-sixties, and the scale possesses teacher and peer validity coefficients on the order of .40. Care was taken that the scale not correlate unduly with social desirability, and reasonable success was achieved; however, quite high correlations, -.54 to -.69 exist with a measure of anxiety. The authors believe this correlation represents a true trait correlation rather than one of response style. Thus, the scale possesses sufficient reliability and validity to be used in research, as recommended by the authors (Bentler, 1976).

The scale, as evaluated by the author, possesses sufficient reliability, validity and stability.

Louisville Behavior Checklist (LBC). The Louisville Behavior Checklist (LBC) is an inventory of behaviors designed to help parents conceptualize and communicate concerns about their children. The inventory covers the entire range of social and emotional

behaviors indicative of psychopathological disorders of childhood, from social competence to social deviance.

Form E2 is used for children aged seven through thirteen years of age. The norm group of 114 boys and 122 girls was representative of the children in the urban areas of mid-America. The LBC consists of 164 items of deviant and prosocial behaviors. Items have been written to be answered either true (T) or false (F) by the child's parents. Personal pronouns are not used except for sex-specific items, so that the same checklist is used for both girls and boys.

Twenty scales have been constructed for the LBC. They are as follows: Infantile Aggression (Ia), Hyperactivity (Ha), Antisocial Behavior (As), Aggression (AG), Social Withdrawal (Sw), Sensitivity (Sn), Fear (Fr), Inhibition (In), Academic Disability (Ad), Immaturity (Im), Learning Disability (LD), Normal Irritability (Ni), Prosocial Deficit (Pd), Rare Deviance (Rd), Neurotic Behavior (Neu), Psychotic Behavior (Psy), Somatic Behavior (Som), Sexual Behavior (Sex), School Disturbance Predictor (SDp), and Severity Level (SL).

Split-half and test-retest reliabilities of Form D for children aged seven through twelve range from .80 to .92. Realiability coefficients on the special scales (Psy, Neu, Sex, Som, and SDp) range from .85 to .97 except for Sexual Behavior which is .60. When the items are combined into the Severity Level Scale, then a highly reliable scale results ($r = .97$). The central tendency of the scales remain constant over a three-month interval.

Three basic types of validation have been identified:

criterion-related, context and construct. Four criterion-related studies (Miller, 1977) indicated that when children are selected through clinical procedures, the LBC scales clearly differentiate those with pathological disorders from the general population and clearly discriminate between pathogenic types. A number of independently derived checklists have evolved very similar items which would indicate that the LBC is adequately sampling from the total pool of deviant behavior which establishes content validity. The researchers concluded that the constructs reputedly being measured by the scales are observed in both parent and teacher ratings of children's behaviors. However, even the highest correlations are modest, and many factors such as age, sex, trait specificity, level of disturbance, and type of disturbance affect the level of the relationship between the two situations. Caution is suggested when attempting to generalize parent observations on the LBC to the child in other situations.

School Behavior Checklist (SBC). The SBC is an inventory of behaviors designed to help teachers communicate their impressions of children in their classrooms. The inventory covers a wide range of social and emotional behaviors from social competence to moderate social deviance indicative of psychopathological disorders of childhood.

All elementary school teachers (N=3,335) in the city, county, parochial, and private schools of Louisville City and Jefferson County, Kentucky, were asked to select randomly one male and one female child from his or her class and to rate each of them on the School Behavior Checklist. Ratings were done three months after the opening

of school. The standardization sample consisted of 2,627 males and 2,746 females.

Form A2 is used for ages seven to thirteen. The 104 items of the form are composed of items that identify prosocial and deviant behaviors. Items have been written to be answered either true (T) or false (F) by the teacher. The separate answer sheet provides spaces for information on the child as well as the teacher's name, and the name of the school. In addition, six questions to be answered "yes" or "no" inquire as to whether the child is exceptionally well adjusted or severely disturbed, whether the child should be referred for an emotional or special education problem, and whether the child is currently receiving psychological treatment or special education.

Five nine-point global scales are also found on the front of the answer sheet. The scales are designed to gain an evaluation of the teacher's overall impression of the child. The five scales are as follows:

1. How would you personally rate this pupil's intellectual ability?

2. How would you rate this pupil's overall academic skills?

3. How would you rate this pupil's overall academic performance?

4. How would you rate this pupil's overall social and emotional adjustment?

5. How would you rate this pupil's personal appeal?

(Miller, 1977).

The six factor scales that were constructed are: Low Need Achievement (LNA), Aggression (AGG), Anxiety (ANX), Academic Disability (AD), Hostile Isolation (HI), Extraversion (EXT). One clinical scale appears on form A2 that is the Total Disability (TD) scale.

Split-half and test-retest reliability coefficients were used for Form A2. The A2 reliability was based on the reliability sample of N=236. Both methods for computing stability indicate that scales range from a reliability coefficient of .70 to .90 with the exception of Hostile Isolation, which has a reliability coefficient of around .40.

Three basic types of validity studies have been identified: criterion-related, content, and construct. The two criterion-related studies (Miller, 1977) indicate that when children are selected through clinical procedures, the SBC scales clearly differentiate those with pathological disorders from the general population, and that phobic, learning disabled, and aggressive children have distinct profiles. Further, the studies show that scales measuring aggression and anxiety have an acceptable level of predictive stability over an eighteen-month period.

A number of independently derived checklists with very similar items indicate that the SBC is adequately sampling from the total pool of moderately deviant behavior.

The studies (Miller, 1977) for construct validity indicated evidence of construct validity for the SBC scales but even the highest correlations are modest. Many factors such as age, sex, trait

specificity, level of disturbance, and type of disturbance affect the relationship between parent and teacher ratings.

Research Design

The research design that was used was an adaptation of Campbell and Stanley's (1963) Separate-Sample Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design.

R O (X)
R X O
- - - - -
R O
R O

R = Random assignment of non-equivalent group
O = Observation or measurement
(X)= Optional treatment
X = Treatment

The modification of this design is presented below:

Treated (E_1) R O_1 X O_2
Treated (E_2) R O_3 X O_4
- - - - -
Control (C) R O_5 O_6

This design allows for the random assignment of groups of individuals rather than the assignment of separate individuals to the treatment, treated control and control groups. The individuals in all groups will be post-tested which does add the possible interaction of the treatment and testing to the results of this study.

The reason for the pre- and post-testing of the individual group members is so that individual changes can be noted in the event that total group changes are insignificant. It then can be deduced

from this method that a percentage of the group members improved even though the group as a whole did not show overall improvement on the total scores or subscales scores of the instruments used.

This design controls for the internal validity of History, Maturation, Regression, Selection, Mortality, and the interaction of Selection and Maturation. It is questioned whether testing and instrumentation can be controlled for in the modification of this design.

Because of the modification of this design, it is questioned whether the external validity of Interaction of Testing and X (treatment) Interaction and Selection and X, Reactive Arrangements, and Multiple X Interference is controlled for in this study.

The data that will be obtained from the pre-post testing following this particular design is presented in the diagram below:

	Pre-Test	Post-Test	
E_1	O_1	O_2	$= \bar{X}_1$
E_2	O_3	O_4	$= \bar{X}_2$
C	O_5	O_6	$= \bar{X}_3$
	$\bar{Y}_4$	$\bar{X}_5$	

This block diagram allows for the statistical analysis of the mean scores ($\bar{X}$) of the pre- and post-testing of each group as well as the mean scores of the collected scores of the pre-tests ($\bar{X}_4$) and the post-tests ($\bar{Y}_5$).

Statistical Analysis

The paired T-test Analysis is used to test the three independent groups (O_1=O_2; O_3=O_4; O_5=O_6) to note if the groups have changed over time. The paired T-test Analysis is used to determine a significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test and the mean scores of the post-test ($\bar{X}_4$=$\bar{X}_5$). The Analysis of covariance is used to analyze the mean scores of O_1 & O_2; O_3 & O_4; and O_5 & O_6 ($\bar{X}_1$=$\bar{X}_2$=$\bar{X}_3$). The analysis of covariance is used to control for the pre-test level to determine if the added scores of the treatment (E_1) and treated control groups (E_2) is equal to the scores of the control (C) groups.

Summary

This study was conducted for the purpose of determining the differential effects that divorce adjustment counseling has on intellectual functioning, self-esteem, home and school behavior of a select group of elementary age school children.

The racial and sexually mixed group of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students were volunteer subjects from two local elementary school systems. The Counseling Help Group for children ran for five weeks. Structured group activities that followed the stages of Kubler-Ross's loss model were used. The Students' Growth Group was conducted concurrently with the Counseling Help Group for Children of Divorce. Activities for this group were selected from Dinkmeyer's Developing Understanding of Self and Others.

The Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test, Elementary II Level, Forms J and K, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, the Louisville Behavior Checklist and the School Behavior Checklist were administered to the treatment, treated control, and control group one week prior to and one week following the group counseling.

The research design that was used simulated Campbell and Stanley's (1961) Separate-Sample Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design. The hypotheses were statistically analyzed through the use of the paired T-test and analysis of covariance statistical procedures.

Chapter IV

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The results of the present study investigating the differential effects that divorce adjustment counseling has on self-concept, intellectual functioning, school behaviors and home behaviors of elementary school age children who have experienced the divorce of their parents is presented in this chapter. The findings concerning each of the null hypothesis will be presented in the following order:

a. Self-Concept

b. Self-Concept Factors - Subscale Scores

c. Intellectual Functioning

d. School Behavior

e. School Behavior - Global Scores

f. School Behavior - Factor Subscale Scores

g. Home Behavior

h. Home Behavior - Factor Subscale Scores

i. Treatment vs. Treated Control Group

j. Treatment vs. Control Group

k. Treated Control vs. Control Group

l. Treatment and Treated Control vs. Control Group

Before the results are reported, in order to facilitate a clearer understanding of the results and the information found in the

Tables the following abbreviations are to be used for identifying the various variables when reading the data that is presented in the Tables.

Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale Variables

SC	Self Concept
B	Behavior
I	Intellectual & School Status
P	Physical Appearance & Attributes
A	Anxiety
PP	Popularity
H	Happiness & Satisfaction

Otis Lennon Mental Ability Test

IQ	Intelligence Quotient

School Behavior Checklist Variables

VV	How would you personally rate this pupil's intellectual ability?
WW	How would you rate this pupil's academic skills?
XX	How would you rate this pupil's overall academic performance?
YY	How would you rate this pupil's social and emotional adjustment?
ZZ	How would you rate this pupil's personal appeal?
LNA	Low Need Achievement
AGG	Aggression
ANX	Anxiety
AD	Academic Disability
HI	Hostile Isolation
EXT	Extraversion

TD Total Disability

Louisville Behavior Checklist

Ia Infantile Aggression

Ha Hyperactivity

As Antisocial Behavior

AG Aggression

Sw Social Withdrawal

Sn Sensitivity

Fr Fear

IN Inhibition

Adc Academic Disability

Im Immaturity

LD Composed of Academic Disability & Immaturity

Ni Normal Irritability

Pd Prosocial Deficit

Rd Rare Deviance

Neu Neurotic Behavior

Psy Psychotic Behavior

Som Somatic Behavior

Sex Sexual Behavior

SL Severity Level

The variables of the School Behavior Checklist and the Louisville Behavior Checklist are further defined at this time to aid in furthering the understanding of the results obtained from this investigation.

School Behavior Checklist: Explanation of Subscales

LNA - prosocial behaviors at one pole and task avoidance behaviors at the other

prosocial - helpful, alert, self-assured, working alone, concentration

task avoidance - give up, failure to do seat work, dragging feet, being distractible

Appearing dull, lacking ambition, underachieving

Agg - active and passive items

Active - interrupting, fighting over nothing, hitting and pushing other kids, teasing, arguing, getting furious when disciplined

Passive - changeable moods, refusing to speak when angry, sulking when things go wrong, being stubborn

Anx - social withdrawal and manifest anxiety items

social withdrawal - just sitting around on the playground, preferring adult company, preferring to be and play alone, being slow in making friends

manifest anxiety - hand trembling when reciting, becoming easily frightened, fearful of being hurt, showing focal anxiety over storms, school, death, injury or war

AD - failure to master age-specific cognitive tasks

HI - holding grudges, not respecting other people's belongings, lacking friends, refusing to speak or fight back when angry or provoked, refusing to take orders from other children

EXT - describes a self-centered, pushy, expressive child who also shows skills in social relations

interrupting others, liking an audience, never being still, doing things to attract attention, being friendly, seeing bright side of things, appearing happy

TD - overall degree of child's disturbance

Louisville Behavior Checklist: Explanation of Subscales

Ia - egocentric, emotionally demanding and interpersonally belligerent behavior

Ha - refers to impulsive and constant motion involving both large and small muscles

As - illegal and destructive behavior where the main thrust is against property and person: self and others

AG - a broad band factor composed of items from Ia, Ha, and As

Sw - apparent reluctance to interact with others and a preference for social isolation and lack of involvement

Sn - a subjective sense of "unlikeableness" combined with a tendency to cope with stress with a combination of somatizing, impulsive, immature and rivalrous behaviors

Fr - manifest anxiety focalized around multiple objects with special concern over sleep, death and assuring the availability of a companion

IN - a broad band factor scale composed of items from Sw, Sn, and Fr

Adc - specific deficits in academic skill and abilities commonly associated with learning failures

Im - both social and physical processes; babyishness, dependency, whining, slow physical growth, and clumsiness, poor coordination

LD - a broad band factor scale composed of items from Adc and Im

Ni - noxious behaviors reported to occur in at least 25% of the general population

Pd - behaviors highly valued by society such as "relaxes and able to concentrate," able to study and meet school requirements, has a good sense of right and wrong. Items are counted when marked "False" to show a deficit in prosocial behavior.

Rd - noxious behavior reported to occur in less than 1 percent of general population

Neu - indicates psychoneurotic processes such as phobias, obsessions, compulsions, depression and use of tranquilizers

Psy - indicates psychotic process such as uncontrolled behavior such as smearing of feces, echolalia, no speech, excessive seclusiveness and unresponsiveness

Som - indicates somatic dysfunction related to brain damage or psychic stress; for example, epilepsy, periods of unconsciousness, headaches, stomach aches or asthma

Sex - indicates unusual and generally unacceptable sexual behavior

SL - a broad band scale composed of all noxious and pathogenic behaviors on the inventory minus Ni items and a few physical and mild disability items

Self-Concept

The first area of investigation concerns the measurement of the overall self-concept change in the treated, treated-control and control groups. The hypothesis states that there is no significant difference between the self-concept of the treated, treated-control and control groups as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. Table 1 presents the T-value for the overall self-concept score. The paired T-test statistical analysis was performed with the pre and post test scores of self-concept. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 1. The resulting T-value (T=0.007) for the treatment group was significant at $p<.01$ level. There was no significant difference between the treated control and control groups.

Self-Concept Factors--Subscale Scores

The second hypothesis states that the individual subscale scores (Behavior, Intellectual and School Status, Physical Appearance and Attributes, Anxiety Popularity, Happiness and Satisfaction) of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale shows no significant difference between the treatment, treated control and control groups. This hypothesis was tested by calculating a paired T-test analysis for pre-test-post-test self-concept measures. The results of this statistical treatment are presented in Table 1. Behavior changed significantly (T=0.027, $p<.05$) in the treated control group. A

significant behavior change was not found in the treatment and the control groups. The treatment and control group changed significantly in the areas of Intellectual and School Status (Treatment=T=.008, $p<.01$; Control=T=.021, $p<.05$), Anxiety (Treatment=T=0.007, $p<.01$; Control=T=0.049, $p<.05$) and in the area of Happiness and Satisfaction (Treatment=T=0.006, $p<.01$; Control=T=0.036, $p<.05$). The treatment group improved significantly over the treated control and control groups in the area of Physical Appearance and Attributes (T=0.039, $p<05$). The treated control group improved significantly over the treatment and control groups in the area of Behavior (T=0.027, $p<.05$).

Intellectual Functioning

The intellectual functioning of the children in all three groups was measured by the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test. The paired T-test statistical analysis of the pre-test-post-test scores indicates that all three groups improved significantly in their intellectual functioning. The results are presented in Table 1. The obtained T-value for the treatment group was T=0.000 ($p<.001$), for the treated control T=0.000 ($p<.001$) and the T-value (T=0.000) for the control group was significant at $p<.001$ level of significance. The third hypothesis was not rejected.

School Behavior

The treated control group showed a significant change ($T=0.020$, $p<.05$) in overall school behavior (Total Disability) as measured by the School Behavior Checklist. Table 1 shows that overall school behavior for the treatment and control groups did not significantly change. These results were found by using the paired T-test analysis for pre-post test scores for each group.

School Behavior--Global Scale Scores

The fourth area of investigation states that the five 9-point global scales of the School Behavior Checklist indicate no significant difference between the treatment, treated control and control groups. The five scales are as follows:

1. How would you personally rate this pupil's intellectual ability?

2. How would you rate this pupil's overall academic skills?

3. How would you rate this pupil's overall academic performance?

4. How would you rate this pupil's social and emotional adjustments?

5. How would you rate this pupil's personal appeal?

The results of comparing the pre-test-post-test scores through the use of the paired T-test statistical analysis is found in Table 1. The treatment group improved significantly according to teacher rating

pupils intellectual ability (T=0.000, p<.001), social and emotional adjustments (T=0.000, p<.001), and pupil personal appeal (T=0.000, p<.001). The treated control group showed significant improvement on all five questions. The teachers saw no significant change in the control group in regard to the five global scales.

School Behavior--Factor Subscale Scores

The sixth hypothesis as measured by the School Behavior Checklist found a significant change in the treated control group in the factors of Low Need Achievement (T=0.001, p<.001), Anxiety (T=0.005, p<.01) and Extraversion (T=0.003, p<.01). The treatment and treated control groups showed no significant change in any of the six factors that make up school behavior. The T-values of the six factors for all groups are presented in Table 1 as found by the paired T-test analysis for pre-post test measures.

Home Behavior

The seventh hypothesis states that the home behavior of the children as measured by the Louisville Behavior Checklist indicates no significant difference between the treatment, treated control and control groups. As Table 1 indicates the Severity Level of the treatment group improved significantly (T=0.000, p<.001) over the treated control and control groups. The treated control and control groups showed no significant change. The paired T-test statistical analysis for pre-post test measures was used for calculating the results.

Home Behavior--Factor Subscale Scores

The paired T-test analysis for pre-test-post-test scores was used to measure the individual subscales of the Louisville Behavior Checklist to indicate that there would be no significant difference between the treatment, treated control and control groups. The results presented in Table 1 indicate that the treatment group improved in the following factors that make up home behavior: Infantile Aggression ($T=0.006$, $p<.05$), Hyperactivity ($T=0.009$, $p<.01$), Antisocial Behavior ($T=0.028$, $p<.05$), Aggression ($T=0.003$, $p<.05$), Social Withdrawal ($T=0.001$, $p<.001$), Sensitivity ($T=0.001$, $p<.001$), Fear ($T=0.002$, $p<.01$), Inhibition ($T=0.001$, $p<.001$), Academic Disability ($T=0.004$, $p<.01$), Immaturity ($T=0.012$, $p<.05$), a combination of Academic Disability and Immaturity ($T=0.002$, $p<.01$), Normal Irritability ($T=0.000$, $p<.001$), Prosocial Deficit ($T=0.001$, $p<.001$), Rare Deviance ($T=0.016$, $p<.05$) and Psychotic Behavior ($T=0.017$, $p<.05$).

The treated control group improved in the following factors: Infantile Aggression ($T=0.019$, $p<.05$), Aggression ($T=0.025$, $p<.05$), and Fear ($T=0.016$, $p<.05$).

A significant change was noted in the control group with the following factors: Infantile Aggression ($T=0.010$, $p<.01$), Hyperactivity ($T=0.008$, $p<.01$), Antisocial Behavior ($T=0.018$, $p<.05$), Aggression ($T=0.021$, $p<.05$), Inhibition ($T=0.014$, $p<.05$), Academic Disability ($T=0.018$, $p<.05$), Immaturity ($T=0.031$, $p<.05$),

a combination of Academic Disability and Immaturity (T=0.003, p .01), and Prosocial Deficit (T=0.008, p .01).

