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THE DIVORCE TRANSITION

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"Separations are an integral part of our human existence. Beginning with the physical separation from our mother's body at birth, we alternate attachments with separations until our final detachment from life itself, death. This engagement and disengagement pattern touches every phase and aspect of our unfolding lives" (Dlugokinski 1977, p. 27). Divorce is one of these transitions and usually affects several individuals—all family members and many network members. Like all separations it is a dynamic and complex process of changes that has a beginning and an end. It usually starts with forebodings of the impending transition (predivorce phase) and an acute time-limited crisis (separation) during which the family structure is abruptly changed. This is followed by an extended period of disequilibrium and instability (divorce phase). The usual coping mechanisms of the family members are weakened or in disarray. Then the individuals reorientate themselves and develop a new lifestyle (postdivorce phase). If the adults remarry—as most do—a new period of disequilibrium and change follows (remarriage phase). This or similar divorce cycles are described in many publications (for example, Bohannan 1973, Crosby et al. 1983, Deissler 1982, Dlugokinski 1977, Kaslow 1981, 1984, Kessler 1975, Lyon et al. 1985, Messinger and Walker 1981, Schweitzer and Weber 1985, Shapiro 1984, Turner 1980).

In each phase of the divorce cycle an individual passes through

overlapping clusters of feelings, thoughts, and behaviors. Their kind, sequence, and intensity may be different in comparison to other family members, as there is a great variance between the way any two persons experience divorce. Each individual also passes through these clusters at his or her own pace. The progression from one to the next may appear at first to be linear, yet upon closer examination the emotions, thoughts, and behaviors occur, disappear, and reoccur in a way that can best be represented in spirals. It usually takes one to three years for the experience of divorce to be worked through and left behind. However, regressions, fixations, and the like can always occur.

THE PREDIVORCE PHASE

Usually several causes lead to the deterioration of a marriage; some of them may already be present a short time after the wedding. In many cases the marital relationship is unsatisfactory and/or unstable for a long time; in other cases it deteriorates suddenly and fast. Men usually see their marriage less negatively, name fewer problems, and cite less specific complaints than women. In general, most causes for the decline of the marital relationship are contributed to the spouse (Cleek and Pearson 1985, Spanier and Thompson 1984). Often too-high expectations originating from unfulfilled needs lead to the deterioration of a marriage—the partner is supposed to be one's lover, best friend, protector, parent, and so on. As these unconscious expectations cannot be met, the disappointment with the partner is great. Moreover, earlier feelings of deprivation may be exacerbated. In other cases more realistic role expectations are not fulfilled. For example, in a study of 210 individuals separated for approximately two years (Spanier and Thompson 1984), 56 percent of the women were unsatisfied with their spouses' contribution to household tasks. For 40 percent of the women and 20 percent of the men the partner did not live up to their expectations as a parent. And many were dissatisfied with their spouse as a leisure-time companion, as someone with whom to talk things over, or as a sexual partner.

Sometimes financial and job-related problems contribute to the deterioration of the marital relationship. In the aforementioned study the following economic issues were found to be points of conflict: amount of money one had (named by 55.6 percent of the respondents), individual's or spouse's working hours (54.1 percent), time away from home because of a job (40 percent), kind of one's or

spouse's job (39 percent), and one's or spouse's colleagues (34.6 percent). Some partners also enjoy the gratifications of their careers more than their family life. Especially in dual-career marriages, conflicting interests and ambitions may cause problems. In many cases negative developments are precipitated by third-party involvement. For example, in the Spanier and Thompson (1984) study more than 60 percent of the respondents had extramarital sexual relationships. However, in-laws may also have a negative influence, especially if they disapprove of the marriage—this was reported, for example, by a quarter of the 335 separated or divorced individuals studied by Burns (1984).

In many cases different values and goals cause problems. For example, some partners define the gender roles in irreconcilable ways; many women fight for emancipation and equal power in marriage; some spouses feel restricted in their strivings for self-actualization, individualism, personal satisfaction, and self-fulfillment. Sometimes living as an independent and self-sufficient individual may seem to be more rewarding than maintaining the marital relationship. Moreover, growth or change in either spouse often leads to different developments and divergent life-styles—at the end little is left in common. This divergence sometimes becomes evident during the midlife crisis, when the feeling that time is running out precipitates the reevaluation of one's marriage (Kaslow 1981, Kitson et al. 1985, Lloyd and Zick 1986).

