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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF JOINT LEGAL CUSTODY VERSUS SOLE MATERNAL CUSTODY ON THE EFFECTS OF CHILDREN OF DIVORCE LIVING WITH THEIR MOTHERS

By

Margaret Cecelia Walsh

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ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF JOINT LEGAL CUSTODY VERSUS SOLE MATERNAL CUSTODY ON THE EFFECTS OF CHILDREN OF DIVORCE LIVING WITH THEIR MOTHERS

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Joint legal custody has been advocated as a post-divorce custodial arrangement which: a) facilitates continued regular, and frequent visitation, b) reduces post-divorce interparental hostilities and c) facilitates more regular support payments by fathers. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether a designated legal custody had any impact on child adjustment and these post-divorce parental behaviors. Children living with their mothers in joint legal custody versus sole maternal custody arrangements were compared. A representative sample was selected from county court files based on the date of complaint filing and the presence of minor children in the dissolving marriage. Consent rates were 44% for joint legal custody families and 33% for sole maternal custody families.

From the 113 interviewed families, thirty joint legal custody children were paired with thirty sole maternal custody children, matched on sex and age of the child and,

when possible, mother's level of education and income, number of siblings and IQ of the child. The design controlled for developmental stage of the child and time since divorce. Several reliable and valid child instruments and a parent questionnaire were utilized for a multi-method, multi-variate approach to assess post-divorce child adjustment and mediating parent variables.

Results indicated that children in joint legal custody and sole maternal custody arrangements had relatively comparable child adjustment scores. Those scores which differed could be adequately explained by pre-divorce differences between the parents. The hypothesized increase in father visitation and coparental communication was not found to be significantly different between the two custody groups and joint legal custody mothers tended to indicate that fathers were less regular in their child support payments and that their economic situation was worse after the divorce. The best predictor of high child adjustment was not legal custody, but other parent-focused variables such as a) less coparental interaction and less physical proximity between the divorced parents' homes, b) mothers' personal and educational strength, c) the amount of pre- and post-divorce interparental hostility, and d) the quality of the father-child relationship.

DEDICATION

To the mothers and children
who opened up their hearts and homes
so that others might learn
from their experiences.

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INTRODUCTION

Divorce researchers are well aware of the rise in the divorce rate in the last twenty years and very familiar with Glick's (1979) estimate that by 1990, over one-third of the nation's children will experience the divorce of their parents before they reach the age of 18. There are numerous decisions to be made regarding the welfare of the children. Parents and professionals in legal and mental health fields struggle to determine the most efficacious solutions to problems of where the children will reside and who will be responsible for them. While maternal custody is still the most commonly awarded custodial arrangement, this prevalent preference has been questioned by working mothers and child-involved fathers who are seeking other alternatives. Joint custody has been proposed, and is becoming a possible solution to ameliorate some of the problems associated with post divorce adjustment for children. In its most radical form, it is a parenting arrangement where the child's residence is split between the parents. Most frequently, the child must live at least 30% of the time with one parent (usually father) and 70% of the time with the other parent (usually mother) to be deemed joint physical custody. This option has been highly controversial due to the stresses associated with necessary cooperation and frequent

interaction between former spouses and the lack of continuity in child care and shifting environments (Bodenheimer, 1977; Clingempeel & Reppucci, 1982; Cox and Cease, 1978; Derdeyn and Scott, 1984). Thus, many professionals and parents are now claiming the merits of a joint legal custody where the child resides with one parent (usually the mother) and both parents share parental decision-making rights and responsibilities concerning such areas as the health care, religion, and education of their child. Several states have established a preference for joint custody, most frequently awarding joint legal custody. However, it is disturbing to discover that these policy decisions are being advocated without empirical knowledge of the effects of these arrangements on the well-being of the children involved. Few studies have examined the adjustment of children of divorce in joint physical custody. To date, there are no studies which have explored the effects on children of joint legal custody. Clearly, research in this area is clinically relevant and socially mandated.

The purpose of this dissertation is to assess comparatively the post-divorce adjustment of children in two different legal custody arrangements: joint legal custody and sole maternal custody. As used in this study, joint legal custody will refer to families where both parents have joint legal custody and mother has physical custody and sole maternal custody will refer to families

where mother has sole legal custody and sole physical custody of the children.

The goals of the introduction will be two-fold. First, the theoretical viewpoints and empirical studies on joint custody will be outlined and the aspects which are relevant to the present study will be highlighted. Second, the literature on the effects of divorce on children in maternal custody will be reviewed briefly to illustrate the importance of parental variables for the children's post-divorce adjustment.

Theoretical Perspectives on Joint Custody

Though little work has been done on directly assessing child adjustment, there has been much theorizing about the positive or negative consequences of joint custody for children. Not surprisingly, the theoretical underpinnings of different positions alter their perspectives on the outcome. Those with a more psychoanalytic view, conscious of the internal importance of emotional ties for the child's cognitive and emotional development, seek to protect the mother-child relationship and insure stability in the child's environment. Goldstein, Freud & Solnit (1973) laid the foundation for the arguments opposing joint legal custody. They asserted that the child's attachment to both parents would be threatened if the child were forced to try to maintain a positive relationship with two parents who were hostile to each other. Furthermore, to ask children to maintain these ties would be to increase the likelihood of

severe and crippling loyalty conflicts. Their solution was to propose that the parent with whom the child had the strongest emotional relationship should be granted full custody, and safeguarded at all costs. To this end, they recommend giving the custodial parent full powers to decide whether the other parent may visit with the child.

Other major concerns were expressed by various writers. The frequent changes from household to household and the routine exposure to different lifestyles were thought to confuse the child and make him or her anxious, fostering a sense of instability (Alexander, 1977; Benedek & Benedek, 1979; Nehls & Morgenbesser, 1980). The possibility of either parent moving away following a remarriage or career advancement was thought to engender in the child a perception that his or her custodial status was in a constant state of precarious balance (Benedek & Benedek, 1979). Others pointed out that living in two households might have detrimental effects on the child's peer relationships (Nehls & Morgenbesser, 1980). Finally, reconciliation fantasies might be exacerbated (Noble, 1983).

One might categorize many of the advocates for joint custody as having a more family systems orientation to the outcome of joint custody. Attention is focused on the interfamily relationships: father-child, mother-child and parent-parent subsystems. Safeguarding the legal rights of parents is viewed as a way to preserve the child's relationship with both parents (Grote & Weinstein, 1977;

Roman & Haddad, 1978, Stack, 1976). In this context, the opportunity to spend substantial periods of time with each parent and to share in day-to-day activities allows for and facilitates solid attachments to mother and father. Consequently, children do not need to suppress their anger and sense of conflict about the divorce process out of fears that they will drive the visiting parent away. They may also be less likely to scapegoat one parent while aligning themselves with the other (Grief, 1979; Roman & Haddad, 1978). Additionally, since neither parent is overburdened by child care responsibilities, it is theorized that the parent-child interaction would be improved (Roman & Haddad, 1978). Rather than causing confusion and anxiety, living in two households could be an enriching exposure to diverse lifestyles. (Stack, 1976)

Important to the ongoing debates are the consequences to the parents as well as to the children. The major areas of concern are the course of interparental conflict, the emotional separation of the divorcing couple, the post-divorce adjustment of both parents, and fathers' continued involvement with their children. Critics of joint custody have argued that the increased parental contact of sharing parenting will heighten interparental conflict (Benedek & Benedek, 1979; Jenkins, 1977). Many find it unrealistic to assume that two people who have found it necessary to divorce could cooperate reasonably in a joint custodial arrangement. Additionally, they maintain that it may

prevent parents from confronting and accepting the termination of their marriage (Nehls & Morgenbesser, 1980). This emotional separation process is essential to their own individual mourning process as well as to the child's. Both parents and children must come to terms with the reality that the parents have divorced. Joint parenting may foster a delay in the necessary grieving process by continual contact with their ex-spouse and investment in the coparental relationship.

Proponents of joint custody assume that the coparental relationship is distinctly different from an ex-espousal relationship. Rather than increasing interparental hostility, they feel joint custody will reduce conflict due to the effect of a 'no victory' custody award (Grote & Weinstein, 1977; Roman & Haddad; 1978; Stack, 1976). Furthermore, many suggest that interactions around child care between divorced parents is a healthy and appropriate interpersonal vehicle for continuing a relationship with a person with whom one has spent a good portion of one's life (Ahrons, 1981). Acknowledging the difficulties some parents may have with strong feelings toward their ex-spouse, they assert that the healing aspects of time and a non-adversarial custodial arrangement which fosters an equal and consistent parental relationship with the child through the divorce process will have a decidedly positive effect on the long term coparental relationship.

The most persuasive and compelling arguments for joint legal custody rest on the potential increase in the quality and quantity of parent-child contact with the nonresidential parent, most frequently the father, as well as increased post-divorce adjustment for parents. Many have suggested that fathers who do not have custody experience a pervasive sense of loss which may contribute to their post-divorce adjustment difficulties. (Gersick, 1979; Grief, 1979; Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1978; Jacobs, 1982) It has been noted that some fathers abruptly distance themselves from the children as a method of dealing with the pain of losing daily contact with their child (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1978; Seagall & Seagall, 1977; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). In a study on fathers with and without joint custody, Grief (1979) reported that fathers decreased their contact as diminished opportunities to interact with their children caused them to have less investment in their fathering role. But fathers with legal parental rights of joint custody are hypothesized to be more involved emotionally with their children, to contact them more frequently, to provide financial support if they have legal custody, regardless of the living arrangements. From interviews of 40 middle class divorced fathers about their perceptions of their father-child relationship, Grief (1979) concluded that fathers who had joint custody arrangements and more contact with their children were less likely to withdraw from their children, less likely to feel like a

"visitor" in their child's lives and to continue to have a high degree of involvement in and influence on their children's growth and development than father who had visitation rights and less contact with their children.

From the literature on joint physical custody, there are three suggested positive outcomes that apply to the joint legal custody arrangement. First, it is argued that joint legal custody facilitates continued, regular, and when possible, frequent visitation between each parent and child involved. This is hypothesized to have a positive effect on children because it reduces the experience of parental loss so frequently associated with divorce. Second, it is argued that joint legal custody reduces the post-divorce inter-parental hostilities, thereby eliminating some of the potential for prolonged destructive post-divorce conflict between parents which has been noted (Wallerstein and Kelly, 1980) to have detrimental effects on children's post-divorce adjustment. Third, it is argued that joint custody arrangements will facilitate more regular support payments by fathers who share equal rights and responsibilities for their child. This was hoped to address the issue of post-divorce economic deprivation known to have detrimental effects on the children, thereby redressing the burden of economic hardship so common in single-parent households (Colleta, 1979; Weitzman, 1985).

Skeptics of joint custody point out that fathers and mothers who would like to share parenting do not need to

rely on legal parameters to accomplish this goal and that the sanction of a father as a joint legal parent may be helpful during the initial post-divorce period but the influence of legal arrangements on the long-term parenting responsibilities and continued involvement appear highly questionable.

The Effects of Joint Physical Custody on the Post-Divorce Adjustment of Children

There have been notably few rigorous studies on the effects of joint physical custody on the post-divorce well-being of children. Those few pioneering efforts which have been conducted were more likely to have generated hypotheses to be tested and examined than to have answered the question of whether joint (physical) custody is beneficial to the child's adjustment post-divorce.

Arbarbanel (1979), in her case studies of four families (8 children, ranging from 4 1/2 years to 15 years old) pointed out the tasks of the child's relative adjustment and the efforts required of parents for joint parenting to have a satisfactory outcome. She concluded that joint physical custody provided a healthy care taking arrangement for the children in her sample. For the most part, she observed that the children felt comfortable living in two households and, were emotionally attached to both parents. While none experienced the loss of either parent, Arbarbanel noted that children missed the parent not present. She attributed the success of the arrangements to the fact that all parents

supported their ex-spouses' relationship with the children, agreed about child rearing values, shared responsibilities in a flexible manner and agreed on the implicit rules underlying the arrangement.

Exploratory research is certainly essential for generating new hypotheses. Arbarbanel's (1979) case studies provided material to be examined with interest. However, the study lacked: a) reliable and valid instruments to measure the child's adjustment, b) a sample clearly representative of the population of interest, c) appropriate comparison groups and d) attention to mediating variables within a correlational design.

Steinman (1981) assessed the adjustment of 32 children in 24 families. Her subjects were contacted through personal referrals and local newspapers. The primary strength of this study was the attempt to gather more objective measures of post-divorce child adjustment through place interviews, the Kinetic Family Drawing Test, and the Cooopersmith Self-esteem Scale. Parent-child relationships were explored by parent interviews and questionnaires. Steinman concluded that shared care-taking arrangements clearly benefited some but burdened others. In general, children were firmly attached and loyal to both parents, able to cope well with the differences between the two households, and carry on a separate relationship with each parent. Most had a sense of their own importance in the family and of being wanted. Steinman suggested that they

did not feel as abandoned and rejected as might be expected when compared to siuations where parents had less contact with their child. But, one-third of her sample was burdened with a hyper-alertness to their parents' feelings and over concern with being fair to both parents. Whereas most of the children appeared to have little trouble handling the changes associated with the joint physical custody arrangement and seemed to have a clear understanding of their schedule, 25% of the children experienced confusion and anxiety. Developmental factors appeared to underlie these anxieties; confusion found primarily among four- and five-year-old girls and five- to nine-year-old boys. Reconciliation fantasies were present in 80% of the children although the authors felt children were aware of the unreality of these wishes. Most of the children still expressed the wish that parents had never divorced and over 50% admitted periodic sadness surrounding the divorce experience. Steinman concluded that a cooperative and respectful relationship between the parents and mutual support of the child's relationship to both parents seemed to be more significant to child adjustment than the equality of the amount of time spent with the child.

Rich with descriptive information, Steinman's study had several major methodological drawbacks including: a) inadequate sampling procedures, b) lack of control for factor of parental remarriage, c) non-independent observations due to the use of siblings, d) absence of or

inattention to the developmental level of the child, e) inadequate reliability for several measures used and f) the absence of relevant comparison groups.

Subsequently, Luepnitz (1982) utilized three comparison groups of parents and their children to contrast different custody situations (maternal, paternal and joint). Soliciting from singles groups, newspaper ads, lawyers, colleagues and the subjects in the study, the author gathered 16 custodial mothers, 16 custodial fathers and 18 joint custody parents and measured child and parental adjustment as well as the home environment. Luepnitz's results suggest no statistically significant differences among the custody types on the child's adjustment as measured by The Piers Harris Self-Concept Test and parents' ratings of child behaviors, psychosomatic symptoms and general self-esteem. Nor were there group differences in parent adjustment measured by the Rank Stress Scale and level of pre- and post-parental conflict groups, children in high conflict families were reported to have lower self-esteem and more behavioral and psychosomatic problems, a finding comparable to studies on sole maternal custody.

Luepnitz's (1982) study represents an advance over much previous work in this area. Appropriate comparison groups were used and samples were large enough for statistical comparisons. Yet the methodological difficulties still are formidable, especially: a) inadequate sampling strategy, b) use of siblings which yields non-independent data, and

c) use of several measures of questionable reliability and validity.

In summary, Arbarbanel (1979) and Steinman (1981) support the possibility of joint physical custody having no more negative effects than other custody arrangements and suggest that children in such arrangements have adjusted. In the only published study utilizing comparison groups, Luepnitz found no significant differences between custody types. Unfortunately, methodological flaws preclude any definitive statements about the effects of joint physical custody on child adjustment. The methodological difficulties of these studies can be divided into three major types. The first is inadequate sampling techniques which limit generalizability of findings. The second is the use of adjustment measures of doubtful reliability and/or validity. The third is the lack of attention to and control for potential mediating parent variables such as coparenting abilities, father visitation, and many others.

A major problem which influences the comparison of the different joint custody studies and their findings is that the <u>definition of joint custody varies from study to study</u>. In general, court recommendations and awards frequently are based on philosophical conceptualizations which do not specify residential or physical arrangements (Gaddis, 1978; Grote & Weinstein, 1977; Weiss, 1977). For example, the legal definition of joint custody according to the Michigan Child Custody Act of 1970 (revised 1981) is that one <u>or</u> both

of the following is specified: a) a child resides alternately for specific periods with each of the parents, and b) the parents share decision-making authority for the important decisions affecting the child's welfare. A judge might award "joint custody" to one family where the child spends equal time in both mother's and father's homes and to another where the child lives with his or her mother and visits father once a year.

Researchers interested in examining the effects of joint custody arrangements on children initially decided to use a "psychological" rather than legal definition. Arbarbanel (1979) described joint custody as the arrangement whereby the child lived in two households, did not consider either of his or her parents a visitor and both parents actively continued to share parenting. By her criteria, division of time-sharing and involvement in day care responsibilities was to consist of a 50/50 to 67/33 ratio and legal arrangements were not considered important. In a similar fashion, Steinman (1981) examined 24 "extra-judicially joint custody families." Parents had mutually agreed outside of the courtroom to share the decision-making authority and child-rearing responsibilities of their children, and viewed themselves as equally important for the emotional, physical, intellectual and moral development of their children. Steinman also felt that the "psychological experience" of joint custody as defined by the parental commitment, the two-home living arrangement and the 50/50 to

67/33 ratio of child time-sharing were more important than the legal definition. (In fact, Steinman's study contained couples who had never married as well as couples who were not finally divorced.)

Several authors advocated joint custody as a superior choice for children without providing a working definition of joint custody (Grief, 1979; Luepnitz, 1982). Others consider joint custody as a legal rather than psychological definition, thereby combining several types of physical possession (i.e., designated living arrangements) under the term 'joint legal custody' (Ahrons, 1977, Ilfeld, et al., 1982). For example, as noted by Ahrons (1980), available options for physical custody or possession included: a) awarding the physical possession to either mother or father; b) awarding alternating physical possession to both parents, whereby each parent has the child for specified time periods; and c) awarding divided or "split" possession of the children where each parent has at least one of the children living with them).

Prior studies on the effect of joint custody in which children have been observed have utilized the "psychological" definition (Arbarbanel, 1979; Steinman, 1981) while studies which have examined the coparental relationship have employed the broader, more inclusive legal definition (Ahrons, 1977; Ilfeld, et al., 1982). Researchers inadvertently may have pointed to the fact that the psychological definition is more important to the child while the legal

definition may be more important to the parents. However, from the available research, it is impossible to discern which is more salient, since no study has yet examined the effects of joint custody on children using the legal definition. A study which singles out and examines the implications of the joint legal custody arrangement in comparison to sole maternal custody on the child's adjustment, regardless of other factors, is needed to help answer whether joint custody irrespective of frequency of father contact with children is in the "best interest" of the children.

The Coparental Relationship in Joint Custody

One of the major mediating variables for child adjustment in joint custody are the strengths and weaknesses of the coparental relationship. Luepnitz's (1982) study suggested that a non-conflicted coparental relationship was most salient to child adjustment, regardless of custody arrangement. Steinman (1981) and Arbarbanel (1979) also noted the importance of parental cooperation in their joint custody families, stressing the importance of parents' ability to separate their marital and parental relationships with one another. From their observations, residual hostility from the marital aspects or the couple relationship remained present but was relatively muted and controlled. Ex-spouses purported to value each other as parents. Admittedly, coparenting alleviated some of the parents' sense of loss and disruption as parents tried

gradually to reorganize their lives. Overall, mothers were satisfied with the joint custody arrangement because it enabled them to continue a career as well as care for their children; fathers valued the opportunity to maintain active involvement with their children (Steinman, 1981).

Ahrons (1981) conducted in-depth semi-structured interviews with 41 parents who were awarded joint custody, were not remarried and had monthly contact with their former spouse. Drawing from San Diego Court files, Ahrons attempted to distinguish between parental and non-parental dimensions of a relationship between former spouses, probing into the content, frequency and amount of information shared and degree of satisfaction with joint custody arrangements. She concluded that most divorced parents maintained an ongoing relationship that centered on child issues but was not limited to them. Some parents developed clear-cut rules about what topics could and could not be discussed to avoid conflict while others were more ambiguous in their arrangements.

Making the assumption that relitigation is an indication of parental conflict, Ilfeld, Ilfeld and Alexander (1982) compared the relitigation rates of sole custody and joint custody couples. Data collection was based on 414 consecutive cases of custody from the Los Angeles Court files over a two-year period. The authors note that 91% of sole custody cases and 86% of joint custody awards were based on parental agreement rather than court

mandate. Comparative results indicate that joint custody parents (16%) had half as many incidences of relitigation than sole custody parents (32%). Most of the relitigation in sole custody arose from requests to change custody from one parent to the other, from requests to modify visitation schedules or from contempt of court charges due to violations of conditions of the visitation. Only a small percentage requested a change from sole custody to joint custody. It is striking that the authors did not mention or include in their analyses relitigation concerning non-payment of child support, a frequent post-divorce relitigation. While the authors acknowledge that their study was limited due to the short follow-up period and the absence of personal interviews with the families, they argue that "joint custody results in less parental conflict and implicitly in lower child distress than exclusive custody" (Ilfeld, et al., 1982, p. 64). It should be noted that these assumptions about child adjustment are not based on child observation.

Although the joint custody researchers have attempted to address the degree of post-divorce parental conflict, and one study reported evidence of decreased relitigation, there are several reasons why these observations are limited. First, many of the parents in Arbarbanel and Steinman's study had mutually agreed upon joint custody outside of the courtroom, presumably coming to terms with the parental arrangements in their decision-making. Degree of post-

divorce conflict for these couples may not be representative of those parents who have been awarded the custody arrangement in court. Second, the length of time since the joint custody arrangement had been instituted for many of Steinman's subjects was two to four years, a long period for the psychological acceptance of the arrangement. While it is possible post-divorce conflict diminishes over time, there is no assurance that high levels of conflict were evident earlier. Third, the diminished legal conflict reported in Ilfeld, et al., may be different from the parental conflict anticipated within the home over everyday matters.

Contributions from the Research on Maternal Custody

The contributions of sole maternal custody research to the current questions about joint custody has been thoroughly reviewed by Clingempeel & Reppucci (1982) and Derdeyn & Scott (1984). The importance of four types of influences have been stressed for the child's subsequent adjustment to the divorce. These are the developmental stage of the child (Gardner, 1977; Kalter & Rembar, 1981; Landis, 1960; Neubauer, 1960; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976), the sex of the child (Hetherington, 1978; 1985), the amount of time since divorce (Hetherington et al, 1978; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980), and the influence of important parental variables (Hetherington, 1978, 1985; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). High interparental conflict is likely to cause increased distress in children in any family

but particularly in families of divorce (Emery, 1982; Hetherington et al, 1982; Hess & Camara, 1979; Jacobson, 1978; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). High quality relationships with both parents have been seen to have significant positive effects on children's post-divorce adjustment (Hess & Camara, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Greater amounts of father visitation generally predicted better child adjustment, if qualified by the absence of personal difficulties in the father and the ability of the two parents to cooperate with one another without tense and bitter interactions in front of the children (Furstenberg et al, 1983; Hetherington et al., 1982; Hess & Camara, 1979; Pett, 1982; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Finally, the positive adjustment of mother post-divorce and lack of severe economic stress are highly correlated with increased possibilities for a less tense and strained household environment which contributes considerably to the child's welfare after divorce (Colleta, 1979; Desmione-Luis, O'Mahoney, & Hunt, 1979; Hetherington et al., 1978; Weitzman, 1985). It is clear that children's post divorce adjustment is particularly susceptible to mediating parental influences. Thus, any study which examines post-divorce adjustment of children in joint custody should include adequate assessment of these factors.

The Current Study

As a result of the review of the joint physical custody literature, several important questions were raised about

the possible effects of a custody arrangement where children are living with mother but parents share legal decision-making rights and responsibilities. First, it is argued that joint legal custody would facilitate continued, regular, and when possible, frequent visitation between each parent and child involved. This is hypothesized to have a positive effect on children of divorce. Second, it is argued that joint legal custody would reduce the post-divorce interparental hostilities, thereby eliminating some of the potential for prolonged destructive post-divorce conflict between parents which has been noted to have detrimental effects of children's post-divorce adjustment. Third, it has been argued that joint custody arrangements will facilitate more regular support payments by fathers who share equal rights and responsibilities for their child. This is hoped to address the issue of post-divorce economic deprivation known to have detrimental effects on the children.

Does, in fact, legal custody in any way increase the likelihood of coparental cooperation, father visitation and reduce interparental hostility? When the children live with mother, what are the advantages and disadvantages of a custody arrangement that safeguards the legal rights of both parents when compared to a family where mother single-handedly has the full legal responsibility of the children? How do these parental differences, if any, influence children's adaptation to the post-divorce situation? Are

there other factors more important than the legal arrangement that would influence children's adaptation to post-divorce family life?

To answer with confidence these questions concerning the impact of the legal conditions of joint custody or sole custody, the current study provided a legal rather than psychological definition of joint custody, ensured a representative sample, used reliable and valid child instruments, and avoided confounding effects of the presence of siblings. It controlled by its design for the age of the child and the time since divorce. Parental mediating variables such as the amount of coparental cooperation, the quality of father-child and mother-child relationships, interparent conflict and changes in economic situations were also included.

HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis I:

Children of divorce, whether in sole maternal custody or joint legal custody will have lower child adjustment scores when compared to the national and standardized norms for the following child instruments: a) Perceived Competence Scale (Harter, 1980), b) Child Depression Inventory (Kovacs, 1981) and c) the Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach & Edlebrock, 1983).

This assumption is based on the two longitudinal studies which point to the impact and stress of divorce on children and their families (Hetherington, et al., 1978; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). In the absence of a control group of intact families, this comparison was seen as essential to give a reference point for the following hypotheses testing.

Hypothesis II:

Children in joint legal custody will have higher child adjustment scores than children in sole maternal custody arrangements.

This assumption is based on the viewpoint that joint legal custody, by safeguarding both parents' legal rights, will facilitate: a) in-

creased coparental cooperation, b) father involvement and visitation, and c) improved economic conditions. These factors are likely to increase child self-esteem and reduce the depression so common to children post-divorce. However, increased parental interaction with the accompanying possibility of higher tension might suggest that joint legal custody children would have more loyalty conflicts. The advantages to children of increased father involvement, due to the importance of continued and regular visitation and economic support were thought to outweigh the disadvantages of the possibility for parental conflict.

Hypothesis III:

Differences will be observed between children of the opposite sex regardless of type of custody.

Due to the observations of boys' vulnerabilities in the post-divorce adjustment process, it is thought that they may show greater increased externalized behaviors than will girls, although this difference is not only divorce related (Achenbach & Edlebrock, 1983). Additionally, due to the importance of same-sex identification, boys may have higher positive perceptions of father and girls may have higher positive perceptions of mother.

Hypothesis IV:

Differences will be observed between the adjustment scores of early latency (6-8 years) and late latency (9-12 years) children.

This hypothesis is founded on the differences observed in the responses to divorce in early and late latency-aged children and their prominent use of different defenses during the post-divorce adjustment process (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976, 1980). Additionally, it is also based on the difference in cognitive capabilities and in their distance from and resolution of the oedipal stage of development at the time of the divorce.

Hypothesis V:

There will be differences in parental variables due to the type of legal custody arrangement.

Based on the outlined hypothesized assumptions in the joint custody literature, joint legal custody parents will have coparental communication and cooperation, increased father visitation and reduced interparental conflict (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980).

METHODS

Sampling Procedures

With the collaboration and guidance of Dr. Neil Kalter, Director of the Family Styles Project at the University of Michigan, a comparative study on the effects of divorce on children in joint legal custody and sole maternal custody was initiated in March, 1983. The legal divorce process formally begins when one party of the divorcing couple files a complaint with the county clerk. Under the auspices of the Friend of the Court's director, permission was granted to enter the public file records of the Office of the County Court Clerk in Oakland County, a large county in southeastern Michigan. All public files regarding divorce both with and without minor children were ordered according to the date of the complaint filing. To ensure a representative sample, the first one hundred and fifty consecutive cases of divorcing parents with minor children were selected from every other month between January, 1981 and March, 1982 and the number of divorces without minors was recorded. The starting date of the sampling (January, 1981) was chosen for two reasons: a) a divorce filed at that time was more likely to be finalized and b) the divorce filing followed the Michigan Child Custody Act of 1970 (revised 1981) which required that parents be informed

of the joint custody option. The timing of the interviews conducted for this study was chosen so that families would be sufficiently beyond the initial crisis and trauma of the divorce process, thereby allowing both parents and children a chance to settle into their custody arrangement. Additionally, it was thought that the revised Michigan Child Custody Act of 1981 might increase the number of cases in which joint legal custody was awarded.

Selected information including the names and, when possible, the addresses of parents and the ages of their minor children was gathered from each case designated by the sampling procedure. Undergraduate students were trained by the investigator to examine the divorce decree for the following data: a) the date of marriage, separation and divorce, b) the result of the custody judgment, c) the amount of the court-awarded child support, d) the sex and age of the minor children, and e) the presence or absence and the substance of any relitigation.

