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Risks and Benefits of Seeking and Receiving Emotional Support During the Divorce Process: An Examination of Divorcee Individual Adjustment, Closeness, and Relational Satisfaction with Multiple Partners from a Social Network

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RISKS AND BENEFITS OF SEEKING AND RECEIVING EMOTIONAL SUPPORT DURING THE DIVORCE PROCESS: AN EXAMINATION OF DIVORCEE INDIVIDUAL ADJUSTMENT, CLOSENESS, AND RELATIONAL SATISFACTION WITH MULTIPLE PARTNERS FROM A SOCIAL NETWORK

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Risks and Benefits of Seeking and Receiving Emotional Support During the Divorce Process: An Examination of Divorcee Individual Adjustment, Closeness, and Relational Satisfaction with Multiple Partners from a Social Network

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Divorce is one of the most difficult life events an individual may face. Divorce impacts not only the individual who has to adjust to new physical and psychological conditions following divorce, but also extends to the many relationships in the divorcee's social network. Central to divorce processes and relational outcomes is communication. One aspect that may influence the quality of divorcees' post-divorce relationships and ability to adjust following the divorce is the provision of emotional support. In the current study, I examine a social network model of adjustment to divorce by examining the role of risk in seeking, and effectiveness of, emotional support provision in the relationships of ex-spouse, family, and friend. I then examine the influence of support provision on post-divorce closeness and relational satisfaction, as well as how the relationship qualities and emotional support provision in those relationships work uniquely and in combination with individual characteristics of the divorcee to predict adjustment to divorce.

Participants included 229 divorced individuals who completed a questionnaire. The questionnaire included items about demographic characteristics as divorcees and current adjustment to divorce. Participants also completed assessments about their ex-

spouse, a family, and a friend relationship with regard to risk in seeking support, effectiveness of emotional support provision, and the current relational qualities with those individuals. Findings revealed risk in seeking support is predictive of less effective emotional support provision in the family and friend relationships. More effective support provision is predictive of increased relational qualities in all three relationships but is not predictive of adjustment to divorce. The current relational qualities with the ex-spouse, in addition to individual divorcee characteristics, were the only factors that emerged as predictive of adjustment to divorce. The results are discussed in terms of the methodological, conceptual, and theoretical implications for examining divorce using a perspective examining the network through multiple relationships.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Divorce, the legal dissolution of marriage (Kitson, 2006), is rated as one of the top life stressors a person may experience (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1974; Guidubaldi & Cleminshaw, 1985). In fact, Amato (2000) argued divorce might be *the* most traumatic stressor a person can face because it is so far reaching with its impact. Divorce has immediate as well long-term consequences (Fine & Harvey, 2006) including changes to divorcees' networks (Nelson, 1995) and outcomes related to physical and psychological conditions of the people involved (Kincaid & Caldwell, 1991). Because the rate of divorce remains high (Hurley, 2005), many people face the challenge of adapting to new circumstances following divorce; thus, scholars continue to examine what factors influence outcomes following divorce (Fine & Harvey, 2006).

Although divorce is often associated with negative outcomes for individuals and their relationships, researchers have recently noted communication processes can buffer against the negative effects of divorce and may even stimulate positive personal and relational outcomes following the marital dissolution (e.g., Tashiro, Frazier, & Berman, 2006). Even though communication plays an important role during the divorce process (Harvey & Fine, 2006), there is still a paucity of scholarship that places communication as having a central role in understanding divorce outcomes for the individual *as well as* relational outcomes with members of his or her social network. This lack of empirical research, combined with the stable divorce rates, warrants further investigation.

The purpose of this study is to better understand the role of emotional support in the divorce context, including risks of seeking and effectiveness of provision, in shaping

individual adjustment to divorce and the quality of post-divorce relationships by utilizing a social network perspective examining multiple relationships. In contrast to previous studies, the current study is framed in a network perspective in which multiple relationships are examined in order to further investigate how support functions within and across multiple types of relationships simultaneously: the ex-spouse, family, and friend relationships. In what follows, I summarize the trends of divorce in the United States as an impetus for further examination of this difficult life transition, preview how recent findings have begun to illuminate the role of communication during this transition, discuss how this may influence relational outcomes in addition to individual outcomes, and detail how this information informs the current investigation.

Divorce Trends and Statistics

Although marriage remains one of the most important relationships in an individual's life (Markman, Rhoades, Stanley, Ragan, & Whitton, 2010), divorce rates remain high. Demographers estimate between 40%-50% of first marriages ending in divorce with individuals in second or subsequent marriages divorce at even higher rates (Amato & Irving, 2006; Hurley, 2005; Kitson, 2006; National Center for Health Statistics, 2010).

Kitson (2006) provides context for the upswing in divorce research since the 1970s when it became apparent divorce rates had and were continuing to increase. Divorces were uncommon during the 17th -19th centuries because legal procedures were more difficult. Specifically, individuals had to prove that the other spouse had violated the marital contract. Such practices effectively upheld legal regulations designed to reduce divorce (Amato & Irving, 2006). Additionally, there were more economic

restraints in earlier centuries that prevented couples from being able to financially manage single headed households following marital dissolution (Segrin & Flora, 2005). In the early and mid 20th century, no-fault divorces were introduced with "incompatibility" cited as an option for dissolution; all 50 states adopted a no-fault divorce policy (Amato & Irving, 2006). At this time, and into the early 1980s, divorce rates spiked (Kitson, 2006). Since then, divorce rates have leveled out and remained at 40%-50% of marriages ending in divorce (Amato & Irving, 2006; Kitson, 2006). Although there has been a slight decrease in divorce rates over the past few decades, scholars have continued to examine what predicts divorce to gain a better understanding of the overall stability of divorce rates (Kitson, 2006). These are summarized below.

Predictors of divorce. Research demonstrates that multiple societal, cultural, relational, individual, and interactional factors predict divorce (Kitson, 2006; Rodrigues, Hall, & Fincham, 2006; Segrin & Flora, 2005). One factor related to divorce is societal attitudes, or the general perception of acceptability of divorce. There are contradictory societal views on divorce with there being more acceptance for divorce in general, but people still valuing marriage; few people entering marriage planning on divorce being part of their life course (Amato, 2006). With more acceptance of divorce, the rates have increased (Segrin & Flora, 2005). Divorce rates are also predicted by culture and race as expectations for marriage and marital dissolution vary among cultures with higher divorce rates in the West compared to the East and African American couples are more likely to divorce than Caucasian couples (Rodrigues et al., 2006; Segrin & Flora, 2005). Individual and couple demographic factors also predict divorce rates. Women are more likely to initiate divorce proceedings (Segrin & Flora, 2005) and wives are more likely to

be motivated by relational issues while husbands are more often motivated by external factors (Rodrigues et al., 2006). Socioeconomic status related to income and employment predicts divorce rates in that those with employment and higher income are less likely to divorce. People who cohabit before marriage are more likely to divorce, premarital birth predicts likelihood of divorce, and divorce of parents predicts higher levels of dissolution. Divorce likelihood decreases with higher levels of education and length of marriage, and increases with subsequent remarriages (Rodrigues et al., 2006; Segrin & Flora, 2005).

Finally, interaction and communicative processes predict divorce. Higher satisfaction levels are related to lower divorce rates (Rodrigues et al., 2006) and if conflict exists, the effectiveness of communication and conflict resolution are more likely to predict divorce, rather than frequency of conflict itself (Segrin & Flora, 2005). As Markman et al. (2010) discuss, negative communication is related to higher levels of dissatisfaction and dissolution and positive communication can provide a protective barrier and stability for marriages. Gottman and colleagues have consistently been able to predict likelihood of divorce based on communicative interactions with ineffective and negative communicative patterns increasing likelihood of divorce (Gottman, 1994; Gottman, Coan, Carrere, & Swanson, 1998). Although understanding the historical context of divorce trends and predictors of divorce is important when pursuing an examination of divorce outcomes, understanding the centrality of communication during and following the divorce is of more consequence because it has a farther reaching influence on divorcee's individual adjustment and relationships.

Emotional Support in a Network

Social support is a form of communication that is consistently linked to divorcees' ability to accept and manage their new circumstances following divorce (Krumrei, Coit, Martin, Fogo, & Mahoney, 2007). Social support is conceptualized as communication that in some way aids a person who is in need of assistance, whether through routine support or support offered in response to a stressful situation (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002). Emotional support, a form of social support and the focus of the current study, involves the expression of concern, comfort, and care, often with the intent to reduce emotional distress (Burleson, 2003; Cutrona, 1996). In the current study, emotional support provision refers to *messages and behaviors from another that convey these expressions of concern and comfort in an effort to reduce distress, specifically in response to the stressors associated with divorce.* Emotional support is placed at the center of the current investigation because effective provision of emotional support in relationships it is one of *the* strongest predictors of adjustment to divorce (Krumrei et al., 2007) and increased quality of relationships for those in which it was enacted (Dirks & Metts, 2010).

Although social support has been associated with increased individual adjustment levels following divorce, it is unknown how emotional support provision effectiveness in the divorce context impacts the relationship in which the communication occurred. Because divorce may negatively impact members of a divorcee's network (Thomas & Ryan, 2008), but emotional support is most often related to positive relational outcomes (Cutrona, Russell, & Gardner, 2005), it is important to examine how emotional support provision functions in relationships within the divorcee's social network. Furthermore,

one of the purposes of this study is to examine emotional support provision in *multiple* relationships in order to employ a perspective examining the network through multiple relationships within the divorce context to more fully investigate the cumulative effects of support provision across relationships.

As scholars such as Sprecher, Felmlee, Schmeeckle, and Shu (2006) argue, divorce is not an isolated event for the individuals divorcing, but rather the entire network faces a reorientation (Miller, 1970). Despite these acknowledgements, researchers rarely focus on divorce as occurring within a network. This is an unfortunate oversight since divorcees must communicate with their partners, children, parents, siblings, friends, and acquaintances, during the divorce process. This communication is central to the divorce process as divorcees navigate their own interpretations and meaning-making of the event (Harvey, Orbuch, & Weber, 1992; Riessman, 1990), as well as provide accounts to their network for the dissolution (Harvey et al., 1992; Hopper, 2001). Communication processes are enmeshed in fostering risk or resiliency for the individual and within post-divorce relationships (Afifi & Hamrick, 2006). Because of this, there is a need to further investigate how multiple relationships are affected following divorce, and how those relationships, and interactions occurring within them, influence adjustment to the divorce.

Preview of Study

Divorce is an inherently communicatively based interpersonal process that affects individuals and their entire networks. Because of the prevalence and social significance of divorce, as well as the potential for negative outcomes for both the divorcee and members of his or her network, continued efforts to further understand the role of communication as part of this process are needed. To address the void in extant literature,

I propose a model to further explicate the role of emotional support provision, and risks in seeking support, in divorcees' adjustment to their marital dissolution, as well as on multiple relationships from their networks in which the emotional support provision occurs. Specifically, I examine divorcee's recalled perceptions of the emotional support provision effectiveness that occurred in the ex-spouse, family, and friend relationships at the time of the divorce and examine the current post-divorce relational qualities of closeness and relational satisfaction to better understand the implications for these relationships. The use of this design enables a more holistic examination of the role emotional support provision plays within a network context. Specifically, this will enable a better understanding of how support from multiple members functions within different relationship types, and how these interactions of support and relational outcomes work together to influence overall adjustment to the divorce.

In the following chapter, I review literature about divorce processes and theorizing on social support concluding with the hypotheses and research questions guiding the current study. Specifically, I discuss the complexity of the divorce process as the event that triggers the need for support and as an event that may alter relationships from a social network. I next review theorizing on social and emotional support and discuss the need to further expound upon the role of emotional support provision effectiveness within the divorce context. Finally, I conclude with a summary of how these literatures together inform the current study.

The third chapter contains details of my sampling and recruiting procedures, a summary of details about my participants, and my operationalization of the constructs included in this study. In the fourth chapter, I detail psychometric procedures conducted

on the measures used in the study. This includes confirmatory factor analyses and invariance testing to further assess properties of the constructs and equivalence in measurement across relational targets. The fifth chapter is comprised of a detailed report on the data analysis, model testing, and results of the study. In the sixth chapter, I discuss the findings and implications for future research on emotional support provision and individual and relational outcomes within the divorce context.

CHAPTER TWO

RATIONALE FOR CURRENT STUDY

The purpose of this study is to better understand the role of emotional support in the divorce context, including risks of seeking and effectiveness of provision, in shaping individual adjustment to divorce and the quality of post-divorce relationships by utilizing a perspective examining the social network through multiple relationships. In this chapter, I discuss the complexity of divorce as an unplanned life transition by summarizing predictors and challenges of pursuing individual adjustment to divorce as well as consider how divorce occurs within a network with multiple relationships affected. The present study is designed around the ex-spouse, family, and friend relationships, thus I detail why these relationships were selected and how their relational qualities may differ in their post-divorce states. Theorizing on social and emotional support is next presented, in which I specifically address the complexity of social support and the role of emotional support provision on adjustment to stressful life experiences, especially within the divorce context. Additionally, I discuss how emotional support provision effectiveness may help explain the post-divorce relational qualities for the multiple members of a social network, focusing on closeness and relational satisfaction. Finally, research about risks associated with social support, in addition to benefits of emotional support provision, is presented to more fully illuminate support processes in the context of divorce. I conclude by discussing the proposed model that is utilized in answering questions guiding the current study.

Divorce

Divorce is a complex life transition and stressor that nearly half of all people who enter marriages will have to navigate (Fine & Harvey, 2006; Hurley, 2005). Because divorce rates are relatively stable, researchers have dedicated efforts to better understand the process of divorce (Fine & Harvey, 2006). Below I detail the complexity of divorce as inciting the need to further understand how emotional support provision may function during and following the divorce process.

Complexity of Divorce Process

Divorce is one of the most stressful life events a person may encounter because it is such a highly complex process that affects multiple facets of a person's life (Fine & Harvey, 2006). One of the reasons divorce is highly complex is because the divorcing individual has to navigate changing identities, roles, and relationships (Amato, 2000; Harvey & Fine, 2006). Divorcees face potentially deteriorated psychological states as well as physical conditions as their economic resources are no longer combined within a coupled household (Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Sayer, 2006). Each of these changing aspects are individually stressful, but the complexity of a divorce is heightened because the divorcees are managing multiple changing aspects of their lives simultaneously (Bohannan, 1970).

Fine and Harvey (2006) argued divorce is a process that occurs within relationships; as such, aspects of the process that occur before, during, and after the day the legal institution of marriage is terminated should be examined. Although the purpose of this study is not to examine how divorcees manage these multiple processes while divorcing, it is important to highlight the complexities of divorce as a challenging life

transition that triggers the need for emotional support provision. Bohannan (1970) posited that divorce is an individual and social phenomenon that involves six stations of overlapping experiences that center on the emotional divorce, legal divorce, economic divorce, co-parental divorce, community divorce, and psychic divorce. Each of the stations within the divorce process provides the opportunity for the divorcee to seek or receive emotional support that may impact his or her adjustment to the divorce and the relationship in which the communication occurred.

The emotional divorce is highly charged as the person grapples with denial, guilt, despair, loneliness, embarrassment, sorrow, fear and perhaps relief (Harvey, 2000; Metts, Braithwaite, & Fine, 2009). As it becomes apparent there is a desire for the termination of the marriage, one or both partners may begin the legal process of the divorce. During the time it takes to file and finalize the legal dissolution, people are managing and negotiating emotional, physical, and economic tasks working through a myriad of legislation (Mahoney, 2006). The economic divorce involves dispersing and breaking up the marital unit as a single economic unit into two individual economic units (Bohannan, 1970). Communication is central in the divisions and negotiations of property, assets, and debts to reach a settlement. During this time people often discuss and adjust to lower economic and living standards, with women at higher risk for deteriorated standards than men (Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Sayer, 2006).

The co-parental divorce and communicative processes that occur before, during, and after the legal divorce, are some of the most important interactions that will occur because they affect both parents and children of the divorce (Schrodt, Miller, & Braithwaite, 2010). During this process, parents must maintain communication to first

agree to custody arrangements, and then to co-parent the child (Amato, 2000; Bohannan, 1970; Tein, Sandler, & Zautra, 2000). Community processes in the divorce context also contribute to the complexities of divorce because the divorcees' community is forever altered. People are often hesitant to tell families and friends of their separations (Weiss, 1975), but must eventually do so because no relational dissolution occurs without influencing the social network in which it occurs (Sprecher et al., 2006). Finally, divorcees must manage the psychic divorce: "the separation of the self from the personality and the influence of the ex-spouse" (Bohannan, 1970, p. 53). This stage can take years as divorcees adapt to being an autonomous and single social unit while making sense of their relational termination (Harvey et al., 1992) and managing the restructuration of roles and identity (Sakraida, 2006).

A great deal is known about the complexity of the divorce process that incites the need for the mobilization of emotional support provision. The complexities of these processes are often associated with negative outcomes for the divorcing individual (Altenhofen, Biringen, & Mergler, 2008; Bursik, 1991; Isaacs & Leon, 1987). However, there is opportunity for the communication that occurs with network members during this time to help divorcees explain and make sense of the process (Harvey & Fine, 2006; Weiss, 1975), which can lead to improved emotional states and improved relationships (Afifi & Hamrick, 2006; Tashiro et al., 2006). Next, I discuss the ways in which divorce may both positively and negatively influence the individual and the relationships within divorcees' networks. Because communication is central to changes that occur for individuals and their relationships, I follow the discussion of divorce with an emphasis on the role of support provision in this context.

Divorce Influence on the Individual

Because divorce is such a complex process, researchers have dedicated a great amount of effort to investigating various predictors and outcomes for divorcees in order to better understand how they adjust and cope following divorce (e.g., Smerglia, Miller, & Kort-Butler, 1999; Thiriot & Buckner, 1992). These findings, and their role in the present study, are discussed below.

Individual adjustment. Because of the stressfulness of the many changing relational, psychological, and economic changes experienced during and following divorce (Amato, 2000; Bohannan, 1970), it is important to understand what predicts increased adjustment to the divorce. There are multiple conceptualizations of adjustment following divorce with some focusing on general well-being (e.g., Thiriot & Buckner, 1992), others focusing on depressive symptoms (e.g., Kincaid & Caldwell, 1991), and still others focusing specifically on issues related to the divorce (e.g., Wang & Amato, 2000). Despite differences in conceptualization, adjustment is a multifaceted emotional and social process that influences self-esteem, disentanglement from the relationship, rebuilding social relationships, and processing emotions such as anger, grief, and trust (Fisher, 1976; Hensley, 1996). For this study, I utilize Kitson and Morgan's (1990) definition of adjustment:

> *Being relatively free of signs and symptoms of physical or mental illness; being able to function adequately in the daily role responsibilities of home, family, work, and leisure; and having developed an independent identity that is not tied to the status of being married or to the ex-spouse (p. 913).*

Understanding adjustment provides more insight into how divorcees manage, accept, cope, and adapt to their new circumstances following a divorce. Because adjusting to the divorce is so important to an individual functioning following this life stressor, it is important to examine what factors are predictive of adjustment following divorce.

Divorcee characteristics and adjustment. Despite how adjustment is measured, there are several individual factors that are consistently found to predict adjustment (Krumrei et al., 2007). One of the first factors is *initiator status,* or who made the decision and filed for the legal divorce. Hopper (1993) found initiators focused more on individualistic reasoning for leaving a marriage that was unhappy, while noninitiators focused more on collectivistic reasoning and an emphasis that they wanted to make the marriage work. The status influences how the divorcees make sense of the divorce, which in turn influences their adjustment. Vaughan (1986) discussed that the initiator has more time to ready him or herself and thus tends to be less harmed psychologically. Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is put forth:

H1: Initiator status of filing for the legal divorce is related to higher adjustment to divorce.

Another factor that affects adjustment is *sex* of the divorcee. While the results are somewhat mixed, research findings indicate the sex of the divorcee is related to adjustment. Although women tend to report higher levels of distress (Bloom, Hodges, Kern, & McFaddin, 1985), they are also more likely to feel positive emotions following the decision to divorce (Baum, Rahav, & Sharon, 2005; Kitson & Morgan, 1990). Thus the following hypothesis is put forth:

H2: Females have higher adjustment to divorce.

Presence of children with the ex-partner also predicts adjustment as it has implications for the duration of communication between the ex-partners and their ability to adapt to their new roles as co-parents (Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Tein et al., 2000). Often, recovery from a divorce is easier for those who do not have children with their ex-spouses (Braver, Shapiro, & Goodman, 2006). Thus the following hypothesis is put forth:

H3: *Having children with the ex-spouse is related to lower levels of adjustment.*

Additionally, t*ime since the divorce was finalized* also affects one's ability to adjust. Differences in adjustment outcomes tend to be reduced with the passing of time (Kitson, 1982) with most people achieving higher levels of adjustment over time, becoming relatively stable around five years post-dissolution (Hetherington, 1999; Hetherington & Kelly, 2002). Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is put forth:

H4: There is a positive relationship between length of time since the divorce and adjustment to divorce.

Similarly, the *life cycle stage and age* has been linked to adjustment, although both with mixed results as to the relationship with adjustment. Trends indicate older adults have a more difficult time adjusting (Bursik, 1991; Kitson & Morgan, 1990). Thus the following hypothesis is put forth:

H5: There is a negative relationship between age and adjustment to divorce.

Much of the existing divorce literature examines individual outcomes, primarily focusing on adjustment to the divorce, as is done in the current investigation as well. These individual characteristics of the divorcee will be included in order to examine how they function in combination with communicative and relational factors with members of

a divorcee's network. Scholars recognize divorce occurs in a network and relationships are also affected during divorce processes (e.g., Hopper, 2001; Schrodt et al., 2010) thus in the next section, I discuss the importance of examining multiple relationships in the divorce context, and why the relationships with the ex-spouse, a family member, and a friend were selected for inclusion in this current study.

Divorce Influences on Relationships Within the Network

When examining outcomes following divorce, few studies have placed relational implications as central to understanding divorce processes, with even fewer examining outcomes for relationships extending beyond the immediate family. This is unsuitable because scholars who have examined other relationships and outcomes following divorce find that divorce is a reorientation for the entire network (Miller, 1970; Sprecher et al., 2006). In fact, divorcees are aware of the influence that the divorce will have in their networks and are often hesitant to share the news of their separations for fear of strong reactions (Weiss, 1975). Once the divorcees go public with their dissolution, research indicates accounts are expected and necessary when the couple begins telling their networks about the dissolution of their relationship (Hopper, 2001; Weiss, 1975). Divorcees feel the need to explain the failure event (Harvey et al., 1992) and address the predicament of deviating from the marital norm (Cody, Kersten, Braaten, & Dickson, 1992). This process is so complex, that Vaughan (1986) found when couples began going public with their dissolution, they each had to present their own story in order "to maintain alignments they already have, to recover those previously lost, and to secure those as yet undeclared" (1986, p. 140).

Because of these processes and interactions, divorcees often face several structural changes to their networks following divorce. These changes may also result in relational changes to the qualities of those relationships. For example, divorced women and/or separated mothers often have fewer members in their support networks than married mothers (Flowers, Schneider, & Ludtke, 1996; Nelson, 1995). Single parents rely on their parents more following dissolution, changing their interactions and relational qualities (Isaacs & Leon, 1987). Noncustodial parents often interact with children less, and may have higher hostility due to the circumstances (Braver et al., 2006; Altenhofen et al., 2008).

When examining relationships that may be affected by and may influence outcomes following divorce, the network can be divided into three main categories consistent with extant literature: that of the marital, familial, and friend relationships (McLanahan, Wedemeyer, Adelberg, 1981). This division provides a way to categorize and examine multiple relationships based on the qualities of those relationships. Dimensions that explain why the interactions and qualities of these relationships may differ can be understood based on the degree of interdependence, voluntary nature of, and level of intimacy in the relationship.

