

**Personality profiles in the 16PF correlated with measures of
distress in the Fisher's Divorce Adjustment Scale in divorced
men**

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Abstract

Research in the field of divorce has primarily focused on women and children, and there is a definite lack of literature that addresses divorce from a male perspective. This lack of knowledge has influenced the clinical treatment and general social support available to men who get divorced. This study aims to explore which, if any, of the personality factors in the 16PF are correlated with adjustment to divorce using the Fisher Divorce Adjustment scale in South African men. The divorce-stress-adjustment perspective was used to conceptualise adjustment to divorce and the factors that influence adjustment to divorce (Amato, 2000). The sample consisted of South African men who were divorced. A sample size of 40 participants was obtained using convenient sampling. The results of the study indicated that the personality factors 'Anxiety' and 'Emotional Sensitivity' are significantly and negatively correlated to adjustment to divorce. This indicates that aspects of personality that relate to a robustness of ego, low anxiety and a self-confident individual who is emotionally mature, is more likely to adjust significantly better to divorce and thus contribute significantly to the well-being of an individual post divorce.

Declaration

I declare that this dissertation is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Arts in Clinical Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other university.

S. Bogothiepersadh Maharaj (MS.)

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Chapter 1

Introduction

There have been significant changes in the trends of divorce in society over the last decade. South African divorce trends show a strong correlation with that of world divorce trends with an increase in the prevalence of divorce. An estimated 40 to 70 percent of all new marriages will suffer divorce after a prolonged period of marital separation (Statistics South Africa, 2008). In more recent South African studies it is estimated that two out of every five South Africa marriages will end in divorce (Statistics South Africa, 2008). The impact of divorce has far-reaching effects not only on the spouses involved but also on children, extended families and communities. It appears to be one of the most significant factors in shaping and reshaping society.

Research in the field of divorce has primarily focused on women and children, and very little literature in comparison addresses divorce from a male perspective. Women and children are often considered to absorb the greatest impact of divorce and thus much research has been conducted on the impact of divorce on them (Lillard & Waite, 1995). Following a divorce women are often left to be single parents to children, need to acquire additional financial resources and social support to cope with the adjustment to divorce (Amato, 2000). Children are a focus of much research on divorce as they are impacted by the dissolution of the nuclear family, changes in routine and family structure as well as the trauma of relocating or having to spend time in two households (Amato, 2000). Children of divorced parents may also be impacted by one or both spouses acquiring new romantic relationships or remarrying (Amato, 2000). They may be expected to be a part of new family systems and develop relationships with step-parents or step-siblings.

However, very little research is focused on the impact that divorce has on men. This lack of knowledge has influenced the clinical treatment and general social support available to men who get divorced. The particular dynamics that influence the way that men cope with divorce is not well-understood and thus professions who treat men

through the trauma of divorce are primarily working from the premise that the impact of divorce is the same for men and women (Berman & Turk, 1981; Meyers, 1989). Some research that has been conducted specifically on the way that men cope with adjustment to divorce suggests that it is indeed different to the way women and children cope with it. For example, more divorced men than women experience divorce as a subjectively traumatic experience (Meyers, 1989). Whereas women report experiencing the stress of divorce more than men, higher rates of divorced men who receive psychiatric hospitalization as compared to divorced women have been reported in the United States (Meyers, 1989). Men also appear to suffer more than women when it comes to the emotional distress of separating from their children (Berman & Turk, 1981). Thus a rationale for this study is to contribute to the body of literature and theory available specifically on men and divorce and thus influence clinical treatment of this population.

The impact of divorce has often been defined in research studies in terms of how an individual copes with adjustment of divorce (Amato, 2000). As indicated by the divorce-stress-adjustment perspective the way in which an individual adjusts to divorce can be regarded as fundamental to determining if they subjectively perceive the experience as more distressing (Lillard & Waite, 1995). An important consideration in adjustment to divorce is factors that contribute to a significantly better adjustment as compared to a poor adjustment to divorce. Personality has been suggested to be one of the mediating factors to adjustment to divorce and thus contribute to a significantly better or worse adjustment to divorce. Thus this study explores the relationship between personality and adjustment to divorce in order to ascertain if personality does indeed impact significantly on how an individual adjusts to divorce. However, the researcher found difficulty in obtaining sufficient literature that explores personality as a variable that influences adjustment to divorce and thus the results of this report seeks to contribute and expand to this novel body of literature.

Chapter 2

The complex nature of divorce and the impact that it has on men, women, children and extended families continues to make divorce an important factor that influences the psychological well-being of those who are impacted by it (Amato, 2000). Research in the field of divorce continues to be focused on women and children, and a lack of literature addressing divorce from a male perspective has poorly influenced the clinical treatment and the lack of general social support available to men. Even though there are differences in the effect of divorce in men and women, evidence suggests that men experience divorce in a more traumatic way (Meyers, 1989; Lillard and Waite, 1995). However, there is limited research on the impact, treatment and coping strategies that men use after experiencing a divorce (Lillard and Waite, 1995).

Divorce can be defined as the *dissolution of marriage in which a legal proceeding takes place in order to legally terminate the marriage of two individuals* (Lillard & Waite, 1995; Engelbrecht and Rencken-Wentzel, 1999). However, this legal definition of divorce has a limited value to the individual experiencing the consequences of the entire process of divorce. Thus, adjustment to divorce is a concept which is used as a measure of determining the *effect and outcomes* on an individual experiencing a divorce. The following literature review expands on this concept as well as paying particular attention to the impact of divorce on men and how the variable of personality impacts on the divorce process.

2.1 The Society of Divorce: South African Statistics

Divorce has changed the dynamics of marriage and the sanctity that it has held in past times. Divorce is not only as common as sending an sms three times to a spouse in some Arabic countries stating the end of the marriage, but has also become a 'natural' part of today's society. South Africa has not escaped this aspect of society. In South Africa the number of registered marriages has increased over the last ten years. There were 146 729 marriages registered in 1997 and this number had increased to 184 860 in 2006, showing an increase of 26%. However, the divorce rate appears to have fluctuated over the last ten years. The published data on divorces indicate that the

number of divorce cases has been fluctuating between 37 098 and 31 270 per annum in the past decade (Statistics South Africa, 2008). According to Statistics South Africa (P0307) the crude divorce rate for the South Africa was 81 per 100 000 of the population.

Divorce also appears to be more common among some South African population groups as compared to others. The distribution of couples divorcing by population groups shows that there were more divorces among the white population group compared to the other groups (Statistics South Africa, 2008). This finding does not necessarily indicate high divorce among that population but rather a possible reflection that the divorce data are based on divorces from civil marriages and not other types of marriages such as traditional marriages. According to Statistics South Africa the proportions of divorces from the mixed and the African population groups have been increasing whilst that of the white group has been declining in the past ten years. Thus, in 1997 the mixed, African and white groups made up 0,5%; 20,9% and 44,6% of the number of divorces respectively (Statistics South Africa, 2008). However, the current data indicate that the contribution of the mixed and the African groups have increased to 2,0% and 29,1% respectively whilst that of the white group has declined to 35,4% (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

Year	Total	Numbers					Percentages				
		African	Coloured	Indian/asian	White	Mixed	African	Coloured	Indian/asian	White	Mixed
1997	34 321	7 174	4 634	1 685	15 295	184	20,9	13,5	4,9	44,6	0,5
1998	35 792	6 673	3 760	1 753	14 443	250	18,6	10,5	4,9	40,4	0,7
1999	37 098	6 823	3 938	1 976	14 785	357	18,4	10,6	5,3	39,9	1,0
2000	34 145	7 623	3 365	1 746	15 211	444	22,3	9,9	5,1	44,5	1,3
2001	34 045	7 860	3 872	1 672	14 718	470	23,1	11,4	4,9	43,2	1,4
2002	31 370	7 050	3 581	1 525	14 171	365	22,5	11,4	4,9	45,2	1,2
2003	31 566	7 657	3 911	1 508	12 639	532	24,3	12,4	4,8	40,0	1,7
2004	31 768	8 965	3 300	1 648	12 437	594	28,2	10,4	5,2	39,1	1,9
2005	32 484	8 672	3 568	1 635	11 582	538	26,7	11,0	5,0	35,7	1,7
2006	31 270	9 113	3 451	1 676	11 079	613	29,1	11,0	5,4	35,4	2,0

Table 2.1: Number of published divorces in South Africa per population group

Other demographics of the divorced population in South Africa are useful in understanding the population dynamics of divorce. The median age of divorce in South Africa is 43 for men and 40 for women (Statistics South Africa, 2008). Irrespective of the population group, the distribution of divorces continues to be skewed towards earlier ages of marriage, with the highest number of divorces being observed for people who had been married for 5 to 9 years (Statistics South Africa, 2008). In 2006, 67,8% of all the divorce cases were marriages that lasted less than 15 years (Statistics South Africa, 2008). The number of divorces decreased as the duration of marriages increased for all population groups. Divorces were particularly fewer among those who had been married for at least 35 years or more (Statistics South Africa, 2008). These statistics suggest that length of marriage can act both as a predictive and protective factor of divorce.

According to Statistics South Africa (2008), more than half (60,6%) of divorces involved couples with children younger than 18 years old in 2006. This indicates the impact of divorce is more far-reaching than that of the spouses wishing to dissolve the marriage but in most instances affects the family as a system. As shown in Table 2.2, the total number of children involved was 30 242. Overall, 44,0% (8 193) of the divorces with children had only one child, 2,4% had at least four children at the time of the divorce (Statistics South Africa, 2008). On the average, there were between one and two (1,6) children per divorced couple (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

Population group	Total divorces	Divorces without children	Divorces with children	Total children involved
TOTAL	31 270	12 640	18 630	30 242
AFRICAN	9 113	3 243	5 870	9 812
COLOURED	3 451	1 070	2 381	4 120
INDIAN / ASIAN	1 676	655	1 021	1 602
WHITE	11 079	5 056	6 023	9 358
MIXED	613	330	283	441
UNSPECIFIED	5 338	2 286	3 052	4 909

Table 2.2: Divorces with and without children by population group and number of children involved.

2.2 Theoretical Perspectives: The Process of Adjustment to Divorce

The way in which an individual adjusts to divorce can be regarded as fundamental to determining if they subjectively perceive the experience more or less distressing than others do. The concept of adjustment is applied to many aspects of social behavior and is considered as the *basic requirement of social participation* (Bell, 1967). The concept of adjustment is also one of the most controversial concepts dealt with in the study of the family. It is necessary to caution the reader that there is no stated consensus upon the usage of the term. Thus this section of the paper captures different perspectives of adjustment to divorce.

There are a number of theoretical approaches that have guided the discussion of adjustment to divorce. One approach sees difficulty with adjustment to divorce as the *result of a social and pathological problem in which the divorcee is unable to re-establish a relationship, maintain relationships or cope with the disruption of their relationship* (Halem, 1980). Another theoretical approach suggests that individuals *perceive the divorce as a crisis, with the events of the divorce creating a disruption in patterns of thinking and action* (Halem, 1980). This approach views the consequences of divorce as negative, affecting various aspects of intrapersonal and interpersonal spheres of the lives of both divorced men and women.

Stress frameworks dominate the literature as a theoretical perspective of adjustment to divorce (Hill, 1941; McCubbin and Paterson, 1983; Pearlin et al., 1981; Cowan et al., 1996; Plunckett et al., 1997 as cited in Amato, 2007). This perspective has been used to inform a *divorce-stress-adjustment perspective* to the way that an individual and children of divorced individuals experience adjustment to divorce. This model encapsulates three inter-linked facets of divorce, namely the stresses pre- and post-divorce, consequences of adjustment to divorce and mediating or protective factors that influence adjustment to divorce. This perspective is particularly useful because it allows room for personality to be considered as a potentially significant and important factor in the adjustment to divorce and thus will be used as the overarching definition of adjustment to divorce in this study.

2.3 The Divorce-Stress-Adjustment-Perspective

The divorce-stress-adjustment perspective, outlined in Figure 1, views the marital dissolution as a dynamic event which begins while the couple is still living together and ends long after the legal divorce is concluded (Kitson and Morgan, 1990; Amato, 2000). The process of uncoupling usually coincides with numerous stressful events. These stressors increase the risk of emotional, behavioural and negative health effects for both adults and children (Amato, 2000). The severity and length of these negative outcomes vary from person to person and depend largely on a variety of moderating or protective factors (Amato, 2000). Protective factors may include resources, meaning made from the divorce and demographics. For the purpose of this research project *personality of participants are also considered as a potential protective or mediating factor to adjustment to divorce* and will be measured by the 16 Personality Factor Scale (16PF).

Adequate adjustment to divorce will depend on the negative outcomes, stressors and protective or mediating factors. The Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS) will be used to measure the adjustment to the divorce process and will be discussed further in this chapter as well as the method chapter of this research project. Adequate adjustment to divorce within the divorce-stress-adjustment perspective can be defined as *“being relatively free of signs and symptoms of physical or mental illness; being able to function adequately in the daily role responsibilities of home, family, work, and leisure; and having developed an independent identity that is not tied to the status of being married or to the ex-spouse”* (Kitson and Raschke, 1981 as cited in Kitson and Morgan, 1990, p. 913). This definition of adjustment to divorce involves various spheres of interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships as well as allowing room for internal resources to be significant in how an individual adjusts to divorce.

The divorce-stress-adjustment model will be expanded further in the following sections of this chapter by examining personality as one of the mediating factors to adjustment to divorce, stresses and consequences to adjustment to divorce.

