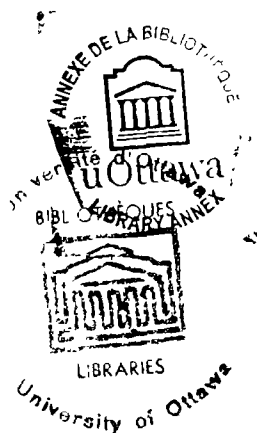


FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT
IN CHILDREN FOLLOWING PARENTAL SEPARATION

by

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Thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of
the University of Ottawa as partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Ottawa, Canada,

1988



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ABSTRACT

The issue of resiliency is rapidly acquiring a prominent place in child development. A greater understanding of factors that promote successful adaptation of "high risk" children in schools would enhance the effectiveness of preventive intervention. The main purpose of this research was to examine those factors that affect academic achievement of children after parental divorce or separation.

Fifty-four children from grades one through eight who maintained their academic grade levels (Adjusted) were compared to twenty-three children who showed a significant decline in academics (Non Adjusted) following the separation or divorce of their parents. This evaluation took place approximately three years post separation. The dependent measures included time spent with the parents; sex-pairing; parental social supports; psychosocial home environment; children's attitude toward the parental separation; child competency related behaviors; and parent-child relationships.

Results indicated that Adjusted children differed from Non Adjusted children on various factors as measured by self-reports, parent and teacher ratings. Overall, the findings were independent of grade and sex of the child, as well as income and education levels of the parent. In general, the adjusted children spent significantly more time with both parents, and were rated as having greater competency behaviours by their teachers. Contrary to the hypothesized effect,

parents of Non Adjusted children had significantly greater social contacts than the parents of Adjusted children. A statistical trend suggested that Adjusted children have better attitudes toward parental separation than Non Adjusted children.

These results are discussed in terms of protective factors for children as they relate to separation and divorce.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express sincere gratitude to my dissertation supervisor Philip Firestone, Ph.D., for his help throughout all the phases of my studies in Graduate School. His expertise and personal support as well as that of his family were an appreciated source of encouragement.

I am indebted to the Research committees and participating schools from the Ottawa Board of Education, Carleton Board of Education and Ottawa Roman Catholic Separate School Board for their favorable endorsement of the project and support in the actual execution of the research. Special thanks to Michael Parkin, Ph.D. and members of the Research Committee of the Ottawa Board of Education for their help and active contribution to the research. A heartfelt thanks to Terrence J. Laughlin, Ph.D. Chief Psychologist at the Ottawa Board of Education for his devotion to knowledge and personal support in my endeavours. He provided me with hints of success when the trudging seemed all uphill.

A special thanks to the children and parents who provided me with their time and helpful insights. The warm welcome into their homes eased the dissertation pains immeasurably!

The generous support of the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada while the author was a Doctoral Fellow is acknowledged.

Thanks to Kelly Tobin for her research assistance and to Rosemary Farrell for her delightful enthusiasm and help in the editing. Special thanks to Marcella St. Pierre for her friendship and hot tea breaks, and to Luisa Guglielmo and Stella Basque for their continued support and friendship. Stella, your laugh will be with me forever!

To Monica & Don Crumrine, Danielle Poirier-Heine and Beth St. Pierre a very warm and sincere thanks for the enduring friendship and loving patience throughout all the years of my studies. Although far in distance, they were always present in spirit. To Pat Herlihey I owe hope.

Finally, but most importantly, I say "Merci" to my family for their love, patience and understanding. Very special thanks to my parents for fostering in me a wonderful dream, for providing me the strength to bring this dream to fruition and for giving me the courage for creating new ones. Maman et papa cette dissertation vous est dédiée.

Persistence, Determination and Faith Alone are Omnipotent.

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CHAPTER I

LITERATURE REVIEW AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

THE "HIGH-RISK" CHILD AND RESILIENCY

A daunting set of statistics and studies show that the once traditional two-parent family is silently giving way to a significant one-parent minority. In Canada, nearly half a million children have been involved in divorcing families in the last 10 years. The number of single parents in Canadian homes rose to a high of 12% in 1981 (Statistics Canada, 1986). In the United States, over 1 million children experience the divorce of their parents each year (Glick & Norton, 1979).

The significant increase in divorce rates has prompted many studies into the psychological effects of parental separation and divorce on children and families. An increase in research in this area stems from the fact that parental separation has been regarded a stressful life event (Hetherington et al., 1978, Felner et al., 1980; Guidubaldi et al., 1983; Sterlings, 1985; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1981). A stressful circumstance refers to an undesirable condition that alters usual activities either acutely or chronically, and these conditions usually require that the individual readjust behaviorally and/or emotionally. Hence, research has demonstrated that long term negative consequences may result in these children undergoing such stress. Anthony (1980), describes divorce as a traumatic experience in children's lives

placing them in the "high risk" population, "high risk" meaning greater susceptibility to future pathology. In parental separation, the family unit is dismantled. A reorganization with respect to its structure, roles, boundaries, and rules is necessary. This adjustment process constitutes a potential stress on each family member. Most stressors which appear to provoke psychiatric disorder involve some type of loss or disappointment and/or a disturbed interpersonal relationship (Rutter, 1981). Divorce predisposes the occurrence of multiple stressful events associated with the family's economic status, living conditions, or support networks. Such a chain of events increases the subjective levels of stress experiences and may adversely affect the physical and emotional well-being of the individual (Sterling, 1985). Thus, a child, a developing organism, who experiences a parental separation or divorce is at risk and is "vulnerable" to deviations from normal development.

In the turmoil of adjustment, certain children experience difficulties in various aspects of their lives. Their emotional well-being, their behavioral performance, their scholastic achievement and peer relations are vulnerable to disruption. However, there are children who experience the parental separation without apparent adverse effects. In summary, even though all children who experience the stressful life-event of a parental separation are at "high-risk" for varying degrees of maladjustment, some children manage to remain "invulnerable" or "resilient" in the presence of such life event adversities.

O'Grady et al. (1987) define the term 'resilient' as "an unusual or marked capacity to recover from or cope successfully with significant stresses of both internal and external origin" (pp. 6-7). Similarly, Rutter (1981) defines 'resilient' with respect to children as an ability to develop healthy emotional and behavioural lives despite having experienced stresses that usually lead to adverse outcome.

Anthony (1974) and Garmezy (1974, 1981) both encourage the study of those "high-risk" children who have healthy outcomes. Such research would increase predictive outcomes, improve our understanding of the etiology of childhood pathology, and possibly enhance interventions with vulnerable children. Existing literature pertaining to the effects of divorce on children tends to emphasize the maladjusted behavioural components. This focus perpetuates a distorted and negative perception of those children who are trying to cope with parental separation and those children resilient to, and successful in, overcoming possible adversities (Ahrns, 1983). Similarly, Garmezy (1987) emphasizes the lack of research dealing with those resilient children who reveal competence and strength despite the presence of stressful life events.

Rutter (1979) pioneered the study of protective factors through his studies on children in institutions. In a simple but useful analogy, Rutter compared multiple factors linked to stress as chemical "catalysts" - substances serving as agents to speed up or slow down a process or reaction. That is, there are variables

which are mainly inert on their own but if combined interactively with acute stressors will either increase or decrease the effect of stressors. In the case where an increase effect occurs, the variable is known as a "vulnerability variable" and when a decrease or attenuating effect occurs, the variable becomes a "protective variable". Results of Rutter's studies identified the following variables as protective components which figure significantly in the stress of parental separation on children: a supportive, stable and cohesive family climate; a good relationship with at least one parent; and supportive school settings themselves.

Stiffman et al. (1985) emphasized that the social system in which an individual lives has features that may serve as stressors or protectors to the child. Environmental protectors to the child whose parent has a mental illness include supportive peer groups, accessible social services, parental employment and marital happiness. Children characterized as having high levels of social competence are generally resilient to high stress situations.

Others have added to the list of "protective" and "vulnerable" types of variables most inherent to the make-up of the high-risk child's profile. The following studies have focused on various stressful life events that are often reported to be linked to psychological disorders.

Garnezy (1985) identified the following three possible categories of general protective components: 1) the personality attributes of the individual child; 2) a supportive family environment; and 3) a support network outside the family that

promotes positive coping efforts by the child thus, strengthening adaptability attributes.

Anthony (1980) identified elements contributing to a child's vulnerability in the incidence of parental divorce: 1) the child's age at time of divorce; 2) sex-pairing between child and custodial parent; and 3) general make-up of the child's hypersensitivity to change and previous sources of stress.

The Wallerstein-Kelly study (1980), which will be described at greater length in a further section of this paper, also found significant factors that contributed to a child's vulnerability to a deterioration of school performance following marital breakup. These factors were: 1) a strained relationship between custodial parent and child; 2) the failure of the non-custodial parent to remain interested in his/her child; and 3) a seriously disturbed parent as the custodial parent.

Results of the O'Grady & Metz (1987) study indicate the socioeconomic factor as the single best predictor of social competence and school problems. Children of higher socioeconomic status are associated with greater social support, fewer school and behavioural problems, and greater social competence. Additionally, the results lend support to a cumulative stress hypothesis which proposes that the accumulation and interaction of multiple risk factors enhance the emergence of psychological disorders. Children with fewer prior life stress events were less likely to develop psychological disorders. Internal locus of control orientation was identified as a protective factor in high-risk infants who

eventually overcame their early liabilities and subsequently experienced fewer life stress events.

The aforementioned studies reveal that invulnerability to risk is a multifaceted phenomenon. Resilience, appears to be determined by what Garmezy (1981) describes as a net balance between positive and negative environmental factors and the child's adaptive coping skills. To better grasp the underlying mechanisms of resilience one needs to consider how coping skills and protective factors interact.

COPING PROCESSES

Coping processes constitute what a person does to reduce adverse effects when confronted by a stressful situation. Lazarus et al. (1978) describes coping processes as those "... efforts, both action-oriented and intrapsychic to manage (ie. master, tolerate, reduce, minimize) environmental and internal demands, and conflicts among them, which tax or exceed a person's resources" (p. 311).

Coping processes are triggered by coping mechanisms which are the faculties that a person uses in adapting or adjusting to environmental demands without altering his/her goals or purposes. Coping mechanisms include attempts to directly alter threatening conditions or indirectly change one's perception so as to attenuate the threatening conditions. Thus, coping processes must offer the dual function of problem-solving and of reducing emotional distress.

The mode of coping may vary according to the type of stress and the circumstances surrounding the stressors. Consequently, the effectiveness of the coping strategy is likely to vary accordingly. Some coping processes may enhance adaptation and promote positive outcome and others may increase the risk of maladaptation (Lazarus et al. 1980). Conversely, it is predictable that resilient children adopt coping processes that favour positive outcome to stressful situations. To reiterate the thoughts of Rutter (1980), it would appear that the outcome of stressful life events is determined partly by those coping mechanisms that are inherent in individuals. However, concepts and measures of coping strategies remain elusive and there is inadequate evidence that particular coping mechanisms used make a marked difference in terms of the risk for pathology or increased distress.

Rutter (1981) adds that we cannot speak of coping strictly as a tactic for dealing with specific events; we must also consider individual differences. Personal characteristics such as age, sex, genetic factors, temperament, intelligence and problem-solving skills are likely to be important attributes of stress-reducing mechanisms:

Age: Age and level of development tend to modify the form of a child's response to the parental separation (these differences will be outlined in the Wallerstein-Kelly study) . However, the general threshold of vulnerability to the effects of divorce does not seem to be significantly different in any one age group (Rutter, 1981)

Sex: Numerous studies (Hess & Camara, 1979; Wallerstein-Kelly,

1980; Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1980; Rutter, 1981) have found that boys in general appear to be more vulnerable than girls to adverse effects following a stressful life event. This discrepancy in vulnerability according to the child's gender varies depending on the types of stressors involved. Etiology for the sex difference in response to adverse events remains unclear but possible explanations have been proposed. For example, Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1980) suggest that parents may be less supportive of boys in stressful life circumstances and parents may respond negatively to the boys who are eliciting greater emotional-behavioural difficulties. Eme (1979) proposes that temperamental sex differences discriminate the distinct sex related coping responses. In yet other studies, Block et al. (1981), suggest that a greater stress salience for boys may account for the difference or that, as Rutter (1970) proposed, perhaps there are biological differences in vulnerability.

Intelligence and Other Skills: Rutter (1979) noted that there is strong evidence which suggests that high intelligence and positive scholastic attainment may serve as protective factors in the presence of chronic psychosocial adversity. Once again, etiology is difficult to establish and little is known on the hypothesized effect. In a later study, Rutter (1981) cites the possibilities of intelligence as a protective influence on high self-esteem and a sense of achievement and/or an asset to better problem-solving skills. Furthermore, Rutter proposes that perhaps for yet unknown reasons, intellectually capable children are

constitutionally less vulnerable.

Every child who is confronted with the adversities of parental separation is also confronted with his/her own coping realities. How these are used varies according to the child's individual attributes such as age, sex, intelligence and other related skills. In addition to personal characteristics, the environment of the stressor and the child's specific experience within the stressful experience influence the process of coping (Anthony, 1980).

Social Support: Good personal relationships and social supports may mitigate the effects of stressful life events (Lamb, 1977; Anthony, 1980; Rutter, 1981; Wallerstein-Kelly, 1980; Hetherington et al., 1980; Stiffman, 1985; Thoits, 1986). Hence, a lack of significant relationships may increase the adverse effects of stressors.

Considerable research indicates that relationships with others, especially with significantly related people, can result in marked decrease in the risk of psychological disturbance in response to stress experiences. Little is known about those aspects of support that are protective and the mechanisms and conditions that render support attempts beneficial or detrimental. Thoits (1982) cautions us that the function of social support must be interpreted with utmost care. Conceptualizations and operationalizations of support have been inadequate and specific buffer events have not been identified. In addition, direction of effect is difficult to establish. Support may decrease the likelihood of events occurring or life events may alter the

supports available to an individual. Thoits (1986) suggests that social support may be conceptualized as a "coping assistance" and thus usefully integrate coping processes and support processes within a broader theory of "stress-buffering".

Coping is usually understood as an attempt to enhance the fit between a person and his/her milieu or the attempt made to meet environmental demands to prevent negative repercussions. Research usually identifies two fundamental ways of coping with stressors, these being problem-focused and emotion-focused. Social-support often refers to functions that are carried out by a significant other to help out a distressed individual. Thoits (1986) suggests that given the common functions between coping and social support, the latter may be reconceptualized as coping assistance, or "the active participation of significant others in an individual's stress-management efforts" (p. 417). More specifically, social support may function like coping in that assistance is provided to help a person change the stressful situation, to change the meaning of the situation, to change his/her reaction to the situation, or to change all three.

Changes in family structure and environment which accompany divorce create a stressful situation. Divorce may also be perceived as a threat to one's sense of self, as for example, the child who blames him/herself for the breakup. Social support enhances an individual's coping efforts through either direct participation or through suggestions for alternatives to change the adversities of a stress event such as divorce. Support works like coping by

altering primary sources of threat to the individual. Changes are brought about through the mechanisms of behavioural and cognitive operations on the person's stressors; self-esteem, confidence and identity are restored as a result. It has been noted that social support is best received by people who are socioculturally compatible and who have undergone similar life situations.

DEVELOPMENT

Inherent in both stressful life events, such as parental separation, and in coping processes is the common factor of change. Parental separation brings about change in the structure, roles, and relationships within the family. Coping processes bring about changes either behavioural, cognitive or emotional to adapt to the stress-events. Masten and Garmezy (1985) state "Knowing how to promote change requires knowledge of developmental processes linking risk and protective factors with psychopathology and competence." (pp.42-43).

Development of the child is a major component to consider in the vulnerability and resilient factors that distinguish children in times of stressful events. Rutter (1981) reports that development, prior experiences in the individual's repertoire of adaptation, plays a major role in outcome of stress. He has enumerated five possible influences that may link early life experiences to future disorder. In the first possibility, stress events early in life may induce disorder that persists into later years independent of the initial provocation of the stressor.

Parental divorce experienced adversely by the child may promote continuing problems in early adult life. This link was mostly a function of prior associations between adversities in childhood and disorder in childhood (Douglas and Mann, 1979). Secondly, bodily changes resulting from events may influence future functioning. In a third possibility, Rutter suggests that early events may provoke altered patterns of behaviour which may only take the form of an overt disorder in later years. Fourthly, events such as parental separation lead to altered family structures or conditions. These may trigger a chain of psychosocial adversities which may result in disorder some years later. Lastly, early events may modify sensitivities to stress or alter styles of coping which will either protect from or predispose one to disorder in future life stress events.

All children in the course of their development will encounter many potentially stressful life events. Long term outcome of such occurrences will depend on the number of events experienced but most importantly on how they dealt with those stresses at the time. Were the stresses encountered with healthy adaptation, or did they lead to a sense of failure? Part of the developmental task is to promote adaptation and positive growth following various life events whether they are beneficial or stressful.

Hess and Camara (1979) report that the stress of parental separation impedes children's developmental process by absorbing much of the children's mental and emotional resources. Salient developmental tasks that occur during early and late latency-aged

children are those of building cognitive skills as a basis for learning, and acquiring social skills needed for securing positive peer relationships. The threat of loss of a primary bond to the parent who is leaving the household may provoke emotional consequences for children that in turn may disrupt or delay developmental progress of effective learning and play. Hess and Camara go on to describe parental separation as a "cognitive puzzle" for the children who must reorganize their social and affective world. This reorganization requires energy that is subtracted from academic endeavours and /or from peer relations. Wallerstein and Kelly (1981) support the hypothesis that learning is one of the central developmental tasks of children. Life stresses may impose temporary interruptions in the learning process which in turn may lead to significant academic problems if the process is not resumed within an appropriate time frame and within an adaptational environment.

Recently, Wallerstein (1983) proposed a broader framework to examine the effects of parental-separation in children. Using the concept of stress as a disequilibrating event requiring adaptation and change, Wallerstein described how children's initial responses are influenced mainly by age and developmental factors and, to a lesser extent, by sex differences. Children's ability to successfully overcome the divorce-engendered stress is partly related to initial responses, and directly related to children's long-term ability to address the coping tasks posed by divorce. As previously mentioned, parental separation is inherently a stressor

and precipitant of family change. During the process of marital breakdown, children, at different stages of development, must address particular tasks using their appropriate armamentarium. Coping tasks of children, as defined by Wallerstein, represent efforts of the children to adhere to the developmental pathway to overcome perceived difficulties. The sequence of the six tasks for children of divorce are as follows: 1) Children must acknowledge the marital rupture and understand its immediate consequences despite the many fantasies that may be evoked in children. The developmental factors are relevant to the perception and mastery of this task. Younger, more developmentally immature children will have difficulty separating the reality from the fantasized ideas about the divorce; 2) Children must be able to resume normal daily goals and activities with the appropriate pleasure and energy despite preoccupation about the home situation. Many school age children experience disruption in their abilities to concentrate and learn following marital breakdown. Others, especially those with a history of successful achievement in many areas and reliable peer support, were able to accomplish this task more readily; 3) Children must deal with the loss of one parent in the household and come to terms with the feelings of rejection that the parent departure may have instilled in the child. For younger children, the primary source of difficulty in this task stems from separation anxiety. The ability of the non-custodial parent to maintain a regular and positive contact with the children may help children alleviate their fears about the separation; 4) Children must be

able to forgive the parents and work through detrimental feelings of anger; 5) Related to the previous task of dealing with feelings evoked by a parental departure is the acceptance by children of the permanence of divorce; and 6) Finally, a major task, which is shared by all growing children but is heightened in children of divorce, is the capacity to resolve issues of relationship. Wallerstein suggests that perhaps the major developmental task for children of divorce is " To achieve realistic hope regarding future relationships and the enduring ability to love and be loved." (1983, p.295).