Other causes for the deterioration of marital relationships may be lack of communication, communication difficulties, bad habits like nagging, too little sharing of feelings, or lack of interpersonal skills like empathy. Sometimes negative developments are caused by the reenactment of conflict originating in early family experience, by emotional problems, by personality disorders, by substance abuse, or by brutality. In some cases the decline of a marriage is precipitated by life transitions like the birth of a child, launching the youngest child, or the retirement of a spouse. For example, a father may not adapt to his newborn child because he sees him or her as a rival for his wife's attention, feels neglected, and turns away from his family. Moreover, crises like job loss, serious illness, sexual dysfunction, or the birth of a handicapped child may have the same negative effects as life transitions (Bloom and Hodges 1981, Burns 1984, Cleek and Pearson 1985, Kaslow 1981, 1984, Kitson et al. 1985). However, in other cases there are no such events—the marriage deteriorates in a slow and creeping process, as described in the next paragraphs.

Relational Disenchantment

Relational disenchantment is the first substage of the predivorce phase. During this time a multitude of small acts contributes to a wearing away of marital satisfaction, love, and affection. The spouses become more and more disillusioned, are disappointed with each other, and feel unvalidated. When comparing their own marriage with those of acquaintances, they arrive at negative judgments. Many spouses begin to concentrate on taking rather than on giving. As they feel that they do not get enough, they may maintain a careful vigilance to prevent one's receiving more than the other. Moreover, some begin to focus on the negative aspects of their relationship.

Many spouses start to fight with each other. At the beginning they still try to be rational and attempt to find compromises. After a while, however, they no longer look for solutions due to mounting anger, frustration, disrespect, and rejection. Instead they try to hurt each other emotionally (and sometimes physically). Some spouses avoid conflicts after a while. They deny their problems and pretend that everything is all right. They stop communicating. In other cases the spouses do not experience so many conflicts. They withdraw from each other gradually. As they feel bored in each other's presence, they develop a rationale for not being together. Instead they concentrate on work, hobbies, home computers, and separate friends. Communication with each other decreases, and they grow further apart. Sometimes this slow and subtle process is not even noticed. If it is noted and confronted by one partner, the other may deny it so that no change occurs.

In all these cases there is a loss of trust and commitment to the marital union. The spouses stop sharing with each other and often avoid physical contact. Sex becomes a battleground or is discontinued. Feelings like hurt, anger, dread, inadequacy, confusion, or indifference dominate. Often one or both spouses try to win back the partner's affection—sometimes these efforts may last for three or more years. Many spouses also seek professional help: In a study of 210 separated or divorced individuals (Spanier and Thompson 1984) 70 percent of the sample consulted one or more sources—clergymen, marriage and family counselors, physicians, psychologists, and psychiatrists (in this sequence) being visited most often. Only 19 percent indicated that these professionals were not helpful; however, in most cases the marriage could not be saved because help was sought too late or one or both spouses lacked motivation (cp. Bloom and Hodges 1981). Many spouses also discuss their problems with same-sex or opposite-sex friends. Sometimes these relation-

ships may get closer than that with the spouse. In many cases outside relationships also develop into extramarital affairs, which frequently lead to new emotional investments and strained bonds. If the sexual affair is confessed or found out, the spouse might react with strong emotions like anger, fear, or jealousy. Often he or she tries to punish the partner with withdrawal, threats of suicide, revenge affairs, or physical abuse. Attempts at penance might be rejected. The alienation between the spouses increases and they grow further apart.

Decisional Conflict

Decisional conflict is the second substage of the predivorce phase. It begins with the first serious thoughts of divorce and is a time full of ambivalence and inner stress. One or both partners analyze their marital situation again and again, usually without talking to the partner. They compare the costs with the rewards of their relationship, analyze their feelings, and consider barriers to a possible separation, such as the presence of (small) children, financial constraints, or lack of employment. Many continue to search for a solution to their marital problems as they still see some good in their relationship and feel that they risk a major loss by a separation. Other spouses feel that they are in a double bind: They may lose if they stay or if they leave. Thus the decision to separate is a very difficult and complex one that is usually preceded by intense intrapsychic conflict, vacillation, hesitation, and feelings of uncertainty. It may take two or more years to make this decision, especially after a long marriage.