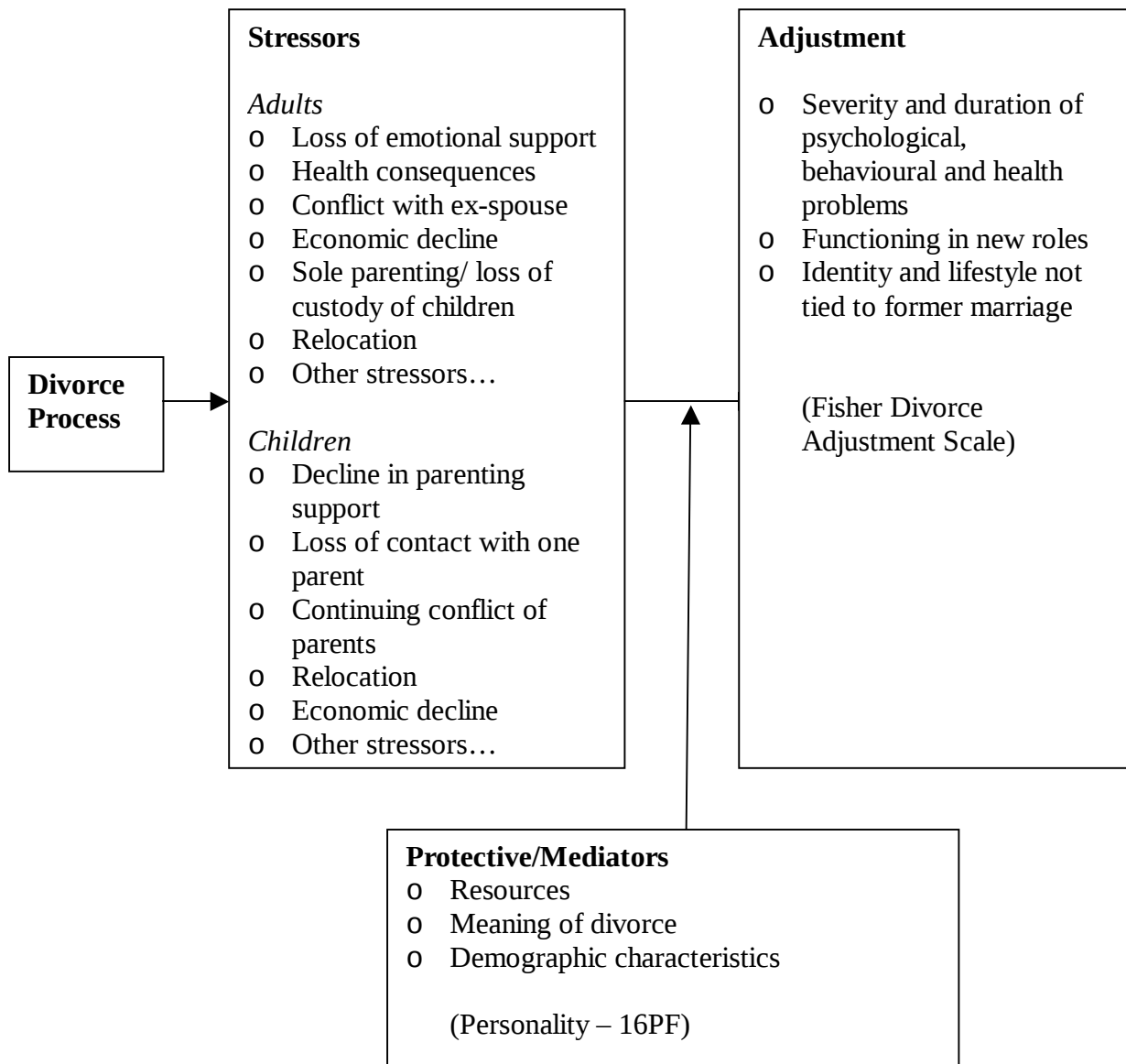


Figure 1: The Divorce-Stress-Adjustment Perspective (Amato, 2000)

2.4 Personality as a mediating/protective factor to adjustment to divorce

Mediating or protective factors impact on the way an individual adjusts to divorce. These may be internal, such as the individual character or personality of the individual, self-efficacy, coping skills or external such as financial resources, legislation regarding divorce and custody or community and social support. For example, an individual may regard divorce as a personal tragedy whereas another individual may view it as an opportunity for a second chance at life and happiness.

2.4.2 Personality and Divorce

Divorce is a significantly stressful life event that is not considered to be in the normal scope of human experience even though it is common in our society (Plummer and Koch-Hattem, 1986). The multifaceted complexity of divorce and the turmoil that is possibly experienced by those who divorce may result in the divorce being a subjectively traumatic event (Landis, 1960). Rose and Price-Bonham (1973) state that even individuals who were relieved by divorce often suffered emotional distress to the degree that they sought professional help. A study conducted by Goode (1956 as cited in Rose and Price-Bonham, 1973) measured the degree of trauma experienced by women according to behavior items as an indication of emotional distress. The items included difficulty in sleeping, poorer health, greater loneliness, low work efficiency, memory difficulties, increased smoking, and increased drinking. Using these criteria Goode (1956 as cited in Rose and Price-Bonham, 1973) found higher trauma to be positively related to all these factors as they increased after the experience of divorce. Other factors that contribute to the trauma of divorce include the adversary legal system in which cases can be dealt with insensitively and cause major disruptions and disputes in the lives of both spouses as well as children involved (Rose and Price-Bonham, 1973).

However, despite these situational or contextual factors affecting the experience of individuals; personality is also a significant factor that may influence the way an individual responds to a traumatic event, or the way an individual responds to these external factors. The way that an individual is impacted by divorce and the way an individual copes with adjustment to divorce can be greatly influenced by an individual's personality (Rose and Price-Bonham, 1973).

Personality can be described as *“a dynamic organisation, inside the person, of psychophysical systems that create a person's characteristic patterns of behaviour, thoughts, and feelings”*, furthermore personality also *“conveys a sense of consistency, internal causality, and personal distinctiveness”* (Carver and Scheier, 2000, p.5). This definition encompasses personality as patterns of an individual's unique thought, feelings and responses to a situation. Thus the individual experiencing divorce would have to redefine their identity and adjust to their circumstance as a divorced individual, processes that rely on personality characteristics of the individual (Rose

and Price-Bonham, 1973). Despite a review of literature described below, the researcher found very little information regarding personality as a potential factor of influence for adjustment to divorce.

In a study conducted by Nathawat and Botre (1998) the role of personality styles, personality disorders and psychopathology were explored in divorced and conjugal couples. The Millon Clinical Multi-axial Inventory-II (MCMI-II) was administered to 30 divorced and 30 conjugal couples. It was found that greater number of the divorced men and women fall in the category on the personality style scales of Narcissist, Anti-social and Self-Defeating than their conjugal men and women counterparts. Furthermore, the study indicated that their frequency was also significantly higher than their counterparts on clinical syndromes of Thought Disorder, Major Depression and Delusional Disorders. When gender-specific traits of divorced couples were filtered out, no significant difference was found except divorced men being more alcohol dependent than divorced women. This study indicated that personality may play a significant relationship in individuals who were divorced and those who were not.

Many factors influence an individual's particular adjustment trajectory to divorce. One of the unsettled hypotheses in the literature around divorce adjustment is whether divorce is a chronic strain, lasting throughout an individual's lifetime, or a crisis strain on an individual, lasting only a few years. There is evidence to suggest that the negative psychological, physical and economic consequences to adjustment to divorce subside over 2 to 3 years, suggesting a crisis model for adjustment to divorce (Booth and Amato, 1991; Kiston 1992; Amato, 2000). Other studies have failed to find improvement in functioning during the time since divorce unless remarriage took place, suggesting a chronic strain model (Wang and Amato, 2000; Amato, 2000).

This study uses the 16 personality factor (16PF) test to assess the personality of the participants. This test was developed by Raymond Cattell (1945) in order to isolate personality characteristics of the human population. The 16PF includes 16 bipolar dimensions of personality (first-order factors) and 5 global factors of personality (second-order factors) (Pearson Education, Inc, 2007). The 5 global factors include

extraversion, anxiety, emotional sensitivity, independence and compulsivity (Cattell, 1957). The scale also includes in the 16 factors, particular profiles that would hypothetically affect the way an individual will adjust to and cope with a traumatic event such as divorce. One could argue in accordance with the literature on divorce adjustment that these would include factors that related to a dependant personality type in which the individual experiencing divorce would find it most difficult to adjust to life without a spouse and thus perceive the divorce as more traumatic. In accordance with the aim of this study, personality factors may thus prove a fruitful empirical basis for beginning to theorize how personality may affect traumatic psychological responses to divorce.

2. 5. Stresses of Divorce: Factors that influence adjustment

As the divorce-stress-adjustment model indicates, the first negative effects of divorce may occur years before separation or the actual divorced is legalised. The way in which these stresses are mediated may be accounted for by an individual's personality or robustness to survive distressing situations as well as other external factors experienced by the individual. These are described below.

The factors which influence adjustment to divorce may be present in the entire family system. One spouse may initiate the divorce, and thus wants the marriage to end more than the other and in this instance the spouse who wishes the marriage to end may mourn the marriage while remaining within the marriage (Amato, 2000). When the marriage does end, this spouse may feel a sense of relief whereas the spouse who wanted the marriage to continue may only mourn the marriage once the divorced is legalised (Amato, 2000). Thus each spouse may proceed forward with their own adjustment trajectory and this may depend on the personality characteristics of that individual. The period of post-divorce, as the divorced becomes legalised also presents with stress, even to the spouse who initiated the divorce (Amato, 2000). Immediate stressors include a sense of isolation, economic restructure, declining contact with in-laws or married friends or relocating, as well as sole responsibility of children or the decline in contact with children in cases where children are involved (Kitson and Morgan, 1990). Often the conflict between parents leads to behavioural problems in children, adding further stress onto the couple and family (Amato, 2000).

2.5.1 Social Readjustment

Social readjustment is one of the most difficult transitions to make from marriage to divorce and one of the most significant stresses pre and post-divorce. Social readjustment involves *adapting to new roles within a social setting*. This includes with friends, family members, neighbours, the community and the church (Scully, Tosi and Banning, 2000). Divorce is rated as the second most stressful life event after the death of a spouse on the Social Readjustment Rating Scale developed by Holmes and Rahe (1967) (Scully, Tosi and Banning, 2000). This scale establishes the readjustment difficulties of divorce higher than that of imprisonment, death of a close family member or even personal injury or illness. The impact of divorce is far-reaching, usually impacting on various spheres of one's life. This may include a change of residence and occasionally in a change of vocation (Kressel, 1980). The stress of divorce is most often likely to be severest in the economic sphere, especially with the increasing number of two income households. There is a significant change in lifestyle of those who get divorced that were in two income households (Kressel, 1980). The impact of having to cope with readjusting to a lifestyle that is below the standard of what one is used to can significantly impact on how an individual copes with divorce. It can be hypothesised that an individual who has personality characteristics such as being easy going, trusting and extroversion may be able to socially readjust significantly better than those who do not have these qualities.

The support system which was available to married couples which may have included friends and family may become greatly reduced after a divorce. Although friends are initially supportive and helpful, they may rapidly place themselves at a distance as a result of conflicting loyalties to the two former spouses (Berman and Turk, 1981). Families are not immune to these conflicts either. Often family members are split with regards to loyalty and support to the spouses. In some instances family members may feel they are betraying one of the spouses by supporting the other (Kitson and Morgan, 1990). Thus for the divorced individual negotiating these stigmas and beliefs impacts on the way they readjust after a divorce. Divorced individuals may also feel like they lose their sense of community-belonging after the divorce. Often the church or other religious affiliations perceive divorce as a negative outcome and thus divorced individuals may distance themselves from religious gatherings. The stigma

of divorce is also carried through by other members in particular congregations, making readjustment in this setting particularly difficult (Kitson and Morgan, 1990).

Forming new social relationships and romantic relationships also become very difficult following a divorce. There is a reduction in the number of people who are willing to be involved with divorced individuals (Berman and Turk, 1981). This is largely due to the stigma involved with being a divorced individual. This includes ambivalence regarding the divorce and an unconscious fear in that the same process will repeat itself (Berman and Turk, 1981). Divorced individuals feel fearful of involvement in another long-term relationship as divorce or separation may reoccur and a sense of vulnerability that they feel may influence the level of social activity for many divorced individuals (Berman and Turk, 1981).

The relationship between the spouses after the divorced has taken place is another type of social readjustment which needs to occur. The prolonged, negatively toned contact between the spouses preceding, during, and following the divorce often interferes with effective adjustment to divorce. Spouses are often in continuous battle over living arrangements, finances, children and decisions regarding children. A negative relationship between spouses may greatly influence the way in which this type of adjustment takes place (Kitson and Morgan, 1990).

2.5.2 Implications for Parents and Children

Another stressor with the increase in marital dissolution is the major implications for children and the way they are nurtured and socialized (Amato, 1996). Slightly more than half of all divorces in the United States involve children under the age of 18 (Amato, 2000). In South Africa statistics show that more than half (60,6%) of divorces involved couples with children younger than 18 years old in 2006 (Statistics South Africa). McGue and Lykken (1992) found that divorce risk was, to a substantial degree, genetically mediated. The study conducted by McGue and Lykken (1992) attempted to link the social and psychological effects of divorce by examining the extent to which genetic influences on personality explain divorce risk heritability. A sample of adult twins from the Minnesota Twin Registry completed a marital history questionnaire and the Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire. The results indicated that in women and men, respectively, 30% and 42% of the heritability of

divorce risk consisted of genetic factors affecting personality, and personality and divorce risk correlated largely as a result of these common genetic influences. Thus the effects of divorce on children may have a long lasting impact on their well-being, including impacting on their own marriages.

When children are involved there are also changes in routine to spending time with them and the availability of children to either parent. It has also been reported that regular child-rearing practices and communication become disrupted during a divorce (Landis 1960; Berman and Turk, 1981). Divorced men appear to suffer the greatest adjustment difficulty in this sphere as even though joint custody is usually awarded, children normally reside with their mother (Amato, 2000). This inaccessibility to children with regards to men greatly impact on their ability to adjust after a divorce and to establish firm relationships with their children (Amato, 1996). It can be argued that divorced fathers who have a more robust personality, less anxious and more flexible may be able to adjust significantly better to this type of stressor.

Traditional role definitions of mothers and fathers, including those which still stand in the 21 century, presumes the mother as taking care of children while fathers are presumed to be primarily financial earners (Kelly, 2007). Thus, following a divorce it is readily presumed that mother's would function in the role as primary caretakers of children and that fathers would play a minor role, visiting their children as necessary and required. These influences have shaped the way that the South African judicial system views issues of custody (Engelbrecht and Rencken-Wentzel, 1999). The South African legal system has several legislations which govern custody laws. Sole custody to one parent is usually only awarded in circumstances which are compelling such as abuse, neglect or instability of the child from a parent (Engelbrecht and Rencken-Wentzel, 1999). However, even when a joint custody agreement is reached, children usually live with their mother and spend periods of time with their father to maintain some stability. Time with fathers usually includes weekends and vacations (Engelbrecht and Rencken-Wentzel, 1999). Thus, joint custody implies that both the parents have power in making decisions regarding children but it does not imply equal responsibility when it comes to the caretaking of children (Engelbrecht and Rencken-Wentzel, 1999).

Smyth (2005) conducted research regarding the living arrangements of children whose parents are separated. He identified six patterns of parent-child contact among a nationally representative Australian sample of children with parents, of who were mostly fathers, living elsewhere because of parental separation. These patterns included “shared care” (6%) defined as such when each of the parents had care of their children for at least 30% of nights; “standard care” (34%) defined when a set schedule of every other weekend for one or two overnights; “daytime only” (16%) defined by no set schedule and erratic; “holidays only” (10%); “occasional contact” of once every 3-6 months, with no overnights (7%) and “little or no contact” (26%) defined by face to face contact of less than once a year. These ranges can be compared to South African as many of the same laws apply as well as role of fathers in South African and Australian population.

Another study conducted by Parkinson and Smyth (2004) using an Australian national random sample reported that mothers’ views about fathers access to children may function as a barrier to meaningful contact between fathers and children. More than half of the mothers in the sample described that “standard care” and “no contact” arrangements are correct, whereas 61% and 74% respectively, of fathers reported that these two contact patterns were no where near enough. Furthermore, more than half of resident mothers had negative attitudes towards the idea of a 50/50 shared care whereas 73% of non-resident fathers had positive attitudes (Parkinson and Smyth, 2004). Similar results were found when studies of the same nature were conducted in the United States (King and Heard, 1999; Fabricuis, 2003; Fabricius and Hall, 2000 as cited in Kelly, 2007).

2.5.3 Financial Consequences of Divorce: Economic Well-being

The financial interruption and consequences following a divorce affects all people involved in the break up of a home and is one of the most significant stressors pre and post-divorce. Women, men and children bear the financial burden following the financial rearrangement after a divorce. Financial difficulties have a significant impact on psychological well-being (Kalmijn, 2004). There is a significant amount of research which suggests that women’s’ standard of living declines following a divorce, but the effect on men is less understood (Peterson, 1996; DiTullio, 1997; Morrison and Ritualo, 2000; Smock et al., 1999 as cited in McManus and Diprete,

2001). According to a study done by McManus and Diprete (2001), the majority of married men in the United States lose their economic status when their marriages dissolve. As we move into a post-feminist working society, women are increasingly more prominent earners in households. The decline in economic status occurs as men are unable to fully compensate for the loss of their partners income (McManus and Diprete, 2001). A secondary source of economic decline in men is an increase in compulsory and voluntary support payments made to the ex-spouse and children following a divorce (McManus and Diprete, 2001). McManus and Diprete (2001) report that most men experience a decline in living standards following a divorce and this influences how men adjust to divorce. There are a minority of men who relied on less than one fifth of their spouse's income pre-dissolution, whose income gains from divorce. When these results are compared to South African men it is recorded that there is more financial interdependence in South African partnerships and this trend thus appears to increase the proportion of men who suffer a reduced standard of living following divorce (Statistics South Africa, 2007).

