Chapter II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Once the topic has been decided upon, it is essential to review all relevant material which has a bearing on the topic. In fact, review of literature begins with a search for a suitable topic and continues throughout the duration of the research project work. Since a research report, either a dissertation or a thesis, is supposed to be study in depth aiming contribution to knowledge, a careful check should be that the proposed study has not previously been carried out (Saravanavel, 1998). The review aims at evaluating research studies done both in western countries and in India in the past few decades.

Numerous studies in the sociological literature in the west have examined and analyzed the phenomenon of divorce and its implications. In India, considerable research on divorce has been documented, albeit on lesser scale compared to the west. The main reasons for the limited number of empirical studies on divorce in India, are the lower divorce rates, and lack of adequate data (Amato, 1994). It has been found that various studies related to marriage, family and divorce have been conducted at various periods of time. These studies, despite offering vital insights into the subject, circumscribed their scope to the demographic and causative factors of divorce; the "pre-divorce" stage, which a crucial determinant is of "divorce process", has not received adequate attention.

2.1 Socio – Economic, Cultural and Demographic profile

Mehta (1975) made a pioneer study focusing attention on the divorced or separated Hindu women. In her introductory chapters she mentions that the purpose of this study is to find out what is the place and the problems faced by Hindu women divorcees in Indian society. The author does not distinguish between those who are legally divorced and those who are merely separated. According to the author, a woman’s marriage once broken does not basically
make any differences regarding her need to readjust to society and find a new place in it. The author’s findings relate mainly to urban society in northern India. The study of fifty women by her shows that belief in marriage as indissoluble union is no longer a deterrent to preserve an incompatible marriage.

Some of the main findings are - Indian society is going through dramatic and rapid changes affecting radically the traditional role of women. The younger generation is increasingly ignorant of the ritualistic basis of their religion. The women who were joint family based and who were brought up to respect and fear their related group were less capable of breaking with conventional standards of behavior. The husband wife relationship has become pivotal to the success of marriage. Though there was confidence in the arranged marriage pattern this pattern would have to undergo a change. Secular society was more tolerant and more open for women who were divorced. The western educated women inculcated in her a sense of her own identity. In spite of liberal ideas taking a firm hold in India, in the upper and lower middle class it was clear that the position of the divorced or separated women had only marginally improved.

Kuppuswamy (1957) in his study of 895 persons in south India in 1956 found that there is more or less a uniform response in favour of divorce irrespective of the age, sex, rural or urban residence, or literacy of the respondents. In recent years, though no scientific study on attitudes towards divorce has been conducted by any scholar of repute, yet it appears from the articles in the popular magazines of women and from a few doctoral theses on his theme that a large number of women as well as men are not against divorce.

Maye (1975) an exploratory study of 15 couples selected by a method of purposive sampling from the case records of Bombay Civil Court. The couples were granted divorce during 1971-72. The unit of the study was the divorced couple. The main findings of the study are- Majority of the respondents prior to marriage came from upper middle class, were the average monthly income
ranged from Rs 1000 to 2000 per family. Majority of the husbands (73%) married at the average age of 25 and the majority of the wives (86%) at the age of 20. The areas of conflict as indicated by majority of the couples (74%) were personality differences and incompatibility, where as minority (33%) stresses infidelity and unfaithfulness as prominent factors. The study revealed that since the law required certain grounds for divorce, in most cases, the real factors were not stressed. 30% of the respondents had remarried, while 20% were getting married soon. Majority of the couples (80%) were of the opinion that marriage counselors should make attempts at reaching out to the larger community by conducting premarital and post marital guidance and counseling courses. They also felt that the schools and colleges must introduce such talks and short term course as part of the curriculum. Though it was a brief study, the findings of Maye were really significant.

Trent and South (1989) in a study of the structural determinants of the divorce rate examined the impact of several factors and their resulting prediction of divorce. These factors included socioeconomic development, female labor participation, the sex ratio, and dominant religion. The sphere of influence of religion on divorce rates at the societal level is hard to determine. Each society must be examined based on their specific religious affiliation breakdowns, and it is likely that the effect of religion on divorce in the United States could be different than the effect of religion on other countries. The study examined the crude divorce rate (number of divorces per 1,000 people) in 66 countries. The study controlled for the average age at marriage for females, because marriage at an early age in and of itself may influence divorce. The correlations between the divorce rate and the development of the women’s labor force participation were strong, but there was not a statistically significant relationship found between religion and divorce.

Choudhry (1987) studied 125 cases of divorce adjudicated between 1977 and 1982 in Jaipur (Rajasthan). Studying the background of the divorcees and the characteristics of divorce, he found that - there is a significant relationship
between the nature of family (joint or nuclear) and marital stability or divorce. There are more divorces among persons living in joint families. This is perhaps because joint families provide new ways of adaptation that seem personally satisfying, effective and socially acceptable. The urban areas produce more divorces than the rural areas, or residential background of the people (urban and rural) affects the marital duration and divorce. There are more divorces in the higher castes in comparison to the lower castes. Persons engaged in the middle and low-status occupations are more prone to divorce than those engaged in the high-status occupations. Marital disruptions and divorces appear more where spouses have greater difference in the level of their education. Divorce is found more in the low and the middle income groups. Marriage at an early age (under eighteen years) does not necessarily tend to dissolve earlier than marriage at a late age. Childless persons seek more divorce than persons with children.