From a total of 1200 selected records, approximately 76% represented divorces which were finalized. Cases had been dismissed for 17% of the sample because the parents had reconciled or had withdrawn their complaint filing, and 7% of the cases were still pending, awaiting the final divorce and custody decision.

Of the 76% of completed divorces (n=907), the breakdown of custody awards were: a) Joint legal custody with maternal possession (16.8%), b) Sole maternal custody and

maternal possession (70.3%), and c) Other (12.9%). Further details of the percentages of the complaint filing status and custody awards at the time of the sampling can be found in Table 1 on the next page.

From the larger sample, joint legal custody (N=153) and sole maternal custody (N=617) where children were living with their mothers were considered the potential population for the present study. Of 404 families who had children between the ages of 7 and 12, had 3 or fewer children, and lived in the State of Michigan, it was possible to locate 86% of the joint legal custody families (N=76) and 77% of the sole maternal custody families (N=243). These subjects were designated as the possible population, and were contacted. For a detailed outline of the outcome of the potential population from the court files, the possible population who were contacted by mail and by telephone, and finally, the actual population which was interviewed, the reader is referred to Table 2 on the following page.

The mailing procedure for contacting subjects involved sending each selected family two mailings. The first mailing was a postcard designed to catch their interest in the project and to alert them to the fact that they would soon be receiving material on a study of families and divorce. The second mailing contained a formal endorsement cover letter from the Friend of the Court, an accompanying introductory letter which explained the purpose and procedures of the research and requested their

Table 1: Distribution of Complaint Status and Percentage of Awarded Custody in Sampled Cases

DISTRIBUTION OF COMPLAINT STATUS AT SAMPLING

	Jan 1981	Mar 1981	May 1981	Jul 1981	Sep 1981	Nov 1981	Jan 1982	Mar 1981	Total
Divorce w/o minor children	91	105	83	105*	142	129	128	122*	905
Divorce w/ minor children	121	104	117	113	106	117	118	100	896 76.3%
Dismissed	18	34	25	23*	28	24	23	25*	201 17.1%
Still Pending	11	10	6	9*	15	8	6	12*	77 6.6%
Total	150 12.7%	148 12.6%	148 12.6%	145* 14.3%	149 12.7%	149 12.7%	147 12%	137* 11.7%	1174 100%

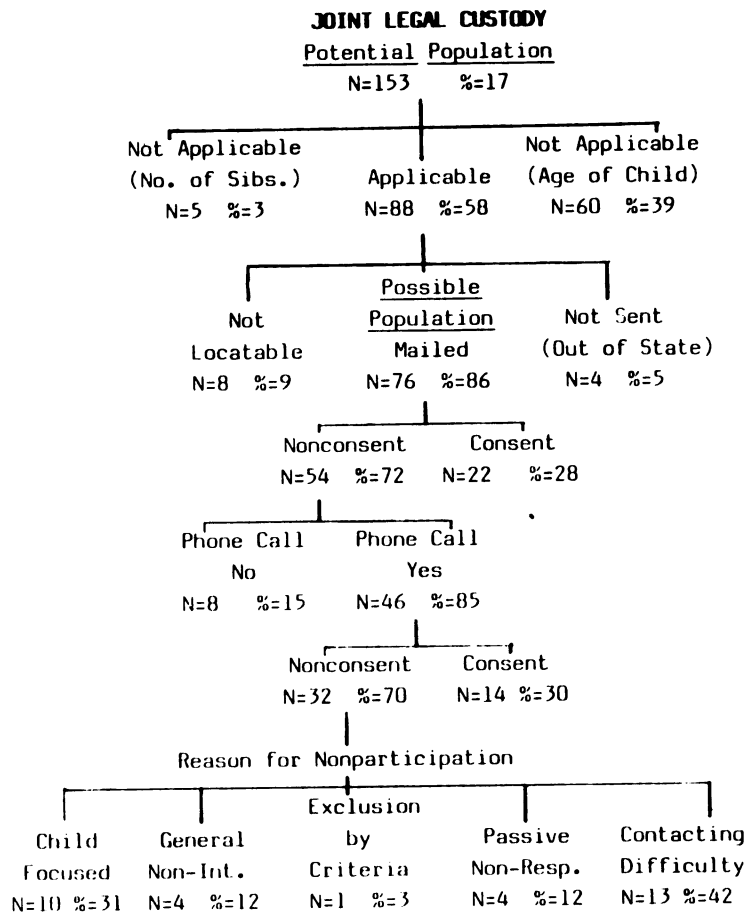
AWARDED CUSTODY ARRANGEMENTS**

Custody = Possession =	Joint w/ Joint	Joint w/ Maternal	Joint w/ Paternal	Joint w/ Split	Maternal w/ Maternal	Paternal w/ Paternal	Split w/ Split	Total
N =	26	153	32	10	617	48	17	903
% =	2.9	16.9	3.5	1.1	68.3	5.3	1.9	100%

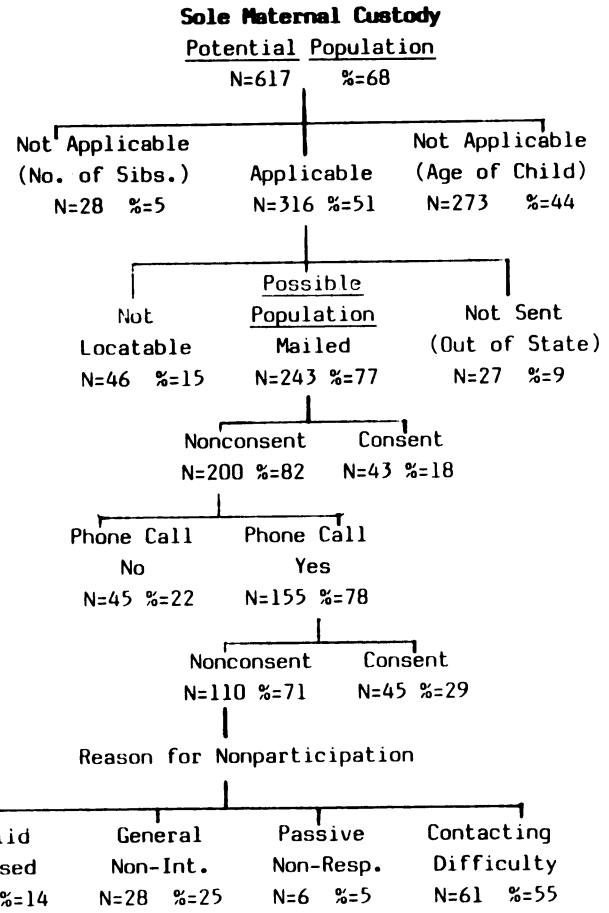
* = Estimates

** = Custody arrangements from the total population of sampled divorces with minor children (N = 903).

Table 2: Potential, Possible and Actual Population for Joint Legal Custody and Sole Maternal Custody



Total Consent to Interview: N=36 %=47
Actual Population: N=33 %=43



Total Consent to Interview: N=88 %=36
Actual Population: N=90 %=33

participation, and a consent form which parents are asked to return to the investigator with their phone number in the enclosed stamped envelope if they which to participate. (See Appendix A for a copy of the described materials.) A follow-up mailing a week after the second mailing of the aforementioned letters was sent to parents who had not returned the consent form.

An attempt was made by the investigator to contact by telephone all parents who had not returned a consent form after two weeks. With the access to the records of the Friend of the Court, it was possible to contact by telephone 85% (N=46) of the joint legal custody families and 78% sole maternal custody families. Due to the nature of the research, the investigator called parents to answer any questions about the project or the procedures. Most parents asked about the qualifications of the child interviewer, the nature of the questions that would be asked the child and parent, the purpose of the research project and how the data would be used. Many parents worried that children would be asked their choice of which parent they would rather live with. Parents were assured that the procedure was structured and non-intrusive. They were frequently relieved when they realized that the interviews would be in their home to provide a more comfortable setting for the child as well as for their convenience. Parents with further concerns were sent the child measures for their approval.

For the purposes of determining the reasons for nonparticipation, those nonconsenting or noninterested parents were asked why they did not wish to participate in the research. These frequencies and percentages for reasons of nonparticipation in both custody groups can also be found in Table 2. Examples of items in the major response categories for nonparticipating subjects are located in Table 3.

Table 3: Reasons for Nonparticipation

CATEGORY	DESCRIPTION
Child Focused	Afraid child be upset talking about divorce, Not sure child would feel comfortable talking to stranger, child wouldn't do it, questions too intrusive.
General Noninterest	
Positive	Good research project but no time, too busy with work and family.
Negative	Doesn't sound legitimate, general suspicion.
Exclusion by Criterion	Parents reconciled, no children 7 & 12 years old, moved out of state.
Passive non-response	Scheduled but canceled, no show at time of appointment, not now, call later, will send papers if not interested.
Contacting Difficulty	Never home, not possible to locate, wrong number, never returned call.

Of the joint legal custody subjects, 47% initially consented to be interviewed, but the dropout rate after consent was 9% (N=3). Two remarried mothers were requested/ told by their new husbands not to participate because they felt it was too intrusive. A third mother felt too emotionally pressured having just lost a job due to health problems which required immediate hospitalization. Of the

maternal custody subjects, thirty-six percent initially consented, but the drop out rate was also 9% (N=8). Several mothers felt they were too busy and cancelled without rescheduling. One mother who was not at the given address when we arrived for the interview, and was not locatible for rescheduling. Another mother with an unlisted phone number who consented did not respond to follow-up letters requesting her telephone number. Finally, a mother who thought that she consented to therapeutic counselling, explained she had been advised against participating by her new therapist.

Based on the actual population of those families interviewed, the consent rate for our mailing and follow-up phone call was 44% for joint legal custody families and 33% for sole maternal custody families. Locating families post-divorce and having them consent to research concerning divorces have each in their own right been difficult. For example, it is common for well-known and respected researchers to be able to locate 25% of the divorce cases within one year post-divorce (Stolberg, 1984)[1] and to have their consent rates of those that could be located fall at or below 16% (Warren, 1984).[2] Certainly our consent rates of 44% and 33% are low in the context of most research but because we could locate far more families than is usually the case, and we have a consent rate higher relative to most

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[1]Personal communication with N. Kalter about NIMH presentation in Washington, D.C., June, 1984.
[2]Ibid.

divorce research, we may be in a somewhat better position to construct a representative sample.

Parents completed the questionnaire at the time of the interview or were mailed them prior to the meeting and were filled out by the time of the interview. Each parent had the option of choosing to be interviewed at home or at the office of the Oakland County Friend of the Court. Only one child asked to meet at the office; she was a curious twelve-year-old who had "never seen a courthouse." The 45-60 minute structured interview for all the children consisted of administration of five child measures to be described more fully in a following section.

Children were interviewed in the home by one of three female interviewers (the principal investigator, a graduate student, or an undergraduate student). At the time of the interview, the child was asked to choose a private place to answer the questions. An introductory explanation of the procedures was given to the child before he or she was asked if they would like to participate in helping us learn about how children feel about divorce. If the child agreed, he or she was asked to fill out a consent form. (See Appendix A.) Only two children said they did not want to participate, but reconsidered as the interviewer began to leave. Many children became anxious and/or tearful during the interviews but wanted to continue when the possibility of stopping was offered by the interviewer.

One hundred and forty-four children were interviewed. Of the 33 joint legal custody families interviewed, three were excluded from the match based on the criteria of the study; two families had boys younger than 7 years old and one family had more than three children.

Subjects

Children

Latency-aged children, ages 7-12, were chosen as the focus of this study for several reasons. A theoretical consideration was the importance of father to children of this age, especially boys. Since one of the major advantages of joint legal custody over sole maternal custody is the hypothesized increased father involvement and visitation for the former, it seemed important to examine this factor in the context of children who have a particular developmental press for contact with their fathers. A methodological consideration was the availability of child measures with acceptable reliability and validity across this age group. And, finally, a practical consideration was the fact that latency-aged children have the cognitive capabilities to enable them to relate their perceptions about themselves and about the divorce while at a relative cooperative stage of development.

From the families who were interviewed, 30 sole maternal custody children were matched with 30 joint legal custody children on sex and age of the child, mother's level of education and income, and, when possible, on the number

of siblings and the IQ of the child. Since the study focused on elementary school-aged children and all the parents had filed for divorce during the same time period (between January, 1981, and March, 1982), the design controlled for factors such as developmental stage of the child and time since divorce. There were 18 boys and 12 girls in each custody group. All children lived with their mothers. Only one child per family and only families with 1-3 children were included in the study.

Parents

The majority of the parents in the sample were Caucasian with few exceptions (8.3%, n=5). Two joint legal custody families were black and three sole maternal custody families were from Indian, Asian, and Mexican ethnic background respectively. Religious affiliation varied. One-third of the sample was Catholic, one-third Protestant, and one-third other religious backgrounds or not religious at all.

Two-thirds of the mothers in both custody groups had post-divorce incomes above twenty thousand dollars per year. Of these high income mothers, one-half had a high school diploma and one-half had a college or graduate degree. One-third of the mothers in both custody groups had less than a twenty thousand dollar income and/or less than a high school education. Only two professional women were not employed and were lower income families.

Prior to the divorce, most of the mothers (90%) in both custody groups had worked. It appears that joint legal custody mothers had been more likely to return to work before their child's first birthday. (Chi Square = 13.74; df = 2 ; $p \leq .001$). Post-divorce, many of the mothers (80%) worked but joint legal custody mothers were more self-supporting, relying on their own job as their primary source of income. Additionally, they seemed to have slightly higher levels of education and to have filed for the divorce more frequently than sole maternal custody mothers. It should be mentioned that seventy-five percent of all mothers in this sample filed for divorce. Only ten percent of maternal custody mothers and thirty percent of the joint legal custody mothers reported that they had decided on their custody arrangements (with or without mutual agreement).

For most women, the divorce had been from their first marriage. Seventy percent had been married ten years and were between the ages of 30 and 39. Thirty percent of the mothers had had marriages of ten to twenty years duration and were between 40 and 50 years old. Most of the divorces (70%) had occurred two to three years prior to the interview. Only one-third of the families in both groups had one or more separations before the divorce or had moved since the divorce. Remarriage had occurred for approximately two-fifths of the mothers (40%) and one-third of the fathers (35%).

In the interviews, most mothers reported that they felt the immediate crises of the divorce had passed and that they were somewhat adjusted (or were trying to adjust) to the challenges of their present post-divorce life and custody arrangements.

Instruments

A multi-method approach to measuring child adjustment was utilized; both child-reported and parent-reported instruments were included. Additionally, measures of important parental mediating variables were employed. The following Table 4 lists the parent-child measures and variables to be described.

Table 4a: Child Measures

Child-Reported Instruments

1. Perceived Self-Competence Scale for Children (Harter,1980)
2. Children's Depression Inventory (Kovacs & Beck, 1977)
3. Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children (Nowicki & Strickland, 1983)
4. Similarities subscale for WISC-R.
5. Parent Perception Inventory (Hazzard, Christensen & Margolin, 1983)
6. The Divorce Perception Test (Plunkett & Kalter, 1984)

Mother-Reported Instruments

7. The Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1966)
8. The Perceptions of Divorce Impact (Plunkett, Riemer, Kalter, & Alpern, 1985)

Table 4b: Parent Measures

1. Coparenting Scales (from Semi-structured Interview, Ahrons, 1981)
   a. Quality of Coparental Communication (Conflict/ Support)
   b. Coparental Interaction: Parental Dimension
   c. Nonresidential Parent-Child Involvement Scale
2. Quality of Father-Child Relationship
   a. Frequency of Activities Pre and Post Divorce
   b. Closeness of Relationship Pre and Post Divorce
   c. Frequency, Length and Flexibility of Father Visitation
3. Quality of the Mother-Child Relationship
   a. Frequency of Activities Pre and Post Divorce
   b. Closeness of Relationship Pre and Post Divorce
   c. Mother's Adjustment
4. Interparental Conflict
   a. Degree of Predivorce Verbal and Physical Interparental Hostility (Jacobson, 1978)
   b. Conflict Scale (Ahron, 1981)
   c. Amount of Relitigation
5. Economic Stress
   a. Change in Economic Status Since Divorce
   b. Comparison of Pre and Post Divorce Incomes
   c. Regularity of Father's Support Payments
   d. Primary Source of Mother's Income

A. Child Measures

1) Perceived Competence Scale for Children

Developed by Harter (1980), this is a 28-item scale to assess the child's sense of competence across different domains. It was hypothesized that various components of a child's sense of self are related to areas of competence, rather than one global self-esteem score. In this test, three areas of competence are addressed through separate subscales: the cognitive subscale, the social subscale, and the physical subscale. The cognitive subscale covers the child's perception of self in areas such as doing well at school, being smart, and feeling good about his/her

classroom performance. The social subscale includes concerns of children related to having lots of friends, being easy to like, and being an important member of their class. The physical subscale refers to the child's athletic skills, for example, doing well in sports, learning new outdoor games readily, and preferring to play sports rather than merely watch while others play. Independent of the three skill domains is the general self-esteem subscale. In this category, references are made to children's sense of being sure of themselves, being happy with the way they are, feeling good about the way they acted, and thinking that they are a good person.

In order to correct for the abundance of socially desirable responses, Harter (1978) developed a "structured alternative format." A typical item resembled the following example:

Some kids often forget what they learn	Really true for me	Sort of true for me
	_____	_____
but	_____	_____
Other kids remember things easily	Really true for me	Sort of true for me
	_____	_____
	_____	_____

The child is faced with two decisions, alternatives which are made clear by the examiner when giving directions. First, the child has to decide what type of example is most like him/herself. The next step is to decide if the chosen description was 'sort of true' or 'really true' for him/her. Harter (1980) maintains that the effectiveness of the

question format is due to the implication that half of the children in the world (or, at least, for his/her reference of the world) view themselves one way, whereas the other half view themselves in the opposite manner. In this way, both choices are legitimized. Among the 28 items, half are worded so that the first part of the statement reflects high perceived competence and the remaining half of the items begins with the low perceived competence aspect of the statement. Harter interviewed children after administering the scale, probing for their reasons for their choices. She indicated that most were giving accurate self-perceptions. Considerable item response variability was also noted (Harter, 1980).

Within each of the four separate subscales, the scores are summed across the items and a mean score is obtained. Low perceived competence is indicated by a score of 1 on an item while high perceived competence is reflected in a score of 4.

Reliability and validity results were presented by Harter (1979, 1980). Initial estimates of internal reliability, measured by the Kuder-Richardson formula were .76, .78, .83, and .73 for the cognitive, social, physical, and general subscales, respectively. Harter had administered her scale to over 2,400 children in the third to sixth grade level, establishing normative data for each subtest for different age groups. Theoretically, the scale

construction should permit examination of individual or specific subgroup variability (Harter, 1979).

2) Children's Depression Inventory

The Children's Depression Inventory (CDI) is a 27-item instrument which has evolved from the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, 1967), a questionnaire that measures the mood, as well as cognitive and psychomotor aspects of adult depression. Kovacs and Beck (1977) modified the wording of some of the adult items to make it more meaningful to a child's experience (e.g., work became homework and guilty became ashamed). The test is administered orally with the researcher reading each item to the child. There are three answer choices. For example, the item which qualifies depressed mood is read three times with the relevant stem "I am sad": (0) once in a while, (1) many times or (2) all the time. Other stems included "I read books," "I have fun," "I am bad," and "things bother me." The child was instructed to select the one sentence of the three designated choices which best described him/her for the past two weeks. While the administrator reads aloud each item, the child is given a copy to follow along and to mark the inventory in the designated space to indicate his/her choices. In her published manual, Kovacs suggested that older children should be allowed to complete the CDI independently after an initial explanation in order that the rapport with the child can be maintained. Scoring consists of a choice from 0 to 2

in the direction of increasing symptom severity, thereby yielding a potential score range of 0 to 54.

Internal consistency has been established on the CDI in a psychiatric clinic sample (.86, N = 75), a medical setting (.71, N = 61) and a large nonclinical population (.87, N = 86). Using item-total score correlations on the above populations, the coefficients were most psychometrically acceptable in the psychiatrically referred group and the nonclinical setting (i.e., normal public school). (For a review, see Kovacs and Feinberg, 1982). Test-retest reliability revealed acceptable score stability with a correlation coefficient of .82 over a four-week period and .84 over a nine-week period. Content validity was considered in the CDI scale development by basing the test construction on careful evaluation of the characteristics commonly reported to be associated with childhood depression (Kazdin & Petti, 1982). In addition, input from children was incorporated into the CDI item construction by asking depressed children to comment upon and revise items, making them more akin to their experiences (Kovacs & Beck, 1977; Lang & Tisher, 1978). Factor analyses of the CDI reflect several major factors that seem to correspond to characteristics of depressed children. Reynolds and Richmond (1978) identified two factors: a) self-rated anxiety or negative thinking and b) low self-esteem or self-deprecation. In a study cited by Kovacs (1983, Note 1), a factor analysis of 123 tests for disturbed youngsters (7-12

years old) yielded four factors: a) cognitive impairment (e.g., indecisiveness, pessimism); b) withdrawal and inhibition; c) poor social integration; and d) vegetative symptoms. Dimensions seem to vary in different clinical populations.

The CDI has also been shown to have significant convergent validity. Vosk, Forehand, Parker & Richard (1982) found that unpopular children had significantly higher levels of self-rated depression than their popular peers. In another study (Daignault, 1983, cited in Kovacs' unpublished manual), children who had pervasive negative attitudes about themselves, the world and the future had significantly more depressive symptoms than well adjusted peers.

Kovacs was able to discriminate between subjects with depressive diagnoses and those with non-depressive psychiatric disorders based on significantly different CDI scores. She also compared major depressive subjects' CDI scores with the clinical interview ratings on severity of psychiatric disturbance. She concluded that the scale has proven to be a modest and statistically significant (r = .42, $p < .02$) measure of the severity of the depressive syndrome. In a review of the child depression measures, Kazdin and Petti (1982) assert that the CDI is a well constructed reliable and valid depression instrument compared to other available measures.

3) Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children

Based on the well-known Rotter I-E Scale (Rotter, 1966), Nowicki and Strickland (1973) developed the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale (N-S Scale) to measure the generalized expectancies for internal and external control of reinforcement for children. It is a 40-item paper and pencil test answered with "yes" or "no" responses. Internal locus of control was thought to influence a child's perception of whether he/she had control of his/her self and environment while external locus of control indicated whether he/she believed that control rested outside of oneself in fate or an external power. The items of this scale includes a variety of situations ("If you find a four-leaf clover, do you believe it will bring you good luck?") and persons ("Most of the time do you think your parents listen to what you have to say?") The test is administered orally with each item read twice. All positive answers are scored as "1" while negative answers are given "0". The higher the score, the higher the externality.

The scale was constructed from an item pool of 102 questions to be answered yes or no. Nowicki and Strickland (1973) consulted with school teachers to construct a test with a fifth grade reading level but with items appropriate for older students. Nine clinical psychologists answered the items in an external direction. Items which did not have complete agreement among the judges were dropped, leaving 59 items. Results of an item analysis as well as

comments from teachers and students in a pilot sample (N = 152) reduced the original scale to 40 items. The test was administered to a variety of samples, the main one consisting of 1017 children ranging from the third through the twelfth grade from different communities. Internal consistency via the split-half method corrected by the Spearman-Brown Prophesy Formula was adequate for grades 3-5 (r = .63), grades 6-8 (r = .68), grades 9-11 (r = .74) and grade 12 (r = .81). Item-total scores were reported as moderate but consistent for all ages. Test-retest reliability, sampled for three grade levels six weeks apart (.63 for third grade; .66 for seventh grade; and .71 for tenth grade) were appropriate for continued use of the N-S Scale.

Construct validity was demonstrated in a comparative study of the N-S Scale with other measures of locus of control. There were significant correlations with N-S Scale and the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Scale (Crandall, Crandall & Katkovsky) and the Bailes-Cromwell Scale (Bailer, 1961). Lending further construct validity, two studies with college students (N = 76 and N = 46) showed significant correlations (r = .61 and _= .38, $p < .01$) for the adult version of the N-S Scale and the Rotter I-E scale.

One difficulty with the N-S Scale has been identified since Nowicki and Strickland (1973) reported a nonsignificant relationship with the N-S Scale and an intelligence measure for one sample of twelfth graders and

another sample of college students. Several studies have disputed the nonsignificant correlation of the N-S scale and verbal ability and have demonstrated that verbal ability can confound the reliability for the scales (Barling, 1979; Gorsuch et al., 1972; Little & Kendall, 1978). For example, Barling (1979) investigated the role of verbal ability and intelligence quotient in the reliability of several children's attitude scales. Using 309 children, he divided them into groups on the basis of an IQ measure. Of the two attitudinal scales administered, the N-S scale demonstrated a curvilinear relationship between verbal ability and the reliability of the scale. These results have been explained by the fact that the LOC required considerably more verbal proficiency on the one hand, but that children with greater verbal ability may have ambiguity in the items and have been more susceptible to demand characteristics. Therefore, a short measure of verbal ability is considered necessary to control for this confounding variable in the proposed study.

4) Similarities Subscale of the WISC-R

The Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children - Revised (WISC-R) is a standardized intelligence test for children from 6-16 years of age. It has been normed on a wide range of populations. The Similarities Subscale is a verbal intelligence subscale form the WISC-R. It has been shown to have a .77 correlation with general verbal intelligence scores and considered to be a short but reliable measure of verbal intelligence.

5) Parent Perception Inventory

Many measures of specific parental behaviors, such as Bronfenbrenner's Parental Behavior Questionnaire (Siegelman, 1965) and Shaeffer's (1965) Child Report Inventory, are extremely lengthy (e.g., 520 and 90 items, respectively) and are unsuitably worded for administration to children. Developed by Hazzard, Christensen, and Margolin (1983), The Parent Perception Inventory (PPI) is a brief, easily administered measure of children's reports of positive and negative parental behaviors. The authors identified 18 important parental behavior classifications. Half of these behaviors are positive such as positive reinforcement, controlling behaviors, time for talking, child involvement in decision making, relaxation time together, allowing independence, group general assistance, and demonstrating nonverbal affection. The other half of the test items assesses negative parental behaviors such as privilege removal, criticism, group commands, administering physical punishment, yelling, threatening, nagging, and ignoring. This test is administered to the child by reading behavior descriptions and giving examples of each type of behavior until the child understands the concept. For example, for the behavior of removing privileges the test administrator asked:

> How often does your mother (father) take away things when you misbehave (like not letting you watch TV or ride or bike or stay up late or eat dessert)?

A child responds by circling a phrase on a 5-point Likert scale where 0 = never, 1 = a little, 2 = sometimes, 3 = pretty much, and 4 = a lot. The 18 behavior categories are assessed for mother and then repeated for father. The authors have derived four subscales: a) Mother Positive, b) Mother Negative, c) Father Positive, and d) Father Negative. Each subscale consists of the sum of the nine positive or negative items referring to mother or father and potentially ranged from 0 to 36.

In testing for internal consistency of the PPI, Hazzard et al, (1983) found that all positive and negative items were significantly correlated with the appropriate subscale with positive correlations ranging from .40 to .83. and negative correlations ranging from .34 to .72. When Cronbach's alpha was computed for each of the four subscales, the following results were found: the Mother Positive = .84; Mother Negative = .78; Father Positive = .88, and Father Negative = .80. In order to examine the internal consistency when the test was administered to children of different age ranges, the authors split the sample into 5- to 9- (N = 37) and 10- to 13- (N = 38) year-old children. Alphas were calculated separately on each group of children on the four PPI subscales and ranged from .74 to .89 for older children and .81 to .87 for younger children.

Although no significant age differences were observed, there were significant sex differences. Boys rated their

parents as performing more positive behaviors than did girls, especially in boys' ratings of their fathers' behavior. Overall children viewed their parents as equally positive, but mothers were viewed as performing significantly more negative behaviors than fathers. Hazzard et al. pointed out that negative PPI items were disciplinary actions, which were likely to be more frequently used by mothers due to their greater participation in the child-rearing process. The authors discussed the possibility that these might be appropriate parental behaviors, that were viewed more negatively from the child's perspective.

In developing the PPI, Hazzard et al. (1983) have demonstrated convincing evidence for convergent and discriminant validity for this relatively new instrument. They hypothesized that positive perceptions of parental behavior would correlate with positive self-esteem by the child (as measured by the Piers-Harris or the McDaniel Piers scales) and positive reports of child behavior by the parents (as measured by the CBCL Externalizing Problem Scale). These hypotheses were confirmed. A particular strength of this study is that validation data were collected from both parents and children.

To test discriminant validity of the PPI, Hazzard et al. also correlated two measures which were not expected to be highly related to the PPI (i.e., the WRAT and the Becker Intellectual Inadequacy Scale). Six out of the eight computed correlations were nonsignificant. However,

children who reported more positive maternal behaviors achieved less well in the WRAT while children who reported more negative maternal behaviors were perceived by their mother as intellectually inferior.

