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**A STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF A SUPPORT GROUP FOR SINGLE  
CUSTODIAL FATHERS ON MEASURES OF DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT,  
LONELINESS AND SELF CONCEPT**

*The University of Oklahoma*

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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA  
GRADUATE COLLEGE

A STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF A SUPPORT GROUP FOR SINGLE  
CUSTODIAL FATHERS ON MEASURES OF DIVORCE  
ADJUSTMENT, LONELINESS AND SELF CONCEPT

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1982

A STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF A SUPPORT GROUP  
FOR SINGLE CUSTODIAL FATHERS ON MEASURES OF DIVORCE  
ADJUSTMENT, LONELINESS AND SELF CONCEPT

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	v
ABSTRACT . . . . .	1
INTRODUCTION . . . . .	3
METHOD . . . . .	8
RESULTS . . . . .	15
DISCUSSION . . . . .	18
REFERENCES . . . . .	26
APPENDIX A. PROSPECTUS . . . . .	46
APPENDIX B. CONSENT FORM . . . . .	90
APPENDIX C. FISHER DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT SCALE . . . . .	92
APPENDIX D. REVISED UCLA LONELINESS SCALE . . . . .	101
APPENDIX E. TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE . . . . .	103
APPENDIX F. INITIAL LETTER TO PROFESSIONALS . . . . .	112
APPENDIX G. SECOND LETTER TO PROFESSIONALS . . . . .	114
APPENDIX H. LETTER TO CHURCHES . . . . .	116
APPENDIX I. FEEDBACK TO PARTICIPANTS . . . . .	118
APPENDIX J. HANDOUTS USED IN THE GROUP . . . . .	126



LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
TABLE 1. MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE FDAS POSTTEST SCORES . . . . .	34
TABLE 2. MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE REVISED UCLA LONELINESS SCALE POSTTEST SCORES . . . . .	35
TABLE 3. MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE TSCS POSTTEST SCORES . . . . .	36
TABLE 4. GAIN SCORES FOR GROUP 2 ON THE FDAS, TSCS AND THE REVISED UCLA LONELINESS SCALE . . . . .	38
TABLE 5. GAIN SCORES FOR GROUP 3 ON THE FDAS, TSCS AND THE REVISED UCLA LONELINESS SCALE . . . . .	40
TABLE 6. MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE FDAS PRETEST SCORES . . . . .	42
TABLE 7. MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE REVISED UCLA LONELINESS SCALE PRETEST SCORES . . . . .	43
TABLE 8. MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE TSCS PRETEST SCORES . . . . .	44
TABLE 9. RESULTS OF THE MANCOVA FOR THE FDAS, TSCS AND REVISED UCLA LONELINESS SCALE FOR THOSE NEARING SIGNIFICANCE (0.20) . . . . .	45

## ABSTRACT

This study was designed to investigate the effects of a support group for single custodial fathers on measures of divorce adjustment, loneliness and self concept. The support group used a small group setting with a format of information giving and discussion. The instruments used were the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale, the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale, and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. A Solomon four group design was employed. The groups identified were (1) men who attended a six-week group and completed posttest questionnaires; (2) men who completed pretest questionnaires, attended a six-week group, and completed posttest questionnaires; (3) men who completed pretest and posttest questionnaires with no intervention; and (4) men who completed posttest questionnaires only. The hypotheses that there would be no significant differences between the pretest and posttest scores on the instruments and that there would be no significant differences among the four posttest groups were analyzed in various ways. A two way MANOVA was done to test for differences on posttest scores with a follow-up 2 x 2 ANOVA (pretest sensitization x Support group for each dependent variable). A dependent measures t-test was used to analyze gains from pretest to posttest on Groups 2 and 3 separately. A Hotelling's  $T^2$  was used on the pretest scores to test for any differences between Groups 2 and 3 with a one way MANCOVA run for any of those variables which showed some pretest differences. Twenty-seven depend-

ent variables were analyzed with 114 tests run. Twenty-one of these tests showed significance at the .05 level while one test was significant at less than the .0001 level. A brief description of each group session is given as well as a discussion of the significant results.

A STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF A SUPPORT GROUP FOR SINGLE CUSTODIAL FATHERS  
ON MEASURES OF DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT, LONELINESS AND SELF CONCEPT

Divorce has become a common phenomenon in our society. If present trends continue, 45% of all children born in 1978 will be living with a single parent for a period of their life before they reach the age of 18 (Greenberg, 1978). In 1975, 10% of these single parent families were headed by men (Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976; Woody, 1977) while mothers got 80% (Woody, 1977) to 90% (Roman & Haddad, 1978) of all custody settlements.

The Bureau of the Census (1979) indicated that an increasing percentage of these children will be living with their fathers as the single custodial parent. The number of single father families increased by 11.3% from 1960 to 1970 and by 60.9% from 1970 to 1978, while the number of children living in these homes increased by 2.9% from 1960 to 1970 and by 31.9% from 1970 to 1978. However, the number of children living in single father families due to divorce and father custody increased by 37.2% from 1960 to 1970 and by 135.6% from 1970 to 1978. Over 500,000 single fathers are raising almost 1,000,000 children.

As a result of these increases, there has been more interest in the area of single custodial fathers. There is relatively little information in this area and much more research still needs to be done. To add to the research, this study was designed to investigate the

effects of a support group for single custodial fathers on measurements of loneliness, divorce adjustment and self concept.

Child custody has not always been in such a state of flux as it is today. There have been periods of time when custody was almost certain to go to either the father or the mother. During the days of Roman supremacy, through the Middle Ages and feudalism, women and children were possessions of the man. Therefore, men received possession of the children if there was such a thing as marital separation (Foster & Freed, 1978; Roman & Haddad, 1978; Vail, 1979). English tradition also viewed the man as having a natural right to the children (Foster & Freed, 1978; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1978b).

The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries saw the evolution of the child being considered as a human being, greater importance placed on the family and parental responsibility, and the mother's role more defined in the child's development. Industrialization further divided parental roles with the woman's role defined as homemaker and supporter of the family (Roman & Haddad, 1978). "Maternal instinct" was conceptualized (Roman & Haddad, 1978; Vail, 1979) with Freudian theory reinforcing the importance of the mother's role (Roman & Haddad, 1978). This exaltation of the mother's role in child rearing brought a new era in custody decisions. In the early 1900's, custody began to be awarded to the mother, particularly for those children of "tender years." With the tender years doctrine, mothers had to be shown to be "unfit" in order to lose custody of their children (Foster & Freed, 1978; Roman & Haddad, 1978; Vail, 1979; Woody 1978b). More recently, the best interests of the child are being considered in awarding cus-

tody of the child to either the mother, the father, or both (Foster & Freed, 1978; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1978b).

In 1978 Foster & Freed made a survey of custody laws in the United States. In 14 states the tender years doctrine was "gospel," but subordinate to the best interests of the child; in 12 states the tender years doctrine was a "tie breaker" which gave custody to the mother if all other things were equal; in 22 states the tender years doctrine was rejected by statute or court decision in favor of the best interests of the child; in 3 states the tender years doctrine was of questionable status.

Several nationwide factors seem to have had an influence on custody decisions, particularly the women's movement, father advocacy and men's liberation groups, and no fault divorce legislation (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Foster & Freed, 1978; Gersick, 1975; Gersick, 1979; Jackson, 1979, Lewis, 1978; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976; Roman & Haddad, 1978; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981; Willison, 1979). Several states have passed uniform divorce and custody laws as well as stating specific areas to be considered in custody decisions. The psychological community, through the American Psychological Association, also passed a resolution giving support to fathers who are trying to get custody of their children (Salk, 1977).

Several suggested ways are available to give fathers a better chance for custody in the courtroom if it is in the best interests of the child (Bernstein, 1977; Howell, 1974; Johnson, 1979; Nadeau, Fagan, & Schuntermann, 1978; Salk, 1977; Stack, 1976; Woody, 1977) since there seems to be no intrinsic reason why men cannot be as nurturant as women

and provide the atmosphere conducive to a child's healthy development (Foster & Freed, 1978; Pitchford, 1978; Roman & Haddad, 1978; Watts v. Watts, 1973).

Single parents have many problems that do not arise in two-parent families (Burgess, 1970; Clayton, 1971; Dresen, 1976; Fisher, 1978; Greenberg, 1979; Jackson, 1979; Jauch, 1977; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978b; Loge, 1976; Monaghan-Leckband, 1978; Rawlings & Carter, 1979; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981; Smith, 1978; Todres, 1975). Although there are several areas of support available to single parents (Burgess, 1970; Clayton, 1971; Dresen, 1976; Gasser & Taylor, 1976; Greenberg, 1979; Jackson, 1979; Jauch, 1977; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Loge, 1976; Mendes, 1979; Patton, 1976; Rawlings & Carter, 1979; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980), there are still many areas in which single parents could use additional support services (Burgess, 1970; Jauch, 1977; Rawlings & Carter, 1979; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980; Smith, 1978; Todres, 1975). However, for those single parents who have adjusted to the divorce, there seems to be general satisfaction with their functioning (Barringer, 1973; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Lipton, 1979).

While many of the concerns and problems raised regarding single parenthood are pertinent to single fathers, several recent studies have focused on single fathers only. Several of these recent studies have examined the characteristics of single custodial fathers (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Gasser & Taylor, 1976; Gersick, 1975; Gersick, 1979; Greene, 1977; Hanson, 1980, Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978a; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978b; Mendes, 1975; Mendes, 1976a; Murch, 1973; Orthner, Brown &

Ferguson, 1976; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981; Santrock & Warshak, 1979; Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975). Other studies have indicated areas of concern that are common to many custodial fathers (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Gasser & Taylor, 1976; Greene, 1977; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978a; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978b; Mendes, 1976b; Murch, 1973; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981; Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975).

Services are available for single parents, but these services seem to be oriented toward women rather than all single parents. Since custodial fathers seem to have fewer resources than their female counterparts in the areas of family, peer, and community support, more support services need to be aware of the concerns of custodial fathers and offer services for them (Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981; Todres, 1975; Woody, 1978a).

The literature suggests that single parents have a difficult time adjusting to their new roles for various reasons, in particular, lack of community and personal support, lack of information, loneliness, and poor coping skills in an unfamiliar situation. Support groups designed specifically to help single parents adjust and cope with their problems have been offered in a variety of settings and formats (Fisher, 1978; Geffen, 1977; Green, 1981; Tedder, Libbee, & Scherman, 1981).

Although there are several ways to work with single parents, changing attitudes and positive results have been found especially in group sessions with specific programs and/or discussion (Geffen, 1977; Fisher, 1978; Hale, 1976; Larson, 1972). Participation in a group with individuals who are in a similar situation is an effective way to get support and learn to cope with problems that arise in that situation.



The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of a support group for single custodial fathers on measures of divorce adjustment, loneliness, and self concept. This was done within a small group setting with a format of information giving and discussion.

This study researched the hypotheses that, as a result of participation in a support group for single custodial fathers, (1) there will be no significant differences between pretest and posttest scores on measures of divorce adjustment, loneliness, and self concept, and (2) there will be no significant differences among the four posttest groups on measures of divorce adjustment, loneliness, and self concept.

### Method

#### Subjects

Thirty-six men who had legal or factual custody of one or more minor children were participants in the study.

The names of men fitting the criteria were obtained from various sources: letters sent to the churches, daycare centers, local judges, pediatricians, and family doctors; single groups; workers in community agencies; friends; and other professionals.

From the pool of names generated from these sources, four groups were formed. Group 1 consisted of nine men who had attended prior single father groups who volunteered to complete the questionnaires. Group 2 was comprised of nine men who participated in a six week group for custodial fathers, completing pretest and posttest questionnaires. Nine men completed the questionnaires on two separate occasions to form Group 3, and nine men completed the questionnaires one time to form Group 4.

## Instruments

Three instruments were used for the current study. The Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS), the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale (UCLA), and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS).

The Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS) is comprised of 100 short statements answered on a five point scale from (1) almost always to (5) almost never. The scale includes six subtests: Feelings of Self Worth (FSW), Disentanglement from the Love Relationship (DLR), Feelings of Anger (FOA), Symptoms of Grief (SOG), Rebuilding Social Trust (RST), and Social Self Worth (SSW). These six subtest scores can be added together to obtain a Total score (TOTAL). Internal reliability on the subtests and total score range from .87 to .98 (Fisher, 1978). The most common use of the test is as a pretest/posttest measure with intermediate intervention (Fisher, 1981).

The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale (UCLA) consists of twenty self statements which are rated on a scale from (1) never to (4) often, indicating how often the individual feels the way described in the statement. Half of the statements are worded in a positive manner and half are worded in a negative manner in an attempt to eliminate systematic response bias. All statements used in the scale had at least a .40 correlation with a self labeling index of loneliness. Internal consistency has an alpha coefficient of .94. Concurrent validity, assessed by comparing loneliness scores to measures of emotional states, social activities, and relationships had correlations from .28 to .62 (Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980; Russell, Peplau, & Ferguson, 1978).