Damle (1965) study included 363 cases of legal divorce and permanent desertion. The survey included seventy-five cases in which divorce was taken through court, thirty-four cases which were registered in the office of the registrar of marriages, Poona, and 254 cases which were reported at the community level (that is, in which divorce was granted through the gram panchayats). He found that in 0.82 per cent cases, the partners had lived together for less than one year, in 25.35 per cent cases between one to six years, in 23.41 per cent cases between seven to nine years, in 28.10 per cent cases between ten to fifteen years, and in 10.20 per cent cases for more than fifteen years. In 12.12 per cent cases, years passed between marriage and divorce /desertion were not given. The mean marital span was, thus, 8.9 years. This shows that people do not rush for divorce but try to adjust. Only when they fail in adjustment, they break their marital bonds. He also found that in 21.48 per cent cases, they had no children, while in the remaining 78.52 percent; they had one or more children. He found that the important causes of divorce are: domestic disharmony (including quarrels between husband and
wife, ill-treatment by husband, and quarrel with in-laws) (43.5%), barrenness of wife (21.5%), immoral conduct of spouse (21.2%) spouse’s inability to fulfill marital obligations due to disease, personal nature, etc. (7.7%) and husband’s conviction (0.3%). In 5.8 per cent cases, no specific causes could be traced.

Amato & Booth (1997) in order to provide insight into the relationship between marital satisfaction and divorce, conducted research determining the effects of age at marriage, religiosity, marital satisfaction, and income on whether or not a couple thinks about divorce. They examined data gathered from the 1978 Nebraska Annual Social Indicators Survey, which used telephone interviews of Nebraska residents age 18 and over. They found that each of the independent variables (including religiosity) had an effect on thinking about divorce that was independent of its effect on marital satisfaction. This implies that even when controlling for marital satisfaction, religiosity continues to influence how one thinks about divorce. They also found that religiosity has an effect on whether or not a person/couple thought about or ever considered divorce.

Choudhry (1988) has classified the factors in divorce in to two groups; environmental factors and personality factors. Sub-classifying environmental factors, he refers to factors endogenous as well as exogenous to family. In his study, 98.4 per cent male divorcees and 96.0 per cent female divorcees did not remarry. It may be suggested here that correlation ship exists between the economic status and the remarriage of the divorcees. He found that about three fifths lower-class male divorcees in his study had remarried after divorce against one-fourth of the middle-class and three-fifth of the upper class divorcees.

Olayinka (1987) has indicated that marital stability increases when both spouses are matured enough to marry and when there is less disparity in the age of the parties. In the present study age disparity was not considered as the major cause of Divorce possibly because men are usually much older than their
wives. If marriage is to succeed, the man has to prepare himself educationally and financially. This usually takes time.

Fonseca (1962) assessing the relationship between education and divorce, found that the equality of educational status has more hazards for marriage. She, however, did not evaluate several important factors like the relationship between urbanism and divorce, or between sub-culture, caste, etc. and divorce, and so on. It is possible that certain sub cultural groups may show a tendency of having high rate of divorce. The regional and cultural values, the intimate and reserved social contacts, and respect for tradition are bound to have some relationship with divorce. He on the other hand, found that the primary causes of divorce are: desertion and cruelty (69.1%), adultery (20.6%), impotency (8.3%), and miscellaneous (2.0%). She also observed that the legal causes of divorce are different from the real causes and that the former appear as the externalia which for reasons of appropriateness or expediency are chosen to cloak a ruptured relationship.

Tilson & Larsen (2000) Forty-five per cent of first marriages in Ethiopia end in divorce within 30 years, and two-thirds of women who divorce do so within the first 5 years of marriage. This paper looks at two factors that may have an impact on the risk of divorce in Ethiopia: early age of first marriage, and childlessness within the first marriage. Data used were from the 1990 National Family and Fertility Survey conducted by the Government of Ethiopia. A total of 8757 women of reproductive age (15–49) were analysed. The results of this analysis showed that both early age at marriage and childlessness have a significant impact on the risk of divorce. An inverse relationship was found between age at marriage and risk of divorce. Having a child within the first marriage also significantly reduced the risk of divorce. In addition, several cultural and socioeconomic variables were significant predictors of divorce.

Cherlin (1992) offers another picture of the interaction of legislative, behavioural, and attitudinal change. He reports that between 1945 and 1966,
the greatest change in attitudes towards divorce was not a growth in support but a growth in the ‘don’t know whether the divorce law was strict enough or too strict’. The real growth in support for divorce occurred between 1968 and 1974, with an increase of 15% agreeing that it should be easier, and a fall of 21% agreeing it should be more difficult. Cherlin concludes that the introduction of no-fault divorce in the early 1970s may have been a response to liberalizing attitudes; but that the increasing numbers of people divorcing reduced the stigma attached to divorce, helped to liberalize attitudes, and thus increased the acceptability of divorce. According to this view, attitudes, behaviour, and legislation operate in a reinforcing loop.

Pasricha (2007) Delhi has emerged as the divorce capital of India with about 9000 cases of separation filed every year on an average. Deccan Times explores the reasons for this. They say marriages are made in heaven. But if they have been solemnized in Delhi, we may have a problem. The city has emerged as the de facto divorce capital of the country with about 8,000-9,000 cases filed here every year. The number is almost the double of what was seen four years ago, and what's more, it is the upwardly mobile 20 and 30-somethings who are finding their way to court rooms. And for all those who thought that Delhi was more steeped in tradition than glittering Mumbai, here's news. Mumbai sees less than 5,000 divorce cases in one year and the same holds true for Bangalore. Lawyers, sociologists and marriage counselors cite one common reason for the higher divorce rate in Delhi the rising expectations from marriage. Experts feel that is because Delhi is a city of immigrants with no specific beliefs and is far more materialistic than other places. Divorce is no longer considered a social stigma in Delhi, and so if there is discord in a marital relationship, couples would rather break it up than somehow drag the relationship on. Earlier marriage was about adjustment and compatibility but now it’s more like a power game where both the husband and wife strive for an equal status.
2.2 Causes for the Increasing Rate of Divorce

Khojastehmehr & Takrimi (1998) This study was designed to identify the divorce factors of the divorce-seeking women in Khuzestan, Iran. The sample consisted of 592 divorce-seeking women, selected according to a multi-stage sampling method. A 145-item questionnaire containing reasons for divorce was constructed based on the views of 200 divorce-seeking women and was administered to the sample. Four factors were extracted: neglect of wife's wishes (40 items), husband and his family's lack of social skills (33 items), husband's social abnormalities (10 items) and husband and wife's personal and family incompatibilities (mismatches) (10 items). The findings are immensely important from theoretical and applied points of view, including marital discord, preventive and therapy models of divorce and preparing a valid scale for measuring factors of divorce.