6) The Divorce Perception Test

Developed by Plunkett and Kalter (1984), this is a 25-item instrument that tap the child's ideas and thoughts about divorce. Items are administered orally by the researcher. The statement "When kids' moms and dads divorce" is repeated prior to various feeling and thoughts that the child may or may not have experienced. For example, are that children felt "like crying," or "tricked by their parents," or had "more friends than they used to", were "glad their parents got divorced." The child was directed to point to a card with a big "NO" printed to indicate he/she strongly disagrees, a little "no" to indicate he/she disagrees, a little "yes" to signify that he/she agrees and a big "YES" printed to indicate he/she strongly agrees. Each item can be scored from 1 to 4. Higher scores indicate greater presence of the expressed thought or feeling. Areas of reactions to divorce that are explored are sadness, anger, abandonment, fear, denial, uncooperativeness, confusion, low self-confidence, reconciliation wishes, guilt, and loyalty conflicts.

Although this instrument has been in the preliminary stage of test development, Plunkett and Kalter (1984) reported adequate inter-item and scale reliability from a

sample of 166 third and fifth graders. Test-retest correlations were significant for 18 out of the 25 items. These correlations ranged from .32 to .93 with a median correlation of.60. Factor analysis resulted in three factors: a) Sad/Insecure Scale, b) Active Coping Scale, and c) Abandonment Scale. These scales had interscale correlations ranging from -.13 to +.17 and test-retest reliabilities ranging from .70 to .76.

7) Child Behavior Checklist

Constructed by Achenbach and Edelbrock (1983), the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) is a measure of child behavior problems to be completed by parents or parent surrogates. The 118 descriptive symptoms were based on earlier studies (Achenbach, 1966; Achenbach & Lewis, 1971), from clinical and research literature, and in consultation with various mental health professionals. The standardized format is composed of several sections which evaluate a child's special competencies and behavior problems of children 4 through 16 years of age. Using a clinical population from 42 mental health services, the CBCL was administered to 250 children referred for services and these results were factor analyzed for each sex and age group (4 to 5, 6-11, and 12-16). Behavior problem scales were formed based on items that had the highest loading on the factors that emerged. After detecting several clinically relevant syndromes on the clinical sample, the CBCL was normed on 1300 randomly selected children who had not received mental

health services at least in the previous year. Using census tract data, several interviewers collected CBCL information from a sample that approximated the socioeconomic and racial distribution of their clinical sample. Extensive norms were compiled for both the clinical and the normative sample for children of each sex and in different age groups.

Second order factor analyses identified two groupings of the behavior problem scales: a) Internalizing and b) Externalizing. According to Achenbach and Edelbrock (1983), the internalizing behaviors reflect fearful, inhibited, and overcontrolled behaviors while externalizing behaviors are exemplified by aggressive, anti-social, and undercontrolled behaviors. These new scales were also normed on both the clinical and nonclinical samples.

Additionally, a total behavior problem score was constructed by summing the total number of behavior problems marked by parents. This scale was also normed.

Extensive reliability for test-retest, inter-rater agreement and longer-term stability were assessed for the CBCL. Intra-class correlations were in the 90's for most of the test-retest reliability. For the longer term stability, the intra-class correlations were .84 and a median Pearson correlation between mothers and fathers rating was .66. Construct and criterion-related validity were examined fully in their manual (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983).

8) The Perceptions of Divorce Impact

A relatively new instrument, the Perceptions of Divorce Impact (PODI) was developed to assess parents' beliefs about how divorce affects elementary school-aged children (Plunkett, Riemer, Kalter, & Alpern, 1985). Test construction of the 99 original items with a 5 point Likert-type scale was based on items chosen for their relevance to children of divorce from clinical and developmental reports. Half of the items are positive and half are negative.

The following subscales were of interest to the present study: a) reconciliation wishes, b) self-blame, c) loyalty conflicts, d) loneliness, e) insecurity, f) somatic complaints, g) angry and h) aggressive feelings.

Item-scale correlations for items and Cronbach alphas for subscales were utilized for scale revisions and 89 items met the qualifying criteria. Test-retest reliabilities ranged from .50 to .81 (N=35).

The test has been administered to subjects from divorced and intact homes as well as experienced child clinicians. Using displacement in the question format, parents and clinicians are asked to estimate in general how they think children 9 to 12 years old responded to divorce. Samples included are whether children "get into more fights with their friends" or "get along better with children."

Results suggested parents from intact and divorced homes viewed the impact of divorce similarly but differed on the degree of the severity or intensity. Divorced parents

were likely to minimize the negative impact of divorce until they remarried. As they reconstituted and more closely resembled an intact family, they tended to have more similar views to the perception of parents in intact families and experienced clinicians.

B. Parent Measures

1) Quality of the CoParental Relationship

Ahrons (1981) constructed an in-depth semi-structured interview schedule in collaboration with other researchers to examine divorced parents' ability to cooperate and co-parent with an ex-spouse. Several items were utilized from interviews developed by Kitson and Sussman (1976), Cohen (1977) and Goode (1956). The interview protocol consists of 72 items of both structured and open-ended questions, two A sort procedures and a paper and pencil test. During the development of the interview schedule it was piloted on 41 randomly selected divorced parents with joint custody and later administered to 196 divorced parents with sole custody. Ahrons has constructed several subscales for the parental and nonparental relationships among the ex-spouses. Using Cronbach's Alpha, Ahrons reported coefficients for test-retest reliability ranging from .83 to .95. Test-retest data were gathered separately from 90 female and 86 male subjects. For the present study, 3 subscales will be utilized: a) Quality of Coparental Communication, b) Parental Interaction, and c) Non-Residential Parent-Child Involvement. Many of the items on the interview schedule

are scored in a five-point Likert-type answer from where 1 = always and 5 = never. For the proposed study, these items were compiled into a paper and pencil questionnaire and were answered by the parent (instead of circled by the researcher).

The Quality of Coparental Communication Scale is compiled from ten items and divided into two subscales: a) Coparent Conflict Subscale (4 items) and b) Coparental Support Subscale (6 items). The conflict subscale measures the stress or tension evident between the two exspouse in discussions concerning the child's welfare while the support subscale attempts to have parents rate how frequently they seek mutual support and help over child-rearing concerns or accommodate the other spouse around visitation. A high score on this subscale indicates high support and low conflict.

The Coparental Interaction Scale consists of ten items surrounding parental child-rearing behaviors. Parents are requested to indicate the frequency of their communication about parenting topics, any personal or school problems the child may be experiencing, the child's accomplishments or difficulties, as well as major and minor decisions in the child's life were considered.

The Non-Residential Parent-Child Involvement Scale presents a range of parental responsibilities from daily errands and tasks to less frequent but parent-related functions. Custodial parents are asked to indicate how

involved they perceive the noncustodial parent to be in the following areas: disciplining the children, dress and grooming, religious or moral training, running errands, celebrating holidays or significant events, attending school or church related functions, taking the children for recreation activities, and discussing problems of going on vacations with children. Items are rated from very much (5) to not at all (1).

Ahrons (1983) noted that mothers' perceptions of fathers' involvement differed from fathers' perceptions. Mothers tended to underestimate and/or fathers tended to overestimate their involvement with the children. In a study of 560 parents, Fulton (1979) reported similar results. While it would be most ideal to have information from fathers, for a comparison of joint legal custody and sole maternal custody, mothers' perceptions of fathers' involvement was not without merit. Theoretically, the mother's view of the father's involvement was thought to be a significant factor in how she portrayed him to the child, possibly influencing the child's perceptions in a negative or positive manner.

2) Quality of the Father-Child Relationship

Items concerning visitation from Ahron's interview schedule were included in the questionnaire. Parents were asked to describe the court ordered visitation arrangement; how visitation arrangements and other contacts (e.g., telephone calls) occurred in frequency and duration. They

were also asked to rate the visitation arrangement in terms of flexibility and their satisfaction with the visiting arrangement. Additionally, mothers rated how frequently fathers had involved their children in activities pre- and post-divorce. To evaluate the quality of the father-child relationship, mother's rating (1 to 5) on the closeness of the father-child relationship both pre and post-divorce were utilized. (See Appendix C for specific questions used in this study.)

3) Quality of the Mother-Child Relationship

Similar to the evaluation of the father-child relationship, mothers' ratings of her own pre- and post-divorce activities with her child as well as the closeness of her relationship before and after the divorce were included

Mothers' adjustment was determined by several measures. As the hypotheses in this study do not specifically concern these instruments they are only listed for the sake of completeness.

a) Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)

b) Hopkins Symptom Checklist (Derogatis, Lipman, Rickels, Uhlenhuth, Uhlenhuth & Covi, 1974)

c) Sarason's Life Experience Survey (Sarason, 1978)

d) Quality of Life Scale (Andrews & Withly, 1976)

4) Interparental Hostility

Pre-divorce interparental hostility was measured using a scale by Jacobson (1978). The items requested information

on the amount of verbal and physical hostility in the marriage, and the frequency of the child's presence during verbal and physical arguments. (See Appendix C. Post-divorce interparental hostility was determined by a) Ahron's Conflict Scale as described previously and b) the amount of relitigation initiated by either exspouse as determined by the court records.

5) Economic Stress

Pre- and post-divorce incomes were examined from items on Ahron's structured interview schedule. To determine mother's perception of the change in her economic status, a question was included which asked mothers to rate on a 5-point Likert scale whether their present economic situation was better or worse than their circumstances prior to the divorce.

Statistical Analyses

With such a rich and varied data set, many different statistical analyses were possible. The main hypotheses were tested by four categories of analyses. The first set of analyses located each of the two custody samples with respect to national norms for children of this age for those instruments which have extensive normative data, notably a) the Perceived Competence Scale for Children, b) the Children's Depression Inventory, and c) the Child Behavior Checklist.

The second set of analyses compared the two custody groups on each of the 33 child variables generated from five

child instruments. Two important independent variables were taken into consideration. They were the sex of the child and whether the child was in early (6-8 years old) or late latency (9-12 years old).

The third set of analyses compared the two custody groups with respect to 60 parent variables generated from the parent questionnaire.

A fourth set of analyses moved to a multi-variate approach, specifically multiple regression analyses, to see what combination of parent and/or custody variables best predicted child adjustment in each custody type.

Several secondary analyses were also performed when it became clear that the time since divorce ranged from one to four years in the sample and that approximately forty percent of the sample had remarried. The effects of time since divorce and remarriage were investigated separately. Finally, in the last section, examination of the two most predictive parent mediating variables on child adjustment were explored in more depth through separate analyses of variance on the child adjustment measures.

From the parent questionnaire filled out by mother, over 125 variables consisted of single items or several items designated by a previous researchers as a scale. As a method of distillation to reduce the enormous amount of data collected, Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated for the interval scale variables and Chi-square tests were utilized for ordinal and nominal scale measures.

All parent variables were correlated with each of the 33 child adjustment variables. Parent variables were selected for further analyses if two criteria were satisfied: a) the correlation ratio with a child variables was greater than or equal to .25, and b) the probability level was equal to or less than .05. Approximately 60 of these variables met both criteria. As dictated by the matched design, paired t-test analyses were performed between the joint legal custody and sole maternal custody groups on the selected 60 variables to determine whether there were observable differences in mother's report on parent characteristics, parent behaviors and demographic variables. These mediating variables were clustered according to theoretical importance based on the literature on children of divorce and joint custody. (See Appendix D for a list of the parent variables and the categories used in the comparisons.)

From the mother questionnaire, several items which inquired into the mother's social and personal life were combined to create a measure tapping whether mother was or was considering remarriage. Several t-tests between joint legal custody and sole maternal custody had revealed no significant differences by mothers' reports on the following items: a) number of previous marriages; b) whether mothers were dating or had a special involvement; c) frequency of overnight visitors in the custodial mother's home; d) whether mother would in general consider

remarriage; and e) whether she had specific plans to remarry. From the interviews it became clear that a fair number of women were eminently close to remarriage, that their husband-to-be was a live-in member of the household and that frequently he had established a relationship with the mother's children. A sense of structure and stability was observed in these families that was similar to those households where the mother had already remarried. Hence, the decision was made to construct an categorical scale which determined whether the mother was a) remarried, b) had plans to remarry, c) dating but not considering remarriage, and d) not dating at all. From the results of the chi square analyses, the new remarriage variable was not significantly associated with either custody arrangement. The remarriage variable was made into a dichotomous one for the analyses of variance. Mothers who were remarried (N = 15) or had plans to remarry (N = 9) were considered the "partnered" group (N = 35) to be compared to the other mothers who either were dating but not considering remarriage (N = 14) or not dating at all (N = 21).

RESULTS

SECTION I: Examination of the Main Hypotheses

A. Comparison of Child Variables in Joint Legal Custody and Sole Maternal Custody Groups with National Norms

With respect to the comparison of the two custody groups and the norms established for the child instruments used in this study, both custody groups were within the expectable and average limits of self-esteem as measured by the Perceived Competence Scale for Children. Similarly, symptoms of clinical depression as determined by the Children's Depression Inventory were observed in approximately 20% of both groups, comparable to the national norms of 20-25% (Kovacs, 1981). However, the two custody groups evidenced more difficulty than the national norms when compared with a clinical sample on both the Internalizing and Externalizing problem scales on the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL). As previously described, the CBCL was normed on nonclinical and clinical samples. In this study, the mean raw scores of the two custody groups were greater than one standard deviation above the mean for the clinical sample on both scales for boys and on the internalizing scale for the girls. It also should be mentioned that joint legal custody girls were very close to one standard deviation above the mean on the Externalizing

Scale. Whether or not children had scores that might be categorized as clinical depression, 35% of the children in both groups indicated that they thought of committing suicide but would not do it. Many clinicians would consider that one response alone as evidence of significant internal distress for one third of these children. Thus, the first hypothesis that children in sole maternal and joint legal custody groups would show higher disturbances than children in the nationally normed samples was partially confirmed. Table 5 shows these results.

B. Comparison of Child Adjustment in Joint Legal Custody and Sole Maternal Custody.

With respect to the second set of analyses which compared sole maternal custody and joint legal custody children on the child variables, a paired t-test was performed as dictated by the matched design. Two-tailed probability levels were utilized for all analyses due to the exploratory nature of the questions in this study. Only four of the possible 33 child variables were statistically significant. By chance alone, if these observations were independent (which, of course, they are not), one would expect approximately 1.7 of these variables to achieve significance at the .05 level. If the four findings are purely spurious, there would be no reason to expect any pattern to emerge in the data. However, these results do have two variables that are significantly related to self-esteem and two variables that are related to the children's

Table 5: Comparison of Sample Results to National Norms

Child Variables	Perceived Competence Scale				
	Maternal Mean	Joint Mean	Total Sample Mean	National Mean	S.D.
Cognitive	2.80	3.13	COG X = 2.96 SD = .64	2.9	.61
Physical	2.69	2.91	PHY X = 2.96 SD = .75	2.8	.73
Social	2.81	3.00	SOC X = 2.91 SD = .62	2.9	.66
General	2.71	3.03	GEN X = 2.87 SD = .67	2.9	.72

Children's Depression Inventory

Depression Score	Lo (0 to 5.3)	Med (5.3 to 13.0)	Hi (3.0 to hi)
	N=21	N=28	N=11
	%=35	%=47	%=18
Suicidal Feelings	I never think of killing myself	I think of killing myself but would not	I want to kill myself
	N=39	N=20	N=1
	%=65	%=33	%=2

	Boys			Girls		
Suicidal Feelings	Maternal	Joint	Total	Maternal	Joint	Total
1) Never	N=11	N=10	N=21	N=9	N=9	N=18
	%=52	%=48	%=58	%=50	%=50	%=75
2) Think but would not do	N=6	N=8	N=14	N=3	N=3	N=6
	%=43	%=57	%=39	%=50	%=50	%=25
3) Want to kill self	N=1	N=0	N=1	N=0	N=0	N=0
	%=100	%=0	%=3	%=0	%=0	%=0

Achenbach Behavior Checklist

	Sample Means: Boys*						National Norms			
	Total		Maternal		Joint		Clinical		Nonclinical	
	X	S.D.	N=15	S.D.	N=17	S.D.	Sample	S.D.	Sample	S.D.
Internalizing Problem Scale	35.5	11.7	32.9	12.9	38.2	10.5	23.1	8.4	12.2	6.7
Externalizing Problem Scale	43.0	10.2	42.9	10.6	46.5	7.0	30.5	13.1	10.8	8.2

	Sample Means: Girls*						National Norms			
	Total		Maternal		Joint		Clinical		Nonclinical	
	X	S.D.	N=11	S.D.	N=11	S.D.	Sample	S.D.	Sample	S.D.
Internalizing Problem Scale	37.8	10.2	36.8	10.7	38.8	10.2	23.7	7.7	12.6	6.3
Externalizing Problem Scale	44.4	8.0	43.0	10.2	46.4	9.2	32.5	10.7	15.7	8.6

*Means are from raw scores

perception of their parents. Hence, they may not be spurious.

Joint legal custody children had a higher sense of cognitive ($p \leq .05$) competence and general self-esteem ($p \leq .04$) on the Perceived Competence Scale and their perception of father was significantly more positive ($p \leq .04$) on the Parent Perception Inventory. Children in sole maternal custody perceived their mothers as being more negative ($p \leq 01$). Table 6 describes the results of paired t-test comparisons.

Table 6: Results of Paired t-Test Comparisons of Child Variables

Child Variable	Maternal Mean N=30	Joint Mean N=30	t-Value	d.f.	2 tailed Prob
Perceived Competence					
Cognitive	2.80	3.13	-2.07	29	.05
General	2.71	3.03	-2.02	29	.04
Parent Perceptions					
Father Positive	2.46	2.02	2.67	29	.01
Mother Negative	3.44	3.86	-2.17	29	.04

Thus, in testing the second hypothesis that joint legal custody children have higher child adjustment, the results in a few areas are in the anticipated direction of the hypothesis. However, when the overall profile of child adjustment from the 33 child variables is considered, children from joint legal custody and sole maternal custody have comparable scores in general, thereby strongly suggesting that the hypothesis has been disconfirmed.

C. Comparisons of the Effects of Sex and Custody

Observations have been made repeatedly regarding the differential impact of divorce based on the sex of the child. Three different types of analyses of variance were performed to examine how the impact of custody and divorce varied between the sexes. The first set of analyses examined any differences between the sexes on the child variables within each custody group. The second set of analyses looked at each sex separately, comparing the effects of custody. The third analyses examined the interactions between sex and custody.

With respect to the differences between the sexes, only one child variable was statistically different. In this study both joint legal custody ($p \leq 0.04$) and maternal custody ($p \leq 0.05$) boys had more negative perceptions of their fathers than girls did. (See Table 7.)

Table 7: Results of Analyses of Variance for Child Variables by Sex Within Each Custody

Child Variable		Means			
		Maternal		Joint Legal	
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Positive Perception of Father	$\bar{X}$ =	2.24	1.63	2.01	1.53
	N =	18	12	18	12
		F	Sign	F	Sign
		4.082	.05	4.796	.04

A significant interaction points to a difference between sex and custody around sad feelings about divorce. Boys in sole maternal custody and girls in joint legal

custody reported more sad feelings about the divorce while joint legal boys and sole maternal girls reported fewer sad feelings ($p \leq 0.002$). (See Table 8.)

Table 8: Results of Two-way Interactions for Child Variables by Sex and Custody

		Sex of Child	
		Boys	Girls
Custody	Sole Maternal	$\bar{X} = 2.49$ $N = 17$	$X = 2.29$ $N = 11$
	Joint Legal	$\bar{X} = 2.32$ $N = 15$	$X = 2.57$ $N = 12$

	F	Sign
Two-way Interaction: Sex and Custody	1.273	.002

Within each sex, there were several differences observed between joint legal custody and sole maternal custody. Boys in maternal custody perceived themselves as being less competent in cognitive areas than boys in joint legal custody ($p \leq 0.03$). For the girls in the sample ($N = 24$), maternal custody girls saw their mothers more negatively than did joint legal custody girls ($p \leq 0.02$). However, joint legal custody girls were more likely to express sad feelings about the divorce ($p \leq 0.03$) than were maternal custody girls. (See Table 9, following page.)

Table 9: Results of Analyses of Variance for Child Variables by Custody With Each Sex

Boy

Child Variable	Total N=36	Maternal Mean N=18	Joint Mean N=18	F	Prob
Cognitive Perceived Self-Competence	2.87	2.64	3.10	4.880	.03

Girl

Child Variable	Total N=24	Maternal Mean N=12	Joint Mean N=12	F	Prob
Negative Perception of Mother	2.17	2.49	1.86	5.848	.02
Sad Feelings about Divorce	2.45	2.32	2.57	5.142	.03

In summary, a look at the effects of sex and custody revealed that the boys more than the girls in maternal custody seem to have lower perceptions of their cognitive competence. Maternal custody girls are much more likely to have increased their negative perceptions of mother. The only significant interaction for sex and custody was that sole maternal boys and joint legal custody girls expressed the most sadness about the divorce. Thus, the third hypothesis of significant sex differences in the adjustment scores for children of divorce has been confirmed. However, the anticipated increase in externalizing problem behaviors for boys was not evident.

Rather, other factors such as cognitive competence and negative perceptions of mother revealed sex differences.

D. Comparison of the Effects of Stage of Latency

A majority of the children in the study had parents who divorced when they were either between 4-6 years old or 6-10 years old. In studies by Wallerstein & Kelly (1976, 1980), latency-aged children of divorce were categorized into early (6-8) and late (9-12) latency with varied concerns and behaviors associated with each stage, consistent with psychoanalytic perspectives on normal stages of latency (Bornstein, 1951). Analysis of variance with latency, custody and sex of the child as covariates was chosen to examine the possibility of differential effects of early latency and later latency on children's adjustment scores. As anticipated by developmental theories of increased internalization with age, internal locus of control was higher for children in the later latency group. ($p \leq .03$). Therefore, the fourth hypothesis that later latency children would have greater internalization was supported. These results are located in Table 10. There were no significant interactions.

Table 10: Results of Analysis of Variance for Child Variables and Stage of Latency, Sex and Custody

Means		F	Prob
Early Latency	Late Latency	4.561	.04
$\bar{X}$ = 11.3 N = 12	$\bar{X}$ = 13.3 N = 48		

Although there were trends for boys and girls in both custody types to show tendencies to have more positive views of their same sex parents, these results were not statistically significant. Early latency children did not show any greater amount of sad or abandoned feelings or more reconciliation fantasies, nor did late latency children display any increased loyalty conflicts as hypothesized.

E. Comparison of Parental and Demographic Variables Between Joint Legal Versus Sole Maternal Custody

The third set of analyses for this study was a comparison of joint legal custody and sole maternal custody parents and/or demographic variables.

These results revealed that, by mother's report, children in maternal custody had been present more frequently during parents' verbal arguments prior to divorce ($p \leq .002$) and fathers in joint legal custody were more likely to have had a closer pre-divorce relationship with their child ($p \leq .03$) and to have shared activities together more frequently ($p \leq .003$). Mothers of joint legal custody were more likely to relate that their economic situation was worse than before the divorce ($p \leq .04$). Several trends are noteworthy in reports of the divorcing process and post-divorce behaviors. Joint legal custody mothers had a tendency to say that they relied on their own income as their primary source of financial support ($p \leq .06$), and that fathers were less (not more) regular in their child support payments ($p \leq .09$). Additionally, there were

tendencies for joint legal custody mothers to indicate that they had an active part in the custody decision ($p \leq .06$), had been married for a shorter period of time ($p \leq .10$) and had a higher level of education ($p \leq .10$). Table 11 is included with the results of these analyses to explicate their meaning.

Before continuing with the final set of multi-variate analyses of multiple regression, let us return to the three hypotheses put forth in favor of joint custody: it would a) increase the likelihood that fathers would have more regular and frequent contact with their children post-divorce, b) facilitate shared coparenting and reduce interparental hostility post-divorce, and c) increase the regularity of the child support payments. In fact, these data do not substantiate any of the hypotheses. On the first point that joint legal custody fathers might have more continued and frequent involvement with their children post-divorce, the data revealed no significant differences between the two custody groups by mothers' reports on the amounts of visitation or post-divorce father involvement in daily parenting. In both custody arrangements, 40% of mothers indicated that the fathers visited frequently, (i.e., every day or 1-2 times a week). Distance from father's household was similar for both custody arrangements. With respect to the second point about facilitating shared coparenting and reduced interparental hostility, by mothers' reports there was no indication that

Table 11: Results of Paired t-test Comparisons for Parent Variables

Child Variable	Maternal Mean	Joint Mean	t-value	df	2 tailed Prob
Child present during verbal arguments	4.38	3.25	-3.39	23	.002
Close pre-divorce relationship with father	2.27	2.80	2.24	29	.03
Frequency of pre-divorce activities with father	2.47	3.03	3.20	29	.003
Economic situation worse post-divorce	1.38	1.62	-2.25	29	.03
Trends					
Primary source of income Mother's job	.72	.93	1.99	28	.06
Regularity of child support payments	.83	.57	-1.76	28	.09
Decision about *custody: degree of involvement	1.11	1.32	2.00	27	.06
Education level of mother	2.50	2.77	99.00	29	.10
Length of marriage	12.99	10.95		.10	

joint legal custody parents were any more or less cooperative, more or less hostile, or more or less involved with their ex-spouse than parents in sole maternal arrangements. Contrary to Ilfeld, Ilfeld and Alexander's (1982) findings, joint legal custody families relitigated just as frequently as sole maternal custody families. Half of the parents in each custody group went back to court and over 95% of these relitigations concerned child support payments. Interestingly enough, Ilfeld et al. did not report or mention relitigation for child support. With respect to the third point about the increased economic responsibility of joint legal custody fathers, the data suggested a finding in the opposite direction than what was hypothesized. Sole maternal custody mothers, not joint legal custody mothers, had a tendency to report that sole maternal fathers were more regular in their child support payments. Joint legal custody mothers felt more strongly that their economic situation was worse before the divorce.

To conclude, the data confirmed none of the three hypotheses that joint custody has been argued might influence, such as continued and frequent father involvement, increased coparenting and reduced interparental hostility and increased financial responsibility of the non-residential parent. In two instances, there were simply no group differences, and on the issue of economic support, the data revealed a tendency in the opposite direction. This does not mean that the different custody arrangements do not

have any effect on the children, but that with respect to the three hypotheses culled from the literature none were supported.

F. Examination of the Best Predictive Mediating Variables for High Child Adjustment

To attempt to answer whether custody or other parental and/or demographic mediating variables are most influential to child adjustment post-divorce, stepwise multiple regression analyses for each sex in sole maternal and joint legal custody were performed on each child variable. Stepwise method of variable entry was chosen to allow inclusion of 60 parent focused variables and the custody designation to determine statistically which mediating variables were most predictive of child adjustment. The original plan to analyze the total sample with custody and mediating variables was abandoned for two reasons. First, multiple regression analyses of the total sample (N = 60) accounted for 10-17% of the variance for each child variable and had correlation coefficients between .20 and .40. Multiple regressions for each sex in each custody revealed results which accounted for 50-99% of the variance with correlation coefficients between .50 and .90. Second, results of other analyses had reveal that boys and girls responded differentially based on the type of custody arrangement.

Custody was the most important predictor for only one score, negative perception of mother. Four factors were identified as stronger predictors than custody for better

child adjustment on the other 32 child variables. They were the type of co-parental relationship, the personal adjustment of the mother (including her educational and economic strength), the amounts of pre- and post-divorce parental conflict, and the nature of the father-child relationship.

These results reveal that not custody but parent - focused variables exert the most influence on children's post-divorce adjustment. At least with joint legal custody and sole maternal custody arrangements where the children are living with their mother, the legal arrangement per se has relatively little predictive power with respect to child adjustment. A summary of the variables within each of these four factors which consistently contributed the most in predicting a majority of the child adjustment scores can be found on Table 12. A more complete report of these results can be found in Table 13 located in Appendix E.

Table 12: A Summary of the Strongest Predictors of Better Child Adjustment from the Results of Multiple Regressions of Parental Mediating Variables with Child Adjustment Variables

Coparenting Variables

1) flexible pre-divorce visitation arrangements or divorce decree
2) less parent-to-parent interaction and contact
3) more distance in miles between parents' homes

Mother's Adjustment Post-Divorce

1) less somatic symptoms
2) higher educational level
3) less negative impact of life events

Amounts of Pre- and Post-Divorce Conflict

1) lower amount and intensity of pre-divorce verbal and/or physical fighting
2) exposure of child to predivorce parental hostility
3) higher degree of post-divorce relitigation and/or conflict

Quality of Father-Child Relationship

1) closeness and frequency of activities pre-divorce
2) closeness and frequency of activities post-divorce
3) frequency of visitation and phone calls from father

SECTION II: Examination of Important Mediating Variables

A. Summary of Analyses of Mediating Variables of IQ's and Ethnic Background

Analysis of covariance of child variables when type of custody and sex of child were designated as covariates, revealed no significant main effects for IQ of child as measured by Similarities Subscale of the WISC-R or for number of children in the family.