Table 1

Paired T-Test Analysis of Pre-Post Test Scores

for All Variables for All Groups

Variables	Treatment T-Values	Treated Control T-Values	Control T-Values
P-H			
SC	0.007**	0.869	0.083
B	0.114	0.027*	0.067
I	0.008**	0.770	0.021*
P	0.039*	0.083	0.357
A	0.007**	0.483	0.049*
PP	0.423	0.704	0.071
H	0.006**	1.000	0.036*
OLMAT			
IQ	0.000***	0.001***	0.000***
SBC			
VV	0.004**	0.009**	0.541
WW	0.201	0.0301	0.748
XX	0.015	0.014*	0.428
YY	0.000***	0.007**	0.716
ZZ	0.000***	0.017*	0.076

Variables	Treatment T-Values	Treated Control T-Values	Control T-Values
LNA	0.930	0.001***	0.849
AGG	0.375	0.551	0.654
Anx	0.591	0.176	0.640
AD	0.756	0.005**	0.379
HI	0.584	0.135	0.330
Ext	0.624	0.003**	0.863
TD	0.917	0.020*	0.424
LBC			
IA	0.006**	0.019*	0.010**
HA	0.009**	0.298	0.008**
AS	0.028*	0.090	0.018*
AC	0.003**	0.025*	0.021*
SW	0.001***	0.541	0.064
SN	0.001***	0.825	0.133
FR	0.002**	0.016*	0.066
IN	0.001***	0.259	0.014*
ADC	0.004**	0.181	0.018*
IM	0.012*	0.643	0.031*
LD	0.002**	0.609	0.003**
NI	0.000***	0.157	0.522
PD	0.001***	0.142	0.008**
RD	0.016*	0.505	0.061
Neu	0.060	0.516	0.367
Psy	0.017*	1.000	0.711

Variable	Treatment T-Values	Treated Control T-Values	Control T-Values
Som	0.493	0.606	1.000
Sex	0.058	0.505	0.134
SL	0.000***	0.086	0.071
	N=21	N=20	N=20

* significant at p .05

** significant at p .01

*** significant at p .001

PH = Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

OLMAT = Otis Lennon Mental Ability Test

SBC = School Behavior Checklist

LBC = Louisville Behavior Checklist

The means and standard deviations of the groups' pre-test-post-test scores by variable are located in Appendix J.

Treatment vs. Treated Control

A one-way analysis of variance by self-concept for the forty-one subjects in the treatment and treated control groups was used to test that there would be no significant difference between the treatment group and the treated control group. The results presented in Table 2 indicate that the treatment group improved significantly over the treated control group in self-concept. Regarding the six factors that make up self-concept the treatment group improved significantly over the treated control group in the factors of Physical Appearance and Attributes ($F=7.425$, $p<.01$), Anxiety ($F=7.548$, $p<.001$) and in Happiness and Satisfaction ($F=5.102$, $p<.05$).

The intellectual functioning scores obtained from the Otis Lennon Mental Ability Test were analyzed by the one-way analysis of variance which determined that there was no significant difference between the treatment and treated control groups.

Table 2 indicates that the only factor of the School Behavior Checklist that showed a significant difference between the treatment and treated control groups was question number five: How would you rate this pupil's personal appeal? The F value was found to be $F=9.962$ which was significant at $p<.01$ level of significance.

The one-way analysis of variance was used to determine overall school behavior change as well as the change in individual factors that make up school behavior. The overall school behavior change was significant at the $p<.01$ level when the treatment group was compared

to the treated control group (F=8.876).

The individual factors, as presented in Table 2, that changed significantly for the treatment group were Aggression (F=4.949, $p<.05$), Social Withdrawal (F=9.998, $p<.01$), Sensitivity (F=8.523, $p<.01$), Inhibition (F=8.927, $p<.01$), Academic Disability (F=11.997, $p<.001$), a combination of Academic Disability and Immaturity (F=5.561, $p<.01$), Rare Deviance (F=11.777, $p<.001$) and Psychotic Behavior (F=10.065, $p<.01$).

Treatment vs. Control

The one-way analysis of variance was used to calculate significant differences on all variables between the twenty-one subjects in the treatment group and the twenty subjects in the control group, as presented in Table 2.

No significant difference between the treatment and control groups was found in overall self-concept and in any of the factors that constitute self-concept or in intellectual functioning.

In analyzing the scores from the School Behavior Checklist pupil's intellectual ability (F=5.738, $p<.05$), overall academic performance (F=7.742, $p<.01$), social and emotional adjustment (F=8.742, $p<.01$) and pupil's personal appeal (F=7.676, $p<.01$) indicated that the treatment group improved significantly when compared to the control group. The six factors that make up school behavior and the overall school behavior scores indicated no significant change between the treatment and control groups.

The Louisville Behavior Checklist measures showed many significant differences between the treatment and the control groups. The obtained F ratio for overall home behavior was F=15.704 which was significant at the p<.001 level. As Table 2 reveals Infantile Aggression had an F ratio of F=16.857 which was significant at the p<.001 level of significance. Hyperactivity (F=19.439, p<.001), Antisocial Behavior (F=11.608, p<.01), Aggression (F=15.756, p<.001), Social Withdrawal (F=15.323, p<.001), Sensitivity (F=13.540, p<.001), Fear (F=13.359, p<.001), Inhibition (F=17.714, p<.001), Academic Disability (F=16.203, p<.001), Immaturity (F=7.116, p<.01), a combination of Academic Disability and Immaturity (F=22.813, p<.001), Normal Irritability (F=20.977, p<.001), Rare Deviance (F=7.557, p<.01), Psychotic Behavior (F=10.065, p<.01), and Sex (F=4.532, p<.05), all showed a significant difference between the treatment and control groups.

Treated Control vs. Control

A one-way analysis of variance of the scores obtained from the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale for the forty subjects in the treated control and control groups did not indicate a significant change in overall self-concept. Intellectual and School Status (F=5.212, p<.05) and Happiness and Satisfaction (F=5.445, p<.05) showed that the treated control changed significantly when compared to the central group.

As Table 2 indicates there was no significant change in intellectual functioning when the treated control group was compared

with the control group.

As the one-way analysis of variance revealed no significant overall change was noted in school behavior. However, the treated control group had significant changes in the teachers' perception of the students' overall academic performance ($F=6.102$, $p<.05$), and in the variables of academic disability ($F=10.281$, $p<.01$) and Extraversion ($F=9.926$, $p<.01$) when compared to the control group.

The treated control group was significantly different from the control group in the overall home behavior ($F=5.386$, $p<.05$). Also, there were several factors that make up home behavior where the treated control improved over the control group. These factors were Infantile Aggression ($F=14.123$, $p<.001$), Hyperactivity ($F=5.873$, $p<.05$), Antisocial Behavior ($F=8.430$, $p<.01$), Aggression ($F=10.385$, $p<.01$), Social Withdrawal ($F=4.879$, $p<.05$), Fear ($F=9.098$, $p<.01$), Inhibition ($F=7.954$, $p<.01$), Immaturity ($F=4.301$, $p<.05$), a combination of Academic Disability and Immaturity ($F=4.097$, $p<.05$), and Rare Deviance ($F=4.294$, $p<.05$).

Treatment and Treated Control vs. Control

As the results indicate in Table 2 the one-way analysis of variance did not show a significant improvement in overall self-concept, in any of the six factors that make up self-concept, or in intellectual functioning when the scores of the treatment and treated control groups were combined and compared to the scores of the control group.

There was no significant change in overall school behavior

between the treatment, treated control and control groups. The teachers did note a change in the pupils' overall academic performance ($F=8.082$, $p<.01$), the pupils' emotional and social adjustments ($F=6.531$, $p<.05$), and in the factor of Extraversion ($F=4.846$, $p<.05$) as measured by the School Behavior Checklist. The one-way analysis of variance indicated a significant change in overall home behavior ($F=15.313$, $p<.001$) when the combined scores of the treatment and treated control groups were compared to the scores of the control group. Several factors that made up the Louisville Behavior Checklist also indicated a significant improvement as found in Table 2. Infantile Aggression ($F=22.461$, $p<.001$), Hyperactivity ($F=13.829$, $p<.001$), Antisocial Behavior ($F=18.544$, $p<.001$), Aggression ($F=20.343$, $p<.001$), Social Withdrawal ($F=16.357$, $p<.001$), Sensitivity ($F=11.094$, $p<.01$), Fear ($F=16.399$, $p<.001$), Inhibition ($F=20.671$, $p<.001$), Academic Disability ($F=5.236$, $p<.05$), Immaturity ($F=7.274$, $p<.01$), the combination of Academic Disability and Immaturity ($F=13.605$, $p<.001$), Normal Irritability ($F=11.839$, $p<.001$), and Rare Deviance ($F=9.818$, $p<.01$) were all the factors that significantly changed when the measures of the treatment and treated control groups were compared with the control group.

Table 2

F Values of Treatments by Variables

Variables	T vs. TC	T vs. C	TC vs. C	T+TC=C
P-H				
SC	4.895*	0.113	3.232	2.076
B	0.411	0.105	0.693	0.357
I	3.980	0.892	5.212*	3.870
P	7.425**	0.019	3.398	1.010
A	7.548***	0.436	3.491	0.519
PP	0.178	1.134	1.810	1.996
H	5.102*	0.357	5.445*	3.042
OLMAT				
IQ	0.114	0.661	1.311	1.186
SBC				
VV	1.295	5.738*	2.355	4.957*
WW	0.328	1.443	1.195	1.425
XX	0.380	7.742**	6.102*	8.082**
YY	0.350	8.182**	3.864	6.531
ZZ	9.962**	7.676**	0.003	2.373
LNA	0.479	0.934	1.829	1.553
AGG	0.377	2.883	0.265	1.218

Variables	T vs. TC	T vs. C	TC vs. C	T+TC=C
ANX	1.339	0.002	1.793	0.564
AD	1.531	0.503	10.281**	2.866
HI	0.428	0.002	0.666	0.137
EXT	1.594	0.834	9.926**	4.846*
TD	0.029	2.705	2.005	2.886
LBC				
Ia	2.040	16.857***	14.123***	22.461***
Ha	1.461	19.439***	5.873*	13.829***
As	1.087	11.608**	8.430**	18.544***
AG	4.949*	15.756***	10.385**	20.343***
Sw	9.998**	15.323***	4.879*	16.357***
Sn	8.523**	13.540***	1.973	11.094**
Fr	2.736	13.359***	9.098**	16.399***
IN	8.927**	17.714***	7.954**	20.671***
Adc	11.997***	16.203***	0.051	5.236*
Im	0.300	7.116**	4.301*	7.274**
LD	8.561**	22.813***	4.097*	13.605***
Ni	5.376*	20.977***	3.111	11.839***
Pd	2.008	2.276	0.010	0.842
Rd	11.777***	7.557**	4.294*	9.818**
Neu	1.723	3.715	1.096	3.084
Psy	10.065**	7.960	0.110	2.118
Som	0.066	0.053	0.001	0.047
Sex	0.889	4.532*	1.877	3.587

Variables	T vs. TC	T vs. C	TC vs. C	T+TC=C
SL	8.876**	15.704***	5.386*	15.313***
	N=41	N=41	N=40	N=61

* significant at p .05

** significant at p .01

*** significant at p .001

T = Treatment

TC = Treated Control

C = Control

P-H = Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

OLMAT = Otis Lennon Mental Ability Test

SBC = School Behavior Checklist

LBC = Louisville Behavior Checklist

Due to the exorbitant amount of data procured from the one-way analysis of variance on the 39 variables analysed in this study, the group means, the sum of squares, degrees of freedom, and the mean squares for the variables by group comparisons may be obtained from the author.