Another concept in the sphere of financial well-being is satisfaction of divorce settlements. In a longitudinal study conducted by Sheets and Braver (1996), it was reported that women were significantly more satisfied than men with custody and visitation agreements, as well as with financial and property settlements. These gender differences were not transient but remained stable for 2 years following the divorce settlement (Sheets and Braver, 1996). Furthermore it was reported that it was the perceived control that women had over the settlement process which contributed to their greater satisfaction with divorced decrees (Sheets and Braver, 1996). Thus as indicated by this study, men are less likely to have perceived control over the divorce settlement process and are also less likely to be satisfied with the outcome of the divorce decree perhaps resulting in poorer adjustment to the divorce and specifically to the financial adjustment of divorce.

The stresses that occur before, during and after a divorce may have serious consequences for individuals in the process of divorce. The extent of the external stresses such as social readjustment, implications for parents and children and economic well-being, and external and internal resources such as family, friends, community support and personality characteristics all influence adjustment to divorce.

The following section of this chapter captures various consequences to adjustment to divorce.

2.6 Adjustment: Consequences of divorce

The divorce-stress-adjustment perspective indicates that adequate adjustment to divorce will depend both on the negative outcomes, stressors and protective factors (Amato, 2000). Marriage appears to protect individuals from some of the worst physical and psychological conditions and this can be explained by the choices and habits that married individuals make (Lillard and Waite, 1995). Married individuals, especially men, show lower levels of alcohol and cigarette consumption, higher earnings and lower levels of mortality than the unmarried (Lillard and Waite, 1995). Whereas women report experiencing the stress of divorce more than men, higher rates of divorced men receive psychiatric hospitalization as compared to divorced women in the United States. This suggests that men may be greatly underreporting distress relative to women or may have particular personality characteristics that make them vulnerable to poor adjustment to divorce (Meyers, 1989).

Adjustment to divorce will be measured using the Fisher's Divorce Adjustment scale (FDAS) which was developed by Bruce Fisher in 1976 in order to produce a measure of a person's adjustment to the ending of a love-relationship (Plummer and Koch-Hattem, 1986). This scale is useful as it is a measure that provides an understanding to the level of adjustment that an individual who has ended a relationship is experiencing.

Six subset categories are measured in the FDAS and they include self-worth, disentanglement, anger, grief, social intimacy, and social self-worth. The FDAS is a scale that is non invasive to those who use it as the questions are phrased in a sensitive and simple manner. Examples of questions from the scale include "I feel as though I am in a daze and the world doesn't seem real; It is easy for me to accept my becoming a single person; I can communicate with my former love partner in a calm and rational manner; I am physically and emotionally exhausted from morning until night."

The Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale has been used successfully in the study of divorce. A study was conducted by Hensley (1996) to examine the differences and similarities in relationship-termination adjustment between divorced and non-marital populations using the FDAS. Their sample consisted of 90 volunteers from either a divorce support group or the student population at a Midwestern university who completed a modified version of the FDAS. Analysis of the results found a significant difference in the FDAS scores based upon the type of relationship (divorced or ended long-term romantic) (Hensley 1996). Further analysis of the results indicated that the primary difference between the two groups was that the divorced group was more disentangled from the former relationship than the non-marital group.

The FDAS is used in this study to determine an individual's adjustment to divorce. A biographical questionnaire also supplements this area of the study by exploring questions that are not included on the FDAS but are useful in determining adjustment to divorce. This will be expanded further in chapter three of the research report.

2.6.1 Health Consequences of Divorce

Changes in health are one of the consequences of adjusting to divorce. The health consequences of those who divorce continue to show high levels of mortality and psychological and physical morbidity as compared to married and single individuals (Bebbington, 1987; Kisker and Goldman, 1987. Mergenhagen, Lee, and Gove, 1985; National Center for Health Statistics, 1988; Rosengren, Wedel, and Wilhelmsen, 1989; Smith, Mercy, and Conn, 1988; Trovato and Lauris, 1989 as cited in Kitson and Morgan, 1990; Wang and Amato, 2000). Divorce was rated the second most stressful life event after the death of a spouse using the Social Readjustment Rating Scale in an American sample group. This indicates the high impact that divorce has on well-being (Guidabaldi and Cleminshaw, 1985). Divorced individuals are consistently overrepresented in all psychiatric populations, with as many as 40 percent of all divorced people receiving some form of psychiatric care (Crago, 1972; Redick and Johnson, 1974; Bloom, 1973, Bloom et al., 1978 as cited in Berman and Turk, 1981). This figure does not include those individuals who seek counselling or other less formal interventions (Berman and Turk, 1981). There is also epidemiological data that indicate that psychiatric hospitalizations, death due to automobile and other accidents,

suicide and death from homicide as well as overall morbidity rate is higher for divorced rather than any other marital status (Kressel, 1980). The accumulation of psychological and material stressors activated by divorce can very likely be attributed as the negative health consequences reported by divorced individuals.

There are two views regarding the correlation of mortality and unmarried or divorced individuals. The first is a selection effect, by which those least likely to die are the most likely to marry, and secondly a protective effect, whereby marriage itself decreases the chances of dying (Lillard and Waite, 1995). An explanation for selection effect is that those with chronic conditions or dangerous or unhealthy lifestyles may have more trouble attracting a spouse than healthy, relatively settled individuals (Lillard and Waite, 1995). The protective effects of marriage may be more complex to describe but some researchers argue that the social integration provided by marriage results in lower mortality (Lillard and Waite, 1995). This may be because those who are married feel more sense of responsibility towards their spouse and or children.

2.6.2 Marital status and suicide: Men at risk

When an individual adjusts poorly to divorce the consequence may be severe. Studies have shown that married persons experience lower suicide rates than single or people who were never married. It is also indicated that divorced, separated and widowed persons have the highest rates of suicide (Kposowa, 2000). One of the most prominent explanations for this is that marriage provides both social and emotional stability whereas divorce, single hood and widowhood often do not. Marriage also provides protection against suicide as it alleviates social isolation and promotes social and community integration (Kposowa, 2000). A study by Smith and Mercy (1988) has indicated that divorced persons were 2.9 times more likely to die from suicide than married persons. Single people were observed to have a risk of 1.9 times that of married people to die from suicide. This study indicates divorced persons are more likely to die of suicide than single persons. However, this study only controlled for age only and not for gender differences or socio-economic status. An argument is also made that these individuals may have specific personality traits such as emotional sensitivity, high levels of anxiety and introversion which make adjustment to the divorce particularly distressing and thus may result in suicide.

A study conducted by Kposowa (2000) using an American sample examined the effect of marital status on the risk of suicide. Another objective of the study was to investigate the association between marital status and suicide by gender. The results of the study indicated that marital status is associated with the risk of suicide. Divorce and separation have the strongest association with the risk of suicide. When adjustments were made for confounding variables such as age, race, income, region of residence, divorce and separation were the only significant variable that showed an increase in risk of suicide. According to the results of the study, divorced or separated persons were 2.08 times as likely to commit suicide as married persons (Kposowa, 2000). When the data from the study was stratified by sex it was found that the risk of suicide of divorced men were twice as much as married women (Kposowa, 2000). However, there was no statistical difference between married and divorced women (Kposowa, 2000). When comparing these results to a South African population it appears that little research has been done regarding gender difference and suicide in divorced persons. However, a study conducted by the National Institute for Healthcare Research indicates that divorced persons are three times as likely to commit suicide as married persons (Caruso, 2008).

There are a number of different explanations for the difference in suicide risk of married men and divorced men. Women form larger support networks than men, including more meaningful friendships regardless of their marital status (Smith and Mercy, 1988). Thus men may not have the same emotional support following a divorce or separation as women do. Men are left in isolation to cope with the difficulties of a divorce. Another explanation is that men may lose not only their spouse in a divorce, but lose their children also as most fathers being the non-resident parent (Kposowa, 2000). With regards to suicide, men are indicated to use more violent methods and thus are more effective in completing suicide than women. A limitation of the study cited above and a consideration of the increased mortality in divorced men is that women often attempt suicide but fail to complete it (Kposowa, 2000). Women often use less violent methods of suicide such as attempting to overdose and thus are more likely to fail at a suicide attempt, thereby reducing the rate of suicide amongst divorced females as compared to divorced men. An argument is

also made that these individuals may have specific personality traits that make adjustment to the divorce particularly distressing and thus may result in suicide.

2.6.3 Divorced Fathers: Functioning in New Roles

Much of the literature on divorced men focuses on divorced men who are fathers. It appears that men who are fathers experience divorce in a unique way as they have the additional responsibility of fatherhood as well as the financial burden of supporting their children post divorce. Thus the consequences adjustment of divorced men who are fathers are expected to be different to those who are not fathers as compared to the divorce-stress-adjustment perspective (Amato, 2000).

Men may suffer more than women when it comes to the emotional distress of separating from their children. The legal system primarily awards women care of children of divorced parents, leaving the divorced spouse with increased psychological distress (Albrecht, 1980). Divorced women and men receive different amounts of social support. Women may visit siblings and parents more often and receive more services and financial aid from family than do men (Gerstel, Kohler Riessman and Rosenfield, 1985). This may be explained by women's greater involvement with and responsibility for children. Thus divorced women with children would be especially involved with family relations and support systems (Gerstel et. al., 1985).

There are two established views on the patterns of parenting after divorce in fathers. One of these is that fathers who were close to their children continue this relationship after divorce and the other view maintains that there is no effect on pre-divorce relationship on fathering after divorce. A study conducted by Seltzer (1991) examined the relationship between fathers and children who live apart and the father's role after separation. Three dimensions of father-child relationships were described in the article. These included visiting patterns, contributions to child support, and participation in and influence over decisions about children's life (Seltzer, 1991). These dimensions were measured among the relationship between resident and non-resident fathers and children. When fathers live apart from their children these dimensions of parental involvement face strain. The economic strain of setting up a new home and providing for children through set maintenance limits puts strain on the

parental involvement. Kelly (2007) names institutional barriers as one of the common factors influencing paternal involvement and children's living arrangements. Institutionalized visiting arrangements remain a barrier to fathers who want to be a meaningful part of their children's lives (Parkinson and Smyth, 2004; Kelly, 2007). Another factor is that contact with children occur outside the normal day of the father which places strain on this relationship. "As fathers' economic investments and contact with children decrease, their influence over their children's lives is also likely to diminish" (Seltzer, 1991, p. 82). Resident mothers may also have an influence in the paternal involvement with children, as fathers may be denied decision making if the economic requirements are not fulfilled (Seltzer, 1991; Kelly, 2007). Some non-resident fathers are also limited in their contact and influence in their children's lives because they may be geographically distant from their children (Seltzer, 1999; Kelly, 2007).

Studies of non-resident father's relationship with their children suggest that many fathers struggle with the pain of trying to maintain a close relationship with their children by limiting contact with them. In some instances this limited contact may be the result of avoiding conflict with their ex spouse. Other fathers may gradually drift away from their children, remarry and through this may establish a new family which to an extent may exclude children from the previous marriage. Some fathers may have particular avoidant personality traits and thus this makes it hard for them to work through the conflict with their ex-spouse or face their children following a divorce. Kelly (2007) states that remarriage of both or either parent may offer an explanation to the decreased contact between fathers and their children post-divorce. Fathers are reported as being unable to deal with multiple commitments if a child is born into the new marriage, thus diminishing contact with children from the first marriage is often the solution to fathers in this position (Kelly, 2007). Anderson et al, (2004 as cited in Kelly, 2007) state that half of parents report dating in the first 60 days following a divorce, and 80% report dating at a year after filing for divorce. Additionally, half of these relationships were deemed to be serious in nature.

Seltzer's (1991) study concluded that father's involvement with their children depend on the circumstances of the children's birth and living arrangements. Another factor which influenced the low involvement of non-resident fathers was the notion of role

definition of fatherhood post-divorce. Clear roles for fathers post-divorce yielded greater involvement with children (Seltzer, 1991).

2.6.4 Divorced Fathers: Distress and Well-Being

Children and mothers have traditionally been the focus of research regarding well-being post divorce. However, there is very little literature on fathers' well-being following a divorce. A study conducted by Cox and Cox (1976 as cited in Stone, 2001) identified three particular problem areas that fathers have following a divorce. These include practical problems of daily living, interpersonal problems in areas of intimate relationships and social life, and relating to children and ex-spouse as well as problems related to self-concept and identity. Other studies report that non-resident fathers are at a particular risk for long-term adjustment problems (Hughes, 1989; Kiston, 1992; Umberson and Williams, 1993 as cited in Stone, 2001). It can be hypothesised that these fathers may be associated with emotionally sensitive and dependent personality traits. Steward, Schwebel and Fine (1986) investigated the well-being of custody fathers versus those without custody following a divorce. The results indicated that custodial fathers scored significantly higher than non-custodial fathers in areas of self-esteem, depression and anxiety. The conclusion of the study was that parent-child cohesiveness assists with custodial fathers to adjust to the challenges faced in the first few years following a divorce.

A new intimate relationship is another factor which significantly influences post-divorce wellbeing in men. Entering into a new relationship may facilitate a socialization process for men. Attachment difficulties to the ex-spouse can also be processed and worked through within a new intimate relationship for men. Fathers who are in a new intimate relationship following a divorce report higher levels of post-divorce well-being and lower levels of psychological distress than those who are not (Stone, 2001). This is further discussed in section on 'remarriage' in this chapter of the research report.

Kelly (2007) also cites that a lack of interest, personality limitations associated with narcissism, or weak attachments to their children could also offer an explanation for father's weak relationship with children following a divorce (Arendell, 1995; Hetherington and Kelly, 2002; Wallerstein and Kelly, 1990 as cited in Kelly, 2007).

This contributes to a focus around personality and adjustment to divorce of both resident and non-resident fathers.

2.6.5 Remarriage

Remarriage serves to be a protective factor to negative consequences of adjustment to divorce. Statistics have indicated that as many as half of divorced men get remarried after a divorce (Statistics South Africa, 2007). Half (50, 1%), of the 10 215 males in a Statistics South Africa study were divorcees but the proportion of divorcees among the 8 283 females who were remarrying was slightly below half (3 904 or 47, 1%). Irrespective of their marital status, men tend to marry women who have never been married before. However, bachelors and widowers married either spinsters or widows while divorcees showed preference for spinsters or divorcees (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

Bell (1968 as cited in Rose and Price-Bonham, 1973) reported that the majority of divorced individuals considered remarriage as the best means of post divorce adjustment. It would appear that remarriage serves as a solution to the ambiguous relationship status of the divorced. Hunt (p. 285, 1966) noted that divorced individuals even who considered themselves reasonably successfully divorced “will not consider themselves wholly successful until they remarry”. Thus, it can be said that those who have been remarried since divorcing appear to be better adjusted than those individuals who have not remarried following a divorce.