When tasks are successfully completed, Wallerstein proposes that children of divorce will likely be able to carry on prosperously into the adult years without significant psychological inhibition or behavioral deviance stemming from the stressful experience of parental separation (Wallerstein, 1983). It is noteworthy to add that these developmental tasks are for children of divorce above and beyond the normal developmental tasks that are inherent to all children.

It is evident from the studies reviewed that coping processes and developmental issues have a major role in predicting vulnerable and resilient factors in children following life-stress events.

MARITAL CONFLICT AND PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

Two components not yet discussed that have precipitated much concern in studies of children of divorce, are the issues of

conflict in the family prior to the marital breakup and the parent-child relationships following marital dissolution.

Reactions to divorce depend on the emotional changes prior to divorce and differ according to the conflict configuration (Anthony, 1980). If the marital relationship was not emotionally or physically abusive, children react, but symptoms are usually more transient. Early studies conducted by Rutter (1971, 1979) dealt with children in discordant homes where the child had either a good or a tumultuous relationship with at least one parent. Results showed that of the number of children living with one good parent relationship, only one-quarter of the children displayed a conduct disorder. Conversely, of the number of children living without at least one good parent relationship, a stunning three-quarters of these children developed a conduct disorder. Caution is warranted in interpretation of these findings given the small number of subjects. Nevertheless, these observations warrant further research into the possible effects of vulnerability and protective factors in childhood.

The study of Hetherington et al. (1980) has also shown that in the long term effects on children, a conflict-ridden intact family is more detrimental than a stable one-parent family situation, and a hostile parent is more deleterious to the development of children than the absence of a parent. However, hostility in the home is a detrimental force on the healthy development of children whether they are in intact or divorced families.

According to Anthony (1980), it is not so much the absence of

a parent that is detrimental to children's development, but rather it is the nature of the relationship between the child and the custodial-parent. These findings support those of Hess & Camara (1979). It may happen that unconsciously the custodial parent may attribute the absent parent's characteristics to a particular child, most often a child who is of the same-sex as the absent parent. In the case of maternal custody, the mother's projection of the father's image onto the son weighs down the child with an added pseudo-identity (Anthony, 1980). Accordingly, it is not surprising that the son adopts over time some of the father's attributes which were source of irritation between the couple and now source of conflict between parent-child. Similarly, other children may adopt, for fear of a second abandonment, the positive attributes of the custodial-parent and in doing so avoid parent-child conflicts. Some parents make requests of the child that are above his/her maturity level, placing additional stress upon the child (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1980).

Ahrons (1983) identifies within a maternal custodial arrangement two of the most disconcerting factors for children following the stress of the divorce; firstly, the absence of the father from the home and his ongoing relationship with his child and secondly the residual conflict between the parents. The researcher adds that a major methodological flaw in most of the father-absent literature is the failure to consider the duration of father-absence.

Given the high incidence of children living in separated homes

and the relatively high proportion of children who adjust positively, Ahrons (1983) stresses that it is important to conceptualize separation as a normative family transition. Ahrons describes five periods of transitions, similar to those tasks by Wallerstein (1983). In the first transition, individual cognition, children develop coping strategies to avoid the covert or overt conflict between the parents. These coping strategies may include outside family interests or withdrawal of emotional investment in the family unit. The second transition phase, metacognition, occurs when the family members come to realize that the couple unit is disintegrating, and as a result, the future becomes ambiguous. In the actual separation, phase three, the family is in a state of flux. Children may wonder at this point if both parents are still part of his/her family. Additionally, the redefined relationship between children and non-custodial parents creates uncertainties. During the fourth phase of transition, the family reorganization, two major stresses are evident; 1) defining the coparenting relationship; and 2) resolving custodial issues. It is important at this stage that coparental relationship be well defined as this new partnership allows parents to continue their childrearing duties and responsibilities following the marital break-up (Bohannon, 1971). It is essential that within this coparental unit, both parents establish separate relationships with the child. Essential to accomplish this, especially with younger children, is the redefinition of relationship between the former spouses. Consensus is needed between the parents even though the husband-

wife relation has ended. Ahrons(1983) suggests that there exists evidence that children who suffer most from parental separation are those who have been emotionally deprived from one parent. This factor is most evident in the phase of transition where the family unit is redefined. Recent research tends to reveal that more adaptive coping strategies are possible in a family system where the absent parent provides greater emotional support.

Grief (1979) reports that non-custodial fathers with infrequent postdivorce contact with their children were notably more depressed. Ahrons (1980, 1981) adds that these fathers were also more dissatisfied with their relationship with their children. Reciprocally, single-mothers were more depressed and overwhelmed by the extra burdens of dual role and responsibilities (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1976; Weiss, 1980). Both the Hetherington et al. (1979) and Wallerstein & Kelly (1980) studies have reported that children in mother custody homes who have little or no father contact suffered the most developmental and emotional stress. When the family is able to reorganize itself as a double unit or "binuclear" family system where both parents constitute an integral part of the child's world, the distress of the parental separation is lessened. Children can function without the apprehension that they have lost a parent.

Lamb (1977) has, through multiple studies of mother-custody homes, identified major social implications of father-absence on children's personality development. The nonpresence of the father figure in the home, is also an absence of a male role model for

boys who learn to perform through imitation and for girls who learn to complement through interaction. An important socializing agent and disciplinary figure is lacking. The absence of the husband also constitutes in the majority of cases, a loss of income which entails social stress for many single mothers. The wife has also lost a partner, a source of emotional support which when lacking can at times lead to social isolation. These different losses are of course qualified by previous family status such as income, available support systems, and previous marital conflict.

Impact of father-absence on sons.

The impact of father-absence on sons has been most noteworthy in past literature. Lamb (1977) reports the impact on the development of masculinity which is supported by the social-learning theory of sex-role development through identification process. More important than physical absence of fathers, is the psychological absence of fathers. Lamb cites several studies which attest that men who are nurturant are likely to have sons who identify with them and develop more secure sex roles.

Impact of father-absence on daughters.

Psychoanalytic and social-learning theories of sex role development emphasize the importance of same sex parent for the development of gender identity. Given the high number of father absence, many studies have accentuated the impact on boys who lose their primary identification figure. Less attention is given to

girls as they generally maintain contact with mothers, their primary role model.

Lamb (1977) suggests that reciprocal role learning is also of importance, especially for girls. A girl may learn to adopt behaviors complimentary to those of her father and incorporate these into her gender identity. As is the case for boys, girls are most affected by father absence during the early years of childhood. The effects themselves of father absence differ between gender, the girls not being affected until adolescence and the boys experiencing a much earlier or immediate effect.

Divorces may be preceded by emotional distancing and greater alienation between partners. In such instance, Lamb predicts that some children are minimally affected by the absence of the father following parental separation.

An important factor to consider in gender identity is the age of children. Children's recognition that they are female or male is established during the second and third years of life. The influence of family on the development of gender role is most salient at the ages of three to five.

Fathers appear to interact with sons and daughters in a more differentiated way than do mothers. Consequently, father absence is most likely to have a greater impact during early childhood development and less impact in later years where other adults can resume the role of socializing agent. Other studies have shown that the impact of father absence on children is also modulated by the mother's adjustment to the new social and economic demands that

result from separation (Biller, 1971).

Hess and Camara (1979) stress that a close, positive relationship with both parents reassures children that the separation conflict is not their fault and that the primary bond with each parent is not lost. This heightened confidence in the children allows them to properly channel energy for healthy growth in social and learning development.

Our review of the research thus far, supports the finding that parental divorce constitutes a stressful life event for the family unit. The repercussions of this stressor are experienced differently for both adults and children and between the individuals themselves. In fact, elements of individual differences in responses to the stressful life events are crucial to the direction of the stressor path. These individual differences include; factors that may constitute vulnerability or resilience, personal characteristics, a person's cognitive appraisal of the event, coping processes used to relate to the stressor, the developmental armamentarium of the children and the life-context surrounding the stress event.

Although all of these elements are intertwined with one another, the focus of this study is mainly concerned with the issue of resiliency. More specifically, special attention is given to those resilient factors associated with academic achievement in children following parental separation. The following section will review literature more closely related to this area.

PARENTAL SEPARATION AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Many literature reviews have documented the negative results of parental divorce on children (Emery, 1982; Felner, Farber, & Primavera, 1980; Guidubaldi & Perry, 1984; Hetherington, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978; Kurdek, 1981; Wallerstein, 1983). Roseby and Deutsch (1985), report however, that deterioration in school performance and behavior are among the most consistently reported outcomes associated with separation and divorce.

School is an integral part of children's environment. Family variables of status, stability, and the provision of role models affect children's academic and social behavior at school (Hetherington, 1972; Shea, 1976). Shinn (1978) reports that results in divorce-related research are complicated by the finding that children who come from single-parent families lower their expectations of achievement at school. These children exhibit various learning difficulties, such as inability to concentrate, short attention span, and anxiety about learning (Wodarski, 1982).

The large scale study conducted by the National Association of Elementary and Secondary School Principals and the Kettering Foundation (Brown, 1980; Lazarus, 1980; Zakariya, 1982) reported a disproportionately high number of children from single-parent families in low achievement groups and low proportion of these children in high achievement groups. Global school criteria such as grade point average, attendance, tardiness, suspension, student mobility and referrals for behavioral problems of single-parent

children were found to be more remarkable than those for children of intact homes.

Mundek (1980) reported similar results; adolescent students from recently divorced families earned significantly lower grade point averages, more demerits, and were absent significantly more often than adolescents whose families remained intact. Blanchard and Biller (1971) found that academic performance of high father-present groups was superior compared to boys from situations of low father availability. Following a literature review on the effects of the single-parent family on the academic achievement of children from such households, Dawson (1981) cites that children from one-parent families show poorer socio-emotional development and lower academic achievement. Furthermore, students from intact households have higher reading comprehensions than do students from homes of divorce. Similarly, a study conducted in a Health Examination Survey 1963-1965 (Svanum, Bringle, and McLaughlin, 1982) reported that scores on the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) and the Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT) were significantly depressed for father-absent children compared with father-present children. These results occurred only when socioeconomic status (SES) and divorce were not controlled. Guidubaldi et al. (1983b) conducted a nationwide study where SES factor was controlled and similar results were found. Data based on 341 children from divorced families and 348 children from intact families, revealed that within the divorced family group, boys scored lower on social and academic adjustment scores, performed more poorly on classroom

behavior ratings, were absent more frequently, had lower Full Scale IQ's and lower WRAT reading and spelling scores. In addition, grades in reading and math were lower, and these children were more likely to repeat a grade than children from intact families.

Despite the many reports of negative divorce-related impacts on academic achievement adjustment in children, several research findings are contradictory to those previously mentioned. For example, Fowler-Richards (1978) found no difference in intelligence or academic achievement between father-absent or -present homes. Hammond (1979, 1981) found that on a number of measures, including reading achievement, there were no significant differences between children of divorced and intact families. Other authors report overall positive effects of divorce on children's adjustment (Bernard & Nesbitt, 1981; Colletta, 1979; Kurdek & Siesky, 1980a; Reinhard, 1977).

In the often cited study of Wallerstein and Kelly (1976), 131 children from 60 families were assessed following recent parental separation. These children ranged from 2.5 to 18 years of age. Findings from the initial assessment at time of breakup revealed that most children from all age groups suffered feelings of anxiety, depression, worry about one or both parents, anger, loyalty conflicts, and guilt. The responses varied according to the age and developmental level of the individual.

In general, two groups were discerned and each of these featured unique responses. The first group, the preadolescents or later latency children, displayed regressive behaviours, i.e.

social withdrawal from involvement with friends and investment in school, irritability, aggressive behavior, powerlessness vis-a-vis the marital rupture, self-blame and intense anger at one or both parents. These youngsters were more inclined to align with one parent and have fantasies of reconciliation. It is also reported that half of these children suffered a severe drop in their school performance that lasted into the year following the marital breakup (Wallerstein, 1976, 1985).

The second group, all adolescents, demonstrated sadness, shame, embarrassment, and were more vulnerable to depression and acting out. They also tended to withdraw socially from friends and to invest less effort in school. Many were reported to worry about future and family but also showed mature and genuine feelings about helping their parents.

A follow-up study at 18 months revealed that although 50% of the preadolescents showed equilibrium in their lives, 50% still displayed depressive and aggressive behavior patterns. Young boys were significantly more troubled than girls in their performance and behavior in the school, social, and home environments (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976). Girls appeared to make a more steady recovery toward stability. Adolescents by contrast, were more able to distance themselves from the parental conflict, thereby avoiding loyalty conflicts. Few incidences of new distress were noted in this group at the time.

In their 5-year follow-up study, Wallerstein and Kelly (1980), noted several factors that contributed to the connection between

positive psychological adjustment in the children and the post-divorce family home environment. Basically, seven variables that were identified were; a) parental ability to resolve post-divorce conflict and anger; b) ability of custodial parent to successfully resume the parenting role; c) ability of non-custodial parent to keep a mutually satisfying relationship with the children; d) personality characteristics of children and the ability to develop coping skills; e) ability of children to find and use support systems; f) diminished depressive or angry responses by children; and, g) age and sex of children.

Preliminary findings from the 10-year longitudinal study of 113 children and adolescents revealed that certain psychological effects of divorce endured over long periods of time (Wallerstein, 1985). Almost 50% of late latency and adolescents from the early study were in school full-time at the 10-year follow-up. Of those out of school, five dropped out of college programs, and five dropped out of high school. All participants who dropped out of high school were girls, a striking finding considering the middle to upper class status of these families. Many youngsters maintained vivid memories of unhappy times around the marital separation. Resentment towards their parents and feelings of having missed out on the play, school, and family experiences enjoyed by intact families was still very much present. The researchers also reported that a significant number of women in comparison to men appeared to be experiencing distress in both their careers and present social relationships. Many of these

women were eager to avoid divorce for the sake of their yet unborn children. Others had strong commitments to values related to lasting marriage which included romantic love and fidelity (Wallerstein, 1985).

Much of the intense anger found at the 5-year mark had dissipated at the 10-year mark. Most had reached the conclusion that the break-up was inevitable and the best decision for their parents. An impressive solidarity between siblings highlighted the powerful need and effect of supportive network at the time of the marital rupture.

As noted in an earlier section, learning constitutes one of the central developmental tasks of children. Wallerstein & Kelly (1981) suggest that life stresses such as parental separation may impose temporary interruption in the learning process. This in turn, may lead to significant academic problems if the process is not resumed within a reasonable time frame and within an adaptational environment. Receptivity to learning may be compromised by emotional distress. Ability to concentrate, willingness to experiment with new concepts and overall attitude toward school may all be altered negatively.

In their investigation, Wallerstein and Kelly reported that two thirds of the children of divorced families performed average academic work of which one-half of these attained excellent academic performance. One-third of the children experienced some academic difficulties but no student was enrolled in a special education program. Following parental separation, teachers

reported a rise in anxiety and behaviour difficulties in the children, an increase in daydreaming and problems in concentration. In fact, intense sadness, daydreaming and poor ability to concentrate resulted in a decline of academic achievement for twenty percent of the students. Those children who failed to cope academically following separation, were described as mostly loners with few peer relationships, angry children and daydreamers. It is difficult to decipher if these problems reflected the tension of a poor marriage leading to deficits in parenting or departure of one-parent figure from the home leading to less attention being directed at school work or yet other extenuating circumstances. Other children showed little or no change in their school performance. These students maintained the same level of achievement prior to and following the stress event. Most of these children had performed poorly prior to separation and continued to perform poorly post-separation. Yet, other children were able to cope well at school. Wallerstein and Kelly observed that some of these children appeared to utilize the school experience as a support system. These children sometimes used the work structure and work load to help them keep "on track" with their academics. Energies seemed to be channeled into work whereas if left unstructured, would heighten emotional distresses. Class schedules and various routines seemed to help structure one aspect of the child's world. Unfortunately, other children retained their ability to maintain academically but suffered in their peer relations. Anxiety was often expressed in ways that hindered peer

contacts.

In a more comprehensive multivariate study, Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978) reported that children in divorced families during the first year following divorce, in comparison to children of intact families show more impulsive acting out disorders; they are more antisocial, aggressive and non-compliant; and they express more dependency, anxiety, depression, and difficulties in both social and academic settings. The research sample, which included 48 divorced and 48 intact, middle-class families and their preschool-aged children were assessed on multiple measures. These instruments included, parent interviews, structured diary records, laboratory and home observation of parent-child interactions, teacher-child and child-peer interaction, behavior rating scales by both parents and teacher, sex-role typing scales, personality tests, cognitive performance and finally, social development.

In general, it was found that parental coping patterns were less efficient in divorced parents. Divorced parents had difficulty with parenting tasks, made fewer maturity demands on their children, had less consistency in discipline, more difficulty in communicating with their children and displayed less affection and interaction.

A decline in positive mother-son interactions was noteworthy. It was suspected that declines in parenting skills led to more aggressive and coercive parental behaviors in turn increasing negative behaviors in the boys and leaving the mothers feeling incompetent and helpless.

In a two-year follow-up study, the Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978) results indicated that most of the negative effects of divorce had weakened considerably. It appeared that in two years following divorce, adjustment, coping patterns and equilibrium had established themselves in the now single-parent families.

More recently, results of a 6 year follow-up of the longitudinal study have indicated that as in earlier research, divorce has more adverse, long-term effects on boys (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1985). Mothers, sons, and the non-custodial parents rated the boys in divorced families to be more depressed and withdrawn, yet teachers and peers did not. Daughters of families with a divorced and non-remarried mother were as emotionally mature as those of non-divorced families. Boys of divorced families continued to show more externalizing behavior and less social competence both in the home and at school than sons in non-divorced families - even 6 years following divorce. The researchers state that negative life changes play a significant role in sustaining the development of behavior disorders in children, but little information is available to evaluate the effect of life changes and quality of family relationships on the adjustment of academic achievement in these children.

