CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Ample of literature is available on various issues related to divorce. Many laws have already been introduced for betterment of divorcees. Many strategies are also available for rehabilitation of the divorcees and to get some ways to live healthy. The abstracts of the available literature, the investigator has come across, have been presented herein as under.

In paper Mulroy et al., (1995), quoted by Jolene McCoy, under the title of “Divorce Matters; Coping with stress and Change” he elucidated the emotional stress caused by various factors in which divorce is one of them. According to this paper, psychological stress can be healed by both psychological treatment and medicine.

Shaw-Anderson (2004) in the article entitled “The Challenge of Change – Managing Divorce Related Stress” stated that nowhere is that more evident than in the challenges and changes put upon a person and a

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family by the dissolution of a marriage. He suggested people who are trying to manage varying degrees of stress related to the changes brought about by divorce by searching or doing prayer, plasticizing spirituality, seeking legal counsel, and learning from change.2

Gähler (2006)3 from Stockholm University conducted a longitudinal Study of Marital Disruption and Psychological Distress among Swedish Women and Men. Data from the 1981 and 1991 Swedish Level of Living Surveys were used to analyze any impact of divorce on individuals' psychological well-being. The results revealed that divorcees, both female and male, reported a higher risk for psychological distress in 1991. An interesting gender difference is found as psychological distress precedes divorce among women, whereas, instead, it lasts longer following divorce among men.

Mastekaasa (1994)4 in his paper indicated that the low psychological well-being of the divorced and separated could be due to the hardships of the divorce process, more general problems of unmarried living, or

2 http://www.shawanderson.com/index.html


differential selection for divorce. Using combined questionnaire and register data on 39,000 Norwegian and women, he asserted that psychological well-being is a strong predictor of subsequent material dissolution over a 2- to 4-year period.

Parra et al., (1995) in their study under the title of “copying strategies and emotional reactions to separation and divorce in Angol, Chicana, and Mexicana Women” found interesting results. Anglo, Mexicana, and Chicana women were interviewed and given standardized questionnaires to determine differences in distress, coping, and other variables relating to their divorce. There were several interesting group differences relating to perceptions of the main causes of the divorce and the percentage in each group who contested the divorce. One of the strongest findings related to the relatively high distress of the Chicana group compared to the Anglo and Mexicana women. The Chicana women also showed more attempts to cope with their distress and greater reliance on family during the period of the divorce than did the other two groups. Cultural factors associated with being Chicana were discussed as possible causes of these findings.

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Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, Institute of Child Health, London; with cooperation of NHMRC Psychiatric Epidemiology Research Centre, The Australian National University Canberra, ACT, Australia conducted a longitudinal study about material status transitions and psychological distress. The researchers (Hope, Rodgers and Power; 1999) attempted to find out whether the association between material status and psychological distress is due to selection (i.e. distress influences material status) or causation (material status influences distress). Moreover, the researchers wanted to investigate: (i) whether differences in psychological distress pre-date material transitions; (ii) whether levels of distress change following transitions; and (iii) potential mediating and moderating factors. Data on psychological distress (indicated by the Malaise Inventory) and marital status at ages 23 and 33 were analyzed for 4514 men and 4842 women from the 1958 birth cohort. Higher levels of distress were found among the divorced and lower levels among the single and the married. Selection was seen in the lower initial means symptoms of those who married. Causation was indicated by the relative deterioration in distress of those who divorced compared to the continuously married, especially in. This was most evident in women who were downwardly.

mobile and those with children. Recently separated men and women showed especially large increases in distress. To put it in nut shell the researchers concluded that the relationship between material status and psychological distress involves selection and causation. Findings failed to support ideas of marriage being protective (through social support), or detrimental (through family roles). Divorce increased distress, with both acute and longer-term components moderated by secondary factors such as childcare and declining socio-economic status.