The first category, the marital relationship, is often classified by high levels of interdependence and intimacy (Canary, Staffard, Hause, & Wallace, 1993). In this study the marital relationship is of that with the ex-spouse. The ex-spouses have a past history with high levels of interdependence and intimacy, but a (potentially) voluntary exit from the relationship that may lead to confusion and ambiguity as to how the relationship should function following the divorce (Goldsmith, 1980). Because of this, examining this

relationship independently of other family relationships is important. The second category, the family relationship, is often characterized by the fact that relationships in this category are non-voluntary relationships, but have high levels of intimacy and interdependence throughout stages in the life-cycle (Pecchioni, Wright, & Nussbaum, 2005). Lastly, the friend relationships, are voluntary, can vary on the level of interdependence, can be quite intimate, but often require less maintenance and are less prioritized than romantic or familial relationships (Canary et al., 1993; Dainton, Zelley, & Langan, 2003). Research that examines these relationships in the divorce context follows.

Ex-spouse relationships. Perhaps the most obvious interpersonal processes during the divorce occur with the ex-marital partner. Until the divorce is finalized, and often following the legalization of the separation, the partners have to interact on a semi-regular basis to negotiate many legal aspects of divorce agreements such as alimony, property, child support, and child custody (Mahoney, 2006). Sbarra and Emery (2008) argued divorce is an interpersonal process because it involves the uncoupling of two people managing the same transition. Early in the uncoupling, the individuals often still work together to maintain a cover-up of the relationship dissolution (Vaughan, 1986). Metts and Cupach (1995) argued it is problematic to think of relationships as coming to an abrupt end at the time of the legal divorce finding the frequency of communication in the ex-spouse relationship decreased over time, but remained quite high in the first several months. McLanahan et al. (1981) found the ex-spouse may still be utilized for support following the dissolution, and many women felt they were better off accepting support from the ex-spouse than a woman with no male companion at all.

Ex-partners who are co-parents maintain contact the most consistently. Research indicates co-parents post-divorce often interact several times a week, and generally have well wishes for each other (Braithwaite, McBride, & Schrodt, 2009), although may find this new friendship confusing and stressful at times (Goldsmith, 1980). Although friendship is not uncommon for former spouses (Goldsmith, 1980), not all divorcing individuals remain friends or even civil following divorce (Ahrons & Wallisch, 1987).

Whether or not the ex-spouses are co-parents, communication exchanges are important in establishing the state of their relationship and individual adjustment post-divorce. Relational dissolution is one of the most identity threatening encounters a couple can navigate and interactions between ex-partners continue because of the communicatively threatening processes necessary during the divorce (Cupach & Metts, 1994; Koenig Kellas, 2008). Frisby, Booth-Butterfield, Dillow, Martin, and Weber (2011) found negative face threats (i.e., communication that negates something about the other's desires) was predictive of more negative emotions, hurt, and conflict for (ex)marital partners whereas facework (i.e., communication that protects the other) was associated with perceived caring. Because interactions with the ex-spouse are prevalent during and following the divorce, in order to better understand how these interactions are part of a larger network system that predicts adjustment, it is necessary to examine interactions (i.e., emotional support) and relational qualities with the ex-spouse while examining other relationships simultaneously. Interactions with the ex-partner are the most prevalent in the divorce process, but exchanges with the ex-spouse do not account for all the interactions that occur during the divorce process. Extending beyond the ex-

marital partners, other family members and relationships are also affected by divorce processes.

Family relationships. Divorce affects many familial relationships beyond that of the divorcing couple with the next most central relationship affected by divorce the parent-child relationship. Because changes to the structure of the family and residency occur following divorce, communication between parents and children is altered during and following divorce (Altenhofen et al., 2008). Parents and children may have reduced closeness (Booth & Amato, 1994), openness, and intimacy (Braithwaite & Baxter, 2006; Braver et al., 2006). Divorced parents may also use children as confidants during the divorce process (Afifi, Afifi, & Coho, 2009; Afifi & McManus, 2006; Afifi, McManus, Hutchinson, & Baker, 2007).

Other familial relationships are affected during the divorce process as well. Isaacs and Leon (1987) argued that examining the full family network during divorce processes is imperative, although rarely conducted. Duffy (1993) found parents were the second most frequently cited source of support following a divorce. Isaacs and Leon (1987) found single mothers who had interactions with parents that were helpful (i.e. accepted divorce, provided high levels of emotional and financial support) during the divorce process had higher adjustment levels. Frisby and Sidelinger (2009) found that many divorcees were also able to maintain communication and satisfaction with former in-laws. Although not many other familial relationships are studied specifically, Kurdek (1988) found in general that interactions with relatives remain the most stable and are of higher quality than interactions with other members of the network. Divorce modifies the entire family system, thus understanding how familial relationships are part of a larger network

of adjustment is needed. Outside of familial interactions, there are also consequences for relationships with non-familial relationships, such as friends, acquaintances, and co-workers.

Friendships. Although divorce is relatively common, people still feel the need to explain to their networks their deviation from the *normal* marriage trajectory (Cody et al., 1992; Hopper, 2001; Riessman, 1990). Divorcees have to manage explanations in such a way that will reduce isolation from and maintain alignments with friends and other members from the social network (Vaughan, 1986). Communication about the divorce has implications for the network as friends of the couple may have to make alliances and listen to negative disclosures about the relationship (Miller, 1970). Even with efforts to maintain relationships, many divorcees struggle with the loss of friends and network connections during the divorce (Thomas & Ryan, 2008). In spite of this, Duffy (1993) found friends were reported the most frequently of social support providers and Krumrei et al., (2007) find that being involved in groups and organizations following divorce is predictive of higher adjustment. Despite the general understanding of communication with network members during divorce, the impact to and with friend relationships in a divorcee's network is still relatively understudied.

From the literature presented, it is unmistakable that divorce occurs within a network. The importance of examining multiple relationships is two-part: multiple relationships are affected following divorce, and these relationships may influence the divorcee's ability to adjustment to the divorce. The three categories of relationships that were selected for examination in the current study are with ex-spouses, family members, and friends. These relationships were selected as they best categorize a plethora of

relationships that could be examined in the divorce context. These relationships often differ, generally speaking, on dimensions of voluntary nature, intimacy, and interdependence. Additionally, these relationships may further differ post-divorce due to processes that occur during the dissolution. Lower relational quality may exist in post-divorce relationships due to the changing dynamics of the network and interaction (Thomas & Ryan, 2008). However, relationships may benefit from the divorcees increased interactions with members of his or her networks (Tashiro et al., 2006). For example, relationships with children may increase in positivity as the stress from an unhappy marriage is reduced (Amato, 1993), relationships with ex-spouses will often become more positive, and many people remarry and find increased relational benefits post-divorce (Booth & Amato, 1991; Burrell, 2002; Hetherington & Kelly, 2002).

One way to examine if these post-divorce relationships differ in their relational qualities is to examine two aspects of the relationships: closeness and relational satisfaction. In the next section, I present literature on closeness and relational satisfaction as constructs to effectively examine relationships in their post-divorce states. I then discuss how these constructs may influence adjustment to divorce and propose additional hypotheses to further explain adjustment beyond what is explained by individual divorcee factors discussed earlier.

Relational Qualities Post-Divorce

As discussed, relational qualities for the relationships of ex-spouse, family member, and friend likely differ based on the nature of relationship, and may differ further in post-divorce relationships. To further examine this, the nature of closeness and relational satisfaction are discussed.

Closeness. Closeness is a relational quality that emerges when the relationship has strength of mutual impact, diversity of activity, frequency of contact, and duration of the relationship (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989). Similarly, solidarity, a closely related construct to closeness, consists of degree of similarity between two people and the effects they experience, such as loving, liking, disclosure, and intimacy, from maintaining that relationship (Wheeless, 1976). Weber and Patterson (1996) argued that solidarity is an effective way to conceptualize closeness as both constructs target feelings, behaviors, and attitudes that relate to contact, mutual impact, activity, and duration of the relationship. In the current study, I conceptualize closeness as *feelings of understanding, mutual influence, similarity, and liking for another*.

Floyd and Parks (1995) posited that closeness in relationships is "a critical component of human experience" by which a person may measure his or her quality of life (p. 69). Closeness is found to be an important part of many relationships including friendships (Floyd & Parks, 1995), sibling relationships (Floyd, 1996; Rittenour, Myers, & Brann, 2007), and grandparent relationships (Folwell & Grant, 2006). Closeness is one relational quality that research indicates is altered following divorce. For example, scholars have confirmed that closeness may be reduced in the parent-child relationship following divorce, but will usually return to normal with the passing of time (Buchanan, Maccoby, & Dornbusch, 1991; Booth & Amato, 1994).

Because the relationships of ex-spouse, family, and friend differ based on the nature of each relationship, and the structure of relationships changes further following divorce, it is important to examine to what extent relational closeness is present in these post-divorce relationships. Thus the following question is presented:

RQ1: Do levels of closeness in post-divorce relationships differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?

Closeness assesses relationships based on dimensions of intimacy and affect. In addition to levels of intimacy being affected in post-divorce relationships, expectations for relationships will likely be altered. Whether or not these expectations are met will influence the relational satisfaction for that relationship. As another assessment of relational quality, then, I next detail relational satisfaction and its role in the context of divorce.

Relational satisfaction. Relational satisfaction, a measure of contentment in a relationship, is one of the most common and important ways to assess relationships (Hendrick, 1988). Based on Hendrick's (1988) discussion of relational satisfaction, in this study relational satisfaction refers to *how a specific relationship compares to other similar relationships and how expectations and needs within that relationship are met.* In this conceptualization, satisfaction is not dependent on high levels of affect or intimacy, but rather how that relationship meets the needs that are expected within it specifically. With this, a person could conceivably have little interaction and low expectations for a relationship and be satisfied with that relationship if those minimal expectations were met. Examining relational satisfaction in the current study is important because it assess a different dimension of relational quality than is assessed by closeness. While closeness gauges the quality of similarity and affect in a relationship, satisfaction targets expectations being met for a specific relationship type.

Within the divorce context, it is important for divorcees to have members of their networks meet their relational expectations following the transition. For example,

satisfaction with the ex-spouse has implications for not only that relationship, but also relationships with new partners (Schrodt, 2010; Schrodt et al., 2010). Because the relationships of ex-spouse, family, and friend differ based on the nature of each relationship, and the structure of these relationships changes further following divorce, it is important to examine how relational satisfaction differs post-divorce in these relationships. Thus the next question is presented:

RQ2: Do levels of relational satisfaction in post-divorce relationships differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?

From this summary of extant literature, it is apparent that relationships in divorcee's networks may be important in two ways; multiple relationships may be affected following divorce and these relationships may affect the divorcee's adjustment to the divorce. First, in examining relational qualities in post-divorce relationships, as presented above, I am able to investigate how multiple relationships differ in their post-divorce states. Second, I am able to examine if the quality of these post-divorce relationships is related to individual adjustment to divorce. The literature is clear that interactions with members of a social network influence adjustment, but it is unknown if the qualities of these post-divorce relationships themselves are predictive of adjustment. Thus the following research questions are presented:

RQ3: Do levels of closeness with members of a social network (ex-spouse, family, friend) predict adjustment to divorce?

RQ4: Do levels of relational satisfaction with members of a social network (ex-spouse, family, friend) predict adjustment to divorce?

Divorce occurs within a network in which multiple relationships may influence the outcomes following this highly complex process. Beyond the negative outcomes that may exist following divorce (e.g. Afifi & Schrodt, 2010; Gerstel, Riessman, & Rosenfield, 1985), divorced individuals often find aspects of their lives improve following divorce. In fact, nearly 93% of divorcees are able to recognize at least one area in which their lives improve because of, or following, their divorces (Tashiro et al., 2006). One of the connections between divorce processes and positive outcomes is social support. In the previous section, I highlighted that interactions with members of a divorcee's network are central to adjustment following divorce. In the next section, I expand upon these interactions by focusing on social support more directly to further explain how these interactions in relationships may influence adjustment. The link between social support and divorcee adjustment, as well as its influence on relationships, is well documented and is elaborated more thoroughly below since emotional support is the crux of this study.

Social Support

Due to its significance and prevalence in relationships, social support is an interdisciplinary phenomenon that has been widely studied over the past several decades (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002; Vangelisti, 2009). Because of this, there is a strong foundation for understanding how social support functions in relationships.

Social support is studied in various disciplines and from multiple perspectives, leading to several conceptualizations and operationalizations of social support (Sarason & Sarason, 2009;Vangelisti, 2009). Social support may best be thought of as an umbrella term for a multitude of conceptually related concepts and behaviors that affect individual

well-being (Goldsmith, 2004). Current research lines of social support began to emerge in the 1970s when several scholars examined how relationships promoted health outcomes (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002). During this time, two primary lines of research emerged: examining structural aspects of interacting in a social network, and examining the experience and cognitions of the support recipient (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002). Over the last several decades, emerging definitions of social support have fallen into three broad perspectives: *sociological* (integration into a network), *psychological* (perceptions of available support), and *communicative* (enacted supportive exchanges) (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002; Sarason, Sarason, & Pierce, 1994; Vangelisti, 2009). Each of these perspectives of social support has been examined within the context of divorce.

In the sociological perspective, scholars examine network composition and integration within the network. This perspective focuses on frequency of interaction and network size. Studies examining network interactions in the divorce context find increased involvement is related to better adjustment (Kunz & Kunz, 1996). During the divorce process, divorcees rely on family to bolster their sense of network consistency (McKenry & Price, 1991) but will often still face decreased numbers in their networks (Nelson, 1995). Although network integration is important in adjustment, it may not be as important as the psychological processes associated with interacting in networks.

The psychological perspective of social support stems from researchers focusing on cognitive perceptions of the support recipients. Several avenues of research exist within this perspective including the study of people's perceptions of available support and types of support received (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002). In the divorce context,

Duffy (1993) found availing support, or the perception of support merely being available, to be more important to participants than other types of support. When thinking of types of support, one of the most recognized and useful typologies in the support literature stems from work out of the psychological perspective. Social support is often categorized as emotional, esteem, network, information, and tangible (Cutrona, 1996; Cutrona & Suhr, 1994). Although perceptions of the availability of many kinds of support have been connected to adjustment, emotional support, or expressions of love, empathy, concern, and comfort, is one of the strongest predictors (Smerglia et al., 1999).

Understanding behaviors and communicative interactions that convey emotional support leads to the third perspective of social support: the communicative perspective. This perspective focuses on specific elements of *enacting* support within relationships (Vangelisti, 2009). Scholars from this perspective recognize that support is enacted and communicated and needs to be studied as such (Albrecht & Adelman, 1984; Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002). One of the first articulations of social support as communication came from Albrecht & Adelman (1987) when they said, "social support refers to verbal and nonverbal communication between recipients and providers that reduces uncertainty about the situation, the self, the other, or the relationship, and functions to enhance a perception of personal control in one's life experience" (p. 19). This conceptualization is especially important in the current study as participants are asked to reflect on behaviors that indicated emotional support provision, effectively examining emotional support through the message perception and recollection paradigm (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002). Although this is an assessment using a perception of support, it more closely aligns with the communicative perspective, as it is a recollection of *communicated*

behaviors of emotional support, rather than a perception of availability. With regard to relationship dissolution, research findings indicate having friends and family communicate care and concern is important to divorcees (Smerglia et al., 1999).

Krumrei et al. (2007) summarize that social relationships and social support have been singled out as one of the most predictive factors in well-being and adjustment during and following stressful life events, especially in the divorce context. Research indicates divorcing individuals seek and utilize various types of social support, such as emotional and tangible support, during the transition to divorce (Nelson, 1995), and larger and stronger support networks are predictive of better management of daily stressors during divorce (Sansom & Farnill, 1997).

Because emotional support and expressions of caring and comfort have been found to be especially important in the divorce context (Smerglia et al., 1999), emotional support provision is the focus of the current investigation. As Goldsmith (2004) said, "cognition, motivation, emotion, and even physiology may affect and be affected by conversation, but conversation cannot be reduced to these processes" (p. 31). However, little is known about the relationship that exists between adjustment to divorce and emotional support provision from multiple relationships simultaneously. To begin to examine this, in the following section I discuss communicative components of emotional support provision more specifically and how these inform and lead to the next set of hypotheses and research questions.

Emotional Support

Emotional support is comprised of messages and behaviors that convey concern, comfort, care, love, and interest, most often in response to a stressful situation, with the

purpose of reducing the degree of emotional distress another is experiencing (Albrecht & Adelman, 1987; Burleson, 1990; Burleson, 2003; Cohen & Wills, 1985; Cutrona, 1996). Most often when communication scholars study "social support" and "supportive communication", they are studying verbal and nonverbal behaviors that provide comfort; thus, the majority of studies actually examine the enactment of emotional support (Weber & Patterson, 1996). In response to stressful situations, emotional support provision can serve to buffer the negative consequences of that event (Cutrona, 1996; Goldsmith, 2004; Wills & Fegan, 2001). Emotional support is often expected in close relationships (Cutrona, 1996) and desired due to its influence in helping people manage stressful situations (Burleson, 1993; Burleson, 2003).

Emotional support is especially important following stressful life events because it promotes more positive thinking and management of emotions (Burleson, 1994; Stroebe & Stroebe, 1996). The expressions of care and concern may help to reduce the distress of the recipient through the supportive intentions of the interaction (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002). Additionally, supportive messages facilitate coping and adjustment through helping the distressed to reappraise the nature of the stressful event, reappraise the nature of the initial emotional response, and reappraise the severity of the emotion stress originally experienced (Burleson & Goldsmith, 1998).

In the divorce context, Smerglia et al. (1999) conducted a meta-analysis examining women's adjustment and found emotional support (i.e. expressions of concern) was more related to adjustment than was instrumental support (i.e. aid through physical or task sharing). Unfortunately, emotional support provision is still an understudied aspect in the divorce literature with other types of support studied more

frequently. The current study will extend extant literature by examining emotional support provision, focusing on perceptions of behaviors that effectively communicated the emotional support, within the divorce context. Although the positive benefits of social support are well documented, social support is a highly complex phenomenon with factors of the recipient, provider, and relationship influencing the effectiveness of those support exchanges; discussed next.

Social Support Processes

As communication scholars began examining the influence of supportive messages on individual and relational outcomes, it became increasingly apparent that "the effects of supportive messages, as well as other features of the interactional context, are not simple and direct, but rather are quite complex" (Burleson, 2009, p. 22). Because supportive interactions are situated within relationships (Goldsmith, 2004; Leatham & Duck, 1990), many factors of the distressing event, the support recipient, support provider, and the relational context influence support exchanges and outcomes (Bodie & Burleson, 2008; Burleson, 2003; Goldsmith, 2004).

Distressing event. Scholars studying supportive communication recognize two general perspectives in which support operates: the direct effects perspective and the buffering effect perspective (Cutrona, 1996). In the direct effects perspective, support is characterized as supportive interactions that are important and expected in relationships in routine and ritualized ways (Cutrona, 1996; Wills & Fegan, 2001). In the buffering effect perspective, scholars examine supportive interactions in response to stressful situations as a means to reduce, or buffer, the distressed individual from the negative impact of the event (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002; Cutrona, 1996). The two perspectives

are not mutually exclusive and often occur simultaneously within a relationship; people both expect routine support and support in response to stressful events. In the current study, the buffering effect perspective is utilized by examining emotional support provision as a response to divorce, but mechanisms that underlie the direct effects perspective will be present in the effectiveness of support provision across relationships.

When examining supportive communication in response to a stressful event, the triggering event influences the overall support process (Cutrona & Russell, 1990; Goldsmith, 2004). The type of event and the severity of the stress associated with the triggering event influence from whom support is sought, the type of support most needed, and the recipients ability to process and utilize support (Burleson, 2009; Dirks & Metts, 2010; Goldsmith, 2004). In the current study, the distressing event is the divorce. As discussed previously, divorce is associated with high levels of distress in which emotional support provision is needed. Because the type and severity of the triggering event influences from whom support is desired, when examining emotional support provision effectiveness in multiple relationships in response to divorce processes, it is important to understand factors of the relationships that may influence the effectiveness of the support provision from each partner.

Relational characteristics. Supportive communication, especially when conceptualized as "verbal and nonverbal behavior produced with the intention of providing assistance to others perceived as needing that aid," (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002, p. 374) is an interpersonal process occurring within a relationship which affects and is influenced by that relationship (Leatham & Duck, 1990). Because of this, several factors of the relationship may lead to varying outcomes of the support exchange.

One factor that may influence support exchanges is termed the matching hypothesis (Cutrona & Russell, 1990). From this perspective, support is most effective when the relational partner has familiarity with the person, the context, and the ability to match the type and intensity of support to the level of need (Cutrona & Russell, 1990). In the context of divorce, the ex-spouse likely has the most familiarity with the context, but may not be able to provide the support necessary. Other family or friends may be better equipped to provide emotional support that can match the intensity of the dissolution distress from knowing the divorcee and their specific needs.

Burleson and colleagues (2009; Bodie & Burleson, 2008) argue that the extent to which a supportive message is effective depends on the level of processing from the recipient. A recipient's perception of support effectiveness is influenced by several factors such as their level of distress, level of cognitive complexity, and social cues of the partner such as sex or relationship type (Barbee & Cunningham, 1995; Bodie & Burleson, 2008; Cutrona, Cohen, & Igram, 1990; Derlega, Winstead, Oldfield, & Barbee, 2003; Lehman & Hemphill, 1990). Although in the current study not all of these aspects are examined directly, the effectiveness of the emotional supportive provision is assessed from the perspective of the divorcee reflecting on three separate relationships. It is likely some differences in the perception of emotional support provision effectiveness exist and may be due social cues of the relationship type.

The ex-spouse, family, and friend relationships differ on how they function in divorcees' lives, which may influence not only their actual ability to provide support effectively, but also the perception of the support provision effectiveness from the divorcee's perspective. When examining emotional support provision from multiple

members of a person's network within the divorce context, it becomes important to answer the question of how emotional support provision effectiveness differs, if at all, based on the relational partner. Thus the following research question is presented:

RQ5: Do levels of effectiveness of emotional support provision differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?

Clearly, many factors pertaining to the event, provider, recipient and their relationship influence support exchanges. Although understanding what influences the effectiveness of a support exchange is important, what is more crucial is understanding how supportive exchanges may buffer against negative, or predict positive, outcomes following divorce. In the next section, I discuss outcomes related to effective support exchanges so the current study may move toward examining how supportive exchanges specifically affect divorcees and members of their networks.

Outcomes of Social Support

Scholars examining social support began doing so to further explore the relationship between social networks and health outcomes (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002). Some of the earliest work on social support confirmed that people with more social network interaction and support options had better health and health outcomes (Vangelisti, 2009). It soon became apparent that social support is linked to additional individual outcomes such as coping and adjustment to stressful situations (e.g., Burleson & Goldsmith, 1998) as well as inextricably tied to relationships and relational outcomes (Leatham & Duck, 1990). Researchers have continued to examine the relationship between social support and individual outcomes and find the relationship to be relatively consistent. Social support is found to shape physical health outcomes, emotional and

mental health outcomes, as well such as increase coping and adjustment following stressful events (Burleson & Goldsmith, 1998; Krumrei et al., 2007). For example, MacGeorge, Samter, and Gillihan (2005) found those with emotional and information support had lower levels of depression and physical illness. This is no exception in the divorce context.

Emotional support and individual adjustment. In the divorce context, the association between support provision and adjustment is apparent. Krumrei et al. (2007) conducted a meta-analysis and concluded that both network perceptions and interactions (having the perceptions of availability of support and interactions) and specific relationships (examining support from specific relationships within the network) promote positive post-divorce adjustment. Based on the association between interactions with members of a divorcee's network discussed previously, paired with the research findings on support provision and increased adjustment to many life stressors, the following hypothesis is put forth:

H6: Higher levels of emotional support provision effectiveness predict higher levels of adjustment to divorce across relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend).

Although social support is most often known for its influence on individual outcomes, social support occurs within relationships (Goldsmith, 2004) and thus affects relational outcomes as well.