Through literature and media it appears that society considers individuals who are married in a better light as compared to those who are divorced. In the American population reasons for remarriage include the fact that the adult society allows little latitude for the unmarried person, especially unmarried female parents (Rose and Price-Bonham, 1973). The social pressures for remarriage are of paramount, even though there is a move to a more liberated society, we still function in a couple-based world. The symbolic threat which the divorcee represents is another unconscious pressure which is placed on divorced individuals to remarry (Rose and Price-Bonham, 1973).

Another contributing factor to remarriage, especially in the case of divorced individuals with children is the notion that children need two parents in order to have a healthy level of family normalcy. This pressure of remarriage can come from the children themselves, who often communicate a longing for the remarriage of the parents. As this is not always possible, this pressure is interpreted as a longing for the child to be apart of a nuclear family. Although Bernard (1956) reported that dependent children had a negative effect on the eligibility of women, Goode stated that "the remarriage rate of divorced mothers is not much lower than that of female divorcees generally" (1956, 207 as cited in Rose and Price-Bonham, 1973). The number of children seemed to have no significant effect on the divorcee's courtship activities. However, women with fewer children did not remarry as rapidly as did those with more children. Earlier remarriage was found more often among those women who (1) deliberated a longer period of time between first serious consideration of divorce and filing of the lawsuit; (2) experienced greater loneliness during the period of separation; (3) experienced high trauma; and (4) reported being in love with another man prior to divorce (Rose and Price-Bonham, 1973).

The divorced persons who do not eventually remarry are in the minority. The tendency of divorced individuals not to remarry is explained by Hunt (1966) in terms of their more severe trauma and their need to progress through the process of adjustment more slowly. However, the decision on remaining single or to remarry after a divorce appears to be an individual based decision which is to some extent influenced by society, family pressure and urgency to provide a secure household for children.

2.7 Conclusion

The nature of divorce sees it as one of the most significant stressors in the life of those who are involved in the process of divorce. Using the Divorce-Stress-Adjustment perspective three main areas of the divorce process was identified. These included stresses, adjustment to divorce and protective or mediating factors.

The impact of divorce is one of an insidious nature, affecting various spheres of ones life. This is particularly true for South Africa as the statistics suggest that divorce is

common amongst the South African population. Some of these spheres include the social sphere, economic sphere, health and well-being and the sphere of parenting. In order to hypothesize personality factors as influential on adjustment to divorce one could argue that if an individual possesses personality factors such as emotional stability, a sense of social trust and tough-mindedness then they may be better equipped to cope with the adjustment to divorce and with external stresses that they may be faced with during and following a divorce. Individuals who do not possess such personality characteristics and who do not display resilience but who are emotionally sensitive, dependant or anxious personality characteristics may perceive the experience of divorce to be a more traumatic life event. The following chapter of this research report expands on the methods used to fulfil the aims of the research project in ascertaining if personality does impact on adjustment to divorce and in what way this variable impacts on adjustment to divorce.

Chapter 3

Method

This chapter outlines the aims and hypothesis of this research project, including the secondary aims and hypothesis generated. The research design of this study will be outlined, including sampling methods and a description of the instruments used. Details of the procedures and data analysis methods will be given as well as an overview of the ethical considerations made in the study.

3.1 Aim of the Study

This study aims to explore which, if any, of the personality factors in the 16PF are correlated with adjustment to divorce using the Fisher Divorce Adjustment scale in divorced South African men.

3.2. Research Question

- o Is there a relationship between personality factors of the 16PF and adjustment to divorce (Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale)?

3.3. Research Hypotheses

3.3.1 Primary Research Hypothesis

- o There is a relationship between personality subtypes of the 16PF and adjustment to divorce.
 - There is a relationship between first order factors of the 16PF and subscales of the FDAS.
 - There is a relationship between first order factors of the 16PF and adjustment to divorce.
 - There is a relationship between second order factors of the 16PF and subscales of the FDAS.
 - There is a relationship between second order factors of the 16PF and adjustment to divorce.

3.3.2 Secondary Research Hypothesis

- o There is a significant relationship between adjustment to divorce as indicated by the subscales of the FDAS and length of time married.
- o There is a significant relationship between adjustment to divorce as indicated by the subscales of the FDAS and being in a serious relationship.
- o There is a significant relationship between adjustment to divorce as indicated by the subscales of the FDAS and number of serious relationships following a divorce.
- o There is a significant relationship between adjustment to divorce as indicated by the subscales of the FDAS and days of contact with children.
- o There is a significant relationship between adjustment to divorce as indicated by the subscales of the FDAS and having mental health care intervention.
- o There is a significant relationship between adjustment to divorce as indicated by the subscales of the FDAS and conflict in divorce.

3.4 Research Design

The research took place in what was considered a natural setting for the divorced men, namely their homes and offices, where the variables under investigation occur naturally. However, the participants were obtained using the social network of the researcher. The research was concerned with investigating the possible relationship between several variables, and involved the measurement of more than two variables occurring at the same point in time within a single group of subjects, over which the researcher had no control (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). Owing to the fact that the research did not fulfill the requirements for true-, quasi-, or pre- experimental research, the research was non-experimental in nature. Hence the research took the form of a cross-sectional correlational design (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). The design in this study is correlational as it tries to explore if there is an association between variables, rather than a direct causal relationship (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). The research is regarded as cross-sectional as the sample in the study is a cross-section of the population under investigation and the study is dealing with a single time frame in the ongoing process of divorce in an individual's life (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). The study is exploratory as it seeks to find a relationship between variables and thus seek enough evidence to warrant further research.

3.5 Sample

Participants of this research project consisted of South African men who have undergone a divorce. The sampling method that was used in the research project was a non-probability sampling strategy and the technique used was convenience sampling. Participants in the study were obtained through the network of the researcher. Individuals in the study participated on a voluntary basis. Thus the sample size was determined by the number of responses received to the request of participation in the research. A minimum sample size of 40 was aimed to be obtained. While this number of participants cannot ensure statistical validity of this type of research, it does suit the aim of this research as an exploratory study. This includes discovering whether personality does in fact explain a significant amount of variance in adjustment to divorce, sufficiently enough to merit further research on the topic.

3.6 Instruments

The instruments consisted of a three page biographical questionnaire, the 16PF (SA92) scale and the Fisher Divorce Adjustment scale.

3.6.1 16 Personality Factor (16PF) Scale

The 16 personality factor (16PF) model was developed by Raymond Cattell (1945) in order to isolate personality characteristics of the human population. In addition, the 16PF was largely designed through studies on normal rather than pathological populations (Prinsloo, 1992). The purpose of the 16PF is to delineate the major personality factors in such a way as to allow the psychologist to form a broad picture of an individual's personality functioning (Prinsloo, 1992). It does not seek to recognise severe pathology or specific diagnostic entities, but rather concentrates on deviations in the personality characteristics of the normal individual (Prinsloo, 1992). The questionnaire used in this study was the SA92 form, which replaces the older A and B forms. This form is also developed and normed on a South African population and therefore is suitable for this research project (Prinsloo, 1992). This scale was thus used to characterise the personality types of participants.

The 16PF includes 16 first order-factors and 5 second-order factors. Each factor is described in terms of a low score and a high score. The 16 first-order factors are then used to develop the 5 second-order factors that include extraversion, anxiety, emotional sensitivity, independence and compulsivity.

The 16 factors can be defined as follows:

Factor A

Factor A is a measure of warmth. Low scores can be described as individuals who are reserved, detached, aloof, stiff, critical, rigid, cold, and prone to sulk whereas high scorers on this factor can be described as good-natured, warm-hearted, outgoing, soft-hearted, trustful, and attentive to people (Golden, 1979).

Factor B

Factor B is a measure of intelligence. Low scores on Factor B are associated with low mental capacity, poor judgement, lower morale, less perseverance, and less ability to work with abstract problems (Golden, 1979). High B scores are associated with high intelligence, ability to work with abstract ideas, good judgement, good morale, and perseverance (Golden, 1979).

Factor C

Factor C is described as a measure of ego strength. Low scores on the Factor are suggestive of an inability to handle frustration, a general emotional liability, an evasion of responsibility, and a tendency to worry and give up (Golden, 1979). High scores are associated with emotional maturity, general lack of anxiety, and an ability to deal with frustrating or difficult situations (Golden, 1979).

Factor E

Factor E is suggested as being a measure of dominance. Low scores on this Factor are associated with submissiveness, obedience, conventionality, docility, and dependence (Golden, 1979). High scores are associated with dominance, aggressiveness, hostility, rebelliousness, and independence. Low E scores may also serve as "door-mats" to others. Extreme high E-scores may be associated with a tendency towards emotional outbursts (Golden, 1979).

Factor F

This Factor is a measure of impulsivity. Low F scores are associated with seriousness, introspective behaviour, the presence of inner values, and a generally slow or cautious approach to problems (Golden, 1979). High F scores are associated with enthusiasm, cheerfulness, quickness, alertness, impulsiveness and a tendency to be very talkative and group involved (Golden, 1979).

Factor G

Factor G is a measure of group conformity. Low scores suggest a tendency to be fickle, frivolous, self-indulgent, undependable and generally unconcerned about group standards or morals (Golden, 1979). High G scores are associated with strong superegos, responsibility, conscientiousness, moral correctness, and a strong sense of duty (Golden, 1979).

Factor H

Factor H represents the concept of boldness. Low H scores are associated with shyness, restraint, sensitivity to threat, emotional caution, and unfriendliness (Golden, 1979). High H scores are associated with adventurousness, extroversion, social boldness, interest in the opposite sex, responsiveness, impulsivity, and a general insensitivity to danger signs (Golden, 1979).

Factor I

Factor I is a measure of emotional sensitivity. A low score is associated with tough mindedness, self-reliance, lack of sentimentality, cynicism, logic, practicality, and lack of hypochondriases (Golden, 1979). High I scores are associated with emotional sensitivity, insecurity, dependence, high imagination, attention-seeking behaviour, tendency to personalise criticism and hypochondriases (Golden, 1979). Low scores may have repression of emotionality, while high Factor I scores may indicate a higher sensitivity towards stress, which can be problematic in situations demanding logical, rational decisions, because of the elevated emotionality (Golden, 1979).

Factor L

Factor L is a measure of suspiciousness. Low scorers on L may be characterised as trusting, non-hostile, permissive, tolerant, and generally uncritical (Golden, 1979).

High L scorers tend to be jealous, dogmatic, suspicious, frustrated, domineering, and irritable (Golden, 1979).

Factor M

This Factor is a measure of imagination. Low scorers are generally described as conventional, practical, objective, conservative and not overly imaginative or farseeing (Golden, 1979). High scorers appear imaginative, interested in art and philosophy, fanciful, subjective, and unconventional (Golden, 1979).

Factor N

Factor N is a measure of shrewdness. Low scores on Factor N are suggestive of genuineness, spontaneity, vagueness, a lack of self-insight, simple tastes, passivity, and a blind trust in human nature (Golden, 1979). High scores on Factor N suggest social awareness, a calculating mind, emotional detachment, worldliness, ambition, and alertness to cutting corners and taking advantage of situations (Golden, 1979).

Factor O

Factor O is a measure of guilt proneness. Low O scores are indicative of an untroubled, adequate individual, who is likely to be self-confident, cheerful, internally controlled, and likely to act when it is necessary. The high O scorer, however, is an apprehensive, insecure and troubled individual who is likely to be anxious, depressed, sensitive to the disapproval and approval of others, hypochondriacal, phobic, and lonely (Golden, 1979).

Factor Q1

Factor Q1 is a measure of rebelliousness. Low scores are associated with conservatism, while high scores are associated with radicalism, a tendency to be experimenting, liberal, analytical, and freethinking (Golden, 1979). Extreme high Q1 scores may be associated with an inability to accept authority and to create a stable relationship with superiors and peers. Low Q1 individuals tend to be respecting of tradition and unwilling to change the way things are done (Golden, 1979).

Factor Q2

Factor Q2 is a measure of self-sufficiency. Low scorers appear to be group dependent, frequent joiners, and good followers. High scorers are described as self-sufficient individuals, who prefer depending on their own resources and their own judgements (Golden, 1979). This is also an alternate measure of introversion-extroversion, with the introversion being a healthier, more creative type of effort (Golden, 1979).

Factor Q3

Factor Q3 has been characterised as a measure of the ability to bind anxiety. Low scorers are characterised by a lack of control, a carelessness with respect to social rules, and a tendency to follow one's own urges (Golden, 1979). High scorers are controlled, socially precise, compulsive, and possess strong will power. The high Q3 individual thinks before acting and does not let emotions upset disturb routine. Such individuals are dependable, well-controlled, and good workers. High Q3 scores are associated with good mental health, although taken to extremes it can indicate obsessive-compulsive behaviour (Golden, 1979). Low Q3 scores are associated with over-reactivity. They are not able to handle stress productively, and have difficulty in large organisations in which responsibility is an important factor. If a low Q3 is found in the presence of other anxiety indicators, there is strong reason to suspect that the person is currently in emotional trouble, often of a serious nature.

Factor Q4

Factor Q4 is a measure of free-floating anxiety and tension. Low scores are associated with low tension, low anxiety, a relaxed approach to life, and a general lack of frustration (Golden, 1979). High scorers on Q4 are characterised by frustration, and a generally highly anxious approach to problems. According to Golden (1979), this Factor is the single best indicator of neurotic anxiety on the 16PF. High scores can be associated with a person with extreme problems, a cry for help, or a faking bad profile.

3.6.2 Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale

The Fisher Divorce Adjustment scale will be used to measure adjustment to divorce. The FDAS was developed by Bruce Fisher in 1976 in order to produce a measure a

person's adjustment to the ending of a love-relationship (Plummer and Koch-Hattem, 1986). This scale is useful as it is a measure that provides an understanding to the level of adjustment that an individual who has ended a relationship is experiencing. Six subset categories are measured in the FDAS and they include self-worth, disentanglement, anger, grief, social intimacy, and social self-worth.

The FDAS is a scale that is non invasive to those who use it as the questions are phrased in a sensitive and simple manner. The scale consists of 100 items that are scored on a five-point Likert scale, with responses ranging from “almost never” to “almost always”. An overall high score on this scale will indicate distress in divorce adjustment (Plummer and Koch-Hattem, 1986).

3.7 Procedure

Due to the nature of the sample potential participants were identified using a personal network. Family members, friends and colleagues were asked to identify potential participants that they knew from their personal networks. Once identified these participants were contacted telephonically to ascertain if they were willing to participate in the study. A total of 114 potential participants were contacted and 98 potential participants were willing to participate in the study. 16 potential participants who were identified refused to participate in the study. 98 packs including a participant information sheet (Appendix A), instruction sheet (Appendix C), consent to participate sheet (Appendix B), 16PF scale and answer sheet, FDAS and answer sheet (Appendix E) and a biographical questionnaire (Appendix D) were handed out to the participants. In order to guarantee confidentiality the participants were requested to complete the scales and questionnaires and post their responses back to the researcher. Each pack included an addressed envelope for which the postage was prepaid. On completion of the data analysis 43 envelopes were returned to the researcher. However, 3 of these were incomplete and thus excluded from the analysis.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

The nature of the study does deal with the sensitive issue of divorce. The impact of divorce on individuals has varying degrees, and this may have been emphasised by participation in this study. The data collection procedure was non-invasive as tests

were administered, although participation in the study may have evoked negative emotions about the divorce. However, participants volunteered for the study after knowing the nature of the study as this was discussed telephonically with them. It must be noted that although directly contacting potential participants telephonically may have been intrusive, this was the only way to gain permission from potential participants to participate in the study. Participants were given a clear description of the study as indicated by the participant information sheet and willingness to volunteer meant that they had an awareness that participation may evoke strong emotions.