Miller et al., (1998) in a paper titled “Stressful Life Events, Social Support, and the Distress of Widowed and Divorced Women: A counteractive Model” used samples of widowed and divorced women drawn from public death and divorce records and matched on age, race, and median income of census tract of residence were used to test Ensel and Lin’s (1991) counteractive model of the relationships among stress, social support, and distress. As hypothesized, event-related stress and other life stress following the loss of a spouse led to social and psychological distress the following year. Also in line with the hypotheses, stress was associated with increased social support from family and friends. Contrary to the

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hypotheses, however, social support had mixed effects on distress, depending on the type of support. For widows, practical support help decreased their distress; for divorcees, having someone listen to personal problems was beneficial. Advice did not affect distress for either group. Moreover, widows and divorcees who received material support experienced increased distress.

A research work, under the title of "Material Status Continuity and Change Among Young and Midlife Adults: Longitudinal Effects of Psychological Well-Being" by Marks and Lambert (1998)^, examined longitudinal effects of continuity and transitions in material status on multiple dimensions of psychological well-being. Data came from National Survey of Families and Households 1987-1993 respondents ages 19 to 65 (N = 6,948). Differences between men and women as well as between young and midlife adults were investigated. Multivariate analyses revealed a complex pattern of effects depending on the contrast. If a proper analysis is made into the root causes of such social problems are pre-material sex, teenage pregnancies, unhappy marriages and divorces, child-abuse and

wife-battering, it inevitably reveals that it is due to mainly selfishness and lack of patience, tolerance and mutual understanding.

The results of a research done by Kitson and Morgan (1990) is presented in a paper under the title of “The Multiple Consequences of Divorce: A Decade Review”. It focused on the consequences of divorce during 1980s. This selective review focused primarily on adults, and areas of controversy in studies of divorce.

Milardo (1987) in his paper under the title of “Social Networks of Women and Men Following Divorce A Review” discussed the character and consequences of changes in the social networks of spouses following separation and divorce. For men, cultural traditions that prescribe the duties and obligations of husbands are thought to encourage the development of personal friendships while simultaneously encouraging independence, thus insulating men from the possible benefits of social support following divorce. For women, the duties and obligations of wives as they are traditionally defined encourage women to accept responsibility for “kinkeeping” during and after marriage while simultaneously

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discouraging bonds with friends. These circumstances are thought to isolate women from the unique benefits of personal friendship and ensure networks that are dominated by kin, which typically are high in exchanges of both social support and interference. Important distinctions are drawn between the character of relationships with kin and friends, as well as between the concepts of social support and social inference.

The research entitled “Explaining the Symptomatology of Separated and Divorced Women and Men: The Role of Material Conditions and Social Networks” conducted by Gerstel, Riessman and Rosefield (1998) stated that past research consistently finds that material dissolution is associated with psychological distress. In their research work, they proposed that the explanation for this association varies by gender. Specifically, they hypothesized that it is material conditions (income and parental obligations) that are most important in accounting for the greater symptomatology of separated and divorced women while it is dimensions of social networks (both structural and experimental) that are more important in accounting for the symptomatology of separated and divorced men.

11 Naomi, Gerstel, Catherine, Kohler, and Riessman, Sarah, Rosenfield. “Explaining the Symptomatology of Separated and Divorced Women and Men”. The Role of material Conditions and Social Networks Social Forces. 64. 1, 1988, pp 84-101.
Sakraida (2008) described stress and coping by decider status. Participants were 154 women aged 34 to 54 years who were recently divorced from their first marriage and were married 3 years prior to divorce. Participants self-selected into decider statuses as initiators, noninitiators, or mutual deciders. Noninitiators indicated not knowing the divorce experience was going to occur, not having enough time to get ready for it, saw it as something someone else did, and perceived it as a threat. Initiators and mutual deciders viewed the divorce as a challenge. Noninitiators were less positive about the divorce experience than were initiators and mutual deciders. Acceptance or resignation differed significantly for noninitiators and mutual deciders but not between noninitiators and initiators. Characterizing midlife divorce transition experiences provides a foundation for developing primary intervention to support personal growth, healing, and a healthy lifestyle.

In another study Sakraida (2005) conducted interviews with 24 divorced women who self-classified into decider status groups: initiator (who first decided to end marriage), non-initiator (recipient of end of marriage decision), and mutual decider (shared decision to end marriage).