Kurdek and associates studied the importance of children's social-cognitive skills which are conducive to positive adjustment (Kurdek & Berg, 1983; Kurdek, Blisk, & Siesky, 1981; Kurdek & Siesky, 1980a, 1980b). In particular, low interparental stress and quality of relationship between child and non-custodial parent

seemed to encourage more positive post-divorce adjustment. Support systems played a significant role in adjustment. Younger children seemed to experience greater difficulty in divorce-related problems than their older counterparts.

In an American nationwide investigation concerning the impact of parental divorce on children's adjustment, Guidubaldi, Cleminshaw, Perry and McLaughlin (1983) looked at factors such as social and academic adjustment scores given a variety of home and school environments. The results provided evidence that divorce accounts for many adverse social and academic effects independently of well-defined SES measures which incorporated income, educational, and occupational levels of the parents. The repeated finding that variance in IQ is significantly related to SES was supported. It is noted however that divorce accounts for a substantial percentage of independent variance in non-intellectual measures of social and academic skill. Perry, Guidubaldi and Kehle (1979) suggest that classroom functioning and social skills have been shown to be non-intellective correlates of school success.

The study also revealed a significant sex difference in children's adjustment following parental divorce. Once again, boys experienced greater behavioral, social, and academic difficulties in comparison to girls from divorced families and boys from intact families. When IQ and family income were separately controlled, girls consistently performed better than boys. For example, divorce status for boys was significantly related to lower IQ, lower grades in reading and mathematics, and greater likelihood of

special class placement. The sex difference was found to persist and increase for older children: Boys in fifth grade experienced more difficulties than first or third grade boys. The age factor was not found in girls. Boys from the divorced group who maintained contact with the father (non-custodial parent) performed better academically and socially. For example, the divorced group of children who spontaneously discussed the non-custodial parent attained better scores on WRAT spelling and math, were more likely to be placed in a regular versus special class, and less likely of repeating a school grade. The maintenance of contact with both parents, particularly for boys in mother- custody households was strongly recommended.

Other results based on correlational findings suggested that children most likely to adjust to the family crisis have earlier and regular bedtimes, watch less T.V., have organized activities after school hours, have more frequent contact with relatives of the non-custodial parents, and have parents who encourage an enriched home environment, ie., hobbies and academic achievement.

In a 2-year longitudinal examination of the original sample of the aforementioned study, Guidubaldi and Perry (1985) conclude that children of divorce continue to experience poorer mental health than intact family peers. Results indicated that divorced-family status remains more powerfully related to maladjustment for boys than for girls. Boys from the divorced group experienced lower internal locus of control, lower ratings for behavior appropriateness, work effort, and happiness. When family income

index was controlled the results remained the same as above for boys, but divorced-family girls were higher on internal locus of control. When WISC-R Full Scale IQ was controlled, divorced-family boys displayed higher number of behavior problems, lower work effort, less appropriate behavior and happiness, and lower internal locus of control. The girls from the divorced group obtained poorer ratings of intellectual dependency, irrelevant talk and inattention as well as more total behavior difficulties. In general, divorced-family children displayed less social competence and task-related behaviors both at home and at school.

The majority of studies on the effects of divorce on children have examined the population of children reared by mothers and very few have looked at father-custody homes. In the Texas Custody Research Project, Warshak and Santrock conducted a systematic study on the social development of children in father-custody families in comparison with children in mother-custody and intact families. The focus was mainly set on children's conceptions and feelings related to divorce and on various factors that could influence these attitudes (Santrock & Warshak, 1979; Santrock, Warshak, & Elliott, 1982; Warshak & Santrock, 1983).

Results of this study revealed that the type of custody disposition is an important factor in children's post-divorce adjustment. The most interesting findings involved interaction between custodial parent and the sex of the children. More specifically revealing are the results which show that more socially competent behaviors are found in children living with the

same-sex parent (father-custody boys and mother-custody girls) than children living with opposite-sex parent (father-custody girls and mother-custody boys). In a more recent study conducted by Warshak and Santrock (1983), the authors reiterate the consistent finding that the opposite-sex child-custodial relationship is more problematic. One important feature of their finding was the continuing availability of the non-custodial parent as a significant factor in children's positive adjustment to parental divorce. This finding supports those discussed by Hess and Camara, 1979; Hetherington, Cox and Cox 1978; and, Wallerstein and Kelly, 1980.

Studies conducted by Radin (1981) and Shinn (1978) have shown that children, especially those from lower SES and whose fathers are absent tend to have poorer academic performance than their two-parent family counterparts. According to Lamb (1985), these findings reflect the fact that single-parent mothers, especially of lower socioeconomic class, are exposed to greater stresses that impede their availability to guide and stimulate their child's learning. Fathers who are highly involved with their children tend to have more cognitively competent and high achievement motivation children. This effect may reflect the traditional association between father and achievement or it could also reflect the advantages of the added stimulation to learning from two involved and relatively competent parents instead of one (Lamb et al., 1985).

Indeed, it is evident from the literature that there may be

important individual differences and home environment factors which determine how children react academically to parental divorce. One of these factors is the children's age at the time of the parents' separation (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Wallerstein, 1983, 1984; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976, 1980). Age has been found to shape both the cognitive understanding of the event and the coping and behavioral options in children's repertoire of responses (Wyman et al., 1985). Similarly, the child's gender seems to play a significant role. Hammond (1979, 1981) indicates that boys of divorced families adopt coping mechanisms that differ from those of boys in intact families while there were no significant differences for girls. Guidubaldi et al. (1983b) report that in divorced families, boys compared to girls and older children compared to younger children obtained lower scores on social and academic achievement tests. Other cited factors thought to be related to post-divorce adjustment include pre-divorce adjustment levels and prior mastery experiences (Wallerstein, 1983); parental conflict preceding, during, and after divorce; anger resolution between family members; the child's acquisition and/or feeling of a safe environment (Felner et al., 1980; Guidubaldi et al., 1983; Kudek & Siesky, 1980b; Longfellow, 1979) and support sources available to parents and children (Kurdek & Berg, 1983; Hetherington et al., 1978).

The reasons why some children react differently than others to divorce is not yet clearly understood (Copeland, 1985). The issue of vulnerability versus invulnerability is of great interest. It

is true that many studies indicate negative adaptation patterns in children from divorced homes, but equally true is the finding that some children adjust very well. In the realm of academic adjustment, successful coping is essential if children are to maintain at least one stable structure in their otherwise unstable environment. As stated by Stockard, Lang, and Wood (1985), students' grades are an important mechanism for advancement and success in life. Academic achievement, assumingly reflected by grades, is undoubtedly a major influence in children's lives. Whereas the family undergoes a structural change during the long process of separation and divorce, the school remains a stable and structured environment.

Children of divorce are children at risk. Children from separated homes, and/or low SES are highest at risk for school failure and "dropping out" as well as more serious disorders that such school failure predict (Felner et al., 1985). Yet many of these high risk children do not fail (Hammond, 1979; Wallerstein, 1983; Guidubaldi et al., 1983; Curry & Russ, 1985; Felner et al., 1985).

Much may be learned about a child's adaptive abilities by studying these "invulnerable" or "resilient" children. For example, environmental and familial conditions and personal predispositions that produce children more resilient to dysfunction and maladjustment than their peers may be examined (Felner et al., 1985). The identification of adaptive coping processes might enhance the development of theory and design of

effective prevention and intervention programs (Felner, Stolberg, & Cowen, 1975; Garmezy, 1981; Curry & Russ, 1985).

Unfortunately, little school-based data exist from which to identify environmental factors that can lead to successful adjustment in children (Roseby & Deutsch, 1985). Few experimentally designed studies with a clear theoretical focus on successful adaptation of children from divorced families exist in the school-based, or more precisely, the academic aspects of these children's lives. Guidubaldi et al., (1983) state clearly that "school-based support for children of divorce is a priority intervention, but we currently lack a detailed understanding of school-related criteria in school environments that may promote positive adjustment". Future investigations are needed to isolate the effects of the divorce process on children's achievement at school (Chapman, 1977; Goldstein, 1973; Shinn, 1978; Wodarski, 1982; Zajonc, 1976).

RATIONALE AND HYPOTHESES FOR THE STUDY

Most research involving children and divorce have focused on etiological factors that place children at risk. Few have studied what differentiates those children who adjust academically from those in similar circumstances who do not adjust academically or develop pathology. A greater understanding of factors or means that promote successful adaptation of children in schools may be beneficial. Firstly, this type of knowledge may help to identify those "high-risk" children from divorced homes who are most in need

of preventive interventions from mental-health professionals and teachers. Secondly, such information may enhance the effectiveness of interventions through application of the conditions that protect the resilient child to the more vulnerable one. On a third level, a better understanding of resiliency may strengthen our current theoretical understanding of healthy and unhealthy development in children following marital breakup. Garmezy (1987) states: "Health, not illness, is the norm of society; resistance not capitulation to mental disorder is the norm; adaptation and recovery from stress, and not breakdown, is the way of majority" (p. 164).

This study examines how children of parental separation who failed to maintain a constant level in their academic achievement differ from those children of parental separation who succeeded in maintaining or surpassing their previous level of academic standing.

MAJOR HYPOTHESES

1. As the literature reports, a redefinition of the family into a binuclear unit, whereby both parents establish ongoing parental responsibilities, promotes post-divorce adjustment in children. More time spent with both parents may enhance emotional stability and continuity in the family's structure and roles, may lessen feelings of anger and abandonment within the child, and may foster more reality-based views of the parents. For these reasons, it is hypothesized that Adjusted children will spend more time with

both parents following the parental separation than will Non Adjusted children.

2. As evidenced in several research studies, children living with same-sex parents showed more maturity, sociability and independence. According to social-learning and psychodynamic theories, children interacting with same-sex parent models are more likely to secure proper gender identity and heightened confidence in themselves. Opposite sex-pairing can lead to coercive parenting behaviors in that the custodial parent may ascribe negative physical or behavioral attributes to the child who may resemble the non-custodial parent. The child may fear a second abandonment or may try very hard to please the custodial parent and in so doing, invest less in promoting healthy growth in social and learning development. Thus, it is hypothesized that Adjusted children will be in the custody of same-sex parents significantly more often than will children in the Non Adjusted group.

3. The literature suggests that children's behavior cannot be explained satisfactorily in terms of personality characteristics alone. In fact, environment factors, such as availability of enriched experiences, materials, social activities, stability in living arrangements etc., may contribute to adaptation and healthy development following a stressful life event. Children whose parents encourage an enriched home environment may fare better academically. Hence, it is hypothesized that Adjusted children will

have more stimulating psychosocial home environments (greater total score on the Home Environment Questionnaire) than will Non Adjusted children.

4. Availability of social supports to the parents may mitigate the negative repercussions following a stressful life event and thus promote better parental adaptation. A parent who has coping assistance may be more available to the child and this may promote security and emotional stability within the child. Thus, the child is in turn supported in his adjustment and more available to invest in healthy learning development. Consequently, it is hypothesized that parents of Adjusted children will have greater social support systems than will parents of Non Adjusted children (higher Social Support factor score on the Single Parent Questionnaire).

5. The Wallerstein-Kelly and Hetherington, Cox and Cox studies have reported that children who experience either self-blame, or anger toward parents, fantasies about reconciliation or fear of abandonment may be preoccupied by these fears thus preventing good performance in other areas such as academics. Thus, it is hypothesized that Adjusted children will have better attitudes towards the parental separation (higher Total Scores on the Children's Separation Inventory) than will Non Adjusted children.

6. Mastery of the school environment is a major competence challenge for school-aged children: Motivation, ability to express

oneself, to socialize with peers, to follow class rules and to cope with different classroom situations are all various components which constitute competence. A child experiencing difficulties in coping with stress at home will be less amenable to cope with situations outside the home given that most resources will be focused on the familial stress experience. Thus, it is hypothesized that Adjusted children will have greater competency related behaviors than will Non Adjusted children (higher Total Scores on the Health Resources Inventory).

7. As suggested in the literature, meaningful parent-child attachment can reduce major stresses associated with divorce. These attachment bonds are based on a parent's ability to resume the parenting role and to be an appropriate coping model through physical and emotional availability. The parent's ability to implement external rules and to provide security and protection from external stressors will help the child build a positive sense of self. The child with a strong and positive image of him/herself will be more amenable to invest in the social and academic realms. Thus, it is hypothesized that parents of Adjusted children will describe better parent-child relationships (higher Total Scores on the Single Parent Questionnaire) than will those of Non Adjusted children.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

Data were collected from seventy-seven children and their separated or divorced parent. The group included 41 (53%) girls and 36 (47%) boys and subjects ranged in age at time of data collection from 9 to 15 years (\bar{x} = 11 years 5 months). At the time of parental separation, children ranged in age from 6 to 14 years (\bar{x} = 8 years 5 months). Also at the time of separation, 46 (60%) of the children were in primary grades, one, two and three, 27 (35%) were in intermediate grades four, five and six and 4 (5%) were in grades seven and eight. A mean of three years had elapsed between time of parental separation to time of data collection. In our sample, 61% of the parents were separated only, 38% were separated and divorced and 1% of the parents were separated from a common-law relationship. The participating parent was the "Academic Parent" as this is the one who routinely lived with the child throughout the academic year. The Academic Parent was not in all cases the legal sole-custodial parent. Consent for participation was obtained from the custodial parent but it was the Academic Parent who completed the questionnaires. Although there were no father-only custodial parents, 15% of the fathers were the Academic Parent and thus were respondents in the study. Seventy-seven percent of the mothers had sole custody and an equally large

percentage (85%) of the Academic Parents were mothers. There were 22% cases of joint custody cases whereby 8% of the children lived equally in both parents' home throughout the academic year. In a single case, the grandmother was both the custodial and academic parent. The grandparents adopted the child as an infant and the couple had recently separated.

The population was selected from children attending elementary schools in the Ottawa-Carleton region of Canada.

Subject selection was based on the following inclusion and exclusion criteria:

Inclusion Criteria:

1. The child's parents were separated (natural or legal adoptive parents no longer living together) for at least 10 months prior to the post-measure of academic performance.
2. The child was in the last trimester of grade one or in grades two through eight at the time of parental separation (school grade data is unavailable prior to the end of grade one).
3. The child was in a regular grade class placement prior to separation.
4. An adopted child was adopted prior to 1 year of age.

Exclusion Criteria;

1. The child experienced the death of a parent.
2. The parent remarried or cohabitated with a new partner 10 months following the separation.
3. The child was hospitalized or had suffered a chronic illness

which prevented the child from attending school for more than 1 month during the academic year prior to post-measure.

4. The child was enrolled in a special program. (ie. learning disability).
5. The child had an older sibling participating in the present research.

Procedure

Children participating in this study were those who had experienced the separation or divorce of their parents when the child was of elementary school age and had at least completed grade one.

Subjects were recruited through various channels, the most prominent one being directly through the schools. Upon approval from the Ottawa Board of Education, the Ottawa Roman Catholic Separate School Board and the Carleton Board of Education Research Committees, envelopes were distributed in 40 elementary schools within the Ottawa-Carleton regions during the 1986-1987 academic year. Envelopes were also distributed to all members of two Ottawa area single-parent associations following a presentation of the study at their bi-monthly meeting. Thirdly, a description of the study and a request for participants was placed in 24 local community centre newsletters. In addition, an advertisement was placed in a widely distributed Ottawa newspaper. Respondants from the advertisements contacted the researcher directly by phone. In total, 25 newsletter advertisements were printed and 6,720

envelopes were distributed to schools and associations.

All children, not only those from single-parent homes, were requested to take envelopes home. This distribution pattern was chosen so that children from one-parent homes were not singled out in the classroom. Children from grades one, two and three, although these grades at separation were included, did not take envelopes home because the independent measure in the study is the child's grades in reading, writing and arithmetic prior to and following the parental separation. The pre-measure was the average of the grade points in these academic areas taken from the two trimester report cards preceding the parental separation (actual date one parent moved away from the family household and not the legal separation or divorce date). A minimum of ten months (the equivalent of one academic year) must have passed between time of separation and reading of the next two consecutive trimester report card grades. This time frame between time of separation and post-measure was chosen to allow the average grade mark fluctuation in an academic year to occur. Children below grade three were probably too young at time of separation to have allowed the necessary time frame to elapse between pre and post grade measures.

In order to assess what constituted an average grade mark fluctuation for children in the Ottawa-Carleton region, a separate study was conducted by the Research Committee from the Ottawa Board of Education (Parkin, 1987). Overall it was found that marks were relatively stable and that the average fluctuation did not

typically exceed one-third of a letter grade (refer to School Record Questionnaire, measures section for further detail on mark fluctuation). Children who's marks decreased by more than 1/3 of a letter grade (or 1 point on a 13 point scale) were placed in the non-academically adjusted group ("Non Adjusted" group). Children who's marks fluctuated within 1/3 letter grade or increased in grade were placed in the academically adjusted group ("Adjusted" group.)

The envelopes distributed to the school children included a letter (Appendix A) describing the study and invited single-parents to participate. Parents were informed that the purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of parental separation on children's school achievement. Of more specific interest, were factors that may promote positive adjustment in children following parental separation. Those parents interested in the study were to complete an attached parent information form (Appendix B) which was forwarded directly to the researcher in a provided postage-paid envelope. This procedure avoided extra school involvement and provided the parents with a sense of direct contact with the researcher rather than with the school. A total of 433 responses were received of which 77 became research subjects. The two most common reasons for non-eligibility of the remaining 356 subjects were: 1) the child was not in school at time of the parental separation; and 2) the single parent home was not due to marital breakup but rather to a parent death or unwed mother status.

Upon receipt of the parent information form, the parent was

contacted by phone. The possible participants were further informed about the research and screened for participation according to inclusion and exclusion criteria. An individual appointment was then set for each child and his/her parent. During the home visit, an informed consent form (Appendix C) was signed, permission was given to review the child's Ontario School Record (Pupil school Record - Ontario Ministry of Education, O. Reg 271, s. 237) and the various measures were explained. Afterwards, the Parent Information Questionnaire (Appendix D) and family demographics were collected in a semi-structured interview format. The parent was then instructed on how to complete various questionnaires - the Home Environment Questionnaire, and the Single Parenting Questionnaire. Given the length of time required to carefully complete these questionnaires, the parents were given a week or two to do so at their convenience. Following the parent interview, the child was asked to complete the Children's Separation Inventory only after the parent had thoroughly read the questionnaire. The child was informed that there were no right or wrong answers and that following completion, the child had the options of showing the completed Inventory to his/her parent or handing it directly back to the researcher. Most children opted to give the answered questionnaire directly back to the researcher. The researcher remained available via telephone to deal with any uncertainties and approximately two weeks following the initial home visit, the researcher returned to the home. At this time, the questionnaires were verified for completion, questions were

clarified and the completed data were collected.