Emotional support and relational qualities post-divorce. Relational qualities and expectations for specific relationship types affect and are affected by supportive exchanges (Bodie & Burleson; 2008; Pierce, Sarason, and Sarason, 1991). Cutrona et al.,

(2005) presented the relationship enhancement model of social support in which they posit that support in relationships leads to increased relational qualities. As discussed previously, I am focusing on closeness and relational satisfaction in post-divorce relationships, thus it is important to examine how supportive exchanges are related to those relational qualities.

Closeness. Closeness has been found to affect and be affected by supportive communication. For example, Clark et al. (1998) found participants rated messages from a close friend as higher than the same message content coming from an acquaintance. As previously discussed, closeness is an important relational quality that can be affected, and often reduced, following divorce. Supportive exchanges have been found to be one resource that may buffer against negative outcomes following divorce (Hughes, 1988; Krumrei et al., 2007) and closeness should be no exception if support is enacted effectively. Although not in the divorce context, Dirks and Metts (2010) found that higher levels of support effectiveness predicted higher levels of closeness in relationships. If closeness levels differ in post-divorce relationships, examining the role of emotional support provision effectiveness on these outcomes may shed light on how these post-divorce relationships function. Despite differences that may exist in post-divorce relationships, effective social support is most often predictive of enhanced relational outcomes, thus the following hypothesis is put forth:

> *H7: Higher levels of emotional support provision effectiveness from each partner predict higher levels of closeness for that partner.*

Similarly, it is important to examine emotional support provision and relational satisfaction outcomes following divorce.

Relational satisfaction. From the direct effects perspective, social support is seen as an essential, natural, and valued component of relationships (Albrecht & Adelman, 1987; Cutrona, 1996; Weber & Patterson, 1996). In one study, Xu and Burleson (2004) found that spousal emotional support was the strongest correlate of marital satisfaction. When support is not seen as equitable, the strength of a relationship is compromised, and the relationship can become more conflicted (Stroebe & Stroebe, 1996; Weber, Johnson, & Corrigan, 2004). As such, support has a strong influence on relational satisfaction.

Although the expectations for support might differ between each relationship, McLanahan et al. (1981) found support was expected in most post-divorce relationships, and that the ex-spouse may still be utilized for support following dissolution, especially if support was not available in other relationships. Many women stated accepting support from the ex-spouse was better than having no support at all from a male companion. Thus support provision effectiveness is most often predictive of increased relational qualities. This relationship is expected to exist in the current study effective emotional support provision predictive of relational satisfaction in the post-divorce relationships, despite possible differences in expectations across relational targets. Thus the following hypothesis is put forth:

H8: Higher levels of emotional support provision effectiveness from each partner predict higher levels of relational satisfaction for that partner.

Although much of the literature on social support demonstrates the positive outcomes of social support, social support seeking and provision is not without risks (Bolger, Foster, Vinokur, & Ng 1996; DePaulo & Fisher, 1980); this is discussed next.

Risks of Social Support

Seeking social support, especially during dissolution, is a face-threatening act that must be communicated careful (Cupach & Metts, 1994; Frisby et al., 2011; Goldsmith & Fitch, 1997). That is, there are risks associated with making oneself vulnerable in mobilizing the enactment of support provision. Barrera (1986) was one of the first to suggest social support may not always be positive. In fact, Burleson and MacGeorge (2002) argued one of the advantages to the communicative perspective of social support is that it does not assume social support leads to increased well-being, but rather is related to multiple variables; one of these being risk associated with support interactions.

For those mobilizing and receiving support, they have to weigh the risks of seeking support and strategize how to mobilize support while minimizing negative outcomes that may come with this mobilization (Goldsmith & Parks, 1990). Recipients often have to reveal stigmatizing or undesirable information in order to enable support to be provided (Brashers, Neidig, & Goldsmith, 2004). People may suffer fear of negative evaluations for having to rely on others (DePaulo & Fisher, 1980). Furthermore, people in need of aid may altogether opt to not seek support out of fear of inability to reciprocate (DePaulo, 1982).

When providing support, individuals are at risk of having their ability to provide support evaluated or rejected (Cheuk, Swearse, Wong, & Rosen, 1998). Those who express genuine concern and care are more susceptible to stress and depression from sharing those burdens (La Gaipa, 1990). If members of a person's social network become

too large, his or her stress levels may increase with the increase of support provision to others (Hansell, 1985).

For those who are close, the desire to provide assistance may actually inhibit the ability to provide support effectively (Burleson & Goldsmith, 1998). Inequity in support provision can lead to distress within the relationship (La Gaipa, 1977; Ybema, Kuijer, Buunk, DeJong, & Sanderman, 2001), and, significant others may withdraw from expressions of emotional distress (Bolger et al., 1996).

In the current study, I conceptualize risk from the recipient's perspective (i.e. the divorcee) as *risk associated with managing impressions of self and fear of burdening the support provider.* Although social support scholars recognize there are risks associated with support exchanges (e.g., Goldsmith, 2004; Goldsmith & Parks, 1990), this is rarely the focus of social support studies and even less so, if at all, in the divorce context. Thus to supplement what little research exists pertaining to risk of support seeking in the divorce context, I examine how seeking support provision from multiple network members is risky.

Based on research that demonstrates provider and relational characteristics impact support provision, it is likely risk differs with the relational target as well. Similarly, as previously discussed, the relationships of ex-spouse, family, and friend differ based on the nature of their relationships which may cause variation in the risks associated with seeking support from a specific relational partner. Thus the following question is presented:

RQ6: Do levels of risk in seeking support differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?

Furthermore, as risk in seeking support is rarely studied, it is unknown what role the risk associated with supportive exchanges plays in the effectiveness of the emotional support provision, thus the following research question is presented:

RQ7: Do levels of risk in seeking support for each partner predict levels of emotional support provision effectiveness from that partner?

Finally, just as support exchanges may influence adjustment to divorce directly, risk in seeking support may also affect adjustment directly, thus the following question is presented:

RQ8: Do levels of risk in seeking support for each partner predict adjustment to divorce?

The literature presented in this chapter provides a clear depiction of the complexity of divorce and support processes occurring within a network, with many factors influencing the post-divorce relationships and individual outcomes. Based on this, I propose a social network model of adjustment to divorce in which I examine the relationships between divorcee characteristics, risk in seeking support, emotional support provision effectiveness, closeness, relational satisfaction, and adjustment for each relational target of ex-spouse, a family, and a friend. See Figure 2.1 for a pictorial representation of the model.

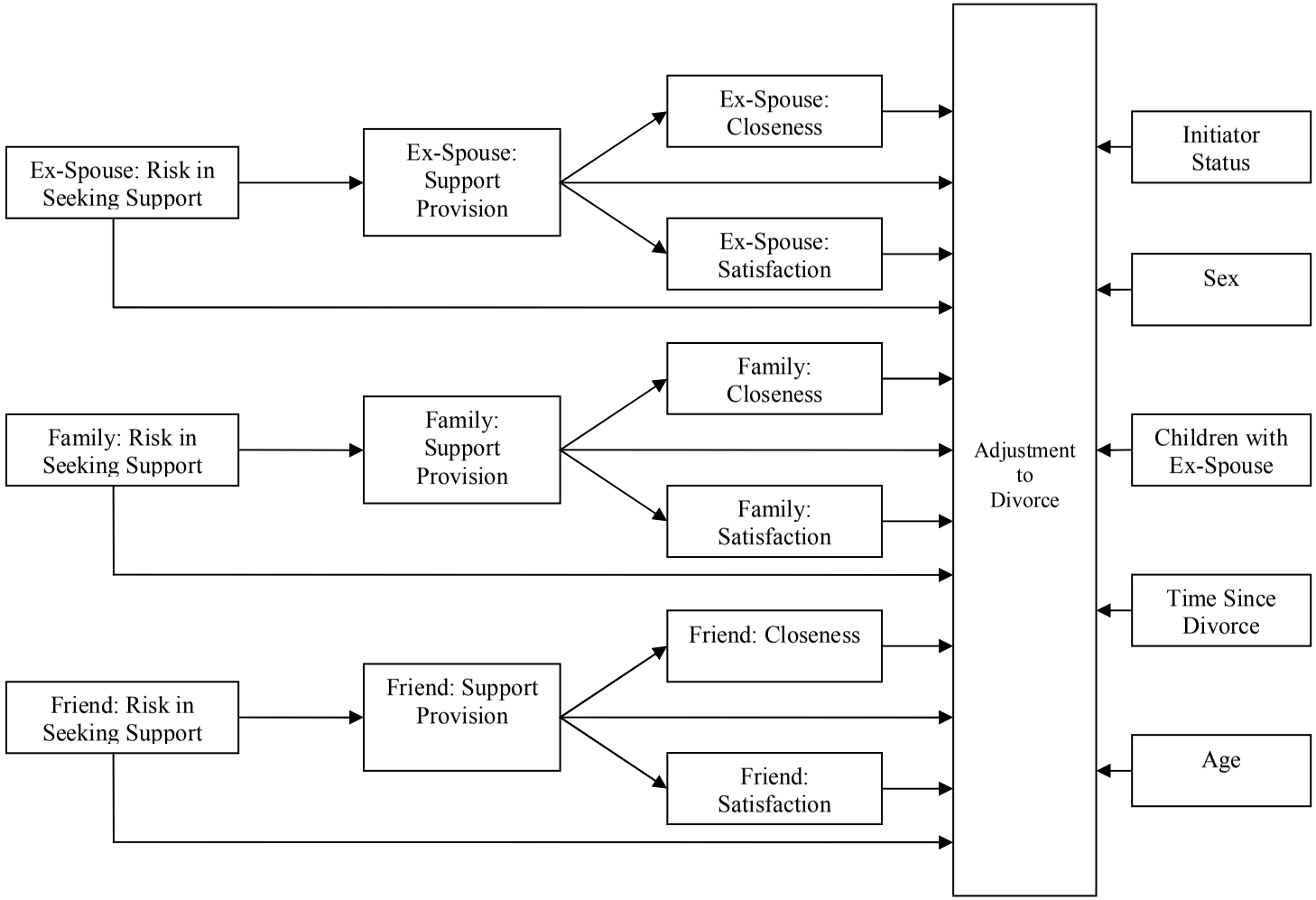


Figure 2.1 *A social network model of adjustment to divorce*

Summary of Proposed Model

The proposed model of adjustment places communication as a central component in understanding individual and relational outcomes within the divorce context. Taken together, the proposed hypotheses and research questions culminate in a fuller picture of the role of sought and received emotional support from a network within the context of divorce. This will illuminate factors that contribute to relational outcomes following divorce of closeness and relational satisfaction with multiple relational partners, as well as how supportive exchanges and relational qualities predict individual adjustment to divorce. The model has a theorized temporal nature in which the divorce itself is seen as the distressing event triggering the need for emotional support provision. Once support is needed, the divorcee must first assess risk associated with seeking support from multiple members of his or her network. This risk will influence the emotional support provision as well as adjustment to the divorce. Emotional support provision within each relationship will then predict relational qualities of closeness of relational satisfaction within each relationship, as well as predict adjustment to the divorce. The relational qualities that exist following the divorce and following interactions about the divorce, will then also predict adjustment to the divorce. The model also includes the individual characteristics of initiator status, sex of divorcee, children with ex-spouse, length of time since the divorce was finalized, and age of the divorcee hypothesized to predict levels of adjustment beyond the factors of interaction and relational qualities. Additionally, I examine indirect effects for all predicted mediated relationships.

Summary and Conclusion

In the previous section, I outlined research questions and hypotheses about the relationships between risk in seeking support, emotional support provision effectiveness, closeness, relational satisfaction, and adjustment for each relational target of ex-spouse, family member, and friend relationships. Table 2.1 provides a list of these research questions and hypotheses. The proposed social network model of adjustment to divorce highlights the role of emotional support provision in the divorce context, while simultaneously examining these relationships with multiple relational partners to more holistically assess relational and individual outcomes following divorce.

In examining the questions guiding this project, I am able to pursue the goals of this study to further explicate the role of emotional support provision in multiple relationships from divorcee's networks, elucidate how these interactions influence relational qualities of closeness and relational satisfaction, and investigate how the support provision and relational qualities cumulatively work toward adjustment.

Table 2.1

Summary of Hypotheses and Research Questions

Divorcee Demographics	
H1:	Initiator status of filing for the legal divorce is related to higher adjustment to divorce.
H2:	Females have higher adjustment to divorce.
H3:	Having children with the ex-spouse is related to lower adjustment to divorce.
H4:	There is a positive relationship between length of time since the divorce and adjustment to divorce.
H5:	There is a negative relationship between age and adjustment to divorce.
Relational Qualities	
RQ1:	Do levels of closeness in post-divorce relationships differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?
RQ2:	Do levels of relational satisfaction in post-divorce relationships differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?
RQ3:	Do levels of closeness with members of a social network (ex-spouse, family, friend) predict adjustment to divorce?
RQ4:	Do levels of relational satisfaction with members of a social network (ex-spouse, family, friend) predict adjustment to divorce?
Emotional Support Provision	
RQ5:	Do levels of effectiveness of emotional support provision differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?
H6:	Higher levels of emotional support provision effectiveness predict higher levels of adjustment to divorce across relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend).
H7:	Higher levels of emotional support provision effectiveness from each partner predict higher levels of closeness for that partner.
H8:	Higher levels of emotional support provision effectiveness from each partner predict higher levels of relational satisfaction for that partner.
Risk in Seeking Support	
RQ6:	Do levels of risk in seeking support differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?
RQ7:	Do levels of risk in seeking support for each partner predict levels of emotional support provision effectiveness from that partner?
RQ8:	Do levels of risk in seeking support for each partner predict adjustment to divorce?

In this chapter I offered a rationale for this study through empirical and theoretical evidence related to divorce and emotional support provision outcomes. In doing so, I discussed the complexity of divorce as a site for emotional support provision, argued for the importance of utilizing a network lens in order to better understand multiple relationships within the context of divorce, and discussed both individual adjustment and relational outcomes as they relate to the divorce context and support provision. In sum, combining the literature on divorce and social support, I intend to examine how emotional support provision in multiple relationships (e.g., ex-spouse, family member, friend) during the divorce process affects divorcee individual and relational outcomes. In the following chapter, I discuss my recruitment and data collection procedures, detail my participants, and detail the operationalization of the measures selected for use in the current study.

CHAPTER THREE

PARTICIPANTS AND MEASURES

In this chapter, I explain the design utilized for the current project in order to most effectively examine the hypotheses and research questions presented in the previous chapter. To do this, the recruitment and data collection procedures are detailed, I summarize the research participants and the relational partners on whom they report, and discuss the measures used in the current study. Descriptive statistics and psychometric properties of the scales are provided and discussed in detail in the next chapter.

Recruitment Procedures

Participants were recruited through several avenues. First, the call for participants (Appendix A) was posted on the Communication Studies website at a large Midwestern University and I entered classrooms to make announcements about my research. Only 3.1% of participants identified accessing the survey from hearing about the study in this way. This is most likely due to the fact that most college students are not divorced. Second, I utilized snowball-sampling methods by sending the research call to colleagues and others in my personal and professional network. I asked individuals to pass the information to their networks as well. The majority of participants, 76%, identified accessing the survey from hearing about the study from this method. Third, I recruited online. I contacted moderators and authors of forums, websites, and blogs geared toward divorce and stepfamily functioning to request permission to post the recruitment script using a form letter (Appendix B). Of 25 groups contacted, nine groups allowed me to share my recruitment information. Fourth, I contacted the facilitators of face-to-face divorce support groups and requested permission to come share my recruitment

information with their group or have the facilitator share the information with their group (Appendix C). Of the five facilitators contacted, two responded and agreed to pass the information on to their groups. Approximately 8.7% of participants came from online and face-to-face group mailings. 12.2% of participants did not report how they learned of the study. All participants who accessed the survey could choose to submit contact information to be entered for a $15 Visa gift card. Participants had a 1 in 25 or better chance of winning the drawing. Contact information was stored separately from responses to the survey and deleted upon completion of drawings. Of the participants who accessed the survey, 124 participants chose to enter the drawing and six winners were selected.

Individuals interested in participating in the study were directed to the Qualtrics online distribution of the survey via a URL link. These recruitment procedures allowed participants to remain anonymous if they desired, since they did not have to contact me directly, did not have to leave any personal information, and no IP addresses were retained or utilized in any way. Upon accessing the survey, participants read and agreed to an Internal Review Board informed consent (Appendix D) before accessing the questionnaire (Appendix E). The questionnaire was designed in five sections within the message perception paradigm (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002). In this method, participants recall their perceptions of specific interactions that have already occurred.

In the first section, participants reported personal demographic information and responded to questions pertaining to adjustment to divorce. In the second section, participants selected their relational partners and reported demographic information for each. The remaining sections were presented in a temporal order in which the third

section consisted of questions pertaining to risks in support seeking and effectiveness of provision of support for each relational partner. In the fourth section, participants reported on relational qualities of closeness and relational satisfaction in their current post-divorce relationships for each relational partner. In the fifth section, participants were given the opportunity to enter information for the drawing.

Participants

Participants consisted of 229 divorced individuals; 171 females (74.7%), 56 males (24.4%), and 2 not reported. Ages ranged from 19 to 70 years old (M = 43.71, SD = 12.09). Of the participants, 66.4% (n = 152) were the initiator of the divorce (i.e., they filed for the legal dissolution). The length of time since the dissolution was legally finalized ranged from 3 weeks to 49 years (M = 8.16 years, SD = 8.91 years). Fifty-seven of the participants have no children, 105 have children with their ex-spouse only, 39 have children with their ex-spouse and from another relationship, and 28 have children from another relationship only. Of the participants, 38.4% (n = 88) are remarried, 37.5% (n = 86) are currently single, and 24.1% (n = 55) are dating. The majority of participants, 84.7%, identified as being white or Caucasian, followed by 5.2% reporting African American or Black, 2.2% reporting a mixed race or ethnicity, 1.8% reporting Hispanic, 1.3% reporting Asian, 0.9% reporting Native American or Indian, and 3.9% did not report a race or ethnicity.

Relational Partners

Since one of the goals in this study is to assess outcomes for multiple relationships simultaneously, I utilized a one-with-many (Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006)

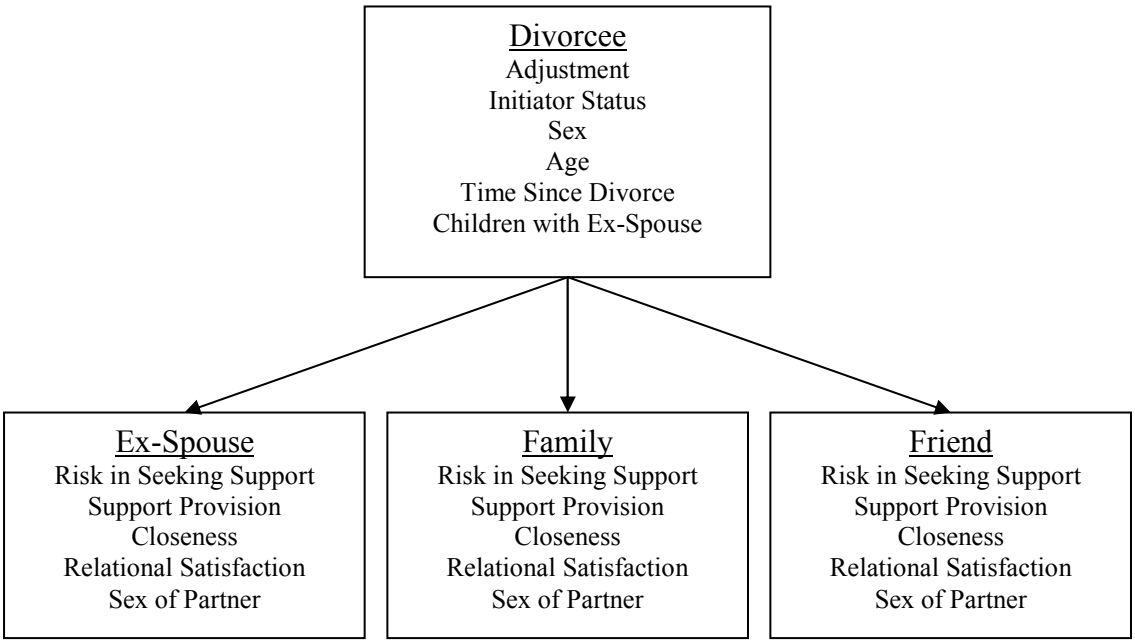
recruitment design. In this design, a focal person (i.e., the divorcee) reports on multiple relational partners (i.e., the ex-spouse, family member, and friend).

A depiction of the one-with-many design is presented in Figure 3.1. In the figure, the divorcee serves as the focal person. The variables and constructs assessed are listed beneath the heading of the participant. These represent variables that the divorcee reports on about him or her self. Below the divorcee, each member of his or her network on whom he or she reports is listed. The variables and constructs that are reported for each partner are listed.

Participants reported on 174 ex-husbands (75.9%) and 54 (23.5%) ex-wives, with 1 not specified. Of family members, participants reported on 111 parents (48.4%), 73 siblings (31.8%), 23 (step)children (10.0%), 10 (ex)in-laws (4.3%), 9 aunts, uncles, or cousins (3.9%), and 1 grandparent (0.4%), with two relationships not specified. Of these family members, 197 were female (86.0%) and 31 were male (13.5%), with one target not specified. For the friend relationship, participants reported on 161 females (70.3%), and 66 males (28.8%), with two not specified.

Figure 3.1

Conceptual depiction of one-with-many design



Divorcee Measures

Participants first responded to questions regarding personal demographics. As previously reported, these included sex, age, length of time since the divorce was finalized, initiator status (i.e., whether they were the one to legally file the papers for the divorce), and presence of children (i.e., with the ex-spouse or from other relationships). In addition to reporting demographic information, participants were asked questions that assessed individual adjustment to divorce.

Adjustment to divorce. A 10-item measure of adjustment to divorce was created for this study by adapting five items from the *Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale* (Fisher, 1976) and five items from the *General Divorce Adjustment Scale* (Wang & Amato, 2000). All the items measuring adjustment were adapted to a 5-point anchor. Possible responses for all items range from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree.* High scores indicate high levels of adjustment.

Since adjustment to divorce was conceptualized as an individual being relatively free from negative mental symptoms, the ability to function in daily routines, and developing an identity free from the ex-spouse (Kitson & Morgan, 1990), items were selected that best include and assess these areas of adjustment: mental symptoms (e.g., "Looking back, I think the divorce was a good idea."), daily functioning (e.g., "It is easy for me to organize my daily routine of living following the divorce."), developing identity free from the ex-spouse (e.g., "It is difficult for me to accept I am no longer married." [reverse-coded]). Items from the Wang and Amato measure were modified to be consistent with phrasing from the Fisher measure and to enable assessment on the same 5-point Likert scale. For instance, an original item from Wang and Amato read,

"Overall, do you think you or your spouse has been more happy with the decision to divorce?" and was assessed using 1= spouse, 2 = equally happy, and 3 = respondent, was adapted to read, "I have been happier than my spouse with the decision to divorce" and was assessed on the 5-point Likert scale of agreement.

Relational Partner Measures

Participants were asked to identify demographic information for three relational partners on whom they would report for the remainder of the questionnaire: ex-spouse, a family member of their choosing, and a friend or acquaintance of their choosing. Demographic questions were of their relational targets' sex, age, and for the family category, relationship type. For each scale, the participant responded to all items three times, once for each relational partner. All items were adapted to a 5-point anchor with possible responses for all items ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree.* High scores on each of the measures indicate high levels of that construct (i.e., higher risk in seeking support, higher effectiveness of emotional support provision, higher closeness, higher relational satisfaction).