Pattison (2001) a recent study by the Creighton University Center for Marriage and Family suggests that time, sex and money pose the three biggest obstacles to satisfaction in the lives of newly married couples. The study found that debt brought into marriage, the couples' financial situation, balancing job and family, and frequency of sexual relations were of greatest concern to those ages 29 and under. Those age 30 and over shared with their younger cohorts the concerns of balancing job and family and frequency of sexual relations, but also added as problem areas constant bickering and expectations about household tasks. The study used a random sample drawn from couples who had completed the focus inventory and had agreed to participate in future research. A mailing of questionnaires resulted in a total sample of 947 couples, or 1,894 individuals. Out of that a total of 793 individual questionnaires were returned, which the study called a "highly acceptable" response rate of 48.5 percent; 35.7 percent of the returns were completed questionnaires from both spouses. "Time, Sex and Money" is shorthand for the top three problem areas reported by survey respondents: balancing job and family, frequency of sexual relations, and debt brought into marriage. The other top problematic issues the study
showed were, in order, husband's employment; overall financial situation; expectations about household tasks; constant bickering; communication with spouse; parents or in-laws; and time spent together with spouse.

Amato (1999) used national panel data collected between 1980 and 1997 to classify 208 people's open-ended responses to a question on why their marriages ended in divorce. Infidelity was the most commonly reported cause, followed by incompatibility, drinking or drug use and growing apart. In the study, people's specific reasons for divorce varied with gender, social class and life course variables.

Bernard & Wesley (1978) has stated that traditional and unrealistic expectations about marriage and male female roles and relationships almost always lead to subsequent dissatisfaction. This dissatisfaction tends to exist in proportion to the expectation—the more one expects and the greater the need to have the expectation met, the more disillusioned one is likely to be when the expectations are not realized.

Andersen (1997) examined the relationship between financial problems and divorce using a nationally representative sample (N = 1,620) of “Marital-Instability-Over-the-Life-Course” panel study. The panel study was used to determine if financial problems at one interview could predict those who would divorce by the second interview. The independent variable included eight financial problems: husband’s work-family conflict, husband’s job satisfaction, wife’s job satisfaction, satisfaction with spouse as breadwinner, satisfaction with financial situation, spending money foolishly/unwisely, and financial situation getting better/worse. Additionally, total number of financial problems, age at marriage, gender, income, and presence of children under age 6 were used as independent variables in the analyses. Bivariate correlation and discriminant analysis procedures indicated statistically significant relationships between financial problems and divorce for all independent variables, except wife’s job satisfaction, gender, and income. However, none of the independent
variables (individually or in combination) explained more than 5% of the variance in divorce. Therefore, Andersen (2000) concluded that financial problems were inadequate predictors of divorce.

Michael & Williams (2003) found that women’s, but not men’s, perceptions of inequality in housework are related to divorce. In other words, when women believe they are doing more than their fair share, they were more than twice as likely to seek a divorce. This study adds support for the enhanced equality hypothesis that when divorce is more accepted and practiced, women may be able and willing to push for greater equality in the relationship, using the threat of divorce as leverage.

Johnson (1988) in his book “social welfare: a response to human need “the causes of the increase in incidence of divorce are many. He suggests that the technologically advanced society fosters the attitude that almost anything is replaceable, including marriage. If it doesn’t work, throw it out. If the marital relationship does not meet the parent’s expectations or satisfaction, a divorce seems to be the option which the couple chooses to end the relationship.

Incompatibility in the marital relationship, perceived by one or both partners can also contribute to the breakup of relationship. This may include Incompatibility in sex roles, excessive life and marriage demands, unmet emotional needs of marital partners, the inability of the marriage to satisfy the individual, individual conflicts about personal fulfillment and incompatible social role for both partners when such incompatibility exists in a marriage, tension and conflict of often lead to marital difficulties and divorce.

South (2001) has a similar argument for the possible opposite consequences of the increased proportion of working women in successive birth cohorts for increased chance of divorce within families where both partners do work. The increased proportion of working married women could on the one hand lead to greater social acceptance of women working, and thus to lower tensions in marriages as a consequence of their work. On the other hand, the increased
proportion of working married women could mean that the selectivity of the working married women is reduced; making the chance of divorce for the larger, less selective group of working married women higher. Democratisation of working married women changes the characteristics of working and nonworking married women and thus might change the relation between working married women and the chance of divorce.

Herrnstein & Murray (1994) mention a number of possible reasons for the existence of a negative relationship between intelligence and divorce during the first five years of marriage - People of higher intelligence less often marry on impulse, giving them less chance of miserable, brief marriages. People of higher intelligence act less impulsively, making it less likely to divorce hastily in the first years of their marriage. People of higher intelligence are better able to bridge differences of opinion that may destroy their marriages. They show, on the basis of data from the American National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, that people in the top 5% of IQ-scores have a one in ten chance of divorcing in their first five years of marriage, while those the lowest 75% have a chance of one in 3.5 of divorcing in that period. This means that there is a difference in divorce risk between the top band of the intelligence distribution and the rest. Herrnstein and Murray go on to consider whether age, parental background or ages at first marriage are causes of this negative relation between intelligence and divorce. But even after controlling for these variables, they continue to find a negative effect of IQ-scores on divorce risk, whereas they report a positive effect of parental background on chance of divorce.