The Clinical and Research form of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale

(TSCS) consists of 100 self description items: 90 items assess the self concept while 10 items assess self criticism (lie scale items). For each item, the person responds on a (1) completely false to (5) completely true scale. Test-retest reliability coefficients for the various profile segments fall mostly in the .80 to .90 range with the lowest coefficient being .60. Subtests have been correlated with measures such as the MMPI, Taylor Anxiety Scale, and the Cornell Medical Index, with correlations from .50 to .70 (Buros, 1978; Fitts, 1965).

This form of the instrument includes 29 profiled scales, 18 of which were used for the present research. The scales used include the self-criticism (lie) score (SC); nine self esteem scores which assess the individual's perception of his identity (R1), self satisfaction (R2), behavior (R3), physical self (C1), moral-ethical self (C2), personal self (C3), family self (C4), social self (C5), and a total of these scores (TOT P); a total conflict score (CONFL); a total variability of response score (TOT V); and six empirical scales which include positive defensiveness (DP), general maladjustment (GM), psychosis (PSY), personality disorder (PD), neurosis (N), and personality integration (PI).

#### Procedure

Each custodial father, when first contacted by the researcher by telephone or in person, was told the purpose of the group and given a description of previous groups. Each man was also given an opportunity to arrange an individual meeting with the researcher prior to the first group meeting if he desired to obtain further information. The three questionnaires were sent to all participants after the initial contact

and were returned to the experimenter at the first group meeting or by mail.

The men in the experimental group (Group 2) attended at least four of the six group sessions which were held once a week for six consecutive weeks. The sessions were approximately one and one-half hours long. Babysitting was provided for the participants at the meeting place for the duration of the meeting.

There were three co-facilitators for each meeting: two women and one man. The meetings generally consisted of two parts: information giving by the co-facilitators and a discussion of the topic for the evening by the participants. The time for each part varied according to the topic for the evening.

Following is a brief description of the topics for each session:

#### Session 1: Introduction

The purpose of the group was once again discussed and guidelines for the group were discussed. These guidelines included such things as confidentiality, format for the group, time and duration of the sessions, and the roles and responsibilities of the facilitators and participants.

As an icebreaker, each person, beginning with the co-facilitators, introduced themselves as one of their children might introduce them. This seemed to reinforce the idea that all present were parents and give a different perspective for the participants than if each had introduced himself or herself in the normal fashion.

The remainder of the first session was used to generate ideas for the remaining five sessions. Several topics were suggested and five

areas were chosen by the participants. These were parenting, communication, the normal child and his/her reactions to divorce, relationships, and time management.

The session concluded with the distribution of a bibliography which included books on divorce for adults and children.

#### Session 2: Parenting

Three areas were covered during this session: the goals of misbehavior, the differentiation between the "good" parent and the "responsible" parent, and guilt as an issue for parents. Information about the goals of misbehavior and the "good" vs. "responsible" parent were taken from the program for Systematic Training in Effective Parenting (STEP) by Dinkmeyer (1976). Guilt as an issue for parents was an open discussion among the participants about how parents let themselves feel guilty and some ways the participants used to overcome these guilt feelings.

#### Session 3: Communication

Dinkmeyer's STEP program (1976) was used again as the basis for information on communicating with children. The four areas covered during this session were listening to your child through reflective listening, communicating with "I-messages" rather than blaming, helping children explore alternatives, and developing responsibility on the part of the children through natural and logical consequences.

#### Session 4: The Normal Child and His/Her Reactions to Divorce

Based on the research of Kelly and Wallerstein (1976) and Wallerstein and Kelly (1974, 1975, 1976, 1977), four age groups were identified: preschool (ages 2½ to 6), early latency (ages 7 to 8), later

latency (ages 9 to 12), and adolescence (ages 13 to 18). Within these age categories, the effects of divorce on children were examined in the areas of (1) their feelings, (2) how they express their feelings, (3) the coping mechanisms they use, (4) their school achievement (where appropriate), (5) how they perceive the reason for the divorce, (6) the cognitive perceptions they have about the divorce, (7) the frequency of visitation by the non-custodial parent, and (8) the status of the children one year following the divorce.

Discussion followed where the men shared their own experiences, how they handled the reactions of their children to the divorce, and compared their experiences with the patterns described.

#### Session 5: Relationships

After a brainstorming session, the co-facilitators generated a list of different relationships people experience. The relationships could be classified into five broad categories: relationships with (1) their children, (2) family members, (3) ex-family members, (4) friends, and (5) persons in the community. This session was a discussion session by the participants which centered around how these relationships were before the divorce, how they were after the divorce, how they changed, why they changed, and what reactions they received from others being a male custodial parent.

#### Session 6: Time Management and Babysitting

This final session was devoted to time management - how to get everything done that needs to be done; spending quality time with the children - what quality time meant to each participant and how he managed to have this time; and daycare and babysitting services and needs -

how each man coped and what arrangements each had made.

At the end of the session, there was a summary by the co-facilitators of what had happened in the group. Comments and suggestions were requested from the participants. As each man left the final session, a second questionnaire packet was given to him to be completed and mailed back to the researcher.

Nine of the men who had previously completed questionnaires were requested to complete a second set of questionnaires. This was done six to eight weeks following the completion of the first set of questionnaires. These men comprised Group 3. The remaining nine men who completed only the initial set of questionnaires made up Group 4.

Each man was sent feedback on the questionnaires with his individual scores along with the mean scores of the group of which he was a member.

### Design

This study used the Solomon four group experimental design.

Group	Pretest	Group (6-week)	Posttest
1		X	X
2	X	X	X
3	X		X
4			X

The independent variable is participation (present or not present) in a support group for single custodial fathers. A blocking variable is sensitization through the administration or exclusion of a pretest.

The dependent variables are divorce adjustment as measured on seven scales of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS), loneliness as measured on two scales of the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale (UCLA), and

self concept as measured on 18 scales of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS). There were nine participants in each group.

### Results

Taking into consideration that there may be correlations among the dependent measures, a two way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was employed to test for any differences on the four posttest groups on 27 dependent variables. A follow-up 2 x 2 analysis of variance (Pretest sensitization x Support group) was done for each dependent variable.

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Insert Tables 1, 2, and 3

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The results of the analyses, including the means and standard deviations for each group, are shown in Tables 1, 2, and 3. There were no significant differences at the .05 level found on the posttest scores between the means of those participants who attended a group for custodial fathers and those who did not attend the group.

The results of the ANOVA showed no significant results on the group dimension and no significant interactions between the pretest and the group. However, the results of the ANOVA showed eight variables to be significantly affected (at the .05 level) by the administration of the pretest. The pretests seemed to sensitize participants in the areas of (1) the Total Conflict scale (CONFL) and (2) the Neurosis scale (N) on the TSCS; (3) the Feelings of Self Worth scale (FSW), (4) the Disentanglement from the Love Relationship scale (DLR), (5) the



Symptoms of Grief scale (SOG), (6) the Social Self Worth scale (SSW), and (7) the Total scale (TOTAL) on the FDAS; and (8) the 20-item Loneliness scale. All were affected in a desirable direction except the neurosis scale on the TSCS.

A dependent measures t-test was used to analyze the gains from pretest to posttest on Groups 2 and 3 separately. Group 2 participants were members of the group for custodial fathers while Group 3 participants had no formal intervention between the pretest and the posttest.

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Insert Table 4

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The results of the dependent measures t-test for Group 2 are summarized in Table 4. At the .05 level, ten variables were shown to have a significant gain. The variables that changed significantly in the group with the intervention on the FDAS were (1) Feelings of Self Worth (FSW), (2) Disentanglement from the Love Relationship (DLR), and (3) Feelings of Anger (FOA); those that changed significantly on the TSCS were (4) the Total Positive scale (TOT P), (5) the Self Satisfaction scale (R2), (6) the Physical Self scale (C1), (7) the Moral-Ethical scale (C2), (8) the Social Self scale (C5), (9) the Total Variability score (TOT V), and (10) the Defensive Positive scale (DP). No items changed significantly on the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale. All ten scores were affected in a desirable direction.

---

Insert Table 5

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The results of the dependent measures t-test for Group 3 are summarized in Table 5. Participants in Group 3, who did not have the group intervention, showed only two scores with significant change at the .05 level. The variables that changed significantly were Feelings of Self Worth (FSW) on the FDAS and the Personality Disorder scale (PD) on the TSCS.

A Hotelling's  $T^2$  was used on the pretest scores to test for any differences between Groups 2 and 3.

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Insert Tables 6, 7, and 8

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The results of the analyses are summarized in Tables 6, 7, and 8. One variable, the Personality Disorder scale (PD) on the TSCS, was highly significant ( $p < .0001$ ). The Group 2 participants who attended the group gave a greater number of responses which indicated personality weaknesses than did the Group 3 participants who just completed the questionnaires.

Because the Hotelling's  $T^2$  showed some initial differences between groups (.20 level) on some of the variables, a one way multivariate analysis of covariance was done on the posttest scores of these variables for Groups 2 and 3.

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Insert Table 9

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The results of this analysis are shown in Table 9. Only one variable was significant at the .05 level. On the TSCS, scale C5, the men

participating in the group for custodial fathers showed a greater sense of adequacy and worth in social interactions than did those men who did not participate in the group.

In all, 114 tests were run on the variables with 22 of the tests indicating significant results. Twenty-one of these tests were significant at the .05 level while one test was significant at less than the .0001 level.

### Discussion

Although the results of the analyses showed several areas of significance, certain areas showed few or no significant results at the .05 level. The two way MANOVA showed no significant differences among the groups across the 27 variables. The results of the ANOVA should be interpreted with caution due to the nonsignificance of the MANOVA. The administration of a pretest showed significant results in eight areas on the two way ANOVA. All areas were affected in a desirable direction except the Neurosis scale on the TSCS. There were no significant results on the two way ANOVA from the dimension of group vs. no group participation and no significant interaction effects between the administration or lack of administration of a pretest and the group dimension.

On the TSCS, there was a reduction in the Conflict scale which indicates less confusion and contradiction within areas of self perception. The men did not seem to be accentuating either their positive or negative features, but a balance between the two. However, the participants showed a greater number of responses similar to those of neu-

rotic patients on whom the particular subtest of the scale was normed.

On the FDAS, all significant scores were in a desirable direction indicating greater adjustment to the ending of the love relationship. In particular, participants indicated greater feelings of self worth (FSW), more emotional disentanglement or separation from the former love partner (DLR), greater completion of the grieving process associated with the loss (SOG), greater feelings of self worth in the social area (SSW), and greater overall adjustment to the ending of the love relationship (TOTAL).

On the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale, the participants administered both a pretest and a posttest reported significantly fewer feelings of loneliness than did those participants not administered a pretest.

These results could indicate that the men actually improved in these areas, that they were more sensitive to the questions asked in the areas of significance. They may have been made aware of certain areas through the pretest, thought about them, done some work in those areas during the interval between administration of the pretest and posttest, and answered the questions differently on the posttest. The participants might also have become more sensitive to questions in certain areas and answered in a somewhat more defensive manner, either consciously or unconsciously. This is supported to a degree by an upward trend on the defensive positive score on the TSCS which is seen as a subtle measure of defensiveness.

When pretest scores were compared using the Hotelling's  $T^2$ , only one score was shown to be significant. The Personality Disorder scale (PD) on the TSCS was highly significant ( $p < .0001$ ). The Group 2 parti-

Participants attending the group for custodial fathers indicated a greater awareness of need than did those participants in Group 3 who did not attend the group. The Group 2 participants may have actually needed more help than those men who did not attend the group, or they may just have been more willing to acknowledge their weaker areas and their need for support and willingness to accept this support. The fact that each of these men actually attended the group for several sessions indicated a desire for help, support, or discussion of areas that were of concern to them. Although the differences were not significant on the pretest, the Group 3 participants responded in a way that indicated somewhat better self concept and overall divorce adjustment than did the Group 2 participants. However, Group 2 participants scored higher on the dimension of rebuilding social trust on the FDAS than did the men in Group 3. The men who participated in the group may have been more willing to trust others and take some of the risks that go along with the group participation than those men who did not participate in the group at that time.

When the t-test for dependent measures was used to analyze the gains from the pretest scores to posttest scores for those men who attended the group (Group 2), ten variables were found to have changed significantly at the .05 level and in a desirable direction.

On the FDAS the participants indicated greater feelings of self worth (FSW), more separation from their former love partner (DLR), and fewer feelings of anger toward their former love partner (FOA). All of these are considered positive aspects in the divorce adjustment process.