In order to test whether ethnic background influenced child adjustment, a oneway analysis of variance was performed. No significant differences were observed when the two black families and one Mexican American family were compared with the Caucasian sample.

B. Comparisons of Length of Divorce and Time Since Divorce for Joint Legal Custody and Sole Maternal Custody Arrangements

Mediating Variable: Length of Divorce

Several researchers have noted that the time since divorce can significantly effect the adjustment of children in both positive and negative ways. Many consider time since divorce as a variable of interest in the crisis versus trauma debate surrounding children's post divorce adjustment. By design, the study controlled to a large degree for the time since the initial step in the legal process. Only cases filed between January, 1981, and March, 1982 were included in the sample. However, it was conceivable that the pace of the legal process differed from case to case. Finalizing family legal issues may take less

time for some and more time for others. Length of divorce was determined as the time since the filing of the complaint until the time of the judgment of divorce. This is not comparable to the length of separation since parents may have separated before or after the complaint filing and/or before or after the divorce.

In this sample, 30% of the divorces were finalized within six months of the complaint filing. By one year post complaint filing, a total of 75% of the divorces were finalized. Another 15% had to wait for a year and a half while 7% had to wait two years. Only one case took over two years until the final divorce proceedings (a wait of 3.6 years).

With length of divorce , custody and sex of the child as the independent variables, analyses of variance were performed on all child adjustment variables. It was decided to use length of time based on 6 month categories due to the frequency distributions for the subjects on this variable. Only one child variable revealed a main effect for the length of divorce. Children were more likely to feel more abandoned the longer the divorce process ($p \leq .02$). In addition, maternal custody children were more likely to express abandonment feelings than joint legal custody children ($p \leq .009$). (See Table 14.) There were no significant interactions of the independent variables, i.e., length of divorce, sex and custody.

Table 14: Results of Analyses of Variance with Child Variables by Sex, Custody and Length of Divorce

	F	df	Prob
Main Effects	3.303	4	.02
Custody	3.730	1	.06
Sex	0.001	1	.98
Length of Divorce	5.471	2	.007

2-way and 3-way Interactions: Nonsignificant

Variable		Means		
		≤ 6 months	≤ 1 year	≥ 1 year
Length of Divorce	$\bar{X}$ =	2.42	2.34	2.86
	N =	18	27	14
		Sole Maternal	Joint Legal	
Custody	$\bar{X}$ =	2.58	2.59	
	N =	30	29	

We might imagine that the longer the process, the more disagreement existed between the divorcing couple. Several questions arose regarding longer divorces. Were divorces longer for boys than for girls? Did the type of custody arrangement make a difference in the length? To answer these questions, a chi-square analysis was performed for the sex of the child and length of divorce for the total sample and for each custody group. Length of divorce was divided into less than one year and greater than or equal to one year. No significant differences were found for boys and for girls in either custody group or for the total sample. Examination of whether the length of divorce was related to reported severity of disagreements about child support, visitation, or custody disputes did not reveal statistically significant results by Pearson product moments correlations. However, a slight tendency for the divorce

process to be prolonged in joint custody was identified in analyses of variance of length of divorce by custody. (See Table 15.)

Table 15: Results of Oneway Analyses of Variance for Length of Divorce by Custody

Means				
Maternal	Joint Legal	F	df	Prob
$\bar{X}$ = 1.70 N = 27	$\bar{X}$ = 2.32 N = 28	3.17	1	.09

Mediating Variable: Time Since Divorce

Once the divorce is actually finalized, the next stage of adjustment in the divorce process begins. The divorce is a reality which needs to be adjusted to by parents and children alike, dictating the time since the divorce as an important factor in the assessment of children's post-divorce adjustment. Only two families in this study had finalized the divorce less than one year before the interview. For one quarter of the participating families it had been two years since the divorce while over half of them had had three years of adjustment to the divorce and the awarded legal custody arrangements. The remaining families had had over four years since the divorce before the interview occurred.

Since post-divorce adjustment is an ongoing process, the time since divorce was divided into three categories: a) 1-2 years post-divorce (N = 17), b) greater than 2

years and equal to 3 years post-divorce (N = 27), and c) greater than 3 years post-divorce (N = 14).

Results of the two-way and three-way interactions of analyses of variance for sex, custody and time since divorce were statistically significant and may have implications for the interpretations that can be derived can from the previous data. There were significant three-way interactions for children's perceptions of their mother, both positive ($p \leq .03$) and negative ($p \leq .01$) and mothers' reports of internalized behaviors ($p \leq .03$). Results of the tests of simple effects (Winer, 1971) and multiple comparison tests by the least significant difference procedure (Huitema, 1980) revealed that only one of these interactions was significant. In the one-two-two-year post-divorce group, sole maternal girls had more negative perceptions of their mothers than sole maternal boys, while joint legal custody boys had more negative views of mother than joint legal custody girls. Diagrams of the interactions are shown on Figure 1 located on the following page.

With respect to custody and time since divorce, there was a significant two-way interaction for children's general self-esteem scores ($p \leq .006$). From the observed means, joint custody children had higher general self-esteem scores in the one-to-two year and two-to-three year time since divorce groups. But they had significantly lower scores in the greater-than-three years post-divorce group. A similar

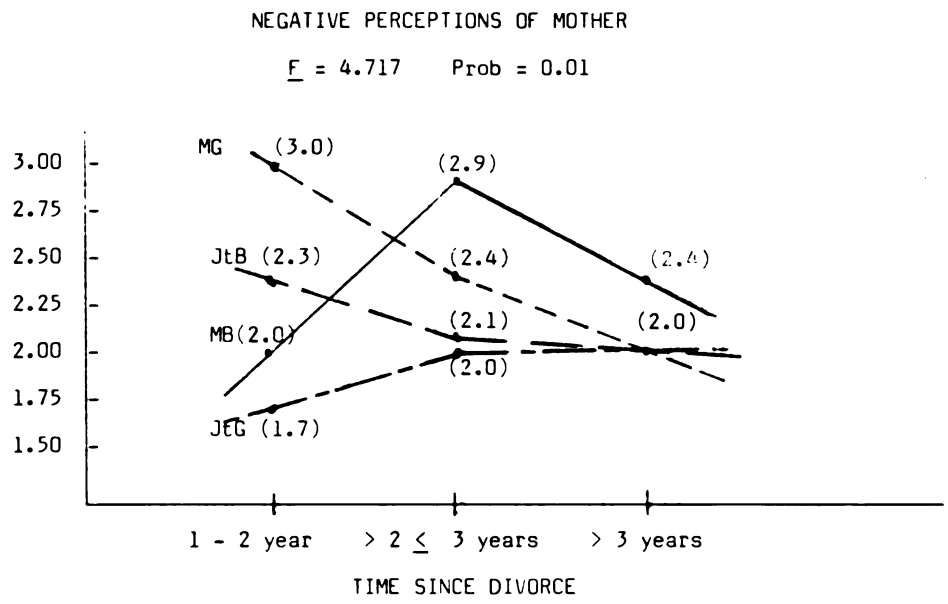

FIGURE 1. Diagram of Significant 3-Way Interaction on Child Variable with Time Since Divorce, Sex and Custody

pattern was observed for physical perceived self-competence ($p \leq .06$). By mothers' report, joint legal custody children tend to feel that they were the cause of their parents' divorce ($p \leq .07$) and to have more sad feelings ($p \leq .06$) in the groups of two-to-three and greater-than-three-years since divorce, while children in sole maternal custody tended toward the opposite direction. To explicate these results, diagrams for these interactions can be found in Figure 2 on the following page.

Three significant 2-way interactions for sex and custody were observed. In groups greater-than-three years since divorce, boys had <u>less</u> sense of control over their lives ($p \leq .05$) and felt more reliant on external sources for their well-being (or misfortune) ($p \leq .05$) than girls in similar time since divorce groups ($p \leq .05$). (See Figure 3.) An important observation in this study was that only one main effect was significant when examining time since divorce with other independent variables such as sex and custody, for the sole maternal and joint legal custody comparisons. Negative perceptions of mother were higher for joint legal custody children ($p < .004$). However, it is striking that child variables which had been statistically significant in previous analyses were now observed as trends. Table 16 which is located in Appendix F describes all the significant analyses of variance for time since divorce. These results underscore the findings of previous studies, that time since divorce is an important factor in

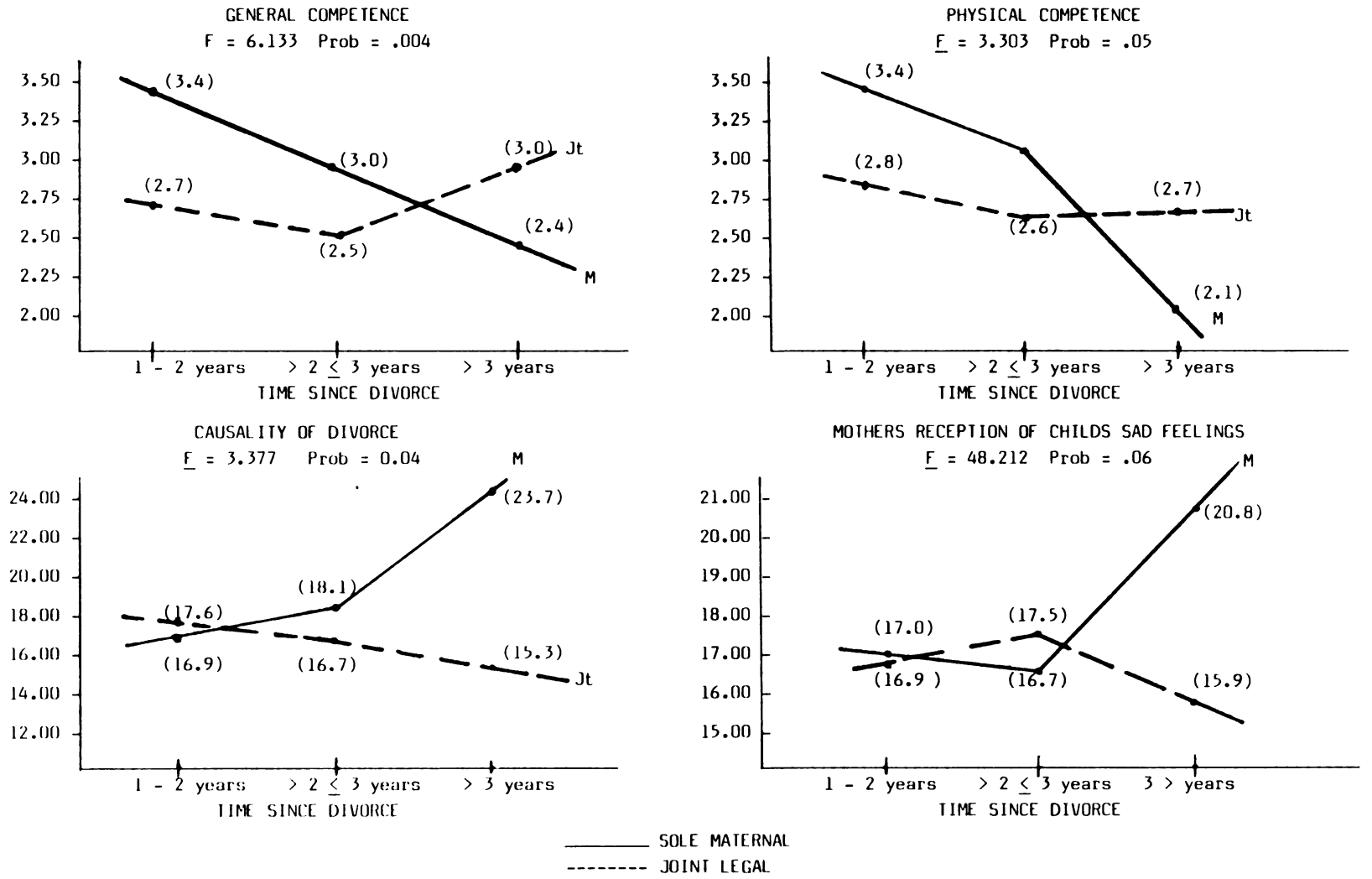

FIGURE 2. Results of 2-Way Interactions of Time Since Divorce and Custody with Child Variable

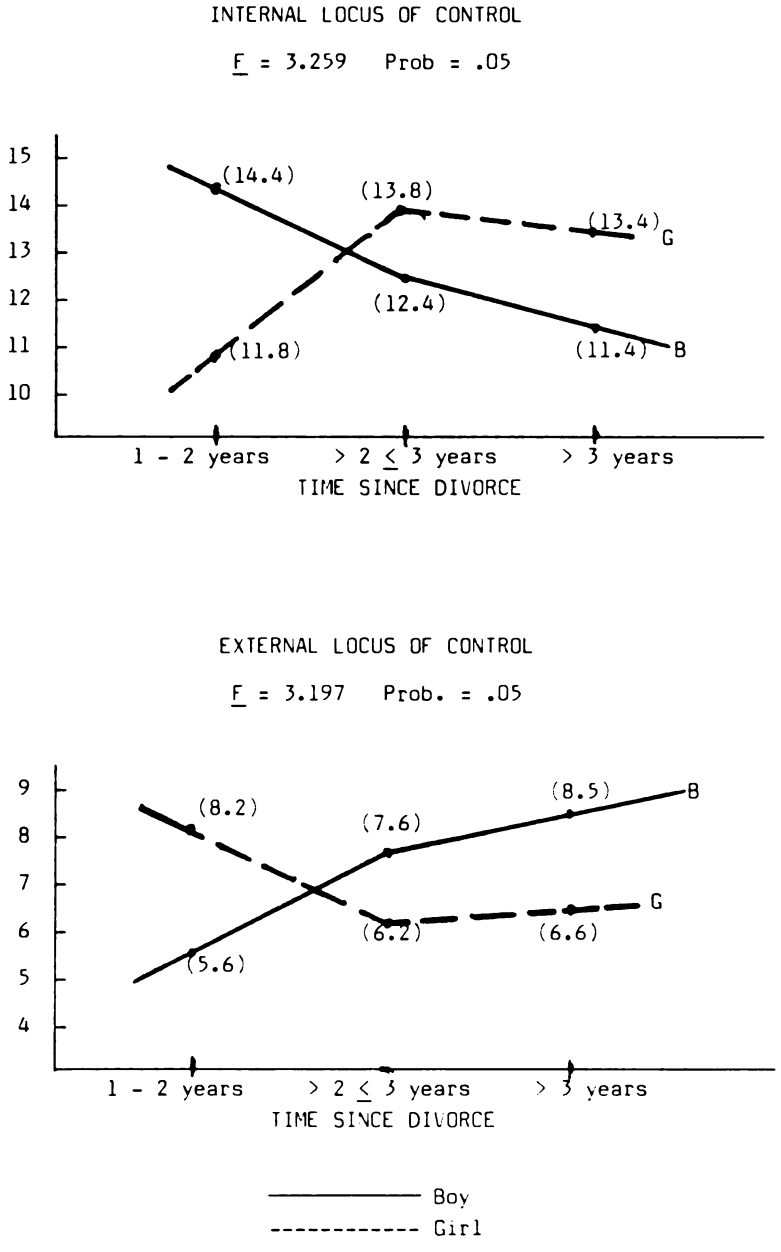

FIGURE 3. Results of 2-Way Interactions of Time Since Divorce and Sex with Child Variables

the outcome of the post-divorce adjustment process. From a methodological perspective, the longer the time since divorce, the more variability can be expected in life events of children of divorce. Taking into account the history and maturation of the child is usually difficult but particularly salient to this population who may experience many major life changes over a short time span. It argues for the necessity of longitudinal studies (Campbell and Stanley, 1963).

C. Comparisons of Remarriage in Joint Legal Custody and Sole Maternal Custody

As time passes post-divorce, a significant event which alters the structure of the divorcing family is the remarriage of either parent. Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1985) have observed that remarriage has significant and differential effects on boys and girls post-divorce. In a national longitudinal study, Furstenberg, et al., (1983) have noted that the remarriage of either parent, especially mother, and the time since divorce significantly reduced the amount of father visitation and the regularity of his financial support. Given these findings, it was wondered if remarriage might have a differential impact on children. Did a remarried or single parent family household influence the type of adjustment patterns for a boy or girl in sole maternal custody in a different way than in joint legal custody?

Mediating Variable: Remarriage of Mother

From the results of the analyses of variance of mother's remarriage with sex and custody arrangement, significant three-way interactions were found for insecure feelings ($p \leq .009$) internal locus of control ($p \leq .02$), activity style of coping ($p \leq .02$), feelings of abandonment ($p \leq .05$), and depressive symptoms ($p \leq .08$). These results are shown in Table 17 which can be found in Appendix F. Utilizing the test of sample effects (Winer, 1971) and least significant differences (Huitema, 1980) procedure, only three variables revealed interactions with significant comparisons. Single mothers of sole maternal boys believed that children were more insecure as a result of the divorce than single mothers of sole maternal girls or joint legal children. In contrast, married mothers of sole maternal boys perceived their sons as less insecure than other children ($p \leq .009$). Children's feelings reflect a similar interaction for depressive symptoms. Sole maternal boys with single mothers have expressed more depressed feelings than sole maternal girls or joint legal children in the single parent households ($p \leq .08$). But, sole maternal girls with remarried mothers said they were more distressed and depressed than other children. Diagrams in Figure 4 explicate the meaning of these interactions. An additional observation may support the notion that sole maternal custody boys are benefited, but girls are more disturbed by mother's remarriage. In a significant 3-way interaction,

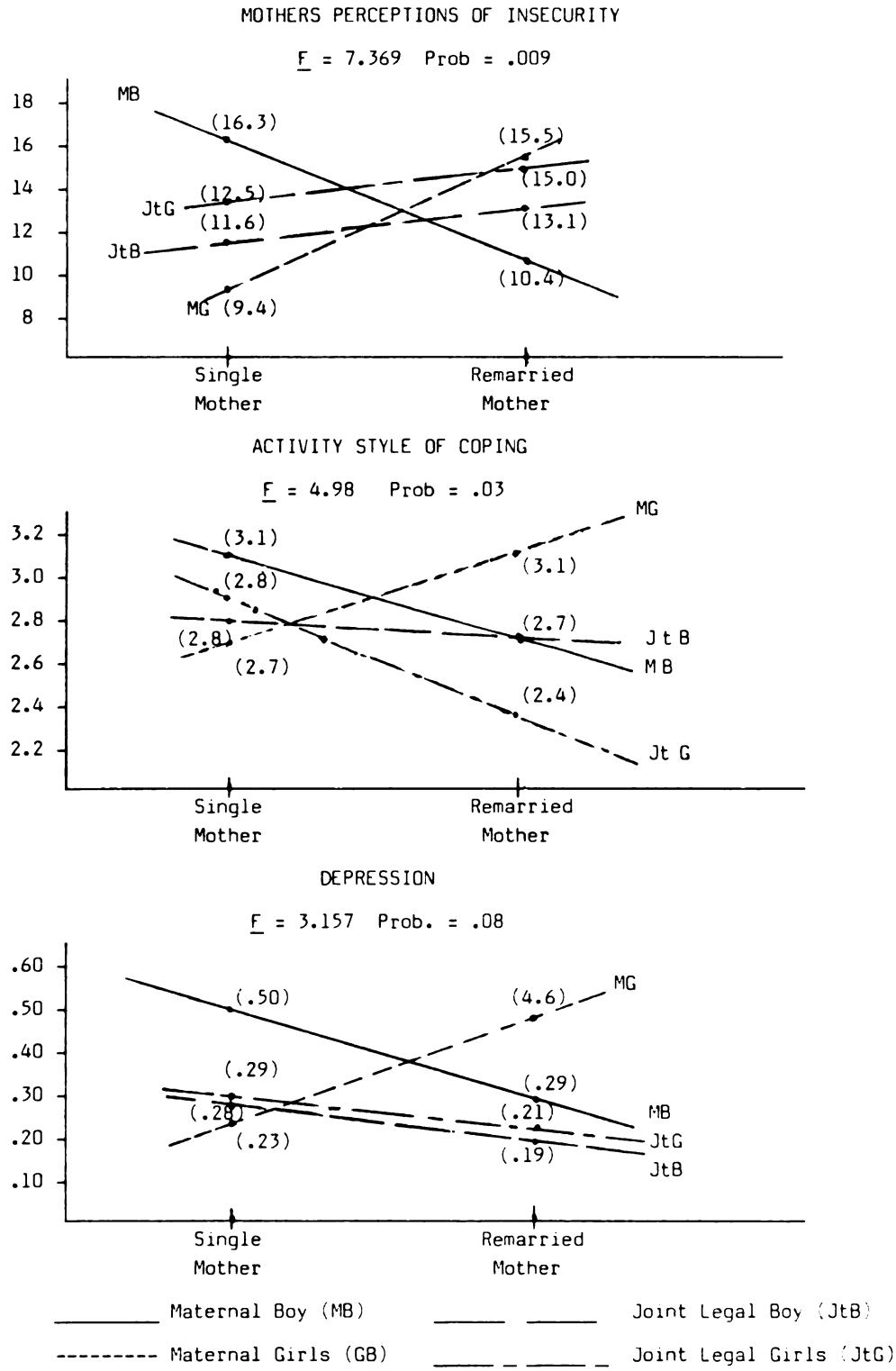

FIGURE 4. Diagrams of 3-Way Interactions of Remarriage of Mother, Sex and Custody with Child Variables

sole maternal girls showed a propensity to say they had active coping styles for feelings about the divorce in comparison to other children, especially joint legal custody girls, in groups where mother was remarried. This may be interpreted as a defensive strategy of activity to avoid anxiety or painful feelings. Tentative hypotheses for these results are that sole maternal custody boys in single households may be less anxious with a stepfather living in the house while sole maternal custody girls may perceive their mothers as being less attentive and available to them because of the new stepfather, thereby becoming more anxious and depressed.

Another interesting comparison is evident from the results of significant two-way interactions which considered the sex of the child and the 'partnered' status of mother. The diagrams in Figures 5 (a & b) and 6 on the following pages display these interactions. Remarried mothers' beliefs on how children were responding to divorce was statistically different for boys and girls than those of single mothers. Remarried mothers saw children as significantly more angry ($p \leq .003$), more dependent ($p \leq .002$), more insecure ($p \leq .002$), more likely to have loyalty conflicts ($p \leq .002$), and to feel they were the cause of the divorce ($p \leq .04$). From a child-reported measure, the girls of remarried mothers remarked more frequently that they had greater feelings of sadness ($p \leq .004$), and had a tendency toward lower general self-esteem. In contrast,

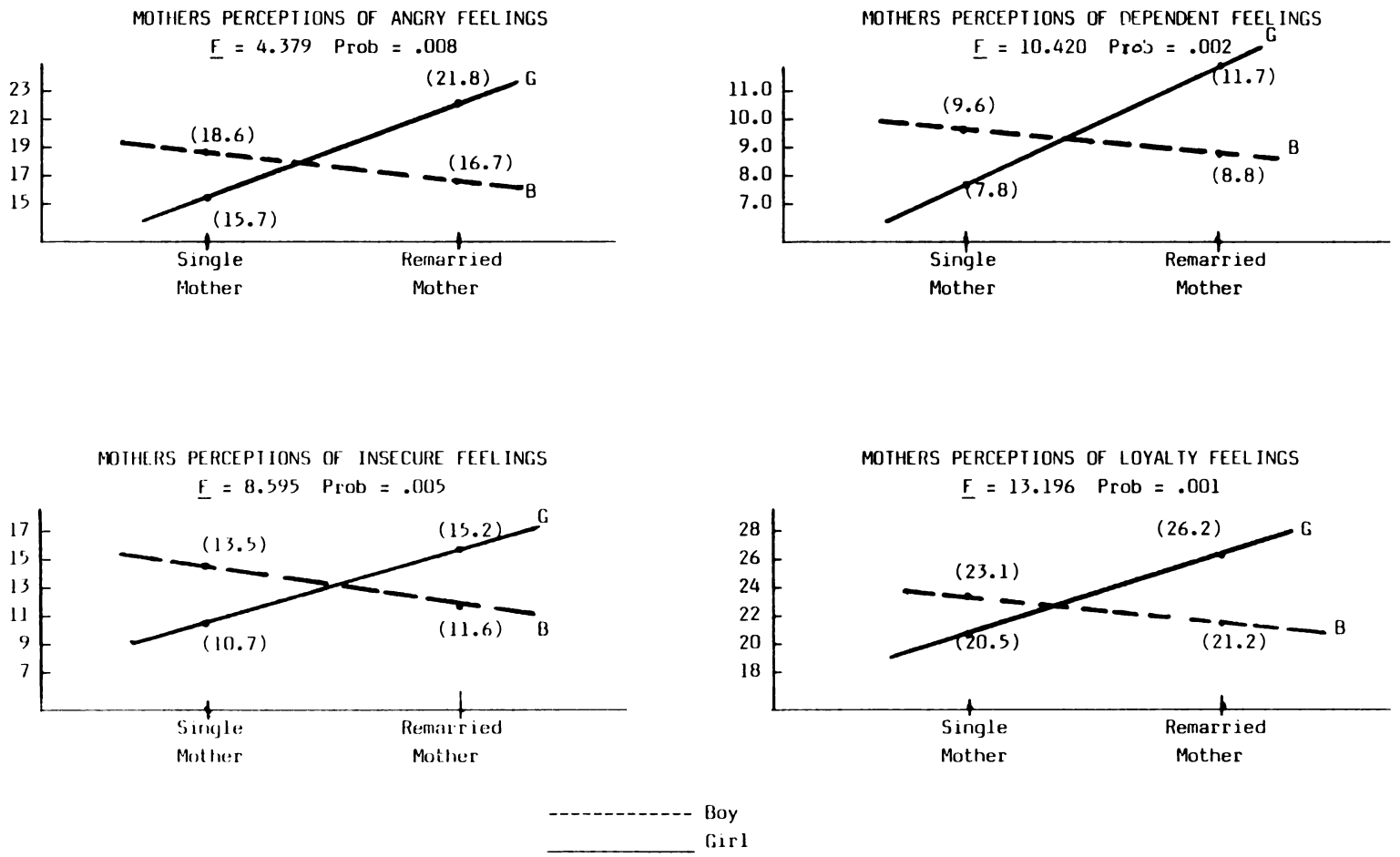

FIGURE 5a. Diagrams of 2-Way Interactions of Remarriage of Mother, Sex and Custody

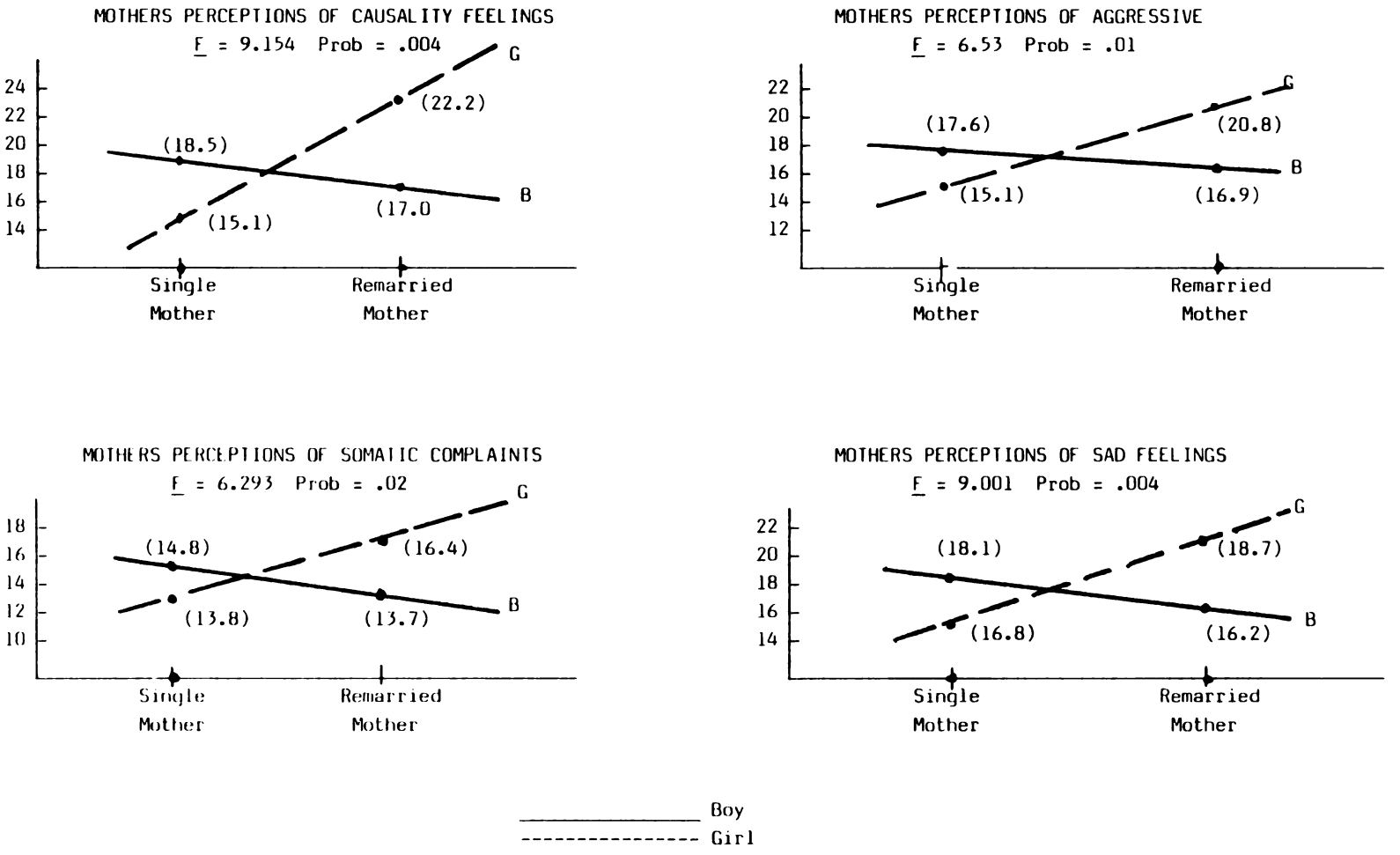

Figure 5b. Diagrams of 2-Way Interactions of Remarriage of Mother, Sex and Custody