Participants were informed that if they felt uncomfortable with participating in the study they could freely withdraw at any time. In order to encourage openness and honesty as well as to protect the participant's identity in reporting of the study, confidentiality on the part of the research team (researcher and supervisor) was guaranteed. None of the family members, friends and colleagues who identified potential participants were made aware of which of the potential participants finally participated in the study. No identifying information was requested from the participants as to ensure anonymity in reporting of results.

If any of the participants wished to receive therapy after participation contact details of the Emthonjeni Therapy Centre at the University of the Witwatersrand and FAMSA was made available to them. Furthermore, a referral to private psychologists will be available to those men who wish to receive private therapy.

3.9 Data Analysis

As the main research question is whether there is a relationship between personality profiles and adjustment to divorce, a correlations test was used to answer the research question. McCall (1994) stated that correlations enable the researcher to test if there is a relationship between variables under study and to identify the strength of that relationship (cited in Falconer, 2000). The variables include personality factors of the 16PF and adjustment to divorce as measured by the FDAS. Internal consistency reliabilities using Chonbach's Alpha were done for both the 16PF and FDAS. Tests for normality proved that the data was not normally distributed and thus non-

parametric tests were used to analyse the data. Some of the extraneous variables that may have influenced the results of the study have been outlined in the biographical questionnaire (appendix D). These variables can be clustered to include current and past relationship status, current spousal relationship, relationship to children (if any), the therapeutic interventions which may have influenced the impact of the divorce and the influence of genetic heritability of divorce. These variables were accounted for by including them as secondary hypothesis to examine their relationship on adjustment to divorce. (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991).

This chapter has outlined the methods used in this research project. These methods were executed carefully in obtaining participants, collecting data and generating the results of this project. Chapter 4 will outline the results found. Limitations of the methods used will be described in Chapter 6.

Chapter 4

Results

This chapter presents the statistical results of the study. Firstly, descriptive data relating to the demographic information and scales will be presented. This is followed by a discussion of the internal reliability consistency of the scales. Finally the results of secondary and primary hypothesis are described.

4.1 Key to Abbreviations

16PF	16 Personality Factor Scale - First Order Factors (low and high sten scores)
16PF_A	Reserved/Outgoing
16PF_B	Less Intelligent/ More Intelligent
16PF_C	Affected by Feelings/Emotionally Stable
16PF_E	Humble/Assertive
16PF_F	Sober/Happy-Go-Lucky
16PF_G	Expedient/Conscientious
16PF_H	Shy/Venturesome
16PF_I	Tough-minded/ Tender-minded
16PF_L	Trusting/Suspicious
16PF_M	Practical/Imaginative
16PF_N	Forthright/Shrewd
16PF_O	Placid/Apprehensive
16PF_Q1	Conservative/Experimenting
16PF_Q2	Group-dependant/Self-sufficient
16PF_Q3	Casual/Controlled
16PF_Q4	Relaxed/Tense
	16 Personality Factor Scale - Second Order Factors
PF_Ex	Extraversion
PF_An	Anxiety
PF_Es	Emotional Sensitivity

PF_In	Independence
PF_Co	Compulsivity

Table 4.1: Key to 16 Personality Factor scale abbreviations

FDAS	Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale
FD_FSW	Feelings of Self-Worth
FD_RST	Rebuilding Social Trust
FD_FA	Feelings of Anger
FD_SG	Symptoms of Grief
FD_DLR	Disentanglement from Love Relationship
FD_SSW	Social Self Worth
FD_TOT	Total FDAS Score

Table 4.2: Key to Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale abbreviations

Biographical Questionnaire	
LMAR	Length of time married
LRBM	Length of relationship before marriage
ISR	In a serious relationship since divorce
NSR	Number of serious relationships since divorce
CHD	Number of children from divorced relationship
DCWC	Days of contact with Children
CWEX	Contact with ex-wife
MP	Married prior
MS	Married and separated since divorce
REM	Remarried since divorce
CID	Conflict in divorce
ID	Initiated divorce
RTC	Relationship to continue
MHC	Mental health care
BPD	Biological parents divorced

Table 4.3: Key to biographical questionnaire abbreviations

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

4.2.1 Demographic Information

The total number of participants in the study was 40 ($n=40$). All the participants were South African men who were divorced. Analysis of the data revealed that in the sample of 40 divorced men their ages ranged between 31 and 58 years with an average age of 41.8 years. A histogram plot indicated that this result was not normally distributed.

The data revealed that the average length of the marriage before divorce is 9.7 years with a minimum length of 1 year and maximum of 27 years (Table 4.4). The histogram plot for this variable revealed a positively skewed distribution indicating more marriages lasting a shorter period of time. The length of the relationship before the marriage averaged 3.2 years with a minimum time of 0.16 (2 months) and a maximum time of 11 years (Table 4.4). 18 of the 40 participants indicated that they still had substantial contact with their ex-wife and 30 participants indicated that there was little or no conflict in the divorce. As indicated by Table 4.10, 14 of the 40 participants reported that they initiated the divorce, 15 reported that their spouse initiated the divorce and 11 participants indicated that the divorce was mutually initiated. Only 8 of the 40 participants received some form of mental health care intervention following divorce (Table 4.11). 9 of the 40 participants were married prior to the relationship being investigated and 3 of the 40 participants were married and separated since the relationship being investigated.

As indicated by Table 4.7, of the 40 participants 26 indicated that they were in another serious relationship since the divorce whereas 14 participants had no serious relationships after the divorce. The average number of serious relationships is 0.97 (1) with a minimum of 0 and a maximum of 3 serious relationships since divorce (Table 4.4). 11 of the 40 participants had remarried since the divorce.

29 of the 40 participants had children from the divorced marriage. These participants indicated average contact with children as 9.67 days per month with a minimum of 0 days and a maximum of 30 days per month (Table 4.4). 13 of the 40 participants own biological parents were also divorced (Table 4.13).

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
Age	41.8000000	7.0645377	31.000000	58.000000
LMAR	9.7000000	6.7972468	1.000000	27.000000
LRBM	3.2977500	2.3552010	0.160000	11.000000
NSR	0.9750000	0.8911963	0	3.000000
DCWC	9.67500	11.98158	0	30.00000

Table 4.4: Descriptive statistics for interval data for age, length of time married (LMAR), length of time before marriage (LRBM), number of serious relationships (NSR) and days of contact with children (DCWC).

MP				
MP	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	31	77.50	31	77.50
2	9	22.50	40	100.00

Table 4.5: Frequency for nominal data married prior (MP).

1=No

2=Yes

MS				
MS	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	37	92.50	37	92.50
2	3	7.50	40	100.00

Table 4.6: Frequency for nominal data married and separated since divorce (MS)

1=No

2=Yes

ISR				
ISR	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	14	35.00	14	35.00
2	26	65.00	40	100.00

4.7: Frequency for nominal data in a serious relationship (ISR).

1=No

2=Yes

REM				
REM	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	29	72.50	29	72.50
2	11	27.50	40	100.00

Table 4.8: Frequency for nominal data remarried since divorce (REM).

1=No

2=Yes

CID				
CID	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	30	75.00	30	75.00
2	10	25.00	40	100.00

Table 4.9: Frequency for nominal data conflict in divorce (CID).

1=No

2=Yes

ID				
ID	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	14	35.00	14	35.00
2	15	37.50	29	72.50
3	11	27.50	40	100.00

Table 4.10: Frequency for nominal data who initiated the divorce (ID).

1=You

2=Spouse

3=Both

MHC				
MHC	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	32	80.00	32	80.00
2	8	20.00	40	100.00

Table 4.11: Frequency for nominal data mental health care intervention (MHC).

1=No

2=Yes

RTC				
RTC	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	18	45.00	18	45.00
1	6	15.00	24	60.00
2	16	40.00	40	100.00

Table 4.12: Frequency for nominal data for the relationship to continue (RTC)

0=No one

1=You

3=Spouse

BPD				
BPD	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	27	67.50	27	67.50
2	13	32.50	40	100.00

Table 4.13: Frequency for nominal data biological parents ever divorced (BPD)

1=No

2=Yes

4.2.2. 16 Personality Factor Scale

Analysis of the 16PF subscales revealed the overall nature of the sample as indicated by their responses to the scale. The summary outlined in Table 4.14 shows the means of each Factor, as well as a description that corresponds to the mean. Overall, the nature of the sample included men who were outgoing rather than reserved as indicated by 16PF_A, men that fell between less intelligent and more intelligent as indicated by 16PF_B, a high emotionally stable sample of men as indicated by 16PF_C and a high assertive sample of men as indicated by 16PF_E. Other qualities of the sample included a more happy-go-lucky rather than sober sample as indicated by Factor F, more contentious rather than expedient men as indicated by 16PF_G and a highly venturesome rather than a shy sample of men as indicated by 16PF_H. 16PF_I subscale revealed a more tender-minded rather than tough-minded pool of men, 16PF_L showed that the men in this sample were more suspicious rather than trusting and more imaginative rather than practical as indicated by 16PF_M. Subscale

16PF_N describes a very high shrewd sample as compared to a forthright sample, the mean of subscale 16PF_O indicated that the sample of men fell between placid and assertive, and that they were more experimenting rather than conservative as indicated by 16PF_Q1. Subscale 16PF_Q2 revealed a slightly more self-sufficient rather than group-dependant sample of men whereas 16PF_Q3 suggested that the men were more controlled rather than casual. This sample of men also fell between relaxed and tense as indicated by the mean of subscale 16PF_Q4.

Following tests for normality it was noted that the data did not meet requirements for parametric statistical analysis. Thus non-parametric analysis were conducted. Possible reasons for the skewed data are small sample size, nature of sample, empirical flaws in method and participant bias subjectivity. These are discussed further in chapter 5 and 6 of this research project.

Variable	Mean	Std dev	Description of sample
16PF_A	9.9000	2.7992673	Outgoing
16PF_B	7.1250000	2.2324817	Less Intelligent/ More Intelligent
16PF_C	11.0500000	3.4563209	Emotionally Stable
16PF_E	13.6000000	3.7607964	Assertive
16PF_F	11.0000000	2.8193471	Happy-Go-Lucky
16PF_G	12.1000000	3.3034558	Conscientious
16PF_H	11.3000000	3.8041812	Venturesome
16PF_I	11.3000000	3.0059770	Tender-minded
16PF_L	12.5250000	4.0886804	Suspicious
16PF_M	11.7750000	4.1663333	Imaginative/Practical
16PF_N	16.6500000	3.8799286	Shrewd
16PF_O	6.2750000	3.3358004	Placid/Apprehensive
16PF_Q1	11.3500000	3.5340831	Experimenting
16PF_Q2	8.6000000	3.4103914	Self-sufficient
16PF_Q3	13.1250000	3.3450116	Controlled
16PF_Q4	6.600000	3.2956848	Relaxed/Tense

Table 4.14: Descriptive statistics for 16PF.

4.2.3 Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS)

An analysis of the FDAS subscales revealed the nature of the sample through their responses on the scale. As indicated by Table 4.15, subscale FD_FSW showed that the sample had good feelings of self worth. Subscale FD_RST suggests that the sample were open to social trust rather than fearful of social trust. Subscale FD_FA revealed that participants were in between anger towards ex-spouse dissipating and angry at ex-spouse. The histogram did however indicate a positively skewed distribution towards anger at ex-spouse dissipated. FD_SG showed that the sample fell between grieving for ex-spouse and grief work completed. FD_DLR revealed a sample between being emotionally disentangled from the ex-spouse and emotionally investing in the ex-spouse. Subscale FD_SSW showed a sample with good feelings of social self worth. The histogram analysis revealed a platykurtic distribution.

As none of the scales were normally distributed the data did not meet requirements for parametric statistical analysis. Thus non-parametric analyses were conducted. Possible reasons for the skewed data are small sample size, nature of sample, empirical flaws in method and participant bias subjectivity. This is reviewed in the discussion and limitations and recommendations chapters of this research project.

Variable	Mean	Std dev	Description of sample
FD_FSW	94.4000000	16.9142634	Good feelings of self-worth
FD_RST	30.9250000	6.3301780	Open to social trust
FD_FA	43.7250000	9.8890966	Feelings of anger/dissipated
FD_SG	90.1250000	17.0537424	Grieving/grief work completed
FD_DLR	84.5250000	16.0191992	Disentanglement from Love Relationship
FD_SSW	33.4000000	5.7681708	Good social self worth

Table 4.15: Descriptive statistics for FDAS

4.3 Internal Consistency Reliabilities

4.3.1 Internal Consistency Reliabilities for 16PF

As indicated by table 4.16 the Cronbach Alpha (CA) coefficient for the 16PF is 0.74. This is consistent with the internal reliability of the 16PF on normed populations. Reliability coefficients that were calculated by test-retest using short intervals demonstrated acceptable coefficients, with only a few instances of a scale falling below a 0.70 magnitude (Prinsloo, 1992). For stability coefficients, test-retest administration was conducted over long intervals. The magnitudes were expectedly reduced. Inter-correlations between primary factor scales generated from different test forms are seldom greater than 0.50 when Forms A and B are compared (Prinsloo, 1992).

Cronbach Coefficient Alpha	
Variables	Alpha
Raw	0.722172
Standardized	0.740550

Table 4.16: Cronbach Coefficient Alpha for 16PF

4.3.2 Internal Consistency Reliabilities for FDAS

As indicated by Table 4.17 the Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the FDAS is 0.96. This indicated a high internal consistency and thus makes the scale a very reliable instrument for measuring adjustment to divorce. This is supported by current literature, where other samples also produced high internal consistency reliabilities (Yilmaz and Fisiloglu, 2001).

Cronbach Coefficient Alpha	
Variables	Alpha
Raw	0.959978
Standardized	0.962178

Table 4.17: Cronbach Coefficient Alpha for FDAS

4.4 Secondary Hypothesis

As the subscales in the FDAS and some subscales in the 16PF were not normally distributed only non-parametric analysis could be used.

4.4.1 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to length of time married.

As indicated by Table 4.18 no significant relationships were found between subscales of the FDAS and length of time married.

Variable	FD_FSW	FD_RST	FD_FA	FD_SG	FD_DLR	FD_SSW
LMAR	0.15464	0.28626	0.02845	0.08281	0.08733	0.25218
	0.3407	0.0733	0.8617	0.6115	0.5921	0.1164

Table 4.18: Spearman Correlation Coefficients between FD_FSW, FD_RST, FD_FA, FD_SG, FD_DLR, FD_SSW and length of time married.

4.4.2 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to being in a serious relationship.

As indicated by Table 4.19 no significant relationships were found between subscales of the FDAS and being in a serious relationship.

Variable	Statistic	Z	One-Sided Pr > Z
FD_FSW	259.0000	-0.7802	0.2176
FD_RST	236.5000	-1.4208	0.0777
FD_FA	249.0000	-1.0649	0.1435
FD_SG	274.0000	-0.3548	0.3614
FD_DLR	241.0000	-1.2913	0.0983
FD_SSW	294.5000	0.1991	0.4211

Table 4.19: ANOVA results for in a serious relationship (ISR).

4.4.3 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to number of serious relationships since divorce.

As indicated by Table 4.20 no significant relationships were found between subscales of the FDAS and number of serious relationships since divorce.

Variable	FD_FSW	FD_RST	FD_FA	FD_SG	FD_DLR	FD_SSW
NSR	0.02504	0.16597	0.22454	0.04763	0.07011	-0.00469
	0.8781	0.3061	0.1636	0.7704	0.6673	0.9771

Table 4.20: Spearman Correlation Coefficients between FD_FSW, FD_RST, FD_FA, FD_SG, FD_DLR, FD_SSW and number of serious relationships since divorce.