Interpretive content analysis involving pattern coding was conducted. The divorce transition by initiators (n=8) included self-focused growth, optimism, and social support losses and opportunities, while the divorce transition by non-initiators (n=8) included being left, ruminating, vulnerability, and spiritual comfort. No profile emerged for the mutual-decider group (n=8). This study supports that differences in divorce transition exist for initiators and non-initiators.

Sandler et al. (2000) investigated three models of the relations of coping efficacy, coping, and psychological problems of children of divorce. A structural equation model using cross-sectional data of 356 nine- to twelve-year-old children of divorce yielded results that supported coping efficacy as a mediator of the relations between both active coping and avoiding coping and psychological problems. In a prospective longitudinal model with a subsample of 162 of these children, support was found for Time 2 coping efficacy as a mediator of the relations between Time 1 active coping and Time 2 internalizing of problems. Individual growth curve models over four waves also found support for coping efficacy as a mediator of the relations between active coping and psychological problems. No support was found for alternative models of coping as a

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mediator of the relations between efficacy and symptoms or for coping

efficacy as a moderator of the relations between coping and symptoms.

Booth and Amato (1991) conducted review on Divorce and
psychological stress and reported their findings as follows: while research
on adjustment to divorce has been extensive, the paucity of studies
assessing stress before and after divorce has kept the relation between
psychological stress and martial dissolution unclear. Conflicting findings
cast some doubt on the utility of using a crisis model to study divorce.
Analysis of three-wave panel data from a national sample of persons
married in 1980 indicates that the crisis model is appropriate for
understanding adjustment to divorce. Comparisons of divorced persons
with married persons show a predivorce rise in stress which then returns to
levels comparable to those reported by married individuals. No evidence
was found supporting the idea that a high level of psychological stress is a
general cause of divorce or that dissolution resulted in more or less
permanent elevation of psychological stress. Findings support the
hypothesis that predivorce resources and outlooks influence the amount of
stress experienced in the two years immediately following divorce. Below
median family incomes, no post-high school experience, and wife not in the

labor force put divorcing individuals at a disadvantage. Individuals reporting few premarital troubles and beliefs in the immorality of divorce also appear to experience heightened stress in the two years following divorce.

Barron (1989) investigated (a) relationships between women's causal explanations for divorce and their present emotional health, and (b) the clinical usefulness of the Personal Stress Inventory (Ireton, 1980) as a stress assessment tool. The convenience sample consisted of 36 women ending a first marriage. Subjects were interviewed using the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965), the Personal Stress Inventory, and a causal explanations questionnaire. Results indicated that causal explanations did predict self-esteem and emotional distress under conditions suggested by the reformulated learned helplessness model. The Personal Stress Inventory includes an emotional distress subscale that predicted self-esteem, self-perceptions of coping ability, and overall concerns about wellness/energy.

Lorenz et al., (2006) hypothesized that divorce immediately increases psychological distress and has long-term negative consequences.

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for the physical health of divorced people. In addition, they hypothesized that divorce indirectly causes long-term increases in distress through stressful midlife events. The hypotheses are tested using data from 416 rural Iowa women who were interviewed repeatedly in the early 1990s when they were mothers of adolescent children; the women were interviewed again in 2001. The data support the hypotheses. In the years immediately after their divorce (1991-1994), divorced women reported significantly higher levels of psychological distress than married women but no differences in physical illness. A decade later (in 2001), the divorced women reported significantly higher levels of illness, even after controlling for age, remarriage, education, income, and prior health. Compared to their married counterparts, divorced women reported higher levels of stressful life events between 1994 and 2000, which led to higher levels of depressive symptoms in 2001.

Haber (1990)\textsuperscript{18} conducted a study with the purpose to propose a model that helps divorced people deal with the loss of self and assists them to define a more differentiated sense of self. The dissolution of a marriage through divorce represents a major loss in the lives of all family members. Losses can include those of a physical, social, and emotional nature. The

\textsuperscript{18} J. Haber, "A family systems model for divorce and the loss of self". Arch Psychiatr Nurs., 4, 4. 1990, pp.228-234.
self as it was defined within the marital context and the loss of that self as a result of divorce is a significant source of potential dysfunction in adult family members during and after the divorce. From a family systems' perspective, the lower the level of differentiation of self in family members, the greater is the likelihood that the self was defined in a fusional way during the marriage. As such, when the fused common self is lost through divorce, one or both spouses is likely to experience a significant sense of loss as well as potential dysfunction.