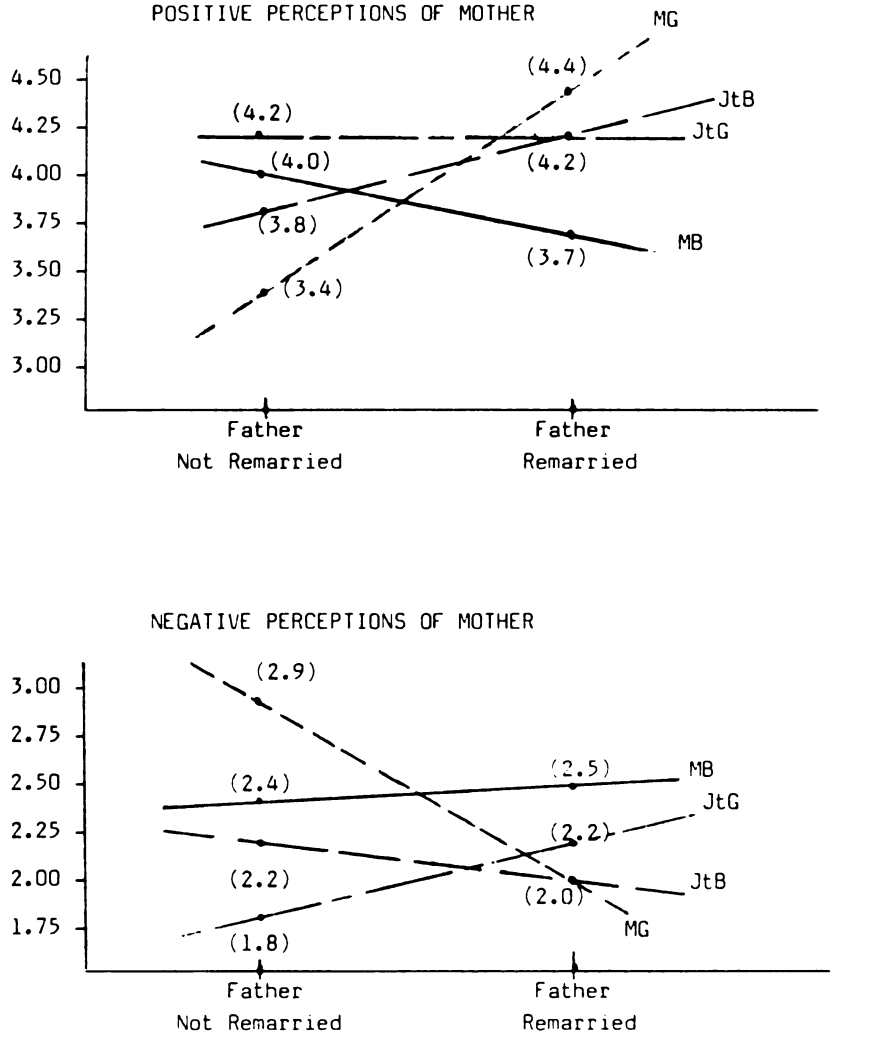

FIGURE 6. Diagrams of 3-Way Interaction of Father's Remarriage, Sex and Custody

remarried mothers with sons said that children had fewer aggressive behaviors ($p \leq .02$), somatic complaints ($p \leq .04$) and reconciliation wishes about the divorce ($p \leq .06$). Clearly, mother's view of how boys and girls feel and behave post-divorce was distinctly different based on her marital status. Congruent responses from the girls themselves seems to indicate that the mothers' perceptions may accurately describe the child's feelings. In both custody types, remarried mothers of girls thought children were distressed in similar areas regardless of custody with one exception. Joint legal custody mothers thought children were more likely to feel they were the cause of their parents' divorce ($p \leq .06$).

With respect to the one significant main effect, all children in both custody groups said they were not as sad about the divorce if they had mothers who were partnered, i.e., remarried or about to be remarried ($p \leq .009$).

Mediating Variable: Remarriage of Father

Father's remarriage may have an important impact on child adjustment post-divorce. Though father's remarriage was not significant as a main effect, there are suggests from significant 2-way and 3-way interactions that joint legal custody children with remarried fathers may have more difficulty than those children with single fathers in sole maternal custody. From the results of the test of simple effects and the least significant differences test, both of the three-way interactions for father's remarriage, sex and

custody revealed significant comparisons. In groups where father was remarried, sole maternal custody girls had more positive ($p \leq .01$) and less negative perceptions ($p \leq .02$) of mother than boys in sole maternal custody and joint legal custody children. (See Figure 7.) Due to the small number of subjects in these comparisons, conclusions about these results are highly speculative, though important for generating hypotheses. One explanation for this interaction is that father's remarriage, unlike mother's remarriage, may intensify the mother-daughter relationship. After remarriage, father may become less involved with his daughter and she may become more attached to and identify more with her mother.

A stronger case for custody differences can be argued from the results of 2-way interactions between custody and fathers' remarriage. Joint legal custody children whose fathers have remarried had significantly lower perceptions of their cognitive competence than children of remarried fathers in sole maternal custody ($p \leq .009$). A similar pattern was observed for their physical self-esteem ($p \leq .06$). These results are interesting in light of the research that has suggested the important influence of father's presence on cognitive development (Radin, 1981). If we view higher self-esteem as an identification with father, it raises a question about father availability and involvement. Similarly, joint legal custody children had a higher activity-orientation toward feelings about divorce

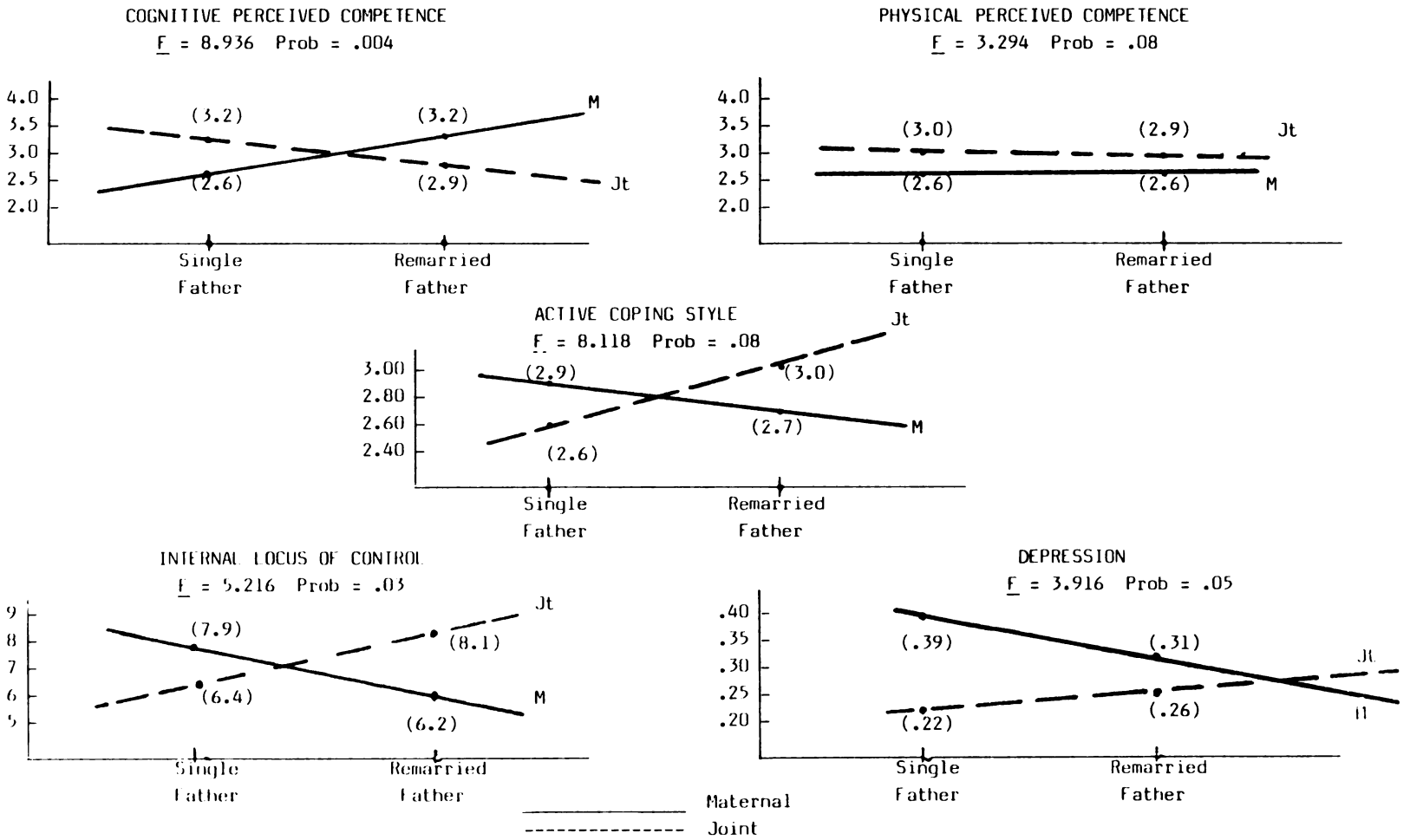

FIGURE 7. Diagnosis of 2-Way Interactions of Fathers Remarriage, Sex and Custody

($p \leq .008$), less of a sense that they had control of events in their lives ($p \leq .03$), and more depressed feelings ($p \leq .07$) in comparison to sole maternal custody children in groups where father is remarried. Diagrams of these interactions are shown in Figure 8. The analyses of variance results can be found in Table 18 which is located in Appendix F.

From previous research (Furstenberg et al., 1983), it has been noted that father visitations and regularity of financial support have been reduced significantly by the length of time since divorce, and the remarriage of either parent. In this sample, father's regularity of support was not significantly correlated with the length of time since divorce or the remarriage of either parent. However, while nonsignificant in a statistical sense, there are indications from the data that father visitation is lower when remarried mothers' reports are compared to those of single mothers. (Chi square 2.622); df = 1; $p \leq .105$). In general, fathers in this sample were frequent visitors. Forty percent had contact with their children 1-2 times per week. When these fathers, designated as the high father visitation group, were compared to all the other fathers who, by mothers' report, saw their children bimonthly, monthly, yearly or not at all, a tendency was noted for less frequent father visitations when time since divorce was greater than three

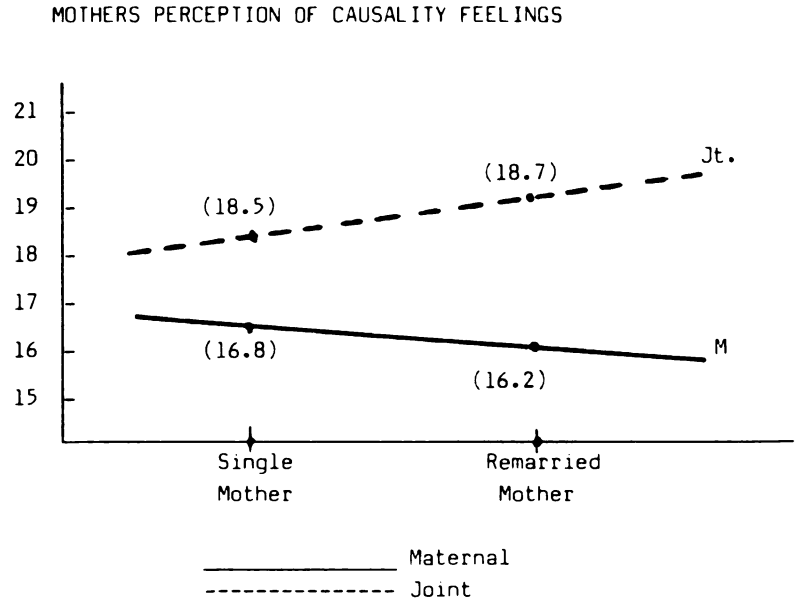

FIGURE 8. Diagram of 2-Way Interaction on Child Variable with Custody and Remarriage

years p $\leq$ .06). These observations, found in Table 19, are sadly congruent with Furstenberg et al.'s findings.[3]

Table 19: Chi-Square Analyses of High and Low Father Visitation with Time Since Divorce

	< 2 years	2-3 years	> 3 years	
High Father Visitation	8 7.0%	15 12.3%	2 5.7%	25 43.9%
Low Father Visitation	8 9.0%	13 15.7%	11 7.3%	32 56.1%
Total	16 28.1%	28 49.1%	13 22.8%	57 100%

Chi Square	df	Prob
5.59841	2	.06

[3]It is worth noting that differences due to custody type between the high and low father visitation groups on child adjustment scores were revealed only for the high visitation group. There were no significant differences between custody types in the low father visitation group. This was also true for low coparenting and low father involvement groups.

Section III: Examination of the Mediating Parental Variables Which Most Contribute to High Child Adjustment

As a result of the multiple regression analyses presented in Section I, co-parenting variables were found to be the strongest predictors of higher positive adjustment for children post-divorce. These variables were analyzed further for several reasons. First, they accounted for most of the variance in the multiple regression analyses. Second, these variables were considered essential to the success of joint legal arrangements and third, they revealed unexpected patterns.

A) Comparisons of High and Low Parent-to-Parent Interaction

One co-parental factor which predicated higher child adjustment scores was the flexibility of the visitation arrangements in the divorce decree. This variable will only be mentioned since this factor might be more reflective of court procedure than a familial decision-making process which might influence child adjustment. However, the more flexible the visitation arrangements were, the higher various child adjustment scores were. Parents awarded flexible and reasonable visitation might have been considered to be more able to negotiate matters concerning their child without high degrees of marital conflict than those parents who were designated scheduled or fixed visitation at the time of the divorce decree. Therefore, it stands to reason that this factor is an indication of baseline coparenting abilities.

But surprisingly, from the previous multiple regression results, the most powerful predictors of higher child adjustment were less (not more) parent-to-parent discussion, less (not more) frequent parental contacts by phone or in person and more physical distance between the custodial home and the father's residence. This is antithetical to the theoretical coparenting ideal of high parent-to-parent discussion and cooperation. In fact, a profile of the parents in this sample with high parent-to-parent interaction could be lifted from recent articles on effective coparenting. The total population was divided into two groups based on median split of scores from the Coparental Interaction Scale, an instrument which measured the degree of discussion in various areas of parental concerns by mothers' ratings. High parental interactors were compared with low parental interactors on most of the parental variables by Pearson product moment correlations the results of which can be found Table 20.

Table 20: Results of Pearson Product Moment Correlations for Parent Variables for Parent Interaction

Parent Variables With Higher Values	Corr. Coef.	Parent Variables With Lower Values	Corr. Coef.
Ex/Ex involvement	r= .70**	Prior verb hostil	r=-.33*
P-P person contact	r= .68**	Ch pres verb fights	r=-.30*
Coparenting	r= .65**	Ch pres phys fights	r=-.28
P-P phone contact	r= .60**	Freq father relit	r=-.30
Father involvement	r= .50**	Prior disag/ch sup	r=-.33*
Regular child support	r= .48**	Prior disag/cust	r=-.23
Positive feelings	r= .48**	Prior disag/visit	r=-.25
Positive parent	r= .41**	Mother involv/dat	r=-.26
Father phone	r= .34*	Mother self-esteem	r=-.26
Father visitation	r= .31*	Economic sit worse	r=-.22
F-Ch prior closeness	r= .29*		
F-Ch post activities	r= .23		
Flexible visits	r= .22		
F-Ch prior activities	r= .21		

$p \leq .05$; * $p \leq .01$; ** $p \leq .001$
Key: P-P=Parent to Parent; F-Ch=Father to Child; F=Father; Prior=Pre-divorce; Post=Post-divorce

Mothers in the high parental interaction group reported co-parenting with ease ($p \leq .001$) and enjoyed significantly more conversation topics outside of the parenting relationship ($p \leq .000$). They view their ex-husbands as positive parents ($p \leq .001$), who were more involved in the everyday parenting tasks ($p \leq .000$). Presently, mother could rely on more regular support payments ($p \leq .001$); the father was less likely to initiate relitigation ($p \leq .005$); and they had fewer pre-divorce disagreements around child support ($p \leq .01$). But their children did not have higher self-esteem scores when analyses of variance were performed on child variables and the dichotomous high/low parent interaction variable determined by the median split. In high parental interaction groups, mothers were less likely

to report that their children had frequent somatic complaints ($p \leq .02$), but there were no significant increases in children's perceived self-competence. In fact, trends were observed for children's reports to be lower for their cognitive self-esteem ($p \leq .07$), physical self-esteem ($p \leq .06$), social self-esteem ($p \leq .09$), and to have greater sad feelings about the divorce ($p \leq .09$). These results are described in Table 21.

Table 21: Results of Main Effects of Child Variables and Analyses of Variance of Child Variables and High/Low Parent-Parent Interaction

Child Variable	Parent-Parent Interaction			
	Low Mean N=27	High Mean N=32	F	Prob
Mothers perception of somatic complaints	13.54	15.10	6.102	.02
	Trends			
Cognitive Competence	3.13	2.81	3.859	.07
Physical Competence	3.01	2.61	4.296	.06
Social Competence	3.07	2.77	3.445	.09

There were two significant interactions for sex and high/low parental interaction on general self-esteem scores ($p \leq .04$) and degree of depression ($p \leq .04$). Boys appeared to have lower general self-esteem scores if parents were interacting and having frequent parental discussions while girls seemed to have higher perceptions of their general self-esteem. Another significant interaction with similar patterns was observed between sex and parental interaction for children's depression ($p \leq .04$). Additionally, boys

were more likely to be depressed with higher interacting parents. In contrast, girls were less likely to report depressed symptoms. Why didn't frequent parental discussion and interaction increase self-esteem scores as hypothesized in the joint custody literature? Why were there trends for children to have lower self-perceptions in most areas?

A closer look at some of the significant results for parents with high interaction reveals that more contact and discussion between these parents was more significantly correlated with parent-parent variables and least significantly correlated with father-child variables, an interesting finding since other data analyses do not replicate these striking patterns. In this light, we may want to consider that parents who are invested in high interaction and discussion may be more involved with one another than in the relationship with their child.

B. Comparison of Parental and Child Variables on Close and Distant Proximity in Miles Between Parental Homes

Another factor which was a strong predictor of high child adjustment was the proximity of father's home to the custodial mother's household. Although in previous studies the sample dividing point was 30 miles from mother's home, the decision was made in this sample to use a 20-mile distance as the dividing point so that a sufficient number of subjects could be included in the high and low category.

Thus, in the high proximity category (N = 44), father was less than twenty miles and in the low proximity category

(N = 16) father was greater than or equal to twenty miles away from the custodial mother's home. Differences in parent variables in the high and low proximity groups were analyzed by person product moment correlations and child variables were examined by analyses of variance. These results are shown in Table 22.

Table 22: Results of Pearson Product Moment Correlations of Parent Variables for High and Low Father Proximity

	Correlation Coefficient*	Significance
Father-child predivorce closeness	r = .36	.002
Father-child predivorce activity	r = .32	.007
Positive feelings toward exspouse	r = .35	.003
Positive Parent	r = .30	.01
Father-child post-divorce closeness	r = .24	.03
Conflict	r = -.26	.03
Frequency father-initiated relitig.	r = -.26	.04

*Positive r = higher value of parent variable

When fathers lived at least 20 miles away, mothers were more likely to view the present father-child relationship as closer ($p \leq .03$) and to see father as having been closer ($p \leq .002$) and done more activities with his child ($p \leq .007$) before the divorce. Mothers with ex-spouses 20 miles or more away had more positive feelings toward their ex-spouses ($p \leq .003$) and saw these fathers are being more positive parents ($p \leq .01$). On the other hand, parents <u>within</u> a 20 mile radius were more likely to relitigate ($p \leq .04$), and fathers were likely to initiate divorce proceedings more than once ($p \leq .04$). Of the seven father who relitigated more than once, <u>six</u> lived within 20 miles. Similarly,

mother's report of highest conflict was associated with close proximity to father's household ($p \leq .03$).

Interestingly, children whose fathers were 20 miles or more away had statistically significant higher self-esteem scores in all areas (cognitive ($p \leq .04$), physical($p \leq .007$), social ($p \leq .01$), and general ($p \leq .02$), and father was perceived more positively ($p \leq .01$). There was a trend for children to feel less depressed ($p \leq .08$) the greater the distance between father's residence and the custodial home. In groups where father was further away, mothers thought children were less apt to consider themselves the cause of the divorce ($p \leq .005$). They also believed that children had fewer feelings of insecurity ($p \leq .02$) and anger ($p \leq .02$), less frequent aggressive behaviors ($p \leq .01$), somatic complaints ($p \leq .07$), and reconciliation wishes ($p \leq .09$). A summary of these results is shown in Table 23.

With greater distance, it appears that mother viewed father as a more positive parent and closer to the children pre- and post-divorce. Perhaps these mothers, relieved by the distance from their ex-spouses, could be more positive of him as a parent since it lessened their need to create psychological barriers by criticizing him in front of the children. Another possibility is that these factors had qualitatively different relationships with their children and maintained the relationship in spite of the greater distance.

Table 23: Results of Main Effects for Analyses of Variance for Child Variables and High/Low Father Proximity

Child Variable	Less than 20 Miles Mean N=44	Greater than 20 Miles Mean N=16	F	Prob.
Perceived Competence				
Cognitive	2.86	3.23	3.083	.04
Physical	2.63	3.28	9.039	.007
Social	2.78	3.26	7.019	.01
General	2.73	3.26	7.012	.02
Positive Perception of Father	3.49	4.10	4.355	.01
Mother's Perceptions of:				
Degree of Causality	18.48	15.00	8.829	.005
Insecure Feelings	13.13	10.69	6.211	.02
Angry Feelings	18.15	15.50	5.645	.02
Aggressive Feelings	17.86	17.75	7.152	.01
	Trends			
Somatic Complaints	14.86	13.50	3.553	.07
Reconciliation Wishes	19.06	19.45	3.096	.09
Depression	.32	.21	3.247	.08

DISCUSSION

Some studies have posited a beneficial outcome of divorce for children as evidenced by their increased maturity and self-confidence (Kurdek & Siesky, 1981; Weiss, 1975). Results of other studies on children of divorce have pointed to evidence that the stress of divorce and the accompanying changes in family structure and environment have little or no effect when compared to intact families (Hetherington, 1979) or have a definite negative impact on adult children of divorce (Kulka & Weingarten, 1979). Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) described one third of their sample as suffering significantly from the trauma of divorce. In the current study sample, a similar proportion of children seemed to be in noticeable distress. Comparison of the current results with the national norms on a child depression measure revealed that at least twenty percent of this non-clinical, and relatively representative sample could be classified as severely and chronically depressed. The validity of child reported measures of depression has been debated at length. Several studies have suggested that children significantly underestimate the severity of their depressive symptomatology in comparison to parents' ratings (Kazdin, French & Unis, 1983; Kazdin, Esveldt-Dawson, Unis &

Rancivello, 1983). In contrast, another study by Moretti et al. (1985) found child-reported measures of depression more reliable than parental ratings for evaluating major depressive symptoms on the DSM-III criteria. These differences may be more related to the populations that were tested (inpatient versus outpatient) than how accurate children were at reporting their own depressive symptoms.

However, regardless of the above discussion, from a clinical perspective, the fact that one third of this sample indicated that they had thought of suicide is cause for concern.[4] Moreover, the mothers in the current study indicated that their children exhibited severe symptomatic behaviors. It is worth remembering that by mothers' ratings all children in both custody groups had scores comparable to a clinically disturbed sample on the Achenbach Internalizing and Externalizing Scale. Indeed, boys were one standard deviation above the clinical sample mean and girls' scores approached the mean. The accuracy of parental ratings has been questioned. Some studies have suggested that depressed mothers were more apt to see their children as depressed or behaviorally symptomatic (Emery et al., 1982; Moretti et al., 1985). Studies which have used the Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983) have indicated between the parental reports of internalizing and externalizing behavior symptoms correspond to clinical diagnoses of depression and conduct disorders (Garrison &

[4] It would be important to know how prevalent thoughts of suicide are in the population at large.

Earls, 1985; Kazdin & Heidish, 1984). Hence, given the severe symptomatology noted and the convergence of both child and parent-reported measures, we can say with some assurance that the children in this sample tend to be disturbed. The fact that this sample is representative challenges the contention that divorce is likely to be beneficial to children and strongly suggests that divorce has serious detrimental effects on children.

Within this context, we can appreciate the importance of the question whether legally shared parental rights and responsibilities will demonstrate observable positive (or less negative) effects on children who are living with their mother. From the results of this study, joint legal custody children have slightly higher self-esteem (cognitive and general) and view their noncustodial fathers more positively. Sole maternal custody children are, on the other hand, characterized by significantly more negative opinions of their custodial mother. Though there are tendencies for observed differences between custody type on child-reported depression in maternal custody, there are also mother-reported internalizing problems and increased somatic complaints which seem in general, to indicate the already observed depression in both custody types.[5] Except for these differences, however, the overall conclusion is

[5]However, it does raise the question of whether joint legal custody mothers perceive their children as more depressed than their children subjectively experience or conversely, sole maternal custody mothers are more reluctant to view and/or simply unaware that their sons and daughters may be experiencing difficulty.

that children in both custody types have relatively similar child adjustment patterns.

While neither custody arrangement appears more positive or less negative, the fewer higher scores for joint legal custody are intriguing. Some advocates have speculated that joint legal custody would facilitate a more cooperative coparenting relationship, increased father visitation and involvement with his children, and assure more regular child support. This study provides the first empirical assessment of these speculations, and it is clear that they were not borne out in this sample. At best, there were no observable differences between the coparenting relationship and father visitation and/or involvement. Further, mothers in the sample reported a tendency for less regular support payments by fathers. So, an explanation is needed for both the few higher child adjustment scores and also the unexpected phenomenon of the mother's reports of less regular child in joint custody.

A possible explanation for the few higher child adjustment scores can be derived from the predivorce parental differences which naturally lead some parents to choose joint legal custody over other possible arrangements. First, parents in joint legal custody were more able to shield their children from their marital conflicts and tensions, since they had fewer verbal arguments in front of their children. There is certainly a growing literature on the detrimental effects of interparental hostility and

marital fighting on the cognitive and emotional development of children (Porter & O'Leary, 1980; Emery & O'Leary, 1982).

Second, joint legal custody fathers, at least by mothers' reports, were closer to their children prior to the divorce. The impact and importance of the quality of the parent-child relationship rather than simply the amount of time spent together has been noted by other researchers (Hess & Camara, 1979). In this sample, two times as many joint legal custody mothers reported that their children had close relationships to both parents prior to the divorce (but not post-divorce).

Third, joint legal custody mothers had a slightly higher educational level, had a more active hand in the custody decision, and were more self-supporting. We might consider these behaviors as indications of a mother's active and self-competent way of life, characteristic qualities frequently visited in mothers of non-traditional parenting arrangements (Lamb et al., 1982; Russel, 1982; Radin, 1982). A consequence of joint legal custody mothers' personal adjustment might be the positive influence it exerted on the children's cognitive development and self-esteem.