4.4.4 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to days of contact with children.

As indicated by Table 4.21 no significant relationships was found between subscales of the FDAS and days of contact with children.

Variable	FD_FSW	FD_RST	FD_FA	FD_SG	FD_DLR	FD_SSW
DCWC	0.28085	0.10788	0.12063	0.24519	0.05514	0.10317
	0.0792	0.5076	0.4584	0.1273	0.7354	0.5264

Table 4.21: Spearman Correlation Coefficients between FD_FSW, FD_RST, FD_FA, FD_SG, FD_DLR, FD_SSW and days of contact with children.

4.4.5 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to mental health care intervention.

As indicated by Table 4.22 no significant relationships was found between subscales of the FDAS and mental health care intervention.

Variable	Statistic	Z	One-Sided Pr > Z
FD_FSW	126.5000	-1.2517	0.1053
FD_RST	129.5000	-1.1521	0.1246
FD_FA	180.5000	0.5418	0.2940
FD_SG	191.0000	0.8968	0.1849
FD_DLR	132.5000	-1.0491	0.1471
FD_SSW	115.5000	-1.6280	0.0518

Table 4.22: ANOVA results for mental health care intervention (MHC).

4.4.6 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to conflict in divorce.

As indicated by Table 4.23 a negative significant relationship was found between the feelings of anger subscale of the FDAS and conflict in divorce. No other significant relationships were found.

Variable	Statistic	Z	One-Sided Pr > Z
FD_FSW	193.0000	-0.3594	0.3597
FD_RST	203.5000	-0.0313	0.4875
FD_FA	110.0000	-2.9560	0.0016
FD_SG	180.5000	-0.7503	0.2265
FD_DLR	0.2265	-0.0469	0.4813
FD_SSW	240.5000	1.0966	0.1364

Table 4.23: ANOVA results for conflict in divorce (CID).

This chapter presented the results found in the study. A description of the results of the analysis for both primary and secondary hypothesis was outlined. A discussion of these results is outlined in the next chapter of this research project.

4.5 Primary Hypothesis

4.5.1 There is a relationship between first order factors of the 16PF and subscales of the FDAS.

As indicated by Table 4.24 there was a significant relationship between:

- PF_B (more intelligent) and FD_FSW (feelings of self-worth). This relationship was positively correlated.
- PF_C (emotionally stable) and FD_FSW (good feelings of self-worth), FD_RST (open to social trust), FD_SG (grief work complete), FD_DLR (emotionally disentangled from love relationship) and FD_SSW (good social self-worth). These relationships were positively correlated.
- PF_F (happy-go-lucky) and FD_RST (open to social trust). This relationship was positively correlated.
- PF_H (venturesome) and FD_FSW (good feelings of self-worth), FD_RST (open to social trust), FD_SG (grief work complete), FD_DLR (emotionally disentangled from love relationship) and FD_SSW (good social self-worth). These relationships were positively correlated.
- PF_L (trusting) and FD_RST (open to social trust). This relationship was negatively correlated.
- PF_O (placid) and FD_FSW (good feelings of self-worth), FD_RST (open to social trust), FD_SG (grief work complete), FD_DLR (emotionally disentangled from love relationship) and FD_SSW (good social self-worth). These relationships were negatively correlated.
- PF_Q3 (controlled) and FD_FSW (good feelings of self-worth). This relationship was positively correlated.
- PF_Q4 (relaxed) and FD_FSW (good feelings of self-worth), FD_RST (open to social trust), FD_SG (grief work complete), FD_DLR (emotionally disentangled from love relationship) and FD_SSW (good social self-worth). These relationships were negatively correlated.

Note: FD_A (anger at former spouse) was the only non-significant variable in PF_C (emotionally stable), PF_H (venturesome), PF_O (placid) and PF_Q4 (relaxed).

No other significant relationships were noted.

	FD_FSW	FD_RST	FD_FA	FD_SG	FD_DLR	FD_SSW
PF_A PF_A	0.06969 0.6692	0.17897 0.2692	0.22640 0.1601	0.08679 0.5944	0.14155 0.3836	0.02481 0.8792
PF_B PF_B	↘ 0.31988 ↗ 0.0442	0.22126 0.1700	-0.03470 0.8317	0.17117 0.2910	0.24679 0.1247	0.12600 0.4385
PF_C PF_C	↘ 0.63239 ↗ <.0001	↘ 0.56822 ↗ 0.0001	0.08815 0.5886	↗ 0.54743 ↗ 0.0003	↘ 0.55102 ↗ 0.0002	↘ 0.49934 ↗ 0.0010
PF_E PF_E	0.00523 0.9744	-0.04395 0.7877	-0.12661 0.4363	0.04205 0.7967	0.08420 0.6055	0.02008 0.9021
PF_F PF_F	0.29833 0.0615	0.32700 ↘ 0.0394	-0.09880 0.5441	0.20264 0.2098	0.25051 0.1190	0.30755 0.0535
PF_G PF_G	0.14161 0.3834	0.01900 0.9074	0.14349 0.3771	0.01614 0.9212	0.14902 0.3587	-0.03624 0.8243
PF_H PF_H	0.42281 ↘ 0.0066	0.53680 ↘ 0.0004	-0.13230 0.4158	0.36942 ↘ 0.0190	0.34861 ↘ 0.0275	0.45266 ↘ 0.0034
PF_I PF_I	-0.02982 0.8551	-0.02915 0.8583	0.11574 0.4770	0.06548 0.6881	0.23696 0.1410	-0.01504 0.9266
PF_L PF_L	-0.29913 0.0608	↘ -0.32585 ↘ 0.0402	-0.17380 0.2835	-0.23531 0.1438	-0.22932 0.1546	-0.28614 0.0735
PF_M PF_M	0.11832 0.4671	-0.02234 0.8912	-0.07283 0.6552	-0.13529 0.4052	0.19227 0.2346	0.19298 0.2328
PF_N PF_N	-0.08904 0.5848	-0.10703 0.5110	-0.17730 0.2737	-0.04206 0.7966	-0.08332 0.6093	-0.00972 0.9525
PF_O PF_O	↘ 0.67873 ↗ <.0001	↘ 0.56560 ↗ 0.0001	-0.29943 0.0605	↘ 0.65945 ↗ <.0001	↘ 0.50506 ↗ 0.0009	↘ 0.58534 ↗ <.0001
PF_Q1 PF_Q1	0.12346 0.4479	0.01962 0.9043	0.02519 0.8774	-0.03273 0.8411	0.22934 0.1546	0.15151 0.3507
PF_Q2 PF_Q2	0.03385 0.8358	-0.07442 0.6481	0.13806 0.3956	-0.03405 0.8348	0.03976 0.8076	-0.11448 0.4818
PF_Q3 PF_Q3	↘ 0.38456 ↗ 0.0143	0.26647 0.0965	-0.16851 0.2986	0.29433 0.0652	0.24026 0.1354	0.20306 0.2089
PF_Q4 PF_Q4	↘ -0.60520 ↗ <.0001	↘ -0.55872 ↗ 0.0002	-0.08475 0.6031	↘ -0.40588 ↗ 0.0094	↘ -0.45643 ↗ 0.0031	↘ -0.52262 ↗ 0.0005

Table 4.24: Spearman Correlation Coefficients between first order factors of the 16PF and FDAS subscales.

4.5.2 There is a relationship between first order factors of the 16PF and adjustment to divorce.

As indicated by Table 4.25 there was a significant relationship between:

- PF_C (emotionally stable) (positively correlated), PF_H (venturesome) (positively correlated), PF_L (trusting) (negatively correlated), PF_O (placid) (negatively correlated), PF_Q4 (relaxed) (negatively correlated) and adjustment to divorce.

No other significant relationships were found.

	FD_TOT
PF_A PF_A	0.15606 0.3363
PF_B PF_B	0.24409 0.1290
PF_C PF_C	0.64189 <.0001
PF_E PF_E	0.03354 0.8372
PF_F PF_F	0.30106 0.0591
PF_G PF_G	0.09901 0.5433
PF_H PF_H	0.43804 0.0047
PF_I PF_I	0.08133 0.6179
PF_L PF_L	-0.31977 0.0443
PF_M PF_M	0.08777 0.5902
PF_N PF_N	-0.15863 0.3282
PF_O PF_O	-0.70010 <.0001
PF_Q1 PF_Q1	0.12888 0.4280
PF_Q2 PF_Q2	0.04624 0.7769
PF_Q3 PF_Q3	0.26239 0.1019
PF_Q4 PF_Q4	-0.57394 0.0001

4.25 Spearman Correlation Coefficients between first order factors of the 16PF and adjustment to divorce total of the FDAS

4.5.3 There is a relationship between second order factors of the 16PF and subscales of the FDAS.

As indicated by Table 4.26 there was a significant relationship between:

- PF_Ex (Extraversion) and FD_RST (open to social trust). This relationship was positively correlated.
- PF_An (Anxiety) and FD_FSW (good feelings of self-worth), FD_RST (open to social trust), FD_SG (grief work complete), FD_DLR (emotionally disentangled from love relationship) and FD_SSW (good social self-worth). This relationship was negatively correlated.
- PF_Es (Emotional sensitivity) and FD_FSW (good feelings of self-worth), FD_RST (open to social trust), FD_SG (grief work complete), FD_DLR (emotionally disentangled from love relationship) and FD_SSW (good social self-worth). This relationship was negatively correlated.

Note: FD_A (anger at former spouse) was the only non-significant variable in PF_An (Anxiety) and PF_Es (emotional sensitivity).

No other significant relationships were noted.

	FD_FSW	FD_RST	FD_FA	FD_SG	FD_DLR	FD_SSW
PF_Ex PF_Ex	0.20515 0.2041	0.36878 0.0192	-0.11455 0.4815	0.25275 0.1156	0.26436 0.0993	0.29638 0.0633
PF_An PF_An	-0.72315 0.0001	-0.63510 0.0001	-0.13858 0.3938	-0.59766 0.0001	-0.57371 0.0001	-0.58176 0.0001
PF_Es PF_Es	-0.55649 0.0002	-0.51157 0.0007	-0.10233 0.5298	-0.52605 0.0005	-0.36915 0.0191	-0.42938 0.0057
PF_In PF_In	0.04840 0.7668	-0.02523 0.8772	-0.08819 0.5884	-0.09265 0.5696	0.13881 0.3930	0.09258 0.5699
PF_Co PF_Co	0.20129 0.2129	0.10929 0.5020	-0.10606 0.5148	0.17131 0.2905	0.16552 0.3074	0.05588 0.7320

Table 4.26: Spearman Correlation Coefficients between second order factors of the 16PF and FDAS subscales.

4.5.4 There is a relationship between second order factors of the 16PF and adjustment to divorce.

As indicated by Table 4.27 there was a significant relationship between:

- PF_An (Anxiety) and adjustment to divorce. This relationship was negatively correlated.
- PF_Es (Emotional sensitivity) and adjustment to divorce. This relationship was negatively correlated.

	FD_TOT
PF_Ex PF_Ex	0.28310 0.0767
PF_An PF_An	-0.69872 <.0001 ←
PF_Es PF_Es	-0.53992 0.0003 ←
PF_In PF_In	0.05167 0.7515
PF_Co PF_Co	0.10837 0.5057

Table 4.27: Spearman Correlation Coefficients between second order factors of the 16PF and adjustment to divorce total of the FDAS.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Interpretation of Results

This chapter seeks to provide an understanding of the results obtained within a framework of the literature presented. As this dissertation seeks to provide understanding and depth to the relationship between personality and adjustment to divorce the discussion of these hypothesis are central to this chapter. It should be noted that some of the primary hypothesis findings are novel and little discussion of these findings were found in the literature of adjustment to divorce. The researcher found difficulty in obtaining sufficient literature that explores personality as a variable that influenced adjustment to divorce. Thus the discussion and interpretation of these results were formed through the newly found results of the relationship between personality and adjustment to divorce.

This study aims to identify which, if any, of the personality factors in the 16PF are correlated with adjustment to divorce using the Fisher Divorce Adjustment scale in South African men. Secondary aims of the study include assessing whether adjustment to divorce is related to length of time married, being in a serious relationship, days of contact with children, mental health care intervention and conflict in divorce. These aims are addressed in turn as follows.

5.1 Primary Hypothesis

This section of the chapter is a discussion of the results of the primary hypothesis of the study. Firstly, significant results between first order factors of the 16PF and subscales of the FDAS will be discussed. This is followed by a discussion of significant relationships between second order factors of the 16PF and adjustment to divorce.

5.1.1 First-order factors of the 16PF significantly related to adjustment to divorce

An analysis of the relationship between first order factors of the 16PF and the subscales of the FDAS revealed several significant results. Factor B and Factor Q3 correlated positively significantly with feelings of self-worth (Table 4.24). Factor B is

described as a measure of intelligence. In this respect, it differs considerably from the other factors on the 16PF as it taps into a relatively specific aspect of personality. Low scores on Factor B are associated with low mental capacity, poor judgement, lower morale, less perseverance, and less ability to work with abstract problems (Golden, 1979). High Factor B scores are associated with high intelligence, ability to work with abstract ideas, good judgement, good morale, and perseverance (Golden, 1979). Thus participants who scored high on Factor B also had good feelings of self-worth. This result may be interpreted to suggest that those divorced individuals with a higher cognitive capacity, good judgement, good morale, and perseverance have better feelings of self-worth (or at least more internal resources) and are thus likely to cope with the adjustment to divorce.

Q3 is a significant Factor in the 16PF scale. It has been described as a measure of the ability to bind anxiety. Low scorers are said to have a lack of control, a carelessness with respect to social rules, and a tendency to follow one's own urges (Golden, 1979). High scorers are controlled, socially precise, compulsive, and possess strong will power (Golden, 1979). In the study high scores of Factor Q3 were significantly correlated with feelings of self-worth. This suggests that those individuals with qualities of high Q3 scores have good feelings of self-worth and thus possess the potential of a better adjustment to divorce than those with low Q3 scores.

Factor C (emotionally stable) showed a positive relationship between good feelings of self-worth, being open to social trust, grief work completed, being emotionally disentangled from love relationship and good social self-worth (Table 4.24). The only non-significant negative relationship it showed on the FDAS was to feelings of anger. Factor C is described by Golden (1979) as a measure of ego strength. Low scores on this Factor are suggestive of an inability to handle frustration, a general emotional lability, an evasion of responsibility, and a tendency to worry and give up. High scores are associated with emotional maturity, general lack of anxiety, and an ability to deal with frustrating or difficult situations. This suggests that those with emotional maturity, general lack of anxiety, and an ability to deal with frustrating or difficult situations adjust significantly better to divorce than those who do not have these capacities. This is consistent with current literature (Halem, 1980; Scully, Tosi and Banning, 2000; Amato, 2000). Perhaps the negative, non-significant relationship

between this Factor and anger suggests that those men who are well adjusted have sufficiently worked through anger they feel towards their ex-spouse, there was little conflict in the divorce or they initiated the divorce as compared to spouses initiating the divorce.

High Factor F scores are associated with enthusiasm, cheerfulness, quickness, alertness, impulsiveness and a tendency to be very talkative and group involved (Golden, 1979). As indicated by Table 4.24 a positive significant relationship was found between a high Factor F score and being open to social trust. This is an important indicator of adjustment to divorce as literature suggests that being open to social trust, being group involved, cheerful and enthusiastic are important to re-establishing relationships and gaining support (Scully, Tosi and Banning, 2000).