Summary

The data obtained by this investigation is summarized in the following statements. Statements 1 through 13 are the results obtained from analyzing pre-test-post-test measures with the use of the paired T-test statistical analysis.

1. The overall self-concept of the treatment group showed a significant change. No significant change was noted in the treated control and control groups.

2. The treatment group improved significantly in four of the factors that make up self-concept: Intellectual and School Status, Physical Appearance and Attributes, Anxiety, and Happiness and Satisfaction.

3. The treated control group improved in behavior as measured by the School Behavior Checklist.

4. The control group improved in the three factors that constitute self-concept: Intellectual and School Status, Anxiety and Happiness and Satisfaction.

5. Intellectual functioning significantly improved for all three groups.

6. The treatment group improved significantly in three of the five 9-point global scales of the School Behavior Checklist: intellectual ability, social and emotional adjustment, and personal appeal.

7. The treated control group improved in all five 9-point global scales: intellectual ability, academic skills, overall

academic performance, social and emotional adjustment, and personal appeal.

8. The control group showed no significant change in any of the five 9-point global scales.

9. The treatment group and the control group did not significantly change in overall school behavior or in any of the factors that make up school behavior. The treated control group improved significantly in overall school behavior as well as in the factors of Academic Disability, Low Need Achievement, and Extraversion.

10. The treatment group was the only group that improved significantly in overall home behavior.

11. The treatment group improved in fifteen of the total eighteen factors that make up home behavior: Infantile Aggression, Hyperactivity, Antisocial Behavior, Aggression, Social Withdrawal, Sensitivity, Fear, Inhibition, Academic Disability, Immaturity and a combination of Academic Disability and Immaturity, Normal Irritability, Prosocial Deficit, Rare Deviance, and Psychotic Behavior.

12. The treated control group significantly changed in three of the total eighteen factors that make up Home Behavior: Infantile Aggression, Aggression, and Fear.

13. The control group significantly improved in nine of the total eighteen factors of school behavior: Infantile Aggression, Hyperactivity, Antisocial Behavior, Aggression, Inhibition, Academic Disability and Immaturity, and Normal Irritability.

Statements 14 through 27 are the results obtained when the scores of all thirty-nine variables were combined by groups (Treatment vs. Control; Treatment vs. Treated Control; Treated Control vs. Control; Treatment and Treated Control vs. Control) and analyzed by the one-way analysis of variance.

14. The treatment group showed a significant improvement in self-concept when compared to the treated control group. No other significant values were noted for the combinations of the three groups.

15. When compared to the treated control group, the treatment group improved significantly in three of the six factors of self-concept: Physical Appearance and Attributes, Anxiety and Happiness and Satisfaction.

16. The comparison of the treatment vs. control and treatment and treated control vs. control indicated that no significant change was noted in regard to the six factors that form self-concept.

17. The treated control group improved significantly in the areas of Intellectual and School Status and Happiness and Satisfaction when compared to the control group.

18. No significant change was noted in any of the four combined group comparisons in intellectual functioning.

19. The pupil's teacher rated personal appeal changed significantly for the treatment group when compared to the treated control group.

20. The teacher rating of intellectual ability, overall academic ability, social and emotional adjustments and personal

appeal improved significantly for the treatment group when compared to the control group.

21. When the treated control group was compared to the control group, the teacher rated overall academic ability and the factors of Academic Disability and Extraversion that compose part of overall school behavior were significantly better.

22. There was no significant improvement in overall school behavior in any of the four combined group comparisons.

23. The treatment group improved significantly in nine of the eighteen factors that compare home behavior when compared to the treated control group. The factors are Aggression, Social Withdrawal, Sensitivity, Inhibition, Academic Disability, a combination of Academic Disability and Immaturity, Inhibition, Rare Deviance and Psychotic Behavior.

24. Out of the possible eighteen factors that make up home behavior the treatment group when compared to the control group significantly changed in fourteen factors: Infantile Aggression, Hyperactivity, Antisocial Behavior, Aggression, Social Withdrawal, Sensitivity, Fear, Inhibition, Academic Disability, Immaturity, a combination of Academic Disability and Immaturity, Normal Irritability, Rare Deviance, and Sex.

25. The treated control group when compared to the control group significantly improved in ten of the eighteen factors of home behavior: Infantile Aggression, Hyperactivity, Antisocial Behavior, Aggression, Social Withdrawal, Fear, Inhibition, Immaturity, a combination of Academic Disability and Immaturity, and Rare Deviance.

26. The combined measures of the treatment and treated control groups when compared to the control group indicated a significant improved change in thirteen of the eighteen factors of home behavior: Infantile Aggression, Hyperactivity, Antisocial Behavior, Aggression, Social Withdrawal, Sensitivity, Fear, Inhibition, Academic Disability, Immaturity, a combination of Academic Disability and Immaturity, Normal Irritability, and Rare Deviance.

27. The Severity Level significantly improved in all combinations of group comparisons.

Chapter V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this final chapter, a summary of the investigation and findings are presented. Conclusions drawn from an analysis of the data and recommendations for further research are also presented.

Summary

The present study was designed in order to help children of divorce cope with changes associated with divorce. In finding a means of modifying or eliminating the deleterious sequelae to divorce, it is necessary that various methods need to be investigated to see if in fact, divorce adjustment counseling does help in the child's adjustment to the crisis of divorce.

As was evidenced by the review of the literature, a child's responses and reactions to the divorce of his parents is not done in isolation. The behavior of his parents plays an important part in the child's responses. The symptoms that the child exhibits can be manifestations of several feelings and fears. Denial, anger, hostility, grief, bargaining tactics, immaturity and psychosomatic symptoms all showed to be interrelated with the other. A child does not emit a single response to the family dissolution, but many responses that can be manifested for the same reasons. For example,

a child may deny his anger which results in lowered self-esteem which causes the child either to withdraw or act out. Because he acts out, he feels guilty and is afraid of further abandonment and on and on. The reactions and responses of the parents and child are all circular--one feeling or thought that triggers another feeling or thought.

Children of divorce seem to fare less well than do children who experience a parental loss due to death or than children from intact homes. School performance, self-esteem, vocational maturity, psychosocial and moral development are all impeded by the divorce of the child's parents.

Since it is believed that a divorce causes similar grief responses in a child as does the death of a parent, several child psychologists believe that the child of divorce goes through the same phases in responding to that event as does the child who loses a parent because of death. These phases are explained through the use of the stages of Kubler-Ross's loss model: denial, anger, depression, bargaining, and acceptance.

It was indicated that one of the better ways to help a child progress through these stages was through the use of structured group activities.

The purpose of the present investigation was to determine the differential effects that divorce adjustment counseling has on self-concept, intellectual functioning, school behavior and home behavior.

In order to meet the purpose of this study the following

twelve null hypotheses were formulated:

1. There is no significant difference between the intellectual functioning of the treatment, treated control, and control groups as measured by the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test.

2. There is no significant difference between the self-concept of the treatment, treated control, and control groups as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

3. The individual subscale scores (Behavior, Intellectual and School Status, Physical Appearance and Attributes, Anxiety, Popularity, Happiness and Satisfaction) of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale show no significant difference between the treatment, treated control, and control groups.

4. The behavior of the children as measured by the Louisville Behavior Checklist (parent response) indicates no significant difference between the treatment, treated control, and control groups.

5. The individual subscales of the Louisville Behavior Checklist (Infantile Aggression, Hyperactivity, Antisocial Behavior, Aggression, Social Withdrawal, Sensitivity, Fear, Inhibition, Academic Disability, Immaturity, Learning Disability, Prosocial Deficit, Rare Deviance, Neurotic Behavior, Psychotic Behavior, Somatic Behavior, Sexual Behavior, Severity Level) show no significant difference between the treatment, treated control, and control groups.

6. The behavior of the children as measured by the School Behavior Checklist (teacher response) indicates no significant difference between the treatment, treated control and control groups.

7. The individual subscales of the School Behavior Checklist (Low Need Achievement, Aggression, Anxiety, Academic Disability, Hostile Isolation, Extraversion, Total Disability) indicate no significant difference between the treatment, treated control and control groups.

8. The five A-point global scales of the School Behavior Checklist (listed below) indicate no significant difference between the treatment, treated control, and control groups. The five scales are as follows:

1. How would you personally rate this pupil's intellectual ability?

2. How would you rate this pupil's overall academic skills?

3. How would you rate this pupil's overall academic performance?

4. How would you rate this pupil's social and emotional adjustments?

5. How would you rate this pupil's personal appeal?

9. The treatment group shows no significant difference from the treated control group.

10. The treatment group shows no significant difference from the control group.

11. The treated control group shows no significant difference from the control group.

12. The treatment and treated control group, together, show no significant difference from the control group.

The research sample consisted of a total of 61 children from separated or divorced families. The children were in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades enrolled in either the Newport News or Williamsburg school systems. A total of six schools participated in the investigation. After gaining permission from the child's parent to participate in this study, the examiner arbitrarily assigned each school to one of the three groups: treatment, treated control or control group. The treatment group used structured group activities that dealt with the issues that arise as the child progresses through the stages of loss due to divorce. The treated control group used selected activities chosen from Dinkmeyer's DUSO-II Manual. The subject of divorce in this group was not discussed. The control group did not receive any form of counseling.

The treatment and treated control groups met twice a week for thirty minutes for five weeks. Pre and post-test measures were collected through the use of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, the Otis Lennon Mental Ability Test, the School Behavior Checklist, and the Louisville Behavior Checklist.

