

IMPACT OF DIVORCE ON CHILDREN
AND AN ORIGINAL RESOURCE
MANUAL FOR COUNSELORS
AND PARENTS

By

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ABSTRACT

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This research paper is a review of the literature about the effect of divorce on infants, children, and adolescents. The important role that fathers play in their children's lives is also discussed. Furthermore, two additional important components of this paper are the role of non-custodial mothers and the history of divorce from the earliest days to the present. The final part of this paper is an original resource manual, which contains a plethora of information about various programs, services, therapies, and books that counselors and parents can access for assistance.

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Introduction

In this research investigation, the literature on the effects of divorce on children was reviewed. According to recent research, many factors influence how children are affected by divorce, both positive and negative in nature. The research to date has not adequately addressed the importance of the father/child relationship. Other important factors, more widely researched, are the gender and age of the children at the time of the divorce.

The effects of divorce on children are both plentiful and varied. More than one million children experience parental divorce each year in the United States. Concomitantly, being raised in a household with a divorced parent is one of the most prevalent and stressful conditions experienced by children. The stressful nature of a divorce experience increases a child's likelihood of experiencing a wide variety of mental health problems including aggression, elevated anxiety, high rates of substance abuse, and low self-esteem.

Divorce is one of the most stressful life events a person can experience, regardless of whether one has sought the divorce or was unprepared for the divorce. Furthermore, when children are involved the stressful event is even more complex. According to some research, daughters of divorced parent's experience early sexual contact and consequently, higher rates of pregnancy and academic difficulty. On the

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other hand, sons of divorced parents experience greater academic and behavioral difficulties both in school and at home. In addition, both genders experience problems

starting and maintaining a serious and meaningful relationship, and also face an increased risk for divorce.

A sociological longitudinal study, which focused on the inter-generational effects of divorce, provides strong evidence for the negative consequences of divorce. Children who experienced their parents' divorce averaged one or two fewer years of education. Females who spent some time in a single parent home were 53% more likely to have teen marriages. These same girls were also 111% more likely to have teen births. In addition, they were 92% more likely to have marital disruptions than were females raised in families with no divorce. (Borgatta & Borgatta, 1992).

Research Questions

The following questions were addressed in this investigation.

1. What are the effects of divorce on the father/child relationship?
2. Are there differences between boys and girls which affect their experience with divorce either positively or negatively?
3. Is children's age at the time of divorce a factor that affects them either positively or negatively?
4. What are the therapeutic techniques that could be used during a divorce?

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5. What are the ways that parents could help their children adjust to the changes that have taken place in their families due to a divorce?

Definition of Terms

Following is a list of terms that the researcher has used in this paper.

Divorce: A legal separation of husband and wife, effected by the judgment or decree of a court, and either totally dissolving the marriage relation, or suspending its effects so far as concerns the cohabitation of the parties (Black, 1990).

Divorce by consent (no fault): A type of no-fault divorce in which parties are not required to prove fault or grounds for divorce beyond showing of irretrievable breakdown of marriage or irreconcilable differences. The majority of states have no-fault divorce statutes in one form or another (Black, 1990).

Gender: A more general appellation that has to do with social categories and assumptions about how women and men behave. It is often used to designate terms such as gender stereotypes, gender roles, and gender comparisons (Wolman, 1996).

Neither-Parent Families: Children of divorce who live with neither biological parent (Jeynes, 1999).

Non-Custodial Father: Fathers whose rights and obligations as fathers are curtailed and reassigned through judicial action, usually accompanying a divorce. This can also be extended to father's whose children are born outside of marriage

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and/or men who live apart from their children either because of marital disruption through separation and divorce or because of nonmarriage with the child's mother (Fox & Blanton, 1995).

Non-Custodial Mother: A mother who is living away from her children the majority of the time (Fox & Blanton, 1995).

Statement of Problem

Information regarding the effects of divorce on children, parenting skills for divorced parents, and therapy techniques for families experiencing divorce is not readily available in one resource for divorcing parents. An educational manual is needed to provide clear and succinct information for both counselors and parents about the effects of divorce on children and their role in helping children cope with this stressful event. The purpose of this investigation is to develop such a manual, based on an extensive review of the literature.

Assumptions and Limitations

The researcher is aware that both negative and positive long-term effects of divorce on children may be reported in the literature. However, there are too few longitudinal studies on the long-term effects of divorce on children. Interestingly, more research on the effects of divorce on the parent/child relationship is also needed.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of the Literature

In this paper, the researcher will endeavor to illustrate and

illuminate both the positive and the negative effects of divorce on children.

The areas addressed in this review include the history of divorce, the various effects that gender and age have upon children of divorce, how the socioeconomic status of parents affects children of divorce, and the parent/child relationships in terms of the potential living arrangements and how often the non-custodial parent sees their child or children.

History of Divorce

During the *colonial period*, divorce was not legal in any of the colonies except the New England settlements. The Church of England allowed legal separations but not divorces. However, when the New England Puritans landed at Plymouth in 1621, they were upset with this and many other Anglican doctrines. Therefore, divorce was allowed on the basis of adultery or deserting one's spouse for a period of seven years or more by 1639 in Plymouth. Slowly, other New England colonies began to develop and follow similar guidelines. Individual petitions for divorce were debated in colonial legislatures and were affected by bills to dissolve a particular marriage. Therefore, divorce was legal but it was still very rare. In fact, during the seventeenth century, there were only fifty-four requests for divorce in Massachusetts, and forty-four were successful. In

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addition, the middle colonies provided annulments or divorces for prolonged absence or bigamy, while the southern colonies had no provisions whatsoever for divorce (Borgatta & Borgatta, 1992, p.p. 505).

In the Post-Revolutionary-War period, the states began discussion of laws

allowing divorce. New England and the middle states made divorce the province of state courts, while in the southern states it was most often a legislative matter. However, by the end of the nineteenth century, almost all states had some form of legislation covering divorce and by the middle of the century the southern states were operating within a judicial divorce system (Borgatta & Boragatta, 1992, p.p. 505-506). Shifting to a judicial divorce system was important because it removed divorce deliberations from state legislatures and forced the states to create grounds that justified a divorce. Therefore, clauses were created that reflected the public sentiments governing normative marriage. In other words, they spelled out what was expected of a marriage at the time. Furthermore, divorces became much easier to obtain because judges were given the authority to interpret and adjudicate. Northern and Southern states now allowed divorces for adultery, desertion, bigamy, and with time, cruelty. In the frontier West, grounds resembled those of the East plus any other cause for which the court shall deem it proper that the divorce shall be granted (Borgatta & Borgatta, 1992, p.p. 506).

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The nineteenth century saw a liberalization of divorce laws and a corresponding increase in divorce as well. Whereas the divorce rate (number of divorces per 1,000 marriages) was 1.2 in 1869, by 1900 it had risen to 4.0. A number of factors have been identified as being causes of such dramatic increases in the divorce rate. These

factors are part of a social change that made marriage less desirable or essential. To begin, the growth in wage labor meant that women no longer had to be dependent on men for their economic security. Over time, life for women as individuals in the New England settlements gradually lost its stigma. More importantly, fundamental shifts in the meaning of marriage took place, and the result was a growing belief that marriages should be imbued with a large amount of affection and equality. For example, divorce on the grounds of cruelty or lack of support indicated that marriage was beginning to be seen more and more as a partnership. Double standards from the previous century were done away with, and the changing divorce codes coincided with the passage of laws restricting husbands unilateral control over their wives property. In fact, by the latter nineteenth century, a series of married women's property acts were passed throughout the nation that acknowledged married women's claims to any property brought to or acquired during the marriage. Furthermore, by 1887, thirty-three states and the District of Columbia gave married women control over their personal property and earnings (Borgatta & Borgatta, 1992, p.p. 506).

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The demographics of divorce are routinely reported wrong or calculated wrong and you will find many different numbers. I want to clarify some of the mistakes and present some more recent demographics of divorce in the United States (Hughes, 2000, p. 1). In his paper, Hughes asks us to consider the following statements, and try to determine which is most accurate. (1) For every marriage that occurs in this country

there is about one divorce. (2) In 1990 there were 4.7 divorces for every one thousand people. (3) In 1990 there were 20.9 divorces for every 1,000 married women over 15 years of age. (4) Forty percent of the women born in the 1970s will divorce. (5) All of the proceeding are correct. The answer to the aforementioned question is actually choice (5). All of these statistics get reported at one time or another, but when people see these various numbers they tend to become confused. Hughes then goes on to explain how each of the statistical methods works and he tells us that the most accurate method is the one that takes the number of divorces per 1,000 married women over the age of 15 (Hughes, 2000).

The divorce rate in the United States in 1990 was 4.7 per 1,000 people or 20.9 per 1,000 married women over the age of 15 (Hughes, 2000). The divorce rate has steadily increased in America over the last 150 years, however, there was a brief decline during the worst part of the Great Depression. In fact, through the twentieth century, the United States has led the industrialized world in the rate of divorce.

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The first half of the twentieth century was basically a continuation of the trends that began in the late nineteenth century. The only interruption to the steadily increasing rate of divorce in this century came from World War I, World War II, and the Great Depression. After each of these huge events, the divorce rates soared and then they fell back somewhat, but were still higher than the rate that had been present before the

event took place. Research by Borgatta and Borgatta (1992) showed that one possible sociological explanation for the divorce rates following the aforementioned events was the high participation by women in the workforce. Due to improved employment opportunities, women were able to terminate intolerable unions. In addition, separations, rushed marriages, and sexual misalliances were all too common during wartime, so they undoubtedly were factors in the postwar divorce rates. However, the increases in divorce following these hard times could be looked at as a delayed reaction because once the war or depression was over and optimism and affluence were on the rise, there was a greater unwillingness to stay in a troubled marriage (Borgatta & Borgatta, 1992, p. 507).

The second half of the twentieth century has seen an even greater increase in the number of divorce cases, with the exception of the peculiar 1950s. Explanations for the increase in divorce in this century vary, but there are several themes that can be noted. First, marriage in this century has lost much of its central economic and social

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significance, especially for women. For example, there were undoubtedly fewer cases of divorce prior to the twentieth century because the courts usually awarded custody of the children to the father since he was legally responsible for the financial support of his offspring (Borgatta & Borgatta, 1992, p. 507).