Thus, it seems that pre-divorce parental differences between the two custody groups such as 1) degree of child involvement in marital conflict, 2) relationship with father to child, 3) mother's personal and educational strength might adequately explain the differences observed between sole maternal custody and joint legal custody

children. In sum, the results seem to point to the type of people who choose joint legal custody rather than to the differential effects of custody per se.[6]

The pre-divorce characteristics of the joint legal custody parents may also help explain the fact that by mother's reports joint legal custody fathers were less regular in their support payments. It is interesting, in this context, that by mothers' reports joint legal custody fathers contributed the same total amount of support as sole maternal custody fathers. Two explanations suggest themselves for the mothers' reports of less regular payments. First, it is, of course, possible that the mothers' and fathers' perspectives on the regularity of support will differ. Thus, one explanation for the reports of less regular payments may be that the fathers were not in fact less regular but that the joint legal custody mothers nonetheless perceived the fathers, for other reasons, as less regular. Alternatively, it may be that the joint legal custody fathers were less regular.

The present study investigates the mothers' perspectives on the post-divorce experience, and this investigation yielded a wealth of information for clinical observations. In particular, clinical observations of the interviews with joint legal custody mothers suggest that three different types of desires may have led the joint legal custody mothers to propose or agree to a joint custody

[6] The court imposed joint legal custody on only one subject in this sample.

agreement. A desire for continuing emotional involvement with their former spouse may have led some mothers to seek or accept a joint legal custody arrangement. These mothers may find it difficult to accept a severance of their spousal relationship and may hope through joint parenting to delay or avoid the pain of final separation. This sort of motivation on the mother's part usually has one of two outcomes. In one situation, the former spouse begins to establish new emotional relationships, and the mother, threatened by the prospect that the father's new involvement will somehow replace his previous spousal involvement, become dissatisfied with the joint legal custody. Most frequently in this kind of situation, the communications between the parents become more overtly hostile. In the other situation, the mother retains her emotional attachment to her ex-spouse through the shared parenting and is motivated to avoid conflict in the coparenting arrangement. While in some cases the mother may seek to avoid conflict with her ex-spouse, even if that entails her sacrificing her own emotional needs and development, these women tend to depict joint legal custody in more favorable terms.

A second motivation for proposing or agreeing to joint legal custody is a desire on the mother's part to keep her former spouse involved with his children, most often in the hope that the children themselves will benefit from increased contact with their father. Some situations, to be sure, fulfill these maternal hopes. But, in most cases

these mothers tend to be disappointed in the amount of father involvement of financial support that might result. Disappointment seem most common and most acute when the father resides in close proximity to the custodial home.

A third class of mothers agreed to joint legal custody, against their better judgment. They might have hoped to reduce tension between parents at the time of divorce, or they might have agreed to joint legal custody in the midst of discouraging legal maneuvering by the ex-spouse. Most often, these mothers regretted the joint legal arrangement, frequently in bitter terms. They found themselves besieged by their ex-spouse and, consigned to the joint legal arrangement, unable to escape continuing legal and psychic turmoil.

The joint legal custody mothers' reports of less regular support payments can be interpreted against the background of these clinical impressions about the mothers' pre-divorce motivations. The problems described by the joint legal custody mothers are similar to those associated with sole maternal custody. What is distinctive about the experience of joint legal custody mothers is that each of the three types of motivation for joint legal custody revolves around an expectation that joint legal custody will resolve or reduce problems associated with divorce. But, the actual experience falls well short of the expectations for mothers of each motivation type. For most of the mothers, the joint legal custody arrangement proves to be a

continuing source of disappointment or frustration. Even for those mothers who perpetuated a continuing emotional involvement with their ex-spouse, that involvement sometimes came at the cost of their own emotional growth and development. Therefore, the reports by joint legal custody mothers of less regular payments may reflect their disappointment with the custodial arrangement rather than significant tardiness by the fathers.

Alternatively, it might also be that the mothers' views are accurate and that the joint legal custody fathers in the sample were in fact less regular in their payments. The present study does not investigate the fathers' perspectives on the custody arrangement and we can only speculate as to what might explain the less regular payments by joint legal custody fathers. One possible explanation is that the father too is disappointed, in comparison with the expectations he had when he began the joint custody arrangement, by the level or quality of his involvement with his children post-divorce. It is salient that by mother's reports the joint legal custody fathers had closer relationships with their children prior to divorce. Perhaps the less regular payments by joint legal custody fathers reflect their particularly acute resentment over the way in which the custody arrangement has actually worked out. Their post-divorce experience would not likely equal the quality of their pre-divorce relationship, and the father's

disappointment may have interfered with the regularity of their payments.

A second possibility centers on the fact that joint legal custody mothers are more self-supporting than sole maternal custody mothers. Perhaps the joint legal custody fathers inferred that their financial contributions were not as necessary to the economic well-being of their children and perceived their contributions as simply supporting a more comfortable style of life for their ex-spouses. This idea might cause them to lose sight of the fact that their support payments are for the benefit of their children and hence to be less regular in their payments. Finally, it may be that since a joint legal custody arrangement allows the former husband joint participation in decisions about the care and raising of his children, joint legal custody fathers lack one of the arenas which in sole maternal custody arrangements serve for the expression of hostility between the ex-spouses.[7] It is possible that joint legal custody fathers are therefore led to delay or interrupt their support payments as a way of expressing their anger or resentment with their former wives.

The above hypotheses are interesting and deserve further research. It should be noted that, in the current study, fathers were sent the parent questionnaire with an enclosed stamped envelope. However, only two percent of the

[7] Sole maternal custody mothers of boys reported more pre-divorce disagreements about visitation ($p \leq .07$) while joint legal custody mothers of girls reported pre-divorce disagreements about child support ($p \leq .09$).

fathers responded. Hence, it is a limitation of this study that fathers' perspectives could not be investigated and that we have neither the fathers' own reports nor clinical observations about the fathers as a basis for inference. Indeed, the lack of information on the fathers' views of their post-divorce experience generally limits the literature concerning children of divorce. It is to be hoped that future studies will be able to examine the fathers' perspectives as well.

However, the major question of this study, whether joint legal custody has a less negative or more positive impact on child adjustment has been answered definitively. Parent factors, not custody, exert the most impact on how children fare after the divorce. Therefore, the arguments by joint custody advocates that extolled joint legal custody for its benefits to the children are not borne out by this study. THis is not to say, however, that the current study provides reasons for preferring sole maternal custody. Rather, the current study indicates that the legal custody arrangement per se is not the most powerful predictor of higher child adjustment post-divorce. Other parent-focused factors are more related to child's well-being after divorce. These other parent factors, then, deserve attention in their own right, given their relationship to child adjustment, and I will elaborate later in this discussion on their contribution to the general understanding of the child's post-divorce experience.

The literature on post-divorce child adjustment has emphasized two dimensions of the post-divorce experience. One variable that has been discussed for some time in the literature is time since divorce. Another variable that has more recently received attention is the remarriage of a parent. As the current study demonstrates, other parent factors, already noted, are more significant than time since divorce or remarriage in predicting higher child adjustment, but these two factors are particularly intriguing for the clinician and for the design of future studies.

The present study demonstrates that comparisons of the children's perspectives of themselves between the two custody groups vary with the length of time since divorce. If the divorce has been more recent, joint legal custody children have higher scores on self-esteem than sole maternal custody children. In contrast, sole maternal custody children are sadder for groups of 1-2 and 2-3 years post-divorce. For children greater than three years after divorce, however, this picture is reversed: joint legal custody children are sadder and have significantly less self-esteem. This pattern underscores the cautions of some researchers about too great reliance on reports taken immediately post-divorce. It also influences the interpretation of the few higher scores for joint legal custody children, given that those scores are no longer significant when time since divorce is considered in the analyses.

This pattern of lower self-esteem and greater sadness for joint legal custody children as time since divorce increases suggests that there is some circumstance attendant on the custody arrangement that benefits these children immediately after divorce but whose influence diminishes over time. One aspect of joint legal custody parent-child relationships was a greater closeness, as reported by mothers, between the father and his child. We can imagine that this pre-divorce closeness sustains both father and child through the initial separation and adjustment to divorce. If this closeness is attentuated by the post-divorce experience of the joint legal custody fathers, then that development may lead to a change in the feelings of the joint legal custody children more than three years after divorce.

It has been noted that post-divorce fathers generally report suffering upon losing daily contact with their child and resent their being consigned to status as a frequent visitor. These feelings of the joint legal custody fathers, in particular, may be exacerbated by the extent of their pre-divorce closeness with their children. Perhaps, the closer the father was to the child, the more painful the post-divorce diminution of the father-child relationship, and this might lead some fathers to withdraw from their children as time since divorce increases. This suggestion is the obverse of Grief's observations on the comparison between maternal and joint custody fathers. However,

Grief's study did not distinguish the special circumstances of the joint legal custody father, and it appears that Grief focused only on the feelings of the fathers shortly after the divorce. Fathers' feelings about joint legal custody may change over time, and if so, that may explain why joint legal custody childrens' feelings may change as time since divorce increases. Indeed, it is plausible that the father's subsequent adjustment to his separation may lead to a greater sense of loss, given the joint legal custody fathers' increased pre-divorce closeness with their children, and an estrangement of father and child. This estrangement of father and child, in turn, may lead to the lower self-esteem and more depressed feelings reported by the joint legal custody children as time since divorce increases. It should be recognized that the current study is limited by the small numbers in these comparisons of time since divorce. It is also limited in that fathers' reports of their experience were not considered in this study. Thus, these hypotheses need to be tested directly in future research.

The current study also indicates the impact that remarriage can have on the course of post-divorce family life and child adjustment. The influence of remarriage varies with the sex of the child, the custody type, and which parent remarries. When mothers were remarried, by mother's report, girls were generally more distressed than were boys. These results are similar to Hetherington's et

al. (1985) findings. Based on the separation-individuation theories of Abelin (1971), she posits that girls experience a stepfather as an intrusion to the close mother-daughter relationship which has intensified due to the fact that mothers may lean emotionally on their daughters during the early post-divorce period. Interestingly, in the current study, boys in sole maternal custody seemed to benefit from mother's remarriage, tending to feel more positively about themselves and about their mothers. They felt less depressed, abandoned, more in control of their lives and seemed more secure than sole maternal custody girls and joint legal custody children.

The differences just noted are intriguing and deserve an explanation. But a correlational study such as this one cannot adequately address the causes of these underlying distinctions. What <u>is</u> clear is that there are definite differences, making generalizations about children of one custody type or another very risky and emphasizing the need to consider each child in each particular situation as unique.

A different set of responses were observed for families where father was remarried. Joint legal custody children were significantly more distressed than sole maternal custody children, mostly indicated by, but not exclusively, mothers' ratings. Joint legal custody children were more angry and sad, had increased insecurity and depression, greater feelings of abandonment and a significant increase

in loyalty conflicts if father was remarried. Similarly, mothers reported that their children felt they were the cause of the divorce. This type of symptomatology may indicate a resurgence of the descriptions of loss observed in children's responses to divorce as described by Wallerstein & Kelly (1980) and Wallerstein (1983). We may wonder if some part of the mourning process is delayed for joint legal custody children.[8] From an intrapsychic perspective, perhaps joint legal custody children have more difficulty traversing the psychological tasks of recognizing the reality of their parents' divorce and coming to terms with the loss of their family as they knew it, a process which Wallerstein (1983) outlines is essential to completing the grief work surrounding the divorce. It is possible that this psychic reality is less present for joint legal custody children (and their mothers) until father remarries. Then, unlike in sole maternal custody where children grieve at the time of the divorce, in joint legal custody the delayed grief occurs when either parent remarries.

Another possibility is that joint legal custody fathers, initially close to their children, over time and with remarriage visit less frequently and have a <u>qualitatively</u> different relationship with them. Generally speaking, a decline in father visitation in both groups was

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[8]Again, these are mother reported measures. It might be important to explore whether remarried joint custody mothers responded differently on other parent variables in comparison to sole maternal custody mothers.

observed.[9] Perhaps remarriage makes visitation and emotional involvement more difficult due to responsibilities of a step-family or the possessiveness (and sometimes well-founded) jealousies of new spouses. This may shed some light on the results that children in joint legal custody, especially girls, responded with distress to the remarriage of father. If a consequence of remarriage was the altered status quo of their relationship, both girls and boys would find father's remarriage a difficult adjustment. However, there were no statistical differences between the amount of father visitation in either group. We may speculate that the measures used may be inadequate to convey qualitative differences in the father-child relationship.

In sum, the present study bears out the frequent admonitions in the literature that time since divorce and remarriage are "important variables to consider when interpreting the significance of past studies and when contemplating the design of possible future studies. Futhermore, the present results have implications for clinical work with post-divorce children, in particular cautioning the clinician against generalizing too quickly about the child's likely experience with either type of custody. The results regarding time since divorce suggest that the child's emotional responses following the divorce may differ with the length of time post-divorce. And, the remarriage results indicate that the child's response may

[9] Other analyses suggest that father visitation declines more for joint legal custody girls ($p \leq .08$).

differ significantly, according to the sex of the child and the custody arrangement.

The last important facet of this study to be discussed is the variable which, regardless of custody, was the most predictive of higher child adjustment, namely the effects of the coparenting relationship on children. Coparenting cooperation has been hypothesized to be an essential element to positive post-divorce adjustment. The results of this study suggest that the coparenting relationship is, in fact, an important mediating variable for positive child adjustment after divorce, but in totally unexpected ways. Rather than the anticipated cooperation and communication between parents, close proximity between households and detailed visitation arrangements, it was less parent to parent interaction, more distance between the homes of the custodial parent and the non-residential parent and flexible visitation schedules that were highly associated with more positive child adjustment. These findings are contrary to a growing literature which is advocating the importance of high coparental discussion for the sake of childrens'' welfare after divorce. In fact, based on the results of a study of 100 families interviewed over a five-year period, Isaacs (1985) recently suggested interventions aimed at helping parents arrange more structured visitation schedules and greater interparental communication and cooperation. These notions are diametrically opposed to the results of this study which presented a very different picture of how

children fare in families where frequent parental discussions and interactions are the norm.

Perhaps insight can be forthcoming about the meaning of these results within the context of the family systems theory of inmeshed family relationships (Minuchin, 1974). Parents who interacted regularly had children with somewhat lowered self-esteem. But high interparental discussion was associated with high ex-spousal involvement, not higher parent-child visitation. We might imagine that the high interacting parents were more involved with each other, at least by mother's report, than they were with their children. Unable to draw a boundary between their parental relationship and their ex-spousal relationship, they may remain enmeshed with one another through their interactions around the child and maintain a high level of emotional intimacy through their co-parenting, a form of interaction which they and others may find acceptable.

However, children of these parents who sense the emotional connectedness may wonder why their parents divorced in the first place. Searching for reasons, they may be convinced that they are the likely cause. Unlike children who can be angry with fathers for leaving and see him (or their mom) as more negative, or children with highly hostile parents who perceive themselves in a defensive but adaptive way as more cognitively or physically competent than others, these children can neither externalize nor overcompensate. They may internalize their anger, becoming

depressed. Thus, they lose a significant amount of self-esteem in many areas, regardless of custody type. Perhaps they feel more emotionally abandoned because on the surface it might appear as though their parents were interested in them but covertly they sense that their parents are more emotionally interested in one another.

Further support for the advantages of non-enmeshed post-divorce family relationships can be found in the observation that more physical distance between the homes of custodial mother and non-residential father was associated with statistically higher in child adjustment. Perhaps fathers who can move away, separate emotionally and physically, and yet still stay connected to their sons and daughters are the most well adjusted and therefore have the most positive effect on their children. We might view physical distance as reflecting an emotional distance as well. But since there were no observed or statistical differences in frequency of visitation for physically closer or more distant fathers, the relevant "psychological" distance may be from their ex-spouse rather than from their children. Thus, the mothers might be able to see the fathers as a more positive parent, and closer to his children, though there was an actual decline in activities post-divorce with father's distance. With more physical distance mother might feel less guilty about the divorce and perhaps feel less need to derogate father in front of the children, a defensive process frequently employed by mothers

to deal with their feelings of loss and separation from their ex-spouse (Wallerstein, 1985).

Children may function most adaptively post-divorce when they have parents who are neither overly cooperative or overly hostile, suggesting an emotional distance which allows the parents to separate, to carry on with new lives while still staying connected to their children. One wonders if parents who can successfully navigate this course will be more inclined to remain involved with their children after a remarriage or through the passage of time after divorce. However, the results of this study reinforce those of Furstenberg's et al., (1983), sadly suggesting that in the majority of divorced families, it is rare for fathers to remain highly involved and frequently visiting over time.

There are several limitations to the generalizability of this study on joint legal custody. One is the volunteer basis of the subjects. Mothers who were willing to be interviewed in their home may have agreed to do so for a variety of reasons. In this study, subjects asked about their reasons for participation said one the following: 1) they hoped someone could benefit from their situation since they knew nothing had been available to them; 2) they thought the interviewer might evaluate their child's post-divorce adjustment; or 3) a few thought it was required by the Friend of the Court for continuation of their child support payments. The range of reasons indicate that one must consider the motivations of those who participate when

making interpretations. We already know from telephone calls to non-participants that a majority did not participate out of a desire to protect their children and guard their own free time with their family. One might argue that these families are better adjusted for their familial priorities and considerations or that they are defensively avoiding discussions about divorce. This is a formidable limitation which restricts the generalizability of many studies in applied research. The strength of this study lies in the fact that the method of subject selection provided a representative sample, a drastic improvement over the convenience samples in most previous studies of divorce.

Another limitation is the lack of information from father's perspective. Future studies will need to compare both parent's view of the parenting variables. Additionally, future comparative studies of joint legal custody and sole maternal custody need to evaluate the impact of: a) mother's post-divorce adjustment and economic conditions, b) the impact of pre-and post-divorce conflict, including relitigation, and c) the effects of father involvement and visitation.

In summary, joint legal custody has no more positive or less negative impact post-divorce adjustment than sole maternal custody since child adjustment in both custody groups was basically comparable. A few significantly higher scores for joint legal custody children have been argued to reflect the influences of the type of parents who choose

joint legal custody rather than the custody arrangement per se. Significant family life changes such as the remarriage of either parent may alter the course of post-divorce adjustment. Joint legal custody children are particularly sensitive to the remarriage of father. In conclusion, there is no reason to believe joint legal custody arrangements will significantly alter parents' post-divorce behavior or be more beneficial to children's adjustment. Other parental variables, not custody, were most predictive of positive child adjustment. Contrary to the hypothesized theories of the benefits of high coparenting interaction, this study suggests that less frequent interactions and some physical and psychological distance may be important for optimal positive adjustment for children post-divorce. It is evident that decisions regarding legal or physical custody are best arranged on a case by case basis with careful consideration for the developmental needs of the child and each familial situation.

APPENDIX A

LETTERS TO PARENTS

and

CONSENT FORMS

APPENDIX A

Sixth Judicial Circuit of Michigan
County of Oakland
OFFICE OF THE FRIEND OF THE COURT
OAKLAND COUNTY COURT HOUSE
ADMINISTRATIVE ANNEX II
1200 NORTH TELEGRAPH ROAD
PONTIAC, MICHIGAN
48053
TELEPHONE 858-0424

Dear Parent:

The Family Styles Project at the University of Michigan is conducting a study in Oakland County. The Family Styles Project is directed by Professor Neil Kalter. Its aim is to learn more about how children think and feel about growing up in different family environments. Single-parent households with a variety of custody and visiting arrangements along with remarried households are the family styles for one child in three today. We believe it would be helpful to parents and children if we all knew more about how children experience these family styles.

A description of the Oakland County part of the Family Styles Project is enclosed along with a consent form for your signature. We are enthusiastic about this project and the consultation services offered to parents in return for helping to further our understanding of family life. We urge you to consider participating in this program.

Sincerely,

John J. Houghton

JOHN J. HOUGHTON
FRIEND OF THE COURT

JJH/mc

Enclosure

APPENDIX A

The University of Michigan

Dear Parent:

Since the 1970's, more and more couples have had the experience of divorce. There are many child custody and visitation arrangements from which the couple can choose. However, it is sometimes difficult to know what might be most helpful and beneficial for the child(ren) or for the parents themselves. Our research project is designed to study the different solutions that people have worked out and to understand how parents and children think and feel about different types of custody and visitation arrangements. Very little is presently known about these issues. We believe that these topics are very important to families who have already divorced and to those who will divorce in the future.

We are contacting you to help us find out more about these important aspects of the family life after divorce. We obtained your name and address from the public files of the Oakland County Courthouse. You are the experts about divorce. As part of our study we would like to talk briefly (30–45 minutes) with your child. One child per family between the ages of 7 and 12 will be asked to participate in the study. We plan to focus on his/her ideas about children in general and about him-/herself. In the past, most children have enjoyed the process and feel comfortable talking with the female researcher. We plan to contact you by telephone for a time that one of our female interviewers could administer the forms either in your home or in an office of the Friend of the Court.

We will also ask each parent to fill out questionnaires that will also take approximately 45 minutes. These forms are about how parents' see their child's response to the divorce, their views on custody and visitation and questions concerning your custody arrangement. Parents can easily fill out their questionnaires at the time of the interviews. In return for your participation and cooperation, we will offer a free workshop on divorce related concerns for the parents given by Dr. Kalter from the University of Michigan who has been extensively involved with families of divorce. We will also make a modest contribution to a charity of your choice.

We want to assure you that all information gathered from parents and their children would be strictly confidential. The information will be coded by number immediately so that no names will be attached to it.

If you do decide to participate, please include your telephone number on the consent form so that we may contact you to arrange a convenient time to come to your home or to the office at the Friend of the Court building, Oakland County, Michigan.

Please do not hesitate to call us at 764-3167 or 761-6877 if you have any questions about our work. Thank you very much for your considering this request.

Ms. Margaret Walsh, M.A.

APPENDIX A

Consent Form

I understand that the members of the Family Styles Project--a study to help learn about the views parents and children have about different family arrangements--are interested in having my child/one of my children between the ages of 7 and 12.fill out several forms regarding how he or she sees himself or herself and his or her ideas about divorce in general. As part of the project, I will be asked to fill out several questionnaires. They have described to me that the procedure will take place either in my home or at the Friend of the Court offices at a time convenient for me and members of my family.

I realize that my participation in this project is voluntary and that I or my child can withdraw at any time. I understand that to ensure my child's and my own privacy no identifying information will be attached to the information that either my child or I provide.

I would like to have the interview for my child and to answer the parent questionnaires (please check):

_____ in my home

_____ in an office at the Friend of the Court building.

1. Charity to which contribution is to be made. (Please check one.)

_____ American Heart Association

_____ American Cancer Society

_____ March of Dimes

_____ Muscular Dystrophy Association

_____ Other _____

2. I would be interested in attending a free workshop about parenting after divorce. _____ (Please check if interested.)

Home phone number: _____

Parent's Signature _____ Date: _____

Please mail this consent form to the researchers in the envelope provided as soon as possible.

Thank you.

APPENDIX A

KID'S CONSENT FORM

To Whom It May Concern:

It is okay with me that I take some short tests to be a part of some research on families. I can stop at any time if I feel uncomfortable or upset in any way.

_____

_____

APPENDIX B

CHILD MEASURES

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

Perceived Competence Scale for Children

What I Am Like

NAME _____ BOY OR GIRL (circle which) AGE _____ BIRTHDAY _____ CLASS OR GROUP _____

SAMPLE SENTENCES

	REALLY TRUE for me	SORT OF TRUE for me				SORT OF TRUE for me	REALLY TRUE for me
a.	☐	☐	Some kids would rather play outdoors in their spare time	BUT	Other kids would rather watch T.V.	☐	☐
b.	☐	☐	Some kids never worry about anything	BUT	Other kids sometimes worry about certain things.	☐	☐
1.	☐	☐	Some kids feel that they are very good at their school work	BUT	Other kids worry about whether they can do the school work assigned to them.	☐	☐
2.	☐	☐	Some kids find it hard to make friends	BUT	For other kids it's pretty easy.	☐	☐
3.	☐	☐	Some kids do very well at all kinds of sports	BUT	Others don't feel that they are very good when it comes to sports.	☐	☐
4.	☐	☐	Some kids feel that there are alot of things about themselves that they would change if they could	BUT	Other kids would like to stay pretty much the same.	☐	☐
5.	☐	☐	Some kids feel like they are just as smart as other kids their age	BUT	Other kids aren't so sure and wonder if they are as smart.	☐	☐
6.	☐	☐	Some kids have alot of friends	BUT	Other kids don't have very many friends.	☐	☐

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

	REALLY TRUE for me	SORT OF TRUE for me				SORT OF TRUE for me	REALLY TRUE for me
7.	☐	☐	Some kids wish they could be alot better at sports	BUT	Other kids feel they are good enough.	☐	☐
8.	☐	☐	Some kids are pretty sure of themselves	BUT	Other kids are not very sure of themselves.	☐	☐
9.	☐	☐	Some kids are pretty slow in finishing their school work	BUT	Other kids can do their school work quickly.	☐	☐
10.	☐	☐	Some kids don't think they are a very important member of their class	BUT	Other kids think they are pretty important to their classmates.	☐	☐
11.	☐	☐	Some kids think they could do well at just about any new outdoor activity they haven't tried before	BUT	Other kids are afraid they might not do well at outdoor things they haven't ever tried.	☐	☐
12.	☐	☐	Some kids feel good about the way they act	BUT	Other kids wish they acted differently.	☐	☐
13.	☐	☐	Some kids often forget what they learn	BUT	Other kids can remember things easily.	☐	☐
14.	☐	☐	Some kids are always doing things with alot of kids	BUT	Other kids usually do things by themselves.	☐	☐
15.	☐	☐	Some kids feel that they are better than others their age at sports	BUT	Other kids don't feel they can play as well.	☐	☐
16.	☐	☐	Some kids think that maybe they are not a very good person	BUT	Other kids are pretty sure that they are a good person.	☐	☐

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

	REALLY TRUE for me	SORT OF TRUE for me				SORT OF TRUE for me	REALLY TRUE for me
17.	☐	☐	Some kids like school because they do well in class	BUT	Other kids don't like school because they aren't doing very well.	☐	☐
18.	☐	☐	Some kids wish that more kids liked them	BUT	Others feel that most kids do like them.	☐	☐
19.	☐	☐	In games and sports some kids usually watch instead of play	BUT	Other kids usually play rather than just watch.	☐	☐
20.	☐	☐	Some kids are very happy being the way they are	BUT	Other kids wish they were different.	☐	☐
21.	☐	☐	Some kids wish it was easier to understand what they read	BUT	Other kids don't have any trouble understanding what they read.	☐	☐
22.	☐	☐	Some kids are popular with others their age	BUT	Other kids are not very popular.	☐	☐
23.	☐	☐	Some kids don't do well at new outdoor games	BUT	Other kids are good at new games right away.	☐	☐
24.	☐	☐	Some kids aren't very happy with the way they do alot of things	BUT	Other kids think the way they do things is fine.	☐	☐
25.	☐	☐	Some kids have trouble figuring out the answers in school	BUT	Other kids almost always can figure out the answers.	☐	☐
26.	☐	☐	Some kids are really easy to like	BUT	Other kids are kind of hard to like.	☐	☐
27.	☐	☐	Some kids are among the last to be chosen for games	BUT	Other kids are usually picked first.	☐	☐
28	☐	☐	Some kids are usually sure that what they are doing is the right thing	BUT	Other kids aren't so sure whether or not they are doing the right thing.	☐	☐

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

CHILDREN'S DEPRESSION INVENTORY

---

1. I am sad once in a while
   I am sad many times
   I am sad all the time

2. Nothing will ever work out for me
   I am not sure if things will work out for me
   Things will work out for me O.K.

3. I do most things O.K.
   I do many things wrong
   I do everything wrong

4. I have fun in many things
   I have fun in some things
   Nothing is fun at all

5. I am bad all the time
   I am bad many times
   I am bad once in a while

6. I think about bad things happening to me once in a while
   I worry that bad things will happen to me
   I am sure that terrible things will happen to me.