During this time the spouses often lead emotional and behavioral separate lives. Many of them are no longer sexually involved with each other or have intercourse only once a week or less (Spanier and Thompson 1984). In conflictual situations they either follow an attack or an avoidance pattern—they rarely negotiate with each other in calm and rational ways, no longer search for solutions, and have little will for compromise. One or both may continue to discount or deny marital problems. Some spouses withdraw from social interaction during this time; some establish a network with other individuals to discuss their inner conflicts. The latter generally fare better after separation, because they have their own support system. Usually both spouses suffer during this time, often developing psychosomatic symptoms. For example, in a study of 153 recently separated individuals, half reported weight changes, upset stomachs,

fatigue, headaches, nervousness, inner tension and the like during the time before the separation (Bloom and Hodges 1981).

Many children know about the marital problems of their parents or are even involved in these conflicts. They may suffer from this situation and develop symptoms, especially if they fulfill pathogenic roles and functions within the family system. In other cases children are kept in the dark as their parents make an effort not to let their marital difficulties affect them. Mitchell (1985) interviewed 50 children whose parents got a divorce several years ago and reports: "Half of the children did not remember any parental conflict before separation. A majority thought their family life had been happy. Some who did describe arguments had not thought them sufficient reason for their parents to separate" (p. 113).

The predivorce phase ends with the final decision to divorce, which is often precipitated by a specific event and may be followed by feelings of relief. In most cases the spouses have discussed the possibility of divorce before—quite often for a long time. When divorce is mentioned for the first time, the partner often reacts with emotions like surprise, anger, hate, hurt, despair, apathy, fear, or panic. Afterward both may show increased rates of attack or avoidance behaviors. Sometimes one partner is abused physically or emotionally by the other out of a wish for revenge and punishment. Moreover, there may be some trial separations. In many cases, the other spouse makes desperate attempts to win back the partner's affection; however, only a few would go to almost any length to save their marriage. In other cases the first discussion of divorce coincides with the final separation or follows it. These reactions were reported, for example, by about 25 percent and by 10 percent, respectively, of the divorced individuals studied by Spanier and Thompson (1984).

THE DIVORCE PHASE

The divorce phase follows the final decision to divorce and ends with the divorce decree. Usually a couple of months pass between certainty about the end of the marriage and filing for divorce. In a few cases this period may last much longer as the spouse keeps his or her decision to divorce secret in order to prepare for the separation by asking for advice, looking for an apartment, or saving money. Housewives have to plan their divorces especially carefully. Kitson and colleagues (1985) write: "Women have informally told us about deciding to put the title for a new car in their own names or opening new joint accounts at banks or department stores so that they would

have a credit record" (p. 259). Many continue their education or search for a job. Some spouses also test their sexual attractiveness. They are now future oriented and fantasize about single life.

Separation

Separation is the first substage of the divorce phase. In general, more women than men initiate separation and suggest divorce (Bloom and Hodges 1981, Spanier and Thompson 1984). Usually one spouse moves out of the family residence and lives in makeshift or temporary housing for some time. Often there are several moves until this individual settles down again. Sometimes both spouses move out and search for a new accommodation. In a few cases they also try separation under one roof. This is an extremely stressful arrangement, because there may be great tensions, daily expression of hostility, and lack of communication. If children are present, they usually suffer considerably, as they are left in between. The way in which separation occurs has a great impact on the well-being and postdivorce relationship of all individuals involved. It makes a big difference whether separation happens by mutual agreement or against the will of the partner, whether it occurs suddenly or after long discussions, whether a third party is involved or not.

Both spouses usually experience separation in idiosyncratic ways. They go through common emotional and behavioral reactions at different times and often in different sequences. If separation is a one-sided decision, the initiator may feel relief in having moved out and in having made the end of the marriage known to others. As this spouse has planned the separation, he or she accepts the resulting situation, looks forward to single life, and may even be joyful and enthusiastic. However, the initiator often suffers from strong guilt feelings and doubts.