The paired T-test analysis and the one-way analysis for variance were used to analyze the scores obtained from the four instruments. The data obtained in this research indicated that the treatment group changed significantly in overall self-concept whereas the treated control and control made no change. The treatment and control group perceived themselves as improving in Intellectual and School Status, Anxiety and Happiness and Satisfaction. The treatment

group also improved in their perception of the physical appearance and attributes whereas the treated control group noted just a change in their behavior. All three groups improved significantly in intellectual functioning. The teachers observed a change in the children of the treatment and treated control group in the areas of the pupils' intellectual ability, social and emotional adjustment and the pupils' personal appeal. The teachers of the children in the treated control group also noted an improvement in the child's academic skills, in his overall academic performance. The teachers felt these children were more helpful and alert as well as tending to work faster and complete their school work. The children in the control group were not observed has having improved in school behavior over the five-week period.

The children in the treatment group improved most significantly over the children in the treated control and control group in home behavior. Even though the parents of the children in the treated control and control groups noted that their children were less emotionally demanding, tended to be less hyperactive, and seemed to be less destructive toward others. The parents of children in the control group also noted that their children had fewer somatic complaints, slept better, and were doing better in school. The children in the treatment group when compared to the treated control and control groups showed their attitudes and feelings about themselves improved significantly, especially in the areas of physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, and happiness and satisfaction.

The children in the treated control group when compared to the control group children saw themselves as smarter in school, happier and more satisfied with themselves than the children in the control group.

When all combinations of the three groups were compared to each other, no one group improved significantly over the other groups in intellectual functioning. When the teachers' ratings of the pupils in all groups were compared to each other, the teachers observed that the children in the treatment group and the treated control group had improved in personal appeal, overall academic performance, and in their social and emotional adjustments over the control group.

The parents of the children in the treatment and treated control groups participating in this study perceived a change in their children's behavior over the parents of the children in the control group. The parents of children in the treatment and treated control groups observed that their children seemed less egocentric and emotionally demanding, were less hyperactive, their destructive behavior decreased, began to interact with their peers more, complained less of headaches and stomach aches, were able to sleep better, improved in their school work, and tended to act more mature than was reported by the parents of children in the control group over the five-week period.

Conclusions

The children in the treatment group felt significantly better about themselves. This change in self-perception was supported by the

observations of the teachers and the parents of these children, which indicates that the child was behaving in observable ways that indicated to the parents and teachers that his self-concept had improved. The children in the treatment group felt less anxious about their lives, accepted their physical appearance more, and were happier and more satisfied with themselves and their total environment. This implies that when counseling children, personal problems (i.e., divorced parents) need to be directly dealt with by the counselor in order that the child's perception of himself, school and home behavior are improved.

Even though the children in the treated control group did not improve in overall self-concept, they did see themselves as behaving better at school and at home. The teachers of these children noticed a positive change not only in the child's behavior but also in his overall academic performance and social and emotional adjustments. The parents of these children did not perceive that much of a change in home behavior, which indicates that group counseling done in the school environment that deals with getting along better with your friends, understanding others, etc. has more of an effect on school behavior than on home behavior. Since the children in the treatment group did talk about the divorce of their parents, a significant change in home behavior was noted. This implies that dealing directly with the issue of divorce with children (which is a family matter) not only improves the child's school behavior but also the home behavior. This is important for counselors to note who work with children that just doing "group things" with children helps, but dealing with personal

problems makes more of a dramatic change in the child's total environment.

The children in the control group felt that they were doing better in school work and were happier, less anxious and more satisfied with themselves. The teachers of these children did not perceive any change in how the child thought about himself, nor did they see an improvement in academic performance. This discrepancy possibly could be attributed to the Hawthorne effect whereby the child knew he was part of an experiment and "had" to "get better." However, the parents of the children in the control group did note a positive change in home behavior. This possibly could be attributed to the socialization process of attending school or that the child is happier and has more activities to occupy his time (since this study was conducted immediately after school re-convened after summer vacation) and thereby this change in behavior would have occurred anyway.

Intellectual functioning improved significantly in all three groups. The children in the control group and treatment group did perceive themselves as "being smarter." The teachers observed an improvement in the overall academic performance with the children in the treatment group but not in the control group. This discrepancy between the teacher's observations and the child's perception of himself and improved test scores possibly could be explained in that even though the children in the control group perceived themselves as "being smarter" and their test scores on the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test did improve significantly, they were not exhibiting their intellectual functioning

improvement in the classroom. The treatment group parents noticed a positive change in the child's academic performance which supports their child's perception of himself as well as the improved classwork the teacher was observing. The control group parents also felt their child was doing better schoolwork even though the teachers of these children did not. Again, the Hawthorne effect seems to be a possible explanation for this discrepancy. Knowing their child was a part of a study, the parents of the children in the control group perceive their child as doing better in school when in fact this was not the case.

When comparing each group to every other group and when the combination of the treatment and treated control group was compared to the control group, it became apparent that the treatment group significantly improved in self-concept, school and home behavior over the treated control and control group. The treated control group when compared to the control group also indicated significant improvement in the areas of self-concept, school and home behavior. From this it is apparent that group counseling with children regardless of the model or techniques used does aid the child in feeling better about himself and functioning in his environment more positively. However, when a child is faced with a crisis (i.e., divorce of parents) dealing with the issue directly has a more powerful effect in improving the child's self-concept, school and home behavior.

Recommendations

It is suggested that obtaining information from the parents in regard to the amount of conflict witnessed between the parents by the child prior to and following the divorce be a factor that needs to be considered in order to determine the selection of methods that would better facilitate the resolution of issues the child faces as he moves toward the stage of acceptance. The amount of conflict the child was involved in contributes to the stress the child perceives. The more conflict, the more stress the child experiences and thereby requiring the counselor to choose a different approach in order to aid the child in adjusting to the divorce of his parents.

The age at which the child experienced the divorce needs to be determined because this does effect the child's reaction to the parents' divorce. The age of the child contributes to the comprehension and understanding of the divorce situation. Also, the number of years the parents have been separated or divorced needs to be obtained so as to measure the effect time has on the adjustment of the child to the divorce.

It is recommended that a sex distinction needs to be made when analyzing the data in order to determine if males react differently to or take longer to adjust to the divorce of their parents than do females.

It is suggested that when using the rational emotive educational approach as an activity in divorce adjustment counseling that the child have prior exposure to this concept since it does require a certain

amount of comprehension or understanding on the part of the child and this makes it difficult to accomplish in a thirty-minute group session.

Appendix

Appendix A

Direct Sources

The following agencies and persons were personally contacted either through written correspondence or telephone conversation in order that the reseearcher would be aware of what other persons in the field of counseling were doing as far as meeting the needs of children of separation and divorce.

Adams County Mental Health Center
Commerce City, Colorado

Alderman, Marves
Family Services/Travelers Aid
Norfolk, Virginia

Center for Children in Family Crisis
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Children's Mental Health Center
Columbus, Ohio

Federic, Joseph, M.D.
Divorce Institute
Evanston, Illinois

Froiland, Donald J., M.D.
Shippensburg State College
Shippensburg, Pennsylvania

Green, Barbara
State College
Pennsylvania

Griffin, Judy
Family Services/Travelers Aid
Virginia Beach, Virginia

Keat, Donald, Ph.D.
State College
Pennsylvania

Kessler, Sheila, M.D.
Georgia State University
Atlanta, Georgia

Magid, Ken, Ed.D.
Evergreen Developmental Center
Evergreen, Colorado

McMillan, Mary Ann
Gulf Coast Mental Health Center
Gulfport, Mississippi

Newman, Cary
Child and Family Services
Richmond, Virginia

Raschke, Helen, M.D.
Norfolk State College
Norfolk, Virginia

Sell, Kenneth D., Ph.D.
Catawba College
Salisbury, North Carolina

Appendix B

Parent Permission Form

I grant permission for my child's self-concept, attitude, intellectual functioning and behavior to be measured. I understand that all scores will be kept in strict confidence and will be destroyed following the completion of the project. Upon request, the results of my child's test will be given to me.

_____
Child's Name

_____
Parent's Name

_____
Address

_____
Phone Home Work

Appendix C

A Counseling Help Group

Counseling help for children who are experiencing divorce by their parents has been successful in helping students overcome this stressful situation. The adjustment that is made by the child to the divorce situation with the help of the counseling group will help him/her to feel better about him/herself and the world as he/she continues to develop.

A Counseling Help Group will be made available to any child in the 5th and 6th grades who is or has experienced a divorce situation. The group will meet once a week, beginning Thursday, February 22 and running through March 29, at 3:15-4:30 in the school cafeteria. An organizational meeting for parents and children will be held Thursday, February 15 (time to be announced).

The Group will be engaging in activities (i.e. role-playing, game-playing, film watching) that will deal with the issues that a child faces during a divorce.

Anonymity of the child will be insured.

The group will be lead by a Doctoral Counseling student of the College of William and Mary.

For further information, please call Barbara Mannenga, 229-6895 by February 12, 1979, or Mrs. Dorothy Fink, 229-0006.

I give my permission for my child/children, _____, to attend the Counseling Help Group. I am assured of complete confidentiality.

Signed _____
Parent or Guardian

Phone _____

Please return to school office by February 12.

TO: Parents of 4th and 5th grade pupils at Reservoir Elementary School

FROM: Barbara Mennenga, Doctoral Student, College of William and Mary; Mrs. Rada, Principal, Reservoir Elementary School

SUBJECT: Participation in a separation/divorce counseling project

Dear Parent:

As a Doctoral student in Guidance and Counseling at the College of William and Mary, I am working on a project as one of the requirements for graduation and I need your help.

I will be conducting a counseling help group at another Newport News Elementary school over a 5-week period for children in the 4th, 5th, and 6th grades who are or have experienced a separation/divorce situation by their parents.

In order for me to know how effective I am in helping these children adjust to their divorce situations, I need another group of children who also have or are experiencing a divorce situation to compare them with during this 5-week period. This is where I need your assistance. I would evaluate your child at the beginning of that 5-week period and then again at the end of that 5-week period. Your child would not be counseled, only evaluated. Your child's self-concept, attitude, and achievement would be measured. All scores would be kept strictly confidential. The scores will NOT appear anywhere in the child's school records nor will any school personnel have access to the scores. After the project is completed all tests will be destroyed. Upon request, the results of your child's test scores will be given to you.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact Mrs. Rada, Principal, Reservoir Elementary School, 867-2500, or myself, Barbara Mennenga, at my work number, 253-4434 between 8:00-5:00. If you are interested in helping me with this project, please fill out the form at the bottom of the page and return it to Mrs. Rada by April 11, 1979. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Barbara Mennenga

I grant permission for my child's self-concept, attitude, and achievement to be measured. I understand that all scores will be kept in strict confidence and will be destroyed following the completion of the project. Upon request, the results of my child's test will be given to me.