The 1900s brought significant changes in many areas, one being divorce and custody of children. With the acceptance of Freudian ideas of psychosexual develop-

ment and similar ideas about intellectual and cognitive growth, the so-called Tender Years Doctrine became accepted practice in courts, which then awarded custody to mothers as regularly as they had once done to fathers (Borgatta & Borgatta, 1992, p.507).

Therefore, the aspect of getting remarried lost some of its stigma, and all of these changes made it easier for women to divorce their husbands and vice-versa if they wished. One important question is why so many wished to obtain a divorce.

One simple explanation for the above question is that higher and higher expectations are being placed on marriages these days. The higher the expectations, the more grounds for divorce are developed because there are higher and higher expectations for what a marriage should be. In the nineteenth century, drunkenness, cruelty, and failure to provide were added to more traditional grounds of adultery and desertion. In the early twentieth century, cruelty was continually redefined to include not only physical but mental cruelty as well (Borgatta & Borgatta, 1992,

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p. 507).

The postwar surges in divorce created a large number of divorced persons, so the practice lost much of its stigma. Furthermore, if one adds to this the widespread employment of women since the mid 1960s, the increase in divorce is more understandable. Basically, when women are employed, there is less pressure on them to stay in a bad marriage, but there is also less constraint on their husbands who won't be

required to support their employed ex-wives after a divorce (Borgatta & Borgatta, 1992, p. 508).

In the last twenty years, divorce has been fundamentally redefined. The advent of the no-fault divorce laws in the early 1970s brought changes that defined as unacceptable those marriages in which couples are incompatible or have irreconcilable differences, or those that are irretrievably broken. The non-adversarial grounds for divorce are now almost entirely based on the failures of emotional essentials (Borgatta & Borgatta, 1992, p. 508). Emotional breakdowns surely occurred in marriages years ago, but only now is such a situation viewed as sufficient grounds for ending a marriage.

Gender and Age

In a recent study, Howell, Portes, and Brown (1997) found that “parents of girls report higher resolution after separation, SES of the residential parent during separation mediates higher adjustment for girls, older children fare better than younger ones during the separation period, and single parent, father-headed families report higher family functioning (p. 5). Furthermore, in the area of child gender and family functioning after separation, residential parents of girls reported higher adjustment to separation than residential parents of boys. The authors also used a family functioning after separation subscale, which indicated the degree to which parents, have successfully resolved marital issues and begun a healthy, co-parenting relationship. The scale did not directly measure child adjustment, but it did show that parental conflict was linked

to positive child adjustment.

The research also seemed to show a connection between gender differences in post-separation family functioning and the proposition that boys are more vulnerable to conflict prior to separation as well as after divorce. In addition, girls seemed to advance more rapidly than boys during the preadolescent years in the areas of cognitive and social development. Furthermore, “having a parent who lacks resolution might slow the adjustment for boys who are more vulnerable, yet it would not be as much of a problem for girls who may be more cognitively and socially advanced” (Howell, et al., 1997, p. 6). Consequently, “this finding reveals that during the separation period, boys seem more vulnerable to family disruption, which appears to be related to the extent to which the residential parent has been able to resolve the ending of the marriage” (Howell, et al., 1997, p. 6).

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When the residential parents SES was high, self-esteem levels for boys and girls were similar. However, as the SES of the residential parent decreased, levels of self-esteem decreased for girls, but increased for boys. There may be a connection between the presence or absence of the same-sex parent as a role model for the development of sex identity. Interestingly, it was found that even in the present study where:

“most of the children were in mother-custody households, an educated,

competent, female role model who maintains an occupation of some status could be a strong role model for girls regarding self-concept and the capabilities of females. However, if boys identify with dad as a male role model, but are living with a mother who, because of higher SES is less dependent on a husband and may be critical of him, the boys might have lower self-esteem than if the mothers status were lower and she were more dependent on a male” (Howell, 1997, et al., p.p. 7, 8.).

Therefore, the results of this study indicated that during the separation phase, girls responded best when living with a mother who was a role model for occupational competence; whereas boys experienced a higher degree of self-esteem when living with a mother who had a lower SES and was more dependent on the boy’s father.

Howell, Portes, and Brown (1997) also found in their most recent study that older

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children exhibit higher adjustment than younger children, and older children adjust better to separation/divorce or tend to be less vulnerable to the initial phase. In addition, the authors also found that the “adjustment was possibly “facilitated for older children due to their increased knowledge of interpersonal relationships, which, in cognitive development terms, is reflective of the capacity for formal operations thinking which becomes possible in early adolescence” (Howell, 1997, et al., pp. 10, 11). Before adolescence, the child is not capable of conceptualizing the complexities of interpersonal relationships and their identity tends to be tied to their parents.

Furthermore, “older children reported an increase in privileges, attention, or material things, and more involvement in a variety of extracurricular activities” (Howell, 1997, et al., p. 11). The researchers stated that this information seemed to indicate that increased access to external support may improve the adjustment process, since socialization fosters formal operations thought and provides an arena for identity formation. This finding also corroborates research which links increased social and family support with child adjustment (Howell, 1997, et al., p. 12).

It has been suggested that the quality level of a parent-child relationship may vary due to the gender of the child. Many parents reported that they felt more able to show warmth and affection to girls than to boys, and girls seemed to be more able to solicit warmth and affection from their parents, especially in times of stress. “It is

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worth noting that in this sample, girls reported higher parental warmth toward them than did boys, regardless of family structure or parental conflict” (Vandewater & Lansford, 1998, p. 9).

Kot and Shoemaker (1999) state that “a child’s long-range adjustment to divorce may be predicted by such crucial factors as the age of the child, ability of parents to put the child’s needs first, nature of visitation, parental conflict, and continuity of the child’s relationship with the non-custodial parent” (Kot & Shoemaker, p. 163). Furthermore, symptoms of anxiety and depression are considered normal for a child’s post-divorce

adjustment reaction. Consequently, these children might feel abandoned by the non-custodial parent which is usually the father, and separation anxiety may result. By the age of two, a child is much more likely to be emotionally affected by the divorce.

Researchers have also found that “children under the age of three years may not be able to internalize memories of a distant parent as a result of divorce. Therefore, time between contacts via visitations may manifest fears of abandonment and undermine attachments. However, children that are particularly young are more adversely affected if parental visitation is limited. Clinicians, in giving advice to non-custodial parents, emphasize that children under the age of three years quickly lose feelings of attachment to people that they do not frequently see. Many studies have supported “the amount of contact between the child and non-custodial parent as a good indicator for a child’s

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positive adjustment to parental divorce “(Kot & Shoemaker, 1999). Furthermore, research on post-divorce visitation has been virtually nonexistent for infants and toddlers. However, research has indicated that custodial and non-custodial parents should focus on providing stability, predictability, and security for their children aged birth to three. Creating this type of environment will greatly increase the positive development of their offspring.

In an extensive review of the literature regarding the negative effects of divorce on children, researchers have found that they could be grouped by short-term and long-term effects as well as by consistent versus controversial findings” (Kot & Shoemaker, 1999).

The authors also discussed three consistent short-term effects of divorce. “First, children become emotionally distressed directly after parental separation. Second, and possibly related to the first effect, young children often feel depressed and anxious because they are torn between parents. There is a strong loyalty to both mother and father, and therefore, they become distressed if asked to choose one parent or the other. The perception of losing a parent may cause the child to be hesitant in forming close relationships with others for fear of another loss. Finally, school behavior and achievement suffer, which may lead to long-term effects if the child fails to complete high school. This may also lead to reduced confidence in oneself which would carry over into interpersonal relationships” (Kot & Shoemaker, 1999).

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Researchers also presented two long-term effects, which are both controversial. “First, children who grow up in single-parent households are more likely to be delinquent than children who grow up in two-parent households. This could be the result of less parental involvement and supervision in the child’s everyday activities. In addition, children who are younger when the divorce occurs are considered to be more disadvantaged than older children. Support for this finding comes from a study which showed that fathers who divorced with younger children are less likely to interact with those children than are fathers who divorced with older children. Some additional negative effects disclosed in the literature are difficulties in interpersonal relationships,

lower self-esteem, and a negative outlook on life for the future” (Kot & Shoemaker, 1999). On the other hand, some children don’t show any negative effects from their parents’ divorce. In addition, children often bring “a variety of different personal histories, demographic characteristics, coping skills, family interaction experiences, and developmental maturity to the divorce process” (Kot & Shoemaker, 1999).

Using factor analysis, previous researchers also found “four factors that correlated highly with adjustment to divorce: child coping skills, family functioning and stability pre-and post-divorce, external social support systems, and post-divorce conditions (i.e., parental adjustment). Among these four factors, child coping skills rated as the most powerful factor of child adjustment. Other researchers have shown that some

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children who experience multiple stressors after parental divorce still manage to escape negative outcomes due to certain protective factors, such as positive personality dispositions (i.e., internal locus of control, high self-esteem and self-control, autonomy, social responsiveness, positive mood, etc.) and a supportive family environment that reinforces coping efforts and provides positive role models” (Kot & Shoemaker, 1999).

Researchers examining the effects of divorce on adolescents agree that family conflict is a highly accurate predictor of adolescent well-being. In fact, they feel that it is more accurate than the marital status of parents. Research studies show “that family conflict is strongly associated with higher levels of depression in adolescents, and divorce has been shown to have a direct negative effect on adolescents depressed

mood over time” (Kot & Shoemaker, 1999). The reason for this finding was that “adolescents whose parents had divorced reported significantly higher levels of family conflict than those from intact families. In fact, the absolute differences in perceptions of family conflict between adolescents from intact and divorced families were relatively small. Furthermore, “this same study showed family conflict as having more negative effects on the well-being of adolescents than did divorce or separation, especially when it involved parental conflict” (Kot & Shoemaker, 1999). The authors suggest that adolescents from divorced families may tend to take their relationships

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more seriously and view them as more important and vital than adolescents from intact families. Furthermore, this is also demonstrated “by evidence showing adolescents from divorced families as having greater involvement in heterosexual relationships at younger ages than adolescents from intact families” (Kot & Shoemaker, 1999).