On the TSCS, these participants indicated more positive feelings

about themselves, in their value and worth as individuals, and their confidence in themselves (TOT P). The row scores are self descriptions from an internal frame of reference. These participants indicated from the increase in row 2 scores (R2) that they are more self satisfied and accept themselves more than they did when they took the pretest. The column scores represent self descriptions from an external frame of reference. The participants described themselves as having a more positive view in the areas of their physical appearance, health, and sexuality (C1); their moral worth, feelings of being "good" or "bad," and satisfaction with their religion or lack of it (C2); and their sense of adequacy and worth in social interactions (C5). The participants had less variability in their answers from one subscale to the other which indicates greater integration of their perception of themselves. Finally, their Defensive Positive score (DP), which is a subtle measure of defensiveness, changed in the direction of more positive self descriptions indicating an increase in defensiveness. The scores on this variable are within the expected range, and the mean on the posttest scores is slightly higher than on a normative group of persons who were felt to have high personality integration.

The individuals who attended the group once again seemed to acknowledge that they were in some sort of pain or need, and the group participation helped to fulfill that need. The changes in their responses indicated that the group had a positive impact for them. They might have felt a need to feel better and to respond differently on the posttest due to the investment they had made in the group. They may also have made some individual progress in areas and learned to cope better

with feelings, ideas, and situations.

In contrast, the t-test for dependent measures for Group 3, those men who did not participate in the group, showed only two areas with significant changes. On the FDAS, participants reported greater feelings of self worth (FSW) on the posttest measure than on the pretest measure. The overall gain was not as great as the gain in Group 2, but the overall mean was higher. On the TSCS, the participants had a greater number of responses similar to those of persons identified as having personality disorders (PD). This category on this test describes people who have basic personality weaknesses in contrast to psychotic states or neurotic reactions.

It is interesting to note that the Personality Disorder scale (PD) was the one area identified as being significantly different between Groups 2 and 3 on the pretest measures. The scores in this area changed in a desirable direction, though not significantly, for those men who attended the group but changed significantly in a less desirable direction for those individuals who did not attend the group. The men who attended the group may have been aware of weak areas and had some support in these areas during the group sessions, while the men who did not attend the group became more aware of areas in which they could use additional support.

The results of the t-test for dependent measures indicates that the scores of those men who participated in the group for custodial fathers had a greater number of desirable, significant changes than did those men who did not participate in the group.

In general, the men who attended the group for custodial fathers

indicated a desire for support and discussion and a willingness to share this desire with others. They attended a group with other men in a similar situation and seemed to benefit from the interaction in areas of divorce adjustment and self concept. The administration of a pretest seemed to sensitize both men who attended the group and those who did not attend the group to certain areas of concern. The results of the analyses indicate that those men who attended the group made more changes in a desirable direction than did those who did not attend the group.

The multivariate analysis of covariance was run on six variables that showed some initial differences between groups at the .20 level on Hotelling's  $T^2$ . The MANCOVA on the posttest scores holding the pretest scores constant showed C5 on the TSCS to be significant at the .05 level. Therefore, when the differences in pretest scores were held constant, the men who participated in the group showed a greater sense of adequacy and worth in social interactions than did those men who did not participate in the group. The fact that they could interact within the group may have given them the opportunity to develop confidence in interacting with others. Learning to interact with others, in general, is one of the main purposes for participation in a group. Therefore, the group seemed to serve as a valuable vehicle for the further development of some of the skills and confidence needed in social interactions.

There are many limitations inherent in a study such as this. No two groups were alike; the content differed based on the needs of the men in each group. No two men who were part of the study were exactly alike. The time of divorce or separation from their former spouse



ranged from a period of a few months to over ten years. Some men initiated the separation while others were left by their former spouse. Some had the children thrust upon them because their former spouse did not want them; others received custody through lengthy court battles. The number of children being reared in the homes ranged from one to four with the ages of the children ranging from one year to upper teens. At least one man began raising his child by himself as his child was released from the hospital after birth, while others began sole parenthood during their children's teenage years. The ages of the men in the study ranged from the early twenties to the fifties. Occupations of the participants ranged from students to college professors and laborers to executives. Therefore, time, money, and resources varied from one individual to another. The commonality among all of the men, which enabled the groups to be very cohesive, was the fact that they were all in a similar situation: they were all raising their children as a single parent. This common bond seemed to make their vast differences unimportant.

Over the course of the study, there were several things that might have influenced the results in addition to the variables for which the study was controlled. Any of the above mentioned variables might have influenced the results as well as the amount and quality of the contacts with the former spouse, relationships with others which were formed or broken, the present stage of each person in the process of adjusting to the divorce, changes in employment, and the length of time required by the men to complete and return the questionnaires. Future research concerning single custodial fathers might consider controlling

for any of these variables.

The results of this study should be considered with some caution due to the large number of variables analyzed and the small cell size. There may be a large amount of Type I error showing false significant results. Despite these limitations, the group seemed to be a beneficial experience for the participants. Not only did a greater number of their scores change in a desirable direction than those men who did not participate in a group, but they indicated, informally, that the group had been a positive experience for them. This research indicates some general areas that might be further explored and some possible trends to consider in future research with single custodial fathers in the areas of divorce adjustment, loneliness, and self concept.

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Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for the FDAS Posttest Scores

	FSW*	DLR*	FOA	SOG*	RST	SSW*	TOTAL*
<b>Group 1</b>							
Mean	95.78	93.33	47.33	95.22	30.89	32.22	395.78
S.D.	21.29	10.11	8.87	14.39	7.44	7.51	56.67
<b>Group 2</b>							
Mean	105.00	99.33	52.44	103.67	32.56	37.11	430.11
S.D.	16.93	13.06	9.15	13.02	4.64	3.86	51.57
<b>Group 3</b>							
Mean	110.67	102.11	49.22	110.44	30.11	40.44	443.00
S.D.	8.59	4.28	12.84	6.46	4.01	2.74	21.23
<b>Group 4</b>							
Mean	95.00	88.89	47.33	102.00	31.56	34.89	399.67
S.D.	16.85	19.03	8.03	11.41	4.69	5.69	44.45

\*denotes significant results

Note. See page 9 for the meanings of the headings

Table 2  
Means and Standard Deviations for the Revised  
UCLA Loneliness Scale Posttest Scores

	20 Item scale*	4 Item scale
Group 1		
Mean	49.11	8.89
S.D.	14.67	3.14
Group 2.		
Mean	38.67	8.00
S.D.	10.85	2.06
Group 3		
Mean	35.67	7.22
S.D.	6.75	2.11
Group 4		
Mean	43.33	8.89
S.D.	10.15	2.20

\*denotes significant results

**Table 3**  
**Means and Standard Deviations for the TSCS Posttest Scores**

	SC	CONFL*	TOT P	R1	R2	R3	C1	C2	C3
<b>Group 1</b>									
Mean	32.00	28.11	354.45	123.78	110.00	120.78	68.67	74.11	69.44
S.D.	5.05	7.24	46.38	13.68	21.32	13.45	10.97	7.51	11.90
<b>Group 2</b>									
Mean	32.67	22.56	360.11	127.78	114.33	118.00	72.00	73.67	71.78
S.D.	3.16	6.65	31.74	8.84	14.00	10.04	8.60	5.74	8.90
<b>Group 3</b>									
Mean	35.22	24.11	361.67	128.11	115.56	118.00	70.33	72.44	73.11
S.D.	5.63	6.57	30.70	12.31	13.01	10.69	6.86	8.17	5.09
<b>Group 4</b>									
Mean	35.33	29.67	337.89	122.11	105.11	110.67	69.22	70.00	67.56
S.D.	6.22	9.66	45.12	11.81	20.53	14.34	9.54	10.58	7.81

\*denotes significant results

Note. See page 10 for the meanings of the headings

Table 3 -- continued

Means and Standard Deviations for the TSCS Posttest Scores

	C4	C5	TOT V	DP	GM	PSY	PD	N*	PI
<b>Group 1</b>									
Mean	72.89	69.44	38.67	57.22	64.44	70.67	54.22	61.44	7.33
S.D.	6.77	12.69	9.17	13.58	6.98	9.54	5.63	3.61	2.12
<b>Group 2</b>									
Mean	72.78	69.89	33.00	61.22	67.67	69.56	57.78	66.22	7.78
S.D.	7.43	7.98	10.62	6.34	4.42	5.90	4.06	3.19	2.95
<b>Group 3</b>									
Mean	73.78	72.00	36.11	59.11	64.89	68.78	54.78	65.00	7.89
S.D.	6.26	7.16	7.56	5.64	5.99	5.95	4.58	4.85	2.26
<b>Group 4</b>									
Mean	68.89	62.22	40.56	51.89	66.89	68.11	54.33	61.44	7.00
S.D.	9.48	11.13	10.44	7.42	3.92	5.75	5.10	6.54	2.35

\*denotes significant results

Note. See page 10 for the meanings of the headings

Table 4  
Gain Scores for Group 2 on the FDAS, TSCS and  
the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale

		Mean Pre	Mean Post	Change	Std. error of Mean	t-value
FDAS	FSW	99.56	105.00	5.44	2.23	2.44*
	DLR	94.11	99.33	5.22	1.80	2.90*
	FOA	46.56	52.44	5.89	1.67	3.53*
	SOG	99.44	103.67	4.22	3.42	1.23
	RST	31.11	32.56	1.44	1.27	1.13
	SSW	36.44	37.11	0.67	1.11	0.60
	TOTAL	407.22	430.11	22.89	10.57	2.17
TSCS	SC	33.89	32.67	-1.22	1.04	1.17
	CONFL	24.22	22.56	-1.67	2.37	0.70
	TOT P	341.56	360.11	18.56	6.78	2.74*
	R1	122.00	127.78	5.78	2.56	2.26
	R2	105.67	114.33	8.67	2.88	3.01*
	R3	113.89	118.00	4.11	2.52	1.63
	C1	67.67	72.00	4.33	1.83	2.37*
	C2	69.89	73.67	3.78	1.61	2.35*
	C3	68.67	71.78	3.11	1.84	1.69
	C4	70.22	72.78	2.56	1.69	1.51
C5	65.11	69.89	4.78	1.04	4.60*	

Table 4 -- continued  
 Gain Scores for Group 2 on the FDAS, TSCS and  
 the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale

	Mean Pre	Mean Post	Change	Std. error of Mean	t-value
TOT V	38.67	33.00	-5.67	1.46	3.88*
DP	54.33	61.22	6.89	2.69	2.56*
GM	67.22	67.67	0.44	1.86	0.24
PSY	67.67	69.56	1.89	2.06	0.92
PD	59.11	57.78	-1.33	1.57	0.85
N	65.56	66.22	0.67	1.43	0.47
PI	8.33	7.78	-0.56	0.71	0.79
UCLA 20-item	41.11	38.67	-2.44	1.93	1.26
4-item	8.89	8.00	-0.89	0.51	1.73

df = 8

$t_{.05,8} = 2.306$

\*denotes significant results

Note. See pages 9 and 10 for the meanings of the headings



Table 5  
Gain Scores for Group 3 on the FDAS, TSCS and  
the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale

		Mean Pre	Mean Post	Change	Std. error of mean	t-value
FDAS	FSW	106.67	110.67	4.00	1.58	2.53*
	DLR	95.11	102.11	7.00	4.81	1.46
	FOA	46.67	49.22	2.56	1.43	1.79
	SOG	105.22	110.44	5.22	2.74	1.91
	RST	29.33	30.11	0.78	1.23	0.63
	SSW	38.00	40.44	2.44	1.38	1.77
	TOTAL	421.00	443.00	22.00	10.41	2.11
TSCS	SC	35.33	35.22	-0.11	1.22	0.09
	CONFL	26.44	24.11	-2.33	2.40	0.97
	TOT P	362.89	361.67	-1.22	6.08	0.20
	R1	127.89	128.11	0.22	1.97	0.11
	R2	116.00	115.56	-0.44	2.26	0.19
	R3	119.00	118.00	-1.00	2.94	0.34
	C1	70.56	70.33	-0.22	1.26	0.17
	C2	73.44	72.44	-1.00	1.98	0.51
	C3	72.22	73.11	0.89	1.46	0.61
	C4	74.44	73.78	-0.67	1.36	0.49
C5	72.22	72.00	-0.22	1.09	0.20	

Table 5 -- continued  
 Gain Scores for Group 3 on the FDAS, TSCS and  
 the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale

	Mean Pre	Mean Post	Change	Std. error of Mean	t-value
TOT V	39.00	36.11	-2.89	2.95	0.98
DP	59.67	59.11	-0.56	1.98	0.28
GM	65.89	64.89	-1.00	0.91	1.10
PSY	71.56	68.78	-2.78	2.33	1.19
PD	51.89	54.78	2.89	0.95	3.04*
N	64.56	65.00	0.44	0.88	0.50
PI	7.00	7.89	0.89	0.75	1.19
UCLA 20-item	40.44	35.67	-4.78	3.61	1.32
4-item	8.67	7.22	-1.44	0.80	1.80

df = 8

$t_{.05,8} = 2.306$

\*denotes significant results

Note. See pages 9 and 10 for the meanings of the headings

**Table 6**  
**Means and Standard Deviations for the FDAS Pretest Scores**

	FSW	DLR	FOA	SOG	RST	SSW	TOTAL
<b>Group 2</b>							
Mean	99.56	94.11	46.56	99.44	31.11	36.44	407.22
S.D.	18.17	13.63	11.19	16.32	3.98	3.78	59.29
<b>Group 3</b>							
Mean	106.67	95.11	46.67	105.22	29.33	38.00	421.00
S.D.	7.87	14.82	13.29	12.75	4.27	4.61	45.63

Note. See page 9 for the meanings of the headings

Table 7  
Means and Standard Deviations for the Revised  
UCLA Loneliness Scale Pretest Scores

	20 Item scale	4 Item scale
Group 2		
Mean	41.11	8.89
S.D.	10.73	2.52
Group 3		
Mean	40.44	8.67
S.D.	10.81	2.55

**Table 8**  
**Means and Standard Deviation for the TSCS Pretest Scores**

	SC	CONFL	TOT P	R1	R2	R3	C1	C2	C3
<b>Group 2</b>									
Mean	33.89	24.22	341.56	122.00	105.67	113.89	67.67	69.89	68.67
S.D.	5.23	7.31	35.41	11.01	14.47	12.03	9.71	7.30	9.53
<b>Group 3</b>									
Mean	35.33	26.44	362.89	127.89	116.00	119.00	70.56	73.44	72.22
S.D.	5.36	4.59	30.51	9.82	13.42	10.63	7.02	10.43	5.70
	C4	C5	TOT V	DP	GM	PSY	PD*	N	PI
<b>Group 2</b>									
Mean	70.22	65.11	38.67	54.33	67.22	67.67	59.11	65.56	8.33
S.D.	7.74	7.69	9.38	8.27	6.51	7.09	3.14	4.64	2.96
<b>Group 3</b>									
Mean	74.44	72.22	39.00	59.67	65.89	71.56	51.89	64.56	7.00
S.D.	5.70	7.03	8.56	7.94	6.97	6.31	3.02	3.88	2.35

\*denotes significant results

Note. See page 10 for meanings of the headings

Table 9  
 Results of the MANCOVA for the FDAS, TSCS and  
 Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale for those  
 Measures Nearing Significance (0.20)

	Group 2 Adjusted Mean	Group 3 Adjusted Mean	Mean Square	F-value	PR F
TOT P	368.38	353.40	904.55	2.66	0.1235
R2	118.54	111.35	201.42	3.52	0.0802
C4	74.43	72.13	21.38	1.05	0.3210
C5	73.21	68.68	73.45	6.91	0.0190*
DP	62.27	58.07	70.88	2.56	0.1301
PD	55.30	57.25	6.71	0.44	0.5163

\*denotes significant results

Note. See page 10 for the meanings of the headings

APPENDIX A

PROSPECTUS

A STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF A SUPPORT GROUP FOR SINGLE CUSTODIAL FATHERS  
ON MEASURES OF DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT, LONELINESS AND SELF CONCEPT

Divorce is becoming a common phenomenon in our society. If present circumstances continue, 45% of all children born in 1978 will be living with a single parent for a period of their life before they reach the age of 18 (Greenberg, 1978). An increasing percentage of these children will be living with their fathers as the single custodial parent. In 1975, 10% of all single parent families were headed by men (Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976; Woody, 1977b) while mothers got 80% (Woody, 1977b) to 90% (Roman & Haddad, 1978) of all custody settlements. P. Clint Jones, an authoritative source, examined over 14,000 cases and found that the father was awarded custody of 7% of the male children and 6% of all female children. He concludes that there is no credence to an observable trend toward increasing father custody among many lawyers and professionals. The number of children in single father families increased 48% from 1960 to 1970 (Mendes, 1976), 70% from 1964 to 1974 (Roman & Haddad, 1978), and 80% from 1965 to 1976 (Bartz & Witcher, 1978). In 1974, according to the U. S. Census Bureau, 1.5 million families were headed by single fathers (Roman & Haddad, 1978). Mendes (1976) indicated that, according to the 1970 census, over 500,000 fathers are raising, by themselves, over 1,300,000 children.

There are contradictions in the statistics, however. The most re-



cent report from the Bureau of the Census (1979) indicates that over 500,000 fathers are raising almost 1,000,000 children. The number of single father families increased by 11.3% from 1960 to 1970 and by 60.9% from 1970 to 1978, while the number of children living in these homes increased by 2.9% from 1960 to 1970 and by 31.9% from 1970 to 1978. However, the number of children living in single father families due to divorce and father custody increased by 37.2% from 1960 to 1970 and by 135.6% from 1970 to 1978. These contradictions in statistics seem to reflect some of the confusion and misinformation surrounding custody and single custodial fathers.

Because of these contradictions, the recent interest in the area of single custodial fathers, and the relatively little information in the area, much research still needs to be done.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of a support group for single custodial fathers on measurements of loneliness, divorce adjustment and self concept.

### The History of Child Custody

Child custody has not always been in such a state of unrest as it is today. During the past several centuries there have been periods of time when custody was almost certain to go to either the father or mother. During the days of Roman supremacy, through the Middle Ages and feudalism, the mothers had no rights, only duties. The women and children were possessions of the man, therefore, men received possession of the children if there was such a thing as marital separation. (Foster & Freed, 1978; Roman & Haddad, 1978; Vail, 1979).

English tradition also viewed the man as having a natural right to the children. The mother was entitled only to reverence and respect (Foster & Freed, 1978; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1978b).

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the child began to be viewed as an evolving human being. The importance of the family was emerging with a growing sense of parental responsibility. The conjugal family unit was becoming more important. The nineteenth century brought more awareness of the importance of the family with the mother seen as having a definite role in the child's development. She was beginning to receive more prestige and status in her role as mother. (Roman & Haddad, 1978).

Industrialization divided the labor force between men and women. The roles were more clearly identified with the man's role as the worker and financial supporter of the family and the woman's role as homemaker and emotional supporter of the family. (Roman & Haddad, 1978). "Maternal instinct" was invented and served the purpose of more clearly defining the roles of the father and mother (Roman & Haddad, 1978; Vail, 1979). Reinforcement of the importance of the mother's role was also found in Freudian theory (Roman & Haddad, 1978). Several factors, therefore, seemed to be exalting motherhood and the mother's role, creating a place for women through exaltation in contrast with the previous denigration.

Along with this exaltation of the mother's role in child rearing came a new era in custody decisions. In general, custody was no longer awarded to the father but to the mother, particularly for those children of "tender years." This generally meant those children under seven

years of age. Thus, the tender years doctrine of child custody was conceptualized. During this period of time, beginning with industrialization and continuing to the present to a great degree, mothers had to be shown to be "unfit" in order to lose custody of their children (Foster & Freed, 1978; Roman & Haddad, 1978; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1978b). More recently the best interests of the child are being considered in awarding custody of the child to either the mother or the father or both (Foster & Freed, 1978; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1978b).

As early as the late 1700's the best interest of the child was cited as a significant factor in awarding custody. However, the "best interest" of the child seemed to be viewed within the framework of the times, giving either the mother or father a definite edge in the custody battle.

Even though there were these trends in custody decisions, the history of court decisions, opinions and laws that have formally influenced custody are conflicting and confusing. Some court decisions and legal opinions will be presented chronologically to illustrate this point.

As early as 1773 in Blisset's case, when the father's right to children and possessions seemed almost absolute, custody was not given to the father because he was bankrupt, could contribute nothing to the support of the child, and had engaged in improper conduct. Even though he had a "natural" right to the child, the court decided that it would do what appeared to be best for the child (Foster & Freed, 1978).

In the case of Commonwealth vs. Addicks and Wife in 1816, the court ruled that the maternal grandparents, who had raised the child after her

mother's death, would continue custody. This decision was based on the benefit and welfare of the infant, not the right of the father to have custody (Foster & Freed, 1978).

Although a few earlier decisions had not given custody to the father, the father's dominance seemed to have really been shaken in 1817 (Foster & Freed, 1978) or 1819 (Roman & Haddad, 1978) when Percy Bysshe Shelley lost custody of his children after his wife's death due to atheistic beliefs and profligate conduct. The man's dominance under the law was being severely questioned.

In 1824, the case of *United States v. Green* (Foster & Freed, 1978; Roman & Haddad, 1978) opened the door for the tender years doctrine. The opinion stated was that generally the father had the right to the custody of his children, not because of absolute rights of the father, but for the benefit of the child. Therefore, the father doesn't automatically get custody.

The case of *Helms v. Franciscus* in 1930 appears to be the first pronouncement of the tender years doctrine or maternal preference. The Maryland court said that even though the father is the sole and legal guardian of his infant children, "the mother is the softest nurse of infancy, and with her it will be left in opposition to this general right of the father" (Foster & Freed, 1978, p. 330).

In 1834, in the case of *Commonwealth v. Briggs*, the court's opinion asserted, in effect, that public policy regarding the obligations of marriage or the desire to punish an errant wife were more important than the child's best interest (Foster & Freed, 1978).

The case of *People ex rel. Olmstead v. Olmstead* in 1857 also showed

such moral judgments (Foster & Freed, 1978). The opinion in this New York case, where the mother left the father due to her meddling mother, was that the mother should not be rewarded for her faults by obtaining custody of her child. Protection of the family, rather than the good of the child, was more important, particularly when the mother left without apparent justification. Also in 1857, in the case of *People v. Humphries*, the wife was given custody while she was nursing, but custody was then given to the father when the child no longer needed its mother's milk (Roman & Haddad, 1978).

In 1878, in the case of *McKim v. McKim*, even though the father was found to be a "fit" parent, the mother was awarded custody of the young daughter because of her tender age, sex, and delicate condition (Foster & Freed, 1978). This case delivered the message that the best interest of a young child was in line with the tender years doctrine.

In a decision in the 1881 case of *Chapsky v. Wood*, the court's opinion was that custody should be awarded so that the welfare and interest of the child was best promoted (Foster & Freed, 1978). However, in the 1921 case of *Jenkins v. Jenkins*, the court gave custody of a young boy to his mother because "nothing can be an adequate substitute for a mother's love" (Roman & Haddad, 1978, p. 35). The opinion in the case goes on to state that the difference between motherhood and fatherhood in the ability to have patience, sympathy, and help the infant mind adjust to its environment is fundamental.

Then, the 1925 case of *Finlay v. Finlay* again emphasized the state's role as *parens patriae* and the need to protect the children as the basis for custody jurisdiction (Foster & Freed, 1978). In a more

recent case of *Fish v. Fish* in 1968, the mother tried to sue for custody of a child who had been living with his father for four years. The mother won custody in the lower court on the basis of tender years reasoning. The Supreme Court later reversed the decision in favor of the father because a close relationship existed between the boy and his father and the paternal grandmother lived with them and gave the boy love and affection (Woody, 1978a). Thus, the tender years doctrine was being openly questioned in court, although there was still the reference to the grandmother as being able to give the boy love and affection.

Even more recently, cases have been decided which openly reject the tender years doctrine and have given custody to the father. The 1973 case of *State ex rel. Watts v. Watts* in New York rejected the tender years doctrine as being in violation of due process and equal protection provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment of the Federal Constitution (Foster & Freed, 1978; Roman & Haddad, 1978; Santrock & Warshak, 1979). The 1977 case of *Salk v. Salk* in New York rejected the doctrine and specifically upheld that the best interests of the child should be given prime consideration (Foster & Freed, 1978; Roman & Haddad, 1978; Salk, 1977; Solomon, 1977). Therefore, when both parents were considered "fit," the parent who seemed psychologically best for the child was given custody.

The Maryland Court of Appeals has even reasoned that the Equal Rights Amendment has made child support an obligation of both parents and the criteria used in determining support awards should not be based on the sex of the parent (Johnson, S., 1979).

An opinion given by the judge in an 1850 decision might still be repeated today: "The state of the law relating to the custody of the persons of infants is not very satisfactory. Not only are there defects which can, perhaps, be remedied only by the authority of the Legislature; but there prevails an uncertainty in the application of the law, as it exists, to the difficult cases which frequently arise in connection with the disposal of minor children" (Forsythe, 1850).

In response to this need for legislation, several states have passed laws which explicitly state that custody should not be based on the sex of the parent but that a decision should be made in the best interests of the child. Thus, a new era in child custody decisions seems to be emerging (Foster & Freed, 1978; Santrock & Warshak, 1979; *Watts v. Watts*, 1973). The courts, however, are slow to change and the best interests of the child are frequently seen as being served best by being with the mother even when things are equal or more conducive to healthy growth with the father (Woody, 1978b).