Having obtained the name of the child's teacher and school, the experimenter then proceeded to gather the school data. Each child's school achievement record was reviewed and grades pre and post separation were obtained (Appendix E). The teacher of the participating children was asked to complete the Health Resources Inventory (HRI). It was left to the discretion of the school principal whether or not to conceal the participating child's identity. In the majority of cases, the teacher completed the HRI knowing the child's status. In a few cases, the identity was hidden by instructing the teacher to rate five children on the HRI, then the principal discarded all questionnaires except for that of the research subject which was handed back to the experimenter. Seventy-one of the seventy-seven Health Resources Inventory questionnaires were completed by the teachers and recovered at the school by the researcher. The remaining six teachers would not co-operate with the investigation resulting in six sets of incomplete school data.

Measures

1. Parent Information Questionnaire (Appendix D)

This questionnaire served to gather demographic data from the family during the home visit. Variables such as child's age, grade, date of birth, visitation patterns with non-custodial parent and parent's employment, education and other information pertaining to the separation were obtained.

2. Home Environment Questionnaire (HEQ; Appendix F)

The Home Environment Questionnaire (Laing & Sines,, 1982), is a 2 form measure of 10 variables used to describe the psychosocial environments of children. The first form, HEQ-2R, is suitable for use with families in which there are two parents; the other form, HEQ-1R, is for use with one-parent families. Only the HEQ-1R was used in this study.

The HEQ-1R consists of 91 true-false items deigned to distinguish 10 separable dimensions of the objective and verifiable psychosocial environments of children who live in single-parent families (Sines, Clarke & Lauer, 1984). The HEQ-1R was developed to determine what proportion of the observable behavior presented by children can be explained or accounted for by the independant contribution of environmental conditions to which they are exposed. The theoretical rationale for the HEQ follows Murray's (1938) concept of environmental "press". The term "press" refers to separable and quantifiable dimensional characteristics of the physical and social environment that have the potential to affect a person in that environment. The goal that led to the development of the HEQ was to partition the variance in children's behavior into portions that could be attributed to environmental influences, to personality characteristics , and to their interactions. The Home Environment Questionnaire has been carefully constructed to maintain the conceptual and methodological distinctions between

behavior, environment, and personality variables. Items are descriptive of some aspect of children's environments, as opposed to being descriptive of children's behavior. For the total group of single-parent families, the correlations between the rated social desirability of a "true" response for the items in HEQ-1R and the proportion of the one-parent families that respond "true" to those items was $+.32$. Sines, Clarke and Lauer (1984), have demonstrated that HEQ scales are relatively independent and not significantly related to the age of the target child. Most of the scales are reasonably internally consistent and several of the HEQ scales were found to be significantly related to several dimensions of children's clinically important behavior (Laing & Sines, 1982).

The following 10 variables are measured by the HEQ; Achievement, Aggression-External, Aggression-Home, Aggression-Total, Supervision, Change, Affiliation, Separation, Sociability, and Socioeconomic Status. A composite Total Score of the factors was calculated.

Data on the HEQ were obtained from a largely white, middle and lower-middle socioeconomic class families. Since the norms are based on such a population, normative data from other regions and settings would enhance the demographic generalizability.

A basic assumption underlying the use of the HEQ is that the respondent gives answers that reflect the actual characteristics of the child's psychosocial environment and not answers that are socially desirable. Direct empirical studies of the truthfulness of parent's responding are yet to be undertaken.

The test-retest reliability and the interjudge reliability of the HEQ are unknown. However, the data available at this time provide encouraging support for the hypothesis that children's observable behavior can be accounted for to some degree by the HEQ measures of environmental press (Sines, 1983, Sines et al. 1984).

3. Children's Separation Inventory (CSI; Appendix G)

A literature review conducted by Berg and Kurdek (1978) revealed that children who experience a parental separation often express unique attitudinal problems concerning the marital breakup. Misconceptions about the separation and misperceptions of past present and future family relationships may underlie the child's more overt emotions and behaviors. The Children's Attitudes Toward Parental Separation Inventory (CAPSI) (Berg, 1979) was therefore constructed to measure the presence of attitudinal problems most consistently referred as sources of stress in children following a parental separation. Tests of reliability, validity and item analysis were performed and resulted in substantial revisions of the CAPSI, the revised test resulted in the Children's Separation Inventory (CSI). The CSI is a self-report instrument which consists of 48 items divided into six scales or attitudinal concerns. The six scales are; Peer Ridicule and Avoidance, Paternal Blame, Maternal Blame, Self Blame, Fear of Abandonment, and Hope of Reunification. The Total Score is a composite score of the six scales.

Reliability and validity studies of the CSI are based on the

CAPSI and are presently under review. Test-retest reliability for the CAPSI Total score is established at .83 (Berg, 1979). Roseby and Deutsch (1985) report that CAPSI appears to have face validity in that the attitudinal problems are consistently agreed upon in the clinical literature as sources of stress. Berg (1979) found no differences in scores of males and females on the CAPSI. Berg (1983) reports that no relationship of scores with sex was found.

4. Single Parenting Questionnaire (SPQ; Appendix H)

The Single Parenting Questionnaire (Stolberg & Ullman, 1985) consists of 88 questions which are intended to assess aspects of single parenting which impact on post-divorce child adjustment. The questions tap various aspects of a parent's interaction with the target child (eg., How often does your child come to talk with you about a problem?) Parents rate the questions on a four-point scale frequency of occurrence scale. Each item is keyed from least to most or most to least. Higher scores reflect better parenting skills. The six normed dimensions of single parenting are; Problem Solving Skill, Availability of Support Systems, Parental Warmth, Parent-Imposed Rules, Enthusiasm for Parenting, and Discipline/Control Procedures. Total Score is a summation of the six scales.

Alpha coefficients for the scales range from .59 to .85; the Total Scale yielded an alpha coefficient of .85. Test-retest correlations range from .40 to .67 with .52 for the Total Score. There are significant correlations between all SPQ and Fisher

Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS) scales (Stolberg & Ullman, 1985). The SPQ demonstrates statistical strength in its scales, stability over time, potential stability across observers, and concurrent validity. However substantial inter-rater reliability estimates have been difficult to demonstrate. The measure is primarily intended to assess the parent's perception of their own parenting style. This factor, in itself is problematic however moderate statistical support has been demonstrated for consistency of ratings across rater. Interpretation of data in light of methodological constraints suggests that inter-rater consistency is at least adequate for the purpose of the instrument. Obtained statistical support, demonstrates that the SPQ may be a useful measure of post-divorce adjustment and related skills in parents.

5. Health Resources Inventory (HRI; Appendix I)

The Health Resources Inventory is a teacher measure of primary-grade children's competency-related behavior devised by E.L. Gesten (Gesten, 1976). This checklist was designed to temper the emphasis on pathology that is present in many other comparable questionnaires. Teachers rate all 54 HRI items according to how well they described children on a 5-point scale from not at all (1) to very well (5). Items cover several competence related dimensions including self-concept, affective expression, classroom response, motivation, interpersonal skills, achievement, and socialization. Factor analyses was performed and resulted in a five factor structure: Good Student, Gutsy, Peer Sociability, Rules, and

Frustration Tolerance. The Sum Factors is a composite index of competence computed by summing the five factor scores.

Intercorrelations among individual HRI factors are positive and significant, ranging from a low of .28 to a high of .53 (Mdn $r = .47$). An exact factor scoring, taking into account item intercorrelations was used instead of the usual procedure of constructing approximate factor scales exclusively from highly loading items. Test-retest reliability for the Total Score or Sum Factors was .87. Each component subscale proved to be internally consistent and each represented an important aspect of a broadly defined concept of competence in young school children. Parametric results reveal that girls for the most part are rated significantly more competent than boys except on the Gutsy (adaptive assertiveness) factor. Also, city children were judged to have fewer competencies than county children. These results are consistent with past studies with symptom scales (Gesten 1976).

Two empirical studies confirmed the HRI's ability to discriminate between clinically disturbed and normal children and to distinguish levels of competence within a normative sample.

Limitations of this scale include both methodological limitation and limitations of generalization. Methodological concern derives from the presence of a dominant first factor in the unrotated factor solution. Gesten (1976) notes that the conceptual argument on which the present competence model rests is that competence is best seen as a sum, perhaps weighted of several "competencies" in different domains. Competence may have a general

factor but there may be meaningful competence subcomponents that, though related, have considerable independence and diagnostic utility. Other methodological issues relate to the exclusive use of teachers as raters. Teachers may be biased, as counterweight for such bias it is important that competence be studied from multiple perspectives including judgements of both peers and an independent observer. Another limitation is that in the correlational study, the same teacher had to score both the pathology and health scales for target children thus possibly spuriously inflating the correlations.

The HRI was developed as a competence measure for young school children. Since competence indicators may vary across situation or age levels, the HRI should not be seen as a generalized competence measure .

Despite methodological and generalizability limitations, a study by Gesten (1976) suggests that the HRI is a potentially useful measure of primary grade children's competence.

6. School Record Questionnaire (SRQ; Appendix J)

The child's achievement grades in reading, writing and arithmetic as well as the child's class placement, number of schools attended since kindergarten and number of grades repeated were retrieved from the child's report cards and Ontario School Record (legislation governing student records embodied in the Education Act of Ontario, 1974).

In order to have grade marks relate to a common framework,

given that marking schemes vary from school to school and within the school, the marks were converted to a 13 point scale whereby A+ = 1, A = 2, A- = 3, ... D = 11, D- = 12 and F = 13 represented a failure. This grade conversion was used in a research project conducted by the Research department at the Ottawa Board of Education in order to establish the grade mark fluctuation of an average child during an academic year (Parkin, 1987). Given that data from this grade mark fluctuation research was used to establish the "Adjusted" and "Non Adjusted" groups in the present investigation, the same grade conversion scheme was used for this research.

Students received anywhere from 1 to 4 submarks for each subject during each term. For example, a student from one school may have a single mark per term for reading, while another student may have various marks for "oral reading", "reading comprehension" and "word attack skills". The number of grade marks varied from school to school and from year to year. In order to arrive at a comparable and composite number, each student's mark was first translated to the 13 point-scale and within each subject area for reading, writing and arithmetic, then the marks were pooled to make one composite mark per subject per term. Pooling was done by taking the mean of all marks noted in the school report cards for each of the three subject areas. Given that two report cards were reviewed pre-parental separation and two report cards post-parental separation, each subject area for pre measure was again pooled as was each subject area for post measure. Final grades showed one

mark for each subject in pre-measure and each subject post-measures. Fluctuation between pre-grades and post-grades was determined by using these pooled marks. A global grade fluctuation was the difference between pre and post pooled measures of reading, writing and arithmetic.

In the Ottawa Board of Education research findings (Parkin, 1987) it was noted that overall, grade marks remain relatively stable. The average fluctuation did not typically exceed $1/3$ of a letter grade or 1 point on the 13 point scale excluding math at the grade 7 and 8 level where the average fluctuation was slightly greater than one. Given the small number of participants in this grade level at time of parental separation, the one point difference was used to establish the fluctuation pattern of the research subjects.

Children whose marks decreased more than $1/3$ of a grade mark between pre- and post-measure were placed into the "Non adjusted" group. Those children whose marks did not fluctuate by more than $1/3$ of a grade mark or whose marks increased were placed into the "Adjusted" group.

Data Analysis

The investigation is based on a 2 group sample case study. T-tests and Chi Squares were used to verify the statistical differences of the various hypotheses. Two, $2 \times 2 \times 2$ Analyses of Variance procedures were used to test the effect of grade at separation, sex, and pre and post global grades on the two

separation, sex, and pre and post global grades on the two adjustment groups. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Revised edition "X", (SPSS X) was used for these analyses.

In all analyses, the significance level was set at .05 in order to both reduce the Type I error risk and for practical importance. Obtained alphas that ranged between .05 and .09 were treated as a statistical trend for discussion purposes. Given the heightened interest in the issue of the "resilient" child, the freedom to discuss statistical trends allows one to generate more readily, hypotheses for future research and in turn, promote discussion and new ideas. Since hypothesized effects were predicted prior to statistical analyses, a one-tailed p value was used for examining the statistical significance of the individual hypotheses.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Demographic Characteristics of Adjusted and Non Adjusted Children

Table 1 summarizes the demographic characteristics of Adjusted and Non Adjusted children. The Adjusted children do not differ from Non Adjusted children in their age at separation, age at time of data collection, grade at separation, grade at time of data collection, number of close friends and hours of play during the average week.

Insert table 1 about here

Demographic Characteristics of Parents of Adjusted and Non Adjusted Children

Fifteen percent of the 77 Academic Parents were fathers and eighty-five percent were mothers.

A breakdown of parent demographics according to Adjusted and Non Adjusted children is presented in Table 2.

Insert Table 2 about here

Comparison of the parents earned income, education levels

Table 1

Demographic characteristics of Adjusted and Non Adjusted children

	N	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	d.f.	p
Age at separation						
Adjusted	54	8.75	1.79	-1.06	75	0.290
Non Adjusted	23	8.30	1.52			
Age at data collection						
Adjusted	54	11.70	1.51	-0.26	75	0.795
Non Adjusted	23	11.60	1.34			
Grade at separation						
Adjusted	54	3.44	1.65	-0.89	75	0.374
Non Adjusted	23	3.08	1.47			
Grade at data collection						
Adjusted	54	6.33	1.51	-0.31	75	0.757
Non Adjusted	23	6.21	1.45			
Number of close friends*						
Adjusted	54	2.43	1.03	-1.05	74	0.296
Non Adjusted	23	2.17	0.88			
Play (hours/week)**						
Adjusted	54	2.85	1.36	-0.19	74	0.849
Non Adjusted	23	2.78	1.44			

Note. * (0= no friends; 1= one friend; 2= 2-3 friends; 3= 4-5 friends)

** (0= 0-1 hr/wk excluding school hours; 1= 2-4 hrs/wk; 2= 5-7 hrs/wk
3= 8-10 hrs/wk; 4= 10> hrs/wk)

Table 2

Demographic characteristics of the parents of
Adjusted and Non Adjusted children

	N	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	p
INCOME					
Mother					
Adjusted	54	20453	7285	0.56	0.576
Non Adjusted	23	21673	9242		
Father					
Adjusted	41	27621	6551	0.64	0.528
Non Adjusted	15	28866	6303		
EDUCATION					
Mother					
Adjusted	52	13.96	1.92	-0.87	0.386
Non Adjusted	21	13.52	1.99		
Father					
Adjusted	50	14.4	2.31	-1.91	0.061
Non Adjusted	19	13.4	1.99		
HOURS WORK/WEEK					
Mother					
Adjusted	44	34.48	10.14	1.82	0.074
Non Adjusted	20	39.08	6.89		
Father					
Adjusted	44	39.39	5.38	1.44	0.167
Non Adjusted	17	43.85	12.32		

and the number of hours worked per week reveals that the two groups do not differ significantly on these measures.

Adjusted and Non Adjusted Children

Children whose global academic scores decrease between pre and post separation measure are classified as Non Adjusted. Those whose scores remain the same or increase between pre and post separation measures are classified as Adjusted. Global grade score is an average of the composite of the reading, writing and mathematics scores on two trimester report cards pre and two trimester report cards post separation. Results are given for Global grade scores and for the three separate subjects of Reading, Writing and Mathematics. The criterion of a decrease of greater than one-third of a grade mark for grouping Non Adjusted and Adjusted children creates a sample of 54 Adjusted subjects and 23 Non Adjusted subjects.

On pre separation Global grade scores, Table 3 reveals that the two groups of children did not differ significantly on pre-measure grade points. On the average, the Non Adjusted children obtained a 5.4 point grade score or a "B" letter grade whereas Adjusted children obtained a 6.3 point grade score or a "B-" letter grade.

Insert Table 3 about here

Post separation grade scores for the two groups are presented in Table 4, and reveal a significant difference

Table 3

Pre-separation grade scores for Adjusted and Non Adjusted children

	N	\bar{X}	S.D.	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
Global					
Adjusted	54	6.29	3.02	-1.27	0.208
Non Adjusted	23	5.42	1.98		
Reading					
Adjusted	55	5.96	2.34	-1.10	0.275
Non Adjusted	22	5.31	2.45		
Writing					
Adjusted	56	7.23	6.18	-1.62	0.109
Non Adjusted	21	5.64	2.44		
Math					
Adjusted	44	5.50	2.81	-1.02	0.313
Non Adjusted	33	4.79	2.73		

Note. A+ = 1, A = 2, A- = 3, ..., D = 11, D- = 12, F = 13

between the two groups on Global, Reading, Writing and Math grade scores.

Insert Table 4 about here

Children of separation in the Adjusted group obtained on the average, a 5.4 point grade score which is the equivalent to a "B" letter grade whereas, the Non Adjusted children of separation obtained on average a 7.8 point grade score which is the equivalent to a "C" letter grade.

Table 5 presents the distribution of boys and girls in the different grade levels at the time of separation. For the purposes of this study, the grades 1, 2, and 3 were grouped as primary grades, grades 4, 5, and 6 made up the intermediate elementary grades and grades 7 and 8 the senior elementary grades.

Insert Table 5 about here

Sixty percent of the children at time of separation were in the primary grades, thirty-five percent were at the intermediate level and only five percent were in the senior grades. In the senior grades, there were no children in the Non Adjusted group. As for the total group of subjects, distribution of boys and of girls between the Adjusted and Non Adjusted group were of similar proportion.

Table 4

Post-separation grade scores for Adjusted and Non Adjusted children

	N	\bar{X}	S.D.	\underline{t}	\underline{p}
Global					
Adjusted	54	5.48	2.14	4.45	0.0001
Non Adjusted	23	7.82	2.00		
Reading					
Adjusted	55	5.09	2.36	4.69	0.0001
Non Adjusted	22	7.80	2.25		
Writing					
Adjusted	56	5.68	2.28	4.35	0.0001
non Adjusted	21	8.18	2.32		
Math					
Adjusted	44	5.39	2.96	2.80	0.007
Non Adjusted	33	7.37	2.53		

Note. A+ = 1, A = 2, A- = 3, ..., D = 11, D- = 12, F = 13

Table 5

Distribution of girls and boys in various grades
at time of separation

Grade at Separation	<u>Boys</u>		<u>Girls</u>		Total
	Adjusted	Non Adjusted	Adjusted	Non Adjusted	
1-2-3	14	8	18	6	46 (60%)
4-5-6	8	5	10	4	27 (35%)
7-8	1	0	3	0	4 (5%)

An approximately equal number of boys ($N = 36$) and girls ($N = 41$) participated in the study.

Post separation Global grade scores by grade and sex is presented in Table 6.

Insert Table 6 about here

A 2 (Grade) X 2 (Sex) ANOVA was carried out on pre-global and post-global scores in order to examine any effects of age and sex on Global Adjusted and Non Adjusted scores. The findings (Appendices K & L) resulted in no statistically significant effects.