In their longitudinal study, Ingoldsby, Shaw, Owens, and Winslow (1999) found that patterns of parental conflict over time had important effects in predicting child adjustment. Their analyses indicated “a significant decrease in behavior problems as a function of the level of conflict, with those experiencing the least persistent conflict having the lowest rates of mother-reported behavior problems at ages 3.5 and 5 years. A pattern of high conflict at one or both time points did result in elevated problem scores,

but these differences were not statistically significant. These findings are important because they suggest a protective effect of low levels of conflict over time not previously documented for preschool-age children” (Ingoldsby et al., 1999, p. 353). Therefore, the study supports the idea that children exposed to interparental conflict in their early years are negatively affected by it and that low levels of conflict may protect against later behavior problems.

Follow-up analyses conducted by the researchers suggested that greater reactivity to conflict “increased the risk for elevated behavior problems when children experienced either high levels of interparental conflict at age 2 or 3.5. Verbal and physical

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aggression appeared to have a more consistent effect on behavior problems than child-rearing disagreements, in that for those children experiencing high levels of parental conflict at age 3.5 , cross-sectional maternal externalizing and internalizing scores were above normative averages regardless of other factors. However, the pattern of higher scores on child-rearing disagreements, in the context of low-interparental aggression and greater active concern in response to conflict, also resulted in externalizing problems that approached the clinical range” (Ingoldsby et al., 1999, p. 353).

Therefore, the present results are consistent with the idea that “emotional and behavioral reactivity is a meaningful contributor to risk for the development of behavior problems. In addition, this study extended the testing of this model to a group of families at risk for child adjustment problems, which has been highlighted as crucial to the

established Cummings and Davies emotional security model (1998). However, patterns among interparental conflict, emotional and behavioral reactivity, and child adjustment were different than found in other samples” (Ingoldsby et al., 1999, p. 353).

Researchers also state that it may be that for children in high-risk environments, different factors contribute to the development of emotional security. For example, “children from low SES backgrounds, who witness greater frequency and higher intensity of family conflict, may internally represent conflict in interparental relations as more threatening than children from more advantaged backgrounds, perhaps because

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they have learned to expect that such conflict may lead to violence toward themselves or toward a parent. In turn, this belief of threat may lead to more behavioral self-regulation of reactivity in reaction to parental conflict for fear of retribution. Thus, although these children may not demonstrate observable distress or reactive behaviors, psychological functioning may still be impaired through increased sensitization and/or hostile attributions, as well as maladaptive behavior in other contexts” (Ingoldsby et al. 1999, p. 354).

Hazelton, Lancee, and O’Neil (1998) found no long-term effects of parental divorce on young adult relationships in their study. The authors state that “other investigators have also failed to find long term effects of parental divorce per se.” However, “the present result was puzzling in view of the fact that a strong relationship was found between the quality of

parenting during childhood and the security of attachment relationships in young adulthood. That is, those subjects with rejecting parents from either divorced or intact families were more likely to have insecure attachment styles. While subjects from divorced families were more likely to have rejecting parents, this vulnerability factor did not appear to affect the security of current attachments” (Hazelton et al., 1998, p. 10-11). The researchers believed that a partial explanation for this finding is that the effects of a father’s rejection were neutralized by his absence from his divorced family and conversely by the continued

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presence of a rejecting father in an intact family.

The researchers state that the interpretation of the results should be treated with caution since the study does not rule out other explanations. “It is possible that the detrimental effects of parental separation were so effectively buffered by parental acceptance that no effects emerged. It is also possible that the adverse effect of the loss of an accepting parent is removed through the sampling of a university population, which may have introduced a selection bias for resilient individuals. The sampling approach may also have been biased against individuals who have suffered from severe psychological and social difficulties as a result of parental divorce or related family processes” (Hazelton et al., 1998, p. 11). The authors go on to state that the emotional, cognitive, and behavioral effects of divorce often lead to children having less academic achievement than their peers who come from intact families. Therefore, the authors

believe that it is “possible that the selection bias may have diluted the contrast between the two study groups or it could also be true that there are no long-term effects of divorce after controlling for mediating factors” (Hazelton et al., 1998, p. 11). However, another criticism of retrospective studies based on self-report is that it is difficult to separate actual effects from report bias.

On the other hand, the researchers found evidence in this study to support the contention that beneficial effects can result from reducing the exposure to a rejecting

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father. Divorce has been shown to weaken the ties between fathers and their children, in contrast to a mother’s relationship with her offspring. The research shows that the emotional distance between a father and his children can be beneficial for the children if their relationship to their father has been turbulent in the past. In addition, the research has also shown that children who reported having accepting parents were “more likely to have high self-esteem, secure current relationships, and less psychological difficulty” (Hazelton et al., 1998, p. 12). Therefore, the correlational results for the test subjects supports the attachment model which says that the quality of later relationships and emotional well-being is affected by the presence of parental acceptance or rejection and the growth of a positive sense of self-esteem. The study also provided evidence that the quality of early attachment relationships directly impacts the development of self-esteem, resiliency, emotional well being, and positive and lasting adult relationships for children.

According to Brown (1999), with the rising divorce rate it is imperative that researchers look at how divorce affects children in a variety of situations. “In terms of academics, boys and girls who come from a divorced family tend to perform less well than their peers who come from an intact family. In addition, fewer children from divorced families actually go on to higher education. Furthermore, the research shows that boys of divorced families have substantially more behavioral concerns such as aggressiveness and impulsivity. Negative behavior before and after the divorce helps

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decrease the academic success rate of boys, and it leads to a higher dropout rate than that of girls who come from a divorced family. In addition to the academic effects, there are social ones as well. Some of these social effects include a greater degree of responsibility at home (i.e. baby-sitting, household chores, etc.) which causes the children to have less time to spend with friends and less time for a variety of social events. This in turn leads to an increase in the levels of anger, frustration, and depression in teens who come from a divorced family. Girls can be socially affected by divorce in a variety of ways including becoming more sexually active at a younger age” (Brown, 1999, p.p. 3, 4).

According to Harmer (1999), in today’s society one of two marriages end in divorce and over sixty percent of these couples who are seeking a divorce have children living in their homes. Adolescents who are experiencing the divorce of their parents usually exhibit changes in behavior and inconsistent feelings. These teens can “fluctuate

from being all-knowing to seeing themselves as helpless. When divorce becomes an issue for teens, it magnifies their feelings of confusion and uneasiness which can lead the teen to act out in an improper, negative, or self-destructive manner” (Harmer, 1999, p.p. 6, 7). Boys and girls who experience parental divorce show a variety of behavioral differences. According to Harmer (p.6), “boys: are known to have behavioral problems in school during the initial stages and through the first two years after the divorce; exhibit

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a noticeable change or drop in their academic grades; have higher chances of getting involved with alcohol and drugs; are more susceptible to having over aggressive behavior; and have a higher percentage of drop-out rates than those adolescents not involved in divorce issues”. Whereas “girls: show more signs of depression over the divorce and changes taking place in their lives; show signs of poor school achievement and their grades decline noticeably; have a higher percentage of dropout rates compared to those girls who come from an intact family; and run with an older crowd and enter sexual activity earlier than their peers from non-divorced families” (Harmer, 1999, p.p. 6, 7).

In another interesting piece of research, Kahler states that “the sleeper effect occurs at a time when older adolescents must make decisions about commitment, sex, and love. When older adolescents experience the sleeper effect, they feel very anxious towards their relationships and in turn they may make a connection between

feeling anxious about their parents divorce and having to make important decisions before they may be ready” (Kahler, 1999, p. 10, 11). In looking at who is affected by the sleeper effect, Kahler says that: “older adolescent girls who have experienced a parental divorce are most effected; these girls who experience the sleeper effect are better adjusted socially, emotionally, and academically immediately following the divorce. They encounter the sleeper effect in their late adolescence or early adulthood

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when they enter their first serious relationship; adolescent boys generally do not experience the sleeper effect” (Kahler, 1999, p. 11). Finally, the author discusses the outcomes of the sleeper effect which include: “depression, sorrow, and neediness which are common in older adolescent girls experiencing the sleeper effect; the anxiousness that girls often feel when attempting to make long-term commitments; a preoccupation with the thought that their partners are unfaithful; the adolescent’s choice to have a sexual relationship with men much older than themselves due to their need to find a [father figure]; and the adolescent girls fears about being alone or abandoned” (Kahler, 1999, p. 11).

In their report of a 25 year longitudinal study Wallerstein and co-authors state that since 1970, approximately a million children a year have seen their parents divorce; which in turn has led to the building of a generation of Americans that has now come of age. These children now represent one quarter of the adults in this country who have reached the age of forty-four. In addition, demographers also report that

forty percent of all adults who got married in the 1990s have already been divorced. It is the lives of these children of divorce who are now grown up that comprise the main topics of this book. As the authors state, “this is the only study in the world that follows into full adulthood the life course of individuals whose parents separated when they were young children” (Wallerstein, Lewis, and Blakeslee, 2000,

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p. XXXII).

In Wallerstein (et al., 2000) longitudinal study, the researchers state that “the core group of 131 children and their families were recruited in 1971 when they began asking open-ended questions of families going through divorce. The children came from middle-class families and were carefully prescreened so that everyone chosen for inclusion was doing reasonably well at school and was developmentally on target during the predivorce years” (Wallerstein et al., 2000, p. XXXII.). Wallerstein states that they have been following the lives of these children and each of their parents in great detail, and have logged many hours of interviews at least every five years since 1971. Their findings at the eighteen-month, five, ten, and fifteen-year marks were reported earlier in two books. For the twenty-five year follow-up, they were able to locate close to 80 percent of the children in personal interviews that each lasted several hours. These subjects are now twenty-eight to forty-three years old.

Since 1980, the Wallerstein Center for the Family in Transition has provided

mediation, counseling, and education for families that are going through divorce. Both Wallerstein and her staff have done extensive research into a variety of current issues, including joint custody, high-conflict families, overnight visiting for infants, and court ordered visiting. Wallerstein says that “this research has influenced public policy and the courts, and informed the work of pediatricians, teachers, and clergy. Furthermore,

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the center, which is nationally and internationally renowned, also provides training for legal and mental health professionals who work with families in separation, divorce, and remarriage (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. XXXIII.). The research contained in the book on the 25-year landmark study utilized extensive interviews with “a group of adults from intact families who were the same age and were raised in the same neighborhoods and schools as those in the long-term study of divorced families” (p. XXXIII).