The literature suggests that those in the second half of life may be more vulnerable to the traumas associated with divorce. In this paper by Catron, Chiriboga and Krystal (1980) a rites of passage model derived from anthropology was used to help explicate their greater vulnerability. The focus was on liminality, a quality of ambiguity and disconnectedness in life often manifest when persons are leaving the married state but are not as yet divorced. The subjects were newly-separated men and women aged 20–26. When indicators of liminality were quantified, it was found that they were strongly associated with maladaptation, and that the middle aged subjects showed evidence of greater liminality than was the case with younger respondents.

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Maturitas. 2. 2. 1980. pp.131-139.
Sandler, Tein and West (1994) conducted a cross-sectional and prospective longitudinal study of stress, coping, and psychological symptoms in children of divorce. The sample consisted of 258 children (mean age = 10.1; SD = 1.2), of whom 196 were successfully followed 5.5 months later. A 4-dimensional model of coping was found using confirmatory factor analysis, with the factors being active coping, avoidance, distraction, and support. In the cross-sectional model avoidance coping partially mediated the relations between negative events and symptoms while active coping moderated the relations between negative events and conduct problems. In the longitudinal model significant negative paths were found from active coping and distraction Time 1 to internalizing symptoms Time 2, while Time 1 support coping had a positive path coefficient to Time 2 depression. Positive paths were found between negative events at Time 1 and anxiety at Time 2, and between all symptoms at Time 1 and negative events at Time 2.

In spite of widespread interest in both aging and divorce, relatively little research has joined these topics. This study by Uhlenberg, Cooney and

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Boyd (1990) used data from the U.S. Census, Vital Statistics, and Current Population Survey to determine current divorce patterns for women aged 40+, project marriage and divorce experiences of future cohorts of elderly women, and consider the socioeconomic correlates of divorce for middle-aged and older women. Given current marriage, divorce, and widowhood rates, the findings indicate a marked decline in the proportion of future elderly women who will be married or widowed, and a dramatic increase in the proportion who will be divorced. Further, the data show that the socioeconomic well-being of divorcees is significantly below that of widowed or married women.

Grossman and Rowat (1995) examined the impact of the perceived quality of the parental relationship and family status on coping strategies, received support, and well-being in adolescents from separated or divorced and married parents. Two hundred forty-four matched adolescents from separated/divorced and married households were drawn from an initial sample of 1,044 students who were tested at five colleges and three high schools of a large metropolitan and rural area. Regression analyses

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supported the hypothesis that a perceived poor parental relationship, and
not family status, was associated with low life satisfaction and sense of
future, and high anxiety in adolescents of divorced and married
households. Hierarchical regression techniques revealed that coping
strategies and received support did not mediate the association between a
perceived poor parental relationship and low levels of well-being in
adolescents from divorced and married households. The findings
underscore the importance of intervening with adolescents within the
context of their family relationships.

Using longitudinal data for adult women from the National
Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Market Experience, this study conducted by
Doherty (1983) examined the relation between getting divorced and
changes in the individual's locus of control orientation. The sample
contained 1,814 white women ages 32-46 years who were in their first
marriage in 1969. Marital status and locus of control (an 11-item
abbreviated version of Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale)
were measured in 1969, 1972, and 1977. Based on previous literature on
locus of control and life events and on divorce, stress, and mental health,
the author hypothesized that divorced people, in comparison with those

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W. J. Doherty. "Impact of divorce on locus of control orientation in adult women: a longitudinal
who remained married, would show a short-term increase in externality from 1969-1972, followed by a return over the next 5 years to levels of locus of control comparable to that of the group who remained married. It was also hypothesized that locus of control scores would not predict the likelihood of becoming divorced over the 8-year period. All three hypotheses were confirmed. The findings were discussed in the context of two larger theoretical issues: the influence of important life events on locus of control and the causal direction in the well-documented association between divorce and mental health.