Spouses who are suddenly confronted with separation usually react with shock and strong emotional pain and feel betrayed and abandoned. They experience this situation as a traumatic crisis and suffer from feelings of anger, fury, hurt, despair, self-pity, sadness, hopelessness, or fear. In some cases rejection by the partner (and by in-laws, mutual friends, and the like) may combine with self-rejection to cause great emotional problems. In general, emotions are stronger if these individuals have invested a lot in their marriage, if they have experienced great losses previously, or if they have internalized norms and religious doctrines that forbid divorce. In other cases, the passive spouses accept their partners' decision to divorce and attempt to

negotiate the separation in a rational way. Thus they try to make arrangements regarding housing, finances, and the management of their children together. This is also the case when the separation has been a mutual decision.

According to a study of 210 divorced individuals (Spanier and Thompson 1984) a great number of them still experienced positive emotions for their spouses at the time of separation. Men were more likely to report love than women, who mostly felt a combination of love and hate. Thirty-five percent of the men and 41 percent of the women experienced relief after the separation. Twenty percent of the women and nine percent of the men seriously considered taking their life, many of them making a suicide attempt (eight percent and two percent, respectively). A third of the women and 19 percent of the men experienced substantial symptomatic distress. For example, psychosomatic symptoms, depression, excessive drinking, or substance abuse were reported. Most newly separated individuals also experience sleeplessness, tiredness, headaches, nervousness, moody spells, irritability, tension, apathy, feelings of inferiority, identity crises, and the like (cp. Dlugokinski 1977, Spanier and Thompson 1984). Sometimes emotions get so strong that they are suppressed or denied.

Usually it takes some time until the full impact of the separation hits. The spouses realize that all emotional, financial, and behavioral energies invested in their family are lost, and enter a long-lasting process of mourning and grieving. Faced with an overload of life changes and stress, they may react with panic and fear, be immobilized, or block out some of the change. They are overwhelmed by their emotions, fear not being able to cope with all future uncertainties, worry about meeting financial needs, and are afraid that they will no longer be attractive to the other sex. They feel vulnerable and insecure.

After separation many spouses maintain little contact. If they still communicate with each other, they are rarely successful in resolving issues and often end up fighting, blaming, or scapegoating each other. Some spouses, however, continue to negotiate and bargain with each other. In a study of 153 newly separated individuals (Bloom and Hodges 1981), 45 percent of the respondents reported that they talked about reconciliation with their partners. Parents more often act this way than spouses without children.

The spouses now inform their relatives and friends about the separation and impending divorce; they tend to express their own righteousness and the wrongness of their partners. As friends and relatives tend to take sides, both partners get some support but also

lose sources of comfort, affection, and reassurance. For example, in a study of 210 divorced individuals (Spanier and Thompson 1984) half of the women and 35 percent of the men reported parental approval, and less than a third of the women and more than a third of the men mentioned disapproval by their parents. Friends are usually less judgmental than relatives. Both relatives and friends may try to reunite the spouses.

Financial Situation

After separation many spouses are faced with financial problems, because they have to maintain and furnish separate apartments or houses. The lowered economic status is met by a reduction in the standard of living. Today the obligation of separated or divorced husbands to support their former wives and their children is less emphasized than 10 or 20 years ago. Instead it is expected that both former spouses work and earn their living themselves. This is certainly a great challenge for housewives who have been out of the labor market for a long time and lack marketable skills. Women who have part-time jobs may face problems when searching for a full-time job guaranteeing them a similar standard of living as before the separation. Many women have to get further education and start new careers.

In general, women experience a great drop of income after separation and divorce. In 1982, for example, the median family income was $26,020 for married couples and $15,156 for divorced female heads of households (Pett and Vaughan-Cole 1986). The effects of this drop in income are especially negative in lower-income households, which may become dependent on welfare, food stamps, and so on. In 1982, 30 percent of all single-parent families headed by divorced women had an income below the poverty level. Members of lower-income households feel less economically secure, score lower in their social and emotional adjustment, and are often unable to improve their lot with time (Pett and Vaughan-Cole 1986). In middle- and higher-income households the earnings of the women, alimony, and child support play a greater role. As these women find it easier to get better-paying jobs, their situation improves with time. A drop in income certainly leads to a lower social status, which might be accompanied by a loss of self-esteem.

After separation spouses have to assume the household activities that were previously carried out by their partners; they have to take over new responsibilities and develop different routines. Transitional difficulties may be especially great if the spouses have lived in tradi-

tional marriages with a distinct division of household activities. Then they are not familiar with the tasks handled by their partners, and they have to learn new skills. Thus mothers usually struggle with the provider role and fathers with domestic or child-rearing activities. Moreover, the spouses have to learn the single life-style and find new friends because they have lost those taking their partners' side and because they may be excluded from couple-dominated groups within their network.