In 1978, a check was made on custody laws in the United States (Foster & Freed, 1978). In 14 states, the tender years doctrine was "gospel" but subordinate to the best interests of the child; in 12 states the tender years doctrine was a "tie breaker" which gave custody to the mother if all other things were equal; in 22 states the tender years doctrine was rejected by statute or court decisions in favor of the best interests of the child; in 3 states, the status of the tender years doctrine in child custody was of questionable status.

Oklahoma is considered one of the "tie breaker" jurisdictions. Although the best interest of the child is the paramount consideration,

there is no relevant statute for custody decisions. Three cases heard in the Oklahoma Supreme Court can be cited as significant precedents in state custody decisions (Foster & Freed, 1978). On July 12, 1966, in the case of Earnst v. Earnst, the court records reads: "Custody of a child of tender years, other things being equal, must be given to the mother." The case also quoted a previous case of Currin v. Chadwick as saying that "the unfitness which will deprive a mother of the right to the custody of her minor child must be a positive and not merely a comparative unfitness." On July 26, 1966, in the case of Irwin v. Irwin, the court record reads: ". . . the statutory preference given mothers of children of tender years, in the matter of their custody, \*\*\*other things being equal\*\*\*." The record continues to say that "We have concluded that this case is a proper one for application of the above mentioned statutory preference of the mother (as it pertains to children of tender years) and of the rule which requires it to clearly appear that she is 'an improper person,' before being deprived of that preference."

On January 14, 1969, in the case of Duncan v. Duncan, a 12 year old boy was expressing a wish to live with his father. His father had a job which would require him to move around while the mother had a stable geographic home. The court decided in favor of the mother, and the court record reads: "Whims, wants, and desires of a minor child are not the criteria for determining which parent should be granted custody of a minor child, although the court or judge may consider the preference of a child who is of sufficient age to form an intelligent preference." These cases illustrate that the best interest is seen as being



served by being with the mother unless shown otherwise.

In 1971, an Oklahoma statute was passed making this somewhat more explicit by giving custody preference to a child of tender years to the mother, but not prohibiting the court from placing the child, regardless of its age, with the father if the evidence supports that the father would be the better guardian and that paternal custody would best serve the child's interest (30 O.S. 1971, § 11.--1d). This statute also gives preference to the mother if the child is of tender years and to the father if the child is of age to require education and preparation for labor or business. This may influence the court if all things are relatively balanced between the mother and the father.

The tender years doctrine still prevails in many states for several reasons. Society still seems to prefer the mother as the caretaker of the children (Woody, 1977a). Courts are reluctant to strike a new path: tradition has been set, particularly through legal precedents; most judges are of mature years and have traditional values; and, although the judges know the law, many of them are unaware of some of the psychological aspects of the people to whom they are applying the law (Solomon, 1977; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1977a). A third reason is that fathers still see themselves as less capable to raise their children (Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978b; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981; Woody, 1977a).

Several things are happening at the present time nationwide that seem to be having an influence on custody decisions. The women's movement with women wanting other than traditional female roles is a major influence (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Foster & Freed, 1978; Gersick, 1979; Jackson, 1979; Lewis, 1978; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976; Roman &

Haddad, 1978; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981; Willison, 1979). This is combined with father advocacy and men's liberation groups (Foster & Freed, 1978; Lewis, 1978; Roman & Haddad, 1978; Willison, 1979). In attempting to gain equal rights for women, equal rights for men have also emerged. One area where more men are beginning to want equality is in child rearing and child custody. There is a general movement toward sexual equality (Lewis, 1978), men are having a decrease in working hours and an increase in leisure time (Gersick, 1979), and more women are working than ever before (Gasser & Taylor, 1976; Gersick, 1979; Vail, 1979). Vail (1979) reports that in single parent families resulting from a divorce, 70 percent of the women work and 80 percent of the men work. Therefore, there is no apparent difference between men and women when it comes to a working parent in the home. Other factors that seem to be influencing custody decisions are inflation (Willison, 1979), no fault divorce legislation that has opened the way to negotiation over child custody (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Gersick, 1975; Lewis, 1978; Orthner, Brown & Ferguson, 1976), and public awareness through the media (Bertin, 1980; Willison, 1979).

Several states are also beginning to pass uniform divorce and custody laws as well as laws stating specific areas to be considered in custody decisions. Each state must separately adopt the act to make it law in that state.

The area where there is the most frequent controversy between courts and family members is between the original court with continuing jurisdiction and the court in the state where the child has been taken (Bodenheimer, 1969). The Uniform Child Custody Jurisdiction Act

(UCCJA), which has many purposes enumerated, is meant to "avoid jurisdictional competition and conflict with courts of other states in matters of child custody which have in the past resulted in the shifting of children from state to state with harmful effects on their well-being." Another purpose of the act is to "promote cooperation with the courts of other states" so that a custody decree is made in the state that promotes the best interest of the child (O.S. Supp, 1980; Woody, 1978b). In 1978, 28 states had adopted the UCCJA (Uniform Law Memo, 1978); Oklahoma approved the act to be effective on October 1, 1980 (O. S. Supp, 1980).

The Uniform Marriage and Divorce Act (1970) in Section 402, outlines criteria for determining custody in the best interests of the child, as do certain state laws such as the Michigan Child Custody Act of 1970 (Foster & Freed, 1978; P. A. 1970, No. 91, § 1; Woody, 1978b).

The psychological community, which was previously cited as furthering the mother's role and preference in custody decisions (Foster & Freed, 1978; Roman & Haddad, 1978) has passed a resolution giving support to fathers who are trying to get custody of their children. At their January 1977 meeting, the American Psychological Association's Council of Representatives voted to approve the following resolution as quoted by Salk (1977): "Be it resolved that the Council of Representatives recognizes officially and makes suitable promulgation of the fact that it is scientifically and psychologically baseless, as well as in violation of human rights to discriminate against men because of their sex in assignment of children's custody, in adoption, in the staffing of child care services, in personnel practices providing for parental

leave in relation to childbirth and emergencies involving children, and in similar laws and practices." The APA has taken a stand in an effort to protect the legal rights of fathers and children in custody matters.

There are several factors which are considered in custody decisions. None of these seems to be considered separately as a paramount reason for custody to be awarded to a particular individual, but they are considered in combination with one another. Several of these factors are reported: the age and sex of the child (Foster & Freed, 1978; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1978b); the child's preference for one parent over the other (Bertin, 1980; Nadeau & Fagan, 1978; P.A. 1970, No. 91; Solomon, 1977; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1977a, 1978b); the religion of the parents (P.A. 1970, No. 91; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1978b); the physical and mental fitness of the parents (P.A. 1970, No. 91; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1977a, 1978b); the moral fitness of the parent (P.A. 1970, No. 91; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1977a, 1978b); the death of a parent (Vail, 1979); custodial ante-nuptial contracts (Vail, 1979; Woody, 1978b); the parent's relationship with and desire for the child (Foster & Freed, 1978; P.A. 1970, No. 91; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1977a, 1978b); a well established custody where the child is flourishing (Bertin, 1980; Vail, 1979; Woody, 1977a); the parent's intelligence (Woody, 1977a, 1978b); knowledge of child development (Woody, 1977a, 1978b); personality and personal behavior (Woody, 1977a, 1978b); child rearing attitudes and child care history (Woody, 1977a, 1978b); geographical stability (Woody, 1977a, 1978b); and the needs of the child such as consistent and predictable affection, acceptance, approval, protection, care, control, and guidance (Howell, 1974; P.A. 1970, No. 91). Different professionals look at different

combinations of factors as being most important, but all of the professionals questioned (psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, and lawyers) agreed that placement with one of the natural parents and placement of siblings together was very important if those placements were possible (P.A. 1970, No. 91; Woody, 1977a).

The research in the area of fathers as single parents or motherless homes is very limited. There has been a great deal of research on fatherless homes which indicated detrimental effects on children (Vail, 1979), but the results of this research are being questioned as children from homes with one parent are seen to be functioning adequately in many areas (Burgess, 1970; Geffen, 1977; Monaghan-Leckband, 1978; NCCE Hits, 1980; Santrock & Warshak, 1979). Even in the 1970's, much of the information gathered in the research on fathering or father participation in childrearing was obtained from the mother, not the father (Roman & Haddad, 1978; Vail, 1979). Some of the more recent studies that have been done are giving conflicting results. Solomon (1977) indicates that for boys, the father gradually assumes a more important role, and more fathers should get custody, particularly of boys over seven years of age. Santrock & Warshak (1979) report that children between six and eleven who were living with the parent of the same sex fared better on dimensions of less demanding, maturity, sociability, and independence than those children living with the parent of the opposite sex. There was also less friction with the parent. Lowenstein (1977) reports in a limited study that there is no significant difference in self-esteem between boys, ages nine to fourteen, living with single parent mothers and single parent fathers. Woody (1978a) reports that boys need their

fathers until the age of five. Foster & Freed (1978) indicate that some experts in child development are now saying that the father may be the one with whom the child has the most affectionate relationship. More research seems needed in this area to clear up some of the confusion.

There appears to be no intrinsic reason why men cannot be as nurturant as women (Roman & Haddad, 1978; Pitchford, 1978). What they seem to need is motivation and societal support. Margaret Mead and other authorities have stated that both male and female parents are equally able to provide care and perform childrearing functions (Foster & Freed, 1978). Dr. Mary C. Howell, Harvard pediatrics professor, states that the father can perform child care just as well as the mother (Roman & Haddad, 1978). Finally, Judge Kooper, in the case of *Watts v. Watts* (1973), stated "the simple fact of being a mother does not, by itself, indicate a capacity or willingness to render a quality of care different from that which the father can provide." She went further to quote Margaret Mead as saying "studies of maternal deprivation have shown that the essential experience for the child is that of mothering -- the warmth, consistency and continuity of the relationship rather than the sex of the individual who is performing the mothering function."

How can custody, then, be decided in the best interests of the child and give fathers a fairer chance in the court to win custody when it is the "best" placement for the child? Several suggestions have been made, such as the need for more concrete tests of what is the "best interest" of the child (Stack, 1976); focus on the better or best parent, not the unfitness of a parent (Salk, 1977); focus on the needs of the child and who can best fulfill them (Howell, 1974); have a multidisci-

plinary team to work with the parents, children, and attorneys to aid in custody decisions (Nadeau & Fagan, 1978; Woody, 1977b); have a counselor and attorney work together to prepare the father for custody if it is appropriate (Bernstein, 1977); and all states to adopt uniform divorce and custody laws (Johnson, S., 1979).

### Single Parents

Single parents have many problems that do not arise in two-parent families. One of the biggest problems seems to be the attitude of society which does not fully accept and socially isolates the single parent (Burgess, 1970; Clayton, 1971; Jackson, 1979; Jauch, 1977; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Loge, 1976; Rawlings & Carter, 1979; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980), although this attitude does seem to be decreasing (Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981).

This societal attitude is unfortunate because there has been evidence that children are better off living with one parent than in very unhappy homes where the parents stay together for the sake of the children (Burgess, 1970; Monaghan-Leckband, 1978).

Single parents have few role-models to fall back on (Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978b). They often feel that they are like an odd person when going out with former friends and couples (Burgess, 1970; Clayton, 1971; Fisher, 1978; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980) and may even be seen as a threat by two-parent families (Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980). They tend to feel unique and not ask for help (Jauch, 1977) and feel that they need to go it alone which causes confusion, inefficiency, and unhappiness (Burgess, 1970; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980). There may be a conflict over personal identity and their parenting role (Dresen, 1976; Loge, 1976).

This may result in overcompensation to the children (Dresen, 1976) or inconsistency (Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980).

Single parents have many emotions to work through which may include loneliness (Burgess, 1970; Fisher, 1978; Greenberg, 1979; Jauch, 1977; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Rawlings & Carter, 1979), grief and mourning (Burgess, 1970; Dresen, 1976; Fisher, 1978; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979), anger at persons or events (Burgess, 1970; Dresen, 1976; Fisher, 1978; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Rawlings & Carter, 1979), guilt (Burgess, 1970; Dresen, 1976; Fisher, 1978; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Rawlings & Carter, 1979), low self-worth (Burgess, 1970; Fisher, 1978; Rawlings & Carter, 1979), lack of self-confidence (Burgess, 1970), fear (Burgess, 1970; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979), frustration (Burgess, 1970), shame (Burgess, 1970), lack of trust (Smith, 1978; Fisher, 1978), depression (Rawlings & Carter, 1979), failure (Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Rawlings & Carter, 1979), and loss of control (Smith, 1978).