Child's Name	Parent's Name
Address	Phone Home Work

TO: Parents of 4th and 5th Grade Pupils at B. C. Charles Elementary School

FROM: Barbara Mennenga, Doctoral Student, William and Mary
Martha V. Wingfield, Principal

SUBJECT: Counseling Service

Counseling help for children who are experiencing separation/divorce by their parents has been successful in helping students overcome this stressful situation. The adjustment that is made by the child to the separation/divorce situation with the help of the counseling group will help the child to feel better about his/herself and the world as the child continues to develop.

This spring a Counseling Help Group may be made available to any child in the fourth and fifth grades at B. C. Charles School who is or has been experiencing a separation/divorce situation. This survey is attempting to determine whether there is a sufficient interest at this time.

The group would be engaging in activities that would deal with the issues that a child faces during a divorce. A Doctoral Counseling student of the College of William and Mary would lead the group.

The time and place of the counseling sessions will be determined after March 12.

In order to determine the number of parents who are interested in having their child attend the group sessions, please return this form by March 12, 1979 to Mrs. Martha V. Wingfield, Principal, B. C. Charles Elementary School.

I am interested in having my child attend a Counseling Help Group for those children who are experiencing a separation/divorce situation.

_____
Child's Name

_____
Parent's Name

_____
Home Phone

_____
Work Phone

Appendix D

Information Sheet

Child's name _____

Birth date _____

Grade in school _____

Number of months/years separated/divorced _____

Parent living with: Mother Father

Extent of visitation rights _____

_____

Number of brothers _____ Ages _____

Number of sisters _____ Ages _____

Has the family as a whole been or now involved in counseling? If so, briefly explain.

Has the child or is the child now involved in counseling? If so, briefly explain.

Since the separation/divorce has there been a marked change in the child's attitudes and/or behavior? If so, what kind of change?

Briefly list some things your child has said concerning his/her thoughts concerning any issue of the divorce/separation situation.

Explain briefly how the child behaves at home since the separation/ divorce. (Relationship with siblings and parent; stays in his/her room alot; just "lays around"; always doing things; wants to participate in activities planned by the family; attitude toward helping with household chores)

If you are aware of a change in behavior and attitude towards the school environment since the separation/divorce, briefly describe. (Relationship with peers; attitude towards classwork; attitude and behavior towards the teacher)

Appendix E

Parent Post Group Evaluation

Has your child been better able to express his feelings about the separation/divorce? Briefly comment.

Have the child's feelings been more positive, the same, or negative? Briefly comment.

Has there been a positive change in attitude? If so, or if not, briefly comment.

Has the child's behavior changed in any way? Briefly comment.

How did you as a parent feel about your child attending the group?

From what your child has told you, do you think his/her divorce adjustment has improved? Circle one.

not at all somewhat no change improved improved alot

Would you recommend to your friends that their child experience a group similar to this one? Circle one.

not at all maybe yes, definitely

Appendix F

Children's Post Group Evaluation

The one thing I liked best about this group was . . . . . .

The one thing I liked least about the group was . . . . . .

I would recommend to one of my friends who is going through divorce to join a group like this. Yes or No. Why?

One thing I was hoping we would do in the group that we didn't was . . .

One thing I was hoping we would do in the group that we did was . . . .

My overall satisfaction with the group was ? Circle one.

not satisfied at all could be better so-so
moderately satisfied very satisfied

The group helped me to understand myself and my emotions better. Circle one.

strongly disagree mildly disagree
neither agree or disagree
mildly agree strongly agree

The group helped me to understand better the stages a person goes through during the divorce process. Circle one.

did not help at all mildly helped no change
helped helped alot

The group activities on anger helped me to understand that stage and deal with my anger. Circle one.

did not help at all mildly helped no change
helped helped alot

I think I am closer to accepting my divorce situation. Circle one.

not at all close	a little bit closer	no change
closer	alot closer	

The group activities on denial helped me to understand that stage and deal with my denial. Circle one.

did not help at all	mildly helped	no change
helped	helped alot	

The one activity that I liked the best was . . . . . .

The one activity that I liked the least was . . . . . .

After seeing the film, you would recommend that (Circle one)

it not be used again maybe be used again yes, use it again

I think now I can better handle my depressed times. Circle one.

not at all	somewhat better	no change
better	alot better	

The stage that I think I still need to work with is:
Check one. If more than one, put in order, i.e. 1, 2, etc.

_____ Denial

_____ Anger

_____ Bargaining

_____ Depression

_____ Acceptance

I feel better about myself. Circle one.

not at all	a little better	no change
better	alot better	

I feel better about my divorce. Circle one.

not at all	somewhat better	no change
better	alot better	

Appendix G

Parent Letters

Dear Parent:

In order for me to know how effective I am in helping other children adjust to their divorce situation, I need another group of children who also have or are experiencing a separation/divorce situation to compare them with. Your child has been selected to participate in this comparison group. Your child will only be given a Self-Concept and I.Q. test now and again at an interval of five (5) weeks and will not participate in any group activities. The results of the test will be made available to you upon your request.

You are asked to respond to the attached Behavior Checklist now and again in five (5) weeks. You will be receiving another checklist in the mail in five (5) weeks. It is extremely important for this study that you return this Checklist to me as soon as possible.

Thank you for your interest and support in this study.

Barbara Mennenga

Dear Parent:

Your child has been selected to participate in the Counseling Help Group for Children of Separation/Divorce. Your child will be administered a Self-Concept and I.Q. test prior to and following the group sessions. The results of the test will not appear in the child's school records; the results are available to you at your request. The group will meet for forty (40) minutes twice a week for five (5) weeks. If the counselor thinks that further counseling is necessary for your child's continual development and growth, you will be so advised.

You are asked to respond to the attached Behavior Checklist now and again in five (5) weeks. You will be receiving another Checklist in the mail in five (5) weeks. It is extremely important for this study that you return the Checklist to me as soon as possible.

Thank you for your interest and support on this study.

Barbara Mennenga

Dear Parent:

Your child has been selected to participate in the Student Growth Group. The subject of separation/divorce will not be discussed. Activities that will help your child feel better about himself and his environment will be utilized. Your child will be administered a Self-Concept and I.Q. test prior to and following the group sessions. The results of the test will not appear in the child's school records; the results are available to you at your request. The group will meet for forty (40) minutes twice a week for five (5) weeks. If the counselor thinks that further counseling is necessary for your child's continual development and growth, you will be so advised.

You are asked to respond to the attached Behavior Checklist now and again in five (5) weeks. You will be receiving another Checklist in the mail in five (5) weeks. It is extremely important for this study that you return the Checklist to me as soon as possible.

Thank you for your interest and support in this study.

Barbara Mennenga

Appendix H

Student's Growth Group Activities
(Treated Control Group)

The Student's Growth Group met for five weeks, twice a week for 30 minutes (10 sessions). The following activities were selected from Dinkmeyer's Developing Understanding of Self and Others (DUSO) D-2 Manual.

Session I: Unit I/Cycle A - page 8
Developing an awareness of self and learning to value self
Story: I Wish I Were
Poster I-A: Know and Accept Yourself
Discussion Model - page 10
Role Playing Activity: If I Were You - page 11

Session II: Unit I/Cycle B - page 15
Learning to recognize and accept individuality in self and others
Story: Don't Call Names
Poster I-B: I'm O.K., and You're O.K.
Discussion Model - page 16
Problem Situation: Linda's Problem - page 17
Puppet Activity: The Surprise - page 18

Session III: Unit I/Cycle D - page 29
Developing self-acceptance through accepting the courage to be imperfect
Story: The Smartest One
Poster I-D: Mistakes can help us learn
Discussion Model - page 30
Role Playing Activity: Helen Keller - page 32

Session IV: Unit I/Cycle E - page 36
Learning to deal with rejection
Story: Nobody Cares
Poster I-E: What can you do when no one seems to care?
Discussion Model - page 37
Supplementary Activity - page 40

Session V: Unit II/Cycle A - page 47
Learning to share and to understand that giving does not require receiving
Story: What Will You Give Me?
Poster II-A: It feels good to give
Discussion Model - page 49
Problem Situation: Helping Others - pages 49-50
Career Awareness Activity: Cooperative Squares - page 51

Session VI: Unit II/Cycle B - page 54
Learning to express both positive and negative feelings
Story: How Would You Feel?
Poster II-B: How would you feel?
Discussion Model - page 55
Fishing-with-Duso Game - pages 58-60

Session VII: Unit II/Cycle C
Learning to empathize with the feelings of others
Story: A Good Idea
Poster II-C: Understand how others feel
Discussion Model - page 63
Career Awareness Activity: The Ice-Cream Factory - page 65

Session VIII: Unit III/Cycle B - page 85
Learning what behavior is considered appropriate or acceptable in various groups
Story: Join the Group
Poster III-B: Can you get into the group?
Discussion Model - page 86
Problem Situation: Is It Funny? - page 87
Supplementary Activities - page 89

Session IX: Unit IV/Cycle A - page 107
Learning to function responsibly without supervision or authority figures
Story: You'll Be Sorry!
Poster IV-A: Show responsibility
Discussion Model - page 108
Puppet Activity: It Depends! - page 110

Session X: Unit VII/Cycle A - page 190
Learning to cope with change
Story: Buttons
Poster VII-A: Show you care
Discussion Model - page 191
Career Awareness Activity: Circle Game - page 193

Appendix I

Activities for the Counseling Help Group for Children of Divorce

Goals:

1. To clarify the child's feelings about divorce.

2. To help the child understand the stages (i.e., denial, anger, bargaining, depression, acceptance, associated with the divorce process.)

3. To help the child move to the acceptance stage.

4. To help the child gain a realistic picture of the divorce situation.

5. To assist the child in learning new ways to cope with the feelings associated with divorce.

Session I--Introduction and Denial Stage

A. Warm-Up Activity--Getting To Know You. Have the children form a circle. As a ball is thrown to each child questions are asked to better know the child. Questions that can be asked are: What is your favorite television show? What is your favorite school subject? What is your favorite animal? If you could be an animal, what would you be? How many brothers and sisters do you have? What do you like to do on weekends? What do you want to be when you grow up? It is important to point out the commonality of the group (all of us have separated or divorced parents), that this group is special.