Wallerstein believes that these comparisons shed light on the life of the child in a troubled family that did not divorce and provide a good basis for addressing the frequently asked question: for the sake of the children, is it better to divorce or to stay in an unhappy marriage? (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. XXXIII.).

Wallerstein reported that when she began studying the effects of divorce on children in the 1970s, she expected them to rally, but as time passed, she became worried that divorce was a long-term crisis that was adversely affecting the psychological profile of an entire generation. Wallerstein states that “divorce is a life-transforming experience. After divorce, childhood is very different. Adolescence is

different. Adulthood with the decision to marry or not and have children or not-is different” (Wallerstein et al., 2000, p. XXXIII).

Wallerstein states that there are a variety of myths that surround divorce, and that two faulty beliefs actually provide the foundation of our current attitudes toward

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divorce. The first mistaken belief is that if the parents are happier then the children will be happier, too. This belief holds that even if the children are stressed by the divorce, the crisis will not last long because children are resilient and resourceful and will soon recover. The problem with this belief is that the children are not considered separately from their parents; their needs and thoughts are simply combined with the adult agenda. Parents think they understand their children’s view of things and how they think but sadly, they are mistaken. Fortunately this myth has been torn open and examined in recent years with reports from parents, teachers, and researchers like Wallerstein who found that the children were indeed suffering. The spotlight was finally placed on the impoverishment of women and children, the high distress among the parents who didn’t agree with their spouse that their marriage was over, and the fact that children do not bounce back quickly. In fact, children who have experienced their parents getting divorced do not look happier, healthier, or well adjusted even if their parents believe this to be the case (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. XXIX).

National studies show “that children from divorced and remarried families are

more aggressive toward their parents and teachers. They experience more depression, have more learning difficulties, and suffer from more problems with peers than children from intact families. Children from divorced and remarried families are two to three times more likely to be referred for psychological help at school than their

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peers from intact families. More of them end up in mental health clinics and hospital settings. There is earlier sexual activity, more children born out of wedlock, less marriage, and more divorce. Numerous studies show that adult children of divorce have more psychological problems than those raised in intact marriages” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. XXIX). Even though many people no longer believe that children benefit from a divorce that the parents want, it continues to have a subtle, unconscious influence on how we view divorce and our reactions to it. Parents have expected their children to approve of their decision, even though this is rarely true for children who haven’t yet become teenagers. It has made it more difficult for parents to see or believe that their children could be experiencing fear or grief after the divorce. In addition, parents have had more trouble attempting to prepare their children properly for the impending divorce. Many men and women often get so caught up in the search for a new partner or in the duties of a new job after the divorce that they don’t realize how absent they have become from their children’s lives so they continue to cling to this myth.

The second myth that Wallerstein debunks is based on the premise that divorce

is a “temporary crisis that exerts its most harmful effects on parents and children at the time of the breakup. People who believe this leap to the happy conclusion that the key to the child’s adjustment is the settlement of conflict without rancor” (Wallerstein, et al.

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2000, p. XXX). Therefore, societies’ resources and interventions have been aimed squarely at the breakup of the parents. Consequently, some parents want to believe that if they don’t fight or argue in front of the children, and if they can conduct themselves as two rational and fair-minded adults in settling their financial, legal, and parenting differences, then the crisis will resolve itself. The two lucky adults and their children can then move on to make better and happier lives for themselves. In addition, many parents also believe that their children will go back to their usual play and school activities, easily make the transition to having parents that live in two separate houses, in two different neighborhoods, and have no problem with dividing up their days, nights, and holidays. Children are supposed to believe that their lives will go on as before, except that some areas will be even better than before. This is all supposed to happen “regardless of any betrayal, abuse, or abandonment that caused the divorce that left at least one person reeling in pain and one or both parents hardly capable of thinking clearly about their children. The belief that the crisis is temporary underlies the notion that if acceptable legal arrangements for custody, visiting, and child support are made at the time of the divorce and parents are provided with a few lectures, the child

will soon be fine. It is a view we have fervently embraced and continue to hold”

(Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. XXX).

This view, however, is greatly misguided because it has prevented us from

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giving children and adults the tools and ability they need to cope with the divorce over the years to come. Furthermore, this view has not enabled us to make long-term plans for our children or acknowledge the fact that their needs do indeed change as they grow older. This view has also kept us from listening to the serious complaints and tales of suffering that our children have had to deal with. Fortunately, this second myth is beginning to come to an end as the voices of children who have experienced divorce are now being heard as they enter adulthood. Adult children of divorce say that their parents’ anger at the time they broke up is not what matters the most, unless there was a history of violence and abuse. Otherwise, the adult children of divorce say they have dim memories of what happened during this time period that was supposed to be so critical. Indeed, these individuals as children then and as adults now would be thoroughly amazed to learn that a judge, lawyer, mediator, or anyone for that matter had honestly considered their best interests or wishes. “It’s the many years living in a postdivorce or remarried family that count, according to this first generation to come of age and tell us their experience. It’s feeling sad, lonely, and angry during childhood. It’s traveling on airplanes alone when you’re seven to visit your parent. It’s having no choice about how you spend your time and feeling like a second-class citizen compared

with your friends in intact families who have some say about how they spend their weekends and their vacations. It's wondering whether you will have any financial help

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for college from your college-educated father, given that he has no legal obligation to pay. It's worrying about your mom and dad for years, will her new boyfriend stick around, will his new wife welcome you into her home? It's reaching adulthood with acute anxiety. Will you ever find a faithful woman to love you? Will you find a man you can trust? Or will your relationships fail just like your parents did? And most tellingly, it's asking if you can protect your own child from having these same experiences in growing up" (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. XXXI). Lastly, Wallerstein states that not one of the men or women from divorced families whose lives I report on in this book wanted their children to repeat their childhood experiences (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. XXXI).

Around the time that Judith Wallerstein was finishing her book, she had a discussion with a family law judge from a large state that she would not name. In this meeting, Wallerstein wanted to discuss ideas she had to help educate parents about divorce. After awhile, the judge wanted her opinion on an important matter. The judge "had just attended several scientific lectures in which researchers argued that children are shaped more by genes than by family environment" (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 294). The judge brought up the example of identical twins being raised separately, yet they

somehow end up liking the same food, clothing, and names for their dogs. The judge asked Wallerstein, “Do you think that this could mean divorce is in the genes? And if

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that’s so, does it matter what a court decides when parents divorce?” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 295). Wallerstein was surprised because this was a man whose decisions would affect the lives of thousands of children, and he wasn’t sure if the work that he and his colleagues did would make any real difference! Wallerstein told the judge that she doubted that there was actually a divorce gene, and that the court’s actions truly do make a difference in the lives of many young children. Wallerstein went on to state that the courts have the power to “protect children from being hurt or to increase their suffering” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 295). Now the judge was surprised, “You think we’ve increased children’s suffering? Yes, Your Honor, I do. With all respect, I have to say that the court along with the rest of society has increased the suffering of children,” Wallerstein stated (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 295). Wallerstein and the judge then spent time talking about how the “courts, parents, attorneys, mental health workers,-indeed most adults have been reluctant to pay genuine attention to children during and after divorce” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 295). The judge listened to Wallerstein, but he ended up leaving the chambers in a confused mood that later turned gloomy. Wallerstein wondered how a leading judge could so easily accept the notion of a divorce gene to explain our societies predicament. In pondering the notion of the judge being so confused about his role, Wallerstein thought, what about the rest of us?

“What is it about the impact of divorce on our society and our children that’s so hard to understand and accept?” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 295).

In her book, Wallerstein reflects on the last thirty years of her life, during which she has traveled around and talked to professional, legal, and mental health groups as well as having worked with many parents and children in divorced families. In thinking back, Wallerstein feels that we have created a new kind of culture that the world has never seen before. “Silently and unconsciously, we have created a culture of divorce. It’s hard to grasp what it means when we say that first marriages stand a 45 percent chance of breaking up and that second marriages have a 60 percent chance of ending in divorce. What are the consequences for all of us when 25 percent of people today between the ages of eighteen and forty-four have parents who divorced? What does it mean to a society when people wonder aloud if the family is about to disappear? What can we do when we learn that married couples with children represent a mere 26 percent of households in the 1990's and that the most common living arrangement nowadays is a household of unmarried people with no children? These numbers are terrifying. But like all massive social change, what’s happening is affecting us in ways that we have yet to understand” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 295-296).

Wallerstein believes that she has the ability to relate to the multitude of children and parents who are lonely, and to the teenagers who say that they don’t want to live a

life like that of their parents. Wallerstein also feels that she can emphasize with the

countless young men and women who bravely state that if they don't end up getting married, then they won't have to go through a divorce. However, many of these young people later tell Wallerstein that they don't really want to grow old without a partner with whom to share their lives. Wallerstein says that she is "especially worried about how our divorce culture has changed childhood itself. A million new children each year are added to our march of marital failure. As they explain so eloquently, they lose the carefree play of childhood as well as the comforting arms and lap of a loving parent who is always rushing off because life in the postdivorce family is so incredibly difficult to manage. We must take it very seriously when our children complain that the day my parents divorced is the day my childhood ended" (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 296).

Wallerstein tells us that the psychoanalyst Erikson taught us that childhood and society are linked. Our current society, however, has not been able to come to terms with the changes that our divorce culture has delivered to our doorsteps. Childhood, adolescence, and adulthood are all looked at as being different. Therefore, without us even noticing, we have created children who take care of themselves, and adults who are swamped with responsibilities and unable to enjoy the pleasures of parenting. There is, however, another side to all of this. Wallerstein tells us that due to these changes, adults today have more freedom and they readily accept the importance of sex and play. Furthermore, adults today are not locked into the mistakes they may have made in their

previous marriages so they don't have to live a long and miserable life with someone they no longer love. In fact, Wallerstein says that two-thirds of divorces are initiated by women despite the huge economic price they pay as well as the added burdens of extra parental duties. "People want and expect a lot more out of marriage than did there earlier generations. Although the divorce rate in second and third marriages is sky-high, many second marriages are much happier than the ones left behind. Children and adults are able to escape violence, abuse, and misery to create a better life. Clearly there is no road back" (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 296-297).