Risk in seeking support. A scale to assess risks in seeking social support was created for this study using six items conceptualized from Goldsmith and Parks (1990) evaluation of risks and management of risks of seeking social support. Since risk was conceptualized from the recipient's perspective, the items capture risks associated with negative impressions, confidentiality, burden to the supporter, and inappropriateness of disclosures. Wording of the items were not modified in any way and were only adapted to the 5-point Likert scale, since the original measurement metric was not published. Although statistics regarding the selection of the printed items were not available, the

authors discuss the original categories of risks were created through factor analyses and conceptual alignment from their research. An example item includes, “I was hesitant to talk about the problem because I did not want to feel dependent on this person.”

Emotional support provision effectiveness. The effectiveness of emotional support provision was measured using the *Communication Based Emotional Support Scale* (Weber & Patterson, 1996). This measure was selected because it assesses the effectiveness of emotional support provision by having participants reflect on behaviors enacted by relational partners that communicated emotional support. Because it is targeted at a specific other, not a general perception of availability in a network, it best matches the conceptualization of emotional support provision effectiveness. The scale consists of 13 items measured on the 5-point Likert scale. Example items include, “This person sensitively listened to me talk about the problem I was having” and “This person made an effort to make me feel better when I was down.”

Closeness. Closeness was assessed using Wheeless’ (1976) *Interpersonal Solidarity Scale* since solidarity is an effective way to operationalize closeness (Weber & Patterson, 1996). The scale assesses perceptions of closeness, contact, mutual impact, and interaction, which match the conceptualization presented in this manuscript. The scale consists of 20 items and is target specific, but can be adapted to different partners as items read “this person” when presented. Example items include, “We are very close to each other” and “I like this person much more than most people I know.”

Relational satisfaction. Relational satisfaction was measured using an adapted version of Hendrick’s (1988) *Relationship Assessment Scale.* This measure was selected because it was designed to be a generic measure of relationship satisfaction that can

easily be adapted to multiple types of relationships. It measures relationship contentment based on expectations for a specific relationship in comparison to others, so is easily adaptable to various relationships. Items were modified to first person, instead of second person, to be consistent with the phrasing of the previous measures. They were also modified to measure on the Likert scale of agreement. For example, an item that read, "How well does your partner meet your needs" was modified to read, "This partner meets my needs." To further assess relational satisfaction based on expectations of specific relational types, phrasing was changed from "compared to most relationships" to "compared to other similar relationships." Finally, one item that originally read "How much do you love this person" was changed to, "I am content with this relationship" as the purpose of the measure was to assess satisfaction based on expectations of the relationship, not to assess love or affect. The scale consists of seven items and was measured on the 5-point Likert scale of agreement.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I provided a detailed description of the recruitment procedures, data collection procedures, participants who accessed the survey, and the adapted versions of the measures selected for use in the current study. The research design resulted in a participant pool of 229 divorced individuals reporting on their interactions and relationships with ex-spouses, family members, and friends. Because participants reported on multiple relationships, it is important to test that the scales measure accurately and function similarly across relational targets. In the following chapter, I detail the psychometric procedures conducted on the measures to examine this. Specifically, I detail and discuss the confirmatory factor analysis and invariance testing in

which I further assess properties of the constructs and equivalence in measurement across relational targets.

CHAPTER FOUR

PSYCHOMETRIC ANALYSIS OF MEASURES

In this chapter, I report the procedures and results of the psychometric analysis conducted to test the measurement reliability of the five scales used in the current study. First, details of the confirmatory factor analyses conducted on each scale are presented (i.e., adjustment to divorce, risk in seeking support, emotional support provision, closeness, relational satisfaction), and for each relational target (i.e., ex-spouse, family member, friend), if a target-specific scale. These procedures allowed me to examine if the measures were reliable following modifications discussed in the previous chapter, and if they were reliable when adapted to specific relational targets. Second, I detail measurement invariance testing to determine if the psychometric properties, and thus construct measurement, of the variables were consistent across relational partners. Third, procedures to determine if hypothesis testing in the next chapter could be completed with composite constructs of the variables are reported.

Below, I detail the scales in the order in which they were presented to the participants, which reflects the temporal nature of the model of adjustment: (a) adjustment to divorce to provide the context for the study, (b) risk in seeking support and emotional support provision effectiveness in response to the divorce, and (c) closeness and relational satisfaction of the post-divorce relationships in which the support was sought and received.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The reliability and dimensionality of the five scales utilized in the current study were assessed via confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the sample of 229 individuals

described in the previous chapter. Because all the scales have a priori theoretical assumptions with regard to their validity to measure the intended constructs, CFA is an appropriate analysis to examine their underlying structures (Levine, 2005). Item analysis indicated data was distributed non-normally; thus, all scales were assessed using confirmatory factor analysis under robust maximum likelihood estimation (MLR) in Mplus v 6.12 (Muthén & Muthén,1998-2010) to better account for this as it corrects fit statistics and parameter standard errors for the influence of non-normality. All models were identified by setting any latent factor means to 0 and latent factor variances to 1, such that all item factor loadings, intercepts, and residual variances were estimated. Items on all scales utilized a 5-point response scale with higher values indicating higher levels of that construct (i.e., higher adjustment, greater risk in seeking support, better emotional support provision, higher closeness, higher relational satisfaction).

Each scale was examined for model fit first utilizing the model $\chi 2$ based on its scaling factor to account for non-normality (in which values different than 1.00 indicate non-normality). Non-significance is desired for $\chi 2$ fit statistics, but is easily influenced by sample size, thus three other indices suggested by Kline (2005) were also examined. Comparative Fit Index, or CFI (in which values higher than .90 are acceptable and higher than .95 are desirable for good fit), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, or RMSEA, point estimate and 90% confidence intervals (in which values less than .08 are acceptable), and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual, or SRMR (in which values less than .08 are acceptable) were also examined (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2005). If model fit was not acceptable, I examined local fit of the models via the normalized residual covariance, available through the RESIDUAL output option, and the

modification indices, available through the MODINDICES output option in Mplus. The specific models examined are described in detail below.

Adjustment to divorce. Adjustment to divorce was created by combining ten items from two previously established scales, of which three items were reverse-coded prior to analysis. The scale is intended to measure a unidimensional construct. Model fit statistics indicated an acceptable fit: $\chi 2$ (N = 229, 35) = 85.63, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.21; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .07, (CI = 0.05 - 0.10); SRMR = .05. Examination of local fit via the normalized residual covariances and the modification indices supported the conclusion of acceptable model fit. Thus, the scale with all ten items was retained for analysis in the current study. Table 4.1 provides the means and standard deviations, as well as the standardized item estimates and standard errors for the factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and variance accounted for by the factor for all items.

Table 4.1

CFA Adjustment Item Statistics and Standardized Estimates

Item	*M (SD)*	Factor Loading *(SE)*	Intercept (*SE)*	Residual Variance *(SE)*	*Factor* R^2 *(SE)*
1	3.53 (1.31)	.65 (.04)	2.70 (.14)	.58 (.06)	.42 (.06)
2	4.15 (1.26)	.88 (.03)	3.30 (.24)	.24 (.05)	.77 (.05)
3	3.75 (1.23)	.72 (.04)	3.04 (.16)	.49 (.06)	.51 (.06)
4	3.19 (1.47)	.50 (.05)	2.17 (.10)	.75 (.05)	.25 (.05)
5	4.05 (1.15)	.83 (.03)	3.50 (.23)	.31 (.06)	.70 (.06)
6	4.03 (1.12)	.50 (.07)	3.60 (.25)	.75 (.07)	.25 (.07)
7	4.04 (1.22)	.59 (.07)	3.30 (.22)	.66 (.08)	.34 (.08)
8	4.02 (1.09)	.58 (.06)	3.67 (.25)	.67 (.07)	.33 (.07)
9	3.86 (1.33)	.83 (.04)	2.90 (.18)	.31 (.06)	.69 (.06)
10	4.42 (0 .94)	.45 (.08)	4.70 (.41)	.80 (.07)	.20 (.07)

Note. All factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and R^2 were significant at $p < .001$

Standardized factor loadings for all ten items were statistically significant and ranged from .45 to .88 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .20 to .77).

Risk in seeking support. Risk in seeking support consists of six items intended to measure a unidimensional construct. Model fit statistics indicated poor to acceptable fit depending on the relational target. The model fit when the target was the ex-spouse was: $\chi 2$ (N = 228, 9) = 37.75, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.22; CFI = .85; RMSEA = .12; SRMR = .06. The model fit when the target was the family member was: $\chi 2$ (N = 226, 9) = 18.50, $p < .05$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.34; CFI = .96; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .04. The model fit when the target was a friend was: $\chi 2$ (N = 224, 9) = 28.05, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.49; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .04.

To determine if the scales could be modified to achieve better fit, sources of misfit were identified for each target using the normalized residual covariance matrix and the modification indices. Item two ("I was worried this person might tell others") had a large positive residual covariance with item one ("I was concerned this person would get a negative impression of me if I discussed the problem") in the ex-spouse and friend models indicating localized strain. Modification indices further corroborated that item two was the primary source of misfit for all three targets and that the item covariance with other items was not reproduced well by the model. An examination of the item indicated the focus of the risk was external to the target (e.g., concern partner would tell others) where the remaining five items were risk related directly to the target (e.g., I did not want to burden this person), thus theoretically it was deemed acceptable to remove

this item. To be consistent in all models, item two was removed from the models for all targets.

Following these modifications, model fit statistics indicated an improved fit for all targets. The model fit when the target was the ex-spouse was: $\chi 2$ (N = 228, 5) = 24.77, $p < .01$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.14; CFI = .87; RMSEA = .13, (CI = .08 - .19); SRMR = .05. The model fit when the target was the family member was: $\chi 2$ (N = 226, 5) = 3.42, p = .64, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.41; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00, (CI = .00 - .07); SRMR = .02. The model fit when the target was a friend was: $\chi 2$ (N = 224, 5) = 12.91, $p < .05$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.45; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .08, (CI = .03 - .14); SRMR = .04. Thus the final 5-item measure was retained for further analyses in this study. Table 4.2 provides the means and standard deviations, as well as the standardized item estimates and standard errors for the factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and variance accounted for by the factor for all remaining five items, for all targets.

Table 4.2

CFA Risk in Seeking Support Item Statistics and Standardized Estimates

	Mean *(SD)*			Factor Loading *(SE)*			Intercept *(SE)*			Residual Variance *(SE)*			Factor R^2 *(SE)*		
Item	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR
1	2.82	2.31	1.85	.37	.61	.52	1.96	1.64	1.62	.87	.63	.73	.13	.37	.27
	(1.44)	(1.41)	(1.14)	(.08)	(.06)	(.08)	(.08)	(.05)	(.05)	(.06)	(.07)	(.08)	(.06)	(.07)	(.08)
3	2.33	3.06	2.60	.61	.62	.65	1.75	2.15	1.91	.63	.62	.58	.37	.38	.42
	(1.33)	(1.42)	(1.37)	(.09)	(.06)	(.07)	(.06)	(.09)	(.07)	(.11)	(.07)	(.09)	(.11)	(.07)	(.09)
4	2.85	2.67	2.33	.68	.78	.76	1.92	1.89	1.80	.53	.39	.42	.46	.61	.58
	(1.49)	(1.42)	(1.30)	(.08)	(.04)	(.06)	(.08)	(.07)	(.06)	(.11)	(.06)	(.09)	(.11)	(.06)	(.09)
5	2.22	2.26	2.00	.74	.72	.70	1.67	1.65	1.69	.45	.48	.51	.55	.52	.49
	(1.33)	(1.38)	(1.19)	(.08)	(.05)	(.07)	(.06)	(.05)	(.05)	(.12)	(.07)	(.09)	(.12)	(.07)	(.09)
6	3.70	2.62	2.30	.44	.69	.47	2.49	1.82	1.77	.81	.53	.78	.19	.48	.23
	(1.50)	(1.44)	(1.31)	(.08)	(.05)	(.07)	(.14)	(.06)	(.06)	(.07)	(.07)	(.07)	(.07)	(.07)	(.07)

Note. All factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and R^2 were significant at $p < .01$. EX = Ex-Spouse; FM = Family; FR = Friend

In the ex-spouse model, standardized factor loadings for the remaining five items were statistically significant and ranged from .37 to .74 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .13 to .55). In the family model, standardized factor loadings for the remaining five items were statistically significant and ranged from .61 to .78 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .37 to .63). In the friend model, standardized factor loadings for the remaining five items were statistically significant and ranged from .47 to .76 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .23 to .58).

Emotional support provision effectiveness. Emotional support provision effectiveness was measured using a unidimensional, 13-item scale, with three items reverse coded prior to analysis. Model fit statistics indicated poor to acceptable fit depending on the relational target. The model fit when the target was the ex-spouse was: $\chi 2$ (N = 227, 65) = 208.07, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.58; CFI = .86; RMSEA = .12; SRMR = .06. The model fit when the target was the family member was: $\chi 2$ (N = 226, 65) = 250.84, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.46; CFI = .87; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .06. The model fit when the target was a friend was: $\chi 2$ (N = 224, 65) = 138.38, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.53; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .05.

To determine if the scales could be modified to achieve better fit across targets, sources of misfit were identified for each target using the normalized residual covariance matrix and the modification indices. Relatively large covariances were observed among item three ("When I discussed the problem I was having, this person didn't seem to pay attention"), item five ("This person avoided me if I was depressed"), and item eight

("When I wanted to talk to this person, (s)he seemed to have other things to do") indicating localized strain. Modification indices further supported that these three items were the source of the majority of misfit for all three targets. When the items were examined, it became apparent the reverse-coded items could be measuring a different construct. Because of a lack of theoretical rationale and ability to test the three items as an independent factor, the items were removed from the models to examine model fit without them.

Following these modifications, model fit statistics indicated an improved fit for all targets. The model fit when the target was the ex-spouse was: $\chi 2$ (N = 226, 35) = 94.19, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 2.07; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .09, (CI = .06 - .11); SRMR = .05. The model fit when the target was the family member was: $\chi 2$ (N = 226, 35) = 137.78, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.65; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .11, (CI = .09 - .13); SRMR = .04. The model fit when the target was a friend was: $\chi 2$ (N = 224, 35) = 59.17, $p < .05$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.92; CFI = .96; RMSEA = .06, (CI = .03 - .08); SRMR = .04. Further examination of local fit via normalized residual covariances and modification indices yielded no theoretically interpretable remaining relationships, and thus the 10-item model was retained for further analyses in this study. Table 4.3 provides the means and standard deviations, as well as the standardized item estimates and standard errors for the factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and variance accounted for by the factor for the retained 10 items, for all targets.

Table 4.3

CFA Emotional Support Provision Effectiveness Item Statistics and Standardized Estimates

	Mean *(SD)*			Factor Loading *(SE)*			Intercept *(SE)*			Residual Variance *(SE)*			Factor R^2 *(SE)*		
Item	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR
1	1.58	3.64	4.25	.67	.81	.62	1.63	2.79	4.27	.55	.35	.61	.45	.65	.38
	(0.97)	(1.31)	(1.00)	(.06)	(.03)	(.07)	(.06)	(.16)	(.35)	(.08)	(.05)	(.08)	(.08)	(.05)	(.08)
2	1.56	3.81	4.49	.75	.85	.80	1.70	3.15	6.08	.44	.28	.37	.60	.72	.63
	(0.92)	(1.21)	(0.74)	(.05)	(.03)	(.04)	(.07)	(.19)	(.43)	(.08)	(.04)	(.06)	(.07)	(.04)	(.06)
4	1.63	3.79	4.22	.72	.76	.50	1.65	3.17	4.50	.48	.42	.76	.52	.58	.24
	(0.99)	(1.19)	(0.94)	(.07)	(.04)	(.08)	(.06)	(.20)	(.35)	(.10)	(.07)	(.08)	(.10)	(.07)	(.08)
6	1.73	3.79	4.39	.72	.81	.56	1.68	2.90	4.71	.50	.34	.68	.52	.66	.32
	(1.03)	(1.30)	(0.93)	(.06)	(.03)	(.08)	(.06)	(.16)	(.43)	(.08)	(.05)	(.09)	(.08)	(.05)	(.09)
7	1.64	3.94	4.40	.83	.86	.75	1.67	3.42	5.24	.31	.25	.43	.69	.75	.56
	(0.98)	(1.16)	(0.84)	(.04)	(.03)	(.06)	(.06)	(.23)	(.45)	(.06)	(.04)	(.09)	(.06)	(.04)	(.09)

Note. All factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and R^2 were significant at $p < .01$. EX = Ex-Spouse; FM = Family; FR = Friend.

(table continues on next page)

Table 4.3

CFA Emotional Support Provision Effectiveness Item Statistics and Standardized Estimates (cont.)

	Mean *(SD)*			Factor Loading *(SE)*			Intercept *(SE)*			Residual Variance *(SE)*			Factor R^2 *(SE)*		
Item	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR
9	1.83	4.28	4.48	.85	.80	.85	1.60	4.24	5.67	.28	.37	.27	.72	.63	.73
	(1.15)	(1.01)	(0.79)	(.04)	(.04)	(.03)	(.05)	(.35)	(.55)	(.07)	(.06)	(.05)	(.07)	(.06)	(.05)
10	1.74	3.88	4.32	.84	.82	.76	1.72	3.39	5.26	.30	.32	.42	.70	.68	.58
	(1.01)	(1.14)	(0.82)	(.03)	(.03)	(.05)	(.06)	(.22)	(.42)	(.05)	(.05)	(.07)	(.05)	(.05)	(.07)
11	1.63	3.78	4.40	.84	.85	.90	1.62	3.09	5.24	.30	.28	.20	.71	.72	.81
	(1.01)	(1.23)	(0.84)	(.03)	(.02)	(.02)	(.06)	(.18)	(.44)	(.05)	(.04)	(.04)	(.05)	(.04)	(.04)
12	1.93	4.01	4.32	.81	.78	.75	1.67	3.75	4.91	.35	.39	.44	.66	.61	.56
	(1.15)	(1.07)	(0.88)	(.03)	(.04)	(.05)	(.06)	(.25)	(.34)	(.05)	(.06)	(.08)	(.06)	(.06)	(.08)
13	1.74	4.04	4.43	.90	.82	.87	1.61	3.65	5.51	.19	.32	.24	.82	.68	.76
	(1.08)	(1.11)	(0.81)	(.02)	(.03)	(.03)	(.05)	(.26)	(.50)	(.04)	(.06)	(.04)	(.04)	(.06)	(.04)

Note. All factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and R^2 were significant at $p < .01$. EX = Ex-Spouse; FM = Family; FR = Friend.

In the ex-spouse model, standardized factor loadings for the remaining 10 items were statistically significant and ranged from .67 to .90 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .45 to .82). In the family model, standardized factor loadings for the remaining 10 items were statistically significant and ranged from .76 to .86 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .58 to .75). In the friend model, standardized factor loadings for the remaining 10 items were statistically significant and ranged from .49 to .90 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .24 to .81).

Closeness. Closeness was measured using an 18-item, unidimensional scale, with seven items reverse-coded prior to analysis. Model fit statistics indicated poor fit for all relational targets. The model fit when the target was the ex-spouse was: $\chi 2$ (N = 216, 135) = 467.94, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.20; CFI = .78; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .07. The model fit when the target was the family member was: $\chi 2$ (N = 215, 135) = 381.04, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.35; CFI = .81; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .07. The model fit when the target was a friend was: $\chi 2$ (N = 214, 135) = 325.02, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.24; CFI = .86; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .06.

Sources of misfit were identified for each target using the normalized residual covariance matrix and the modification indices. Larger covariances were observed in models for all targets among item four (“We feel very differently about most things”), item six (“We do not really understand each other”), item eight (“I distrust this person”), item ten (“I seldom interact/communicate with this person”), item thirteen (“I dislike this person”), item fifteen (“We are not close at all”, and item eighteen (“I have little in

common with this person”), indicating localized strain. Modification indices indicated that these seven items were the source of the majority of misfit for all three targets. When the items were examined, it was determined all seven items were the reverse-coded items and might be measuring a different construct of *not unclose*, as opposed to closeness. To test this theory, a two-factor model was estimated. Model fit was not greatly improved using the two-factor model and model fit remained poor overall for all targets. The model fit when the target was the ex-spouse was: $\chi 2$ (N = 216, 134) = 455.75, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.18; CFI = .79; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .08. The model fit when the target was the family member was: $\chi 2$ (N = 215, 134) = 336.79, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.28; CFI = .85; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .07. The model fit when the target was a friend was: $\chi 2$ (N = 214, 134) = 298.38, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.21; CFI = .88; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .06.

Because model fit was still not acceptable and not greatly improved with the two-factor model, localized fit indices were further reviewed. Examination of modification indices indicated model strain was still due to the reverse-coded items. Upon further examination of the items, it became apparent the reverse-coded items were identical reproductions of positive-worded items phrased negatively. For example, item three read, “I trust this person” and item eight read, “I distrust this person.” This identical wording of negatively reproduced items appears to measure differently and convolute the overall construct. To further examine this, I decided to estimate the models as a single-factor construct removing all reverse-coded items. Because the removed items were replications of positively worded items, I concluded I could examine this option without sacrificing the content and integrity of the original scale.

Following these modifications, model fit statistics indicated drastic improvement of fit for all targets. The model fit when the target was the ex-spouse was: $\chi 2$ (N = 216, 44) = 136.21, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.17; CFI = .88; RMSEA = .09, (CI = .08 - .12); SRMR = .06. The model fit when the target was the family member was: $\chi 2$ (N = 215, 44) = 76.72, $p < .05$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.42; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .06, (CI = .04 - .08); SRMR = .04. The model fit when the target was a friend was: $\chi 2$ (N = 213, 44) = 77.48, $p < .05$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.33; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .06, (CI = .04 - .08); SRMR = .04. Further examination of local fit via normalized residual covariances and modification indices yielded no theoretically interpretable remaining relationships, and thus the 11-item model was retained for further analyses in this study. Table 4.4 provides the means and standard deviations, as well as the standardized item estimates and standard errors for the factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and variance accounted for by the factor for all remaining 11 items, for all targets.

Table 4.4

CFA Closeness Item Statistics and Standardized Estimates

	Mean *(SD)*			Factor Loading *(SE)*			Intercept *(SE)*			Residual Variance *(SE)*			Factor R^2 *(SE)*		
Item	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR
1	1.64	4.20	4.23	0.85	0.85	0.83	1.58	3.91	4.11	0.28	0.29	0.31	0.72	0.72	0.69
	(1.04)	(1.07)	(1.03)	(.04)	(.04)	(.03)	(.05)	(.31)	(.35)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)
2	1.76	3.32	3.28	0.56	0.57	0.57	1.60	2.55	2.68	0.69	0.68	0.67	0.31	0.32	0.33
	(1.11)	(1.30)	(1.22)	(.07)	(.05)	(.06)	(.05)	(.12)	(.13)	(.08)	(.06)	(.06)	(.07)	(.06)	(.06)
3	1.68	4.21	4.20	0.75	0.78	0.78	1.53	3.83	4.27	0.44	0.40	0.41	0.56	0.60	0.59
	(1.10)	(1.11)	(0.99)	(.05)	(.04)	(.04)	(.05)	(.30)	(.32)	(.08)	(.07)	(.06)	(.08)	(.07)	(.06)
5	1.97	3.92	4.25	0.64	0.66	0.69	1.52	3.33	4.20	0.59	0.57	0.53	0.41	0.43	0.47
	(1.30)	(1.18)	(1.02)	(.05)	(.06)	(.07)	(.05)	(.22)	(.36)	(.07)	(.08)	(.09)	(.07)	(.08)	(.09)
7	1.76	3.79	4.11	0.62	0.59	0.63	1.55	3.31	4.15	0.62	0.65	0.60	0.39	0.35	0.40
	(1.14)	(1.15)	(0.99)	(.07)	(.06)	(.07)	(.05)	(.21)	(.31)	(.08)	(.07)	(.08)	(.08)	(.07)	(.08)
9	1.97	3.96	4.09	0.71	0.61	0.51	1.53	3.27	3.88	0.49	0.63	0.74	0.51	0.37	0.26
	(1.29)	(1.22)	(1.06)	(.05)	(.07)	(.07)	(.05)	(.22)	(.28)	(.07)	(.09)	(.08)	(.07)	(.09)	(.08)

Note. All factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and R^2 were significant at $p < .01$. EX = Ex-Spouse; FM = Family; FR = Friend.