In addition to these emotions, single parents have several other problems that they need to work through. Because their income is severely reduced, they usually have financial difficulties (Burgess, 1970; Jauch, 1977; Rawlings & Carter, 1979; Smith, 1978; Todres, 1975). This affects areas such as finding good child care (Burgess, 1970; Jauch, 1977; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980; Smith, 1978), help with housekeeping tasks (Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980), and housing (Smith, 1978). Their social system is upset and they need to find new ways to form social relationships (Burgess, 1970; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980; Todres, 1975). This may entail being able to separate from the former love relationship (Fisher, 1978; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979), adjusting to dating and their



new sexual role (Fisher, 1978; Greenberg, 1979; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Monaghan-Leckband, 1978), and recognizing their intimacy needs (Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981). They may need to adjust to multiple and unfamiliar roles (Burgess, 1970; Clayton, 1971; Monaghan-Leckband, 1978; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980). Their job selection may sometimes be limited because of child care responsibilities (Clayton, 1971).

Single parents could use support in several areas: financial and social as mentioned previously; education, both for society about problems of the one-parent families and rehabilitation programs to enable the one-parent family to be self-supporting (Todres, 1975); information about counseling services (Jauch, 1977), legal rights, economic resources, and other sources of social support (Rawlings & Carter, 1979); more psychological services such as counseling (Burgess, 1970) and therapy and parenting groups (Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980); contact with two-parent families for their children to see role models (Burgess, 1970); more equitable divorce and custody laws (Jauch, 1977); and time (Smith, 1978).

Adjusting to being a single parent can be seen as going through a process (Fisher, 1978; Loge, 1976). How well one adjusts depends on several factors such as working through many of the emotions that were mentioned previously; the role of the parent in the previous relationship and how many adjustments need to be made (Dresen, 1976); financial situation and the nature of the present living arrangements (Dresen, 1976; Pett, 1980); knowledge of and availability of available resources and support systems (Dresen, 1976; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Mendes,

1979); taking care of oneself through private time, activities, and friendships, as well as providing for the children (Dresen, 1976); and time (Dresen, 1976). Those who seem to adjust most quickly are those who have a good support system (Dresen, 1976; Mendes, 1979; Pett, 1980), are more thoroughly able to break from their former mate and former life style (Johnson & Alevizos, 1979), keep active socially (Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Lipten, 1979; Pett, 1980), are farther away from the divorce (Lipten, 1979), find new rewarding roles outside the family or in the parenting role (Loge, 1976), are attending church more (Lipten, 1979), and feeling an absence of stress (Pett, 1980).

Although society still sees the single-parent family as somewhat deviant, there are several areas of support available. Other family members are a primary source of support (Dresen, 1976; Gasser & Taylor, 1976; Jackson, 1979; Jauch, 1977; Loge, 1976; Mendes, 1979; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980) as well as friends and neighbors (Dresen, 1976; Gasser & Taylor, 1976; Jackson, 1979; Jauch, 1977; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Mendes, 1979; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980), although the latter is not as true for men as it is for women (Greenberg, 1979). Another primary source of support is in organizations and self-help groups such as Parents Without Partners (Burgess, 1970; Clayton, 1971; Dresen, 1976; Jackson, 1979; Jauch, 1977; Patton, 1976) and other informal groups through churches, day care centers, community centers, and social service agencies (Jackson, 1979; Jauch, 1977; Loge, 1976; Mendes, 1979; Rawlings & Carter, 1979; Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980). In these groups single parents can receive information, make social contacts, share resources, and get help with bringing up their children. Counseling is available through social agencies that have sliding scales (Dresen,

1976; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Rawlings & Carter, 1979). Financial assistance can be obtained (Dresen, 1976). There are also publications available such as One Parent Family (San Francisco), The Single Parent (Santa Monica), and The Single Parent (Parents Without Partners).

For those single parents who have adjusted to the divorce or loss of a spouse, there seems to be general satisfaction with their functioning (Barringer, 1973; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Lipten, 1979), although loneliness is still sometimes a problem (Johnson & Alevizos, 1979). They report improved relationships with their children (Monaghan-Leckband, 1978), a greater sense of competence and control (Rawlings & Carter, 1979), more autonomy (Greenberg, 1979; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Rawlings & Carter, 1979), and see it as an opportunity for personal growth (Fisher, 1978; Johnson & Alevizos, 1979; Rawlings & Carter, 1979; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981). It seems that adjustment might be more easily achieved if preventative measures such as public education and social acceptance were present (Burgess, 1970).

### Single Custodial Fathers

Despite the fact that mothers are awarded custody of minor children in the majority of cases, there are thousands of children living in homes headed by single men. Although the majority of these children are living in single-father homes due to custody decisions resulting from a divorce, there are other ways for men to be living as single-custodial parents. They may have custody as a result of the death of their wife (Lewis, 1978; Murch, 1973; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976), or they may have adopted a child (Lewis, 1978; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976). Most of the research done has had a preponderance of men who

have custody due to divorce because they are in the majority, but it also has included men in the other areas as well.

While many of the concerns and problems of single parents are common to single fathers, several recent studies are focusing on single fathers only.

Several of these recent studies have focused on characteristics of single-custodial fathers. Each researcher may have been looking at somewhat different areas; several findings have been reported. The results of the research indicate that the average social status level and education of these men are above the national norm and they are viewed more positively by judges (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Gersick, 1979; Greene, 1977; Orthner, Brown & Ferguson, 1976; Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975); they generally received custody because their former wife did not want custody or was unable to care for the children (Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981); the divorce was usually from incompatibility or an extramaritally involved wife (Gersick, 1979); the divorce was generally more hostile than divorces where fathers were not seeking custody (Gersick, 1975); and they generally married later than the national median and their marriages lasted longer than the national median (Green, 1977); they generally have an active social life (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976; Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975) but feel the need to be sexually discrete (Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976); they saw other social roles as subordinate to the parental role (Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978b; Mendes, 1975); they were generally younger than their late thirties (Bartz & Witcher, 1978) and most had been married between four and twenty years (Murch, 1973); they

were satisfied with their present life and in no hurry to marry again (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Mendes, 1976a; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976), although they indicated some difficulty in adjusting from the harmonizing parental and adult roles and responsibilities (Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976) and an initial emotional crisis (Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978b; Mendes, 1975; Murch, 1973); they were generally positive about themselves and their emotional growth (Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978a; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981) seeing themselves as well adjusted, in control, and functioning smoothly (Gasser & Taylor, 1976); they were seen as more nurturing (Schlesinger, 1978) and involved in childrearing and parenting activities before the divorce (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978a; Mendes, 1975); they saw their relationships with their children as good (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Mendes, 1976a; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976) which included good adjustment in their children (Bartz & Witcher, 1978), good communication with their children (Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975), a more democratic home which demanded more independence from the children (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976), and a closer relationship with the children (Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981); they were also fairly comfortable with household tasks (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Gersick, 1975; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978a); they were generally middle or last born children with both brothers and sisters with a traditional family configuration of close to mother and more distant with father (Gersick, 1979); they were fairly aggressive with respect to their needs and desires (Bartz & Witcher, 1978); they had supportive families (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Gasser & Taylor, 1976); they made use of social services and their support sys-

tems (Gersick, 1975; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978a; Mendes, 1976a; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981; Santrock & Warshak, 1979; Todres, 1975); and by learning to take care of their children's needs, they learned to take care of their own needs (Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978b; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981). Some of the characteristics of single-custodial fathers may be a function of whether the father sought custody or had custody thrust upon him (Greene, 1977; Hanson, 1980; Mendes, 1976a).

Even though these men appear generally positive about their situations, they have voiced concern about certain areas. They are concerned about adequately meeting the emotional and nurturant needs of their children (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978a, 1978b; Mendes, 1976b; Schlesinger, 1978); finding good supervision, care and protection for their children (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Mendes, 1976b; Murch, 1973; Schlesinger, 1978); having good childrearing (Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981; Schlesinger, 1978) and child guidance (Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978a) information; rearing daughters in a motherless home (Mendes, 1976b); knowing what constitutes normal development in their children (Mendes, 1976b; Schlesinger, 1978); working through financial (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Murch, 1973; Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975) and personal and peer (Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975) problems; dealing with feelings of loneliness and being different (Gasser & Taylor, 1976; Greene, 1977; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981; Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975) as well as social life and dating restrictions (Gasser & Taylor, 1976; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978a; Rosenthal & Keshet, 1981; Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975); having the skills to do homemaking tasks (Mendes, 1976b; Schlesinger, 1978) or finding a housekeeper (Murch, 1973; Todres, 1975);

dealing with role strain which includes child care responsibilities, social and dating needs, and work responsibilities (Gasser & Taylor, 1976; Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978a; Todres, 1975); having poor community support for their position (Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975); and dissatisfaction with the laws and legal processes (Todres, 1975). Bartz & Witcher (1978) and Mendes (1976b) identified meeting the emotional needs of the children as being the area of most concern to the fathers, while Murch (1973) identified the care of the children as being the area of most concern.

There are some services available to help single fathers cope with some of these areas of concern. Arrangements can be made for child care either through day care centers or private situations (Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976; Todres, 1975); government agencies including such services as "big sisters" and financial help are available (Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976; Todres, 1975), although sometimes single fathers may not be given services (Murch, 1973; Todres, 1975); single-parent organizations are available for support and information (Clayton, 1971; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976); services for household services can be found to lighten the burden of the single parent (Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976); support of friends and relatives is available, although this is frequently temporary (Murch, 1973; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976); finally, groups for single parents are becoming more available to help single parents adjust and cope and offer support (Fisher, 1978; Geffen, 1977; Green, 1981; Tedder, Libbee, & Scherman, 1981).

Even though there are some services available for single parents,

the number of concerns far outweigh the number of services. Single fathers have indicated, through research studies, some areas where services could be initiated or improved: day care facilities that extend services into the evenings and school holidays (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976; Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975) as well as child care facilities in shopping centers (Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976); organization of babysitting cooperatives and transportation to and from day care centers (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976); classes on single parenthood (Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976) and parent effectiveness groups or discussion sessions for single parents (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Geffen, 1977; Mendes, 1976a); information on child care, home management and what constitutes normal childhood and adolescent needs and behavior (Bartz & Witcher, 1978; Mendes, 1976a); "big sisters" organizations (Orthner, Brown, & Ferguson, 1976); organized registered housekeeper services (Schlesinger, 1978; Todres, 1975); part time work, flexible work hours, or the choice of not working and caring for the children (Keshet & Rosenthal, 1978a; Schlesinger, 1978); increased tax deductions (Schlesinger, 1978); counseling services (Schlesinger, 1978); and more research (Schlesinger, 1978).

It is apparent that single parents seem to have some similar needs. To meet these needs, they begin to form support networks (Stack, 1976). Social services, at this time, are geared toward women rather than toward all single parents. It is difficult for custodial fathers to locate appropriate services (Todres, 1975). Woody (1978a) contends that there is a void in support sources for fathers receiving custody.



Todres (1975) claims that single-custodial fathers "are an understudied, much neglected, often overlooked group. As such, their problems deserve close scrutiny by society, and prompt remedial action." (p.13) Rosenthal and Keshet (1981) state that the awareness of the increasing number of men who parent must extend family support services to fathers as well as mothers; agencies need to acquaint themselves with the problems these men have and extend services to them.

### Working with Single Parents

Although there are several ways to work with single parents, changing attitudes is easier in group sessions than in individual sessions (Geffen, 1977). Change also comes more from discussion groups rather than lecture (Geffen, 1977) or reading programs (Hale, 1976). Many group sessions offered for parents, both single and married, have dealt with parenting issues using programs such as Parent Effectiveness Training. These groups were found to have positive results regarding changes in parental attitudes, particularly with regard to their children (Geffen, 1977; Hale, 1976; Larson, 1972). Groups focusing on an individual's strengths with regard to goals, values, and value conflicts were helpful in the growth of the parents own self concept (Larson, 1972).

### Purpose and Hypotheses

The literature suggests that single parents have a difficult time adjusting to their new roles for several reasons; among these reasons are lack of support, lack of information, loneliness, and poor coping skills when thrust into an unfamiliar situation. Single-custodial fathers are men who seem to have fewer resources than their female count-

erparts. Participation in a group with individuals who are in a similar situation has been shown to be an effective way to get support and learn to cope with the problems that arise in that situation.

In view of these findings, divorce adjustment, loneliness and self concept have been identified as areas of concern. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of a support group for single-custodial fathers on measures of divorce adjustment, loneliness and self concept. This will be done within a small group setting with a format of information giving and discussion.