Fan & Lui (2001) This paper provides the first empirical study on how the perceived changes of marriage quality affect marital stability, using a unique data set obtained in Hong Kong. It is found that while the change of marriage quality due to extramarital affairs clearly increases the probability of divorce, it is not the only determinant of marital instability. In particular, the presence of dependable children in a family and good marital quality before the discovery of extramarital affairs would lower the probability of divorce. Meanwhile,
although not consistently statistically significant, the empirical results show that divorce rate decreases with age, religion and educational level.

Mohamed (2001) The latest study conducted by the author shows that 21 per cent of divorces was because of the irresponsible attitude of husbands or wives"
The overall divorce rate among Malay Muslims in the country was in the region of 10 to 15 per cent, he said. According to him, 19.23 per cent was because of incompatibility and the remainder due to problems of drugs and others. Seven factors have been identified as the main causes of divorce among couples in the country, among them failure by husbands and wives in discharging their responsibilities. Besides this the others were a low grounding in religion, interference by third parties, differences in culture, sexual problems, money and careers. He added that various measures had been and would be taken, among them having more courses, workshops and seminars and counselling to curb the problem.

Amato & Keith (1991) used longitudinal data from 1980 -1992 to identify variables that may increase the probability of divorce. Four variables were found to be statistically significant predictors of divorce: infidelity, drinking or drug use, spending money foolishly, and “irritating habits.” Spending money foolishly increased the odds of divorces by 45%, compared to an increase of 100% for infidelity, 49% for drinking alcohol or using drugs, and 39% for irritating habits.

Henry & Miller (2004) found that values, communication, commitment, decision-making, emotional intimacy, and sexual issues had the strongest impact on marital satisfaction in midlife. Parents/in laws, spiritual matters, and housecleaning showed the lowest correlation with marital satisfaction. Communication and sex had the greatest impact on marital satisfaction.
2.3 Psychological Situation of the Divorcees

Thornton (1985) in an article addressing attitudes regarding separation and divorce estimated the effects of several social, economic, and demographic factors and attitude changes regarding divorce. He studied mothers and their children and their attitudes toward divorce and separation. He controlled factors such as religion and church attendance. He gathered his data from an intergenerational panel study of mothers and children drawn from July 1961 birth records in the Detroit area. The main findings of his research were that increasing divorce rates were accompanied by more acceptance of divorce and changes in people’s attitudes.

Hooper (1990) this study examines how the experience of a parent’s divorce during adolescence affects young adult women’s attitudes about relationships, marriage and divorce. Research questions looked at how participants felt about marriage, their relationship with their parents following the divorce, and how the experience of parental remarriage shapes attitudes about marriage. Fifteen young adult women were interviewed. The most significant findings were that experiencing a parental divorce leads to feelings of ambivalence about marriage. Religious beliefs and positive role models can alleviate some of the negative feelings about marriage that may be present following a parental divorce. Experiencing parental conflict and acting as a middleman between parents during the divorce process contributed to negative feelings about relationships and marriage. Many of the women had negative experiences with their father’s remarriage and yet they wished that their mothers would remarry.

Richard & Wadsworth (1997), many studies have reported a negative impact of divorce and separation on health although it is still unclear to what extent this is due to early vulnerability, the material and social consequences of divorce or to its direct emotional effects. Measures of anxiety and depression and potential alcohol abuse at age 43 were compared in 2085 participants from the MRC National Survey of Health and Development who were either married and
never divorced or separated, or who had divorced or separated at least once. Analyses were adjusted for socio demographic features, early vulnerability factors and current stressors.

Divorce and separation were associated with increased anxiety and depression, and increased risk of alcohol abuse. This was the case after adjusting for educational attainment, age at first marriage, parental divorce, childhood aggression and neuroticism, and current financial hardship, lack of confidence and frequency of social contact with friends or family. The association between divorce and risk of alcohol abuse became non-significant when the latter variable was controlled for. Associations between divorce and psychopathology were observed even though half of those separated or divorced were re-married or reunited with their spouses at the time of the analysis. There was, furthermore, no association between these mental health measures and time since first separation or divorce. Divorce and separation have a specific and long-term impact on mental health.

Bohanna (1973) Divorce is a complex phenomenon in human relationship and that it takes place in six stages, these are emotional divorce stage, economic divorce stage, legal divorce stage, co-parental divorce stage, community and psycho, divorce stages. He explained that divorce come as a climax to a long story of unhappiness and it provides a legal way out of a situation which one or both parties have considered intolerable.

Coysh & Colleagues (1989) found important differences in the ways that women and men responded to family experiences preceding and following divorce. Although both women and men who were involved in relationships with new partners were doing much better psychologically and emotionally than others without such relationships, women were bothered more by pre-post divorce family issues, tensions and conflicts. For men, “new relationships were able to undo”. In contrast, “women appear to be more affected by the residual
hostility from the past marriage and problematic relations between partners and children in their new marriages or relationship”

Farnsworth & Lund (1989) found that recently divorced women were more likely than men to report feelings of helplessness, avoidance, anger, guilt and confusion observed that it is common for divorced women to feel trapped, to wish they could change their lives and get away from it all. Examining change over time, reported slight improvements in men’s psychological well being during the pre divorce to post divorce period. Whereas women’s psychological well being declined significantly over the same period, and their use of alcohol and other drugs increased.