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Table 4.4

CFA Closeness Item Statistics and Standardized Estimates (cont.)

	Mean *(SD)*			Factor Loading *(SE)*			Intercept *(SE)*			Residual Variance *(SE)*			Factor R^2 *(SE)*		
Item	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR
11	2.43	4.56	4.30	0.51	0.53	0.68	1.58	5.25	4.55	0.74	0.72	0.54	0.26	0.28	0.46
	(1.55)	(0.87)	(0.95)	(.06)	(.09)	(.07)	(.05)	(.57)	(.38)	(.06)	(.09)	(.10)	(.06)	(.09)	(.10)
12	2.36	4.15	4.20	0.58	0.67	0.78	1.68	4.32	4.84	0.67	0.55	0.39	0.33	0.45	0.61
	(1.41)	(0.96)	(0.87)	(.05)	(.07)	(.06)	(.06)	(.35)	(.41)	(.06)	(.09)	(.09)	(.06)	(.09)	(.09)
14	1.64	3.79	3.73	0.67	0.65	0.70	1.64	3.07	3.03	0.55	0.58	0.51	0.45	0.42	0.48
	(1.00)	(1.24)	(1.23)	(.06)	(.05)	(.05)	(.06)	(.19)	(.19)	(.08)	(.07)	(.07)	(.08)	(.07)	(.07)
16	2.32	3.83	4.11	0.60	0.68	0.59	1.80	3.51	4.30	0.64	0.54	0.66	0.35	0.46	0.34
	(1.29)	(1.10)	(0.96)	(.05)	(.06)	(.08)	(.07)	(.22)	(.34)	(.07)	(.08)	(.10)	(.06)	(.08)	(.10)
17	1.75	4.00	3.92	0.81	0.76	0.74	1.58	3.81	3.80	0.34	0.42	0.45	0.66	0.58	0.55
	(1.11)	(1.05)	(1.04)	(.04)	(.05)	(.05)	(.05)	(.27)	(.27)	(.06)	(.07)	(.08)	(.06)	(.07)	(.08)

Note. All factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and R^2 were significant at $p < .01$. EX = Ex-Spouse; FM = Family; FR = Friend.

In the ex-spouse model, standardized factor loadings for the remaining 11 items were statistically significant and ranged from .56 to .85 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .26 to .72). In the family model, standardized factor loadings for the remaining 11 items were statistically significant and ranged from .53 to .85 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .28 to .72). In the friend model, standardized factor loadings for the remaining 11 items were statistically significant and ranged from .57 to .83 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .26 to .69).

Relational satisfaction. Relational satisfaction was measured using a unidimensional, seven-item scale, with two items reverse-coded prior to analysis. Model fit statistics indicated good fit for all targets. The model fit when the target was the ex-spouse was: $\chi 2$ (N = 224, 14) = 30.29, $p < .05$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.29; CFI = .96; RMSEA = .07, (CI = .04 - .11); SRMR = .04. The model fit when the target was the family member was: $\chi 2$ (N = 223, 14) = 23.07, p = .06, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.64; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .05, (CI = .000 - .092); SRMR = .03. The model fit when the target was a friend was: $\chi 2$ (N = 221, 14) = 21.18, p = .10, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 2.09; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .05, (CI = .00 - .09); SRMR = .03. Examination of local fit via the normalized residual covariance matrix and the modification indices, supported the conclusion of acceptable model fit, thus the 7-item model was retained. Table 4.5 provides the means and standard deviations, as well as the standardized item estimates and standard errors for the factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and variance accounted for by the factor for all items, for all targets.

As demonstrated, in the ex-spouse model, standardized factor loadings for all seven items were statistically significant and ranged from .17 to .87 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .19 to .76). In the family model, standardized factor loadings for all seven items were statistically significant and ranged from .47 to .92 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .22 to .84). In the friend model, standardized factor loadings for all seven items were statistically significant and ranged from .36 to .91 (with R^2 values for the amount of item variance accounted for by the factor ranging from .13 to .83).

Table 4.5

CFA Relational Satisfaction Item Statistics and Standardized Estimates

	Mean *(SD)*			Factor Loading *(SE)*			Intercept *(SE)*			Residual Variance *(SE)*			R^2 *(SE)*		
Item	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR	EX	FM	FR
1	1.55	4.00	4.24	.44	.78	.75	1.53	3.70	4.67	.81	.39	.43	.19	.61	.57
	(1.02)	(1.08)	(0.91)	(.07)	(.04)	(.06)	(.06)	(.25)	(.37)	(.06)	(.06)	(.09)	(.06)	(.07)	(.09)
2	2.49	4.20	4.38	.81	.92	.91	1.68	3.86	4.87	.34	.16	.17	.66	.84	.83
	(1.49)	(1.09)	(0.89)	(.04)	(.02)	(.03)	(.06)	(.31)	(.43)	(.06)	(.04)	(.05)	(.06)	(.04)	(.05)
3	2.39	4.22	4.34	.75	.87	.85	1.68	4.18	4.56	.44	.24	.28	.56	.76	.72
	(1.43)	(1.02)	(0.95)	(.05)	(.03)	(.04)	(.06)	(.31)	(.40)	(.07)	(.05)	(.07)	(.07)	(.05)	(.07)
4	2.70	4.47	4.52	.17	.47	.36	1.69	4.36	4.74	.97	.78	.87	.03	.22	.13
	(1.60)	(1.03)	(0.96)	(.08)	(.09)	(.09)	(.06)	(.40)	(.46)	(.03)	(.08)	(.07)	(.03)	(.08)	(.07)
5	2.60	4.11	4.32	.78	.89	.74	1.76	3.49	4.65	.39	.21	.45	.61	.79	.55
	(1.49)	(1.19)	(0.93)	(.04)	(.03)	(.06)	(.07)	(.25)	(.38)	(.06)	(.05)	(.09)	(.06)	(.05)	(.09)
6	2.61	4.25	4.32	.87	.90	.90	1.73	4.01	4.63	.24	.19	.19	.76	.81	.81
	(1.52)	(1.06)	(0.93)	(.04)	(.03)	(.02)	(.07)	(.32)	(.37)	(.07)	(.05)	(.04)	(.07)	(.05)	(.04)
7	2.26	3.85	4.05	.70	.73	.64	1.60	2.87	3.33	.50	.47	.59	.50	.53	.41
	(1.42)	(1.34)	(1.22)	(.06)	(.05)	(.06)	(.05)	(.17)	(.21)	(.08)	(.07)	(.04)	(.08)	(.08)	(.07)

Note. All factor loadings, intercepts, residual variances, and R^2 were significant at $p < .05$. EX = Ex-Spouse; FM = Family; FR = Friend.

Relational Target Invariance Model Testing

In the previous section, I discussed CFA procedures used to achieve as good of model fit as possible for each construct across relational targets. Ultimately, improvement of model fit was achieved by removing items that were theoretically problematic and statistically indicated model strain. Despite efforts to ensure good model fit, the models differ in goodness of fit across relational targets. This could indicate that the constructs are measuring differently depending on the specific relational target. Thus, it was important to directly test if the psychometric properties of the items are generalizable across groups (i.e., the same construct measuring the same way for different targets) via measurement invariance testing.

In invariance testing, the goal is to have invariance in the item parameters, across targets, for each construct. In other words, the items do not vary or differ in their psychometric properties when the target is changed. At least partial, if not full, invariance is desired. Several types of invariance are tested below. Metric invariance testing assesses the extent to which the items load equally on the construct factor across targets. Scalar invariance testing assesses the extent to which item intercepts are equal across targets. Residual variance invariance testing assesses the extent to which residual variances for each item are equal across targets.

The extent to which the confirmatory factor models for each construct (i.e., risk in seeking support, emotional support provision, closeness, relational satisfaction) exhibited measurement invariance across the three relational targets (i.e., ex-spouse, family member, friend) was examined using Mplus v 6.12 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2010). Robust maximum likelihood (MLR) estimation was used for all analyses; accordingly,

nested model comparisons were conducted using the -2LL rescaled difference test to account for non-normality of data. A configural invariance model for each of the constructs, four total, was initially specified in which the three correlated factors (i.e., factors from each relational target) were estimated simultaneously. In this model, all items are free to vary across targets so that metric, scalar, and residual variance invariance can be tested in successive models. The first item loading for each construct was initially fixed to 1 and its intercept was fixed to 0 for each factor to identify the model; all factor variances, covariances, and means were then estimated. Residual covariances between the same items across relational targets were estimated as well. The specific models examined are described in detail below.

Risk in seeking support. Fit of the initial configural invariance model with the remaining five items was good following the revisions described during the CFA procedures: $\chi 2$ (N = 229, 72) = 85.42, p = .13, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.21; CFI = .986; RMSEA = .03, (CI = .00 - .05); SRMR = .05. Thus, I proceeded with the analysis by applying parameter constraints in successive models to examine potential decreases in fit resulting from measurement noninvariance across the relational targets.

Equality of the unstandardized item factor loadings across targets was examined in a metric invariance model. The factor variance was fixed to 1 for the ex-spouse but was freely estimated for the family and friend relationships. All factor loadings were constrained equal across relational targets; all intercepts and residual variances were still permitted to vary across targets. Factor covariances and residual covariances were estimated as previously described. The metric invariance model did not result in a

significant decrease in fit relative to the configural invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (8) = 10.85, p = .21. This indicates the items were related to the factor across targets equivalently.

I next examined the equality of the unstandardized item intercepts across relational targets in a scalar invariance model. The factor variance and mean were fixed to 1 and 0, respectively, for the ex-spouse for identification, but the factor variance and mean were estimated for the family and friend. The scalar invariance model fit significantly worse than the metric invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (8) = 200.83, $p < .001$. The modification indices suggested several intercepts were causing misfit. The intercepts of items 6, 3, and 1 were allowed to vary across targets, freed one at a time in the order presented, until model fit was not significantly worse than the previous metric invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (2) = 5.54, p = .06. This indicates that the groups do not have full invariance with regard to intercepts on three of the five items. The partial scalar model was retained to examine residual variance.

Equality of the unstandardized residual variances across targets was examined in a residual variance invariance model. As in the partial scalar invariance model, the factor variance and mean were fixed to 1 and 0, respectively, for identification for the ex-spouse target, but factor variance and means were still estimated for the family and friend groups. All prior factor loadings and intercepts were freed or constrained as previously discussed, and all residual variances were constrained to be equal across groups. Factor covariances and residual covariances were estimated as described previously. The residual variance invariance model fit significantly worse than the last partial scalar invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (10) = 42.91, $p < .001$. The modification indices suggested several residual variances were causing misfit and should be freed. One by one, residual

variances of items 1 and 3 were freed until a partial residual variance invariance model did not result in a significant decrease in model fit compared to the previous partial scalar invariance model, -2ΔLL (6) = 10.35, p = .25. This model demonstrates that variance not accounted for by the factors across targets was not the same for three of the five items. Final model fit was: $\chi 2$ (N = 229, 88) = 112.34, p = .05, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.19; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .04, (CI = .01 - .05); SRMR = .06. This analysis demonstrated partial measurement invariance across targets was obtained, but that the constructs are not identically measured across targets.

Emotional support provision effectiveness. The initial configural invariance model with the retained 10 items had acceptable fit following the revisions described during the CFA procedures: $\chi 2$ (N = 228, 372) = 677.96, p < .001, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.26; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .06, (CI = .05 - .07); SRMR = .06. Thus, I proceeded with the analysis by applying parameter constraints in successive models to examine potential decreases in fit resulting from measurement noninvariance across the relational targets.

Equality of the unstandardized item factor loadings across targets was examined in a metric invariance model. The factor variance was fixed to 1 for the ex-spouse but was freely estimated for the family and friend relationships. All factor loadings were constrained equal across relational targets; all intercepts and residual variances were still permitted to vary across targets. Factor covariances and residual covariances were estimated as previously described. The metric invariance model resulted in a significant decrease in fit relative to the configural invariance model, -2ΔLL (18) = 77.73, p < .001. The modification indices suggested several item loadings were causing misfit. Item 9, 12, 13, 10, and 11 were allowed to vary across targets, freed one at a time in the order

presented as suggested by fit indices, until model fit was not significantly worse than the previous configural model, $-2\Delta LL$ (8) = 13.29, p = .10. This indicated that half of the item loadings were related to the factor in differing ways across targets.

I next examined the equality of the unstandardized item intercepts across relational targets in a scalar invariance model. The factor variance and mean were fixed to 1 and 0, respectively, for the ex-spouse for identification, but the factor variance and mean were estimated for the family and friend. The scalar invariance model fit significantly worse than the previous partial metric invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (18) = 71.99, $p < .001$. The modification indices suggested several intercepts were causing misfit. The intercepts of items 9, 11, 2, 6, and 1 were allowed to vary across targets, freed one at a time in the order listed as indicated by fit indices, until model fit was not significantly worse than the previous partial metric invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (8) = 10.56, p = .23. This indicates that the groups do not have full invariance with regard to intercepts on half of the items. The partial scalar model was retained to examine residual variance invariance.

Equality of the unstandardized residual variances across targets was examined in a residual variance invariance model. As in the partial scalar invariance model, the factor variance and mean were fixed to 1 and 0, respectively, for identification for the ex-spouse target, but factor variance and means were still estimated for the family and friend groups. All factor loadings and intercepts were freed or constrained as previously discussed, and all residual variances were constrained to be equal across groups. Factor covariances and residual covariances were estimated as described previously. The residual variance invariance model fit significantly worse than the last partial scalar

invariance model, -2ΔLL (20) = 73.91, $p < .001$. The modification indices suggested several residual variances were causing misfit and should be freed. One by one, in the following order as indicated by modification indices, residual variances for item 11, 13, 9, and 2 were freed until a partial residual variance invariance model did not result in a significant decrease in model fit compared to the previous partial scalar invariance model, -2ΔLL (12) = 16.00, $p = .19$. This model demonstrates that variance not accounted for by the factors across targets was not the same for four of the 10 items. Final model fit with the partial residual variance invariance model was: $\chi 2$ (N = 228, 400) = 711.35, $p <$ .001, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.30; CFI = .922; RMSEA = .06, (CI = .05 - .07); SRMR = .07. These analyses demonstrated partial measurement invariance across targets was obtained, but that the constructs are not identically measured across targets.

Closeness. The initial configural invariance model with the retained 11 items had moderate fit following the revisions described during the CFA procedures: $\chi 2$ (N = 216, 459) = 777.33, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.09; CFI = .90; RMSEA = .06, (CI = .05 - .06); SRMR = .06. Since no additional improvements could be made, I proceeded with the analysis by applying parameter constraints in successive models to examine potential decreases in fit resulting from measurement noninvariance across the relational targets.

Equality of the unstandardized item factor loadings across targets was examined in a metric invariance model. The factor variance was fixed to 1 for the ex-spouse but was freely estimated for the family and friend relationships. All factor loadings were constrained equal across relational targets; all intercepts and residual variances were still permitted to vary across targets. Factor covariances and residual covariances were estimated as previously described. The metric invariance model resulted in a significant

decrease in fit relative to the configural invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (20) = 35.31, $p < .05$. The modification indices suggested the loading of item 1 was the cause of misfit, thus it was freed resulting in a partial metric invariance model not significantly worse than the previous configural model, $-2\Delta LL$ (18) = 24.44, $p = .15$. This indicated that all the item loadings except for item 1 were related to the factor equally across targets.

I next examined the equality of the unstandardized item intercepts across relational targets in a scalar invariance model. The factor variance and mean were fixed to 1 and 0, respectively, for the ex-spouse for identification, but the factor variance and mean were estimated for the family and friend. The scalar invariance model fit significantly worse than the previous partial metric invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (20) = 92.68, $p < .001$. The modification indices suggested several intercepts were causing misfit. The intercepts of items 11, 5, 16, 7, and 9 were allowed to vary across targets, freed one at a time in the order listed as suggested by modification indices, until model fit was not significantly worse than the previous partial metric invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (10) = 17.70, $p = .06$. This indicates that the groups do not have complete invariance with regard to intercepts on nearly half of the items. This partial scalar model was retained to examine residual variance invariance.

Equality of the unstandardized residual variances across targets was examined in a residual variance invariance model. As in the partial scalar invariance model, the factor variance and mean were fixed to 1 and 0, respectively, for identification for the ex-spouse target, but factor variance and means were still estimated for the family and friend groups. All factor loadings and intercepts were freed or constrained as previously discussed, and all residual variances were constrained to be equal across groups. Factor

covariances and residual covariances were estimated as described previously. The residual variance invariance model fit significantly worse compared to the last partial scalar invariance model, -2ΔLL (22) = 120.10, $p < .001$. The modification indices suggested several residual variances were causing misfit and should be freed. One by one, in the following order as indicated by modification indices, residual variances for items 11, 12, and 6 were freed until a partial residual variance invariance model did not result in a significant decrease in model fit compared to the previous partial scalar invariance model, -2ΔLL (16) = 25.85, $p = .06$. This model demonstrates that variance not accounted for by the factors across targets was not the same for three of the 11 items. Final model fit with the partial residual variance invariance model was: $\chi 2$ (N = 216, 503) = 843.34, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.12; CFI = .89; RMSEA = .06, (CI = .05 - .06); SRMR = .07. These analyses demonstrated partial measurement invariance across targets was obtained, but that the constructs are not identically measured across targets.

Relational satisfaction. The initial configural invariance model with the seven items had acceptable fit following the CFA procedures described earlier: $\chi 2$ (N = 225, 165) = 214.42, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.27; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .04, (CI = .02 - .05); SRMR = .05. I proceeded with the analysis by applying parameter constraints in successive models to examine potential decreases in fit resulting from measurement noninvariance across the relational targets.

Equality of the unstandardized item factor loadings across targets was examined in a metric invariance model. The factor variance was fixed to 1 for the ex-spouse but was freely estimated for the family and friend relationships. All factor loadings were constrained equal across relational targets; all intercepts and residual variances were still

permitted to vary across targets. Factor covariances and residual covariances were estimated as previously described. The metric invariance model resulted in a significant decrease in fit relative to the configural invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (12) = 52.44, $p < .001$. The modification indices suggested several items were causing misfit. One at a time, in the following order, items 1, 5, and 4 were freed until a partial metric invariance model was not significantly worse than the previous configural model, $-2\Delta LL$ (6) = 11.89, $p = .06$. This indicated that three of the seven item loadings were not related to the factor equally across targets.

I next examined the equality of the unstandardized item intercepts across relational targets in a scalar invariance model. The factor variance and mean were fixed to 1 and 0, respectively, for the ex-spouse for identification, but the factor variance and mean were estimated for the family and friend. The scalar invariance model fit significantly worse than the previous partial metric invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (12) = 83.98, $p < .001$. The modification indices suggested several intercepts were causing misfit. The intercepts of items 4, 5, and 6 were allowed to vary across targets, being freed one at a time in the order listed, until model fit was not significantly worse than the previous partial metric invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (6) = 7.16, $p = .13$. This indicates that the groups do not have complete invariance with regard to intercepts on three of the items. This partial scalar model was retained to examine residual variance invariance.

Equality of the unstandardized residual variances across targets was examined in a residual variance invariance model. As in the partial scalar invariance model, the factor variance and mean were fixed to 1 and 0, respectively, for identification for the ex-spouse target, but factor variance and means were still estimated for the family and friend

groups. All factor loadings and intercepts were freed or constrained as previously discussed, and all residual variances were constrained to be equal across groups. Factor covariances and residual covariances were estimated as described previously. The residual variance invariance model fit significantly worse compared to the last partial scalar invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (14) = 195.31, $p < .001$. The modification indices suggested several residual variances were causing misfit and should be freed. One by one, in the following order as indicated by modification indices, residual variances for items 2, 3, 4, 6, 5, and 1 were freed until a partial residual variance invariance model did not result in a significant decrease in model fit compared to the previous partial scalar invariance model, $-2\Delta LL$ (2) = .47, $p = .79$. This model demonstrates that variance not accounted for by the factors across targets was not the same for all items but item seven. Final model fit with the partial residual variance invariance model was: $\chi 2$ (N = 225, 177) = 231.70, $p < .05$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.27; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .04, (CI = .02 - .05); SRMR = .06. These analyses demonstrated partial measurement invariance across targets was obtained, but that the constructs are not identically measured across targets.

Implications of Invariance Testing

The results of the invariance testing for all constructs (i.e., risk in seeking support, emotional support provision effectiveness, closeness, and relational satisfaction) demonstrated that psychometric properties of the items did not measure equivalently across relational targets (i.e., ex-spouse, family, friend). Because of this, there is the possibility that differences between targets exist due to measurement variance as opposed to true differences across the targets.

To address this concern during hypothesis testing, it would be ideal to examine relationships between constructs using the latent level partial invariance models retained from invariance testing. This would allow for some items to vary across targets while constraining remaining items equivalent as allowed by model fit. In the current study, with a sample size of 229, this would not be plausible. The amount of parameters that would be estimated in order to examine the relationships between constructs in the proposed model of adjustment would not allow for sufficient power or confidence to interpret any results obtained using the latent level partial invariance models and would increasingly reduce model fit as variables were added to the model. As Schumacker and Lomax (1996) discuss:

> The use of items from an instrument to measure the latent variables in a structural model increases the degrees of freedom in the structural equation model and may cause problems in model fit. Suffice to say that measurement characteristics at the item level might be more appropriate for data-reduction methods and confirming the unidimensional construct of the instrument, than they are for structural equation models. (p. 81).

Without a larger sample size, an alternative for model estimation is to use composite variables as observed constructs, rather than the observed items for latent constructs. The composite variable is created from an average of all the items measuring a construct. The observed constructs can then be used in path analysis procedures, which was one of the first, and still common, uses of SEM (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). Because using the latent level partial invariance models to examine the relationships between the constructs is not plausible, I next detail analysis in which I examined predictors in regression

models using outcomes of the latent level partial invariance constructs compared to the composite constructs. By doing this, I am able to examine the standardized weights, standard errors, and significance values to see how they differ from each other. If there are not large differences between the models, theoretically the composite constructs should still reflect true differences across targets.

Model Comparisons Using Demographic Predictors

The first step in comparing models using composite constructs to latent constructs was to create the composite constructs for each scale. Composite scores for each individual were created using the mean of all items retained following CFA modifications. Based on completion rates, in order for a composite score to be created for an individual, that individual had to have a response and there had to be a value for at least 9 of the 10 items for adjustment, 4 of the 5 items retained for risk in seeking support, 8 of the 10 items retained for emotional support provision effectiveness, 9 of the 11 items retained for closeness, and 5 of the 7 items for relational satisfaction, for each target.

Four multivariate regressions, one for each construct, using demographic variables as predictors, were estimated twice: first using the latent constructs followed by using the composite constructs. Each construct for each target served as an outcome predicted by three demographic variables. This enabled the comparison of the estimated values, standard errors, and probabilities across models to examine if using the latent constructs compared to the composite constructs caused values to differ greatly. Models were estimated using only a small number of demographic variables (i.e., three) as a way

to reduce the number of parameters estimated in the latent construct models, but still enable comparisons of estimates, standard errors, and probability values between models.

Since sex of the partner (or in the ex-spouse model, sex of the participant) is often related to support provision effectiveness (Bodie & Burleson, 2008), this was one of the demographic predictors selected for inclusion. Additionally, age and time since the divorce were selected as demographic variables that would be present for all participants, whereas other demographic variables, such as having children with ex-spouse, would not be consistent across participants. Tables 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, and 4.9 show the standardized estimates, standard errors, and probability values for risk in seeking support, emotional support provision effectiveness, closeness, and relational satisfaction, respectively, for the latent construct and composite construct models.