This study will research the hypotheses that, as a result of participation in a support group for single-custodial fathers

- HO<sub>1</sub>: there will be no significant differences between pretest and post-test scores on a measure of divorce adjustment;
- HO<sub>2</sub>: there will be no significant differences between pretest and post-test scores on a measure of loneliness;
- HO<sub>3</sub>: there will be no significant differences between pretest and post-test scores on a measure of self concept;
- HO<sub>4</sub>: there will be no significant differences among the four posttest groups on a measure of divorce adjustment;
- HO<sub>5</sub>: there will be no significant differences among the four posttest groups on a measure of loneliness;
- HO<sub>6</sub>: there will be no significant differences among the four posttest groups on a measure of self concept.

## Method

### Subjects

Thirty-six men who have legal or factual custody of one or more minor children will be participants in the study.

The names of the men will be obtained through various sources: letters will be sent to the pediatricians and family practitioners, judges, school principals, and school counselors in Norman and the immediate area explaining the nature of the group and requesting the names of men who meet the criteria; workers in various local agencies such as the Cleveland County Health Department, Parents Without Partners, and Divorce Arbitration will be contacted; a newspaper article will be run explaining the nature of the group; and former participants and other friends and professionals will be contacted by letter or telephone.

Nine men will be chosen from the generated pool to be participants in a six week support group for single-custodial fathers (SCFII). Nine men who have previously been participants in a six week support group for single-custodial fathers (SCFI) will be one control group. A second control group will be formed of eighteen men who will not be participating in the present group, but who will be given an opportunity to be on a waiting list and participate in a future group (CI and CII).

### Procedure

Each single custodial father will be initially contacted by telephone by the researcher at which time a brief description of the group will be given and a request to meet with the father will be made. With each man who is interested in participating, an individual one-half to one hour meeting will be arranged by the researcher. At this meeting,

each man will be asked about his particular areas of concern so that the group can attempt to meet some of his individual needs. At this meeting the researcher will also give a more detailed explanation of the group and its purpose. The participant will be asked to complete the three instruments with the explanation that we want to try to determine if any changes take place as a result of participation in the group. The participants for the groups (CI, CII, and SCFII) will then be randomly selected from the pool that has been generated.

The experimental group (SCFII) will meet once a week for approximately one and one-half hours for six consecutive weeks. Babysitting services will be provided by the researcher at the meeting place. The sessions will be part information giving and part discussion. The proposed topics to be covered will be homemaking skills, with an outside resource person presenting materials and ideas; child development; the effects of divorce or loss of a parent on children; dating and remarriage, and legal implications, with an attorney present to answer any questions. The sessions are open to modification depending on the needs expressed by the fathers participating in the group.

At the conclusion of the group, each participant in SCFII and the men in CI will complete the three instruments again. Those men who had previously participated in a group (SCFI) will be asked to complete the three instruments prior to or during the present group.

### Instruments

Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS). The FDAS is composed of 100 short statements to be answered on a five point scale from (1) al-

most always to (5) almost never. The scale includes five subtests: feelings of self worth (alpha internal reliability coefficient of .94), disentanglement from love relationship (coefficient alpha of .95), feelings of anger (coefficient alpha of .91), symptoms of grief (coefficient alpha of .95), and rebuilding social trust (coefficient alpha of .87). The five subtest scores can be added together to obtain a total score (coefficient alpha of .98), which is the most important score. Research indicates that adjustment is slowest in the areas of anger and social relationships. Higher scores on the instrument indicate positive adjustment. Scores increase noticeably after one year, but the largest increase in scores does not come until after three years.

Kuder Richardson Internal Reliability is .92. Face validity is good and is based on Dr. Fisher's experiences teaching divorce adjustment seminars. Because there is no subtest for faking, a small percentage of people are not able to answer the FDAS objectively and, therefore, their scores are not as meaningful. The most common use of the test is as a pretest/posttest measure with an intermediate intervention (Fisher, 1981).

Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale. This scale consists of twenty self-statements which are rated on a scale from 1 (never) to 4 (often), indicating how often the individual feels the way described in the statement. Half of the statements are worded in a positive manner and half are worded in a negative manner. All statements used in the scale had at least a .40 correlation with a self-labeling index of loneliness. The internal consistency of this measure is high (coefficient alpha of .94). The correlation between the revised and the original scales is

.91. The revised scale is used because it has statements worded in both a positive and negative way rather than all negative statements as in the original scale. The revised scale attempts to eliminate systematic response bias.

Concurrent validity was assessed by comparing loneliness scores to measures of emotional states. The loneliness scores were significantly correlated with scores on the Beck Depression Inventory ( $r=.62$ ) and with the Costello-Comrey Anxiety ( $r=.32$ ) and Depression ( $r=.55$ ) scales. Loneliness scores were also significantly correlated using a loneliness self-labeling index, with related feelings such as depressed, empty, isolated, and unsatisfied, but not significantly correlated with unrelated feelings such as feeling creative, embarrassed, sensitive, surprised, or thoughtful.

Concurrent validity was also tested by examining the relationship between scores on the revised loneliness scale and measures of social activities and relationships. Significant correlations ( $p<.001$ ) were found between loneliness scores and the time students spend alone each day ( $r=.41$ ), the number of times they had eaten dinner alone during the previous two weeks ( $r=.34$ ), and the number of times they had spent a weekend night alone during the previous two weeks ( $r=.44$ ). Lonely students also report doing fewer social activities with friends ( $r=-.28$ ) and having fewer close friends ( $r=-.44$ ).

Discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the loneliness scores and the scores on other measures of mood and personality such as depression, self-esteem, introversion-extroversion, anxiety, assertiveness, sensitivity to rejection, affiliative tendency, social desirabil-

ity, lying, and self-labeled loneliness. The scores on the loneliness scale were not confounded by social desirability and correlated more highly with other measures of loneliness than with the measures of mood and personality variables (Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980; Russell, Peplau, & Ferguson, 1978).

Tennessee Self Concept Scale. The test consists of 100 self-description items, 90 items assess the self concept while 10 items assess self-criticism (Lie scale items). For each item, the person responds on a 1 to 5 scale ranging from completely false (1) to completely true (5).

The Clinical and Research form of the scale includes 29 profiled scores; a self-criticism score, nine self-esteem scores which include scores assessing the individual's identity, self-satisfaction, behavior, physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, social self, and a total of these scores; three variability of response scores; a distribution score; a response bias score; a net conflict score; a total conflict score; scores for six empirical scales which include positive defensiveness, general maladjustment, psychosis, personality disorder, neurosis, and personality integration; a score for deviant signs, and five scores relating to the frequency of high and low responses.

Test-retest reliability coefficients for the various profile segments fall mostly in the .80 to .90 range with the lowest coefficient being .60.

Content validity was based on unanimous agreement by the judges that an item was classified correctly. The test has been found to dis-

criminate between psychiatric patients, non-patients, and persons high in personality integration. Subtests of the scale have been correlated with other measures with correlations in the .50's and .60's with scales on the MMPI, .70 between the Taylor Anxiety Scale and Total Positive, and .50 to .70 with the Cornell Medical Index (Buros, 1978; Fitts, 1976).

### Design

The experimental design of the study is a Solomon four group design:

	<u>Group</u>		<u>Pretest</u>	<u>Group (6 wk.)</u>	<u>Posttest</u>
SCF I	1	R		X	X
SCF II	2	R	X	X	X
C II	3	R	X	6 wk.	X
C I	4	R			X

The independent variable is participation (present or not present) in a support group for single-custodial fathers. A blocking variable will be sensitization through the administration or exclusion of a pre-test. Sensitization is defined as making the participants aware of certain areas, through a focusing of attention, which might thus increase the educational effect of the treatment (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). The dependent variables are divorce adjustment as measured on the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS), loneliness as measured on the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale, and self concept as measured on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS). Each group in the design will include scores from nine participants.



### Data Analysis

Several tests will be run on the data. The level of significance will be set at the .05 level.

1. Taking into consideration that there may be correlations among the dependent measures, a two-way multivariate analysis of variance will be done on the four posttest groups.
2. Follow-up analyses of variance will be run for each dependent variable. If significance is present in the interaction, tests will be performed for simple main effects. The design used for this test will be a 2 X 2 randomized block design with the support group and sensitization as the dimensions used for analysis of the data.

		Pretest	
		Yes	No
Support	Yes		
	No		

3. A dependent measures t-test will be done on the pretest and posttest scores for each dependent variable in Group 2 to test for possible sensitization of the pretest scores on posttest scores.
4. A dependent measures t-test will be done on the pretest and posttest scores on each dependent measure in Group 3 to test sensitization differences.
5. A Hotelling's  $T^2$  will be done on the pretest scores for Groups 2 and 3 to test for any differences in groups. Even though these should be equal through randomization, this test will be a check

for relative equality of the groups' initial scores.

6. A one-way multivariate analysis of covariance with the pretest scores as the covariate will be done on the posttest scores of Groups 2 and 3. This test is used as a contingency test if the Hotelling's  $T^2$  is close to significance (.20 level).

Following the data analysis, the findings will be related back to the initial hypotheses.

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**APPENDIX B**

**CONSENT FORM**

## INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Project: Single Custodial Fathers

I, \_\_\_\_\_, hereby agree to participate as a volunteer in the above named research project, which has been fully explained to me.

I understand that the information gained from the questionnaires will be used to study the effectiveness of the group and that my identity will not be revealed in any way. After the information is compiled, I will have the opportunity to receive feedback on my responses to the questionnaires.

I understand that I am free to refuse to participate in any procedure or to refuse to answer any question at any time without negative consequences to me. I further understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and to withdraw from the research project at any time.

I understand that by agreeing to participate in this research and signing this form, I do not waive any of my legal rights.

\_\_\_\_\_

Date

\_\_\_\_\_

Signature

APPENDIX C

FISHER DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT SCALE

PLEASE NOTE:

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93-100

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102

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104-111

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APPENDIX D

REVISED UCLA LONELINESS SCALE

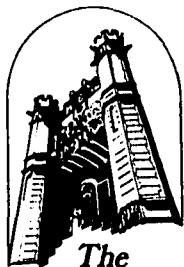
APPENDIX E

TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE



APPENDIX F

INITIAL LETTER TO PROFESSIONALS



August 12, 1981

The  
University of Oklahoma at Norman

College of Education

Dear

Kris Libbee, Gary Lindsay, and I, who are all doctoral students in the Human Development Program at the University of Oklahoma, will be running a six-week support group for single custodial fathers. We have run similar groups for the past two years and will be beginning another six-week group in September of this year. In the group we may discuss topics such as homemaking skills, child development, the effects of divorce or loss of a parent on children, dating and remarriage, legal implications, parenting, and other topics suggested by the men attending the group.

In your position, you may be aware of some men who might benefit from a support group such as this. One of the things that seemed most helpful to most of the men who attended was sharing concerns with other men who were in their same position.

We would appreciate any help you might be able to give us in locating men who might find a support group like this helpful to them. If you are aware of men in this situation and can share their names with us, we would contact each man individually and meet with him to see if he did or did not wish to participate. If you do not feel free to identify these men, we would appreciate your sharing this information with them and having them contact us if they are interested.

The group will meet for six consecutive Monday evenings from 7:30 to 9:00 beginning in late September. It will be held in a location accessible to individuals in the greater Oklahoma City area.

If you would like more information about the group or know of anyone who might be interested in a group such as this, please contact me at 325-2911.

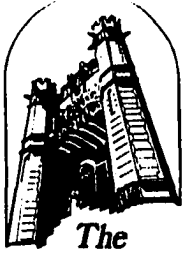
Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Sandy Tedder

**APPENDIX G**

**SECOND LETTER TO PROFESSIONALS**



August 12, 1981

*The*  
*University of Oklahoma at Norman*

College of Education

Dear

Last February I sent you a letter about a support group for single custodial fathers. This fall Kris Libbee, Gary Lindsay, and I, doctoral students in the Human Development Program at the University of Oklahoma, will be running another group. Again, the group will discuss topics such as homemaking, child development, the effects of divorce or loss of a parent on children, dating and remarriage, legal implications, parenting, and other topics suggested by the men attending the group.

The group will meet for six consecutive Monday evenings from 7:30 to 9:00 beginning in late September. It will be held in a location accessible to individuals in the greater Oklahoma City area.

We would appreciate any help you might be able to give us in locating men who might find a support group like this helpful to them. If you are aware of men in this situation and can share their names with us, we would contact each man individually and meet with him to see if he did or did not wish to participate. If you do not feel free to identify these men, we would appreciate your sharing this information with them and having them contact us if they are interested.

If you would like more information about the group or know of anyone who might be interested in a group such as this, please contact me at 325-2911.

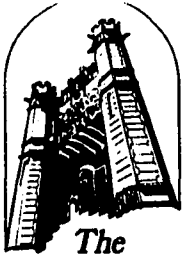
Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Sandy Tedder

**APPENDIX H**

**LETTER TO CHURCHES**



August 12, 1981

The  
*University of Oklahoma at Norman*

College of Education

Dear

Kris Libbee, Gary Lindsay, and I, who are all doctoral students in the Human Development Program at the University of Oklahoma, will be running a six-week support group for single custodial fathers. We have run similar groups for the past two years and will be beginning another six-week group in September of this year. In the group we may discuss topics such as homemaking skills, child development, the effects of divorce or loss of a parent on children, dating and remarriage, legal implications, parenting, and other topics suggested by the men attending the group.