Child Rearing

If the spouses have children, they very often give them one-sided explanations for the separation or no explanation at all. Even teenagers are rarely kept informed about separation and divorce issues. "Parents may well be in too much emotional turmoil themselves to explain much to their own children. At the point where a child needs extra support from parents, those parents are at the center of the conflict and unavailable to help" (Mitchell 1985, pp. 79–80). Many parents also give little thought to the effects of separation on their children. They may intellectualize this highly emotional event and deny their children's sense of loss, bewilderment, and fear. As they frequently do not inform teachers about the separation, their children may find little understanding and support at school.

While marital relationships can be dissolved, parenthood is an existential reality that will never end. Some spouses manage to separate their marital and parental roles, shield their children from ongoing conflicts, and acknowledge their need for a continuing positive relationship with both parents. In other cases the children are drawn into conflicts, expected to take sides, or used as message bearers. They are seldom offered a choice of parent with whom to live and are rarely informed about planned living arrangements. In general, parents decide where the children will stay until custody and access are regulated by the courts. Parents establish ground rules regarding visiting, vacations, and the like and develop new ways of communicating about their children.

The parents also establish new patterns of relating to their children. The residential parent assumes more responsibilities and authority; the nonresidential one moves to the sidelines. As the latter forfeits daily contact with the children, he or she may fear losing their affection. Moreover, nonresidential parents often report an overpowering sense of aloneness after the loss of their children. If residential parents have to work, they usually have little time and energy left to devote to their children. Thus they may be unable to

adequately care for them or may even neglect them—moreover, they are often preoccupied with financial and emotional problems. If they have not been employed before and start a new job, the situation is even more problematic as the continuity of the child's relationship to *both* parents suffers. Many young children are also placed in day-care facilities for the first time. In general, there often is an increase of problems with children and a decrease in the quality of the parent-child relationship.

Children's Reactions

When children are informed about the separation and impending divorce, they may react with disbelief, fear, panic, anger, confusion, sadness, or grief. This situation is especially shocking for children who had not been aware of the marital conflicts or thought that their family was happy (see p. 8). Children who are involved in the marital struggle and know about their parents' problems may nevertheless react similarly, because they have not expected a family breakup. The perception and understanding of separation and divorce are not only shaped by children's age and development but also by the behavior of the parents and the amount of information given them. Young children have the greatest problems in grasping the meaning of separation and divorce. They may react with denial, may feel rejected and unloved, may fear being overwhelmed by intense emotions, or may have anxiety-provoking fantasies of parental abandonment.

Many older children are also bewildered; they do not understand the causes for the family breakup and do not know whether the separation will be short or permanent. They may feel insecure and worry about the future. In general, older children are more able to understand the impending changes and to sort out their feelings themselves. They may resist being drawn into ongoing conflicts or may even distance themselves by emotional detachment and increased social activities. They are also able to form independent judgments of their parents. Both younger and older children show a desire for their parents' reunion and have reconciliation fantasies for long periods of time.

Many children do not agree with their parents' separation. They experience the absence of one parent as a great loss. Often they feel angry with the parent whom they consider responsible for the family breakup. They feel concern for the parent who has been hurt and rejected and may try to take care of him or her. Many children experience great loyalty conflicts, especially if they are asked with whom

they want to stay after separation. In this situation they may choose the parent who is most upset and needs help most. Siblings, acting on their sense of justice, may elect to divide the family up, one or more going with one parent, another with the other parent. Many (younger) children also feel guilty for taking sides or even for the family breakup. For example, in a study of 126 children whose parents had been separated for a long time, 21 percent showed signs of blaming themselves (Kurdek and Siesky 1979).

After their parents' separation, many children focus all their energy into the family. They feel pressured to show empathy and to give emotional support. If parents suffer from intense negative feelings and symptoms, their children may worry about their emotional health. Thus they give less attention to academic achievement and friends, which often leads to a sudden drop in school performance and peer problems. Some children also feel isolated at school and are convinced that they are alone in having separated parents. Other common reactions of children in this substage of the divorce phase are withdrawal, self-absorption, possessiveness (clinging), restlessness, nervousness, and irritability. Some children develop symptoms and show acting-out or regressive behaviors, especially in those cases in which the children's adjustment is hindered by ongoing conflicts between the parents, alliances, moves (loss of friends, new school) being sent to boarding schools, and so on. According to Mitchell's (1985) study of 71 Scottish parents and their children, nearly two-thirds of the children had been upset by their parents' separation but less than a third of their parents noticed their distress. Thus many children did not feel understood. Mitchell also reports that for one in three children separation and the following months were the worst time in the divorce cycle.