Overall, few of the predictors are statistically significant in predicting the outcomes, which is not surprising as there is not a strong theoretical rationale for most of the predictors to be related to the outcomes (i.e., they were selected for comparison purposes). This is consistent in both the latent construct models and composite construct models, and in the one case where a value was significant; it was significant in both the latent construct model and the composite construct model (e.g., time since divorce was a significant predictor in the ex-spouse relational satisfaction model for both the latent and composite construct models).

Table 4.6

Standardized Estimates, Standard Errors, and Probability Values when Regressing Demographic Predictors on Risk in Seeking Support

	Ex-Spouse			Family			Friend		
Predictors	Est.	*SE*	*p*	Est.	*SE*	*p*	Est.	*SE*	*p*
Age									
Latent	-.008	.097	.936	-.128	.095	.180	-.188	.101	.061
Composite	-.015	.083	.859	-.117	.085	.165	-.170	.084	.043
Time Since									
Latent	-.027	.100	.787	.143	.089	.109	.126	.102	.217
Composite	-.021	.090	.814	.151	.081	.062	.126	.086	.142
Sex									
Latent	-.029	.080	.715	-.082	.061	.179	.024	.074	.747
Composite	-.018	.069	.798	-.067	.056	.232	.012	.061	.846

Note. Time Since = Length of time since divorce. Sex in the ex-spouse models is of the participant; sex in the family and friend models is of the target.

Table 4.7

Standardized Estimates, Standard Errors, and Probability Values when Regressing Demographic Predictors on Emotional Support Provision Effectiveness

	Ex-Spouse			Family			Friend		
Predictors	Est.	*SE*	*p*	Est.	*SE*	*p*	Est.	*SE*	*p*
Age									
Latent	.026	.090	.773	.047	.079	.551	.037	.076	.629
Composite	.036	.087	.676	.036	.078	.643	.016	.076	.834
Time Since									
Latent	-.112	.064	.083	-.128	.088	.147	-.052	.064	.415
Composite	-.106	.063	.094	-.123	.085	.148	-.046	.064	.478
Sex									
Latent	-.100	.078	.198	.046	.058	.427	-.008	.074	.913
Composite	-.107	.075	.154	.045	.057	.436	-.014	.071	.842

Note. Time Since = Length of time since divorce. Sex in the ex-spouse models is of the participant; sex in the family and fiend models is of the target.

Table 4.8

Standardized Estimates, Standard Errors, and Probability Values when Regressing Demographic Predictors on Closeness

	Ex-Spouse			Family			Friend		
Predictors	Est.	*SE*	*p*	Est.	*SE*	*p*	Est.	*SE*	*p*
Age									
Latent	.033	.101	.742	.086	.082	.297	.040	.083	.629
Composite	.104	.095	.274	.045	.078	.563	.027	.079	.733
Time Since									
Latent	-.041	.079	.602	-.096	.083	.250	-.037	.087	.670
Composite	-.095	.071	.191	-.076	.080	.342	-.033	.080	.684
Sex									
Latent	-.101	.077	.188	.030	.068	.655	.048	.094	.610
Composite	-.109	.073	.132	.018	.067	.787	.038	.091	.422

Note. Time Since = Length of time since divorce. Sex in the ex-spouse models is of the participant; sex in the family and friend models is of the target.

Table 4.9

Standardized Estimates, Standard Errors, and Probability Values when Regressing Demographic Predictors on Relational Satisfaction

	Ex-Spouse			Family			Friend		
Predictors	Est.	*SE*	*p*	Est.	*SE*	*p*	Est.	*SE*	*p*
Age									
Latent	-.051	.085	.547	.021	.086	.809	.028	.071	.693
Composite	-.011	.081	.891	.036	.082	.655	.029	.069	.671
Time Since									
Latent	.221	.090	.015	.031	.078	.687	.047	.063	.459
Composite	.170	.082	.038	-.017	.076	.822	-.001	.062	.983
Sex									
Latent	.002	.067	.976	.084	.068	.217	-.034	.066	.608
Composite	-.044	.066	.502	.074	.065	.251	-.029	.066	.664

Note. Time Since = Length of time since divorce. Sex in the ex-spouse models is of the participant; sex in the family and friend models is of the target.

When examining the estimates of the predictors between the latent construct and composite construct models, the estimates differ only slightly. The smallest distance between two estimates is .000, found in the risk in seeking support friend model with the time since divorce predictor (neither value was significant). The largest difference between estimates is .071, found in the closeness ex-spouse model with the age predictor (neither value was significant).

As expected, the standard errors indicated some reduction in size from the latent construct to composite construct models, indicating they are not accounting for as much measurement error. However, the differences are minimal. The largest distance between standard errors is .017, found in the risk in seeking support friend model with the age variable. Many of the standard errors remained the same between models (e.g., age and time since divorce variables in the friend emotional support provision effectiveness models), with many others only one or two thousandths apart, indicating similar standard errors.

These minimal differences are most likely due to the rigorous CFA procedures conducted prior to creating the composite scores (in which only the most effective and theoretically sound items were maintained), and the partial measurement invariance that was maintained for each model during the invariance testing. Because of this, the concern related to measurement error inaccuracies in estimates was greatly reduced. Although conducting hypothesis testing with composite constructs is not ideal when full measurement invariance could not be established, based on the latent construct and composite construct model comparisons, and given the sample size in the current study, I argue moving forward with path analysis using the composite constructs as observed

variables is acceptable, although this caveat should be noted with conclusions made during hypothesis testing.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I described the confirmatory factor analyses conducted to confirm reliability of the measures used in this study, and resulting modifications to the scales. I then detailed model invariance testing to ascertain if the constructs were measuring equivalently across relational targets. Finally, I advanced an argument for the decision to continue into hypothesis testing using composite constructs. In the following chapter, I detail the analysis and results of testing the hypotheses and research questions central to the current study.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

In the previous chapters, I outlined the recruitment strategies and psychometric analysis of the survey measures. After removing items convoluting the constructs and testing measurement invariance, I moved into hypothesis testing with the composite constructs. In this chapter, I describe the analysis methods used in answering the research questions and hypotheses using the retained composite constructs, and present the findings for the current project. Instead of presenting the results in the order of the research questions and hypotheses presented in chapter two, the results are presented in an order which reflects the temporal nature of the proposed social network model of adjustment to divorce: (a) adjustment to divorce to provide the context for the study (b) risk in seeking support in the context of divorce, (c) emotional support provision effectiveness following risk in seeking support in response to the divorce, and (d) closeness and relational satisfaction of the post-divorce relationships in which the support was sought and received.

A summary of the means and standard deviations for all constructs across relational targets is presented in Table 5.1. For adjustment to divorce, the current sample was relatively adjusted, $M = 3.90$ ($SD = 0.85$).

Table 5.1

Means and Standard Deviations for Risk in Seeking Support, Emotional Support Provision Effectiveness, Closeness, and Relational Satisfaction for Relational Targets

	Risk	Support	Closeness	Satisfaction
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Ex-Spouse	2.78 (0.94)	1.68 (0.83)	1.93 (0.84)	2.37 (1.01)
Family	2.59 (1.07)	3.90 (0.98)	3.98 (0.78)	4.16 (0.93)
Friend	2.22 (0.90)	4.37 (0.66)	4.04 (0.74)	4.30 (0.75)

Note. Measured on 1-5 Likert scale with higher scores indicating higher levels of construct.

Analysis of Differences in Construct Levels Across Relational Targets

Four research questions (RQ1, RQ2, RQ5, RQ6) in the current study examine differences in levels of constructs (i.e., closeness, relational satisfaction, emotional support provision effectiveness, risk in seeking support) between multiple relationships in their post-divorce states (i.e., ex-spouse, family, and friend). To examine each of these research questions accounting for the non-independence of the data from the one-with-many data collection design, a one-way, within subjects multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. For each test, the relational target served as the independent variable and the relational construct served as the dependent variable.

For risk in seeking support (RQ6), the results of the MANOVA indicated a significant difference between relational targets, Wilks $\Lambda = .75$, $F\ (2, 220) = 37.17$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta 2 = .25$. Post-hoc analysis using Fisher's LSD revealed significant differences between all relationships with risk highest for the ex-spouse ($M = 2.78$, $SD = 0.94$), followed by risk for the family member ($M = 2.59$, $SD = 1.07$), and least risk for the friend ($M = 2.22$, $SD = 0.90$).

For emotional support provision effectiveness (RQ5), the results of the MANOVA indicated a significant difference between relational targets, Wilks $\Lambda = .17$, F (2, 218) = 550.53, $p < .001$, partial $\eta 2 = .84$. Post-hoc analysis using Fisher's LSD revealed significant differences between all relationships with effectiveness of emotional support provision highest for the friend ($M = 4.37$, $SD = 0.66$), followed by the family target ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 0.98$), and lowest for the ex-spouse ($M = 1.68$, $SD = 0.83$).

For closeness in the post-divorce relationships (RQ1), the results of the MANOVA indicated a significant difference between relational targets, Wilks $\Lambda = .21$, F (2, 209) = 390.39, $p < .001$, partial $\eta 2 = .79$. Post-hoc analysis using Fisher's LSD revealed significant differences existed between the ex-spouse ($M = 1.93$, $SD = 0.84$) and both the family ($M = 3.98$, $SD = 0.78$) and the friend ($M = 4.04$, $SD = 0.74$) relationships, but not between the family and friend.

For relational satisfaction in the post-divorce relationships (RQ2), the results of the MANOVA indicated a significant difference between relational targets, Wilks $\Lambda = .32$, F (2, 216) = 390.39, $p < .001$, partial $\eta 2 = .68$. Post-hoc analysis using Fisher's LSD revealed significant differences existed between all relationships with highest satisfaction in the friend relationship ($M = 4.30$, $SD = 0.75$), followed by the family relationship ($M = 4.16$, $SD = 0.93$), and least satisfaction in the ex-spouse relationship ($M = 2.37$, $SD = 1.01$).

Analysis of Proposed Model of Adjustment

To address the remaining research questions and hypotheses, I proposed the social network model of adjustment to divorce. In this, I examine how the target-specific constructs explain and predict each other within each relationship in order to better

understand the state of post-divorce relationships with multiple partners, and how these target-specific constructs predict adjustment to divorce. Specifically, the model examines how risk in seeking support predicts emotional support provision effectiveness, how these variables then predict closeness and relational satisfaction, and how all of these variables predict adjustment to divorce in combination with divorcee individual characteristics. By including all variables simultaneously, the model demonstrates how these target-specific variables work together with the individual divorcee demographic predictors to explain adjustment to divorce. See Table 5.2 for the intercorrelations for all the variables included in the model.

Table 5.2

Intercorrelations for Model of Adjustment Variables

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	Initiator Status	--								
2.	Divorcee Sex	.27**	--							
3.	Children with Ex-Spouse	-.03	-.07	--						
4.	Time Since Divorce	.02	.10	.15*	--					
5.	Divorcee Age	-.03	.09	.36**	.54**	--				
6.	Adjustment to Divorce	.28**	.30**	-.04	.19**	-.10	--			
7.	Ex-Spouse Risk	-.07	-.05	-.01	-.08	-.03	-.08	--		
8.	Family Risk	.11	.07	-.02	.06	-.04	-.08	.19**	--	
9.	Friend Risk	.07	-.03	-.01	.01	-.10	-.22**	.18**	.64**	--
10.	Ex-Spouse Support	-.02	-.11	-.15*	-.13	-.09	-.10	.04	.03	.03
11.	Family Support	-.06	-.03	.05	-.05	-.01	.04	.06	-.57**	-.16*
12.	Friend Support	.06	.27	.07	.03	.05	.16*	-.04	-.24**	-.48**
13.	Ex-Spouse Closeness	.00	-.13	-.05	-.10	.00	-.30**	-.04	.11	.07
14.	Family Closeness	.00	.10	.00	-.05	.01	.06	.18**	-.37**	-.11
15.	Friend Closeness	-.01	.11	.02	-.03	.03	.14*	.13	-.20**	-.31**
16.	Ex-Spouse Satisfaction	.15*	.02	-.07	.12	.04	.16*	-.10	.15*	.01
17.	Family Satisfaction	.02	.09	.02	.04	.04	.09	.11	-.38**	-.11
18.	Friend Satisfaction	.01	.17*	.00	.05	.05	.20**	.09	-.16*	-.39**

Note. Risk = Risk in Seeking Support; Support = Emotional Support
*p <.05, **p <.01

(table continues on next page)

Table 5.2

Intercorrelations for Model of Adjustment Variables (cont.)

		10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
10.	Ex-Spouse Support	--								
11.	Family Support	-.09	--							
12.	Friend Support	-.30**	.29**	--						
13.	Ex-Spouse Closeness	.48**	-.07	-.14*	--					
14.	Family Closeness	-.03	.68**	.21**	-.03	--				
15.	Friend Closeness	-.09	.22**	.55**	-.10	.31**	--			
16.	Ex-Spouse Satisfaction	.42**	-.18**	-.12	.49**	-.15*	-.13	--		
17.	Family Satisfaction	-.14*	.74**	.25**	-.09	.77**	.18**	-.10	--	
18.	Friend Satisfaction	-.23**	.22**	.65**	-.14*	.26**	.75**	-.17*	.30**	--

Note. Risk = Risk in Seeking Support; Support = Emotional Support
*p <.05, **p <.01

Using the observed variables created from composite scores described in depth in chapter four, a path analysis was conducted using Mplus. All model estimations were conducted under robust maximum likelihood (MLR) to account for non-normally distributed and missing data. MLR allows all available data to be utilized while still accounting for non-normally distributed data by adjusting the standard error for the growth factor variance based on skewness or kurtosis (Muthén & Asparouhov, 2002). To help account for the non-independence of the variables across targets arising from the one-with-many data collection design in which one individual (i.e., divorcee) reports on three relational targets (i.e., ex-spouse, family member, friend), all constructs that were measured three times (i.e., once for each target) were set to covary in the model (Kenny et al., 2006). In other words, risk in seeking support, emotional support provision effectiveness, closeness, and relational satisfaction for ex-spouse was set to covary with each of those variables, respectively, for the family relationship and friend relationship, and then each of those variables was set to covary with the respective variables for the family relationship and the friend relationship.

The model fit statistics when the hypothesized paths and indirect effects were estimated indicated poor fit: $\chi 2$ (N = 221, 99) = 374.57, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.02; CFI = .74; RMSEA = .11, (CI = 0.10 - 0.12); SRMR = .08. To determine sources of model strain, the modification indices were examined. Sources of misfit were found primarily between the closeness and relational satisfaction variables for all three relational targets. These results were consistent with high correlations between these variables. Because these constructs both measure relational qualities, they were allowed to covary within targets (i.e., ex-spouse closeness covaried with ex-spouse satisfaction,

family closeness covaried with family satisfaction, friend closeness covaried with friend satisfaction) and the model was estimated again. The model statistics indicated improvement with a good fit retained: $\chi 2$ (N = 221, 96) = 166.41, $p < .001$, $\chi 2$ scaling factor = 1.01; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .05, (CI = 0.04 - 0.07); SRMR = .07. See Table 5.3 for the standardized estimates and standard errors for the covariance parameters. The standardized estimates for all hypothesized model parameters are shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.3

Standardized Estimates for Covariance Parameters

Covariances	Estimate (*S.E.*)
Risk in Seeking Support	
Ex-Spouse ↔ Family	.18 (.07)*
Ex-Spouse ↔ Friend	.17 (.07)*
Family ↔ Friend	.64 (.05)**
Emotional Support	
Ex-Spouse ↔Family	-.10 (.06)
Ex-Spouse ↔ Friend	-.33 (.07)**
Family ↔ Friend	.36 (.07)**
Closeness	
Ex-Spouse ↔ Family	.03 (.06)
Ex-Spouse ↔ Friend	-.02 (.06)
Family ↔ Friend	.16 (.06)**
Relational Satisfaction	
Ex-Spouse ↔ Family	.13 (.06)*
Ex-Spouse ↔ Friend	-.03 (.06)
Family ↔ Friend	.16 (.06)*
Target Relational Qualities	
Ex-Spouse Closeness ↔ Satisfaction	.36 (.07)**
Family Closeness ↔ Satisfaction	.52 (.06)**
Friend Closeness ↔ Satisfaction	.62 (.06)**

*p <.05, **p <.01

Table 5.4

Standardized Estimates for Hypothesized Model Parameters

Parameters	Estimate (*S.E.*)
Divorcee Demographics	
Initiator Status → Adjustment	.20 (.06)**
Sex → Adjustment	.19 (.06)*
Children with Ex-Spouse → Adjustment	.05 (.06)
Time Since Divorce → Adjustment	.26 (.07)**
Age → Adjustment	-.32 (.07)**
Risk in Seeking Support	
Ex-Spouse Risk → Ex-Spouse Support	.05 (.08)
Ex-Spouse Risk → Adjustment	-.04 (.06)
Family Risk → Family Support	-.60 (.05)**
Family Risk → Adjustment	.08 (.11)
Friend Risk → Friend Support	-.54 (.05)**
Friend Risk → Adjustment	-.29 (.09)*
Emotional Support	
Ex-Spouse Support → Ex-Spouse Closeness	.49 (.06)**
Ex-Spouse Support → Ex-Spouse Satisfaction	.44 (.06)**
Ex-Spouse Support → Adjustment	-.02 (.09)
Family Support → Family Closeness	.71 (.06)**
Family Support → Family Satisfaction	.76 (.05)**
Family Support → Adjustment	.10 (.10)
Friend Support → Friend Closeness	.53 (.07)**
Friend Support → Friend Satisfaction	.61 (.07)**
Friend Support → Adjustment	-.14 (.09)
Relational Qualities	
Ex-Spouse Closeness → Adjustment	-.38 (.08)**
Ex-Spouse Satisfaction → Adjustment	.32 (.06)**
Family Closeness → Adjustment	.09 (.09)
Family Satisfaction → Adjustment	-.04 (.11)
Friend Closeness → Adjustment	.01 (.09)
Friend Satisfaction → Adjustment	.10 (.10)

*p <.01, **p <.001

Divorcee demographics. The first set of hypotheses examined the influence of divorcee individual characteristics on adjustment to divorce. In examining the prediction that those who were the initiator of the divorce would have higher adjustment to divorce, H1 was supported ($\beta = .20$, $p < .001$). H2, which predicted females would have higher adjustment, was supported ($\beta = .19$, $p < .01$). Results for H3, which predicted having children with the ex-spouse was predictive of lower adjustment, indicated the hypothesis was not supported as no significant relationship was found ($\beta = .05$, $p = .39$). H4, which predicted a positive relationship between length of time since the divorce was finalized and adjustment, was supported ($\beta = .26$, $p < .001$). H5, which predicted a negative relationship between age and adjustment, was supported ($\beta = -.32$, $p < .001$). These results indicate many individual characteristics of the divorcee are predictive of adjustment levels, even when other relational variables are included.

Risk in seeking support. The next set of questions examined the relationship between risk in seeking support on support provision effectiveness for each relational target (RQ7) and on adjustment to divorce (RQ8). For the ex-spouse, risk in seeking support did not predict support provision effectiveness ($\beta = .05$, $p = .48$) or predict adjustment to divorce ($\beta = -.04$, $p = .52$). For the family relationship, a strong negative relationship was found for risk in seeking support and emotional support provision effectiveness ($\beta = -.60$, $p < .001$), but it did not predict adjustment to divorce ($\beta = .08$, $p = .50$). For the friend relationship, a strong negative relationship was found for risk in seeking support and emotional support provision effectiveness ($\beta = -.54$, $p < .001$), and a small negative relationship was found for risk in seeking support and adjustment to divorce ($\beta = -.29$, $p < .05$). This indicates that risk in seeking support for the ex-spouse

does not impact support provision effectiveness in that relationship, but does for both the family and friend relationships in which as risk levels increase, emotional support provision effectiveness decreases. In predicting adjustment to divorce, the relationships between risk in seeking support and adjustment were not significant for the ex-spouse or family relationships, but was for the friend relationship, where increased risk in seeking support in that relationship predicted lower adjustment to divorce. Additionally, although not hypothesized, all direct effects of mediated relationships were estimated between variables, thus risk in seeking support for each relationship was estimated for each relational quality of each relationship. Risk in seeking support was not predictive for the relational qualities in any of the relationships: closeness (ex-spouse: $\beta = -.08$, $p = .21$; family: $\beta = .06$, $p = .39$, friend: $\beta = -.07$, $p = .29$) or relational satisfaction (ex-spouse: $\beta = -.10$, $p = .09$; family: $\beta = .02$, $p = .75$, friend: $\beta = -.10$, $p = .22$).

Emotional support provision effectiveness. Moving temporally, the hypotheses concerning emotional support provision effectiveness follow the risk in seeking support analysis. It was hypothesized that emotional support provision effectiveness for each partner would positively predict closeness for each partner (H7), positively predict relational satisfaction for each partner (H8), and positively predict adjustment to divorce (H6). In examining these, H7 and H8 were supported in that emotional support provision effectiveness for each partner predicted increased relational qualities for each partner. For the ex-spouse target, a moderate positive relationship between emotional support provision effectiveness and both closeness ($\beta = .49$, $p < .001$), and relational satisfaction ($\beta = .44$, $p < .001$) was found. For the family target, a very strong positive relationship between emotional support provision effectiveness and both closeness ($\beta = .71$, $p < .001$),

and relational satisfaction ($\beta = .76$, $p < .001$) was found. For the friend relationship, a strong relationship between emotional support provision and both closeness ($\beta = .53$, $p < .001$) and relational satisfaction ($\beta = .61$, $p < .001$) was found. H6 was not supported in that emotional support provision effectiveness was not predictive of adjustment to divorce in any of the relationships: ex-spouse ($\beta = -.02$, $p = .83$), family ($\beta = .10$, $p = .37$), and friend ($\beta = -.14$, $p = .11$). These results indicate emotional support provision effectiveness has implications for relational qualities in post-divorce relationships, but does not uniquely predict adjustment to divorce overall.

Relational qualities. The third set of questions examined the relationships between post-divorce relational qualities across targets and adjustment to divorce (RQ3, RQ4). Significant relationships were only found for the ex-spouse outcomes in that closeness had a moderate negative relationship with adjustment to divorce ($\beta = -.38$, $p < .001$) and relational satisfaction had a moderate positive relationship with adjustment to divorce ($\beta = .32$, $p < .001$). These relationships were not significant in either the family relationship (closeness: $\beta = .09$, $p = .32$; relational satisfaction: $\beta = -.04$, $p = .72$), or the friend relationship (closeness: $\beta = .01$, $p = .89$; relational satisfaction: $\beta = .10$, $p = .30$). This indicates that the state of the relationship with the ex-spouse influences adjustment to divorce but this does not appear to be the case for the other relationships.

Additionally, because the model presumed full mediation for several paths, the indirect effects for any significant fully or partially mediated paths were also estimated. The standardized estimates of the significant indirect effect parameters are presented in Table 5.5. As demonstrated, there are significant indirect effects for all fully and partially mediated parameters that were significant in the proposed model.

Table 5.5

Standardized Estimates for Indirect Effects of Mediated Model Parameters

Parameters	Estimate (*S.E.*)
Family Risk → Family Support → Family Closeness	-.43 (.05)
Family Risk → Family Support → Family Satisfaction	-.45 (.05)
Friend Risk → Friend Support → Friend Closeness	-.29 (.04)
Friend Risk → Friend Support → Friend Satisfaction	-.33 (.05)
Ex-Spouse Support → Ex-Spouse Satisfaction → Adjustment	.14 (.03)
Ex-Spouse Support → Ex-Spouse Closeness → Adjustment	-.19 (.05)

Note. All indirect effects are significant at $p < .001$

The results from the analysis indicate multiple ways in which emotional support provision functions in relationships, and what factors are most predictive of adjustment to divorce. Figure 5.1 provides a visual representation of the significant paths in the proposed social network model of adjustment to divorce.