Amato & Booth (1996) conducted a rare longitudinal study on a national sample and documented problems in parent-child relationships as early as eight to twelve years prior to parental divorce. Other studies observe that, before parental divorce, U.S. and U.K. children and adolescents suffer due to high levels of marital discord, ineffective and inconsistent parenting, diminished parental wellbeing, and reduced parent-child affection. Taken together, these studies suggest that the alterations in family functioning that occur during a pre divorce process lead to children witnessing their parents fighting, parents' emotional and psychological states deteriorating, and diminishing levels of parental warmth, affection, and supervision. It is important to note that these changing family dynamics contribute to children experiencing behavior problems prior to parental divorce, and those children’s behavior problems, in turn, strain marital relationships, undermine parental well-being, and increase the chances of parental. Consequently, some researchers would argue that the negative effects of divorce on children begin well before an actual divorce occurs. For both parents and children, the most difficult and stressful phase of the divorce process is usually the period leading up to and immediately following parental separation and divorce. The uncoupling process takes on several dimensions at this stage, as divorcing parents confront legal challenges
and expenses, make their intentions public to family and friends, and redefine their roles as residential and nonresidential parents.

Richard (2005) “Divorce does seem to cause a permanent decline in levels of happiness”. Breaking up may be hard to do, but getting over it is even harder for many people, new research shows. To explore the emotional resonance of divorce, he analyzed 18 years of data collected during once-yearly interviews involving more than 30,000 German men and women who were asked to rate their life satisfaction on a scale of one to 10. He concluded that while the experience of divorce does trigger a sustained happiness decline in many people, the drop can sometimes be due as much to pre-existing happiness differences among individuals as it is to the act of separation itself. In either case, he emphasized that divorce has a complicated emotional impact. And he encouraged friends, family and health-care professionals to assess the emotional health of those going through divorce. The researchers concluded that the common notion that parents should stay together for the sake of their kids is a fallacy that can do more harm to children than good.

Hess & Waring (1978) study compared three groups of children of divorced parents. The children in Group A enjoyed good relationships with both parents. Group B had a good relationship with only one parent (sex was not a factor). Group C did not have good relationships with either parent. The children in Group A had the lowest scores on psychological test designed to measure stress and aggression. They also scored highest on work effectiveness and peer interaction tests. The findings of Group C were just the opposite of Group A’s. Group B, however, scored only slightly higher than Group A. The conclusions of this study showed that children with good personal relationships with both parents are psychologically better adjusted to the effects of divorce. Meanwhile, those children who had a good relationship with one parent appeared to be relatively unharmed. Group C children, who had not established a relationship with either parent, fared poorly.
2.4 Post Divorce Life

Amato (2000) In recent research on the changing societal views of divorce, found that even when taking into account the improvement of society’s views on divorce, children of divorce continue to show numerous negative outcomes. He discusses the changes in outcomes of children from divorced families as compared to those from intact families. After taking into account the more normative views of divorce during recent times, the study shows a persistence of more negative outcomes among children of divorced parents in the 1990s than those of earlier decades. Lower levels of success at school, poorer behavior, more emotional problems, lower self-esteem, and more difficulties with interpersonal relationships are some of the negative outcomes found in children of divorce from recent times. If societal views are not responsible for differences between divorced and intact families, this brings to question what specific factors may be contributing to the differences seen.

Moats (2000) this study focuses on college student’s attitudes and perceptions of marriage and divorce in today’s society based on their experience, or lack of experience, with parental divorce. This study also examines if differences exist among college students from divorced families and married-parent families and their perceptions of marriage and divorce. Additionally, this study looks at how parental conflict impacts the formation of college student’s attitudes about marital relationships. A convenience sample strategy was used and surveys were handed out in undergraduate classes at Miami University. A total of 386 students participated in this study. The results of this study show that perceived parental conflict is a strong indicator of how college students form their attitudes of marriage and divorce.

Morgan (1989) found that more than fourth of divorced women fall into poverty during the 5 years following the end of their marriage. Post divorce poverty is especially common among women who had lower family incomes while married but the proportional change in income is most severe for women
who were relatively well-off during marriages. Most women’s economic plight following divorce is not short-lived. Despite high levels of female employment prior to separation and even higher levels post separation, economic hardship typically extends for at least 5 years following divorce. The economic costs of divorce are greater for women because most marriages and divorces involve children, and mothers continue to devote substantially more time to caring for children than fathers do. The time women invest in child care and other unpaid family labor restricts their educational and occupational opportunities as well as their income. Another major reason for women’s economic disadvantages after divorce is that compliance of child support awards by fathers is rare. Institutionalized sexism and gender discrimination in the wage workplace also contribute to women’s sustained post divorce economic decline. Most employment opportunities for women are in low-paying or temporary work, jobs that offer little advancement.

Stanley (2002) study on the outcomes of divorce shows that while 10% of children from intact homes had serious behavioral problems, roughly 30% of the children from divorced homes show such problems. As adults, 18% of children of divorce scored above a key cutoff on Rutter’s index of mental health compared to 13.7% of those with intact parental marriages he concluded that 82% of children whose parents divorce will not experience lasting difficulties, though many will experience shorter term disruptions and problems in the two years post parental divorce. Level of parental conflict is a key determinant of the effects of parental divorce on children. Children of parents who engage in regular, high levels of conflict tend to do better psychologically and socially if their parents divorce. Children of parents in low conflict, but unsatisfying marriages, are likely to do better if their parents remain together and somewhere between 50 to 70% of divorces occur in low conflict marriages. Overall, the negative effects of both divorce and inter-parental conflict (without divorce) influence both boys and girls and all age groups. Divorce increases the risks of depression for boys, regardless of mediating factors, due to the
common scenario of the father leaving the home. Non-custodial fathers are less likely to discipline effectively and train their children, and have significantly less contact with their children, which may more adversely affect boys. When one partner is a child of divorce, the chances of a couple divorcing are doubled. When both partners are children of divorce, the chances of the couple divorcing are nearly tripled. There is evidence that these effects are linked to factors such as parental modeling, lower educational attainment, lowered stigma about divorce, and lower age at marriage.