Examination of Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicted that Adjusted children would have greater access to both parents following the parental separation. Greater access to parents was measured by the number of days spent during one month with the Non Academic parent. T-tests were conducted on the number of days per month spent with the Non Academic parent. As indicated in Table 7 on Global grade scores and Writing, Adjusted spent significantly more days per month with the Non Academic parent, than did Non Adjusted children ($t(75) = 1.90, p = .030$ and $t(75) = 2.30, p = .02$ respectively).

Insert Table 7 about here

Table 6

Post-separation Global grade scores by grade and sex

Grade	Sex	Adjusted	Non Adjusted
1-2-3	boys	6.39 ± 1.93	7.32 ± 2.02
	girls	5.69 ± 2.21	7.76 ± 1.51
4-5-6	boys	5.23 ± 2.70	8.30 ± 3.16
	girls	4.75 ± 1.72	8.29 ± 1.22
7-8	boys	4.33 ± 0.00	=====
	girls	3.39 ± 1.20	=====

Table 7

Time per month spent with the Non-Academic parent for
Adjusted and Non Adjusted children*

	N	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p (one-tailed)
Global						
Adjusted	54	2.01	1.48	1.90	75	0.030**
Non Adjusted	23	1.34	1.22			
Reading						
Adjusted	55	1.83	1.49	0.17	75	0.431
Non Adjusted	22	1.77	1.34			
Writing						
Adjusted	56	2.02	1.48	2.03	75	0.023**
Non Adjusted	21	1.28	1.19			
Math						
Adjusted	44	1.86	1.52	0.32	75	0.375
Non Adjusted	33	1.75	1.34			

Note. ** $p < 0.05$, one-tailed

*0= one day/month; 1= 1-2 days/month; 2= 3-4 days/month;

3= 5- days/month

Examination of Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 predicted that there would be significantly more Adjusted children that were in the custody of same-sex parents (boys with fathers and girls with mothers) than Non Adjusted children. In order to ascertain whether different or same sex pairing were unevenly represented in the Adjusted and Non Adjusted groups, a Chi square analysis was carried out on Global, Reading, Writing and Math grade scores. The results in Table 8 indicated no significant difference between the observed and expected distributions on any of the measures.

Insert Table 8 about here

Examination of Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 predicted that Adjusted children would have more stimulating psychosocial home environments, reflected by a greater Total Score on the Home Environment Questionnaire than the Non Adjusted children. In order to examine this hypothesis, a t-test was conducted on the Total Scores on the Home Environment Questionnaire for Adjusted and Non Adjusted children.

Insert Table 9 about here

Results in Table 9 revealed no significant differences between groups.

Table 8

Sex pairing for Adjusted and Non Adjusted children

GLOBAL scores	Sex pairing		Total
	Different	Same	
Adjusted	30	24	54 (70%)
Non Adjusted	12	11	23 (30%)
Total	42 (54.5%)	35 (45.5%)	N = 77

Note. χ^2 (d.f.=1) = 0.0005, p=0.4909

READING scores	Sex pairing		Total
	Different	Same	
Adjusted	33	22	55 (71%)
Non Adjusted	9	13	22 (29%)
Total	42 (54.5%)	35 (45.5%)	N = 77

Note. χ^2 = 1.6041, p=0.1026

WRITING scores	Sex pairing		Total
	Different	Same	
Adjusted	33	23	56 (73%)
Non Adjusted	9	12	21 (27%)
Total	42 (54.5%)	35 (45.5%)	N = 77

Note. χ^2 = 1.0088, p=0.1576

MATH scores	Sex pairing		Total
	Different	Same	
Adjusted	25	19	44 (57%)
Non Adjusted	17	16	33 (43%)
Total	42 (54.5%)	35 (45.5%)	N = 77

Note. χ^2 = 0.0534, p=0.4085

Table 9

Home Environment Questionnaire Total Score for Adjusted
and Non Adjusted children :

	N	\bar{X}	S.D.	\underline{t}	df	\underline{p} (one-tailed)
Global						
Adjusted	54	43.93	4.87	0.01	75	0.496
Non Adjusted	23	43.91	5.26			
Reading						
Adjusted	55	43.49	4.71	-1.21	75	0.115
Non Adjusted	22	45.00	5.49			
Writing						
Adjusted	56	43.80	4.60	-0.34	75	0.367
Non Adjusted	21	44.23	5.92			
Math						
Adjusted	44	43.56	4.99	-0.72	75	0.237
Non Adjusted	33	44.39	4.96			

Examination of Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 predicted that parents of Adjusted children would have greater social support systems than parents of Non Adjusted children. Thus, it was expected that Adjusted children's parents would score more highly on the Support factor of the SPQ than parents of Non Adjusted children. As revealed in Table 10 there were significant differences in the Global and Math scores between the groups. However, the means were in the opposite direction to what was hypothesized. In particular the results reveal that the parents of the Non Adjusted group scored higher on the Social Support factor than the parents of the Adjusted group.

Insert Table 10 about here

Examination of Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 predicted that Adjusted children would have better attitudes toward the parental separation than their Non Adjusted counterparts. Better attitudes are reflected by a lower Total Score on the Children's Separation Inventory. Table 11 indicates that although there were no significant differences between the groups, all the means were in the predicted direction and a trend was evident on the Global Scores.

Table 10

Social Support scores for Adjusted and Non Adjusted children

	N	\bar{X}	S.D.	\underline{t}	df	\underline{p} (one-tailed)
Global						
Adjusted	54	25.33	2.56	-2.03	75	0.023*
Non Adjusted	23	26.60	2.44			
Reading						
Adjusted	55	25.60	2.34	-0.61	75	0.271
Non Adjusted	22	26.00	3.13			
Writing						
Adjusted	56	25.67	2.57	-0.20	75	0.422
Non Adjusted	21	25.81	2.65			
Math						
Adjusted	44	25.04	2.68	-2.74	75	0.004*
Non Adjusted	33	26.60	2.16			

Note. * $p < 0.05$, one-tailed

Insert Table 11 about here

Examination of Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 predicted that Adjusted children would have greater competency related behaviors as rated by teachers than Non Adjusted children. Greater competency related behaviors are reflected in higher Total Scores on the Health Resources Inventory. Adjusted children did achieve reliably higher scores on the HRI in the Reading and Math score groups with a trend being demonstrated on the Global scores.

Insert Table 12 about here

Examination of Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 predicted that the parents of Adjusted children would describe their parent-child relationships as being better than the parents of Non Adjusted children. Better parent-child relationship are indicated by a higher Total Score on the Single Parent Questionnaire. As indicated in Table 13, this analysis did not achieve statistical significance.

Insert Table 13 about here

Table 11
Children's Separation Inventory Total Scores for
Adjusted and Non Adjusted children

	N	\bar{X}	S.D.	\underline{t}	df	\underline{p} (one-tailed)
Global						
Adjusted	53	7.35	3.93	-1.46	31	0.077
Non Adjusted	23	9.34	5.98			
Reading						
Adjusted	54	7.66	3.89	-0.70	28	0.244
Non Adjusted	22	8.68	6.32			
Writing						
Adjusted	55	7.71	4.16	-0.64	28	0.263
Non Adjusted	21	8.62	5.95			
Math						
Adjusted	43	7.72	4.67	-0.50	74	0.307
Non Adjusted	33	8.27	4.79			

Table 12
Health Resource Inventory Total Scores for
Adjusted and Non Adjusted children

	N	\bar{X}	S.D.	\underline{t}	df	\underline{p} (one-tailed)
Global						
Adjusted	50	19.78	5.66	1.45	70	0.076
Non Adjusted	22	17.63	6.14			
Reading						
Adjusted	52	19.91	5.34	1.86	70	0.033*
Non Adjusted	22	17.09	6.73			
Writing						
Adjusted	53	19.64	5.69	1.25	70	0.108
Non Adjusted	19	17.69	6.21			
Math						
Adjusted	40	20.12	5.68	1.62	70	0.053*
Non Adjusted	32	17.89	5.92			

Note. * $p < 0.05$, one-tailed

Table 13
Single Parent Questionnaire Total Scores for
Adjusted and Non Adjusted children

	N	\bar{X}	S.D.	\underline{t}	df	\underline{p} (one-tailed)
Global						
Adjusted	54	188.24	8.64	-0.57	75	0.287
Non Adjusted	23	189.43	8.14			
Reading						
Adjusted	55	188.23	8.17	-0.59	75	0.278
Non Adjusted	22	189.50	9.27			
Writing						
Adjusted	56	188.85	7.28	0.44	75	0.331
Non Adjusted	21	187.90	10.11			
Math						
Adjusted	44	188.38	8.85	-0.25	75	0.401
Non Adjusted	33	188.88	8.01			

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

In the present study, the exploration of factors that promote academic adaptation in elementary school age children having experienced a parental separation was of greatest interest. In general the outcome was supported by previous research. Nevertheless, there were some notable exceptions. Like most work in the area it was ascertained that approximately one-third of the children experiencing parental separation demonstrated a significant decline in academic performance with the other two-thirds not changing dramatically in either direction.

One feature of the study which requires examination prior to an in depth analysis of the results is the subject population. Census data indicate that 5% of children in Canada come from separated homes. In the present study approximately 6,720 families were contacted, through school solicitation. Thus, approximately 336 should have been from single parent homes. In fact, only 77 subjects actually agreed to participate. This limited number of volunteer participants indicates that only a very select group of subjects was studied.

A quite dramatic idiosyncrasy of this population is their relatively high socioeconomic status as compared to populations in other investigations. Demographics of the city

of Ottawa show the unique profile of its population as compared to most Canadian cities. Residents, in general, come from a higher income bracket, have a higher education level, and a good proportion has stable employment in government offices.

In the present study, the average income level for mothers was twenty-one-thousand dollars, and for fathers, twenty-eight-thousand dollars, which places the subjects mostly in the middle socio economic status (SES). Similarly, the mean number of years of schooling for the group was a relatively high 13.8 years. In contrast to this, many studies in the area of divorce report low to low-middle income levels and lower levels of education (Felner et al, 1981; Gesten, 1980; Roseby & Deutsch, 1985; Sines, 1983). As noted by Seiffer & Sameroff (1987), various levels of socioeconomic status provide children with experiences that are both different and unequal with respect to the rewards of society. Opportunities differ and as children get older those from higher SES families may generally have greater benefits.

Not only do the present group of parents represent a relatively homogeneous educated and financially secure group, but the children participating in this investigation were also a relatively well-functioning population. That is, both Adjusted and Non Adjusted children were functioning in the average grade levels prior to separation, and even though Non Adjusted children suffered a significant decrease in their

grades, these children remained well above failing marks.

As suggested by Rutter (1981), good academic grades may act as a buffer to certain adversities and to life stress events. Thus, in this group of children it may have been more difficult than in the population at large to detect any adversities brought on by parental separation.

Most research supports the fact that parental separation does affect school functioning. Wyman (1985) proposed that many of these children have the combined burden of family concerns and demanding school work which may handicap them in meeting academic responsibility. In general, reports suggest that boys usually do more poorly than girls as far as social and behavioral functioning is concerned (Garmezy & Rutter, 1983). However in the present study there were no grade or sex effects detected. This finding is in keeping with the research of both Reinhard (1977) and Kurdek et al. (1981) who found no difference between early and late latency children, nor between boys and girls in their academic reactions to parental separation.

It was predicted that Adjusted children would have greater access to both parents following the parental separation than would the Non Adjusted children. This hypothesis received full support, and results are largely in keeping with previous studies. Adjusted children spent significantly more time with the Non Academic parent than did their Non Adjusted counterparts. In an early study conducted by Hammond (1979),

children of divorce reported that the most negative effect of divorce was that they did not see one parent as often. As suggested by Ahrons (1980), a continuation of meaningful attachment bonds between parents and children may reduce major stresses associated with the divorce. In securing an emotional bond between child and both parents, the child is provided with greater emotional stability, a sense of cohesion and continuity in the midst of family rupture. The fact that a child is spending more time with a Non Academic parent may reflect less premarital stress given that the parents now allow the respective partners to frequently visit with the child.

As evidenced in the Wallerstein & Kelly (1980) study, positive effects on children's adjustment is highly related to the ability of parents to resume their individual parenting roles. An integral part of this parenting role is the ability of the non-custodial parent to maintain a constant and mutually satisfying relationship with the child. A current relationship with the ex-husband for example, is a strong predictor of the divorcee's adjustment (Nelson, 1981) and the divorcee's adjustment is in turn an important variable in the child's adjustment (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980).

Children who have greater accessibility and contact with Non Academic parents may perceive a stronger sense of continuity in the meta-structure of the family. That is, although the physical structure of the family has been dismantled, children may experience the parent-child

relationship as being continuous. A child suffers the loss of a parent's daily contact following parental separation but the relationship remains, and the feeling of loss is attenuated via the higher frequency rate of contact between parent and child. This child, sensing an inner security may be enabled to invest the necessary resources required to maintain a task, such as schoolwork, which is outside the family unit.

Time spent with both parents may also promote positive evaluation of each parent, and reduce the fantasizing that a young child may foster with respect to the absent parent. This preoccupation with a fantasy may drain from those resources mentioned above that may be necessary to complete schoolwork, whereas a stronger, more empathic reality-based relationship will build over time and the relationship between parent and child will be strengthened with every encounter. Our findings add to those of previous research in that children who have fewer contacts with Non Academic or non-residential parents also suffer the greatest academic drop in school performance.

More contact with both parents may also add to the academic input in children's learning. The children can access both parents' scholastic aptitudes and attitudes. In the Brown (1980) study, children from two-parent families were higher achievers than children in one-parent families. Given the results of the present investigation and others (Blanchard & Biller, 1971; Guidubaldi et al., 1983), it would appear that

within one-parent families, the academic performance of high non-residential parent-present groups is superior compared to children from situations of low non-residential parent availability.

As noted by both Hetherington et al. (1979) and Wallerstein & Kelly (1980), children who have little or no father-contact seem to suffer the greatest developmental and emotional stress. Furthermore, in a recent paper Kalter (1987) noted the importance of father availability in a child's development, in relation to separation-individuation. The absence of an emotionally involved parent figure to facilitate development and act as a buffer to a potentially powerful parent-child relationship (more specifically mother-child relationship) is an important factor in the development of separation-individuation issues. In addition, difficulties with separation may lead to difficulties in academic performance. A young child who does not have this "buffer" parent may find it difficult to attend school. The child may fear separating from his parent to attend school because the child is afraid that the Academic parent will leave as did the Non Academic parent. This fear of separation may tax a child's learning abilities.

In contrast to the present findings, Swanum et al. (1982) and Lamb, Pleck & Levine (1985) found little evidence to expect that increased paternal (non-custodial parent in their mother custody research) involvement in itself had any clear-cut or direct effect. They argued that increased paternal involvement

must be viewed and understood only in the context of family circumstances and reasons for the increased involvement. It is true that reasons for involvement vary greatly; however, regardless of the specific reason, it remains that for a child, the maintenance, regularity and frequency of contact are the tangible links to the continuity of a parent-child relationship. The quality of time spent together is an added and important dimension of the relationship, but the actual contact is a first step in establishing the relationship itself and the quality within this relationship.

In summary, children who maintain contact with the Non Academic parent after parental separation manage to sustain academic performance as compared to those children who do not enjoy the same relationship with their Non Academic parent and who fare less well.

The hypothesized effect that Adjusted children would be in the custody of same-sex parents significantly more often than Non Adjusted children was not supported and stands in contrast to the findings of Warshak and Santrock (1983). Their study differed from the present investigation in that their design included a larger sample size of an equal number of both father-custody and mother-custody families. In the present study, most parent-child pairings involved mother custody families and all cases of father-child pairings were cases of joint custody. Conceivably the limitations imposed by the

population pool and the differences in methodology of the present study resulted in the different findings of the two studies.

From another perspective, one might speculate that the feature of same-sex child-custodial pairing is a phenomenon that exists but is secondary to a more important feature. It may not be paramount for the child that he or she be with the same sex parent but more importantly that the child spends time and enjoys the availability of both parents. Warshak & Santrock (1983), reiterate the consistent finding that the same-sex parent relationship is less problematic than opposite-sex child-custodial relationship but they add in fact that the continuing availability of both parents is a significant factor in the adjustment of children to parental separation. In the present study, as in others (Hess and Camara, 1979; Hetherington, Cox and Cox, 1978; Wallerstein and Kelly, 1980), the evidence states that the availability of the two parents is a prominent feature of adjustment.

The phenomenon of same-sex pairing between child and custodial parent may have more of an impact on child-parent relationships or on social competence behaviors than on school achievement per se. Maintaining academic performance may require that the child have the inner resources and inner equilibrium provided by a nurturing and stable structure, whereas maintaining social competence may tap the acquisition of social behaviors provided by the parental role model. One

can speculate that children in joint custody are given the advantage of equal time with both parents and thus can maintain the emotional and social role model of the same-sex parent. In the present study, father-son relationships were all joint custody arrangements whereby sons spent equal time with mothers. Same-sex pairing was not supported as being advantageous for these children whereas increased time spent with both parents was found to be a significant factor in post divorce adjustment.

The third hypothesis stating that Adjusted children would have more stimulating psychosocial home environments was not supported by the present data. In part, this finding may be explained by the select nature and overall well-functioning of the subject group. It is more probable for children of higher socioeconomic profiles, as were those of the present group, to have greater access to varied psychosocial and educational opportunities. Higher SES parents are more apt to afford such things as music lessons, home libraries and other extracurricular advantages than parents from lower SES, irrespective of separation status. In the original validating sample of the Home Environment Questionnaire (Sines, 1983) parents were from middle to lower-middle SES. The range of SES within that particular subject group might have allowed varying effects of the psychosocial home environment to surface. However, in the present investigation, the high stratum

population of the total group might have buffered differences between Adjusted and Non Adjusted groups. Similarly, the children as a group were, and still are, relatively well functioning academically, and this positive finding might also act as a buffer. Thus, there is a potential effect of psychosocial environment on adjustment but the profile of the present group precludes such an effect from being demonstrated.

Another factor that may have influenced the outcome is that the data were collected, on average, three years after the parental separation. Conceivably, parents of the Non Adjusted children enhanced their educational environment during this period of time to help children whose academic performance might have been deteriorating. Hence, there may have been a difference between groups at the time of separation or shortly afterwards but over time, this problem was ameliorated.

In the original validation study of the Home Environment Questionnaire, Felner et al. (1980) found that one-parent families evidenced lower Total Scores than did two-parent families indicating that children from one-parent families have less stimulating home environments than children from two-parent families. In the present work, both the Adjusted and Non Adjusted subject sample scored in the same range as the 76 one-parent families of the original study. In essence, Felner et al.'s (1980) finding of less stimulating psychosocial home environments may be true for one-parent families as a group. However, within the present special group of single parents,

home environment stimulation may not have been sufficiently diversified to be a distinguishing factor.