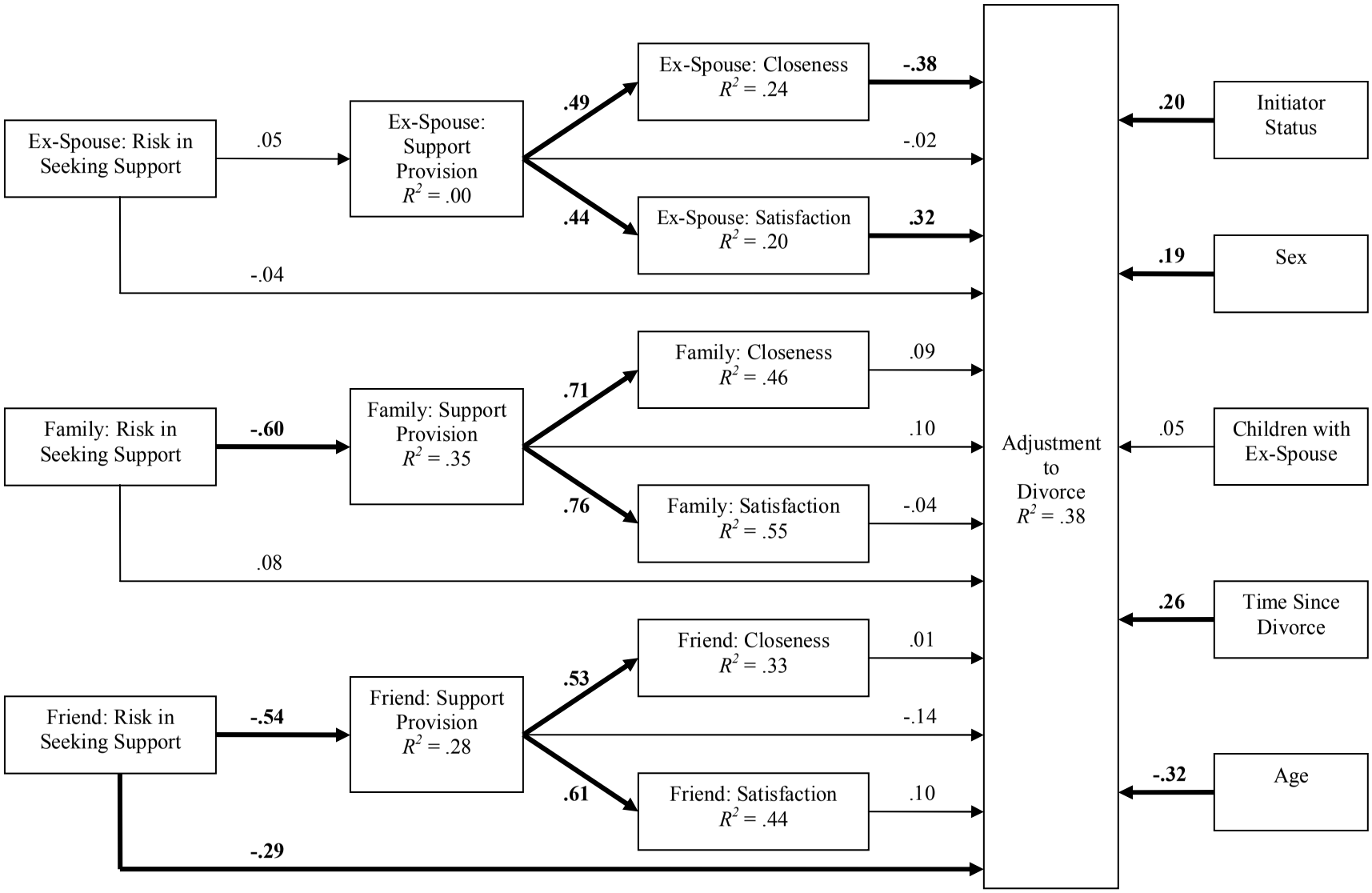

Figure 5.1 *Significant paths in social network model of adjustment to divorce* (Bold estimates and arrows indicate significant paths)

Taken together, these paths provide information as to the levels of variance accounted for in the final model and why there may be differences between post-divorce relationships. For emotional support provision effectiveness, close to no variance was accounted in the ex-spouse relationship ($p = .72$), 35% of variance was accounted for in the family relationship ($p < .001$), and 28% of variance was accounted for in the friend relationship ($p < .001$). For closeness, 24% of variance was accounted for in the ex-spouse relationship ($p < .001$), 46% of variance was accounted for in the family relationship ($p < .001$), and 33% of variance was accounted for in the friend relationship ($p < .001$). For relational satisfaction, 20% of variance was accounted for in the ex-spouse relationship ($p < .001$), 55% of variance was accounted for in the family relationship ($p < .001$), and 44% of variance was accounted for in the friend relationship ($p < .001$). Finally, 38% of variance was accounted for in adjustment to divorce ($p < .001$). Table 5.6 provides a summary of the hypotheses and research questions and findings from the current analysis.

Table 5.6

Summary of Findings from Hypotheses and Research Questions

Divorcee Demographics		**Findings**
H1:	Initiator status of filing for the legal divorce is related of higher adjustment to divorce.	Supported
H2:	Females have higher adjustment to divorce.	Supported
H3:	Having children with the ex-spouse is related to lower adjustment to divorce.	Not significant
H4:	There is a positive relationship between length of time since the divorce and adjustment to divorce.	Supported
H5:	There is a negative relationship between age and adjustment to divorce.	Supported
Relational Qualities		
RQ1:	Do levels of closeness in post-divorce relationships differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?	Differences between ex-spouse with both family and friend
RQ2:	Do levels of relational satisfaction in post-divorce relationships differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?	Differences between all relational targets
RQ3:	Do levels of closeness with members of a social network (ex-spouse, family, friend) predict adjustment to divorce?	Negative relationship for ex-spouse only
RQ4:	Do levels of relational satisfaction with members of a social network (ex-spouse, family, friend) predict adjustment to divorce?	Positive relationship for ex-spouse only
Emotional Support		
RQ5:	Do levels of effectiveness of emotional support provision differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?	Differences between all relational targets
H6:	Higher levels of emotional support provision effectiveness predict higher levels of adjustment to divorce across relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend).	Supported for all relational targets
H7:	Higher levels of emotional support provision effectiveness from each partner predict higher levels of closeness for that partner.	Supported for all relational targets
H8:	Higher levels of emotional support provision effectiveness from each partner predict higher levels of relational satisfaction for that partner.	Not significant for any relational target
Risk in Seeking Support		
RQ6:	Do levels of risk in seeking support differ between relational partners (ex-spouse, family, friend)?	Differences between all relational targets
RQ7:	Do levels of risk in seeking support for each partner predict levels of emotional support provision effectiveness from that partner?	Negative relationship for family and friend only
RQ8:	Do levels of risk in seeking support for each partner predict adjustment to divorce?	Negative relationship for friend only

Conclusion

In this chapter, I provided a description of my data analysis and statistical findings. Findings indicate the relationships of ex-spouse, family, and friend differ in the risk associated with seeking support, emotional support provision effectiveness, and in their post-divorce relational states. Findings further indicate emotional support provision effectiveness is important in understanding post-divorce relational qualities, but is not predictive of adjustment to divorce. The relational qualities themselves were only predictive of adjustment in the ex-spouse relationship. Four of the five individual divorcee predictors were significant in understanding adjustment to divorce. Further interpretation of these results, such as the importance of emotional support provision in relationships, and speculations as to the lack of findings regarding emotional support provision and adjustment to divorce, is provided in the following chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION

My goal in the current study was to highlight the role of emotional support provision in the divorce context utilizing a social network perspective. Specifically, I examined risks associated with seeking emotional support and effectiveness of emotional support provision from the ex-spouse, family, and friend relationships. This enabled additional understanding of social support's role in post-divorce relationships for the relational qualities of closeness and relational satisfaction, as well as how risk and provision of emotional support work with those relational qualities and individual divorcee characteristics to predict adjustment to divorce. Taken together, the findings more fully illuminate outcomes for multiple post-divorce relationships and highlight factors that predict adjustment to divorce.

In the preceding chapters, I provided the results of the psychometric analysis when adapting scales for assessment on multiple targets, and summarized the results of testing a social network model of adjustment to divorce. In sum, all scales needed modifications to be most accurate and when the scales are adapted to different relational targets, they do not measure constructs identically across partners. Relational targets differ in regard to levels of risk in seeking support and emotional support provision effectiveness, as well as in their post-divorce relational qualities of closeness and relational satisfaction. Several individual characteristics of divorcees predict adjustment to divorce. Risk in seeking support is related to emotional support provision effectiveness for the family and friend relationships, and to adjustment to divorce for the friend relationship. Emotional support provision effectiveness predicts both closeness and

relational satisfaction in all relationships, but, surprisingly, is not related to adjustment to divorce for any of the relationships. Finally, the current state of the post-divorce relational qualities for the ex-spouse relationship predicts adjustment to divorce. In this chapter, I discuss the conceptual, methodological, and theoretical implications that stem from these findings while highlighting directions for future research.

Social Network Model of Adjustment to Divorce

The analysis of the hypotheses and research questions resulted in several confirmations and surprises with regard to interactions and adjustment within the divorce context. One of the purposes of the current study was to examine how characteristics of the divorcee work in combination with factors of multiple relationships in understanding adjustment to divorce. Thus, I first discuss the implications of the findings regarding divorcee individual characteristics as part of a model that predicts adjustment to divorce.

Divorcee Individual Characteristics

The results of the current study confirm the role of individual characteristics of the divorcee when adjusting to divorce. Examining these becomes especially important when attempting to understand the role of relational and communicative components examined simultaneously in order to determine how individual and relational components function together in a model of adjustment to divorce.

Four of the five individual factors of divorcees examined were predictive of adjustment to divorce. As expected, those who initiate the divorce are likely to be slightly more adjusted than those who do not. This is consistent with previous literature and most likely exists because initiators have more time to process the divorce, have control over when it begins, and most often initiate in order to find individual fulfillment (Hopper,

1993; Vaughan, 1986). It is interesting to note that this finding was present in the current study even with approximately eight years as the average amount of time passed since the divorce was finalized. This indicates the desire to find more individual fulfillment (e.g., finding a relationship in which they feel valued, exploring new opportunities not supported by former partner) may have been realized or is still viewed as a worthwhile pursuit in the eyes of the initiators. Also as expected, females are slightly more adjusted than males. Consistent with literature, this may happen as women feel a sense of independence and more opportunity for personal and individual growth that may not be experienced in the same manner for men (Baum et al., 2005).

For factors related to time, the amount of time since the divorce was finalized is predictive of higher adjustment. As expected, the longer an individual is divorced, the more likely he or she is to be adjusted. This often occurs because people have more time to process the divorce and have more time to adapt to new circumstances following the divorce. During this time, divorcees are able to become more financially and emotionally stable (Hetherington & Kelly, 2002; Kitson, 1982) improving overall adjustment. Age is related to adjustment in that older individuals are more likely to be less adjusted to divorce. This finding may exist for several reasons as previously identified in literature. One reason this may exist is that the older the individual is, the more likely he or she was to have been married longer, thus there is a greater adjustment following the divorce (Kitson & Raschke, 1981). For the current study, this is purely speculative since the length of marriage was not collected and could not be correlated with the age of the participant. Additionally, the older generation may come from cohorts where societal

views emphasize a value on marriage that finds divorce less acceptable, thus adjusting to a divorce is more difficult (Bursik, 1991; Segrin & Flora, 2005).

Finally, in examining factors of individual parental status, having children with the ex-spouse was not related to levels of adjustment to divorce. Although it is often predicted that having children with the ex-spouse may reduce the likelihood of adjustment to divorce due to the maintained levels of interaction with the ex-spouse (Braver et al., 2006), results are mixed as to how long this factor remains relevant. Over time, parents are more likely to learn how to co-parent together and reduce tension that may exist in the post-divorce family (Adamsons & Pasley, 2006; Schrodt, et al., 2010). Because the average time since the divorce was finalized in the current study was over eight years, it is likely stressors from having children with the ex-spouse were less relevant. Additionally, of the 172 participants who have children from any relationship (144 have children with their ex-spouse), 59 of them do not have children that live at home further reducing the role of this factor on current adjustment to divorce.

Several of these findings help to explain why the divorcees in the current study were fairy adjusted to divorce. The majority of the participants were female (nearly 75%) and over half of the participants were the initiators of the divorce (approximately 66%). Additionally, the average time since the divorce was finalized was approximately eight years and prior research indicates adjustment tends to be reached and stabilized at around five years post-divorce (Hetherington & Kelly, 2002). Not only do these findings help explain why the divorcees in the current study are fairly adjusted, they confirm the importance of individual factors on adjustment to divorce.

These findings also provide several avenues for future research when examining individual factors that predict adjustment to divorce. First, future research would benefit from having a more stringent time range for the length of time since the divorce was finalized. In the current study this ranged from three weeks to 49 years. Perhaps assessing adjustment to divorce prior to the five-year mark would yield more insight into adjustment. Second, seeking a more equal ratio of male and female divorcees, as well as initiators and non-initiators, may reduce the bias toward higher adjustment levels and provide more information regarding factors that influence adjustment to divorce. Third, although nothing was assessed directly with race or ethnicity, approximately 85% of the participants identified as white or Caucasian. Because some research indicates race and ethnicity may influence adjustment to divorce (Rodrigues et al., 2006), a more diverse sample would help highlight if that is affecting the current findings. Although understanding the role of individual characteristics of the divorcee is important when examining factors that predict adjustment to divorce, more central to the current investigation is how these factors work simultaneously with the interactional components of emotional support and relationships.

Risk in Seeking Support

Divorce provides one context in which emotional support provision may be desired and necessary to help achieve adjustment (Burrell, 2002; Richmond & Christensen, 2000). When mobilizing support, individuals must assess the risk associated with doing so (Goldsmith & Parks, 1990). This is no different in the context of divorce where divorcees must assess the risk associated with seeking support from various relationships within their network. In the current study, participants were asked to reflect

on the risk they felt when seeking support at the time of the divorce from their ex-spouses, family, and friends. Interestingly, risk was relatively low for all relationships. Perhaps this is because divorce is a public process in which members of a divorcee's network must eventually know about the divorce (Hopper, 2001; Sprecher et al., 2006). Because members of the divorcee's network will inevitably know about the divorce at some point, discussing events pertaining to the event may not be as risky as they could be if discussing a more private life stressor.

Despite the levels of risk in seeking support remaining relatively low, all relational targets differed from one another in the risk associated with seeking support from them. Part of the matching hypothesis in the social support literature posits that support is best received from a partner who has familiarity with the distressing event (Cutrona & Russell, 1990) indicating risk might be lower in the ex-spouse relationship because the ex-spouse likely has the most familiarity with stressors associated with divorce. However, the ex-spouse target had the highest levels of risk associated with utilizing support in this relationship. The conceptualization of risk in the current study can further illuminate why this might occur. Risk in seeking support was assessed on factors such as fearing feeling dependent on the partner and wondering if talking about the problem would do any good. When interacting with the ex-spouse, it is likely the divorcees desire to become more autonomous of their partners (Hopper, 1993) but associate greater risk in remaining dependent by seeking emotional support in this relationship, a risk associated with informal support systems (La Gaipa, 1990). Additionally, divorcees may have already attempted to resolve issues within the

relationship and conclude discussing the problems associated with the divorce would be futile.

The family relational target had higher levels of risk in seeking support than the friend relational target. This may be explained by the voluntary and non-voluntary nature of these relationships. In a study of support systems for widows, Morgan (1989) found when widows were talking about interactions with family and friends they were more likely to speak negatively of family members. Morgan posited this was due to increased levels of dependency on family that widows wished to avoid. This could also be the case with divorcees. A fear of becoming more dependent on family again (primarily parents) after having established a separate independence following the launching stage (Pecchioni et al., 2005) may be more risky than the flexibility associated with the support interactions that occur with friends (Morgan, 1989; La Gaipa, 1990). Additionally, there may be more risk in talking to family members about divorce because these members could be closer to the divorce event and ex-spouse. With friends, there might be less risk in sharing information in a voluntary relationship this is likely farther removed from the divorce process than are the ex-spouse and other family members. Finally, divorcees have a greater degree of control over how their relationships continue in non-voluntary relationships as compared to the voluntary relationships with family, which have higher expectations for future interactions.

In examining the role of risk in seeking support in the divorce context, little is known about the relationship between risk in seeking support and the effectiveness of emotional support provision. This was examined for each relational target. Risk and support were unrelated in the ex-spouse relationship, indicating the higher levels of risk

associated with seeking support do not impact the effectiveness of emotional support provision in this relationship. Interestingly, there was a strong negative relationship found for risk in seeking support predicting the effectiveness of emotional support provision for both the family and friend relational targets. This indicates that as risk levels in seeking support increase, the effectiveness of the support provision decreases.

There are several reasons why this might occur. This finding could be due to the accuracy in assessing risk and those fears becoming actualized. In other words, if the divorcee is correct that discussing the problem with the individual will do no good, or that the partner will receive a negative impression of the divorcee, it is plausible that the support provided by the partner is actually less effective because the partner now holds negative reactions to the divorce and divorcee, a possible reaction from family and friends when learning of divorce (Cody et al., 1992; Vaughan, 1986). Alternatively, it could be that if the divorcees perceived higher risk in seeking support, they utilized strategies to reduce the risk of burdening the partner, which may have inadvertently reduced the opportunity for the partner to provide support. This would be consistent with research by Goldsmith and Parks (1990) who found that support recipients who used more strategies to reduce burdening their partners often had shorter and fewer support encounters. Finally, this finding could be a byproduct of the data collection design. Since divorcees were asked to reflect on the risk they felt at the time of the divorce, and *then* recall behaviors of their partners during conversations at the time of the divorce, it could be that with the passing of time divorcees are recalling the support as less effective because they were first asked to recall the levels of risk they associated with seeking support.

The final question in examining the role of risk in seeking support in the divorce context was whether or not risk for each relationship predicted adjustment to divorce. Interestingly, only one significant relationship emerged as this was found for friendships. For friends, as the risk in seeking support increased, the adjustment to divorce decreased. This was especially intriguing since the friend group had the lowest risk levels of all the relational targets. Perhaps this is because friends are seen as the most removed from the divorce and safest to approach in seeking support so when this risk increases in the group that is seen as least risky overall, the ability to adjust is decreased as the fears of burdening friends increases.

These findings provide interesting implications for the role of risk in seeking support within the divorce context. For this specific event, divorce, risk associated with seeking support is relatively low overall. Scholars need to examine risk in other contexts that have differing levels of both privacy and distress to further explicate the role of risk in support exchanges and adjustment to other stressors. Similarly, scholars need to further examine the relationship between risk associated with seeking support and support provision effectiveness in general. This may be especially useful in a study that examines the relationship between these variables where less time has passed since the triggering event occurred.

When examining risk utilizing a network perspective, it is interesting to note that the levels differed across relational targets. This contributes to the existing research on risk and social support. Goldsmith and Parks (1990) found most people recognize there is risk in seeking support so will usually select (and report on) supporters they expect to be receptive and sympathetic. Because divorcees in the current study were asked to report on

three individuals, scholars can start to identify how risk in seeking support may differ based on support provider. Although I have speculated why these levels may differ based on extant literature, a follow-up study in which participants are asked *why* they felt risk for a certain relational partner would help to untangle these findings further. Additionally, a future study examining why risk in seeking support with friends was the only relationship to emerge as related to adjustment to divorce is needed. Following the assessment of risk in seeking support is the provision of emotional support, which will be discussed next.

Emotional Support Provision Effectiveness

Social support is one factor that is consistently related to adjustment to divorce (Hughes, 1988; Krumrei et al., 2007). Additionally, effective support interactions can contribute to improved relationships (Cutrona et al., 2005; Dirks & Metts, 2010). In the current study, emotional support provision effectiveness was investigated to examine its role in multiple relationships and on adjustment to divorce. Divorcees were asked to reflect on behaviors that indicated more or less effective emotional support during exchanges with ex-spouses, family, and friends at the time of the divorce. The levels of effective emotional support provision differed between all relational targets.

Ex-spouses provided the least effective emotional support. Again, the matching hypothesis predicts that individuals with more familiarity with the context may be best able to provide support, and support is most effective when it matches the level of need (Cutrona & Russell, 1990). Although the ex-spouses would have the most familiarity with the context and struggles of divorce, they may be unable to provide emotional support for an event in which they are integrally a part. Thus, it is likely that family and

friends are better equipped to provide emotional support at levels that match the need required by the stresses that accompany divorce. Even though studies find divorcees may utilize support from ex-spouses, it may be other forms of support instead of emotional support (McLanahan et al., 1981). The conceptualization of emotional support provision in the current study involves having the partner help the recipient work through thoughts and feelings about decisions concerning the stressful event, in this case, the divorce. While an ex-partner may be helpful in providing information or tangible assistance, he or she may be less likely to provide emotional support.

Family members provided the second most effective emotional support. It is not surprising that family members were able to more effectively provide emotional support to divorcees than were ex-spouses, as family is often comprised of relationships that are long lasting in nature and in which support is expected (Pecchioni et al., 2005). This expectation of support is no different in the divorce context; family members, especially parents, are one of the most frequently relied upon sources of support following divorce (Duffy, 1993; Isaacs & Leson, 1987). One reason family relationships may not have provided support as effectively as the friend relationships may be explained by the high presence of parental support in the family category. In the current study, divorcees reported on parents for nearly half of all the family relationships selected. Isaacs and Leon (1987) found some parents might be detached or less helpful than desired or expected. Additionally, family members may be more likely and willing to provide tangible support, such as aid with child-care and financial concerns (Flowers et al., 1996; Kurdek, 1988), whereas friends are utilized more often for emotional support (Kurdek, 1988).

Because of this, friends were found to provide the most effective emotional support. This confirms previous research findings that friends are often the most commonly cited sources of support (Duffy, 1993) and may be more important in facilitating adjustment to divorce than family members (Hughes, 1988). This trend may exist because high levels of commitment can exist in friendships, but the feeling of obligation is less prevalent in friendships than in family relationships. McLanahan et al. (1981) drew a similar conclusion when the divorced women in their study recalled the high commitment levels in their friendships, especially with other divorced women who shared similar experiences. It is unknown in the current study if the friends utilized for support were divorced or had also experienced life transitions associated with divorce, but this may be one way a shared commitment and ability to provide effective support emerges. This would also be consistent with the matching hypothesis in explaining why friends (especially if divorced) would be best able to provide support and advice in response to stressors of divorce.

The effectiveness of support exchanges has implications for the relationships in which it occurred as effective support may improve relationships. This was confirmed in the current study whereby higher levels of emotional support provision effectiveness predicted higher levels of both closeness and relational satisfaction in all three relationships. These findings are consistent with prior research that indicates expression of care and concern can increase the quality of relationships (Burleson, 1990; Dirks & Metts, 2010). This occurs because people value support-giving effectiveness and those who are effective providers are more interpersonally prone to maintain quality relationships (Burleson, 1990; Burleson & Samter, 1985).

Interestingly, for the ex-spouse target, the predictive relationship between emotional support provision effectiveness and the relational qualities was moderate, but was strong in the friend category, and very strong in the family category. The differing strengths of these relationships, although not statistically tested, may indicate emotional support provision is more relevant for the family and friend relationships on these particular dimensions of relational quality. Additionally, in the family and friend categories, the relationship strength between emotional support provision effectiveness was slightly larger for relational satisfaction than closeness, indicating support may be expected and contributes to relational satisfaction as an expectation, in addition to bringing partners closer in those relationships. However, in the ex-spouse category, the relationship strength between emotional support provision effectiveness was slightly larger for closeness than relational satisfaction, indicating emotional support provision may not be as expected or as relevant to relational satisfaction in the ex-spouse relationship. This speculation is further corroborated by the variance accounted for by emotional support provisions effectiveness in each relationship for each relational quality. Only 20% variance of relational satisfaction compared to 24% variance of closeness was accounted for in the ex-spouse relationship, whereas 55% variance of relational satisfaction and 46% variance of closeness was accounted for in the family relationship, and 44% variance of relational satisfaction compared to 33% variance of closeness was accounted for in the friend relationship.