Factor L was found to be negatively significantly related to being open to social trust (Table 4.2.4). Factor L is a measure of suspiciousness. Low scores on Factor L may be characterised as trusting, non-hostile, permissive, tolerant, and generally uncritical (Golden, 1979). High Factor L scores are likely to be jealous, dogmatic, suspicious, frustrated, domineering, and irritable (Golden, 1979). Thus low Factor L scores such as trusting, non-hostile, permissive, tolerant, and generally uncritical are consistent with qualities required for being open to social trust. This is also an important quality for adjustment to divorce as being open to social trust serves as an important factor to re-establishing relationships and gaining support (Halem, 1980; Amato, 2000).

Factor H showed a significant relationship with all subscales of the FDAS except for the feelings of anger subscale (Table 4.24). Low Factor H scores are associated with shyness, restraint, sensitivity to threat, emotional caution, and unfriendliness (Golden, 1979). High Factor H scores are associated with adventurousness, extroversion, social boldness, interest in the opposite sex, responsiveness, impulsivity, and a general insensitivity to danger signs (Golden, 1979). This indicates that being adventurousness, an extrovert, social boldness, interest in the opposite sex, responsiveness, impulsivity, and a general insensitivity to danger signs are important for good feelings of self-worth, being open to social trust, completing grief work, being emotionally disentangled from love relationship and good social self-worth.

Low Factor O scores are suggestive of an untroubled, adequate individual, who is likely to be self-confident, cheerful, internally controlled, and likely to act when it is necessary (Golden, 1979). The high O scorer, however, is an apprehensive, insecure and troubled individual who is likely to be anxious, depressed, sensitive to the disapproval and approval of others, hypochondriacal, phobic, and lonely. Low Factor O scores were significantly negatively correlated with good feelings of self-worth, being open to social trust, grief work completed, being emotionally disentangled from love relationship and good social self-worth (Table 4.24). This factor appears to be important in adjustment to divorce as it represents individual who possess qualities that are likely to contribute to a positive adjustment to divorce.

Factor Q4 was found to be negatively significantly related to good feelings of self-worth, being open to social trust, grief work complete being complete, being emotionally disentangled from love relationship and good social self-worth (Table 4.24). Factor Q4 is a measure of free-floating anxiety and tension (Golden, 1979). Low scores indicate low tension, low anxiety, a relaxed approach to life, and a general lack of frustration (Golden, 1979). High scores on Factor Q4 are characterised by frustration, and a generally highly anxious approach to problems. According to Golden (1979), this Factor is the single best indicator of neurotic anxiety on the 16PF. Thus a low score on Factor Q4 indicate a better adjustment to divorce and was found to be significantly so in this study.

Overall, it is noted that the Factors which significantly correlated with an overall total score of adjustment to divorce included high Factor C (emotionally stable), high Factor H (venturesome), high Factor L (trusting), low Factor O (placid) and high Factor Q4 (relaxed) (Table 4.25). This indicates that men who possess the qualities of these Factors of the 16PF are more likely to adjust to divorce than those who do not possess these qualities.

5.1.2 Second order-factors of 16PF significantly related to adjustment to divorce

The second-order factors of the 16PF also yielded significant results when correlated with adjustment to divorce. As indicated by Table 4.27 second-order factor anxiety negatively correlates significantly with adjustment to divorce. As this factor is a product of first order-factors C, L, O, Q3 and Q4 it suggests that those men who are

more likely to adjust to divorce are controlled, socially precise, compulsive, possess strong will power, good mental health, have low tension, low anxiety, a relaxed approach to life, a general lack of frustration, untroubled, adequate individual who is likely to be self-confident, cheerful, internally controlled, likely to act when it is necessary, emotionally mature, and have an ability to deal with frustrating or difficult situations. This finding, although novel is supported by literature which suggests that those individuals who are stressed, have difficulty forming new social relationships, have low feelings of self-worth and are internally troubled have a difficult time adjusting to the life changing events such as divorce (Crago, 1972; Redick and Johnson, 1974; Bloom, 1973, Bloom et al., 1978 as cited in Berman and Turk, 1981; Halem, 1980; Amato, 2000).

Emotional sensitivity was also found to be significantly negatively correlated to adjustment to divorce. This second-order factor is produced by first-order factors C, I, M, O, Q3 and Q4. This suggests that those men who possess the qualities of low tension, low anxiety, a relaxed approach to life, a general lack of frustration, self-confident, cheerful, internally controlled, likely to act when it is necessary, controlled, socially precise, compulsive, possess strong will power, emotional maturity, an ability to deal with frustrating or difficult situations, tough mindedness, self-reliance, lack of sentimentality, cynicism, logic, practicality, and lack of hypochondriases are more likely to adjust to divorce than those who do not possess these qualities.

5.2 Secondary Hypothesis

This section explores the findings of the secondary hypothesis. These findings are contextualized within the divorce stress adjustment model.

5.2.1 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to length of time married.

According to Statistics South Africa (2008), irrespective of the population group the distribution of divorces continues to be skewed towards earlier ages of marriage. The highest number of divorces were observed for people who had been married for 5 to 9 years (Statistics South Africa, 2008). In the current study the mean age of marriages was 9.7 years with a standard deviation of 6.7 years, and supports current

literature (McGue and Lykken 1992; Amato, 2000). Current statistics also indicate that divorces were particularly fewer among those who had been married for at least 35 years or more (Statistics South Africa, 2008). None of the participants in the study were married for 35 years or more.

People who have been married for a longer time are thus more likely to stay married. Newer marriages seem to be more susceptible to divorce, perhaps due to the adjustment of marriage. Also, when a young marriage fails the impact and adjustment of divorce may be less traumatic to that individual as compared to the individual of an older marriage (Amato, 2000). Thus length of marriage can act both as a predictive and protective factor of divorce. However the results found in the present study do not support this trend, with no significant relationship found between length of time married and the subscales of adjustment to divorce as indicated by the FDAS.

There are several possible explanations for such a result. Firstly, the small sample size as well as a positively skewed distribution of length of marriage towards younger marriages may have contributed to yielding a non significant result. Also, consideration should be made for the possibility that length of time married is not a significant predictor of adjustment to divorce. This variable may be most significant when the length of marriage is older, indicating a possible interaction effect. It may also be a variable that is impacted on a personal level, where it is not the quantity of time married but the nature of and quality of the marriage before divorce.

5.2.2 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to being in a serious relationship.

Bell (1968 as cited in Rose and Price-Bonham, 1973) reported that the majority of divorced individuals considered remarriage as the best means of post divorce adjustment. It would appear that remarriage serves as a solution to the ambiguous relationship status of the divorced. Hunt (1966) noted that divorced individuals only consider themselves wholly adjusted to divorce when they remarry. Thus, it can be said that those who have been remarried since divorcing appear to be better adjusted than those individuals who have not remarried following a divorce. As only 11 of the participants were remarried as compared to the 26 whom were in a serious relationship an analysis was conducted to ascertain if being in a serious relationship

has an impact on adjustment to divorce. Also, being in a serious relationship may act as a precursor to marriage.

It was found that no significant relationship existed between the subtypes of the FDAS and being in a serious relationship. This may be the result of the small sample size and the subjective nature of the significance and importance of the relationship. Also the fact that these relationships are ambiguous, as they are not marriages, may not act as an aid to adjustment of divorce. According to Berman and Turk (1981), there is ambivalence in new romantic relationships as an unconscious fear that the same process of divorce will repeat itself. Divorced individuals feel fearful of involvement in another long-term relationship as divorce or separation may reoccur and a sense of vulnerability that they feel may influence the level of well-being for many divorced individuals (Berman and Turk, 1981).

5.2.3 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to number of serious relationships since divorce.

Forming new social relationships and romantic relationships become very difficult following a divorce. There is a reduction in the number of people who are willing to be involved with divorced individuals (Berman and Turk, 1981). This is largely due to the stigma involved with being a divorced individual. As noted before this includes ambivalence regarding the new romantic relationship as an unconscious fear that the same process will repeat itself exists (Berman and Turk, 1981). Thus number of serious relationships since divorce is an interesting variable to consider when it comes to predicting or influencing adjustment to divorce. This variable may act as a protective or stress factor to adjustment to divorce. However, it was found that no significant relationship existed between the subtypes of the FDAS and number of serious relationships since divorce. Similarly to the discussion in 5.2.2 no significant relationship may exist due to the small sample size and subjective account of number of serious relationships. Furthermore it was noted that the mean number of serious relationships was 0.975 (1), with minimum number of relationships being 0 and the maximum 3. Thus this variable may not be significant enough within the sample to yield significant results of adjustment to divorce.

5.2.4 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to days of contact with children.

Literature suggests that men who are fathers experience divorce in a unique way as they have the additional responsibility of fatherhood as well as the financial burden of supporting their children post divorce (Albrecht, 1980; Gerstel, Kohler Riessman and Rosenfield, 1985; Seltzer, 1991; Kelly, 2007). Hence the adjustment of divorced men who are fathers is expected to be different to those who are not fathers. In the current study, 29 of the 40 participants had children.

Men may suffer more than women may when it comes to the emotional distress of separating from their children and thus may adjust significantly poorer to divorce than their childless counterparts (Seltzer, 1991; Kelly, 2007). In addition the legal system primarily awards women care of children of divorced parents, leaving the divorced spouse with increased psychological distress (Albrecht, 1980). However, in the current study no significant relationship was found between the subtypes of the FDAS and days of contact with children. This may be due to the small number of participants who have children. Studies of non-resident fathers relationship with their children also suggest that many fathers struggle with the pain of trying to maintain a close relationship with their children by limiting contact with their children (Seltzer, 1991; Kelly, 2007). The subscales of the FDAS do not specifically consider the feelings of those participating in relation to children but primarily in relation to the ex-spouse. Thus perhaps an additional subscale which targets the relationship with children could be helpful in ascertaining more significant results for this hypothesis.

5.2.5 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to mental health care intervention.

The health consequences of those who divorce show high levels of mortality and psychological and physical morbidity as compared to married and single individuals (Bebbington, 1987; Kisker and Goldman, 1987. Mergenhausen, Lee, and Gove, 1985; National Center for Health Statistics, 1988; Rosengren, Wedel, and Wilhelmsen, 1989; Smith, Mercy, and Conn, 1988; Trovato and Lauris, 1989 as cited in Kitson and Morgan, 1990; Wang and Amato, 2000). Divorce was also rated the second most stressful life event after the death of a spouse using the Social Readjustment Rating

Scale in an American sample group. Hence this may suggest that those who receive mental health care intervention may be better adjusted to divorce than those who do not receive any form of mental health care intervention do. However, only 8 of the 40 participants had received some form of mental health care intervention.

This low figure warrants discussion considering the extent of psychological and physiological difficulties men have following divorce. Perhaps men are less likely to seek mental health care intervention than women are and thus this may contribute to the high number of cases documenting psychological and physiological distress following divorce in men (Bebbington, 1987; Kisker and Goldman, 1987. Mergenhausen, Lee, and Gove, 1985; National Center for Health Statistics, 1988; Rosengren, Wedel, and Wilhelmsen, 1989; Smith, Mercy, and Conn, 1988; Trovato and Lauris, 1989 as cited in Kitson and Morgan, 1990; Wang and Amato, 2000). Thus the impact of divorce on men may be the same as on women, but as women are more likely to seek support and mental health care intervention the number of men who have psychological problems are higher than women. This is supported by the low number of men in the study who sought some form of mental health care intervention as compared to the frequency of all other variables in the study.

However, there was no significant relationship between the subscales of the FDAS and mental health care intervention. This is inconsistent with previous literature (Kitson and Morgan, 1990; Wang and Amato, 2000) and may be the result of the small number of participants who actually received mental health care intervention, the type of the mental health care intervention and reason and duration for the intervention.

5.2.6 Adjustment to divorce as indicated by subscales of FDAS is related to conflict in divorce.

The relationship between the spouses after a divorced has taken place is a type of social readjustment that needs to occur. The prolonged, negatively toned contact between the spouses preceding, during, and following the divorce often interferes with effective adjustment to divorce (Kitson and Morgan, 1990). Spouses are often in continuous battle over living arrangements, finances, children and decisions regarding children. A negative relationship between spouses may greatly influence the way in

which this type of adjustment takes place (Kitson and Morgan, 1990). This is supported by the findings of this study as there was a significant relationship between the feelings of anger subtype on the FDAS and conflict in divorce. This suggests that conflict with a spouse during and after the divorce negatively impacts a specific area of adjustment to divorce, namely feelings of anger towards the ex-spouse.

Divorce has a high impact on the social and psychological aspects of an individual. According to the divorce-stress-adjustment perspective there are significant contributing stressors and mediating/moderating factors to adjustment to divorce (Figure 1). Despite the limitations of this study, the results of the study have shown that aspects of personality that relate to a robustness of ego, low anxiety and a generally self-confident individual who is emotionally mature are more likely to adjust significantly better to divorce and thus contribute significantly to the well being of an individual post divorce. This suggests that an individual who possesses a personality of this type may be protected to some degree to the consequences of adjustment to divorce. Limitations of these results as well as theoretical and methodological limitations of this study will be outlined in the following chapter.

Chapter 6

Limitations and Recommendations

This chapter is concerned with highlighting theoretical limitations, limitations regarding the methods used and ethical limitations. Following this, recommendations for future research will be discussed.

6.1 Limitations

6.1.1 Theoretical Limitations

There were several theoretical difficulties inherent within this study. Adjustment to divorce and personality are both multifaceted, complex constructs with no clear consensus on a definition in current literature. This study therefore worked with the definition for each construct that was consistent and well researched within the majority of the literature. Despite this, these definitions were not unproblematic.

The first conceptual difficulty arises in attempting to define adjustment to divorce. The definition of adjustment to divorce is a broad concept, which is defined in several ways in the literature. Bell (1967) described adjustment as the basic requirement of social participation. However, this definition appears to be oversimplified and does not capture the many social, physical and emotional demands that society places on individuals it considers to be 'well adjusted'. Halem (1980) appeared to capture more of a theoretical approach to adjustment to divorce viewing the consequences of divorce as negative, affecting various aspects of intrapersonal and interpersonal spheres of the lives divorced individuals. This definition captured the psychological impact of adjusting to divorce on an individual but lacked in clear consensus as to what these factors were. Due to these limitations the divorce-stress-adjustment perspective was used extensively to describe how adjustment to divorce impacted on an individual (Hill, 1941; McCubbin and Paterson, 1983; Pearlin et al., 1981; Cowan et al., 1996; Plunkett et al., 1997 as cited in Amato, 2007). This definition included stressors, protective factors and adjustment factors in an attempt to capture a thorough definition of adjustment to divorce. Adjustment to divorce was also defined through the constructs of the FDAS, and specifically these which included feelings of self-worth, social self-worth, rebuilding social trust, disentanglement from the love

relationship, anger and grief. Even though this definition was used, there remains to be little consensus to the definition of adjustment to divorce in the literature.

Personality is a difficult construct to define. In this study personality was defined within the divorce-stress-adjustment perspective as a mediating/moderating factor to adjustment to divorce. Specifically, as the 16 Personality Factor scale is used as an instrument to measure personality in this study, the definition of personality is based around this scale (Cattell, 1957). This is problematic as it does not explore all aspects of personality. A wider definition of personality may have been more useful to add depth to the understanding of how personality impacts on adjustment to divorce.

6.1.2 Methodological Limitations

This study is quantitative in nature and thus suffers from all the shortcomings of this type of research. Whilst a vast amount of data can be obtained with this type of research method the depth of understanding of the concepts is often considered shallower than that obtainable by qualitative methods. As responses from participants are nondescriptive in nature, without any further elaboration on the responses, crucial qualitative descriptions may have been missed.