B. Discussion Rules: It is important to the successful function and process of the group that certain rules be established.

1. Take turns speaking--only one at a time.
2. Raise your hand if you want to talk.
3. Anything said is O.K.
4. Think about what others are saying.
5. Things said here are private for the group.

Session II--Denial Stage, continued

A. Summarize what took place in Session I.

B. What if's and I wonder's. Denial is rated in visioning the future as it was hoped it would be. What if's is speculative. It does not depend on drawing conclusions from what really happened. Have children discuss how they have or are denying the separation or divorce of their parents. Use what if's and I wonder statements.

Examples:

I wonder what would have happened if mom and dad wouldn't have gotten a divorce.

I wonder how my life would be if mom and dad wouldn't have gotten a divorce.

I wonder how they could do this to me.

I wonder why people divorce.

I wonder why people stop loving each other.

C. Role Playing with the Use of Puppets. Have each child play the role of the parents and of the child in a situation where the child won't accept the parents divorce. Stress the importance of sharing feelings. The counselor may choose to model a particular role so the children may better understand the function of role playing.

Session III--Anger Stage

It is important that the child be allowed to express his feelings of anger and know that these are okay natural feelings to have.

A. A Brief Explanation of the Second Stage

B. I Hate You Letters: Tell the children that the letters they are about to write will not be read to anyone. Spelling and grammar are not important. They can write anything they want; one letter to each parent that expresses their anger toward that parent. They are free to write all the things they wish they could have said or say to their parents when they finish writing the letters, have each child tear his letter up.

Talk about how it felt to write the letter and how it felt to tear the letter up.

C. Beat the Pillow. Allow each child to beat on a pillow. Talk about how it feels to physically release the anger; would they beat the pillow as hard or harder if represented the person they are angry with.

Session IV--Anger, continued

A. Anger T-Shirts. Have the children draw a T-shirt on construction paper. Have them draw on the T-shirt how they let other people know they are angry, or have them draw, in symbol form, what anger is to them, how they feel inside when they are angry. Have each child explain his T-shirt to the other members of the group.

B. List different ways they can deal with their anger about divorce in constructive ways.

C. I Learned Statements. Following the above exercise ask the children to respond to that exercise as you continue to link the responses back to their divorce situation with the following sentences:

I learned that I . . .
I was surprised that I . . .
I remembered . . .
I found it hard to believe . . .
I am angry at myself for . . .
I feel guilty about . . .
I was saddened that I . . .
I enjoyed . . .
I never knew . . .
I plan to change . . .
I don't like myself when I . . .

Session V--Bargaining Stage

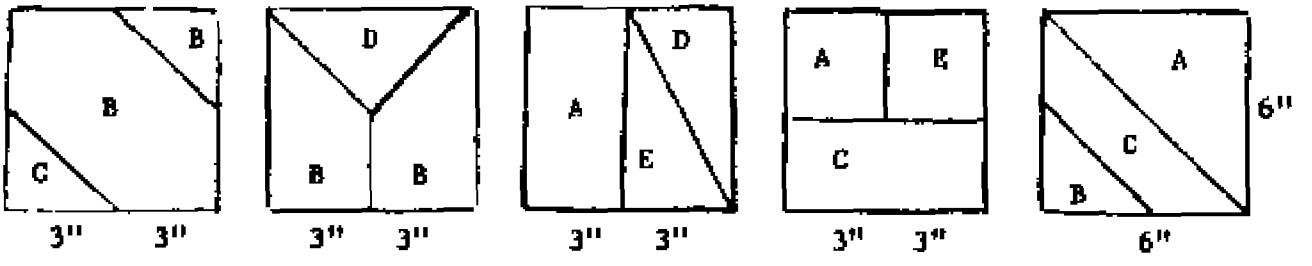
A. Briefly summarize the bargaining stage.

B. Five Squares

After the exercise, lead a discussion about how it felt not to be able to tell the other person what to do, how it is better to tell people how you feel, to tell them what you don't like rather than making them guess how you feel. Tie their responses back to the divorce situation.

C. Five Squares. Do the exercise again. Talk about how frustration and anger are decreased when we can talk to other people, how it is better to give and take rather than just take. Link their responses back to their thoughts and behaviors that have occurred because of the divorce of their parents.

FIVE SQUARES -- SIX-INCH PUZZLE



DIRECTIONS FOR MAKING:

Cut from tag board or other substantial material according to patterns above and mark with appropriate letter. All measurements must be precise (3" x 6") so that pieces will interchange accurately. Place one complete set of five squares in an envelope.

PROCEDURE:

Arrange in groups of five around table or other hard surface. Each group is given envelope with pieces. Each player takes all of the pieces marked with a single letter of the alphabet.

GOAL:

To have each player form a 6" square.

GROUND RULES:

1. You may pass one of your pieces to another player at one time.
2. You may not talk.
3. You may not gesture.
4. You may not touch another person's pieces or take them. You may only accept them when they are passed to you.

Dinkmeyer, 1970 (b)

Session VI--Bargaining, continued

"Sell Your Deals"

Have the children make posters that show how they tried to bargain with their parents.

It would be helpful to have a poster to show as an example.
Examples: Being sick,
Causing Trouble at School,
Doing "A" work on Lessons,
Crying--Throwing temper tantrums
(takes 2 to handle me)

Talk about their actions and how they did or did not work.

Session VII--Depression Stage

A. Explain the fourth stage of the divorce process.

B. The Acting, Feeling, Choosing Game (Keat, 1978).
This game is used to facilitate all the thoughts, feelings and behaviors that contribute to feeling depressed.

Session VIII--Depression, continued

A. Read to the Group:

How Does It Feel When Your Parents Get Divorced by Terry Berger.

Discuss the different feelings portrayed in the book.

B. Open-ended Sentences:

One way I can help myself feel better is . . .
When I feel guilty I . . .
The most frustrating part of the divorce to me is . . .
If I feel alone I can . . .
When I feel I can't try any more I can . . .
I feel I have lost control over . . .
I want to . . .
My parents . . .
One thing that I'm not doing now that I would like to do is . . .

Session IX--Acceptance

A. Explain the final stage of the divorce/loss process.

B. Rational Emotive Education (REE). To facilitate the movement to the acceptance stage, changing the child's thoughts about his divorce situation through the use of REE is used. (Knaus, 1975)

Page 21 of Knaus's manual is used to explain how a person's thoughts about an event lead to the feeling and reaction a person has to that event. Selected questions from Knaus's Children's Survey of Rational Beliefs, pages 87-93 is used to facilitate the understanding of this mode.

This approach is used then to help the child deal with his divorce situation.

Example: Negative Thoughts

Happening	+ Thought	= Feeling	Reaction
Divorce	How could they do this to me?	Anger	Argue with parent
	They don't love me. It's my	Depression	Cry
	fault.	Frightened	Hide in room

After discussing their negative thoughts and the resultant feelings and reactions, help the children think positive or accepting thoughts about the divorce and the resultant feelings and actions.

Example:

Happening	+ Thought	= Feeling	Reaction
Divorce	I don't like it but this is the way it is	Mildly upset	Calmer Acceptance

Session X--Acceptance, continued

A. I Don't Like It But . . . Have the children list as many positive things as they can about the divorce.

Example: Things they appreciate about mom.
Things they appreciate about dad.

B. Shield of Acceptance: Have the children fill in the appropriate numbered spaces with pictures or sentences that answer the following:

1. What I am doing to make the best of it.

2. Divorce is . . .

3. A good thing that has happened is . . .

4. One thing that has changed for the better is . . .

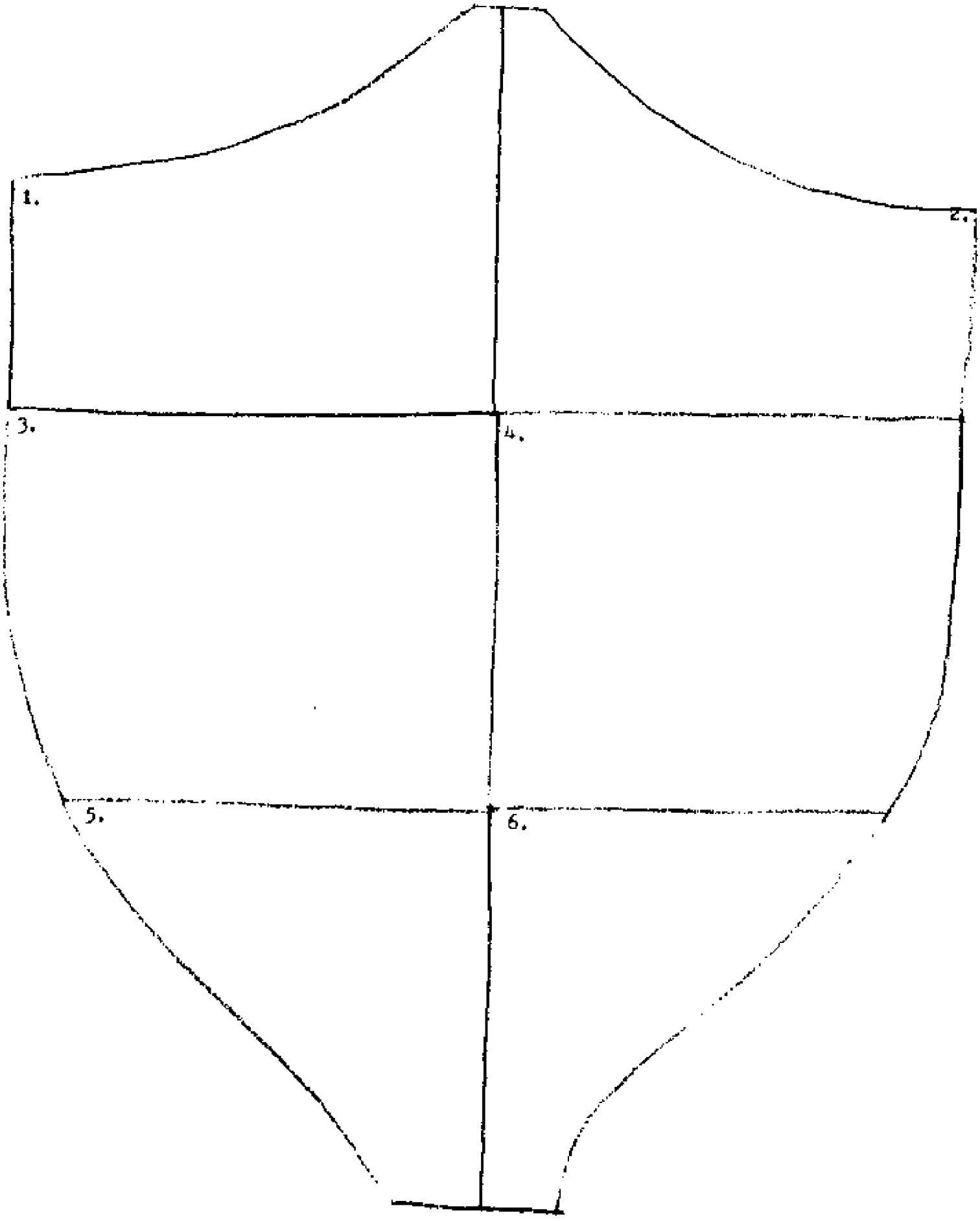
5. Divorce makes life different by . . .