It is also possible that the parents responding to the various questionnaires were aware that this study was interested in factors promoting adjustment; therefore, it is conceivable that the defensiveness of the respondents biased the answers, and a largely social desirable characteristic of the children's environment was represented evenly for both the Adjusted and Non Adjusted children.

Results revealed that parents of Non Adjusted children have greater social contacts than the parents of Adjusted children. This significant finding is, in fact, in the opposite direction to the hypothesis. Furthermore, they run counter to the reports of Guidubaldi and Cleminshaw (1983) and Garmezy (1985) who found that in general, the availability of social support networks both outside and within the family is a protective factor and increases the probability of good school adjustment. It should be pointed out however that others have found low levels of association between the sources of support and the adjustment of children following parental separation (Essen, 1979; Wyman, 1985).

The nature of the questionnaire may be an element to consider in examining the unexpected results which revealed that parents of Non Adjusted children have greater social supports than the Adjusted children. In seeking to establish

the number of parental supports and the nature of the parents' socializing and help-seeking behaviours, the questionnaire may likely be tapping into the number of parental contacts and social outings. Those Academic parents reporting a high number of social supports may in fact be reporting a high rate of time spent with friends outside the home, away from the child. Again, Non Adjusted children are already spending less time with Non Academic parents; hence, Non Adjusted children may be living in less supportive homes and receiving less educational assistance from either of the two parents.

The problem may also lie in the span of time since the separation and the varying role that social support plays depending on the time and adjustment of the child rather than the other way around. Conceivably social support immediately after a separation helps with child adjustment. However, with time, those external supports are not required for children who are adjusting well. In the present investigation, approximately three years had passed since the parental separation. Possibly the parents of the children who were not adjusting, at least academically, sought greater support to help them deal with the stress of having relatively less adjusted children. This possible support direction is strengthened by the results of the hypothesis which predicted that Adjusted children would demonstrate greater competency than Non Adjusted children. In fact, it was found that children in the Non-Adjusted group are also children who are less

competent than their Adjusted counterparts. Parents of children who are less competent and who are experiencing academic difficulties may seek additional support for advice, encouragement, or for help in distancing themselves from the difficulties in order to better cope with them.

Not all parents adjust well to separation. Those parents who are experiencing difficulties in their own adjustments may not be able to provide the child with the adequate structure, security, or nurturing that the child requires to maintain his or her academic performance. The parent's own coping model may not be a suitable one for the child who looks to the parent to acquire a coping mechanism or this model is academically inappropriate for related behaviors.

Contact between the child and the Non Academic parent may help the Academic parent in sharing the parental responsibilities, including structuring and providing and emotional security for the child. This added help from the Non Academic parent may moderate the Academic parent's need for added support networks. The Non Academic parent may provide the other with the time needed to replenish his or her resources for the week. Thus, the Academic parent is more ready and apt to attend to the child's academic needs during the week. The parents of Non Adjusted children may, in turn, have to rely on external supports for relief in parenting and in so doing, spend less time with the child who is consequently spending less time with both of his or her parents. Essen

(1979) found that children in one-parent homes where the custodial parent had a new partner acting as a substitute parent, had a greater probability of poor academic performance. Potentially, the new partner, like the added support person, might take away from time spent between the child and the custodial parent - time that may be an important factor in helping the now one-parent family to establish a secure new familial structure and in so doing, to implement a basis of stability for the nurturing of other areas of development such as learning.

In a recent paper, Kalter (1987) considered potential long-term problems of children of divorce in key developmental areas; handling anger and aggression, separation-individuation, and gender identity. Kalter suggested that an important contribution to children's source of aggression "stems from feelings of abandonment and rejection experienced by youngsters when their mothers become emotionally involved in work and social relationships after the divorce" (Kalter, 1987: 590). Children may experience parents' search for new intimate relationships as an abandonment and this feeling of rejection may impinge upon the children's capacity to invest in academic work. The decrease in academic performance may also be an expression of the child's anger and disapproval or a call for the parent's attention.

At the time of separation, children may experience feelings of abandonment which in turn may be perceived by them as

evidence of their own poor self-worth. As noted by Kalter, this injury to self-esteem can provoke anger in children. Consequently, children who maintain contact with the non-residential parents may not sustain the same blow to self-worth or fear of abandonment as children who have little or no contact with non-residential parents. In the present study, compared to the Non Adjusted children the Adjusted children enjoyed regular and close contact with the Non Academic parents and have Academic parents who rely on fewer social contacts or outings.

It is interesting to note that children in both the Adjusted and Non Adjusted groups spent equal time at play and had the same number of close friends. They shared equal time in peer contact, peers being their own age-related social supports. The children's relationships and contacts with their own peer social supports did not differ between groups as did the parental social supports.

The findings in the present research reveal a statistical trend towards the hypothesized effect whereby Adjusted children have better attitudes toward the parental separation. Even though all children of separation appear to be careful in their stance of trust toward their parents, it may be that for Non Adjusted children, the issue of maternal, paternal, or self blame remains troublesome. Feelings of confusion, anger and perhaps poor self-esteem all contribute to poor investment in

school performance. This finding may have been relatively weaker than the others because an average of three years passed since the time of separation. According to the studies of Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979, 1985), most children have resolved many emotional issues surrounding the event, and issues of paternal, maternal, or self blame have more or less dissipated. Once again the group's overall high level of functioning may have made it difficult to demonstrate such a finding.

Warshak and Santrock (1983) caution against the use of children's self report measures and question whether the failure to report negative perceptions might reflect the result of defensive responding. In the present investigation, however, an interesting aspect to note was that the majority of the children chose not to show their parents the answered forms. One might argue, based on this, that children answered truthfully. In fact, the questionnaire became for some children, an outlet for expressing their attitudes toward separation.

The prediction that Adjusted children would demonstrate greater competency than Non Adjusted children was supported by teacher ratings. Competency reflects self-concept, affective expression, classroom response, motivation, interpersonal skills, personal achievement, and socialization. The competent children are those who have greater internal and external

control of "self" and this in turn may contribute to a greater capacity to attend to school work.

Children participating in the investigation were from a similar SES background, a well-functioning academic group, and attained, as a group, higher competence scores than those children in the original validation population (Gesten, 1976). These factors support the notion that children and families in this study were generally better functioning than the population at large. However, despite the uniqueness of the subject population and despite the fact that the separation occurred on average three years prior to data collection, teachers were able to differentiate Adjusted and Non Adjusted children on competency.

As results show, Adjusted children spend more time with both parents and are also rated as more competent by their teachers. It is conceivable, that Adjusted children have greater contact with the Non Academic parent because they are more competent. The Non Academic parents may, as did the teachers, perceive children as more competent and, find it easier to be with such children. Again, the direction of effect is difficult to establish.

We see in the present results that children who experienced a decrease in academic grades following parental separation were identified three years later by teachers as being less competent. Since the academic functioning of the children at the time of teacher ratings was not assessed it is not clear

whether or not the academic performance of these children remained in the "decrease mode" and teachers rated them less competent because their marks were lower than other children or if these children's marks stabilized and teachers rated these children lower in terms of competency and emotional stability because of other behavioral attributes.

The prediction that parents of Adjusted children would rate their parent-child relationships higher was not supported and stands in contrast to the results of others (Shinn, 1978; Hess and Camara, 1979; Guidubaldi et al., 1983) who have suggested that negative effects of divorce, particularly in the area of academic achievement are greatly mitigated when positive parent-child interactions are nurtured and maintained.

The Single Parent Questionnaire is primarily intended to assess the parent's perception of his or her own parenting style and its effect on the parent-child relationship. In a questionnaire such as this, Stolberg and Ullman (1985) remind us that parents can be quite defensive in their reporting. Indeed, some of the questions directly challenge the integrity and abilities of the individual as a parent. As the focus of the study was on protective factors, parents may have been self-selected in that only those who felt secure and competent in their role as a parent volunteered for the project. The subject demographics in the original study of Stolberg and Bush (1985) are similar to the present subject demographics in terms

of average age, time since separation and mother's years of education. Our present sample however is one-third the size of the one used in the original study and may be insufficient to detect a difference in our groups. In fact, when determining with a small size effect the power of the test, that is, the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is in fact false, it was found that the power was indeed low (Appendix R). Further research to determine the effect of perceived ability in a parenting role as a protective factor in child development is required.

In summary, thirty percent of the children in the study experienced a marked decrease in their academic performance following parental separation and this was evident three years after separation. Academic performance is an important element in a child's life experiences as it measures learning progress, signals social, emotional and educational difficulties and, perhaps most importantly, influences self-concept. Given the profound consequences academic performance has on children's lives, it is paramount that factors which promote resiliency following life stress events, be discerned.

The present investigation, demonstrated that access to both parents, greater competency behaviors, and fewer parental social contacts outside the house were related to better academic adjustment. These factors seem protective in that they each are associated with a greater capacity for children

to invest in school work. The availability and contact with parents conceivably allowed children to adapt within a more continuous and emotionally stable family structure. These children potentially received academic input from two parents instead of one and held a positive more reality-based evaluation of both parents.

Children with greater competency behaviors demonstrated resiliency in that they held greater internal and external control of "self" which allowed them to invest in the extra-familial realm such as schoolwork. Academic parents who had fewer extra familial contacts possibly gave their children more time with themselves and in so doing, restored feelings of security and acceptance. Conceivably, these parents also felt supported by the Non Academic parents who participated more readily and regularly in parenting.

Other factors in the study, namely, sex-pairing, psychosocial home-environments, children's attitude toward the parental separation and parent's rating toward the parent-child relationship were not found significantly related to a decrease in academic performance. Given the nature of the studied population and the design of the investigation, it is difficult to determine whether or not these factors promote resiliency to a decrease in academic grades following parental separation. However, the high socioeconomic status of the population and overall academic well-functioning of the group may in themselves be protective factors, not of academic difficulties

per se, but against poor psychosocial home environments, negative children's attitudes towards the parental separation and negative rating of parent-child relationship. Perhaps a similar study repeated with a more heterogeneous group would show that SES and academic well-functioning are in themselves primary protective factors to other secondary factors such as home-environment which are in turn, important factors of resiliency with respect to academic performance.

It is suggested that follow-up studies examine the same factors using a more heterogeneous group. Also, it would be of interest to study the children's grades at the time of the data collection in order to determine if the children's grades remain in the "decrease mode" or if they return to the pre-separation level. Such information would help determine if academics regain strength more quickly than children's sense of self worth and emotional stability. One might also want to examine more closely the parent's own level of personal adjustment in comparison to the child's; and, the parent's perceived ability in parenting as potential factors to increased resiliency in high risk children.

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APPENDICES

UNIVERSITÉ D'OTTAWA



UNIVERSITY OF OTTAWA

November 3, 1986

Dear Parent:

The Ottawa Board of Education has agreed to participate in a research project being conducted by the University of Ottawa under the supervision of Dr. Philip Firestone and Ms. Lise Bisnaire. The purpose of the study is to investigate the effects of parental separation on children's school achievement. We will be seeking out single parents for further inquiries. We anticipate that this study will help us gather useful information on factors that may promote positive adjustment in children following parental separation.

Participation of children of single parents in this research will require that various questionnaires be completed by the child, and you the parent at a time left to your discretion. Additionally, your child's teacher will be asked to complete a rating scale on the classroom behaviour of a sample of students so that no child will be singled out. Ms. Bisnaire will complete a questionnaire based on the child's school academic record.

We are very much aware that parental separation is a sensitive and personal issue to the family. For this reason, we ask that if you wish to participate that you complete the attached form and return it in the postage-paid envelope addressed to Ms. Lise Bisnaire. The information will be used only for research purposes and strictest confidence will be maintained.

Philip Firestone, Ph.D., C. Psych.
Director, Child Study Centre
Professor, School of Psychology

Lise Bisnaire, B.A.
4th Year Ph.D. Candidate
School of Psychology

PF/LB/sb

Encls.

PARENT INFORMATION FORM

I hereby request further information in order to have my child participate in the research project conducted by Dr. Philip Firestone in conjunction with the Ottawa Board of Education.

Child's Name: _____

Grade level: _____

School: _____

Date of birth: _____
DAY/MONTH/YEAR

Telephone (home): _____

(work): _____

SIGNATURE

DATE

Thank you for your valuable assistance and cooperation.

Please return this form as soon as possible in the enclosed postage paid envelope.

PARENTAL CONSENT FORM

I hereby give consent for the participation of my child, _____, in a research project conducted by the University of Ottawa in conjunction with our school board. I understand that:

1. the purpose of this study is to investigate factors contributing to positive academic adjustment in children following parental separation;
2. academic information taken from my child's school record will be used only for this purpose and only in the present investigation;
3. participation in the study will involve approximately 1½ hours of parent time to fill out the following questionnaires:
 - a) Parent Information Form
 - b) Single Parent Questionnaire
 - c) Home Environment Questionnaire
 - d) Temperament Scale
4. my child's teacher will be requested to rate my child's behavior but will not know if my child is participating in the study or not;
5. this information will be used only for research purposes and maintained in strictest confidence;
6. individual results will not be released without my written consent;
7. I may withdraw my child at any time.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Please feel free to call Dr. Firestone (Director, Child Study Centre, 564-2383) or Ms. Bisnaire at any time should you request further information.

Lise Bisnaire, B.A.
 4th Year Ph.D. Candidate
 School of Psychology
 University of Ottawa
 tel.: 564-5412

PARENT INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX D

This questionnaire is to be completed by an experimenter following an interview with the single parent.

All information herein will be treated with strict confidentiality.

Child's Name: _____

School: _____

Parent: _____

INFORMATION ABOUT YOUR CHILD:

1. Child's date of birth (year/month/day) ____/____/____
2. Sex of the child ____ M ____ F
3. Grade level of the child ____
4. a. Number of older brothers or sisters at home ____
b. Number of younger brothers or sisters at home ____
5. Number of close friends your child has (check one):
____ none ____ 1 ____ 2-3 ____ 4-5 ____ 6 or more
6. Approximate number of hours spent in play or activities with friends during an average week (check one):
____ 0-1 ____ 2-4 ____ 5-7 ____ 8-10 ____ 10 or more

INFORMATION ABOUT YOUR FAMILY

7. Please indicate if natural parents of the child were:
 - a. separated (husband and wife no longer living together)____; please give approximate date of separation _____.
 - b. divorced (legal decree stating that the marriage is dissolved)____; please give approximate date of divorce _____.
 - c. custodial parent is remarried or cohabitating with a new partner ____; please give approximate date of remarriage _____.
8. Custodial parent(s) of the child:

a. mother only	_____
b. father only	_____
c. joint custody	_____
d. other (specify)	_____
9. During the academic year, my child routinely lives with the following parent figure(s) (check all that apply):

a. natural mother	_____
b. natural father	_____
c. stepmother	_____
d. stepfather	_____
e. other (specify)	_____

10. The child and the non-custodial parent spend time together...
 a. less than once a month _____
 b. 1-2 times a month _____
 c. 3-4 times a month _____
 d. 5-8 times a month _____
 e. more than 8 times a month _____
 Nature of visit (i.e., overnight stay, day visit)? _____
 Comment: _____

11. The non-custodial parent lives in the same city as the child.
 a. yes _____
 b. no _____

12. Please provide the information for the child's current parent figure(s)

	Mother		Father	
	yes	no	yes	no
a. employed outside the home	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. if yes, average number of hours per week	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. approximate date when employment began	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. type of employment				
i) professional	_____	_____	_____	_____
ii) managerial	_____	_____	_____	_____
iii) clerical	_____	_____	_____	_____
iv) sales/service	_____	_____	_____	_____
v) other (specify)	_____	_____	_____	_____

13. Income level of child's custodial parent:
 a. 5,000 or less _____
 b. 5,000 to 10,000 _____
 c. 10,000 to 15,000 _____
 d. 15,000 to 20,000 _____
 e. 20,000 to 30,000 _____
 f. more than 30,000 _____

14. Parent education: Please indicate highest level achieved.

	Mother	Father
a. elementary	_____	_____
b. high school	_____	_____
c. college	_____	_____
d. university	_____	_____
e. other (specify)	_____	_____

Date Completed: _____
 (day/month/year)

CHILD'S NAME: _____

I.D. NO: _____

GRADE AT PRE MEASURE (2nd): _____

GRADE AT POST MEASURE (1rst): _____

NO. OF MONTHS BETWEEN PRE-PRE: _____

NO. OF MONTHS BETWEEN POST-POST: _____

NO. OF MONTHS BETWEEN PRE-POST: _____

	PRE	PRE	POST	POST
READING	_____	_____	_____	_____
WRITING	_____	_____	_____	_____
ARITHMETIC	_____	_____	_____	_____

NO. OF SCHOOLS ATTENDED SINCE KDG: _____

CLASS PLACEMENT: _____

INITIALS: 1) _____

2) _____

HOME ENVIRONMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Form I-R
(HEQ-1R)

APPENDIX F

Jacob O. Sines, Ph.D.

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INSTRUCTIONS

Whenever possible, this questionnaire is to be answered by the custodial parent named below. This questionnaire consists of statements about your home, family and neighborhood. Read each statement carefully. If it accurately describes your home or family or neighborhood, put an X through the "T" (for True) to the left of that statement. If the statement does not accurately describe your home or family or neighborhood, put an X through the "F" (for False) to the left of that statement. Please answer all the questions either True or False.

In many of the statements there is a blank space. Simply imagine your child's name in the blank space. The word "house" is used in some of the statements. If you live in an apartment, imagine the word "apartment" for "house." Do not discuss the answers to the questionnaire while you are completing it. Please complete the questionnaire by yourself.

Date _____

Child: Name: _____

Age: ____ Sex: ____ Grade in School: ____

V: ____ P: ____ FS: ____ ID No: _____

Respondent: Name: _____

Relation to Child: _____

T _____

Raw _____

Ach A-E A-H A-T Sup Ch Aff Sep Soc S:

- T F 1. We have an air conditioner.
- T F 2. Our house has a fireplace.
- T F 3. ____ has a desk of his/her own.
- T F 4. Many of the things our family does are centered around ____.
- T F 5. We have an encyclopedia.
- T F 6. There is a student center at ____'s school.
- T F 7. We don't believe in rewarding a child for doing things he's/she's supposed to do.
- T F 8. I jog or exercise strenuously several times a week.
- T F 9. Other children tease ____.
- T F 10. Other children don't seem to like ____.
- T F 11. Many of our neighbors criticize ____.
- T F 12. ____ has no very close friends.
- T F 13. There are many friendly children in ____'s class.
- T F 14. Children come over and ask if ____ can come out and play.
- T F 15. We live in a friendly neighborhood.
- T F 16. ____ is often invited to parties or celebrations.
- T F 17. Most of ____'s friends are sociable.
- T F 18. ____ has lots of friends.
- T F 19. I sometimes lose my temper with ____.
- T F 20. I would describe myself as a person with a quick temper.
- T F 21. I tend to get impatient with ____.
- T F 22. I am often depressed.
- T F 23. I'm easily upset.
- T F 24. I cry when something upsets me.
- T F 25. Sometimes I am too busy to be consistent in the discipline I use.
- T F 26. My work tires me out a lot, so I don't have much energy to do other things.
- T F 27. ____ and I don't talk to each other very much.
- T F 28. I don't have much time to play with ____.
- T F 29. My home responsibilities take up all my time.
- T F 30. My moods change fast.
- T F 31. Dirt upsets me a great deal.
- T F 32. My feelings are easily hurt.