7. I hate myself
   I do not like myself
   I like myself

8. All bad things are my fault
   Many bad things are my fault
   Bad things are not usually my fault

9. I do not think about killing myself
   I think about killing myself but I would not do it
   I want to kill myself

10. I feel like crying everyday
    I feel like crying many days
    I feel like crying once in a while

APPENDIX B
Child Measure

11. Things bother me all the time
    Things bother me many times
    Things bother me once in a while

12. I like being with people
    I do not like being with people many times
    I do not want to be with people at all

13. I cannot make up my mind about things
    It is hard to make up my mind about things
    I make up my mind about things easily

14. I look O.K.
    There are some bad things about my looks
    I look ugly

15. I have to push myself all the time to do my schoolwork
    I have to push myself many times to do my schoolwork
    Doing schoolwork is not a big problem

16. I have trouble sleeping every night
    I have trouble sleeping many nights
    I sleep pretty well

17. I am tired once in a while
    I am tired many days
    I am tired all the time.

18. Most days I do not feel like eating
    Many days I do not feel like eating
    I eat pretty well

19. I do not worry about aches and pains
    I worry about aches and pains many times
    I worry about aches and pains all the time

20. I do not feel alone
    I feel alone many times
    I feel alone all the time

21. I never have fun at school
    I have fun at school only once in a while
    I have fun at school many times

22. I have plenty of friends
    I have some friends but I wish I had more
    I do not have any friends

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

23. My schoolwork is alright
My schoolwork is not as good as before
I do very badly in subjects I used to be good in

24. I can never be as good as other kids
I can be as good as other kids if I want to
I am just as good as other kids

25. Nobody really loves me
I am not sure if anybody loves me
I am sure that somebody loves me

26. I usually do what I am told
I do not do what I am told most times
I never do what I am told

27. I get along with people
I get into fights many times
I get into fights all the time

The End

THANK YOU FOR FILLING OUT THIS FORM

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

NOWICKI-STRICKLAND LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE FOR CHILDREN

1.	Do you believe that most problems will solve themselves if you just don't fool with them?	Yes	No
2.	Do you believe that you can stop yourself from catching a cold?	Yes	No
3.	Are some kids just born lucky?	Yes	No
4.	Most of the time do you feel that getting good grades means a great deal to you?	Yes	No
5.	Are you often blamed for things that just aren't your fault?	Yes	No
6.	Do you believe that if somebody studies hard enough he or she can pass any subject?	Yes	No
7.	Do you feel that most of the time it doesn't pay to try hard because things never turn out right anyway	Yes	No
8.	Do you feel that if things start out well in the morning that it's going to be a good day no matter what you do?	Yes	No
9.	Do you feel that most of the time parents listen to what their children have to say?	Yes	No
10.	Do you believe that wishing can make good things happen	Yes	No
11.	When you get punished does it usually seem it's for no good reason at all?	Yes	No
12.	Most of the time do you find it hard to change a friend's (mind) opinion?	Yes	No
13.	Do you think that cheering more than luck helps a team to win?	Yes	No
14.	Do you feel that it's nearly impossible to change your parent's mind about anything?	Yes	No
15.	Do you believe that your parents should allow you to make most of your own decisions?	Yes	No
16.	Do you feel that when you do something wrong there's very little you can do to make it right?	Yes	No
17.	Do you believe that most kids are just born good at sports?	Yes	No
18.	Are most of the other kids your age strong than you are?	Yes	No
19.	Do you feel that the best ways to handle problems is just not to think about them?	Yes	No
20.	Do you feel that you have a lot of choice in deciding who your friends are	Yes	No
21.	If you find a four-leaf clover do you believe that it might bring you good luck?	Yes	No

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

22. Do you often feel that whether you do your homework has much to do with the kinds of grades you get? Yes No
23. Do you feel that when a kid your age decides to hit you, there's little you can do to stop him or her Yes No
24. Have you ever had a good luck charm? Yes No
25. Do you believe that whether or not people like you depends on how you act. Yes No
26. Will your parents usually help you if you ask them? Yes No
27. Have you felt that when people were mean to you it was usually for no reason at all? Yes No
28. Most of the time, do you feel that you can change what might happen tomorrow by what you do today? Yes No
29. Do you believe that when bad things are going to happen they are just going to happen no matter what you try to do to stop them? Yes No
30. Do you think that kids can get their own way if they just keep trying? Yes No
31. Most of the time do you find it useless to try to get your own way at home? Yes No
32. Do you feel that when good things happen they happen because of hard work? Yes No
33. Do you feel that when somebody your age wants to be your enemy there's little you can do to change matters? Yes No
34. Do you feel that it's easy to get friends to do what you want them to? Yes No
35. Do you usually feel that you have little to say about what you get to eat at home? Yes No
36. Do you feel that when someone doesn't like you there's little you can do about it? Yes No
37. Do you usually feel that it's almost useless to try in school because most other children are just plain smarter than you? Yes No
38. Are you the kind of person who believes that planning ahead makes things turn out better? Yes No
39. Most of the time, do you feel that you have little to say about what your family decides to do? Yes No
40. Do you think it's better to be smart than to be lucky Yes No

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

Similarities Subscale on WISC-R

Directions: Say "In what way are a wheel and a ball alike? How are they the same?" If the child says they are not alike, fails to respond or gives a wrong answer, say, "They are both round and they both roll. Now tell me, in what way are a candle and a lamp alike?" If the child fails, say, "They both give light." Then go on to Item 3, but give no help on this item or on Item 4.

TEST ITEMS

1) Wheel - ball
2) Candle - lamp
3) Shirt - hat
4) Piano - guitar
5) Apple - banana
6) Beer - wine
7) Cat - mouse
8) Elbow - knee
9) Telephone - radio
10) Pound - yard
11) Anger - joy
12) Scissors - cooper pan
13) Mountain - lake
14) Liberty - justice
15) First - last
16) The numbers 49 and 121
17) Salt - water

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

PARENT PERCEPTION INVENTORY
(My Parents at Home)

MOM

Directions: Ask "How often does your mom. . ."
Give examples until the child understands the concept.
For starred items, repeat the response choices (e.g."DOES SHE_____NEVER, A LITTLE, SOMETIMES, PRETTY MUCH, OR A LOT?") as you point to each response.

*1. (Positive reinforcement)
THANK YOU FOR DOING THINGS. TELL YOU WHEN SHE LIKES WHAT YOU DID. GIVE YOU SOMETHING OR LET YOU DO SOMETHING SPECIAL WHEN YOU'RE GOOD

*2. (Privilege removal)
TAKE AWAY THINGS WHEN YOU MISBEHAVE (LIKE NOT LETTING YOU WATCH TV OR RIDE YOUR BIKE OR STAY UP LATE OR EAT DESSERT)

3. (Comfort)
TALK TO YOU WHEN YOU FEEL BAD AND HELP YOU TO FEEL BETTER, HELP YOU WITH YOUR PROBLEMS, COMFORT YOU

4. (Criticism)
TELL YOU YOU"RE NO GOOD, TELL YOU THAT YOU MESSED UP OR DIDN'T DO SOMETHING RIGHT, CRITICIZE YOU

*5. (Talk time)
TALK TO YOU, LISTEN TO YOU, HAVE A GOOD CONVERSATION WITH YOU

6. (Command)
ORDER YOU AROUND, TELL YOU WHAT TO DO, GIVE COMMANDS

7. (Involvement in decision-making)
LET YOU HELP DECIDE WHAT TO DO, LET YOU HELP FIGURE OUT HOW TO SOLVE PROBLEMS

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

8. (Physical punishment)
SPANK YOU, SLAP YOU, HIT YOU

9. (Time together)
PLAY WITH YOU, SPEND TIME WITH YOU, DO THINGS WITH YOU WHICH YOU LIKE

*10. (Yelling)
GET MAD AT YOU, YELL AT YOU, HOLLER AT YOU, SCREAM AT YOU, SHOUT AT YOU

11. (Positive evaluation)
SAY NICE THINGS TO YOU, TELL YOU THAT YOU"RE A GOOD BOY/GIRL, COMPLIMENT YOU

12. (Threatening)
THREATEN YOU, TELL YOU THAT YOU'LL GET INTO TROUBLE IF YOU DO SOMETHING WRONG, WARN YOU

13. (Allowing independence)
LET YOU DO WHAT OTHER KIDS YOUR AGE DO, LET YOU DO THINGS ON YOUR OWN

14. (Time-out)
SEND YOU TO A ROOM OR CORNER WHEN YOU DO SOMETHING WRONG

*15. (Assistance)
HELP YOU WHEN YOU NEED IT (WITH A HARD JOB, WITH HOMEWORK, WHEN YOU CAN"T DO SOMETHING BY YOURSELF)

16. (Nagging)
NAG YOU, TELL YOU WHAT TO DO OVER AND OVER AGAIN, KEEP AFTER YOU TO DO THINGS

17. (Non-verbal affection)
HUG YOU, KISS YOU, TICKLE YOU, SMILE AT YOU

18. (Ignoring)
IGNORE YOU, NOT PAY ANY ATTENTION TO YOU, NOT TALK TO YOU OR LOOK AT YOU

(After completing items with reference to Mom, say, "NOW I"M GOING TO ASK YOU HOW OFTEN YOUR DAD DOES THESE THINGS. Go through items in the same order, making appropriate gender revisions.)

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

The Divorce Perception Test

NO	no	yes	YES
1	2	3	4

When kid's moms and dads divorce, kids....

1. feel like crying
2. feel happy
3. have more angry feelings than most kids
4. just don't care very much
5. feel like they're all alone
6. feel like helping out more at home
7. worry about who they will live with
8. feel tricked by their parents
9. are surprised, kind of shocked.
10. worry about who will take care of them
11. wish their parents would get back together again
12. feel confused about why it happened.
13. don't want to know why it happened
14. feel like it's sort of been their fault
15. feel the same as they did before the divorce
16. want to do better at school
17. look forward to have time along with each of their parents
18. wish they could talk to other kids whose parents divorced so they could find out what it's like
19. feel bored
20. feel better about themselves
21. have more friends than they used to
22. don't get the kind of food they like as much
23. are glad their parents got divorced
24. feel like they don't want to do what their moms tell them to do
25. wish their mom would get married again

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

The Child Behavior Checklist

0	1	2	1. Acts too young for his/her age
0	1	2	2. Allergy
0	1	2	3. Argues a lot
0	1	2	4. Asthma
0	1	2	5. Behaves like opposite sex
0	1	2	6. Bowel movements outside toilet
0	1	2	7. Bragging, boasting
0	1	2	8. Can't concentrate, can't pay attention for long
0	1	2	9. Can't get his/her mind off certain thoughts; obsessions
0	1	2	10. Can't sit still, restless, or hyperactive
0	1	2	11. Clings to adults or too dependent
0	1	2	12. Complains of loneliness
0	1	2	13. Confused or seems to be in a fog
0	1	2	14. Cries a lot
0	1	2	15. Cruel to animals
0	1	2	16. Cruelty, bullying, or meanness to others
0	1	2	17. Day-dreams or gets lost in his/her thoughts
0	1	2	18. Deliberately harms self or attempts suicide
0	1	2	19. Demands a lot of attention
0	1	2	20. Destroys his/her own things
0	1	2	21. Destroys things belonging to his/her family or other children
0	1	2	22. Disobedient at home
0	1	2	23. Disobedient at school
0	1	2	24. Doesn't eat well
0	1	2	25. Doesn't get along with other children
0	1	2	26. Dosn't seem to feel guilty after misbehaving
0	1	2	27. Easily jealous
0	1	2	28. Eats or drinks things that are not food
0	1	2	29. Fears certain animals, situations, or places, other than school
0	1	2	30. Fears going to school
0	1	2	31. Fears he/she might think or do something bad
0	1	2	32. Feels he/she has to be perfect
0	1	2	33. Feels or complains that no one loves him/her
0	1	2	34. Feels others are out to get him/her
0	1	2	35. Feels worthless or inferior
0	1	2	36. Gets hurt a lot, accident-prone
0	1	2	37. Gets in many fights
0	1	2	38. Gets teased a lot
0	1	2	39. Hangs around with children who get in trouble
0	1	2	40. Hears things that aren't there
0	1	2	41. Impulsive or acts without thinking
0	1	2	42. Likes to be alone
0	1	2	43. Lying or cheating
0	1	2	44. Bites fingernails
0	1	2	45. Nervous, highstrung, or tense
0	1	2	46. Nervous movements or twitching
0	1	2	47. Nightmares
0	1	2	48. Not liked by other children
0	1	2	49. Constipated, doesn't move bowels
0	1	2	50. Too fearful or anxious
0	1	2	51. Feels dizzy
0	1	2	52. Feels too guilty
0	1	2	53. Overeating
0	1	2	54. Overtired
0	1	2	55. Overweight
0	1	2	56. Physical problems without known medical cause:
0	1	2	a. Aches or pains
0	1	2	b. Headaches
0	1	2	c. Nausea, feels sick
0	1	2	d. Problems with eyes
0	1	2	e. Rashes or other skin problems

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

			56. (Continued)
0	1	2	f. Stomach aches or cramps
0	1	2	g. Vomiting, throwing up
0	1	2	h. Other (describe)_____
0	1	2	57. Physically attacks people
0	1	2	58. Picks nose, skin, or other parts of body
0	1	2	59. Plays with own sex parts in public
0	1	2	60. Plays with own sex parts too much
0	1	2	61. Poor school work
0	1	2	62. Poorly coordinated or clumsy
0	1	2	63. Prefers playing with older children
0	1	2	64. Prefers playing with younger children
0	1	2	65. Refuses to talk
0	1	2	66. Repeats certain acts over and over; compulsions
0	1	2	67. Runs away from home
0	1	2	68. Screams a lot
0	1	2	69. Secretive, keeps things to self
0	1	2	70. Sees things that aren't there
0	1	2	71. Self-conscious or easily embarrassed
0	1	2	72. Sets fires
0	1	2	73. Sexual problems
0	1	2	74. Showing off or clowning
0	1	2	75. Shy or timid
0	1	2	76. Sleeps less than most children
0	1	2	77. Sleeps more than most children during day and/or night
0	1	2	78. Smears or plays with bowel movements
0	1	2	79. Speech problem
0	1	2	80. Stares blankly
0	1	2	81. Steals at home
0	1	2	82. Steals outside the home
0	1	2	83. Stores up things he/she doesn't need
0	1	2	84. Strange behavior
0	1	2	85. Strange ideas
0	1	2	86. Stubborn, sullen, or irritable
0	1	2	87. Sudden changes in mood or feelings
0	1	2	88. Sulks a lot
0	1	2	89. Suspicious
0	1	2	90. Swearing or obscene language
0	1	2	91. Talks about killing self
0	1	2	92. Talks or walks in sleep
0	1	2	93. Talks too much
0	1	2	94. Teases a lot
0	1	2	95. Temper tantrums or hot temper
0	1	2	96. Thinks about sex too much
0	1	2	97. Threatens people
0	1	2	98. Thumb sucking
0	1	2	99. Too concerned with neatness or cleanliness
0	1	2	100. Trouble sleeping
0	1	2	101. Truancy, skips school
0	1	2	102. Underactive, slow moving, or lacks energy
0	1	2	103. Unhappy, sad, or depressed
0	1	2	104. Unusually loud
0	1	2	105. Uses alcohol or drugs
0	1	2	106. Vandalism
0	1	2	107. Wets self during the day
0	1	2	108. Wets the bed
0	1	2	109. Whining
0	1	2	110 Wishes to be of opposite sex
0	1	2	111. Withdrawn, doesn't get involved with others
0	1	2	112. Worrying
0	1	2	113 Please write in any problems your child has that were not listed above.

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

Perceptions of Divorce Impact

Children have a wide range of responses to parental separation and divorce--some common and some not so common. We would like you to estimate how likely it is that children ages 6-12 <u>in general</u> have the following reactions to parental separation and divorce.

Extremely Unlikely [1] Unlikely [2] Likely [3]
Quite Likely [4] Extremely Likely [5]

After parents separate and/or divorce children:

1. get into more fights with their friends
2. think that if they had only been better behaved that their father or mother would not have left
3. think that they were responsible for the divorce
4. feel more confident
5. walk around with a chip on their shoulder
6. are more likely to get into trouble with other children
7. begin to doubt how well they will do in sports and at school
8. begin to put themselves down more
9. get along better with other children
10. begin to lose their self-confidence
11. begin to worry about losing their friends
12. have more trouble getting along with their friends.
13. get into more fights with their brothers and sisters.
14. begin to act up in school.
15. believe that they were an important cause of the split-up
16. keep wishing that their parents would get back together
17. feel that it was something about them that drove their father or mother away
18. sometimes get themselves in trouble so that their parents will have to talk to each other about them
19. hope that their parents' divorce is permenent
20. feel that they must choose on parent or the other
21. feel that it was because they took their parents for granted that they got a divorce
22. often feel that they are caught in the middle of a battle
23. find it very difficult to give up the idea that their parents will never get together again

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

Extremely Unlikely [1] Unlikely [2] Likely [3]
Quite Likely [4] Extremely Likely [5]

---

24. feel that by being close to one parent they are slighting the other
25. like to think about the days when their whole family was together
26. find it pretty easy to get along with both parents
27. accept the fact that their parents will never get back together again
28. don't have trouble going back and forth between their parents' homes
29 begin to do worse in their grades in school
30. feel that they must please both parents
31. feel that their parents' split-up had nothing to do with them
32. feel that they are asked to take sides
33. become more willful, bossy and stubborn
34. become so preoccupied by the divorce that they can't concentrate at school
35. complain more often about stomachaches headaches
36. have trouble getting to sleep at night
37. feel like they have more time with their parents
38. complain of being tired more often
39. often react by becoming a calculated nuisance
40. don't seem to complain about being sick as much
41. act more loving towards their parents
42. begin to do better in their grades at school
43. become angry more often
44. feel lonely much of the time
45. seem to want to do things to get their parents angry
46. want their parents to spend more time with them
47. have trouble paying attention to their studies
48. feel like their parents don't spend enough time with them
49. have more trouble getting up to go to school
50. feel better because there is less arguing in the house
51. put up more of a fight when asked to do something
52. are glad to have things finally settled
53. feel like their parents are too preoccupied to think of them.
54. feel relieved
55. are glad to know where things stand
56. feel small and helpless
57. find it easier to concentrate on their studies
58. worry that no one will take care of them
59. feel like they don't get as much attention from their parents as other kids their age

APPENDIX B
Child Measures

Extremely Unlikely [1] Unlikely [2] Likely [3]
Quite Likely [4] Extremely Likely [5]

---

60. feel like crying more than they used to
61. complain that they don't get all the things the need from their parents
62. don't laugh as quickly and as much
63. want to hang around their parents more

64. quickly get over the sadness
65. worry that things are going out of control in their lives
66. do more of the chores around the house
67. worry that nothing will go right for themselves
68. are happier
69. feel in control of their lives
70. believe what they say matters
71. worry that they might be left to take care of themselves
72. are unhappy
73. become much more demanding
74. feel more like sleeping in the same room with their parents
75. get frustrated that they can't change things in the family
76. want to stay in the house more
77. take more responsibility for making their meals
78. have more of a voice in making household decisions
79. feel sad a lot
80. become more cooperative and helpful at home

APPENDIX C

PARENT MEASURES

APPENDIX C
Parent Measures

Quality of Coparental Communication

---

1) never 2) rarely 3) sometimes 4) usually 5) always

Coparental Conflict Subscale

1. When you and your former spouse discuss parenting issues how often does an argument result?

2. How often is the underlying atmosphere one of hostility or anger?

3. How often is the conversation stressful or tense?

4. Do you and your former spouse have basic differences of opinion about issues related to child rearing?

Coparental Support Subscale

5. If your former spouse has needed to make a change in visiting arrangements, do you go out of your way to accommodate?

6. Does your former spouse go out of the way to accommodate any changes you need to make?

7. Do you feel that your former spouse understands and is supportive of your special needs as a custodial (or noncustodial) parent?

8. When you need help regarding the children, do you seek it from your former spouse?

9. Would you say that your former spouse is a resource to you in raising the children?

10. Would you say that you are a resource to your former spouse in raising the children?

APPENDIX C
Parent Measures

Content of Coparental Interaction: Parental Dimension

---

1) never 2) rarely 3) sometimes 4) usually 5) always

Which of the following have been shared between you and your former spouse?

1. Making major decisions regarding your children's lives?
2. Making day-to-day decisions regarding your children's lives?
3. Discussing personal problems your children may be experiencing?
4. Discussing school and/or medical problems?
5. Planning special events in your children's lives?
6. Talking about our children's accomplishments and progress?
7. Talking about problems you are having in raising the children?
8. Discussing how the children are adjusting to the divorce?
9. Discussing problems you are having with the coparenting relationship?
10. Discussing finances in regard to your children.

APPENDIX C
Parent Measures

Nonresidential Parent-Child Involvement Scale

---

1) not at all involved
2) a little involved
3) somewhat involved
4) much involved
5) very much involved

Are you involved with the children in the following areas:

1. Disciplining the Children
2. Dress and grooming
3. Religious or moral training (if any)
4. Running errands for/with children
5. Celebrating holidays with the children
6. Celebrating significant events (e.g., birthday) with the children
7. Taking the children for recreation activities (e.g. sports)
8. Attending school or church related functions
9. Discussing problems with the children that they might be having
10. Taking the children for vacations

APPENDIX C
Parent Measures

Visitation Scale

---

1. What was the court ordered visitation schedule for the noncustodial/nonresidential parent?

2. In actuality, how often does the noncustodial/ nonresidential parent visit him/her?
   1. more than once a week
   2. once a week
   3. one to three times a month
   4. less than once a month but several times per year
   5. about once or twice a month
   6. Not at all in the last year

3. How regular would you say are these visits?
   1 very regular
   2 regular
   3 somewhat regular
   4 not at all regular

4. How would you rate the quality of these visits?
   1 excellent
   2 very good
   3 good
   4 poor
   5 very poor

5. How often does your ex-spouse call your child?
   1 more than once a week
   2 once a week
   3 one to three times a week
   4 less than once a month
   5 never

6. Approximately how long are these telephone calls?
   1 less than 5 minutes
   2 5-10 minutes
   3 15 minutes
   4 longer than 15 minutes

7. How flexible is the visitation schedule?
   1 very flexible
   2 flexible
   3 mixed
   4 somewhat flexible
   5 not at all flexible

8. How satisfied are you with the amount of time your former spouse spends with the children?
   1 very satisfied
   2 somewhat satisfied
   3 mixed
   4 somewhat satisfied
   5 very dissatisfied

APPENDIX C
Parent Measures

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Short Form)

The following are some different kinds of feelings people have. Please tell us how much you agree or disagree with the following items. Circle the number to the right of sentence that tells how you feel about the question. The meaning of each number is:

1	2	3	4	5
	Mostly	Neither Agree	Mostly	
Disagree	Disagree	Nor Disagree	Agree	Agree

---

1. I am able to do things as well as most people.

2. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

3. I feel that I do not have much to be proud of.

4. When I do a job, I do it well.

5. Sometimes, I feel that I can't do anything right.

6. I feel that my life is not very useful.

APPENDIX C
Parent Measures

Degree of Interparental Hostility Scale

---

1. How would you rate your separation and divorce in terms of the amount of tension and verbal fighting that was present between you and your ex-spouse?

   1) no tension, no fighting
   2) minimal, if any fighting
   3) some fighting and tension, for the most part civil
   4) more often than not there was fighting
   5) a great deal of fighting and tension
   6) horrible fighting all the time

2. How often was your child present during verbal arguments?

   1) never
   2) once
   3) only a few times
   4) sometimes
   5) frequently
   6) all the time

3. How frequently, if at all, did arguments involve physical fighting between you and your ex-spouse?

   1) never
   2) once
   3) only a few times
   4) sometimes
   5) frequently
   6) all the time

4. How frequently was your child present during physical fights between you and your ex-spouse?

   1) never
   2) once
   3) only a few times
   4) sometimes
   5) frequently
   6) all the time

APPENDIX D

CATEGORIES OF MEDIATING PARENT VARIABLES

APPENDIX D

Categories of Descriptive Questionnaire Items and Scales Used in Parent Variable Analyses

*I. Coparenting Relationship

Description

a. Quality of Coparental Communication Scale (total) 10 items)
   1. Coparental Conflict Subscale (4 items)
   2. Coparental Support Subscale (6 items)
b. Nonresidential Parent-CHild Involvement Scale (8 items)
c. Content of Coparental Interaction: Parental Dimension (10 items)
d. Attitudes Toward Former Spouse as Parent Scale (4 items)
e. Frequency of Parental Contact on Person (1 item)
f. Frequency of Parental Contact by Telephone (1 item)
g. Degree of Satisfication with Coparenting Relationship (1 item)

*II. Ex-Spousal Relationship

a. Content of Coparental Interaction: Non-Parental Dimension (13 items)
b. Positive Feelings Scale (4 items)
c. Guilt Scale (5 items)
d. Anger Scale (8 items)
e. Primary Reason for Divorce (1 item)
f. Degree of Satisfaction and Ex-Spousal Involvement

*II. Pre- and Post- Divorce Conflict

** a. Amount of pre-divorce verbal and physical fighting (2 items)
** b. Degree of exposure to pre-divorce verbal and physical parental fights (2 items)
c. Amount of relitigation
d. Frequency of mother-initiated relitigation (1 item)
e. Frequency of father-initiated relitigation (1 item)
f. Plans for future relitigation (1 item)

APPENDIX D

*IV. Parent-Child Relationship

a. Father-Child
   1. Degree of intimacy and frequency of activities (4 items)
   2. Frequency of father visitation (1 item)
   3. Length of father visits (1 item)
   4. Flexibility of father visits (1 item)
   5. Frequency of father phone calls (1 item)
   6. Degree of father involvement in daily parenting, i.e., non-residential parent-child involvement scale (8 items)
   7. Amount of actual child support contributed (1 item)
   8. Regularity of child support (1 item)

b. Mother-Child
   1. Degree of intimacy and frequency of activities pre- and post-divorce (4 items)

c. Relationship to Both Parents
   1. Frequency of activities pre-divorce with both parents (1 item)
   2. Degree of intimacy pre-divorce with both parents (1 item)

V. Custodial Parents Post-divorce Adjustment

a. Hopkins Symptoms Checklist (Derogatis et al., 1974) (items)
b. Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) (6 items)
c. Life Experiences Survey (Sarason, 1978 (items)
   1. Number of life experiences.
   2. Degree of positive or negative impact
d. Quality of Life Scale (Andrews & Witty, 1976) (items)
e. Educational Level of Mother (1 item)
f. Source of Primary Income (1 item)
g. Amount of Income Pre- and Post-divorce (2 items)
h. Involvement Scale (4 items)

VI. Divorce-Related Legal Issues

a. Type of custody awarded (1 item)
b. Amount of father support awarded (1 item)
c. Flexibility of visitation in divorce decree (1 item)
d. Party who filed for divorce (1 item)
e. Amount of relitigation (1 item)

APPENDIX D

f. Area of relitigation (child support, custody, petition to leave the state, visitation, property or financial agreements, other) (2 items)
g. Frequency of mother-initiated divorce (1 item)
h. Frequency of father-initiated divorce (1 item)

VII. General Factors

a. Father's proximity to custodial home (1 item)
b. Remarriage of either parent (2 items)
c. Mother's initial preference for custodial arrangement
d. Degree of satisfaction with final custody arrangement
e. Mother's view of who decided custody arrangement
f. Number of separations before the divorce
g. Number of children in the family
h. Length of marriage

N.B. : * = Variables from Semi-structured Interview Scale (Ahrons, 1980)
** = Variables from Jacobson's Inter-Parental Scale (1978)

APPENDIX E

RESULTS OF STEPWISE MULTIPLE REGRESSIONS OF PARENT MEDIATING VARIABLES WITH CHILD ADJUSTMENT VARIABLES (TABLE 13)

APPENDIX E

Table 13: Results of Stepwise Multiple Regressions of Parent Mediating Variables with Child Adjustment Variables

Cognitive Perceived Competence

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	Ct Arr Visit	Conflict	F Remar	Freq. M Relit	Yrs Mar
RSq(Beta)	.17(.41)	.45(.67)	.24(.67)	.55(-.74)	.47(.68)
2	Disagr Supp	Miles	F Phone	F Rel Prior	Conflict
RSq(Beta)	.22(.28)	.75(.55)	.45(-.46)	.93(.36)	.84(.63)
3	Relit	M's Ed	F Act Post	F Act Prior	F Rel Prior
RSq(Beta)	.31(-.29)	.86(.33)	.59(.42)	.93(.36)	.91(.33)
4	Sex of Ch	PP Phone	M Rel Post	Freq F Relit	Disagr Custody
RSq(Beta)	.36(.22)	.90(-.24)	.76(-.46)	.97(-.26)	.97(.25)
5		Life Exp			F Sup
RSq(Beta)		.95(-30)			.98(-.16)

Physical Perceived Competence

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	Ct Arr Visit	F Rel Prior	Ct Arr Visit	Reg Sup	* NO STEPS
RSq(Beta)	.15(.38)	.38(.61)	.45(.67)	.41(.64)	PERFORMED
2	PP Person	Disagr Copar	F Involv	F Act Prior	
RSq(Beta)	.24(-.30)	.68(.58)	.69(-.50	.70(-.58)	
3	Time Togeth	M Remar			
RSq(Beta)	.33(.32)	.79(-.36)			
4	Involv	M Symptom			
RSq(Beta)	.38(-.25)	.88(.31)			
5	Disagr Copar				
RSq(Beta)	.43(.28)				
6	Positive Parent				
RSq(Beta)	.47(.23)				

Key at End of Tables.