Legal Divorce

Legal divorce is the second substage of the divorce phase. During this time custody and access provisions have to be made and the couple's property has to be divided. The substage starts with hiring a lawyer and ends with the divorce date. Usually it is characterized by adversarial proceedings; that is, because lawyers are interested only in their clients, they try to win the best deal for them and do not consider the well-being of the other side or of the whole family. In their efforts to win for their clients, they often aggravate the relations between the spouses and make it difficult for them to reconcile. However, the further deterioration of the relationship between

the spouses can also be caused by their using custody provisions or the division of property as issues to hurt the partner, to humiliate, or to retaliate. According to a study of 210 separated or divorced individuals (Spanier and Thompson 1984), 26 percent of them reported that their involvement with attorneys worsened the relationship with their spouses. One-third of them had negative feelings toward their lawyers and felt unsupported, because few attorneys are able to deal with psychological aspects of divorce. Moreover, they may induce unrealistic expectations or try to prolong the process in order to earn more money. Because of these negative side effects some spouses turn to mediators for help in dividing the property or in drafting custody provisions. Mediation allows maximum participation of the clients, makes them feel responsible for their own welfare, and permits them to find their own solutions. It fits the tendency toward amicable divorce and coparenting.

The division of property is a very complicated matter, especially in mid-life divorce, as more assets—investments, homes, business holdings, savings, contributions to pension funds—have to be divided. The distribution of valued possessions is also a traumatic experience. Moreover, it may obscure the process of emotional separation. Rosenthal and Keshet (1981) write that the persons who insist on having the family silver may really be saying that they are the ones "who loved more, gave more, or put more meaning into the marriage. Financial accountings take the place of needed emotional accounting" (p. 99).

Child custody and visitation arrangements are often made by the spouses themselves, sometimes after consultation with relatives and friends or with lawyers. Spanier and Thompson (1984), for example, write in their study of 210 separated or divorced individuals: "Respondents report that custody was determined by mutual agreement in about two-thirds of the cases. Courts made the decision in about one in five cases; the children made the decision in 7 percent of the cases . . ." (p. 77). Courts usually accept custody and access agreements of parents. In these cases they are reluctant to ask for further information about the children and their welfare. In other cases—especially after long custody battles—the courts decide on custody and may specify the frequency and length of access.

Today approximately nine in ten children stay with their mothers after divorce (Furstenberg and Spanier 1987). In most cases their fathers have agreed with this arrangement, although in some cases the mothers have fought for sole custody. Tolsdorf (1981) observed: "The motivations for keeping custody varied and ranged from an attempt to maintain the parental role in order to maintain a

consistent self-image on the part of one partner, all the way to attempts to retain custody as a strategy to force the spouse into making concessions on other issues" (p. 277). Other reasons for seeking sole custody are, for example: greater love for the children, stronger bonds, offer of more consistency, the attempt to force the partner into reconciliation, the wish for someone who helps to fight loneliness and who comforts, the need to retaliate, guilt for being partly responsible for the child's suffering, the inability to see the spouse as a good caretaker, power struggles, and so on. Sometimes the other partner is unable to care for the child. In a few cases the parents split the children among them (split custody) or decide on joint custody; that is, they want to share the care of their children because both are committed to their parental responsibilities. These individuals are usually able to differentiate between their marital and parental roles, are willing to cooperate, have similar child-rearing attitudes, and are able to negotiate conflicts.

In general, divorce hearings are short, as most spouses have resolved (nearly) all differences before, either by themselves or with the help of mediators or lawyers. In a few cases the legal battles are continued after divorce in order to ensure the payment of alimony or to deal with problems of custody and access. Ongoing battles about visitation rights may have especially negative effects on children, because they feel torn between their parents and have difficulties in finding a basis for continuing their relationships with both of them.

THE POSTDIVORCE PHASE

Weiter unter: http://people.freenet.de/Textor/Divorce_Transition1.pdf