Wallerstein reports that the sad truth is that we have created a society that offers more freedoms and opportunities, but there are some very real and serious hidden costs involved in all of this. Wallerstein believes that people, adults, and children are not better off because we have created families that have fragile and unreliable relationships. Our children receive much less careful and thoughtful nurturing and protection than they would have gotten just a few decades ago. We have long-term marriages that come apart at alarming rates, and an older generation that is estranged from their children. Wallerstein wonders if this is too high a price to pay, and if we can't do better. Wallerstein says that she would "like to say that we're at the crossroads but I'm afraid I can't be that optimistic" (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 297). Furthermore, we can only choose a new route if we can agree on where we are and where we want to go in the

future. Wallerstein states that the outlook does not look good because for every person that says they are concerned about the economic and emotional costs that children face due to divorce, there are those who argue that those kids were in trouble before and that divorce is not a big deal. Wallerstein believes that people want to feel good about their choices, and in fact, many do. However, Wallerstein feels that the facts show that while one member of the former couple may feel much better after the divorce, the other person often feels no better or even worse. Sadly, the age-old myths seem to continue, and are often heard at a variety of social functions. The myths that “divorce is a temporary crisis, so many children have experienced their parents’ divorce that kids nowadays don’t worry so much, it’s easier, they almost expect it, it’s a right of passage, if I feel better, so will my children, and so on. As always, children are voiceless or unheard” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 297).

Wallerstein states that family scholars are beginning to agree on a number of findings that clearly contradict our cherished societal myths about divorce. The scholars now agree that the effects of divorce are long-term, and that children raised in divorced or remarried families are not as well adjusted as their peers who were brought up in an intact family. Wallerstein further states that the life histories of the first generation of children to grow up in a divorce culture offer us truths or facts to which we had better pay attention. Wallerstein says that from “the viewpoint of the children, and

counter to what happens to their parents, divorce is a cumulative experience. Its impact increases over time and rises to a crescendo in adulthood. At each developmental stage divorce is experienced anew in different ways. In adulthood, it affects personality, the ability to trust, expectations about relationships, and ability to cope with change” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 298).

Wallerstein states that the “first upheaval occurs at the breakup. Children are frightened and angry, terrified of being abandoned by both parents, and they feel responsible for the divorce. Most children are taken by surprise; few are relieved. As adults, they remember with sorrow and anger how little support they got from their parents when it happened. They recall how they were expected to adjust overnight to a terrifying number of changes that confounded them. Even children who had seen or heard violence at home made no connection between that violence and the decision to divorce. The children concluded early on, silently and sadly, that family relationships are fragile and that the tie between a man and a woman can break capriciously, without warning. They worried ever after that parent-child relationships are also unreliable and can break at any time. These early experiences colored their later expectations” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 298).

Secondly, Wallerstein says that as the new postdivorce family takes shape, the children are afraid that their world will resemble what they feared most. “Home was

a lonely place. The household was in disarray for years. Many children were forced to move, leaving behind familiar schools, close friends, and other supports. What they remember vividly as adults is the loss of the intact family and the safety net it provided, the difficulty of having two parents in two homes, and how going back and forth cut badly into playtime and friendships. Parents were busy with work, preoccupied with rebuilding their social lives. Both moms and dads had a lot less time to spend with their children and were less responsive to their children's needs or wishes. Little children especially felt that they had lost both parents and were unable to care for themselves. Children soon learned that the divorced family has porous walls that include new lovers, live-in partners, and stepparents. Not one of these relationships was easy for anyone. The mother's parenting was often cut into by the very heavy burdens of single parenthood and then by the demands of remarriage and stepchildren" (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 298).

On the other hand, Wallerstein says that children's relationships with fathers were impacted by live-in-lovers or stepmothers in second or subsequent marriages. In addition, some second wives were found to be interested in children while others had no time or intention of being a mother again. Furthermore, some fathers were willing and able to maintain their love and interest in their offspring, but few had the time or ability to handle two or three families. Wallerstein also found that there were some

families where both parents were eventually able to bring some stability to their lives

within a positive and happy remarriage; or through a well functioning and emotionally fulfilling life as a single parent, but these people never made up a majority in any of her work.

Meanwhile, the children who were able to obtain support from a variety of sources such as “school, sports, teams, parents, stepparents, grandparents, teachers, or through their own inner strengths, interests, and talents did better than those who could not muster such resources” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 299). Wallerstein further states that due to necessity, a great number of children who were viewed as being resilient were forced into giving up their childhoods because they had to take responsibility for themselves, their brothers and sisters, and their parents who were often fatigued from their jobs and other personal problems. Additionally, children who were in need of significantly more parenting due to their age, particular vulnerability, or other special area of concern ended up being overwhelmed with sadness and anger at their parents. In fact, when these children were asked years later about having children of their own, the authors’ study found that most children said, “I never want a child of mine to experience a childhood like I had” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 299). In her research, Wallerstein reports that the children told them that “adolescence begins early in divorced homes and, compared with that of youngsters raised in intact families, is more likely to include more sexual experiences for girls and higher alcohol and drug use for

girls and boys” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 299). Wallerstein says that adolescence lasts longer in divorced families and it extends into early adulthood. Through these years the children of divorce worry about making the same mistakes their parents did, and they wonder if they, too, will fail in all of their adult relationships. Wallerstein believes that children of divorce suffer most in adulthood because “the impact of divorce hits them most cruelly as they go in search of love, sexual intimacy, and commitment. Their lack of inner images of a man and a woman in a stable relationship and their memories of their parents’ failure to sustain the marriage badly hobbles their search, leading them to heartbreak and even despair” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 299). Many children say that they were never taught about positive relationships, they say that they were not prepared for adult relationships because they had no good role models, and many even had a hard time trying to describe what kind of person they were looking for.

Wallerstein also found that children who had two parents that were able to rebuild their lives following a divorce and include their children in their lives, had a greater chance of having an easier life as adults. Children who had single parents that were committed and attentive also benefited, but more frequently the children had continuing anger at their parents, especially their fathers because they regarded them as

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having been selfish and faithless. However, other children felt compassion and pity toward parents who had failed to rebuild their lives following a divorce. “The ties

between daughters and their mothers were especially close but at a cost. Some young women found it very difficult to separate from their moms and to lead their own lives. With some notable exceptions, fathers in divorced families were less likely to enjoy close bonds with their adult children, especially their sons. This stood in marked contrast to fathers and sons from intact families, who tended to grow closer as the years went by” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p.p. 300-301).

Except for children who were raised in a divorced family, there aren't too many people that can understand and comprehend how a divorce shapes both the child and their life. Wallerstein states that it is easy to see in many homes, how the parenting falls apart after a divorce and does not come back together for many years, if ever. Due to the changes in parenting and the structure of many families, the children are forced to take on more responsibilities in addition to caring for themselves and their needs. Many children will then become different individuals as they adjust to the new needs and requests of their parents and stepparents. Wallerstein found that all of the children described in her book, “took on new roles in direct response to changes that occurred during the postdivorce years” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 305).

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Wallerstein feels that the current adolescent generation needs to be focused on building better relationships. Wallerstein is aware that they “still wonder what motivated

their parents' decision to divorce. Some people find that it helps to sit down and talk candidly with their parents. Adult children of divorce may not believe or like the answers, but the exercise can provide new and useful perspectives. Not everyone can do this, nor should they, since it may cause both parent and child unnecessary suffering. But for many, it's worth trying to lift the curtain of silence that has troubled the parent and child relationship for years" (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 306).

In terms of thinking about the children's future once the divorce becomes final, Wallerstein feels that money should be set aside before any property is divided. "If a parent has the means to help pay college tuition but says he or she is not obligated, then the child has every right to be furious-at the parent and even more at a society that has sanctioned the child's heavy loss with its divorce laws. When a stingy parent gives priority to a new family-new spouse, new children, new life-the child of divorce is doubly wounded" (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 309). In fact, many law school professors have suggested that funds be set aside for college and other needs at the time of the divorce. Trust funds would ensure that children get the education they deserve. "Although a few states have enacted legislation that enables the court to order support

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for college under certain circumstances, most states have no laws that extend child support beyond age eighteen. Surely all children deserve the same legal protection and the financial and emotional support and encouragement that is critical to their future.

The children who would benefit from such legislation, as usual, have no voice, no constituency, no power to influence their futures. But the rest of us can and should speak up for them” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 309). One reason why this is so vitally important is, “What’s done to children, they will do to society” (Karl A. Menninger, in Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 294).

Wallerstein feels that if we truly want to help children of divorce, then we should begin to offer better services for families that are heading for, or going through the process of separation. The focus should be on the child, and what needs to be done to protect them and insure their chance for a better future. These services could be offered through the court and with their guidance, through clinics, or by a new independent agency. If these services were to be offered by a new agency, this “new agency would be a place for divorcing parents to come and make long-term plans for their children—not just for this year or next but for many years into the future. Parents can be helped to anticipate the changes that lie ahead and to learn critical skills for protecting their children. This new agency would represent a significant expansion of mediation and parent education services that already exist in several states. It would provide education,

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counseling, and mediation to divorced and remarried families” (Wallerstein, et al., 2000, p. 309).

The Effects of Parents Absence on their Children’s Lives

“An estimated 24.7 million children (36.3%) live absent their biological father, and there are almost 17 million children (25%) living with their single mothers. There were also 1.25 million or 32% of all births in 1995 that were out-of-wedlock, and today nearly four out of ten first marriages end in divorce. Sixty percent of divorcing couples have children, and over one million children each year experience the divorce of their parents. In addition, one out of every six children is a stepchild, and there are nearly 1.9 million single fathers with children under the age of 18 years. Furthermore, four out of every ten cohabiting couples have children present and of children born to cohabiting couples, only four out of ten will see their parents marry. Those who do marry experience a 50% higher divorce rate. Amazingly, twenty-six percent of absent fathers live in a different state than their children, and about 40% of the children who live in fatherless households haven’t seen their fathers in at least a year while 50% of children who don’t live with their fathers have never stepped foot in their father’s home. Finally, children who live absent their biological fathers, on average, are more likely to be poor, experience educational, health, emotional, and psychological problems, be victims of

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child abuse, and engage in criminal behavior than their peers who live with their married, biological mother and father” (National Fatherhood Initiative, Top Ten Father Facts, 2000, p. 5, <http://www.fatherhood.org/>).