Johnson (1988) A qualitative study of fifty divorces in middle-class suburbs found that the relationship between parent and child varied by the organizational emphasis during the structural reorganization of the post-divorce family networks. First, those divorcing parents, who placed an emphasis upon the privacy of an abbreviated nuclear family, were relatively remote from parents, and they were likely to remarry over a three-year period. Second, others emphasized the generational bond and the solidarity with their parents. They usually received support from parents. Third, those who remarried tended to form loose-knit networks that incorporated former relatives of divorce and remarriage. These respondents tended to maintain distant but cordial relationships with their parents.

Guttman (1989) conducted a study involving forty soldiers in the Israeli army - twenty from divorced homes and twenty from intact homes. Their ages ranged from nineteen to twenty-one, and their socioeconomic backgrounds varied. These subjects were individually administered questionnaires introduced as dealing with male-female relationships. The participants were presented with the questions and statements, and given three options for each answer. Each option represented a different level of intimacy. Low levels of intimacy were recorded for each of the groups, and the final analysis yielded no significant results. This study found no significant differences between the divorced and intact family adolescents. The majority of these data suggest that parental divorce does play a negative role in the formation of attitudes toward marriage.
among adolescents. However, there are several variables which could alter the results of the studies, such as socioeconomic status, pre- and post-divorce parental conflict, and age at time of divorce.

Hyatt (2000) summarizes findings from an ongoing 10 year longitudinal study funded by NIMH of 600 families. Some of the more important findings included: (1) Regardless of family structure, girls are more likely to experience depression and boys to show conduct problems. (2) Divorce increases a boy's chances of becoming depressed, regardless of other mediating conditions. "Even when those parents remain involved and supportive, boys often become depressed due to the departure of their father from the home". (3) The research examined all the major explanations for the association between divorce and child developmental problems: loss of family income, parental conflict, psychological adjustment and parenting practices of the custodial parent (most typically the mother), and involvement of the non-custodial father. Previous studies have considered only one of two of these more popular theories. Researchers focused on two dimensions of child adjustment: whether they externalized problems, manifested by aggressive or delinquent behavior, or internalized their concerns, resulting in emotional distress and depression. (4) Children of divorce are at risk for adjustment problems because their parents are less likely to engage in competent, consistent parenting and are more likely to engage in conflict exchanges than parents who are married to each other. (5) Divorce, with its emotional turmoil, time demands and often financial stress increases the custodial mother's own chances of becoming depressed, which in turn tends to disrupt the quality of her parenting, Simons explains. This, in turn, increases the child's risk for adjustment problems. (6) Data also show that being a non-residential parent is often a confusing role for fathers, who too often relinquish their parenting role and form a more buddy-type relationship with the children. Compared to fathers in intact families, the divorced, non-residential dads were less likely to help their children solve problems, discuss standards of conduct or enforce discipline, increasing the probability that boys
would display conduct problems. "It is essential, especially for sons, that fathers continue to function as a parent," Simons emphasizes. "Simply showing the kids a good time and being a pal doesn't make any difference in terms of developmental outcomes for kids." (7) Quality of the custodial mother's parenting was the only factor that was related to both internalizing and externalizing problems of children. Findings indicate that quality of mother's parenting reduces much of the association between divorce and adjustment for both boys and girls. The quality of the custodial mother's parenting and the father's involvement in parenting are key indicators in boys' externalizing problems, while mother's parenting and post-divorce conflict increase girls' risk of adverse behavior. (8) The quality of father's parenting has little effect on the association between divorce and girls' antisocial behavior. Mom's parenting is the most consequential factor. (9) Active engagement in the role of parent, not simply contact, by the non-custodial father substantially reduces the probability that boys will display conduct problems. (10) Parental divorce is more emotionally disturbing to boys than to girls. Boys in divorced families experience higher rates of depression than those in intact families, even when their mothers show positive psychological adjustment and practice competent parenting. Past research has shown that divorce can contribute to adverse behavior such as lower achievement in school, early entry into sexual activity, delinquency and substance abuse, by both boys and girls.

2.5 Intervention for Better Adjustment of Divorced Persons

Fonseca (1966) conducted a study “an inquiry in to the subtle disorganization of the family in Indian communities reflecting marital separation and domestic disorganization in our complex urban industrialized setting. The study of Fonseca revealed that as a result of the Special marriage Act 1954 and the Hindu Marriage Act 1955, there were a number of wives who sought divorce and protection during the years 1954-61. Nearly two thirds of the wives are petitioners in cases of matrimonial relief. Some of the important findings are separation, desertion and divorce as they represent various degrees of the
family are generally not favored Indian society. Today, however, the transitory phase of adjustments or rather readjustment to changing ideas, ideologies and values brought to the surface, maladjustment in some considerable number of cases. In other, it has brought to light families which were already weak where marital partners displayed little marital affection and there was no sharing of desires or pleasure or mutuality of affection. This has made investigation into maladjustment imperative.

According to Fonseca counseling will be useful for marital happiness. Life has become extremely complex, and demands new adjustments. In the realm of marriage, therefore counseling has much to achieve to bring about these adjustments as near to perfection as is humanly possible. Although her study was mainly motivated for marital counseling it is a pioneering study and the data given are really illuminating.