6. One way I have changed in this process is . . .

Suggested Books They Can Read:

Hand out the Bibliography for continued reading and support in the area of divorce.

ACCEPTANCE SHIELD



Suggested Readings

Blue, Rose. A Month of Sundays. New York: Watts, 1972. (I)

When ten-year-old Jeffrey's mother and father decide to get a divorce, Jeffrey learns a lot about human emotions and the meaning of love.

Blume, Judy. It's Not the End of the World. Scarsdale, N.Y.: Bradbury Press, 1972. (E)

Karen feels her whole world is ending because her father goes to Las Vegas to get a divorce and, worst of all, her mother seems pleased about it.

Bowden, Nina. The Runaway Summer. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1969. (I)

Embittered because of her parent's divorce, Mary plans on running away from home with Auntie Alice and Grampy.

Holland, Isabelle. Heads You Win, Tails I Lose. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1973. (A)

While her parents are involved in marital difficulties, 15-year-old Melissa Hammond goes on a dangerous crash diet.

Klein, Norma. It's Not What You Expect. New York: Pantheon, 1973. (A)

During the summer of their parents' separation, 14-year-old twins open and operate a restaurant. The twins react differently to the break-up of their parents' marriage.

Mann, Peggy. My Dad Lives in a Downtown Hotel. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1973. (I)

The moving story of how a boy gradually learns to adjust to his parents' separation and to stop blaming himself for it.

Naylor, Phyliss. No Easy Circle. Chicago: Follett, 1972. (A)

Feeling deserted by her divorced parents and best friend, a fifteen-year-old girl searches for a meaning to her life.

Platt, Kin. The Boy Who Could Make Himself Disappear. Radnor, Pa.: Chilton, 1968. (A)

Not wanted by either of his divorced parents, Roger finds new friends and courage to conquer his own special problem in New York City.

Platt, Kin. Chloris and the Creeps. Radnor, Pa.: Chilton, 1973. (I)

After her parents' divorce and father's suicide, an 11-year-old girl causes problems in the family when her mother remarries.

Reynolds, Marjorie. The Cabin on Ghostly Pond. New York: Harper & Row, 1962. (I)

Twelve-year-old Jo, staying with her grandparents while her divorced mother prepares to begin a new marriage, discovers what it means to be needed.

Stolz, Mary. Leap Before You Look. New York: Harper & Row, 1972. (A)

The shattering effect of her parents' divorce is recounted by a very modern 14-year-old girl moving toward adulthood at a pace she cannot control.

Appendix J

Means and Standard Deviations of the Treatment, Treated Control and Control Groups Presented by Variables

Variable	Treatment Pre-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Pre-Test	Post-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Post-Test
P-H				
SC	56.4762	11.501	61.9048	10.931
B	14.5238	2.228	15.4286	2.749
I	12.4286	3.385	13.8571	2.651
P	7.7619	2.682	8.7619	2.719
A	8.76.9	3.506	10.2857	2.849
PP	7.9048	2.364	8.3333	2.352
H	6.7143	1.554	7.5714	1.690
OLMAT				
IQ	27.9048	14.240	34.5238	13.400
SBC				
VV	4.2857	1.554	5.0000	1.414
WW	4.3333	1.528	4.667	1.461
XX	4.2857	1.189	4.8571	1.108
YY	4.3810	0.805	5.0952	0.768

Variable	Pre-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Pre-Test	Post-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Post-Test
ZZ	6.2857	1.146	7.3333	1.065
LNA	6.7143	5.542	6.6190	5.427
AGG	4.9524	7.500	4.2857	6.149
ANX	2.0952	2.737	2.3333	3.322
AD	3.5238	2.400	3.3810	2.711
HI	0.5714	0.811	0.7619	1.375
EXT	5.0000	2.683	5.2381	2.508
TD	16.9048	14.515	17.1429	12.877
LBC				
Ia	5.9048	6.441	3.0476	4.853
Ha	4.3333	4.054	2.4286	3.501
As	1.9048	2.385	1.1905	1.662
AG	10.5714	10.586	5.8095	8.618
Sw	4.7143	3.523	2.5114	3.124
Sn	5.3810	3.217	3.1905	3.027
Fr	4.3333	3.055	2.4286	2.891
IN	12.6667	8.027	7.8571	7.920
Adc	5.4762	3.296	3.7143	3.926
Im	3.3333	2.708	2.0000	2.049
LD	8.0000	5.167	5.6190	5.696
Nl	7.6190	3.427	4.7619	3.330
Pd	4.6190	2.269	2.6667	2.415
Rd	0.9048	1.300	0.2381	0.539

Variable	Pre-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Pre-Test	Post-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Post-Test
Neu	2.5714	2.638	1.7619	2.300
Psy	0.8571	1.590	0.0952	0.301
Som	1.5714	1.399	1.4762	1.632
Sex	1.5238	1.990	1.0952	1.578
SL	27.9048	23.620	18.5238	20.607
	N=21			

	Treated		Control	
P-H				
SC	55.9000	14.086	55.5500	15.275
B	13.3000	3.164	14.0000	3.244
I	12.6500	3.133	12.4500	4.123
P	8.3500	2.907	7.4500	3.154
A	8.9000	2.918	8.5000	3.269
PP	7.6500	2.815	7.9000	2.900
H	6.5500	1.905	6.5500	2.282
OLMAT				
IQ	20.3000	9.342	27.9000	8.961
SBC				
VV	4.1500	1.531	4.6000	1.536
WW	3.8000	1.542	4.1000	1.447
XX	4.0000	1.338	4.5000	1.277
YY	4.1000	1.210	4.7000	1.525
ZZ	5.9500	1.849	6.3500	1.694

Variable	Pre-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Pre-Test	Post-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Post-Test
LNA	10.6500	7.191	8.6000	5.771
AGG	10.4500	10.400	9.8500	10.801
ANX	2.5500	1.932	2.1000	1.861
AD	3.8500	2.254	3.0000	2.294
HI	0.9000	0.852	0.6500	0.875
EXT	6.7500	2.049	5.6000	1.759
TD	26.6000	15.679	23.9500	13.659
LBC				
Ia	6.2000	4.819	4.4500	3.332
Ha	6.6500	11.113	3.9500	3.364
As	1.7000	1.720	1.3500	1.496
AG	10.3500	8.499	8.6000	6.723
Sw	3.3000	2.515	3.500	2.328
Sn	4.1000	2.532	4.0500	2.704
Fr	4.4500	2.762	3.5500	3.069
IN	10.8500	6.285	10.4000	6.460
Adc	4.1500	3.829	4.7500	4.844
Im	1.7500	1.333	1.6000	1.095
LD	5.7000	5.090	5.9500	5.216
Ni	6.4500	3.052	5.6000	2.981
Pd	2.9500	2.625	2.4000	2.257
Rd	0.9000	0.912	1.0500	1.050
Neu	3.2500	2.359	2.9500	2.544

Variable	Pre-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Pre-Test	Post-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Post-Test
Pay	0.8500	1.599	0.8500	1.496
Som	2.1000	1.447	2.0000	1.214
Sex	1.4000	0.883	1.2500	0.639
SL	21.5000	14.314	19.9500	13.233
	N=20			

Control

P-H				
SC	53.6000	17.769	62.4000	14.314
B	12.1500	4.030	14.2000	3.928
I	12.0500	4.617	14.4000	3.152
F	8.0500	3.531	8.8000	3.054
A	8.2500	3.093	9.5000	3.236
PP	7.8500	2.889	9.0500	2.704
H	6.7000	2.319	7.8500	1.843
OLMAT				
IQ	25.000	12.209	34.1500	12.733
SBC				
VV	4.2500	0.967	4.3500	1.137
WW	4.1000	0.968	4.1500	1.137
XX	4.3500	0.988	4.2500	1.070
YY	4.6500	0.875	4.7000	0.733
ZZ	5.4500	1.356	5.9500	1.356

Variable	Pre-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Pre-Test	Post-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Post-Test
LNA	9.9500	6.985	9.7000	5.583
AGG	8.1500	7.443	8.7500	6.995
ANX	3.5000	3.120	3.7000	3.672
AD	3.9500	2.188	4.1000	2.315
HI	1.2500	1.164	1.0500	0.999
EXT	7.2000	1.436	7.1500	1.599
TD	22.4000	13.812	24.5500	9.3555
LBC				
Ia	5.3000	4.281	8.1500	7.896
Ha	4.7000	2.697	6.6500	4.069
As	2.100	2.100	3.6500	3.964
AG	9.9500	5.844	14.7500	13.142
Sw	4.8000	4.360	6.8000	5.105
Sn	5.2500	3.093	6.2500	4.447
Fr	4.2000	3.238	5.5500	5.236
IN	11.4000	5.305	16.9000	11.415
Adc	5.1500	4.499	5.9000	4.352
Im	1.5500	1.731	2.5000	2.875
LD	6.7500	5.794	8.3500	6.226
Ni	7.0000	3.078	7.3000	3.556
Pd	3.6000	2.037	2.8000	1.673
Rd	1.0000	1.589	3.1000	6.034
Neu	3.5500	4.032	3.9000	5.291

Variable	Pre-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Pre-Test	Post-Test Mean	Standard Deviation Post-Test
Psy	0.8000	0.834	0.9500	2.188
Som	1.4500	1.234	1.4500	2.460
Sex	0.8000	0.768	1.2000	1.735
SL	24.4500	18.500	31.5000	33.216

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