In a study conducted by Hallberg and Mattsson (1989)34 Thirty-two divorced men aged 30 to 44 years answered a questionnaire within seven months after the dissolution of their marriages. They were asked for life circumstances (housing and working conditions, economic situation) and perceived health and a personal interview was also performed with most of the men. Primary health care records during the year of divorce were analysed according to number of visits and reasons for encounter. A majority of the men perceived working conditions as satisfying while about half of the men had moved to less satisfying housing conditions. They recorded a high number of psychological symptoms (insomnia, fatigue, fatigue,.

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anxiety) but this was not recognizable in the primary health care records. Ten men had had more than one divorce and in this sub-group there were several alcohol abusers. The importance of primary health care in the early recognition of the complex situation of divorced men is stressed.

Nelson (1994) studied separated and married women longitudinally. Recently separated women reported more growth-oriented coping and positive life changes than did married women, but no significant differences were evident six years later. Life strains at early time intervals predicted emotional well-being at the last time interval, and coping served a stress-buffering function over time.

Kaffman (1993) conducted a study entitled "Divorce in the Kibbutz: lessons to be drawn". The kibbutz in Israel constitutes one of the few places in Western culture where one is able to examine the essence of an "authentic emotional divorce" because of the minor role of factors that are extraneous to the disruption of the emotional marital attachment itself. This is the case because the kibbutz is a society that is based and functions upon principles that neutralize to a large extent the legal, economic, and co-

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parenting obstacles to a constructive divorce. Although there are significant differences in the severity of the postdivorce conflict, the divorce crisis is rather similar in kibbutz and non-kibbutz settings regarding both the quality of the emotional responses and the nature of the influencing factors—thus pointing to the ubiquitousness of the human condition.

Huston et al., (2001) showed that couples' changes in their union over the first 2 years foreshadow their long-term marital fate after 13 years. Consistent with the enduring dynamics model, differences in the intensity of newlyweds' romance as well as the extent to which they expressed negative feelings toward each other predicted (a) whether or not they were happy 13 years later (among those who stayed married) and (b) how long their marriage lasted prior to separation (for those who divorced). The results provide little support for the idea that emergence of distress (e.g., increasing negativity) early in marriage leads to marital failure but instead show that disillusionment—as reflected in an abatement of love, a decline in overt affection, a lessening of the conviction that one's spouse is responsive, and an increase in ambivalence—distinguishes couples headed for divorce from those who establish a stable marital bond.

Nelson (1989)\textsuperscript{28} used the stress and coping paradigm as the framework for a longitudinal study of recently separated and married women. Data were gathered at three different interviews over a period of 18 months. Comparing the two groups of women, it was found that life strains in the areas of financial concerns and spouse relations were related to both income level and marital status, with low-income and separated women experiencing the highest levels of these strains. Also, the separated women used coping strategies emphasizing personal change and reported more positive changes related to their family, work, and material conditions. Regression analyses on the entire sample showed that life strains were inversely related to emotional well-being and that coping served a stress-buffering function. It was concluded that the emotional well-being of separated and married women must be considered in the context of stress, coping, and change processes.

Cohen and Savava (1997)\textsuperscript{29} presented the findings of a preliminary, qualitative, exploratory study of divorce in Israeli-Arab society from the perspectives of divorced women living in Jaffa, Israel, and of Arab


professionals engaged in therapeutic work. It explores the causes of
divorce, the women’s coping with the divorce process, and what constitutes
post-divorce adjustment, based on the experiences of nine divorced
Moslem Arab women and the input of six Arab professionals. The women
attributed their divorces to extreme external factors: their husband’s
substance abuse, mental illness, and/or severe physical violence against
them, as well as to interference by their husband’s family of origin. They
told of coping by relying on their inner resources and the strength their
children gave them, while their own families of origin were almost
uniformly critical and rejecting. They defined post-divorce adjustment as
passing the test of female honor posed by their community, which they did
by downplaying their femininity and immersing themselves in housework
and childcare. The findings were compared with the research and clinical
knowledge that has accumulated on divorce in Western society.