According to the State Trends in Fatherhood report (2000), Wisconsin has a

22.8% rate of mother only families, a 5.1% rate of father only families, and 3.4 divorces per 1,000 people. One of Wisconsin's closest neighbor states, Minnesota, has a 22.7% rate of mother-only families, a 4.5% rate of father-only families, and 3.6 divorces per 1,000 people (National Fatherhood Initiative, State Trends in Fatherhood, 2000, p.100, <http://fatherhood.org/>). According to an article on noncustodial fathers following divorce, noncustodial father refers to men whose rights and obligations as fathers are curtailed and reassigned through judicial action, usually accompanying marital separation or divorce. For noncustodial fathers the parent role has been legally altered so as to vest only in the mother the father's usual powers, rights, and duties with respect to his children. However, the term can also be extended to fathers whose children are born outside of marriage. Noncustodial father, then, refers to men who live apart from their children either because of marital disruption through separation and divorce or because of nonmarriage with the child's mother (Fox & Blanton, 1995, p. 1).

According to Nielsen (1999), research, fathers contribute the most towards their offspring's becoming self-reliant, self-disciplined, and self-motivated. For example,

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teenagers whose parents are divorced often say that their fathers gave them the best advice, taught them the most, and pushed them to do the best that they possibly could. In addition, girls who lived with their unmarried fathers tended to have higher academic goals as well as higher achievement test scores than girls who lived with their

unmarried mothers. Most teenagers, however, tended to talk more to their mother than to their father about their social lives and other emotional issues; whereas the teenagers usually turned to their fathers for advice on education and jobs, and to get some encouragement to boost their levels of self-reliance. “So although teenage children might see their father as more demanding or more judgmental than their mother, those who remain close to their father often end up being the most self-reliant, self-disciplined, self-motivated, academically and vocationally successful and achievement oriented (Nielsen, 1999, p. 145).

“Children who have a close relationship with their father can also benefit from the shield that the relationship may supply against a mother who is clinically depressed or has unhealthy ways of thinking and behaving. The father can help teach the children how to think and behave more positively so that they don’t fall back on self-defeating ways. Furthermore, the father can also help to counteract the overly indulgent, lax parenting that is common among depressed mothers. Staying involved with his children after a divorce can also be especially beneficial because a depressed mother tends to

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relate to the children in ways that interfere with their social skills and self-reliance. The father might also be the only parent who can help the children recognize and deal with their own problems because a depressed mother often ignores or denies whatever problems her children are having. A depressed woman is also the least likely to get remarried after her divorce, which is unfortunate for her children. Sadly too, the

depressed mother is often the least willing to share her children with their father after the divorce” (Nielsen, 1999, p.p. 145-146). In the words of one depressed mother, “I can’t bear the thought that anyone else can do as good a job parenting my children as I can” (Nielsen, 1999, p. 146).

According to Greif (1997), “mental health and social policy professionals have been paying close attention to the impact of the absence of fathers on the financial and emotional welfare of children during the decade of the 90's. The loss of involvement by fathers in the family unit has been blamed for many ills such as crime, drug abuse, a breakdown in communities, a rise in unemployment, and welfare costs. However, little attention has been focused on the absence of mothers in the family unit. A noncustodial mother can be defined as someone who is living away from her children the majority of the time. In such cases the bulk of the child-care and nurturing responsibilities reside elsewhere, usually with the father. The mother’s involvement as a noncustodial parent can range from significant responsibilities to no responsibilities. Although obviously one

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mother is without custody for every father with custody who is single, probably an equal number of mothers whose ex-husbands are remarried do not have custody. Thus, drawing on census data information (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1993), this population of parents in the United States is close to three million “(Greif, 1997, p. 1).

In his research, Greif has found that since the twentieth-century the public has

held a firm belief that the mother plays the main role as caretaker and nurturer of the children. In fact, the Whirlpool Corporation funded a study that found that 88% of the women polled believed that it was their job to take care of all family members. Sadly, mothers who don't live with their children are often looked down upon as incompetent and emotionally unfit parents. In addition, noncustodial mothers are expected to meet and achieve higher standards than noncustodial fathers, and they are often treated worse when others learn that they do not actually live with their children. "Despite the cry for greater father involvement in the intact family, such involvement often comes with the expectation that the father will play a supporting role under the direction of the mother and not function as an equal in parenting decisions and nurturing. Because of the profound link between mothers and children, noncustodial mothers lack role definition and suffer significantly because of it. They often seek treatment for issues related to these feelings" (Greif, 1997, p. 1).

The mothers' relationship with her children is closely related to visitation issues

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and interactions with the father. How well do they get along? How responsive is each to the other? Is visitation comfortable for everyone? Are child-support issues affecting the relationship? The mother's sense of competence is often at stake here, as each battle with the child calls her sense of self into question. If the mother-child relationship is unsettled, it may be a sign that generational boundaries are blurred and rules about the children's behavior are unclear. Such conflict often draws the father into the mother-

child relationship in unhealthy ways as he tries to become his child's protector. Ideally the mother and child should attempt to work through these issues on their own.

“Mirroring effects between the mother and child can also affect the relationship. On a psychodynamic level, if she views herself as a failure then she may see negative aspects of herself in her interactions with her child. If she reacts negatively to that projection, she will be unable to treat the child objectively and may withdraw. Not only will she struggle to relate to a normally recalcitrant child, she will also attempt to cope with her own negative image as reflected by the child” (Greif, 1997, p. 3).

Many mothers give up custody of their children for unselfish reasons because they care more about the welfare of the children than themselves. Mothers who fight for custody and lose or feel that their parental rights were taken away unfairly, will likely take longer to adjust than women who voluntarily gave up custody because they felt that their children would be better off both financially and emotionally with their

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father. In addition, mothers who willingly give up custody are often able to reestablish a relationship with their children more easily because the psychological adjustment is less difficult, and there are fewer negative feelings toward the father. In this situation, mothers need to be educated about the developmental stages that children pass through as they experience separation from a parent and continue to evolve in their own individual growth. Greif states that “if the mother has not seen her child very often,

she may find it difficult to understand and accept these issues. If a stepmother is involved, the birth mother is likely to feel as if she has been replaced, which exacerbates her sense of loss. Finally, the mother needs support from the clinician as well as encouragement to act at her own pace. Without such acceptance, her sense of self will be further diminished and she may feel as though she is being pushed around by the clinician as she was by her former spouse. Accordingly, she will interact less effectively with her children” (Greif, 1997, p. 3).

Clinicians dealing with noncustodial mothers need to be cognizant of many factors that can or will impact their clients’ relationships with their children. Clinicians need to know that these women are very vulnerable to social stigma, and they often try to keep certain aspects of their lives secret or they may deny things or feel great shame. These mothers may experience rejection by members of their own family, especially their mothers, and their friends may also become distant or less supportive. Therefore,

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it is imperative that these women be offered and connected with a variety of social support systems which will help decrease the level of stress that they are feeling and/or attempting to deal with.

“Emphasis in the area of mother-child relationships during and after divorce has tended to focus on the negative implications of mothers’ eroding discipline, parenting stress, and role strain for children’s adjustment” (Arditti, 1999, p. 109). Arditti believes that the consensus is that “divorce doesn’t severely damage children’s relationships with

their mothers who have primary custody versus their counterparts who come from two parent families. Arditti believes that many scholars fail to address the transformational qualities divorce might bring to mother-child relationships” (Arditti, 1999, p. 109).

Furthermore, there are few studies that seem to consider the strengths that single mothers possess in regards to being both a successful parent and household manager.

Arditti says that she had two purposes in mind for her study. First, she examined in greater depth, qualitative aspects of mother-child relationships, and considered the strengths in these relationships as they might emerge from young adult children’s narratives. A second purpose of the study was to give voice to young adult children’s descriptions and recollections. “Increasingly, scholars are becoming aware of the importance of children’s perspectives and their construction of reality as significant predictors of well-being during the divorce process and beyond” (Arditti, 1999, p.110).

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In the study, Arditti found that the children did not seem to directly link the fact that their mothers did not live with them to any substantial loss of attention and caring on the mothers’ part. It did however, seem to be somewhat implied by the variety of comments coming from the children. In addition, not being able to live under the same roof seemed to lead to a widening of the emotional gap between mothers and their children unless they were able to spend a great deal of time together. Furthermore, “children who were very young at the time of parental divorce, or experienced a shift in residence at an early

age and had less time to establish a strong relationship with their mothers, were particularly vulnerable. To a certain extent, spending time with the nonresidential parent seemed to ameliorate the impact of non-residence” (Arditti, 1999, p. 112). For some children, being involved and getting to spend time with their non-custodial mothers helped them to be able to create and maintain healthy relationships.

Herrerias (1995), believes that women in the United States have historically been responsible for taking care of the needs of the family’s children. Taking care of the children’s needs, looking out for them, and being cognizant of their well-being are all aspects that are included in the definition of motherhood. In the past and sadly yet today, women have been defined mainly as mothers by society and any attempt to change this has been viewed as a sin. In fact, suspicions of unfitness, deviance, and mental instability have often arisen when a woman tries to be more than just a mother. When

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children’s needs are not met, society usually looks at the mother and may even question her commitment and loyalty to her children. The child caretaking role can however, be successfully handled by either parent but it is most often assigned to the mother as her main duty and responsibility.

“It is estimated that there are 500,000 to 1,200,000 noncustodial mothers in the United States, with approximately 75% of that number being voluntary relinquishers. A noncustodial mother is defined as a woman who either currently lives apart from or has at some time lived separately from one or more biological children under the age of

18 years. A voluntary noncustodial mother refers to either a formalized legal or informal agreement willingly entered into by the mother whereby one or more children will reside with another caretaker, in most cases the children's biological father. An involuntary noncustodial mother indicates some form of protective services intervention, criminal confinement, long-term mental or physical health convalescence, child kidnapping, or court custody finding on behalf of another caretaker for the mother's minor children. Noncustodial status excludes children placed at birth for adoption" (Herrerias, 1995, p. 1).