Ahrons (1994) in the book ‘The Good Divorce’ the author divulges a tightly held secret that out of many bad marriages come good divorces. She insists that while there are bad divorces, there are also good ones, and millions of people now live with the reality of divorce as a normal passage in their lives. She complains that society glorifies the so-called intact family, while stigmatising divorced families as broken and incomplete. According to Ahrons, about half of all divorced couples end up with a good divorce, in which they part without destroying the lives of those they love. ‘Their children continue to have two parents. The divorced parents continue to have good relationships with their children. The families of good divorces continue to be just that—families.’ She argued that if unhappy couples knew their bad marriage was harming their children, and if they knew that the long-term effects of a good divorce on a family were positive, there would be almost nobody left who believed in duty, home and family. She further argues that current divorce rates should not be viewed with gloom and doom, because divorce is one way for families to adapt to current realities. Instead, we are urged to change our outdated ideals about marriage and family. Because divorce is here to stay and cannot be cured, we
should view divorce as intrinsically part of married life, and ‘stop loading it with negative judgments and explore ways to improve families’ quality of life, post-divorce’. The following statement probably sums up the philosophy of the book: ‘Marriage is good – and so is divorce. It all depends to whom each happens, and why, and how—and when.’

Gottman (1992) the author reveals that specific patterns of communication are predictive of divorce. Research also shows that the application of this information results in more effective couple therapy. He began his research as a quest to identify exactly which dynamic factors lay at the heart of marital dysfunction in the hopes that his findings would lead to better therapy approaches. By watching the way that couples interact while discussing problems, he and his colleagues have been able to predict whether or not a couple will divorce with up to 94% accuracy. He found that patterns of affective behaviors, specifically the ratio of positive communications to negative communications, are at the core of marital distress. This discovery allowed him and his colleagues to predict divorce with a 74% accuracy level. By recording the number of positive interactions and negative interactions in different couple’s discussions of problematic issues, his research revealed a 5 to 1 ratio of positive to negative interactions in stable marriages.

Dykeman (2003) has done a study has to examine the effects of pre-referral tertiary-intervention program in reducing acting-out behaviors of students referred for special education assessment due to behavioral difficulties and whose parents were recently divorced or separated. Counselors at five junior high schools identified 21 students from recently dissolved families who were referred by teachers for special education assessment because of recent episodes of disruptive classroom behavior. Prior to the special education evaluation, counselors provided the referred child and his or her custodial parent with a pre-referral intervention that involved parent-child counseling at a community agency. Results from this study suggest that pre-referral intervention can reduce the number of students placed into special education
for acting out behaviors when such behaviors are attributed to the effects of a recent parental separation or divorce. Results from this study suggest that the community agency counselor can play a unique role in assisting schools in helping students cope with issues that impede their education when those issues relate to responses to family dissolution. Results from this study also suggest the unique role of conflict theory in treating the effects of family dissolution upon school behavior. The issues of unresolved conflict at home can affect behavior of children at school, and resolution of this conflict makes it easier to children to resolve problem behaviors at school. In this study, the custodial parent and child served as the treatment unit, and the interpersonal conflict between parent and child served as a principle treatment objective. Benefits of this treatment had individual and systemic effects. Individually, students were able to apply more internal controls to situations that provoked conflict in the classroom in such a way as to increase their potential to learn. Systemically, the family system began resolving issues with more rational discussion and with less verbal aggression.

Wallerstein (1985) reported the evidence of a ten-year longitudinal study of older children and adolescents of divorce. The initial study involved 113 children and adolescents through age eighteen. Fifty males and Sixty-three females were included in the study. These individuals suffered from guilt, anxiety, depression, worry and anger over parents, and loyalty conflicts. They tended to take sides in parental conflict, and show extreme anxiety about their own futures. The second stage of the study, eighteen months later, showed that individuals, who had seemed to be dealing well with the divorce in the initial stage of the study, had declined psychologically. At the third stage of the study, five years after the initial stage, the participants’ psychological adjustment was positively correlated with the quality of life within the post-divorce family. The quality of the adolescents’ relationships with both parents were extremely important. A number of adolescents shared concerns about their ability to maintain love relationships in the future. They were afraid they
would repeat the mistakes of their parents. At the ten-year mark, only the forty participants who were between the ages of nine and eighteen at the time of their parents’ divorces (between nineteen and twenty-nine by this time) were included. Of these forty people, six women and three men were married, one-third of the women had been pregnant outside of wedlock, and one-fourth of the women had had abortions. Most of these individuals were still eager about getting married. Three-fourths of them were still enthusiastic about marriage and expected to marry. However, they all believed that caution should be used in choosing a mate and believed that cohabitation was a good idea before marriage. Although they wanted to marry, two-thirds of them expressed fear of marriage, and 26% were extremely fearful of repeating the mistakes of their parents. The entire group expressed an intense wish to avoid divorce when there were children involved.

Kinnarid & Garrard (1986) studied the relationship between mothers’ marital status and their daughters’ attitudes toward marriage, divorce, and premarital sexual activity. The findings revealed that females from intact families had more positive attitudes toward marriage than did those from divorced and step-families. However, no significant differences were reported between groups in term of attitudes toward divorce. The results from this study show that young adults from divorced families, and females in particular, have less positive attitudes toward marriage when compared with males from divorced but not from intact family backgrounds. In addition, females, from divorced families but not from intact families showed more positive attitudes toward divorce than did males. The researchers recommend taking two types of action. First, a serious effort needs to be made to raise awareness of the impact of parental divorce on the family as a whole and children in particular. Second, a national campaign needs to be launched to raise public awareness. Such awareness can be done through the local media, religious leaders, community conferences, and the local schools, as well as other venues.
Yongmin (2002) compared the psychological well-being of adolescents prior to and subsequent to their parents' divorces. Treating divorce as a "disruption process," they examined the effect of this process as well as the mediating effect of the concurrent reduction in social and financial resources. The authors began with data from the National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS) of 1988, 1990 and 1992. From a population of over 24,000 students, itself a representative sample of all 8th grade students in the U.S., the authors excluded those who lived in single-parent families for reasons other than divorce, those whose divorced parents later remarried, and those for whom family data was incomplete. The total number of students considered in the study was 9,524. Student well-being was measured in terms of educational achievement, educational aspiration, self-esteem and locus of control. Achievement was measured through test scores in various subjects. The authors confirmed that the disruption caused by divorce affects children both before and after the fact. They also concluded that they could not support the theory that negative outcomes usually associated with divorce are actually caused by pre-divorce conditions within the family. The authors recommended that children receive counseling both before and after divorce. They also suggested further study to determine if their findings are applicable to other age and racial groups. This was a good study in that it covered a very large number of children. It also measured very important aspects of their lives.