In your position, you may be aware of some men who might benefit from a support group such as this. One of the things that seemed most helpful to most of the men who attended was sharing concerns with other men who were in their same position.

We would appreciate any help you might be able to give us in locating men who might find a support group like this helpful to them. If you are aware of men in this situation and can share their names with us, we would contact each man individually and meet with him to see if he did or did not wish to participate. If you do not feel free to identify these men, we would appreciate your sharing this information with them, perhaps through a newsletter or bulletin if not personally, and having them contact us if they are interested.

The group will meet for six consecutive Monday evenings from 7:30 to 9:00 beginning in late September. It will be held in a location accessible to individuals in the greater Oklahoma City area.

If you would like more information about the group or know of anyone who might be interested in a group such as this, please contact me at 325-2911.

Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Sandy Tedder

**APPENDIX I**

**FEEDBACK TO PARTICIPANTS**

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Date completed \_\_\_\_\_

Group \_\_\_\_\_

### The Tennessee Self Concept Scale

This scale is composed of several subscores. A brief description of the subscores that would be of personal interest are given so that you may interpret your own scores. There are several other subscores which I have not reported to you as they are used for research purposes only. If you are interested in any other scores and would like to discuss them, contact me and I'll be glad to talk with you personally. Remember: anything within the limits is considered within the normal range. This normal range is a statistical concept and doesn't necessarily imply a value judgment. It is simply where the majority of scores fall. For example, a lower than average blood pressure (if it is not too low) is advantageous.

#### I. The Self Criticism Subscore (sc)

- A. High scores here generally indicate openness and capacity for self criticism.
- B. Low scores here generally indicate defensiveness and that the Positive subscores may be artificially elevated.

#### II. Positive Subscores (P)

- A. Total P scores suggest the overall level of self-esteem
  1. High scores suggest that you feel that you have value and worth, have confidence in yourself, and act accordingly.
  2. Low scores suggest that you doubt your worth, often feel anxious, depressed and unhappy, and have little confidence in yourself.



- B. Row subscores represent an internal frame of reference within which you are describing yourself. The higher the subscore, the more positive are your feelings in the given area.
1. Row 1: Identity - how you see yourself
  2. Row 2: Self-Satisfaction - how much you accept yourself
  3. Row 3: Behavior - your perception of the way you function
- C. Column subscores represent an external frame of reference from which you are describing yourself. The higher your subscore, the more positively you view yourself in the given area.
1. Column A: Physical Self  
You are presenting your view of your state of health, physical appearance, skills, and sexuality.
  2. Column B: Moral-Ethical Self  
You are describing your moral worth, relationship to God (assuming that you believe in a deity), feelings of being a "good" or "bad" person, and satisfaction with your religion or lack of it.
  3. Column C: Personal Self  
You are reflecting your sense of personal worth, feeling of adequacy as a person and evaluation of your personality.
  4. Column D: Family Self  
This reflects your perception of yourself in reference to your most immediate circle of associates and your feelings of adequacy, worth, and value as a family member.
  5. Column E: Social Self  
This reflects your sense of adequacy and worth in social interaction with others in general.

	Your scores		Group Average		Lowest Value Possible	Limits for "Normal Range"		Highest Value Possible
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post		Lower	Higher	
SC	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>10</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>49</u>	<u>50</u>
Total P	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>90</u>	<u>316</u>	<u>420</u>	<u>450</u>
Row 1	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>30</u>	<u>117</u>	<u>147</u>	<u>150</u>
Row 2	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>30</u>	<u>86</u>	<u>144</u>	<u>150</u>
Row 3	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>30</u>	<u>101</u>	<u>140</u>	<u>150</u>
Column A	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>18</u>	<u>62</u>	<u>88</u>	<u>90</u>
Column B	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>18</u>	<u>62</u>	<u>88</u>	<u>90</u>
Column C	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>18</u>	<u>56</u>	<u>81</u>	<u>90</u>
Column D	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>18</u>	<u>62</u>	<u>88</u>	<u>90</u>
Column E	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>18</u>	<u>59</u>	<u>86</u>	<u>90</u>

The Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale

Date completed \_\_\_\_\_

This scale is composed of six subscales which combine to make up the total score. The scale is designed to measure a person's adjustment to the ending of his/her love relationship in these six areas. Your scores become higher as you work through the adjustment process. A brief explanation of each of the subscales is given so that you can interpret your own scores. This is a relatively new scale so the norms are expected to change to some degree, so interpret your scores with this in mind.

## 1. Feelings of Self worth (fsw)

Higher scores suggest greater feelings of self worth.  
Lower scores suggest lower feelings of self worth.

## 2. Disentanglement of love relationship (dlr)

Higher scores suggest that you are more emotionally disentangled from your former love partner.  
Lower scores suggest that you are still investing in the past love relationship.

## 3. Feelings of Angerism

Higher scores suggest that your anger at your former love partner has dissipated.  
Lower scores suggest that you still feel anger for your former love partner.

## 4. Symptoms of Grief (sog)

Higher scores suggest that the grieving process has been completed.  
Lower scores suggest that you are still grieving the loss of your love relationship.

## 5. Rebuilding Social Trust (rst)

Higher scores suggest that you are more open to social intimacy.  
Lower scores suggest that you are fearful of social intimacy.

## 6. Social Self worth (ssw)

Higher scores suggest greater feelings of self worth in the social area.  
Lower scores suggest fewer feelings of self worth in the social area.

## 7. Total

Higher scores suggest that you are more adjusted to the ending of your love relationship.  
Lower scores suggest that you are less adjusted to the ending of

your love relationship.

A graph has been provided if you wish to plot your scores to see the percentile at which your scores fall. The percentile tells you the percentage of people who have taken the test that have had a score higher or lower than your score. In general, the higher your score, the more you approach the values at the top of the profile graph. The lower your score, the more you approach the values at the bottom of the profile graph.

Subtest	Your scores		Group Average		Lowest possible score	Highest possible score
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post		
fsw	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>25</u>	<u>125</u>
dlr	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>22</u>	<u>110</u>
foa	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>12</u>	<u>60</u>
sog	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>24</u>	<u>120</u>
rst	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>8</u>	<u>40</u>
ssw	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>9</u>	<u>45</u>
Total	_____	_____	_____	_____	<u>100</u>	<u>500</u>



The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale

Date completed \_\_\_\_\_

The average UCLA loneliness scores for different age groups, based on a 4-item survey version of the UCLA Loneliness Scale are as follows (the scores on the 4-item survey version were multiplied by 5 to get a rough estimate of approximate average scores on the 20-item version that you each completed):

Age group	Average Loneliness (4-item)	Rough estimate for 20-item
18-30	<u>8.31</u>	<u>41.55</u>
31-40	<u>8.17</u>	<u>40.85</u>
41-50	<u>7.51</u>	<u>37.55</u>
51-60	<u>7.86</u>	<u>39.30</u>
over 60	<u>7.26</u>	<u>36.30</u>

Average for divorced adults (before the revision) \_\_\_\_\_

Average for your group \_\_\_\_\_

Your 4-item survey score \_\_\_\_\_

least number possible is 4

highest number possible is 16

Your 20-item score \_\_\_\_\_

least number possible is 20

highest number possible is 80

The lower your score, the less lonely you feel yourself to be. This instrument is new and still in the process of being normed for different populations. Please take your results as tentative when you look at them.

**APPENDIX J**

**HANDOUTS USED IN THE GROUP**

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Children by Age Group and by the Effects of Divorce

2½ - 6 Preschool	7 - 8 Early Latency	9 - 12 Later Latency	13 - 18 Adolescents
<p><b>FEELINGS:</b> irritable, acute separation anxieties, aggression.</p>	<p><b>FEELINGS:</b> sadness, grief, fear, deprivation, loss and anger.</p>	<p><b>FEELINGS:</b> loss &amp; rejection, helplessness and loneliness, shame, worry, and hurt.</p>	<p><b>FEELINGS:</b> disappointment.</p>
<p><b>EXPRESSION:</b> young kids regress in behavior; aggressive behavior and tantrums; fantasy.</p>	<p><b>EXPRESSION:</b> crying and sobbing, fantasizes, increment in possessiveness and no sharing.</p>	<p><b>EXPRESSION:</b> object directed toward mother, father, or both; tantrums, demands, and dictatorial attitudes; increase in petty stealing; somatic symptoms; strained relations with parents.</p>	<p><b>EXPRESSION:</b> openness about their situation, involved in social activities.</p>
<p><b>COPING MECHANISM:</b> no coping mechanisms which pushes them toward aggression.</p>	<p><b>COPING MECHANISM:</b> no healthy mechanism to avoid pain.</p>	<p><b>COPING MECHANISM:</b> views divorce with soberness and clarity and masks feelings with various available devices. Engage in play.</p>	<p><b>COPING MECHANISM:</b> more self-reliant.</p>
<p><b>SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT:</b> not applicable.</p>	<p><b>SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT:</b> no difference from other children.</p>	<p><b>SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT:</b> noticeable decline in school performance.</p>	<p><b>SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT:</b> no difference from other children.</p>
<p><b>REASON FOR DIVORCE:</b> self accusations.</p>	<p><b>REASON FOR DIVORCE:</b> majority concerned with causing the divorce.</p>	<p><b>REASON FOR DIVORCE:</b> only a few were concerned with them causing the divorce.</p>	<p><b>REASON FOR DIVORCE:</b> they did not see themselves as the reason for the divorce.</p>

Children by Age Group and by the Effects of Divorce (continued)

2½ - 6 Preschool	7 - 8 Early Latency	9 - 12 Later Latency	13 - 18 Adolescents
<p>COGNITIVE: confusion about what is happening.</p> <p>VISITATION: high frequency - once a week.</p> <p>ONE YEAR FOLLOWING DIVORCE: majority in worse condition.</p>	<p>COGNITIVE: confusion about what is happening.</p> <p>VISITATION: Peak visiting - up to three times a week.</p> <p>ONE YEAR FOLLOWING DIVORCE: 65% either improved and/or accepted the divorce - about 23% deterioration.</p>	<p>COGNITIVE: clear understanding of what is happening.</p> <p>VISITATION: infrequent and erratic visiting.</p> <p>ONE YEAR FOLLOWING DIVORCE: 25% worried about being forgotten or abandoned by both parents. 75% resumed educational &amp; social achievements. Those isolated worsened.</p>	<p>COGNITIVE: clear understanding of what is happening.</p> <p>VISITATION: few contacts but more than the 9-12.</p> <p>ONE YEAR FOLLOWING DIVORCE: majority of children operating again as before with some cognitive questions.</p>



At our first meeting, some of you indicated that certain relationships with others posed difficulties for you as a single-custodial father. This checklist is to help you evaluate your relationships, as a single-custodial father, with each of the following persons or groups. Rate each from 1 (very comfortable relationship) to 5 (very uncomfortable relationship).

### CHILDREN

- |                                 |   |   |   |   |   |
|---------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Own children in the home     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Own children not in the home | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Other children               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

### FAMILY

- |              |   |   |   |   |   |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4. Parents   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Relatives | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

### EX-FAMILY

- |                         |   |   |   |   |   |
|-------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6. Ex-wife              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Parents-in-law       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Relatives of Ex-wife | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

### FRIENDS

- |                             |   |   |   |   |   |
|-----------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9. Dates/potential partners | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Male friends            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Female friends          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Pre-divorce friends     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

COMMUNITY

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13. Neighbors   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Teachers  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Principals  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Bosses  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Co-workers  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Acquaintances (church,<br>sports, etc.)                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Sales people and/or<br>waiters/waitresses                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. Babysitters and/or child<br>care workers                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Community services (doctors,<br>guidance centers, welfare,<br>etc.) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Parents of your children's<br>friends                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

TIME MANAGEMENT

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
6-7							
7-8							
8-9							
9-10							
10-11							
11-12							
12-1							
1-2							
2-3							
3-4							
4-5							
5-6							
6-7							
7-8							
8-9							
9-10							
10-11							
11-12							
12-1							
1-2							
2-3							
3-4							
4-5							
5-6							
6-7							

\_\_\_\_\_ hours with children  
 \_\_\_\_\_ hours housekeeping (cleaning,  
 cooking, laundry, etc.)  
 \_\_\_\_\_ hours sleeping  
 \_\_\_\_\_ hours travel

\_\_\_\_\_ hours at work  
 \_\_\_\_\_ hours for self  
 \_\_\_\_\_ hours recreation  
 \_\_\_\_\_ hours for meals