In his research, Jeynes (1999) found results that supported the hypothesis that children of divorce from neither-parent families (those not living with either biological parent) perform at academically lower levels than either children from intact

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families or children of divorce from single-parent families. "In fact, measured in absolute numbers, the difference between children of divorce from neither-parent families and children of divorce from single-parent families is actually greater than between children of divorce from single-parent families and children from intact families" (Jeynes, 1999, p. 117). Whether it's a broken home, single parent family, or neither parent family, Jeynes says that there are many similar factors at work in these areas such as too little access to parents, lack of parental support, and other psychological effects. However, the argument can be made that children of divorce in neither-parent families may face some

challenges that are unique to their family. Children who live with neither parent may have a greater chance of living with a guardian that is mean, abusive in a variety of ways, and non-supportive. In fact, children who don't live with either parent may well have come from a family where the effects of the divorce were extremely serious and intense. In other words, a custodial parent who was abusive in any way may well have forced the child into an unbearable position where they felt that they had no choice but to live with neither parent. However, it may also be that neither parent wanted to step up and take responsibility for the care and nurturing of their child.

Jeynes believes that his study should encourage researchers to take a closer look at children of divorce who live with neither parent. Sadly, most studies don't include this group in their research studies. By not including this group, the majority of studies

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leave out valuable information about the children who are most affected by divorce. Therefore, an understatement of the impact of divorce on academic achievement will also occur. Jeynes also believes that "more research needs to be done regarding the reasons why children of divorce from neither-parent families achieve at a low level academically. Certainly part of the cause can be traced to the impact of divorce on a custodial family's SES level. Beyond that, it is unclear whether the lower achievement levels can be traced to challenges distinct to living with neither parent or challenges that result from experiencing a severity of parental divorce that is, on average, greater than that experienced by children of divorce in single parent families. As America experiences a

continued increase in the diversity of its family structures, it befits us to understand the children who come from these family structures. Further research on children of divorce from neither-parent families would be a valuable step toward this end” (Jeynes, 1999, p. 118).

CHAPTER THREE

Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter includes a discussion of the results of the study, conclusions, and recommendations for further research.

Discussion

According to the research findings, divorce has a long-term effect on children throughout their lives, which was not previously thought to occur. The research also shows the importance of both parents being involved in their children’s lives.

In addition, the research also shows that fathers do, indeed, play an important role in their children's lives in contrast to what was once the prevalent belief.

The research also shows that as a whole, girls experience some positive side effects of their parents' divorce. Overall, girls tend to become more independent, they develop closer bonds with parents who are actively involved in their lives, and they adjust quite well after conflicts within the family are resolved. Finally, the research also shows that in father-headed households the family functioning appears to be very positive.

Conclusions

In light of the myths and inaccurate beliefs that this research has helped to dispel, continued research into the effects of divorce on children should be expanded.

Recommendations for further research

Several suggestions are offered for further research. These are: (1) expanded longitudinal research to be done on all aspects of divorce; (2) additional research on non-custodial mothers; (3) more research on how educational programs, counseling, and other services can be of assistance in helping to produce a more positive outcome in the divorce process; and (4) an expanded and more focused investigation on the impact and importance of the father's relationship with his children.

Introduction to manual

Experts believe that as a society we should focus on what needs to be done to protect each individual child in every household that experiences a divorce. This initiative is imperative because many parents do not possess the knowledge of how to handle this life stressor in an appropriate and positive manner for all concerned. Divorce affects many children so parents need to be prepared to limit its negative impact. Currently, the resources that parents need are oftentimes difficult to access because they are not readily available in one convenient place. Parents may ask their friends where they can look for help, they may ask their children's school, or they may contact a variety of local, county, and state agencies. It would be

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much easier if parents and counselors had a single resource manual that they could consult; containing internet web sites, books, and programs that are offered by independent and public agencies. Such a manual was developed by this author and is found in the Appendix. One additional suggestion for future research is to evaluate the effectiveness of this comprehensive resource manual in an applied setting.

APPENDIX

RESOURCE MANUAL

Part A: Agencies, Programs, and Websites

Janesville Psychiatric Clinic, 20 East Milwaukee Street, Suite 210, Janesville, Wisconsin 53545. Telephone: (608)-755-1475. Fax: (608)-755-1733 or e-mail us at www.janesvillepsych.com or mailbag@janesvillepsych.com. Programs include (Rebuilding When Your Relationship Ends, and Children Of Divorce Group). Instructor: Bill Hollingsworth, M.S. C.A.D.C. III, C.I.C.S.W.

Children's Trust Fund, 110 East Main Street, Suite 614, Madison, Wisconsin 53703. Telephone: (608)-266-6871. Fax: (608)-266-3792.

Comprehensive Family Services, INC., Head Start/Early Head Start. Rock and Walworth Counties, 514 South Main Street, P.O. Box 8250, Janesville, Wisconsin 53547-8250. Telephone: (608)-758-3300 or 1-(800)-774-7778 (toll free). Fax: (608)-758-3252.

Beloit Area Community Health Center, 74 Beloit Mall, Beloit, Wisconsin 53511.
Telephone: (608)-361-0311. Fax: (608)-361-0312.

Mentoring Moms, 101 South Main, Suite 300, Janesville, Wisconsin 53545.
Telephone: (608)-754-0197.

Exchange Family Resource Center, 203 South Main Street, Janesville, Wisconsin 53545. Telephone: (608)-314-9006. Fax: (608)-314-9009.

Family Resource Center, 811 East Geneva Street, Suite 105, Elkhorn, Wisconsin 53121. Telephone: (262)-743-1888.

United Way of Dane County, 2059 Atwood Avenue, P.O. Box 7548, Madison, Wisconsin 53707-7548. Telephone: (608)-246-4350. Fax: (608)-246-4349. TDD: (608)-246-4360, or e-mail: www.uwdc.org.

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Community Action Inc. of Rock and Walworth Counties, 2300 Kellogg Avenue, Janesville, Wisconsin 53546. Telephone: (608)-755-2470. Fax: (608)-755-2246.

Parents Without Partners. <http://www.parentswithoutpartners.org/>
7/28/02.

National Fatherhood Initiative. <http://www.fatherhood.org/default.asp>
7/28/02.

Teen Age Grief Inc. www.smartlink.net/~tag/ and The Mental Health Network.
www.cmhc.com. 7/28/02.

Grief Recovery On-Line. www.groww.com. 7/28/02.

Additional Web Sites:

www.counselingforloss.com. 7/28/02.

<http://kidsaid.com>. 7/28/02.

<http://griefnet.org>. 7/28/02.

<http://www.geocities.com/Heartland/Trail/5803/>. (A site for grieving teens).
7/28/02.

<http://www.bigteens.com/links/survivors.html>. (Teens helping teens). 7/28/02.

Compassion Connection. <http://www.compassionconnection.org>. 7/28/02.

<http://www.doorsofhope.com>. 7/28/02.

Fernside: A Center for Grieving Children, 2303 Indian Mound Avenue
Cincinnati, Ohio 45212. Telephone: (513)-841-1012. Contact us at: www.fernside.org.

Compassionate Friends Inc., National Headquarters, P.O. Box 3696
Oak Brook, Illinois 60522-3696. Our web address is: www.compassionatefriends.org.

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Center for Loss and Life Transition, 3735 Broken Bow Road, Fort Collins,
Colorado, 80526. Our web address is: www.centerforloss.com.

Margaret Ann's Place: A Center for Grieving Children, Teens, and Families, 7527
10th Avenue, Kenosha, Wisconsin 53143. Telephone: (262)-656-9656 or e-mail us at:
funnyham@execpc.com. Our web address is: <http://www.margaretannsplace.org>.

Children To Children: A non-profit support center for grieving children and
those who are a part of their lives. 3922 N. Mountain Avenue, Tucson, Arizona 85719-
1313. Telephone: (520)-322-9155. Fax: (520)-321-0831 or e-mail: c2c@azstarnet.com.

The Mourning Star Center, 45120 San Pablo Avenue, Suite 2-C, Palm Desert,
California 92260. Telephone: (760)-836-0360. Fax: (760)-836-0356.
www.mourningstar.org. (The Mourning Star Center is part of the Dougy Center's
national children's grief network. It provides free support to grieving children ages 3-19
and their families. It is a nonprofit organization that has been in existence since 1996).

The Dougy Center, P.O. Box 86852, Portland, Oregon 97286.
www.dougy.org

Living and Learning Through Loss. <http://www.livingthruloss.bc.ca/intro.htm>
Retrieved from the Internet on 7/28/02.

Kids In The Middle, Inc., 121 West Monroe, St. Louis, Missouri 63122
Telephone: (314)-909-9922. <http://www.kidsinthemiddle.org/about.htm>
Retrieved from the Internet on 7/29/02.

Children In The Middle. <http://www.divorce-education.com/CIM.html>
Retrieved from the Internet on 7/28/02.

Center For Divorce Education-Children In The Middle. Retrieved from the
Internet on 7/29/02. <http://www.divorce-education.com/links.html>.

Rainbows, 2100 Golf Road, #370, Rolling Meadows, Illinois 60008-4231
Telephone: (847)-952-1770. Fax: (847)-952-1774. Toll Free: 1-800-266-3206.
Rainbows Peer Support Group.
<http://www.rainbows.org/mission.html>
<http://www.rainbows.org/curricula1.html>

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The Sandcastles Program – Offered through Positive Alternatives, Inc.,
603 Terrill Road, Menomonie, Wisconsin 54751. Telephone: (715)-235-9552.
Fax: (715)-235-1075. Monday through Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
<http://www.sandcastlesprogram.com/index.html>
<http://www.sandcastlesprogram.com/about.html>
<http://www.sandcastlesprogram.com/workbooks.html>
<http://www.sandcastlesprogram.com/activities.html>
Retrieved from the Internet on 7/28/02.

Part B: Therapists

Wisconsin Association for Marriage and Family Therapy, 2408 North 67th Street
Wauwatosa, Wisconsin 53213-0526. Telephone: (414)-302-5988. Fax: (414)-453-0526.
www.relationshiphelp.org or e-mail: wamft@execpc.com.