Amato (2001) presented an update to his well-known 1991 study with Keith. The update explored the effects of divorce on children during the 1990's through a review of research studies published in that decade. The author's hypothesis was that the impact of divorce had lessened in the 1990's and that any of several factors might be responsible for that change. First, he suspected that improved sophistication of the studies themselves had resulted in the detection of smaller differences between children of married and divorced parents. Second, he surmised that the fact that it has become easier to get divorced (and with much less social stigmatization) meant that less troubled
families were being included in the divorced population. Finally, he suggested that more extensive interventions were responsible for lessening the impact of divorce. The author examined 67 studies published between 1990 and 1999 and compared their findings to those of 79 studies published between 1950 and 1989.

Hetherington (1997) suggests that interventions are generally indicated for children following a divorce, since it is expected that they will experience difficulties. The mental health worker's job at this point is not to pathologize the difficulties, but to assist in the adjustment process in order to prevent psychopathology. Divorce is a complex event that is most difficult for children in later adjustment. A number of children experience long-term negative consequences from the divorce process. This paper was intended to provide an overview of what factors influence adjustment difficulties in the divorce process and how the variety of professionals involved in such cases may best reduce the harmful impact of divorce. Characterized as traumatic, divorce reactions apparently follow the same course as other traumatizing events. By relying on a network of professionals the divorce process can be made a less traumatizing event for all parties involved. A number of children experience long-term negative consequences from the divorce process.

2.6 The empirical studies reviewed by the researcher reveal the following aspects:

- The husband and wife relationship is pivotal to the success of marriage.
- Secular society is more tolerant and more open to women who were divorced.
- There is more or less uniform response in favor of divorce irrespective of the age, sex, economic, rural or urban residence and literacy of the divorcees.
- Personality differences and incompatibility were major reasons for initial conflicts between couples.
Counselors role in divorce issues were considered as important.
The correlations between the divorce rate and the development of the women’s labour force participation were strong.
There was not any statistically significant relationship found between religion and divorce.
Divorce is found more in the low and middle income groups.
Childless persons seek more divorce than persons with children.
People do not rush for divorce but try to adjust.
Religiosity has an effect on whether or not a person/couple thought about or ever considered divorce.
Correlation exists between the economic status and remarriage of the divorcees.
Women face negative socio economic consequences of divorce.
Marital stability increases when both spouses are matured enough to marry and when there is less disparity in the age.
Legal causes of divorce are different from the legal causes.
Earlier marriage was about adjustment and compatibility but now its more like a power game where both where both the husband and wife strive for an equal status.
Most couples seeking divorce were educated, between 25-35 years of age and childless.
Traditional and unrealistic expectations about marriage and male, female roles and relationships lead to marriage dissatisfaction.
A large group of divorce takes place because of the irresponsible attitude of husbands and wives.
Communication and sex has the greatest impact on marital satisfaction.
Increasing divorce rates were accompanied by more acceptance of divorce and changes in people’s attitude.
People from divorced families exhibit less trust in their relationships.
Divorce and separation have a specific and long term impact on mental health.
Women’s psychological well being declines after divorce and their use of alcohol and other drugs increased. Most employment opportunities for women are in low paying or temporary work, jobs that offer little advancement.

Researchers concluded that the common notion that parents should stay together for the sake of their kids is a fallacy that can do more harm to children than good.

Women suffer most stress from their post divorce socio economic conditions.

Children with good personal relationships with both parents are psychologically better adjustment to the effects of divorce.

Parental divorce does play a negative role in the formation of attitudes toward marriage among adolescents.

Counseling will be useful for marital happiness.

Awareness can be done through the local media, religious leaders, community conferences and the local school as well as other venues.

Children of the divorcees need to be given counseling before and after divorce.

2.7 Research Gaps Identified from the Review

1. There is paucity of literature existing on divorce. More over most of the studies in this field are mostly either on rural areas or on urban areas.

2. Most of the researchers interviewed only one group. To that extent, the study may be said to be just one sided.

3. In many of the researches the data was collected from secondary data. Techniques and tools of data collection were not satisfactory because in a delicate and intricate phenomenon like divorce personal interview of the respondents should have taken to understand the reality issues.
4. Most of the studies which have been conducted mainly focused on institutionalized approach of divorce like age at marriage, polygamy, cause of divorce etc. Socio- psychological and legal aspects, post divorce situations, possibility of intervention to reduce the increasing divorce rate or assisting the better settlement of the divorcees have not been given importance.

5. Number of studies discusses the divorce connected issues like dowry, marriage registration, separation etc. And these studies have been conducted only on an opinion based in urban areas, not personal interviews.

6. There is a contradiction that whether divorce occurs among higher and middle class people or lower income people and whether initiative of divorce comes more from husbands or wives.

7. In some of the studies the sample size was very small to come to any generalization or conclusion.

In view of the above research gaps, the researcher taking up all the gaps identified into consideration has come up with a specific methodology which has been clearly and step by step explained in Chapter III of this research report.