APPENDIX E

Table 13: Results of Stepwise Multiple Regressions of Parent Mediating Variables with Child Adjustment Variables

Social Perceived Competence

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	M's Ed	Miles	Disagr Copar	Reg Sup	M's Ed
RSq(Beta)	.10(.32)	.27(.52)	.47(.69)	.39(.63)	.58(.76)
2	PP Phone	Reg Sup	Prim Reason	Future Relit	Life Exp
RSq(Beta)	.18(-.28)	.51(.49)	.63(.42)	.67(.61)	.92(.59)
3	Miles	Miles	Prim Reason	Ct Arr Visit	F Sup
RSq(Beta)	.26(.28)	.81(-.31)	.81(.43)	.81(.44)	.97(.26)
4	F Act Post	Separ Prior	Time Sin Div	Time Togeth	Amt Phys Fighting
RSq(Beta)	.31(.24)	.81(-.31)	.89(-.31)	.92(-.38)	.99(.13
5		Ch Arr Visit	M Post Rel		
RSq(Beta)		.90(.31)	.92(-.32)		
6		Ct Arr Visit	PP Discuss		
RSq(Beta)		.94(.25)	.95(-.45)		
7		Disagr Custody	Guilt		
RSq(Beta)		.97(-.24)	.97(.17)		

General Perceived Competence

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	PP Phone	PP Person	Ct Arr Visit	Prim Reason	Life Exp
RSq(Beta)	.15(-.39)	.34(-.58)	.33(.58)	.54(-.74)	.56(-.75)
2	Miles	Miles	Rel 1	Relit	Time Sin Div
RSq(Beta)	.27(.34)	.53(.45)	.57(-.54)	.82(-.60)	.82(.51)
3	M's Ed			F Involv	Yrs Mar
RSq(Beta)	.34(.27)			.92(.31)	.93(.34)
4	Life Ex			Freq F Relit	Pos Feelings
RSq(Beta)	.39(-.24)			.96(-.27)	.97(.22)
5	Reg Sup			M Satis	M Guilt
RSq(Beta	.44(.24)			.98(-.20)	.99(.14)
6	Custody			Ch Pres Verbal	
RSq(Beta)	.48(.22)			.99(-.09)	

Key at End of Tables.

APPENDIX E

Table 13: Results of Stepwise Multiple Regressions of Parent Mediating Variables with Child Adjustment Variables

Positive Perception of Mother

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	Freq M Relit	*	F Rel Post	Freq F Relit	Positive Parent
RSq(Beta)	.09(-.30)	NO STEPS	.30(.55)	.34(-.59)	.35(.60)
2	M Act Post	PERFORMED	PP Person	Exsp Involv	Separ Prior
RSq(Beta)	.17(.28)		.53(-.48)	.75(-.71)	.79(.78)
3			Involv		Involv
RSq(Beta)			.64(-.41)		.90(.78)
4					Pos Feelings
RSq(Beta)					.95(.23)
5					Amt Phys Fighting
RSq(Beta)					.98(-.17)
6					Relit
RSq(Beta)					.99(-.15)

Negative Perception of Mother

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	Custody	F Act Prior	Ch Pres Physical	Freq M Relit	Yrs Mar
RSq(Beta)	.12(-.34)	.53(-.73)	.26(.51)	.60(.178)	.60(-.77
2	Reg Sup	Impact	Freq F Relit	Ch Pres Physical	M S-Est
RSq(Beta)	.22(-.38)	.65(-.36)	.56(-.57)	.81(-.46)	.79(.44)
3	Relit	PP Phone	Amt Phys Fighting	M Guilt	M Symptom
RSq(Beta)	.39(-.36)	.77(-.34)	.78(.65)	.93(.47)	.95(.42)
4	Yrs Mar		Conflict		Disagr Custody
RSq(Beta)	.41(-.26)		.88(-.40)		.98(.25)
5	Miles		Freq M Relit		F Involv.
RSq(Beta)	.46(-.24)		.95(.33)		.99(.15)
6	Disagr Visit				
RSq(Beta)	.50(.21)				
7	Disagr Ch Sup				
RSq(Beta)	.55(-.28)				

Key at End of Tables.

APPENDIX E

Table 13: Results of Stepwise Multiple Regressions of Parent Mediating Variables with Child Adjustment Variables

Positive Perception of Father

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	F Act Prior	Reg Sup	Miles	Future Relit	F Rel Post
RSq(Beta)	.11(.33)	.35(.59)	.32(.56)	.38(.61)	.39(.62)
2	Amt Phys Fighting	Ct Arr Visit	Future Relit	Amt Verb Fighting	
RSq(Beta)	.18(-.27)	.57(.49)	.51(.51)	.60(-.48)	
3	Disagr Copar	M Remar	Prim Reason		
RSq(Beta)	.24(.26)	.74(.43)	.63(-.39)		
4		F Phone			
RSq(Beta)		.84(.33)			

Negative Perception of Father

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	Sex	F Phone	F Act Prior	M Act Prior	M Rel Post
RSq(Beta)	.13(-.36)	.44(-.66)	.49(-.49)	.52(-.72)	.41(-.64)
2	F Phone	Filed		Amt Verb Fighting	Ct Arr Visit
RSq(Beta)	.25(-.35)	.60(.43)		.75(.50)	.66(-.52)
3	M Symptom	M Remar		Life Exp	Decision
RSq(Beta)	.31(.26)	.75(-.38)		.90(-.38)	.86(-53)
4	F Act Prior	Time Togeth		Ch Pres Verb	Econ Sit
RSq(Beta)	.38(.26)	.85(-.38)		.95(.29)	.94(.32)
5	PP Phone	Disagr Ch Sup		F Sup	Exsp Involv
RSq(Beta)	.42(.22)	.89(-.25)		.99(-.21)	.98(-.21)
6		Reg Sup			Miles
RSq(Beta)		.93(-.26)			.99(.15)
7		Freq F Relit			
RSq(Beta)		.97(-.22)			

Key at End of Tables.

APPENDIX E

Table 13: Results of Stepwise Multiple Regressions of Parent Mediating Variables with Child Adjustment Variables

Sad Feelings About the Divorce

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	Disagr Custody	F Rel Prior	F Visit	F Rel Prior	Copar
RSq(Beta)	.16(.39)	.33(-.58)	.31(-.56)	.83(-.91)	.57(.76)
2	M Satis	F Act Post	M Remar	Ch Arr Visit	F Phone
RSq(Beta)	.23(.28)	.52(.46)	.56(-.50)	.95(-.35)	.79(-.47)
3	F Involv	M Symptom	Time Togeth		Positive Parrent
RSq(Beta)	.31(-.29)	.72(.44)	.80(-.53)		.91(-.36)
4		Relit	Freq M Relit		PP Phone
RSq(Beta)		.81(-.31)	.88(-.29)		.96(.24)
5		Separ Prior	M Satis		M Guilt
RSq(Beta)		.89(-.29)	.93(-.23)		.98(-.17)

Active Coping Style About the Divorce

Sole Stepwise Regression	Joint Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Maternal Female	Legal Female
1	Econ Sit	Econ Sit	Amt Phys Fighting	Reg Sup	Prim Reason
RSq(Beta)	.08(-.29)	.33(-.57)	.39(.62)	.61(-.78)	.40(-.64)
2	Rel 1	Amt Verb Fighting	Decision	Impact	Separ Prior
RSq(Beta)	.16(-.29)	.49(-.41)	.66(-.54)	.80(-.48)	.70(.62)
3	Reg Sup	Disagr Custody	Rel 3	M Anger	IQ
RSq(Beta)	.23(-.27)	.63(.41)	.78(.39)	.93(.41)	.90(-.52)
4	F Visit		M Remar	Guilt	M Remar
RSq(Beta)	.32(-.31)		.86(-.32)	.97(.26)	.96(-.33)
5			Amt Verb Fighting	Rel 2	Copar
RSq(Beta)			.92(-.42)	.99(.20)	.99(.18)
6				M Remar	
RSq(Beta)				.99(-.16)	

Key at End of Tables.

APPENDIX E

Table 13: Results of Stepwise Multiple Regressions of Parent Mediating Variables with Child Adjustment Variables

Abandonment Feelings about Divorce

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	Life Exp	Impact	PP Phone	M Ed	IQ
RSq(Beta)	.13(.35)	.33(-.58)	.28(-.53)	.55(-.74)	.44(-.67)
2	Freq M Rel	Number of Sibs	F Sup	F Sup	Life Exp
RSq(Beta)	.21(-.30)	.50(-.41)	.48(.46)	.75(.45)	.74(.55)
3	Flexible	Rel 2	Miles	Ch Arr Visit	
RSq(Beta)	.27(-.24)	.62(.37)	.68(.47)	.91(-.45)	
4		Time Sin Div	M Guilt	Life Exp	
RSq(Beta)		.76(.43)	.80(.41)	.97(.27)	
5		Disagr Ch Sup	M Symptom		
RSq(Beta)		.86(-.44)	.90(.35)		
6		Ch Arr Visit	Disagr Custody		
RSq(Beta)		.91(.27)	.94(.37)		
7		Self Sup			
RSq(Beta)		.94(-.23)			

Severity of Depression

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	Ct Arr Visit	Econ Situat	F Phone	Self Sup	M Remar
RSq(Beta)	.10(-31)	.30(-.55)	.35(.60)	.43(-.66)	.99(.11)
2	Econ Sit	F Act Prior	F Act Prior	Freq M Relit	
RSq(Beta)	.16(-.26)	.54(-.49)	.55(-.52)	.69(.51)	
3	F Act Prior	F Visit	PP Discuss	Ch Pres Phys	
RSq(Beta)	.24(-.28)	.66(.39)	.70(.43)	.86(-.42)	
4	Pos Feelings	Ch Arr Visit		F Remar	
RSq(Beta)	.29(.25)	.76(-.33)		.93(-.32)	
5	Separ Prior	Self Sup		Life Exp	
RSq(Beta)	.34(-.25)	.83(.30)		.97(.31)	
6		Prim Reason		Econ Sit	
RSq(Beta)		.86(-.30)		.99(-.14)	

Key at End of Tables.

APPENDIX E

Table 13: Results of Stepwise Multiple Regressions of Parent Mediating Variables with Child Adjustment Variables

Internal Locus of Control

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	Ch Arr Visit	Impact	Anger	Reg Sup	M's Ed
RSq(Beta)	.15(.39)	.39(.63)	.45(.67)	.51(.72)	.54(.74)
2	Impact	Conflict	Time Sin Div	Prim Reason	Rel 3
RSq(Beta)	.30(.24)	.61(.47)	.65(.44)	.69(-.42)	.74(.47)
3	IQ	M S-Est	Amt Phys Fighting	Rel 2	M Act. Post
RSq(Beta)	.31(.27)	.76(.40)	.74(-.30)	.82(.40)	.85(.-34)
4	M's Ed	Time Togeth		M's Ed	Miles
RSq(Beta)	.37(.25)	.83(.27)		.93(.39)	.95(-38)
5				Self Sup	
RSq(Beta)				.97(.23)	

External Locus of Control

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	Ch Arr Visit	Impact	Anger	Reg Sup	M's Ed
RSq(Beta)	.15(-.39)	.38(-.62)	.46(-.68)	.51(-.72)	.54(.74)
2	Impact	Conflict	Time Sin Div	Prim Reason	Rel 3
RSq(Beta)	.24(-.30)	.60(-.47)	.65(.44)	.69(.42)	.74(.47)
3	IQ	M S-Est	Amt Phys Fighting	Rel 2	M Act Post
RSq(Beta)	.31(-.27)	.75(-.41)	.74(.30)	.82(-.40)	.85(.34)
4	M's Ed	Time Togeth		M's Ed	Miles
RSq(Beta)	.37(-.26)	.82(-.27)		.93(-.39)	.94(.32)
5				Self Sup	
RSq(Beta)				.97(-.23)	

Key at End of Tables.

APPENDIX E

Table 13: Results of Stepwise Multiple Regressions of Parent Mediating Variables with Child Adjustment Variables

Internalizing Problem Scale

Stepwise Regression	Total Sample	Sole Maternal Male	Joint Legal Male	Sole Maternal Female	Joint Legal Female
1	Ch Arr Visit	F Sup	M Rel Post	Reg Sup	Impact
RSq(Beta)	.10(.31)	.40(.64)	.34(.58)	.49(-.70)	.52(-.72)
2	F Sup	PP Person		Reg Sup	M Rel Prior
RSq(Beta)	.17(.27)	.60(-.45)		.90(.64)	.81(.54)
3		Rel 1		Remar	Reg Sup
RSq(Beta)		.73(.37)		.96(.26)	.94(-.38)
4		Miles		Prim Reason	Future Relit
RSq(Beta)		.81(.30)		.99(-.21)	.97(-.24)
5		M Act Prior			M's Ed
RSq(Beta)		.88(.30)			.99(.26)

Externalizing Problem Scale

1	Ct Arr Visit	Ct Arr Visit	Conflict	PP Person	PP Person
RSq(Beta)	.07(.27)	.52(.72)	.26(-.51)	.31(.56)	.55(-.74)
2		Conflict	Guilt	F Sup	IQ
RSq(Beta)		.67(.40)	.47(.45)	.54(-.49)	.81(.52)
3		Ch Prev Physical	Pos Feelings	Number of Sibss	M Guilt
RSq(Beta)		.87(.45)	.64(-.53)	.71(-.42)	.97(-.47)
4		Anger		Self Sup	Disagr Custody
RSq(Beta)		.92(24)		.81(.35)	.99(-.24)
5		Flexible		F Phone	Time Since Div
RSq(Beta)		.94(-.18)		.94(.42)	.99(.10)

Key at End of Tables.

APPENDIX E

Key to Abbreviations for Table 13

Amt Phys Fighting	Amount of physical fighting
Amt Verb Fighting	Amount of verbal fighting
Ch Arr Visit	Child-arranged visitation
Ch Pres Physical	Child present during physical fighting
Conflict	Degree of interparental post-divorce conflict
Copar	Degree of coparenting
Ct Arr Visit	Court-arranged visitation
Custody	Type of custody (- = maternal; + = joint legal)
Decision	Type of custody was mother's decision
Disagr Ch Sup	Degree of pre-divorce disagreement about child support
Disagr Copar	Degree of pre-divorce disagreement about coparenting
Disagr Custody	Degree of pre-divorce disagreement about custody
Disagr Visit	Degree of pre-divorce disagreement about visitation
Econ Sit	Mother's post-divorce economic situation
ExSp Involv	Post-divorce involvement with ex-spouse
F Act Post	Father's post-divorce activities with the child
F Act Prior	Father's pre-divorce activities with the child
F Involv	Degree of father's post-divorce involement with child
F Visit	Frequency of father-s post-divorce visitation
Filed	Mother filed for divorce
Flexible	Father's flexibility about visitation
F Phone	Frequency of father's post-divorce telephone calls
F Rel Post	Father's post-divorce relationship with the child
F Rel Prior	Father's pre-divorce relationship with the child
F Remar	Father remarried
Freq F Relit	Frequency of father relitigation
Freq M Relit	Frequency of mother relitigation
F Sup	Amount of court-awarded father support
Future Relit	Mother's intentions for future relitigation
Impact	Impact of mother's post-divorce life experiences (+ or -)
Involv	Degree of Mother's post-divorce involvement with a significant other
IQ	Child's IQ on WISC-R Similarity Subscale

APPENDIX E

Key to Table 13, cont.

Life Exp	Number of post-divorce life experiences
M Act Post	Mother's post-divorce activities with child
M Act Prior	Mother's pre-divorce activities with child
M Ed	Mother's educational level
M Guilt	Mother's guilt toward ex-spouse about divorce
Miles	Number of miles between custodial mother's home and father's residence
M Remar	Mother remarried
M Symptom	Degree of mother's symptomatic behavior
M Satis	Degree of mother satisfaction with her post-divorce life (+ or-)
M Rel Post	Mother's post-divorce relationship with child
M Rel Prior	Mother's pre-divorce relationship with child
M S-Est	Mother's self-esteem
Number of Sibs	Number of siblings
Pos Feelings	Mother's positive feelings toward ex-spouse
Positive Parent	Mother's view of father's parenting (+ or -)
PP Discuss	Degree of interparental discussion and interaction
PP Person	Degree of interparental face-to-face contact
PP Phone	Degree of interparental telephone contact
Prim Reason	Primary reason for divorce ('+' = father's personal and '-' = interpersonal differences)
Reg Sup	Regularity of father's child support payment
Relit	Presence of relitigation
Rel 1	Catholic religion
Rel 2	Protestant religion
Rel 3	Jewish religion, or other
Self Sup	Mother's job was primary source of support
Separ Prior	Parental separation prior to divorce
Sex	Sex of child
Time Togeth	Ex-spouses spend time together with child
Time Sin	Time since divorce
Yrs Mar	Years married

APPENDIX F

RESULTS OF ANALYSES OF VARIANCE FOR MEDIATING VARIABLES: TIME SINCE DIVORCE, MOTHER'S REMARRIAGE AND FATHER'S REMARRIAGE (TABLE 16, 17, AND 18)

APPENDIX F

Table 16: Results of Analyses of Variance with Child Variables by Custody, Sex and Time Since Divorce

Source of Variance	Positive Perception of Mother F	Sign	Negative Perception of Mother F	Sign
Main Effects	0.49	0.75	2.55	0.05
Custody	0.28	0.60	9.08	0.004
Sex	1.02	0.32	0.51	0.481
Time Since Divorce	0.21	0.81	0.70	0.50
2-Way Interactions	0.51	0.77	0.84	0.53
Custody & Sex	1.12	0.30	0.70	0.41
Custody & Time Since Divorce	0.31	0.74	0.66	0.52
Sex & Time Since Divorce	0.31	0.74	0.99	0.38
3-Way Interactions	3.69	0.03	4.66	0.01
Custody, Sex & Time Since Divorce	3.69	0.03	4.66	0.01
Explained	1.08	0.40	2.15	0.04

Source of Variance	Internalizing Problem Scale F	Sign	Externalizing Problem Scale F	Sign
Main Effects	0.67	0.62	0.05	0.99
Custody	1.40	0.24	0.03	0.86
Sex	0.62	0.44	0.04	0.84
Time Since Divorce	0.21	0.81	0.07	0.93
2-Way Interactions	0.13	0.99	0.66	0.65
Custody & Sex	0.31	0.58	0.15	0.70
Custody & Time Since Divorce	0.05	0.96	0.52	0.60
Sex & Time Since Divorce	0.11	0.89	1.14	0.33
3-Way Interactions	3.80	0.03	2.54	0.09
Custody, Sex & Time Since Divorce	3.80	0.03	2.54	0.09
Explained	0.99	0.47	0.78	0.66

Source of Variance	Perceived Physical Self-Competence F	Sign	Perceived General Self-Competence F	Sign
Main Effects	1.27	0.30	1.60	0.19
Custody	3.04	0.088	0.61	0.44
Sex	0.00	0.98	0.71	0.40
Time Since Divorce	1.21	0.31	2.50	0.09
2-Way Interactions	2.62	0.036	1.76	0.14
Custody & Sex	0.03	0.86	0.02	0.89
Custody & Time Since Divorce	5.67	0.006	3.02	0.06
Sex & Time Since Divorce	1.07	0.35	1.79	0.18
3-Way Interactions	1.49	0.24	0.67	0.52
Custody, Sex & Time Since Divorce	1.49	0.24	0.67	0.52
Explained	1.93	0.06	1.51	0.16

APPENDIX F

Table 16: Results of Analyses of Variance with Child Variables by Custody, Sex and Time Since Divorce

Source of Variance	Internal Locus of Control		External Locus of Control	
	F	Sign	F	Sign
Main Effects	0.37	0.82	0.36	0.84
Custody	0.03	0.86	0.03	0.86
Sex	0.25	0.62	0.22	0.64
Time Since Divorce	0.58	0.57	0.55	0.58
2-Way Interactions	1.45	0.22	1.41	0.24
Custody & Sex	0.03	0.87	0.03	0.87
Custody & Time Since Divorce	0.51	0.60	0.45	0.64
Sex & Time Since Divorce	3.29	0.05	3.23	0.05
3-Way Interactions	0.04	0.96	0.06	0.95
Custody, Sex & Time Since Divorce	0.04	0.96	0.06	0.95
Explained	0.81	0.63	0.78	0.66

Source of Variance	Mother's Perceptions of Loyalty Conflicts		Mother's Perception That Child Sees Self as Cause	
	F	Sign	F	Sign
Main Effects	0.83	0.51	0.83	0.52
Custody	1.21	0.28	2.91	0.10
Sex	0.09	0.77	0.32	0.57
Time Since Divorce	1.07	0.35	0.15	0.86
2-Way Interactions	1.47	0.22	1.80	0.13
Custody & Sex	2.85	0.10	3.47	0.07
Custody & Time Since Divorce	2.11	0.13	3.12	0.05
Sex & Time Since Divorce	0.16	0.85	0.13	0.88
3-Way Interactions	0.35	0.70	0.22	0.81
Custody, Sex & Time Since Divorce	0.35	0.70	0.22	0.81
Explained	1.04	0.43	1.16	0.34

Source of Variance	Mother's Perception of Sad Feelings		Mother's Perception of Child's Insecure Feelings	
	F	Sign	F	Sign
Main Effects	0.25	0.91	0.32	0.87
Custody	0.55	0.46	0.21	0.65
Sex	0.07	0.79	0.61	0.44
Time Since Divorce	0.26	0.77	0.19	0.83
2-Way Interactions	1.47	0.22	1.80	0.13
Custody & Sex	0.96	0.33	3.51	0.07
Custody & Time Since Divorce	3.10	0.06	2.81	0.07
Sex & Time Since Divorce	0.35	0.71	0.07	0.93
3-Way Interactions	0.24	0.79	0.09	0.91
Custody, Sex & Time Since Divorce	0.24	0.79	0.09	0.91
Explained	0.80	0.64	0.95	0.51

APPENDIX F

Table 17: Results of Analyses of Variance with Child Variables by Custody, Sex and Mother's Remarriage

Source of Variance	Mother's Perception of Insecure Feelings F	Sign	Active Coping About Divorce F	Sign
Main Effects	0.23	0.88	1.50	0.23
Custody	0.22	0.64	0.72	0.40
Sex	0.37	0.54	0.26	0.22
M's Remarriage	0.04	0.85	2.84	0.10
2-Way Interactions	5.99	0.002	0.12	0.88
Custody & Sex	4.63	0.04	0.06	0.81
Custody & M's Remarriage	4.47	0.04	0.08	0.49
Sex & M's Remarriage	7.89	0.007	0.02	0.76
3-Way Interactions	7.37	0.009	0.85	0.03
Custody, Sex & M's Remarriage	7.37	0.009	0.85	0.03
Explained	3.72	0.003	1.73	0.21

Source of Variance	Abandonment Feelings About Divorce F	Sign	Internal Locus of Control F	Sign
Main Effects	0.65	0.59	0.31	0.82
Custody	1.01	0.32	0.10	0.76
Sex	0.33	0.57	0.50	0.48
M's Remarriage	0.42	0.52	0.46	0.50
2-Way Interactions	0.64	0.59	0.46	0.71
Custody & Sex	1.28	0.26	0.59	0.45
Custody & M's Remarriage	0.31	0.58	0.67	0.42
Sex & M's Remarriage	0.82	0.37	0.56	0.46
3-Way Interactions	4.17	0.05	5.40	0.02
Custody, Sex & M's Remarriage	4.17	0.05	5.40	0.02
Explained	1.15	0.35	1.10	0.38

Source of Variance	External Locus of Control F	Sign	Mother's Perception of Loyalty Conflicts F	Sign
Main Effects	0.30	0.83	0.35	0.79
Custody	0.10	0.76	0.69	0.41
Sex	0.46	0.50	0.00	0.97
M's Remarriage	0.47	0.50	0.36	0.55
2-Way Interactions	0.43	0.73	5.72	0.002
Custody & Sex	0.57	0.45	3.29	0.08
Custody & M's Remarriage	0.59	0.45	2.15	0.15
Sex & M's Remarriage	0.54	0.46	10.58	0.002
3-Way Interactions	5.24	0.03	0.01	0.91
Custody, Sex & M's Remarriage	5.24	0.03	0.01	0.02
Explained	1.06	0.40	2.60	

APPENDIX F

Table 17: Results of Analyses of Variance with Child Variables by Custody, Sex and Mother's Remarriage

Source of Variance	Mother's Perception of Reconciliation Wishes		Mother's Perception That Child Thinks Cause of Divorce	
	F	Sign	F	Sign
Main Effects	0.90	0.45	1.28	0.29
Custody	0.55	0.46	2.66	0.11
Sex	0.20	0.66	0.10	0.75
M's Remarriage	2.22	0.14	1.11	0.30
2-Way Interactions	1.74	0.17	3.64	0.02
Custody & Sex	0.03	0.87	2.77	0.10
Custody & M's Remarriage	1.07	0.31	0.70	0.41
Sex & M's Remarriage	3.61	0.06	6.76	0.01
3-Way Interactions	0.49	0.49	0.32	0.57
Custody, Sex & M's Remarriage	0.49	0.49	0.32	0.57
Explained	1.20	0.32	2.16	0.06

Source of Variance	Mother's Perception of Sad Feelings		Mother's Perception Dependent Feelings	
	F	Sign	F	Sign
Main Effects	0.49	0.69	0.62	0.61
Custody	0.60	0.44	0.30	0.59
Sex	0.12	0.73	0.14	0.71
M's Remarriage	0.62	0.44	1.23	0.27
2-Way Interactions	5.52	0.002	5.07	0.004
Custody & Sex	0.72	0.40	3.26	0.08
Custody & M's Remarriage	5.57	0.02	2.63	0.11
Sex & M's Remarriage	9.00	0.004	8.41	0.006
3-Way Interactions	1.02	0.32	0.08	0.77
Custody, Sex & M's Remarriage	1.02	0.32	0.08	0.77
Explained	2.72	0.32	2.45	0.03

Source of Variance	Mother's Perception of Angry Feelings		Mother's Perception Somatic Complaints	
	F	Sign	F	Sign
Main Effects	0.71	0.55	1.25	0.30
Custody	1.15	0.29	3.49	0.07
Sex	0.17	0.69	0.18	0.67
M's Remarriage	0.71	0.40	0.09	0.77
2-Way Interactions	4.83	0.005	2.32	0.09
Custody & Sex	0.40	0.53	0.54	0.47
Custody & M's Remarriage	2.84	0.10	1.24	0.27
Sex & M's Remarriage	10.10	0.003	4.66	0.04
3-Way Interactions	1.85	0.18	2.55	0.12
Custody, Sex & M's Remarriage	1.85	0.18	2.55	0.12
Explained	2.64	0.02	1.89	0.09

APPENDIX F

Table 18: Results of Analyses of Variance with Child Variables by Custody, Sex and Father's Remarriage

Source of Variance	Positive Perception of Mother		Negative Perception of Mother	
	F	Sign	F	Sign
Main Effects	1.15	0.34	3.07	0.04
Custody	1.38	0.25	8.59	0.005
Sex	0.53	0.47	0.47	0.50
F's Remarriage	1.75	0.19	0.43	0.52
2-Way Interactions	1.23	0.31	1.22	0.31
Custody & Sex	1.49	0.23	1.69	0.20
Custody & F's Remarriage	0.01	0.93	1.47	0.23
Sex & F's Remarriage	2.72	0.11	0.75	0.39
3-Way Interactions	6.73	0.01	5.85	0.02
Custody, Sex & F's Remarriage	6.73	0.01	5.85	0.02
Explained	1.84	0.08	2.68	0.02

Source of Variance	Perceived Cognitive Self-Competence		Perceived Physical Self-Competence	
	F	Sign	F	Sign
Main Effects	2.42	0.08	0.77	0.52
Custody	4.96	0.03	1.33	0.25
Sex	1.99	0.16	0.97	0.33
F's Remarriage	0.49	0.49	0.00	0.99
2-Way Interactions	3.10	0.03	1.25	0.30
Custody & Sex	0.51	0.48	0.06	0.81
Custody & F's Remarriage	7.28	0.009	3.66	0.06
Sex & F's Remarriage	0.74	0.39	0.03	0.86
3-Way Interactions	0.13	0.72	0.01	0.92
Custody, Sex & F's Remarriage	0.13	0.72	0.01	0.92
Explained	2.39	0.03	0.87	0.54

Source of Variance	Child Depression Inventory		Active Coping Style About Divorce	
	F	Sign	F	Sign
Main Effects	1.30	0.28	0.74	0.54
Custody	3.06	0.09	0.43	0.52
Sex	0.68	0.41	1.35	0.25
F's Remarriage	0.28	0.60	0.40	0.53
2-Way Interactions	1.51	0.22	2.92	0.04
Custody & Sex	0.79	0.38	0.15	0.70
Custody & F's Remarriage	3.36	0.07	7.58	0.008
Sex & F's Remarriage	0.06	0.80	1.53	0.22
3-Way Interactions	2.74	0.10	0.15	0.70
Custody, Sex & F's Remarriage	2.74	0.10	0.15	0.70
Explained	1.59	0.16		0.16

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