Kiecolt-Glaser et al., (2003) assessed neuroendocrine function,
assessed in 90 couples during their first year of marriage (Time 1), was
related to marital dissolution and satisfaction 10 years later. Compared to
those who remained married, epinephrine levels of divorced couples were

34\% higher during a Time 1 conflict discussion, 22\% higher throughout the day, and both epinephrine and norepinephrine were 16\% higher at night. Among couples who were still married, Time 1 conflict ACTH levels were twice as high among women whose marriages were troubled 10 years later than among women whose marriages were untroubled. Couples whose marriages were troubled at follow-up produced 34\% more norepinephrine during conflict, 24\% more norepinephrine during the daytime, and 17\% more during nighttime hours at Time 1 than the untroubled.

Singh (1996)\textsuperscript{11} conducted a study which focuses on divorce patterns in 10 rural villages near Shimla town, the capital of Himachal Pradesh, India. Data were obtained from a survey conducted in 1988 among 338 ever married women. Most villagers are Hindus. Caste groups include Brahmins (13\%), Rajputs (45\%), and Sudras (42\%). Indian divorce consists in a permanent separation without legal formalities or an informal process within the panchayat judicial system. Large national studies indicate low levels of divorce, while local anthropological studies indicate high levels in some areas. This study in 1988 indicates that over 17\% of women (58 out of 338) in Himachal villages were divorced at least once. Evidence suggests

that divorces by cohort were higher prior to 1960. About 30% of women who married during 1951-60, 13% of women who married during 1971-80, and 3% of women who married during 1981-88 were divorced at least once. The mean age of marriage for ever divorced women was much lower than for never divorced women. The mean age at divorce was also much lower than the mean age at marriage among never divorced women. The variables associated with divorce at the 0.05 level of significance were marriage age, level of female education, age difference of spouses, and level of education of spouse and caste. Women who married before the age of 13 years were three times more likely to divorce than women who married at ages 13-15 years. Women with at least 5 years of education were four times less likely to divorce than uneducated women. Brahmin women were less likely to divorce. Women with uneducated husbands had a 50% greater chance of being divorced than women with primary educated husbands. Women who were younger by 10 years than their spouse were six times more likely to divorce.

Thuen and Rise (2006) explored the extent to which the two personality factors—perceived control and dispositional optimism—are

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related to psychological adaptation after marital disruption. A sample of 658 recently divorced individuals participated in the study by filling in an anonymous questionnaire. Bivariate findings revealed that perceived control and optimism were strongly related to psychological adaptation. However, when both predictors were included in a multiple regression analysis, optimism had a much larger effect than perceived control. The findings clearly indicate that personality factors account for a substantial proportion of the variance in adaptation to marital disruption.

Wadsby and Svedin (1992) studied demographic variables, the reasons for the divorce, the changes as a consequence of the divorce and the differences between the sexes among 157 Swedish-speaking spouses through interviews and assessments on visual analogue scales. The results showed that various conflicts were the main reason for the divorce in half of the families. Compared to men, women came significantly more often from broken homes, were the initiators of the divorce in most cases, and felt that the marriage had been dissatisfying for a significantly longer time period. Self-employed men were significantly overrepresented. The

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changes as a consequence of the divorce were significantly different for men and women in several areas, in most cases in favour of the women.

While research on adjustment to divorce has been extensive, the paucity of studies assessing stress before and after divorce has kept the relation between psychological stress and martial dissolution unclear. Conflicting findings cast some doubt on the utility of using a crisis model to study divorce. Booth and Amato (1991) analyzed three-wave panel data from a national sample of persons married in 1980 indicated that the crisis model is appropriate for understanding adjustment to divorce. Comparisons of divorced persons with married persons show a predivorce rise in stress which then returns to levels comparable to those reported by married individuals. No evidence was found supporting the idea that a high level of psychological stress is a general cause of divorce or that dissolution resulted in more or less permanent elevation of psychological stress. Findings support the hypothesis that predivorce resources and outlooks influence the amount of stress experienced in the two years immediately following divorce. Below median family incomes, no post-high school experience, and wife not in the labor force put divorcing

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individuals at a disadvantage. Individuals reporting few premarital troubles and beliefs in the immorality of divorce also appear to experience heightened stress in the two years following divorce.