- T F 33. A certain time is set aside for ____ to do homework.
- T F 34. We have two or more pieces of playground equipment in our yard.
- T F 35. I like to plan my children's activities.
- T F 36. When ____ signs up for an activity (lessons, team, etc.) I feel that he/she should complete the full program even though he/she finds that he/she dislikes the activity.
- T F 37. I have urged ____ to attend summer camp.
- T F 38. Most of ____'s friends get books from the public library.
- T F 39. I do not allow ____ to watch certain TV shows.
- T F 40. I try to avoid arguments.
- T F 41. We have very high standards for everyone in our family.
- T F 42. We have moved within the last two years.
- T F 43. During ____'s lifetime I have been divorced.
- T F 44. There are mainly apartments in our neighborhood.
- T F 45. Discipline in our family is left up to me.
- T F 46. There is a school near our house.
- T F 47. I support my children alone.
- T F 48. We have lived in our home more than six years.
- T F 49. We live in a quiet neighborhood.
- T F 50. We live on or very near a busline.
- T F 51. I make most of the important decisions in our family.
- T F 52. I have been married more than once.
- T F 53. Other people say that I'm too lenient with ____.
- T F 54. During ____'s lifetime, my husband and I have tried marital separation.
- T F 55. ____'s father is not living with the family.
- T F 56. Our family gets along very well.
- T F 57. We are a pretty easygoing family.
- T F 58. Our family often does things together.
- T F 59. Almost everyone in our family agrees on how to do things.
- T F 60. Some people in our family are picked on more than others.
- T F 61. There are lots of argumer in our family.
- T F 62. Our home sometimes feels crowded.
- T F 63. On weekends, our family often does things together such as short trips, going shopping, going to the zoo, etc.
- T F 64. Sometimes things get so bad at home I want to leave.
- T F 65. Outside of birthdays and holidays, ____ is rarely given gifts or presents.

- T F 66. I have had quite a bit of surgery.
- T F 67. Within the last two years, ____ has been in the hospital.
- T F 68. One or more of ____'s friends have moved recently.
- T F 69. I have been hospitalized for emotional problems.
- T F 70. We have regular meal times.
- T F 71. We often have friends over to our house to play cards, talk, etc.
- T F 72. There are a lot of young families in our neighborhood.
- T F 73. We often have relatives or friends visit our house.
- T F 74. We have begun to make plans for ____'s college education.
- T F 75. I had to have special training for my job.
- T F 76. We have a piano.
- T F 77. I have read one book or more in the last month.
- T F 78. Within the last several years, I have taken an adult education course or a university extension course.
- T F 79. We have a typewriter.
- T F 80. I belong to a social, civic, political, study, literary, or art club.
- T F 81. I got good grades in school.
- T F 82. ____ went to a nursery school when he/she was younger.
- T F 83. I have had some college education.
- T F 84. I read a lot.
- T F 85. I am active in community affairs.
- T F 86. At least one member of our family is active in political organizations.
- T F 87. Our home has more than one hundred books (excluding children's books).
- T F 88. Most people in our family are too busy to spend much time reading.
- T F 89. I can't get very interested in activities outside the home.
- T F 90. Our family is active in community affairs.
- T F 91. I restrict the amount of TV that ____ watches.

CHILDREN'S SEPARATION INVENTORY

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Lawrence Kurdek, Ph.D.

NAME _____ SEX: BOY GIRL

AGE _____ DATE OF BIRTH _____ GRADE _____

INSTRUCTIONS

On the following pages are some statements about children and their separated parents. Some of them are true about how you think and feel, so you will want to check YES. Some are NOT TRUE about how you think or feel so you will want to check NO. There are no right or wrong answers. Your answers will just tell us some of the things you are thinking now about your parents' separation.

PRA _____ PB _____ FA _____ HR _____ MB _____ SB _____ TOT _____

1. IT WOULD UPSET ME IF OTHER KIDS ASKED A LOT OF QUESTIONS ABOUT MY PARENTS YES NO
2. MY FATHER TRIED TO STOP THE BREAKUP OF MY FAMILY YES NO
3. I KNOW THERE WILL ALWAYS BE SOMEONE TO TAKE CARE OF ME YES NO
4. MY PARENTS WILL ALWAYS LIVE APART YES NO
5. MY MOTHER TRIED TO STOP THE BREAKUP OF MY FAMILY YES NO
6. I SELDOM CAUSED MY PARENTS TO FIGHT WITH ONE ANOTHER YES NO
7. I CAN TELL MY FRIENDS THAT MY PARENTS DON'T WANT TO LIVE TOGETHER YES NO
8. IT WAS USUALLY MY FATHER'S FAULT WHEN MY PARENTS HAD A FIGHT YES NO
9. I SOMETIMES WORRY THAT BOTH MY PARENTS WILL WANT TO LIVE WITHOUT ME YES NO
10. I SOMETIMES THINK THAT IF I TRY REAL HARD I CAN BRING MY FAMILY BACK TOGETHER AGAIN YES NO
11. WHEN MY FAMILY WAS UNHAPPY IT WAS USUALLY BECAUSE OF MY MOTHER YES NO
12. MY PARENTS OFTEN ARGUE WITH EACH OTHER AFTER I MISBEHAVE YES NO
13. A LOT OF MY FRIENDS KNOW THAT MY PARENTS AREN'T LIVING TOGETHER YES NO
14. MY FATHER IS USUALLY A NICE PERSON YES NO
15. IT'S POSSIBLE THAT BOTH MY PARENTS WILL NEVER WANT TO SEE ME AGAIN YES NO
16. IF I BEHAVE BETTER I MIGHT BE ABLE TO BRING MY FAMILY BACK TOGETHER YES NO
17. MY MOTHER IS USUALLY A NICE PERSON YES NO
18. MY PARENTS WOULD PROBABLY BE HAPPIER IF I WERE NEVER BORN YES NO

19. I LIKE TALKING TO MY FRIENDS AS MUCH NOW AS I USED TO YES NO
20. WHEN MY FAMILY WAS UNHAPPY IT WAS USUALLY BECAUSE OF SOMETHING MY FATHER SAID OR DID YES NO
21. I SOMETIMES WORRY THAT I'LL BE LEFT ALL ALONE YES NO
22. MY FAMILY WILL PROBABLY DO THINGS TOGETHER JUST LIKE BEFORE YES NO
23. OFTEN I HAVE A BAD TIME WHEN I'M WITH MY MOTHER . YES NO
24. IT'S EASY FOR ME TO START A FIGHT BETWEEN MY PARENTS YES NO
25. I LIKE PLAYING AS MUCH WITH MY FRIENDS AS I USED TO YES NO
26. MY FATHER CAUSED MOST OF THE TROUBLE IN MY FAMILY YES NO
27. I FEEL THAT MY PARENTS STILL CARE ABOUT ME YES NO
28. MY PARENTS WILL PROBABLY SEE THAT THEY HAVE MADE A MISTAKE AND GET BACK TOGETHER AGAIN YES NO
29. MY MOTHER CAUSED MOST OF THE TROUBLE IN MY FAMILY YES NO
30. MY PARENTS PROBABLY ARGUE MORE WHEN I'M WITH THEM THAN WHEN I'M GONE YES NO
31. I'D RATHER BE ALONE THAN PLAY WITH OTHER KIDS YES NO
32. I OFTEN HAVE A BAD TIME WHEN I'M WITH MY FATHER YES NO
33. I FEEL THAT MY PARENTS STILL LOVE ME YES NO
34. I SOMETIMES THINK THAT MY PARENTS WILL ONE DAY LIVE TOGETHER AGAIN YES NO
35. MY MOTHER IS MORE GOOD THAN BAD YES NO
36. MY PARENTS ARE HAPPIER WHEN I'M WITH THEM THAN WHEN I'M NOT YES NO
37. MY FRIENDS AND I DO MANY THINGS TOGETHER YES NO

38. THERE ARE A LOT OF THINGS ABOUT MY FATHER
I LIKE YES NO
39. I SOMETIMES THINK THAT ONE DAY I MAY HAVE TO GO
LIVE WITH A FRIEND OR RELATIVE YES NO
40. MY PARENTS WILL STAY APART EVEN IF I GET SICK
OR IN TROUBLE..... YES NO
41. IF MY MOTHER WERE A NICER PERSON MY PARENTS
WOULD STILL BE LIVING TOGETHER..... YES NO
42. I CAN MAKE MY PARENTS UNHAPPY WITH EACH OTHER
BY WHAT I SAY OR DO !..... YES NO
43. MY FRIENDS UNDERSTAND HOW I FEEL ABOUT MY
PARENTS YES NO
44. MY FATHER IS MORE GOOD THAN BAD..... YES NO
45. I FEEL MY PARENTS STILL LIKE ME YES NO
46. I SOMETIMES THINK THAT ONCE MY PARENTS
REALIZE HOW MUCH I WANT THEM TO
THEY'LL LIVE TOGETHER AGAIN..... YES NO
47. THERE ARE A LOT OF THINGS ABOUT MY MOTHER
I LIKE YES NO
48. MY PARENTS WOULD PROBABLY STILL BE LIVING
TOGETHER IF IT WEREN'T FOR ME YES NO

Parent's Name _____

Child's Name _____

Instructions: Please answer these questions the way things really are, not just the way you would like them to be. Circle the answer that best describes you and your child participating in the Divorce Adjustment Project.

1. How often does your child come and talk to you about a problem?
 - a. I think my child talks to me whenever he/she has a problem.
 - b. I think my child usually talks to me whenever he/she has a problem.
 - c. I think my child keeps most of his/her problems to him/herself, but sometimes talks to me.
 - d. My child rarely discusses his/her problems with me.
2. How often is your child late for school or the school bus?
 - a. Twice a year or less.
 - b. Three or four times a year.
 - c. Five or six times a year.
 - d. More than six times a year.
3. How much difficulty do you have handling your financial (paying bills, budgeting, etc.) responsibilities?
 - a. I can't pay 50% of the bills most months.
 - b. I can't pay 25% of the bills most months.
 - c. I can pay all but one or two bills most months.
 - d. I can pay all of my bills most months.
4. Of the things you have planned to get done every day, how many of these things do you actually get done?
 - a. About one fourth of what I plan gets done.
 - b. About one half of what I plan gets done.
 - c. About three quarters of what I plan gets done.
 - d. Everything I plan gets done.
5. How often does your child get up late for school?
 - a. Once a week or more.
 - b. About three times a month.
 - c. About once or twice a month.
 - d. Just a few times a year or never.
6. My child's mother/father
 - a. Has regular visitations which he/she never misses.
 - b. Visits my child more than the regular visitations, or has joint custody, or sees my child more than twice a week.
 - c. Has regular visitations but misses them fairly frequently.
 - d. Does not visit my child.

7. What kinds of rules have you set about the cleanliness of your child's room?
 - a. My child's room must be kept neat at all times.
 - b. My child's room must be kept reasonably neat most of the time.
 - c. My child is required to clean up the room whenever it gets too messy.
 - d. My child's room is his/her own and can be as neat or messy as the child pleases.
8. Do you have the opportunity to date?
 - a. At least once a month.
 - b. Once every two or three months.
 - c. Once every six months or so.
 - d. I never have the opportunity to date.
9. When I am not at home, my child knows how I can be reached
 - a. At all times.
 - b. About three quarters of the time.
 - c. About half the time.
 - d. About a quarter of the time.
10. When it comes to telling your child about the divorce, do you
 - a. Discuss what the divorce means to your child (in terms of lifestyle, etc) and ask how he/she feels about it.
 - b. Tell him/her what the divorce means to him/her, without discussion.
 - c. Mention the divorce in terms of its happening, but don't go into detail.
 - d. Not mention it.
11. Given the changes in family responsibilities and demands and my earlier feelings about parenting, I now find childrearing
 - a. Much less satisfying.
 - b. Less satisfying.
 - c. Equally satisfying.
 - d. More satisfying.
12. Do you have anyone to talk to about how you really feel about the divorce?
 - a. I have four or five people I can talk to.
 - b. I have two or three people I can talk to.
 - c. I have one person I can talk to.
 - d. I can't talk to anyone about it.
13. If an appliance in your house broke down, what would you do?
 - a. Try and fix it yourself.
 - b. Try to do without the appliance.
 - c. Call a repair person (plumber, electrician).
 - d. Call a friend for advice.

14. Have you ever taken a class or workshop on parenting?
 - a. Have completed more than one class.
 - b. Have completed a class, or am presently taking a class.
 - c. Started a class but dropped it.
 - d. Never.
15. If you wanted to talk to someone about a personal problem, are there people to whom you could talk to?
 - a. I could talk to four or five people.
 - b. I could talk to two or three people.
 - c. I could talk to one person.
 - d. I can't think of anyone I could talk to.
16. How do you respond when your child does a chore he/she was assigned to?
 - a. I say nothing since I expect it to be done.
 - b. I usually don't say anything unless the job was exceptionally well done.
 - c. I praise my child or say thank you.
 - d. I praise my child and say thank you.
17. How often do you take an active part in one of your child's activities (Boy or Girl Scout leader, sponser, coach, aid in classroom, going to games, swim meets, etc.)?
 - a. I am almost always actively involved in one or more of my child's activities.
 - b. I am usually involved.
 - c. I'm sometimes involved but I'm usually too busy.
 - d. I have rarely been actively involved.
18. Is your child involved in making decisions regarding himself/herself (choosing clothes, TV programs, what to eat, etc.)?
 - a. Not at all.
 - b. Only in minor decisions.
 - c. About half the decisions.
 - d. Almost all decisions.
19. When your child gets a minor cut or scrape, how do you respond?
 - a. Tell the child to take care of it without my help.
 - b. Send the child to clean and bandage it, and check on it later.
 - c. Clean and bandage it while treating it matter-of-factly.
 - d. Clean and bandage it while showing much concern and sympathy.
20. How often do you feel you and your child have a good time or fun together?
 - a. We rarely seem to have a good time.
 - b. About half the time is good and half bad.
 - c. Once in a while we don't have a good time together, but our times together are usually good.
 - d. Most of the time I feel good about our times.

21. Is your child involved in making financial decisions (budgeting, major purchases, expenses, etc.)?
 - a. Almost all the decisions.
 - b. About half the decisions.
 - c. Only in minor decisions.
 - d. Not at all.
22. As far as discussing divorce with your child is concerned
 - a. I told my child about the divorce but we haven't discussed it since.
 - b. My child has asked a few questions, or no questions.
 - c. My child and I have talked about some of his/her questions, but my child hasn't talked about his/her feelings.
 - d. My child seems to have talked about most of his/her concerns and feelings and has asked many questions.
23. When your child does extra housework, yardwork, or some other favor without being asked, what do you do?
 - a. My child never does more than what's expected.
 - b. I don't say anything.
 - c. Give my child some praise.
 - d. Give my child praise and some sign of affection.
24. When you feel really low about your situation do you:
 - a. Go to bed.
 - b. Sit and stew about it.
 - c. Call a friend or family member for support and advice.
 - d. Think of something you can do to improve your situation and then do it.
25. We have a regularly scheduled mealtime:
 - a. Only on special occasions, or less than once a week.
 - b. One to three times a week.
 - c. Four or five times a week.
 - d. Every day.
26. When it comes to matters about raising my children:
 - a. I talk to my child's father/mother regularly about matters pertaining to their development.
 - b. I talk to my child's mother/father only about really big problems (serious illness, major school problems, peer problems).
 - c. I talk to my child's mother/father only about money.
 - d. I never talk to my child's father/mother about child-rearing matters.
27. When your child has a problem with a friend, how often are you able to listen to his/her side of the story?
 - a. I almost always listen and give my child my full attention.
 - b. I usually try to listen, but I'm often listening and doing something else at the same time.
 - c. I rarely have time to listen.
 - d. I'm never able to listen.

28. The money (allowance or spending money) I give my child
- Can be spent on anything the child wants.
 - Can be spent in ways the child and I have agreed on together.
 - Can partly be spent as the child wants and partly the way I say.
 - Can only be spent with my permission.
29. My child is permitted to watch TV on school nights
- Never.
 - After completion of homework and/or chores with supervision by me.
 - After completion of homework and/or chores without supervision.
 - Whenever he/she wants to.
30. How often do you drive your child to some event other than to school?
- Only on rare occasions.
 - About once a week.
 - About two or three times a week.
 - Almost every day (4 or more times a week).
31. What rules do you have about your child leaving the house after school during free time?
- My child is not allowed to leave the house/yard.
 - My child is allowed to leave to play in specific areas (neighborhood park, certain friend's houses).
 - My child is allowed to leave if he/she informs me or leaves a note as to where he/she is going.
 - My child is allowed to leave the house whenever he/she wants to.
32. When it comes to discussing matters related to your divorce, how do your parents react?
- Are available when you need them.
 - Offer brief suggestions.
 - Don't want to talk about it.
 - Get angry.
33. Is your child involved in making decisions regarding household management (who cleans the house, does yardwork, etc.)?
- Not at all.
 - Only in minor decisions.
 - About half the decisions.
 - Almost all the decisions.
34. Approximately how many hours a week do you usually get out by yourself or with friends for some type of recreation or other non-work activity?
- 0-1 hours per week.
 - 2-4 hours per week.
 - 5-10 hours per week.
 - More than 10 hours per week.

35. If your child doesn't approve of one of your dates, do you:
- Continue to date the person and ignore your child's disapproval.
 - Continue to date the person and hope that the child will accept the person.
 - Find out why the child doesn't like him/her and talk about that.
 - Stop seeing the person.
36. When you were little, did you ever think about what it would be like to be a parent?
- I never thought about it.
 - I thought about it once or twice.
 - I thought about it somewhat.
 - I thought about it a great deal.
37. My child is permitted to have snacks between meals
- Whenever he/she wants.
 - Usually, but must ask me first.
 - Only for a special treat.
 - I don't allow eating between meals but sometimes my child eats snacks outside the house.
38. How often do you and your child(ren) go somewhere together?
- Once a week or more.
 - Two or three times a month.
 - Once a month.
 - Less than once a month.
39. What kind of rules do you have about curfews (or will you when your child is older)?
- The child may come home whenever he/she wants to.
 - My child has a curfew but often stays out later.
 - My child has a curfew but it is often extended.
 - My child must be home by a certain time with no exceptions.
40. If you needed help with your children (babysitter, advice, carpooling) are there people whom you could ask?
- I have four or five people I could ask.
 - I have two or three people I could ask.
 - I have one person I could ask.
 - I can't think of anyone I could ask.
41. How many times do you have to ask your child to do something before he/she will actually do it?
- My child rarely does what I ask him/her to do.
 - Four or five times.
 - Two or three times.
 - Only once.