A number of limitations have been identified with regards to the sample in this study. Given that this study was quantitative in nature and given the numerous variables under investigation, this study had a small sample size ($n=40$) for correlational research. A small sample size was obtained because of the difficulty in obtaining participants and the poor response to the research by participants. It is felt that this small sample size may have been a major limitation as it may have impacted greatly on the statistical analyses conducted. This may have contributed to the lack of some of the significant findings that were expected to be found as supported by the literature.

The sample was also skewed along several variables. The sample comprised of divorced South African men, found through the researcher's social network, and although the focus of the study targeted men these findings cannot be generalised to women or men outside South Africa. The sample consisted of men ranging between the ages of 31 and 58 with a mean age of 41.8 years. Hence this study is limited to

middle age individuals, thereby limiting the generalisability of these results to younger and older population groups. The number of children that the men had from the relationship under investigation, biological parents ever divorced and number of men who received mental health care intervention are also variables that were skewed. The small number of participants who were included in the sample of these three variables may have impacted greatly on the statistical analysis conducted with these variables.

Participants were obtained using convenient sampling through the social network of the researcher. This network included family members, friends and the family members and friends of these people. This method of obtaining a sample is problematic as it excludes the possibility of including random participants into the sample. Participants may have also been prone to answering in a way that pleases the researcher. Thus, generalisability of the findings is questionable. However, given the nature of the research and the difficulties in obtaining participants for the study this method of obtaining participants proved useful.

Participants were given the questionnaires used in the study as part of a data pack that was posted back to the researcher once completed. This type of data collection presents with several methodological limitations. Although participants were requested to complete the questionnaires and post them back immediately many of the data packs handed out were never returned. Despite this instruction participants had unlimited time to complete the questionnaires and this may impact the results as answers may have been overly thought through instead of answered in an honest way. Also there was no guarantee that the questionnaires were filled in by the participants themselves or that they were not discussed with other people, thus skewing the sample.

A variable which may have impacted greatly on the results of this study, which was not taken into consideration, is the length of time that participants were divorced for. Although an argument is made that personality is a construct which is stable over time there may be an impact of how an individual adjusts to divorce over time. Participants may have already adjusted to the divorce given the time elapsed between participating in the research and time divorced or participants may have been more prone to

responding in a way in which indicated poor adjustment to divorce because of the short time between participating and time divorced. However, given the results of the study it indicates that this variable may have been accounted for by variation in the sample and the stable nature of personality over time.

The analysis of the results used non-parametric procedures, as requirements for parametric analysis were not met. Most of the data obtained was not normally distributed and this presented with difficulty in interpreting results from an experimental, parametric standpoint. Due to this and the nature of the analysis done, i.e. correlations, the findings obtained in the study can be considered as an exploration into the impact that personality has on adjustment to divorce.

6.1.3 Ethical Limitations

Despite the efforts made on the part of the research team, this study does present with ethical limitations. As the data was collected through the method of asking participants to return questionnaires through the post, participants were not given the space to discuss distressing feelings that may have arisen from completing the questionnaires. However while participants were contacted telephonically, the nature of the study was clearly described. This type of participation contact is also problematic because it may have been intrusive to potential participants. Participants could withdraw at any time from the study at any time and they were also encouraged to contact the researcher if distressing feelings were evoked from this study so that an appropriate referral to a psychologist could be made. They were also given an option to review the results of this study if they wished. The researcher could be contacted and an electronic version of the research be made available to participants who wished to view the results.

6.2 Recommendations

This study is one of the first to consider the relationship between personality and adjustment to divorce, globally and specifically in a South African context in men. Given this, this study should be viewed as an introduction into the field of personality and adjustment to divorce and as a result several possible avenues for further research

have been identified. Also, this study will add the body of growing but impoverished literature on men and divorce.

The significant results found between first-order personality factors C (emotionally stable), H (venturesome), L (trusting), O (placid), Q4 (relaxed) and adjustment to divorce has some bearing on the relationship between personality and adjustment to divorce and further research in this area is required in order to fully understand the nature of this relationship. Recommendations are thus made for a larger sample to be used to further explore the nature of this relationship. A personality scale such as the NEO-PR may be used to further expand the construct of personality. Furthermore the significant relationship found between second-order factors Anxiety and Emotional Sensitivity and adjustment to divorce is an important finding in the field of adjustment to divorce. Again further studies are required to better explain these relationships. This study can be re-conducted using a larger, more randomly selected sample. This may assist in providing more conclusive results.

6.3 Concluding Comment

This study has been a preliminary exploratory study into the relationship between personality and adjustment to divorce in men. It should be seen only as a preliminary study and the basis for future research into this field due to the number of conceptual and methodological difficulties that were encountered herein. However, this study has indicated novel findings and highlighted several different avenues for future research, allowing for the broadening of information in this area of study. It is hoped that future studies will continue to investigate the impact of personality on divorce so that a better understanding of how different facets of personality and individual robustness can influence adjustment to divorce so that clinicians can make informed treatment choices for this vulnerable population.

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Appendix A: Subject information sheet



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Dear Sir

My name is Salisha Bogothipersadh Maharaj and I am conducting research for the purposes of obtaining a Masters degree in Clinical Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. The aim of this study is focused on attempting to discover which personality traits are more strongly connected with experiencing divorce as a significantly stressful event in men.

You are invited to participate in the study described. Participation in this research will entail you completing two psychometric scales. The completion of these scales will take approximately one hour, at a time and place agreed upon by you and the researcher. Participation is voluntary (no remuneration is offered in return for participation), and no person will be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way by choosing to participate or not participate in the study. All of your responses will be kept confidential, and no information that could identify you would be included in the research report. You may refuse to answer any questions you would prefer not to, and you may choose to withdraw from the study at any point.

The results of this research will be presented in a research project summary that will be made available to participants if they wish to obtain it. This can be arranged by contacting me and an electronic copy sent by request.

If you choose to participate in the study I can be contacted via e-mail at salisha_maharaj@yahoo.com. Should you be interested in some form of professional support

to assist you in dealing with your divorce, please feel free to contact me at the above address and an appropriate referral will be made.

Your participation in this study would be greatly appreciated. This research will contribute to a larger body of knowledge concerning men and divorce which may have important implications for professional support available for them.

Kind Regards

Salisha Bogothiepersadh Maharaj

Appendix B: Consent to Participate

I _____ consent to complete psychometric scales which will be used in a study to discover which personality profiles are more strongly correlated with experiencing divorce as a significantly stressful event in men.

I understand that:

- Participation in this study is voluntary.
- That I may refuse to answer any questions I would prefer not to.
- I may withdraw from the study at any time.
- No information that may identify me will be included in the research report, and my responses will remain confidential.
- There is no advantages or disadvantages to participating in the study

Signed _____

(I am aware that participation in this study may evoke strong emotions and difficult feelings for me)

Appendix C (Instructions to Participants)

Dear Participant

The following list outlines instructions for your participation in this research project. It is very important that these instructions are followed as any deviation may compromise the results of the study. Your participation is greatly appreciated and the information you provide is a significant part of this research project as well as contributing to a larger body of research on men and divorce.

- o In this pack you will find consent to participate form, 16PF questionnaire, Fishers Divorce Adjustment Scale and a biographical questionnaire. Please complete all the tests and questionnaires in this order.
- o All the tests and questionnaires should be completed in one sitting. There is no time limit but completing all of them fully should take around 1.5 hours.
- o Answer all tests in an honest manner. All questions should be answered promptly, do not take too long to think over the questions.
- o Answer all the questions in the order in which they are presented.
- o Do not discuss your answers of tests and questionnaires with anyone while you are completing them.
- o Once you have completed all the tests and questionnaires place them back in the addressed envelope and post your completed responses. The envelope is addressed to the supervising lecturer and clinical psychologist, Patrick Connolly, at the University of Witwatersrand for safe keeping of the data.
- o Note that confidentiality is guaranteed. No identifying information will be included in the research report.

If you have any questions regarding this study do not hesitate to contact me. If participating in this study has aroused any difficult feelings for you, you can email me and information will be provided for a space for you to discuss these thoughts and feelings.

If you are interested in participating in a focus group which entails a group discussion around men and divorce please email me with your contact details.

Yours sincerely

Salisha Maharaj

Contact details:

@: salisha_maharaj@yahoo.com

Tel: 011488 4830

Appendix D

Biographical Questionnaire:

Please answer the following questions as completely and honestly as you can, or feel comfortable with doing.

How long were you married for in the relationship we are investigating?

How long were you in the relationship before you got married to the person?

Where you married prior to the relationship we are investigating?

Yes	No
-----	----

Have you married **and** separated again since the divorce under investigation?

Yes	No
-----	----

Have you been in another serious relationship (at least 6 months) since your divorce?

Yes	No
-----	----

How long after the relationship in question did you get involved in a new serious relationship?

If yes, how many serious relationships have you had since your divorce?

If yes, how long has each one lasted?

Are you in another serious relationship at present?

Yes	No
-----	----

If you are still in a serious relationship, how long have you been in the present one?

If yes, have you married this person?

Yes	No
-----	----

Do you have children from the divorced relationship?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, how many days in a month, if any, do you have **substantial** contact with your child/children?

Do you have regular contact with your ex-spouse?

Yes	No
-----	----

If yes, how many occasions per month per month do you have **substantial** contact?

Is there usually a high level of conflict in such contacts since your divorce? (if uncertain select which is most true)

Yes	No
-----	----

Who initiated the divorce? Yourself or your partner?

You	Partner	Both
-----	---------	------

Was it mutually agreed on? (Did either you or your partner want the relationship to continue?)

Yes	No
-----	----

If no, specify who wanted the relationship to continue?

Was there a high level of conflict between you and your ex-spouse during the divorce?

Yes	No
-----	----

Did your divorce:	Tick	Please Specify
Go to trial		
Or did you use a divorce mediator		
Or other		
or did the divorce take place without any intervention		

Have you received any individual formal mental health assistance such as counseling, either during or subsequently to the relationship ending?

Yes	No
-----	----

Specify:

Were your own biological parents ever divorced?

Yes	No
-----	----

Appendix E

Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale

The following statements are feelings and attitudes that people frequently experience while they are ending a love relationship. Keeping in mind one specific relationship you have ended or are ending, read each statement and decide how frequently the statement applies to your present feelings and attitudes.

Mark your response on your answer sheet. Do not leave any statements blank on the answer sheet. If the statement is not appropriate for you in your present situation, answer the way you feel you might if that statement were appropriate.

The five responses to choose from on the answer sheet are:

1) almost always 2) usually 3) sometimes 4) seldom 5) almost never

1. I am comfortable telling people I am separated from my love partner.
2. I am physically and emotionally exhausted from morning until night.
3. I am constantly thinking of my former love partner.
4. I feel rejected by many of the friends I had when I was in the love relationship.
5. I become upset when I think about my former love partner.
6. I like being the person I am.
7. I feel like crying because I feel so sad.
8. I can communicate with my former love partner in a calm and rational manner.
9. There are many things about my personality I would like to change.
10. It is easy for me to accept my becoming a single person.
11. I feel depressed.
12. I feel emotionally separated from my former love partner.
13. People would not like me if they got to know me.
14. I feel comfortable seeing and talking to my former love partner.
15. I feel like I am an attractive person.
16. I feel as though I am in a daze and the world doesn't seem real.
17. I find myself doing things just to please my former love partner.
18. I feel lonely.

19. There are many things about my body I would like to change.
20. I have many plans and goals for the future.
21. I feel I don't have much sex appeal.
22. I am relating and interacting in many new ways with people since my separation.
23. Joining a singles' group would make me feel I was a loser like them.
24. It is easy for me to organize my daily routine of living.
25. I find myself making excuses to see and talk to my former love partner.
26. Because my love relationship failed, I must be a failure.
27. I feel like unloading my feelings of anger and hurt upon my former love partner.
28. I feel comfortable being with people.
29. I have trouble concentrating.
30. I think of my former love partner as related to me rather than as a separate person.
31. I feel like an okay person.
32. I hope my former love partner is feeling as much or more emotional pain than I am.
33. I have close friends who know and understand me.
34. I am unable to control my emotions.
35. I feel capable of building a deep and meaningful love relationship.
36. I have trouble sleeping.
37. I easily become angry at my former love partner.
38. I am afraid to trust people who might become love partners.
39. Because my love relationship ended, I feel there must be something wrong with me.
40. I either have no appetite or eat continuously which is unusual for me.
41. I don't want to accept the fact that our love relationship is ending.
42. I force myself to eat even though I'm not hungry.
43. I have given up on my former love partner and I getting back together.
44. I feel very frightened inside.
45. It is important that my family, friends, and associates be on my side rather than on my former love partner's side.
46. I feel uncomfortable even thinking about dating.
47. I feel capable of living the kind of life I would like to live.
48. I have noticed my body weight is changing a great deal.
49. I believe if we try, my love partner and I can save our love relationship.

50. My abdomen feels empty and hollow.
51. I have feelings of romantic love for my former love partner.
52. I can make the decisions I need to because I know and trust my feelings.
53. I would like to get even with my former love partner for hurting me.
54. I avoid people even though I want and need friends.
55. I have really made a mess of my life.
56. I sigh a lot.
57. I believe it is best for all concerned to have our love relationship end.
58. I perform my daily activities in a mechanical and unfeeling manner.
59. I become upset when I think about my love partner having a relationship with someone else.
60. I feel capable of facing and dealing with my problems.
61. I blame my former love partner for the failure of our love relationship.
62. I am afraid of becoming sexually involved with another person.
63. I feel adequate as a fe/male love partner.
64. It will only be a matter of time until my love partner and I get back together.
65. I feel detached and removed from activities around me as though I were watching them on a movie screen.
66. I would like to continue having a sexual relationship with my former love partner.
67. Life is somehow passing me by.
68. I feel comfortable going by myself to a public place such as a movie.
69. It is good to feel alive again after having felt numb and emotionally dead.
70. I feel I know and understand myself.
71. I feel emotionally committed to my former love partner.
72. I want to be with people but I feel emotionally distant from them.
73. I am the type of person I would like to have for a friend.
74. I am afraid of becoming emotionally close to another love partner.
75. Even on the days when I am feeling good, I may suddenly become sad and start crying.
76. I can't believe our love relationship is ending.
77. I become upset when I think about my love partner dating someone else.
78. I have a normal amount of self-confidence.
79. People seem to enjoy being with me.
80. Morally and spiritually, I believe it is wrong for our love relationship to end.

81. I wake up in the morning feeling there is no good reason to get out of bed.
82. I find myself daydreaming about all the good times I had with my love partner.
83. People want to have a love relationship with me because I feel like a lovable person.
84. I want to hurt my former love partner by letting him/her know how much I hurt emotionally.
85. I feel comfortable going to social events even though I am single.
86. I feel guilty about my love relationship ending.
87. I feel emotionally insecure.
88. I feel uncomfortable even thinking about having a sexual relationship.
89. I feel emotionally weak and helpless.
90. I think about ending my life with suicide.
91. I understand the reasons why our love relationship did not work out.
92. I feel comfortable having my friends know our love relationship is ending.
93. I am angry about the things my former love partner has been doing.
94. I feel like I am going crazy.
95. I am unable to perform sexually.
96. I feel as though I am the only single person in a couples-only society.
97. I feel like a single person rather than a married person.
98. I feel my friends look at me as unstable now that I'm separated.
99. I daydream about being with and talking to my former love partner.
100. I need to improve my feelings of self-worth about being a man/woman