The American Association for Marriage and Family Therapy, 112 South Alfred
Street, Alexandria, Virginia 22314. Telephone: (703)-838-9808. Fax: (703)-838-9805.
www.aamft.org or e-mail: MemberService@aamft.org.

American Counseling Association, 5999 Stevenson Avenue, Alexandria, Virginia
22304-3300. Telephone: (703)-823-9800 or Toll Free, 1-(800)-347-6647. Fax: (703)-
823-0252 or contact us at www.counseling.org

American Psychological Association, 750 First Street NE, Washington, D.C.

20002-4242. Telephone: (202)-336-5510 or Toll Free, 1-(800)-374-2721 or visit us at www.apa.org/psychnet. Referral Service: helping.apa.org/find.html.

International Association of Marriage and Family Counselors, Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi, College of Education, 6300 Ocean Drive, Corpus Christi, Texas 78402. Telephone: (361)-825-2307. www.iamfc.org.

Divorce Source: Wisconsin: Divorce Counseling: Choosing a Family Counselor/Therapist. <http://www.divorcesource.com/WI/info/coright.shtml>. Home page: www.divorcesource.com.

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Kathryn Hoehn Anderson, Ph.D. 2335 Trillium Drive, Eau Claire, Wisconsin, 54701. Telephone: (206)-685-7991. E-mail: anderske@uwec.edu. Office information: Omne Clinic, Inc., 221 West Madison Street, Eau Claire, Wisconsin 54703. Telephone: (715)-832-5454 or 1-(800)-847-2144. Twenty-four hour on-call phone with clinic emergency backup. Fax: (715)-832-5030. Hours are Monday and Wednesday evenings and Friday mornings.

Charles P. Barnard, Ed.D. Clinical Services Center, University of Wisconsin-Stout, Menomonie, Wisconsin 54751. Telephone: (715)-232-2404.

Jeffrey K. Buikema, Ph.D., LMFT. 3630 County Road #B, LaCrosse, Wisconsin 54601. Telephone: (608)-784-9645. E-mail: jbuik10281@aol.com.

Robert Daugherty, MFT. Relationships, Box 282, Burlington, Wisconsin 53105. Telephone: (262)-763-4603. E-mail: cabobmft@webtv.net. Office Information: Burlington 53105, appointments: Monday-Friday and Saturday, call (262)-763-4603 or New Life Resources, Waukesha, Wisconsin 53186. Appointments: Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, call (262)-782-1474. Joel G. Frank, 2534 W. Highland Blvd., Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53233. Telephone: (414)-933-0630. E-mail: Jfrank1010@aol.com.

Patricia M. Grace, M.S. 420 1st Avenue South, Wisconsin Rapids, Wisconsin 54495. Telephone: (715)-424-3400. E-mail: segein@charter.net. Office hours are Monday, Tuesday, and Thursday from 8:00 a.m. to 7:00 p.m., and Wednesday and Friday from 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.

Dick Inglett, S.T.M., 2116 Mineral Point Avenue, Janesville, Wisconsin 53545. Telephone: (608)-754-0261. E-mail: ringlett@prodigy.net. You will hear a voice say, Faith Lutheran Church, simply ask for Dick Inglett. I will give you directions when you call. We are located on the west side of Janesville. I am generally available Tuesdays through Saturday mornings for sessions.

Bruce P. Kuehl, Ph.D. Clinical Services Center, 221-C Vocational Rehabilitation Building, Menomonie, Wisconsin 54751. Telephone: (715)-232-2194. Call for additional information or an appointment.

Mary J. Lambrecht, 1466 Kenwood Center, Menasha, Wisconsin 54952. Telephone: (920)-720-8872. E-mail: lamb sail@aol.com. Office information: Monday through Thursday, 9:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m.

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James A. LeBlanc, M.S., LMFT, P.O. Box 894, Marinette, Wisconsin 54143-0894. Telephone: (715)-732-7790. Office Information: Marinette County Health and Human Services/ADAPT, Monday 12 Noon to 8:00 p.m. and Tuesday through Friday 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m. Emergencies can refer to the same phone number 24 hours a day, seven days a week.

Judith P. Lyons, M.S. 3308 Glacier Ridge Road, Middleton, Wisconsin 53562-1766. Telephone: (608)-833-3315. E-mail: jlyons@badgerinternet.com. Flexible daytime appointment hours are available. Some evening and Saturday hours are offered.

David D. Murry, M.S., CMFT 1750 West Pointe Drive., Oshkosh, Wisconsin 54902. Telephone: (920)-720-4150. E-mail: david.murry@thedacare.org. Office information: Monday, Thursday, Friday 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. and Tuesday and Wednesday from 11:00 a.m. to 8:00 p.m.

Marilyn K. Rhodes, M.S. 345 West Wisconsin Avenue, Oconomowoc, Wisconsin 53066. Telephone: (262)-542-3255. Office Information: I am available Wednesday through Saturday with day and some evening hours available. Our emergency phone number is (262)-789-1191.

Robert W. Marrs, M.S., CMFT 4260 Penn Court, Brookfield, Wisconsin 53005. Telephone: (262)-391-7800. E-mail: rwmarrs@aol.com. Office information: Monday through Saturday, with daytime and evening appointments available. Referrals can be made by calling American Behavioral Clinics at (414)-281-1677 or (262)-391-7800. Offices in Elm Grove, Greenfield, Wauwatosa, and Mequon, Wisconsin.

Lynn M. Schemenauer-Tahlier, M.S., CMFT 1222 Cardinal Crest Drive, Sun Prairie, Wisconsin 53590. Telephone: (608)-834-9481. E-mail: Tahlier@merr.com. Office Information: Orion Family Services, 6333 Odana Road, Madison, Wisconsin 53719. (608)-270-2511, extension 27.

Diana M. Stafford, M.S. 6445 County Highway T, Chippewa Falls, Wisconsin 54751. Telephone: (715)-874-6947 or contact us at www.horseshelp.com. Office Information: Flexible scheduling, including evenings and weekends.

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Margaret J. Tungseth, M.S.W., CICSW 1139 Sunnyslope Drive #100, Racine, Wisconsin 53406. Telephone: (262)-886-2550. Office Information: Therapy Associates, The Johnson-Tungseth Clinic, LLC., 1139 Sunnyslope Drive, Suite 100, Racine, Wisconsin 53406. (262)-886-2550.

Neil Wegmann, M.A., CMFT 5900 North Port Washington Road, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53217. Telephone: (414)-454-6512. E-mail: nwegmann@execpc.com. Office Information: Office hours Monday through Thursday.

John M. Williams, Ph.D. Department of Human Development, 129 Human Environment Science Building, Menomonie, Wisconsin 54751-0790. Telephone: (715)-232-1153. E-mail: williamsjo@uwstout.edu

Jill C. Zimmerman, Ph.D. 206 Walnut Street, Hudson, Wisconsin 54016. Telephone: (715)-386-9011. E-mail: docjill@hotmail.com. Office Information: Office hours are by appointment with days, evenings, and weekends available. In emergencies I can be reached at (612)-817-9663.

Part C: Books

Children's book list

Lansky, Vicki. (1998). It's not your fault, Koko Bear: A read-together book for parents and young children during divorce. Minnetonka, MN: Book Peddlers.

Spelman, Cornelia., & Parkinson, Kathy. (1998). Mama and daddy bears divorce. Morton Grove, IL: Albert Whitman & Company.

Goff, Beth. (1985). Where is daddy?: The story of a divorce. New York: Beacon Press.

Coleman, William L., (1998). What children need to know when parents get divorced. Minneapolis, MN: Bethany House.

Teyber, Edward. (2001). Helping children cope with divorce, revised and Updated edition. San Francisco: Josey-Bass.

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Children's picture books

Dragonwagon, Crescent. (1984). Always, always. New York: Atheneum.

Girard, Linda. (1987). At daddy's on Saturdays. Morton, IL: Albert Whitman & Company.

Lisker, Sonia O., (1976). Two special cards. Orlando, FL: Harcourt.

Mayle, Peter. (1980). Divorce can happen to the nicest people. Indianapolis, IN: MacMillan Publishing Company. (Video also available).

Noble, June. (1979). Two homes for Lynn. New York: Henry Holt & Company.

Pursell, Margaret. (1976). A look at divorce. Minneapolis, MN: Lerner Publications Company.

Rogers, Helen. (1975). Morris and his brave lion. Columbus, OH: McGraw-Hill.

Stein, Sara B., (1984). On divorce. New York: Walker & Company.

Stinson, Kathy. (1988). Mom and dad don't live together anymore. Westport, CT: Firefly Books.

Lindsey, Jeanne W., (2000). Do I have a daddy? Buena Park, CA: Morning Glory Press.

Sinberg, Janet. (1978). Divorce is a grown up problem: A book about divorce for young children and their parents. Clifton Bristol, United Kingdom: Avon Books.

Glass, Stuart. (1980). A divorce dictionary: A book for you and your children. New York: Little Brown & Company.

Young Adult Books

Brown, Laurence., Brown, Marc T., & Brown, Laurene K. (1988). Dinosaurs divorce: A guide for changing families. New York: Little Brown & Company.

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Coleman, William L. (1998). What children need to know when parents get divorced. Minneapolis, MN: Bethany House.

Trafford, Abigail. (1984). Crazy time: Surviving divorce. New York: Harper Collins Publishers.

Trafford, Abigail. (1993). Crazy time: Surviving divorce and building a new life. New York: Harper Perennial.

Wallerstein, Judith., & Kelly, Joan B. (1996). Surviving the breakup: How children and parents cope with divorce. New York: Basic Books.

Wallerstein, Judith., & Blakeslee, Sandra. (1996). Second chances: Men women, and children a decade after divorce. Boston: Mariner Books.

Schuller, Robert H., (1984). Tough times never last, but tough people do. New York: Bantam Books.

Walker, Glynnis. (1986). Solomon's children: Exploding the myths of divorce. Lanham, MD: Arbor House Publishing Company.

Ware, Oiji. (1984). Shared parenthood after divorce. New York: Bantam Books.

Adult Books

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