Storksen et al., (2006) investigated the long-term effects of parental divorce on adolescent psychological adjustment and well-being, and to what extent the effects are accounted for by parental psychological distress. Data were collected among 8,984 Norwegian adolescents (13-19 years) and their parents. Outcome variables were symptoms of anxiety and depression, subjective well-being, and three areas of school problems. Parental divorce was found to be associated with both higher mean levels and larger variances in adolescent problems. Divorce and parental distress contributed independently to adolescent distress, supporting the notion of "double exposure" effects. The prevalence of adolescents with substantial distress symptoms was 14% among those with non-distressed non-divorced parents and 30% among those with divorced and distressed parents. In general effects remained when controlling for demographic factors. Long-term effects of divorce on symptoms of anxiety and depression were stronger among girls than among boys.

Kitson, Graham and Schmidt (1983) conducted a longitudinal survey of adjustment to divorce in Cleveland, Ohio, suburbs with a matched sample of married persons in order to identify some of the common complaints, feelings, concerns, and health hazards among separated and divorced persons. The study findings show that substantial numbers of divorced and married people turn to their physicians for help with personal problems, suggesting that physicians need to be prepared to help them appropriately. Based upon these findings, opportunities are described that are open to the family physician for detecting distress in the troubled marriage and in divorce, as well as for therapeutic intervention. Types of interventions include anticipatory guidance, counseling, and referral for more intensive therapy. In the troubled marriage there is often an extended period of unhappiness and indecision. A physician alerted to the frequency with which marital distress is exhibited in physical or psychological symptoms may be able to provide assistance in sorting out priorities and options. Following a crisis model of adjustment, the heightened physical and psychological distress experienced during the early stages of the divorce process decreases with time. Many divorced

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parents are not aware of the impact of marital turmoil and divorce on their children. The family physician plays an important part in helping parents recognize their continuing role in the lives of their children even if the marital relationship ends.

Ben-Zur and Michael (2009) conducted a study on sample of 196 participants (mean age 45.94 years, 54% women). The subjects completed inventories assessing upward and downward positive and negative social comparisons and general well-being. Widows and widowers were higher on upward negative comparisons than divorced or married persons while being lower on well-being measures of life satisfaction and psychosocial adjustment. The divorced were higher than the widowed or married people on upward or downward positive social comparisons. Upward negative social comparisons were associated with lower levels of well-being measures whereas upward positive social comparisons showed an opposite tendency. Upward negative comparisons were found to mediate the effects of widowhood on well-being. It is concluded that cognitive adaptation contributes to the well-being of widowed and divorced persons.

Storksen et al., (2007) compared the likelihood of getting married and of getting divorced among the adult offspring of divorced parents versus the adult offspring of parents who remain married (total N = 37,230). It also compares levels of psychological distress in the two groups (total N = 22,898). Data derive from The Nord-Trondelag Health Study (HUNT) and population registries from Norway. Individuals with divorced parents tended to delay marriage or not marry at all. However, among those who married, there were more divorces among the offspring of divorced parents than among offspring of parents who were still married. Offspring of divorce tended to marry other offspring of divorce. These marriages were at especially high risk of dissolution. Parental divorce was particularly influential as a risk factor during the first years of marriage. Both parental divorce and the individuals' own divorce were risk factors for psychological distress.

The reports from various literature, summarized above, indicate that ample of researches are being conducted on divorce related issues by various scientists of worldwide nations. Many cross-sectional studies on divorcees covered various aspects of their psychological and social status.

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including some of the factors of values. This study also considers the similar attributes especially on Iranian divorcees which is meager. Moreover, the uniqueness of this piece of research is that the investigator has imparted yoga training as remedy for the stress management among the divorcees. Hence this study seems to be logical and justified.