42. My child's daily diet
- Is up to my child.
 - I sometimes supervise what my child eats.
 - I usually know if my child is eating a balanced diet.
 - I strictly monitor my child's diet to make sure it is well balanced.
43. Do you have a daily routine with your child (for meals, getting up, doing chores, etc.) during the school year?
- We don't follow any routine and things get done in whatever order seems right at the time.
 - We don't have a daily routine but usually things get done around the same time.
 - Yes, we have a daily routine which we usually follow.
 - Yes, we have a daily routine that we almost always follow.
44. How often does it happen that you and your child have pleasurable times alone together?
- I have time to be alone with my child once a week or less often.
 - I have time to be alone with my child about 2-3 times or less a week.
 - I have time to be alone with my child 4-5 times a week.
 - I have time to be alone with my child at least once a day.
45. Is being a parent like you expected it to be?
- Much harder than I expected.
 - A little harder than I expected.
 - About the same as I expected.
 - Easier than I expected.
46. What rules do you have about bedtime (or did you, if your children are too old for bedtimes) on school nights?
- The child has no set bedtime.
 - The child has a bedtime that is often extended.
 - The child has a set bedtime that is occasionally extended.
 - The child has a set bedtime which is never extended.
47. My child is left unsupervised by an adult:
- Never.
 - Only on rare occasions.
 - Several times a week but only during the day.
 - Several times a week both during the day and at night.
48. If you wanted to socialize with someone (call on phone, go out for an evening) do you have people to contact?
- I have four or five people I could call.
 - I have two or three people I could call.
 - I have one person I could call.
 - I can't think of anyone I could call.

49. In the mornings before my child leaves for school
- I make sure my child is well dressed, has eaten breakfast, and has lunch money or a lunch.
 - I ask my child if s/he has had breakfast, and has money for lunch or a bag lunch, but I don't closely supervise my child in the morning.
 - I say good bye to my child but I'm not sure if s/he has eaten or has what s/he needs.
 - My child leaves before I get up or I leave before my child gets up.
50. What rules do you have about household chores?
- My child is expected to help when asked.
 - My child does not have regular chores.
 - My child has regular chores and usually does them.
 - My child has regular household chores which must be done by a certain time.
51. My child's appearance
- Is up to my child all of the time.
 - Must meet with my approval only for special occasions.
 - Must meet with my approval for school, church and for special occasions.
 - Must meet with my approval all of the time.
52. Do you feel overwhelmed by your job, child care and/or household responsibilities?
- Always, nearly every day.
 - Often, at least once a week.
 - Sometimes - once or twice a month.
 - Never.
53. If your children were having trouble getting along with or didn't like a person you were seeing regularly, what would you do?
- Keep seeing the person regardless.
 - Find out why your children didn't like him/her and talk about that.
 - Tell your children how to get along with this person.
 - Stop seeing the person.
54. Have you ever read a book on parenting?
- Never.
 - Started one but didn't/haven't finished it.
 - Have read one or two.
 - Have read more than two.
55. How often do you praise your child (with a special treat) for doing an especially good job in school or for improving?
- I almost always praise my child.
 - I usually give my child some praise.
 - I sometimes give my child praise.
 - I almost never give my child praise.

56. My child shows affection (verbal or physical) towards me
- Once a month or less.
 - Two or three times a month.
 - Two or three times a week.
 - Once a day or more.
57. Do you ask your child what the trouble is when s/he seems sad, or upset?
- I always ask my child what's wrong.
 - I usually ask my child what's wrong.
 - I sometimes ask my child what's wrong, but I don't like to interfere in my child's business.
 - I let my child handle his/her own problems.
58. Do you have the opportunity to meet new people (through groups, friends, meetings)?
- At least once a week.
 - At least every two or three weeks.
 - Every few months.
 - Not in the last six months.
59. What do you do about your child's birthday?
- Birthdays are very special, and my child gets gifts, a party or a special dinner to celebrate.
 - Birthdays are somewhat special and my child gets one special thing (i.e. gift, a choice of dinner, etc.).
 - Birthdays are celebrated once in a while.
 - Birthdays aren't celebrated in our home.
60. When your child does something you don't like or makes you angry, how often do you calmly discuss this with your child?
- I always calmly discuss it with my child.
 - More often than not I calmly discuss it with my child.
 - Once in a while I calmly discuss it with my child.
 - I never calmly discuss it with my child.
61. Do you find that being responsible for car care is a difficult task?
- Often.
 - Sometimes.
 - Rarely.
 - Never.
62. When your child does something that makes you angry, how often do you tend to "fly off the handle" and yell at your child?
- I only yell about once or twice a month or less.
 - I yell about once or twice a week.
 - I yell about three or four times a week.
 - I yell about five times a week or more.

63. Since having become a single parent, have you found that you have more or fewer responsibilities?
- A few less.
 - Same amount.
 - A few more.
 - Many more.
64. If your child got in trouble at school or on the school bus would you
- Punish the child strongly.
 - Punish the child moderately.
 - Talk to and may be punish the child.
 - Say nothing and let the child face the consequences of his/her actions.
65. How often do you praise your child for good behavior at home or at school?
- At least once a day.
 - About once or twice a week.
 - About two to three times a month.
 - About once a month or less.
66. How much time do you spend talking to your child?
- Fifteen minutes or less a day.
 - One-half hour each day.
 - An hour each day.
 - Two hours or more every day.
67. My child is permitted to have guests in the house
- Guests can only come on special occasions.
 - Most of the time but an adult must be present.
 - Most of the time but must ask first.
 - Whenever the child wants.
68. When your child misbehaves how often do you punish him/her?
- Always.
 - Usually three out of four times.
 - Seldom, one out of four times.
 - Hardly ever, less than one out of five times.
69. If you saw your child's bed unmade after he/she left for school, would you
- Not make it and mention it to your child.
 - Make it your self and mention it to your child.
 - Make it your self and not say anything.
 - Not do anything.
70. When you have trouble "making ends meet" do you
- Ignore the bills.
 - Ask for help from a friend or family.
 - Pay part of the bills or pay the important ones.
 - Talk to the people to whom you owe the money.

71. If a person you were seeing regularly had trouble getting along with (or didn't like) your children, what would you do?
- Keep seeing the person regardless.
 - Tell him/her ways to get along with your children.
 - Ask why he/she doesn't like your children and talk about that.
 - Stop seeing the person.
72. Do you have relaxing time to be alone for an hour or two (to read a book, watch TV, write letters, etc.)?
- Once a month or less.
 - A couple of times a month.
 - A couple of times a week.
 - Almost every day.
73. If your child's grade went down, would you
- Punish or get angry with the child.
 - Talk to your child and go to the school.
 - Talk to your child and try to find out what the problem is.
 - Do nothing.
74. On the weekends, I have a planned activity (movie, dinner, big chore, etc.) together with my child(ren)
- At least once every weekend.
 - About two or three times a month.
 - About once a month.
 - Every few months or less.
75. Do you have family traditions surrounding holidays?
- We have few, if any, family traditions.
 - We don't follow the family traditions that we have very well.
 - We have a few family traditions we keep most of the time.
 - We have a great many which we follow.
76. After school my child is supervised
- By me.
 - By a sitter, day care facility or an adult relative/friend.
 - By an older sibling or neighbor.
 - By no one.
77. What kind of rules do you have about rough-housing (noise, jumping on beds, breaking things, etc.)?
- I believe my child should be able to play any way he/she chooses.
 - My child can play mostly as he/she chooses.
 - My child is not permitted to break things and do things to hurt others or him/herself.
 - The type of play and amount of noise is limited while in the house to quiet games and reading.

78. If my child broke an important household rule, I would most likely
- Ignore the misbehavior.
 - Talk to the child and warn him/her of the consequences of the misbehavior.
 - Talk to the child and punish him/her moderately (restrict privileges, for a short time, take away allowances).
 - Strongly punish the child.
79. If your child was afraid of something (going to the dentist or doctor, giving talk at school, taking a test, etc.), how would you respond?
- Ignore the child's fear and hope it will go away.
 - Tell the child he/she is a big boy or girl and that there is nothing to fear.
 - Let the child know you understand and give your child some support.
 - Allow your child to express why he/she is frightened and talk about it.
80. How frequently do you show affection to your child (verbally or physically)?
- About once or twice a month or less.
 - About once a week.
 - Several times a week.
 - At least once a day.
81. Decisions concerning a family vacation
- Are made jointly with my child.
 - Are made by me but are discussed with my child first.
 - Are usually made by me.
 - Are always made by me.
82. We make some plans for the weekends
- Almost always prior to the weekend.
 - Usually prior to the weekend.
 - We sometimes make plans, but weekends are usually unscheduled.
 - We don't make plans, but do whatever comes up.
83. What kind of rules do you have about homework?
- Homework is closely supervised by me.
 - Homework must be done by a certain time or before TV or play.
 - The child's homework is the child's responsibility but I remind him/her to do it.
 - I usually don't know if my child's homework is done.
84. If I disapproved of a friend of my child I would
- Say nothing.
 - Express my disapproval and discuss with my child the possibility of seeing that friend less and let him/her decide.
 - Express my disapproval and request that my child spend less time with the friend.
 - Forbid my child from seeing the friend.

85. Are there people from whom you could count on for help with some household chore or in an emergency?
- I don't feel that I could count on anyone.
 - I could count on one person.
 - I could count on two or three people.
 - I could count on four or five people.
86. My child and I
- Spend 7-10 hours a week doing activities together (reading a book, going to the park, playing a game).
 - Spend 4-7 hours a week doing activities together.
 - Spend 1 or less hours a week doing activities together.
87. Do you introduce your dates to your children?
- I don't bring my dates to the house.
 - Only if it happens by chance.
 - If I really like the person.
 - I almost always introduce my dates to my kids.
88. How often does your child tell you about his/her day?
- My child never tells me about his/her day.
 - My child tells me about his/her day about once a week or less.
 - My child tells me about his/her day several times a week.
 - My child tells me about his/her day almost every day.

APPENDIX I

Please answer this questionnaire as completely as possible. Thank you for your valuable cooperation.

HEALTH RESOURCES INVENTORY (E.L. GESTEN, 1976)

	not at all	a little	moderately well	well	very well
1. Functions well even with distractions	1	2	3	4	5
2. Feels good about himself or herself	1	2	3	4	5
3. Applies learning to new situations	1	2	3	4	5
4. Has a good sense of humor	1	2	3	4	5
5. Is interested in schoolwork	1	2	3	4	5
6. Shares things with others	1	2	3	4	5
7. Is well-behaved in school	1	2	3	4	5
8. Is mature	1	2	3	4	5
9. Approaches new experiences confidently	1	2	3	4	5
10. Is a happy child	1	2	3	4	5
11. Does original work	1	2	3	4	5
12. Can accept things not going his way	1	2	3	4	5
13. Is pleasant with his complements	1	2	3	4	5
14. Defends his views under group pressure	1	2	3	4	5
15. Mood is balanced and stable	1	2	3	4	5
16. Resolves peer problems on his own	1	2	3	4	5
17. Copes well with failure	1	2	3	4	5
18. Follows class rules	1	2	3	4	5
19. Participates in class discussions	1	2	3	4	5
20. Is able to question rules that seem unfair or unclear to him	1	2	3	4	5
21. Uses teacher appropriately as resource	1	2	3	4	5
22. Is affectionate toward others	1	2	3	4	5
23. Is generally relaxed	1	2	3	4	5
24. Is a self-starter	1	2	3	4	5
25. Plays enthusiastically	1	2	3	4	5
26. Completes his homework	1	2	3	4	5
27. Has a lively interest in his environment	1	2	3	4	5

		not at all	a little	moderately well	well	very well
28.	Anger, when displayed, is justified	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Is trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Works well without adult supervision	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Expresses ideas willingly	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Carries out requests and directions	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Uses his imagination well	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Well liked by classmates	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Is good in arithmetic	1	2	3	4	5
36.	Tries to help others	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Is well organized	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Faces the pressures of competition well	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Has many friends	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Works up to potential	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Thinks before acting	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Accepts legitimate imposed limits	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Knows his or her strengths and weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5
44.	Adjusts well to changes in the classroom routine	1	2	3	4	5
45.	Expresses needs and feelings appropriately	1	2	3	4	5
46.	Accepts criticism well	1	2	3	4	5
47.	Is a good reader	1	2	3	4	5
48.	Is comfortable as a leader and a follower	1	2	3	4	5
49.	Functions well in unstructured situations	1	2	3	4	5
50.	Is spontaneous	1	2	3	4	5
51.	Works well toward long-term goals	1	2	3	4	5
52.	Works for own satisfaction, not just rewards	1	2	3	4	5
53.	Rarely requires restrictions or sanctions	1	2	3	4	5
54.	Is polite and courteous	1	2	3	4	5

Name of Child: _____

Completed by: _____

School: _____

Date: _____
(yr/mo/day)

APPENDIX J

School Achievement

Name: _____

School: _____

Grade: _____

Board: _____

	Pre		Post	
1rst		2nd	1rst	2nd

READING:

oral

comprehension

vocabulary

research skills

WRITTEN EXPRESSION:

vocabulary

structure

spelling

penmanship

creativity

MATHEMATICS:

understanding concepts

accuracy:

problem solving

oral

COMMENTS:

Completed / / /

Appendix K

Anova: Pre-separation Global grade scores by grade
at separation, sex and adjustment groups

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	<u>p</u>
Main Effect	32.657	4	8.614	1.069	0.37
Grade at separation	12.083	2	6.041	0.791	0.45
Sex	6.768	1	6.768	0.886	0.35
Achievement (global)	17.791	1	17.791	2.329	0.13
Explained	32.657	4	8.164	1.069	0.37
Residual	599.912	72	7.638		
Total	582.569	76			

Appendix L

Anova: Post separation Global grade scores by grade
at separation, sex and adjustment groups

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	<u>p</u>
Main Effect	109.024	4	27.25	6.25	0.0001
Grade at separation	17.30	2	8.65	1.98	0.145
Sex	2.44	1	2.43	0.56	0.457
Achievement (global)	72.39	1	72.39	16.61	0.0001
Explained	109.024	4	27.25	6.25	0.0001
Residual	313.684	72	4.35		
Total	422.708	76			

Appendix M

Chi Square analysis of sex-pairing for
Adjusted and Non Adjusted children

	$\bar{\chi}$ (df=1)	p (one-tailed)
Global	0.0005	0.4909
Reading	1.6041	0.1026
Writing	1.0088	0.1576
Math	0.0534	0.4085

Appendix N

MANOVA on the Home Environment Questionnaire

Multivariate Tests of Significance

Test Name	Exact F	<u>p</u>
Pillais Hotellings Wilks	.8382	.584

Univariate F-tests (1, 75) D.F.

Variable	Error SS	F	<u>p</u>
ACH	149.11	.3527	.554
AE	76.95	.0297	.864
AH	480.65	2.6773	.106
SUP	125.64	.9542	.332
CH	245.64	.8950	.347
AFF	85.58	.1108	.740
SEP	40.91	.5671	.454
SOC	49.78	.0132	.909
SS	572.10	3.9662	.050*

Note. *p < 0.05

Appendix 0

MANOVA on Children's Separation Inventory
and Global Achievement Groups

Multivariate Tests of significance

Test Name	Exact F	<u>p</u>
Pillais Hotellings Wilks	1.898	.093

Univariate F-tests (1, 74) D.F.

Variable	Error Sum Square	F	<u>p</u>
Peer Ridicule and Avoidance (PRA)	132.45	.6567	.420
Paternal Blame	301.29	2.1760	.144
Fear of Abandonment	92.59	8.6438	.004*
Hope of Reunification	213.92	.0079	.929
Maternal Blame	90.83	.0418	.838
Self Blame	163.68	.4480	.505

Note. *p < 0.05

Appendix P

MANOVA on Health Resources Inventory
and Global Achievement Groups

Multivariate Tests of significance

Test Name	Exact F	<u>p</u>
Pillais Hotellings Wilks	.806	.551

Univariate F-tests (1, 49) D.F.

Variable	Error Sum Square	F	<u>p</u>
Good Student	66.73	3.0545	.087
Gutsy	45.92	.8701	.355
Peer Sociability	52.49	.7232	.399
Rules	37.04	1.6267	.208
Frustration	55.58	.3090	.581
Tolerance			

Appendix Q

MANOVA on the Single Parent Questionnaire
and the Global achievement scores

Multivariate tests or Significance

Test Name	Exact F	<u>p</u>
Pillais	.8052	.569
Hotellings		
Wilks		

Univariate F-tests (1, 75) D.F.

Variable	Error SS	F	<u>p</u>
Problem-solving skill (PRS)	912.82	.0515	.821
Support System (SUP)	479.47	4.1038	.046*
Warmth (WAR)	622.80	.2253	.636
Discipline (DIS)	646.64	.0669	.797
Enthusiasm (ENT)	740.37	.8965	.347
Parent Rules (PAR)	1747.96	.0315	.860

Note. *p < 0.05

Appendix R

Calculation of Power Analysis for Single Parenting Questionnaire

$$G = 8.39$$

$$n' = \frac{2(54)(23)}{54 + 23} = \frac{2484}{77} = 32.26$$

$$d = \left| \frac{188,24 - 189,43}{8.39} \right| = 0.14 \quad (\text{small effect size})$$

$$\text{power (one-tail, } \alpha_1 = .05) = .115$$

$$\text{if } d = .50 \text{ (medium effect size)}$$

$$\text{then, power} = .63$$

Both effect sizes indicate that the sample size is too small to detect an effect.

Appendix S

Crosstabs Tables: Global grade scores by Reading, Writing and Math Scores

1. Global By Reading grade scores on Adjusted and Non Adjusted groups.

		<u>Reading</u>		
		<u>Adjusted</u>	<u>Non Adjusted</u>	
Global	Adjusted	48	6	54
	Non Adjusted	7	16	23
		55	22	77

2. Global by Writing grade scores on Adjusted and Non Adjusted groups.

		<u>Writing</u>		
		<u>Adjusted</u>	<u>Non Adjusted</u>	
Global	Adjusted	50	4	54
	Non Adjusted	6	17	23
		56	21	77

3. Global by Math grade scores on Adjusted and Non Adjusted groups.

		<u>Math</u>		
		<u>Adjusted</u>	<u>Non Adjusted</u>	
Global	Adjusted	38	16	54
	Non Adjusted	6	17	23
		44	33	77