Nonetheless, despite differing strengths of the relationship for the various targets, the relationship between emotional support provision effectiveness and relational outcomes exists in all relationships. These findings are not surprising given the

importance of emotional support in relationships. These findings are especially enlightening, however, in that this did hold true for the ex-spouse relationship. Whether or not emotional support provision is expected, higher levels of effectiveness are related to higher levels of closeness and relational satisfaction across multiple relationships. Although I cannot claim high levels of emotional support provision effectiveness cause improved relational qualities, this is a plausible scenario. The model is hypothesized in a temporal order in which support provision precedes relational qualities. To best examine this in the current study, participants were asked to report on emotional support provision that occurred at the time of the divorce, but were asked to report on relational qualities that currently exist. Thus, the support provision preceded the current relational qualities.

Finally, central to understanding the role of emotional support provision effectiveness in the divorce context is examining how this provision is related to adjustment to the divorce. In the current study, it was hypothesized that more effective emotional support provision would predict higher levels of adjustment to divorce. Surprisingly, this was not found for any of the relationships. This was unexpected given the consistent relationship found between social support and adjustment to divorce in previous studies.

One reason this relationship might not have been present in the current study may be explained by the type of support assessed, emotional support from a specific relational target, and the conceptualization of adjustment to divorce. Krumrei et al. (2007) found in their meta-analysis that one-on-one interaction was more likely to buffer against maladjustment such as depression, whereas integration in networks was more likely to predict positive adjustment following divorce. Adjustment to divorce in the current study

was conceptualized as including aspects of having a relatively independent identity from the ex-partner, accepting no longer being married, and having an ability to organize and manage a new life following the divorce. This conceptualization is more consistent with conceptualizations of positive adjustment as opposed to measures of maladjustment. It is possible specific emotional support provision is not as related to this conceptualization of adjustment to divorce as would one's ability to become or remain integrated in a social network more generally. In other words, expression of care and concern are important for the relationship in which they occur, and can reduce levels of depressive symptoms, but are less important on predicting if a divorcee can organize a daily routine of living.

Similarly, although emotional support is often predictive of adjustment to divorce, other types of support, such as tangible support, are also needed (Kurdek, 1988). In the current study, tangible support was not assessed but may have been more predictive of aspects of adjustment to divorce pertaining to improved social and living situations. Wang and Amato (2000) for instance, found income and financial stability was a strong predictor of adjustment to divorce, while Kurdek (1988) and Isaacs & Leon (1987) found family provided needed assistance with childcare, which was pertinent to functioning following divorce. In the current study, 144 participants have children with their ex-spouses, indicating assistance with childcare and other tangible aspects of support may have been utilized and might be a stronger predictor of adjustment had tangible support been assessed.

Another possibility for the lack of relationship between emotional support provision effectiveness and adjustment to divorce could come from the network perspective and design utilized in the current study. For friends, there is a small positive

correlation between emotional support provision effectiveness and adjustment to divorce, indicating these two aspects are related (at least for the friend category). When entered into a larger model, however, the relationship does not account for unique variance in adjustment to divorce above and beyond the other factors examined simultaneously. So although emotional support provision effectiveness may be important, in combination with other factors, the other factors appear to be more relevant.

Additionally, although three specific relationships were addressed in the study, divorce occurs within a much larger network. Isolating three relationships from a larger network of interaction may still be insufficient to fully illuminate the importance of cumulative effects of relationships. In a similar vein, research indicates remarriage and new romantic relationships may play an important role in the process of adjusting to the divorce (Burrell, 2002; McLanahan et al., 1981, Tashiro et al., 2006). In the current study, 88 participants are remarried. Unless participants reported on new spouses in the family or friend category, it is unclear the role these partners play on adjustment to divorce. A follow-up analysis revealed that those currently remarried had significantly higher levels of adjustment to divorce than those who are not, so this may be another aspect of the network design that could be influencing the lack of findings in the relationships assessed.

Finally, adjustment in the current study was adjustment specific to divorce measured as a unidimensional construct. If adjustment was assessed on several dimensions of positive adjustment, maladjustment, and tangible aspects of adjustment, emotional support provision may have been a significant predictor on some of the dimensions. Similarly, if adjustment were assessed as a *global* measure of general

depressive or positive symptoms instead of divorce specific adjustment, results may have differed.

By examining emotional support provision from multiple relationships I am able to contribute to our understanding of where support is more or less effective in the divorce context and the role it has for the relationships in which it occurred. This has practical implications for individuals divorcing knowing that support can be effective in both family and friend relationships, but for emotional support, friends may be better able to provide support. Additionally, by including the ex-spouse as one of the relational partners examined, the role of the ex-spouse as a support provider following divorce is further illuminated. Some research indicates the ex-spouse is utilized for support following divorce, but the findings in the current study indicate they are unable or unwilling to provide emotional support effectively so may be better utilized for other types of support.

Another important finding from the current investigation is the confirmation of the role of emotional support provision in predicting relational qualities in post-divorce relationships. The effectiveness of the emotional support provision was related to both closeness and relational satisfaction, which were intentionally conceptualized with the purpse of accessing different dimensions of relationships: one based more on affect (closeness) and the other based on expectations (relational satisfaction). The findings corroborate that providing effective emotional support may be one way in which relationship quality increases, even in the context of divorce. Especially interesting is the finding that this was true for the ex-spouse relationship as well. This speaks to the value of effective emotional support provision in relationships when this finding still exists and

can lead to increased relational qualities within a relationship that has already deteriorated and dissolved.

The results also point to several avenues for future research. Three relationships were examined in the current study, but this still may not fully account for the multiple relationships in a social network following divorce. As indicated in adjustment levels for individuals remarried, the role of the new spouse may also be central to predicting adjustment to divorce. Future research should move to include the role of new spouses more directly to assess how emotional support provision in response to the prior divorce influences this relationship and adjustment to divorce.

Finally, I speculated as to why the relationship between emotional support provision and adjustment to divorce was not significant in any of the relationships in the current study and suggest this is examined further in future studies. It is logical to expect, and is supported by previous research, that receiving advice and discussing feelings related to the divorce would be predictive of processing, accepting, and adjusting to the divorce. To further examine the intricacies of social support and adjustment following divorce, I recommend examining multiple types of social support by including tangible and informational support with emotional support, simultaneously. Similarly, because adjustment following divorce involves many aspects of a person's life, I recommend including multiple measures or dimensions of adjustment including aspects of positive adjustment, maladjustment, and tangible aspects of adjustment, instead of using a unidimensional measure. The inclusion of multiple types of social support paired with multiple dimensions of adjustment to divorce, especially within a social network design,

will illuminate what kinds of support are most utilized in what types of relationships, and how those types of support predict various dimensions of adjustment.

Relational Qualities

The final component of the social network model of adjustment to divorce involves examining the current state of the qualities in post-divorce relationships themselves and how they are part of understanding outcomes following divorce. To do this, participants were asked to report on current levels of closeness and relational satisfaction in their ex-spouse, family, and friend relationships.

For closeness in post-divorce relationships, divorcees were less close to their ex-spouses than with either the family or friend relationships. The closeness levels did not differ, statistically speaking, between the family and friend relational groups. It is not surprising that divorcees are not close with their ex-spouses since it is likely a lack of closeness that contributed to the divorce to begin with (Kayser & Rao, 2006), and is not likely to increase in the post-divorce relationship as communication and interaction continues to decrease (Metts & Cupach, 1995).

It is promising to note, though, that both the family and friend relationships had high levels of closeness in their post-divorce states. This is a positive finding since one outcome of divorce is decreased relationships and relational quality with network members (Booth & Amato, 1994; Braithwaite & Baxter, 2006; Braver et al., 2006). However, it should be noted that this result could be partially explained by the design in the current study whereby participants were able to select *which* family member and friend they reported on, whereas for the ex-spouse there was only one option. It is most likely that participants reported on individuals they felt were supportive during the

divorce (consistent with Goldsmith & Parks, 1990), which contributed to higher levels of closeness in their post-divorce relationships. Despite this bias, it remains that relationships that were in existence at the time of the divorce (i.e., not new relationships following divorce) can have high levels of closeness following divorce.

Relational satisfaction was included in order to assess a different aspect of relationships by focusing on the expectations associated with that particular type of relationship, rather than on dimensions of affect. Despite this, closeness and relational satisfaction were positively correlated with each other in all relationships. The strength of this relationship was not as strong in the ex-spouse relationship, though, providing some support that the qualities assessed different dimensions for the relationship since ex-spouses could potentially have expectations met (relational satisfaction) without remaining close to their former partners.

When examining differences in relational satisfaction levels between partners, differences existed between all groups. Divorcees were least satisfied with their ex-spouses. Although it is plausible that divorcees could be more satisfied with ex-spouses if they adhere to expectations of being an ex-spouse, relational satisfaction in the ex-spouse relationship was still relatively low overall. This most likely occurs because the ex-spouse relationship is a confusing relationship with expectations less clearly defined than for other relationships (Goldsmith, 1980; McLanahan et al., 1981).

Relational satisfaction was high in both the family and friend relationships, with the friend group, statistically, slightly higher. Similar to conclusions drawn about closeness, this could be a product of design in which participants were able to select the family member and friend relationships on which to report. Participants likely selected

individuals they felt were supportive during the divorce and have a good relationship with currently. Despite this, the findings provide insight into the possibility of having high quality relationships in their post-divorce states.

Finally, it was unknown if the current qualities of post-divorce relationships themselves predict adjustment to divorce. Interestingly, this was only the case in the ex-spouse relationship in which higher levels of closeness predicted lower levels of adjustment to divorce, and higher levels of relational satisfaction predicted higher levels of adjustment to divorce. These results indicate that of all the factors examined in the current social network model of adjustment to divorce, the only ones that contributed to understanding adjustment beyond the individual characteristics of the divorcee were the relational qualities with the ex-spouse. The conceptualization of adjustment to divorce may help explain why this was the case for the ex-spouse relationship since it was a measure specific to the divorce and the ex-spouse and not a global measure of health or adjustment. It is logical that the current relationship with the ex-spouse then would help explain how well a divorcee is able to accept and adapt following the dissolution from that person.

Even more intriguing is the direction of the relationships between closeness and relational satisfaction when predicting adjustment to divorce. If divorcees are more satisfied with ex-spouses, they tend to have higher adjustment. There could be several reasons as to why having expectations met within this relationship predicts adjustment to divorce. The ex-spouses could meet expectations such as tangible assistance, which may contribute to financial adjustment. Additionally, if a divorcee feels their ex-spouse relationship functions as expected or better than *most* ex-spouse relationships (one of the

components of relational satisfaction as conceptualized in the current study), it is logical he or she would feel more adjusted. Conversely, and not surprisingly, if divorcees remain close to their ex-spouses they are less adjusted to the divorce. This finding likely stems from a reduction in the ability for the divorcee to become more independent and move on from the former relationship.

Several findings pertaining to relational qualities in post-divorce relationships are important to note. It is promising to find that relationships with family and friends can be maintained and retain high qualities in their post-divorce states. Even if research indicates divorcees may face reduction in numbers of network members, it is possible to maintain quality relationships in those that do remain intact following the divorce. Because this finding may stem from the ability of participants to select which relationships they reported, future studies should examine if participants are able to recall relationships in which emotional support was less effective and examine the post-divorce status of those relationships.

Additionally, the findings point to the need to more thoroughly investigate the role of the current relationship with the ex-spouse in adjustment following divorce. Although scholars have examined the role of the ex-spouse relationship when the divorcees are co-parents and its effect on post-divorce families (e.g., Schrodt et al., 2010; Schrodt, 2010), more research is needed to continue to understand this relationship for the individual adjustment to divorce, in addition to post-divorce family functioning.

The results discussed above contribute relevant and interesting theoretical information to understanding processes in the divorce context utilizing a social network perspective. However, because of the findings in the psychometric analysis (described in

chapter four), the results of the current study need to be interpreted cautiously. I next discuss the results in light of the implications of the psychometric analysis.

Scale Properties and Adaptation of Measures

As Levine (2005) stated, the quality and validity of measurement for much of published research is unknown. This is problematic because the results of a study "are no more valid than the measures used to the collect the data" (Levine, 2005, p. 335). Because of this, in the current study I conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as well as invariance testing for all the scales utilized.

Scale Measurement

When examining a construct by using a scale, it is essential to examine the validity and reliability of that measure. The most common reliability statistic presented in research is Chronbach's alpha coeffecient (Frey, Botan, & Kreps, 2000). Although alpha provides a foundation to begin to assess the quality of a measure, it is not sufficient because it does not test scale dimensionality, nor sufficiently assess fit in differing populations, assumes all items equally discriminate, and is influenced by the number of items (Green, Chen, Helms, & Henze, 2011; McGraw & Wong, 1996). To further examine the quality of a measure that has established a priori theoretical assumptions as to its construction, CFA is a useful, but underutilized, procedure. CFA provides information on the number of constructs measured and the extent to which each item measures that construct (Levine, 2005).

These concerns were addressed in the current study for all scales by testing fit and dimensionality via CFA. Results indicated this was an important step in pursuing the most accurate measurement possible. Adjustment to divorce was assessed first. This was

especially important when examining if items worked together to measure a single construct since the scale was created by adapting measures from two other scales. The scale had acceptable fit, indicating that proceeding with the measure was appropriate.

Risk in seeking support was examined next. For this scale, it was important to ensure the items measured the same construct as these particular items had not been used together before. This proved to be an important step as one item that appeared to be assessing a different dimension of risk was removed from analysis.

Furthermore, of the remaining three scales that are established and used prior to the current study, two needed to be revised to measure the constructs more accurately. The results of the CFA on the communication based emotional support scale (used to measure emotional support provision), indicated the three reverse-coded items were problematic to a unidimensional measure, but were not sufficient to create a second dimension of the scale. These items were removed in order to improve the quality of measurement of emotional support provision. Similarly, the use of reverse-coded items in the closeness scale were greatly confounding the accuracy of the scale. Although there were more equal numbers of positive and negatively worded items than in the case of the communication based emotional support scale, the negatively worded items were not measuring a second dimension of not unclose and were merely convoluting the unidimensional measure, thus were removed from all future analysis. The satisfaction scale was acceptable and retained for analysis.

The implications from these findings are not unique to the current study. Scholars utilizing scales in general need to better assess their measurement accuracy and quality before moving to hypothesis testing. If scholars neglect this step, the accuracy of findings

from any given study may be compromised. This should be done before each analysis, especially when scales are modified and used in different populations. Additionally, when scholars are creating and developing scales, more rigorous procedures need to be conducted when including and using reverse-coded items for unidimensional constructs since this was problematic in two of the examined scales. If researchers engage in more thorough assessment initially, they can be more confident in the conclusions they draw. By conducting CFA procedures on scales, I am able to more confidently interpret the results in the current study. Although these findings have relevant implications for research in general, as well as the current study, what may be more central to the current investigation are the results from the invariance testing, which are discussed next.

Measures Across Multiple Populations or Targets

It is not uncommon for a scale to be adapted to measure a construct in a different relationship than which it was designed (e.g., a satisfaction scale designed for marital partners adapted and used for friends). Very rarely when researchers adapt scales for the groups completing them, however, do they also assess if this alters the outcome of the way in which that scale measures. Green et al. (2011) argue scale reliability can vary across populations for which it is used; therefore, when adapting scales for new populations (or targets as is the case of the current study), the scale measurement needs to be further investigated. In the current study, participants completed four of the five scales multiple times, once for each partner (ex-spouse, family, and friend). Thus, it became important to determine if the scales measured differently when the target changed.

The results of the invariance testing proved an important step to take since none of the scales measured identically across targets. The scale that measured the most

similarly across targets was the risk in seeking support; relational satisfaction measured the most dissimilarly, with closeness and emotional support provision somewhere in the middle. The biggest source of noninvariance is most likely due to the inclusion of the ex-spouse relationship, the one relationship in which participants did not have several options from which to choose. These differences in measurement indicate that risk in seeking support, for example, when measured for the ex-spouse is measuring a different kind of risk or in a different way than when measuring risk in seeking support for the family or for the friend relational targets. As discussed in chapter four, one way to better account for noninvariance is to conduct hypothesis testing using the latent level invariance models. Unfortunately, the sample size in the current study would not sufficiently allow for this option, thus the composite constructs were used for hypothesis testing.

To address the concerns of using composite variables when complete invariance could not be established, I examined several regression models using both the latent level invariance models and the composite constructs. The results of these steps helped to somewhat alleviate concerns associated with using composite constructs since the models appeared to measure similarly, including little differences in measurement error. This finding is most likely due to the rigorous analysis and modifications during the CFA procedures, further confirming the importance of CFA prior to hypothesis testing. Additionally, although the scales did not measure identically across targets, partial invariance was attained for each scale. This also likely contributes to minimal differences between the latent level partial invariance constructs and composite constructs.

Although it was deemed appropriate to move forward using composite constructs when complete invariance between scales and targets did not exist, this should still be noted as a limitation of the current study. The findings regarding differences of levels of constructs between relational targets, and differences of strengths between variables, should be interpreted cautiously as these differences may be due to measurement error and not due to differences in the constructs themselves. Although the findings should be interpreted cautiously, when the CFA was conducted on all scales individually for each relational target, they all achieved acceptable goodness of fit (even if not the *same* goodness of fit). This indicates all scales are measuring *some* version of that construct within the relational target, and measuring it reliably, even if not identically across targets. Thus when examining the relationships between variables within a relational target, not comparing across targets, (e.g., does risk in seeking support predict emotional support provision in the ex-spouse relationship), the concerns are reduced because whatever kind of risk is being measured within the ex-spouse relationship is still explaining (or not explaining) whatever kind of emotional support provision was assessed in the ex-spouse relationship.

These findings highlight the importance of assessing scale measurement when researchers adapt scales for different populations or relational targets. Scholars too often make the assumption that scales are measuring reliably and similarly across populations when making comparisons, and this may not be the case. Researchers need to explicitly test these assumptions in the future.

Finally, based on the findings of this study, I recommend the collection of additional data to increase power. Once a larger sample has been attained, the analysis

conducted in the current study should be repeated utilizing latent level partial invariance models to determine if the trends discovered in the current study still exist when noninvariance is managed more effectively.

Summary Implications and Future Directions

Several implications have emerged from the findings of the current study, which provide several avenues for future research. Methodologically, researchers need to be more rigorous in developing and testing scales when moving to draw conclusions about their samples and populations. As demonstrated by the findings of this study, even established scales may require modifications (if theoretically acceptable) in order to measure most effectively. Additionally, when scales are adapted to multiple populations, they may not measure in the same manner and these assumptions need to be examined explicitly. For the current project, an important avenue for future research is to access a larger population and re-analyze the social network model of adjustment to divorce using the latent level partial invariance models in order to determine if the same trends are discovered.

Conceptually and theoretically, there is still much unknown about what, and in what combinations, individual, communicative, and relational factors contribute to adjustment to divorce. In the final model only 38% of variance for adjustment to divorce was accounted for and this was accounted for by only closeness and relational satisfaction with the ex-spouse, and the individual divorcee characteristics of initiator status, sex, time since divorce, and age. Similarly, when examining the state of post-divorce relationships, the effectiveness of emotional support provision helped to explain some of the variance for the relational qualities of closeness and relational satisfaction,

but only in one case (family relational satisfaction) did it account for more than 50% of the variance. Future studies need to include more variables to continue to understand what factors are functioning in relationships and interactions in the divorce context.

In regard to social support and divorce, it is highly recommended that future studies examine multiple types of support, multiple dimensions of adjustment, and multiple relationships from a network to better understand the mechanisms that underlie interactions in relationships within the divorce context. This may provide more insight into why emotional support provision was not predictive of adjustment to divorce in the current study. Additionally, to better understand multiple outcomes for relationships following divorce, future studies would benefit from having respondents report on ineffective support exchanges to determine the role these play in relationships and adjustment to divorce. With regard to risk and social support, this study provides a foundation for understanding the role of risk in seeking support as part of the emotional support provision process. Future studies are needed that further examine the role of risk and support exchanges in additional contexts and in additional relationships.

An additional limitation of the current study when examining social support is that there was no overarching theory guiding the study. As Burleson (2009) noted, this is a limitation of much of the social support literature in which there is no universal theory of support, but rather theorizing that stems from consistent findings in the literature. A similar study that utilizes a guiding theory might be able to discover additional mechanisms functioning in relationships within the divorce context.

Finally, a future similar study will benefit from diversifying the sample from which responses are collected. In 1988, Hughes noted the majority of divorce research

tends to focus on white, middle-class, often female, respondents. This trend has continued in the divorce literature and was the case in the current study where the participants were quite homogenous: primarily the initiators of the divorce, female, and Caucasian. In a related vein, a more stringent time range for how much time has passed since the divorce was finalized may yield differing results, helping further identify how time factors into the divorce context with relationships post-divorce and overall adjustment to divorce.

From the directions for future research summarized, I specifically intend to collect more data and diversify the participant sample as well as increase power to conduct modeling with latent level variables. In future projects, I also intend to continue to include the role of risk in seeking support in various contexts and examine how it functions with regard to effectiveness of support provision. Finally, I would like to further explicate the role of the ex-spouse in adjustment in the divorce process. Since the ex-spouse is central to the divorce process, but is also a causal factor in the proceedings, examining multiple types of communication during and following the divorce process, as well as further examining motivations and attributions for these interactions, will continue to shed light on the complexity of this particular post-dissolution relationship. Although this study was not without its limitations, the findings, as well as avenues of research that may stem from these findings, contribute to existing knowledge about social support in relationships in the divorce context.

Conclusion

Several findings from the analysis of the social network model of adjustment to divorce are of worth note. The finding that as the perception of risk in seeking support increases, the perception of the effectiveness of the emotional support provision

decreases contributes to an understudied aspect of social support exchanges. The findings in the current study also confirm the importance of effective emotional support provision in relationships since it was predictive of increased closeness and relational satisfaction for the ex-spouse, family, and friend relationships. This confirmation was magnified even more so because it was found even in the ex-spouse relationship, a relationship that is often confusing and turbulent. Finally, although the communicative elements examined in the current study did not predict adjustment to divorce, it is of note that the relationship with the ex-spouse was the only factor to help explain adjustment levels beyond what was explained by the divorcee individual characteristics. Overall, the findings from the current study extend theorizing on social support and further illuminate the role of multiple relationships in the context of divorce.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Recruitment Script

Communicative Interactions with Network Members and Adjustment to Divorce Recruitment- IRB Approval # 20110811824EP

My name is Sarah Wilder and I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Communication Studies at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. I am conducting research to learn more about divorce processes and the role of interactions with ex-spouses, family, and friends on the divorcing person's adjustment.

In order to participate in this study you must meet the following criteria: 1) You must be at least 19 years old, 2) your divorce must be finalized, and 3) you should be able to answer questions about interactions with your ex-spouse, a family member of your choosing, and a friend of your choosing (you can, but don't have to be close with any of them).
If you agree to participate you can access the survey online via Qulatrics at the following address:

https://ssp.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_cHk23dMx8klEt1y

All responses will be anonymous unless at the end of the survey, when you will be asked if you would like to list your name to receive research credit if you are a UNL student completing the survey for a course requirement, you choose to do so.

Additionally, if you are not completing the survey for research credit, you will be given the option to list your information to be entered into a drawing to receive a $15 Visa or Mastercard gift card. One person per every 25 participants will win a gift card. Drawings will occur within three months of the posting of this notice (11/27/2011); you will be notified within 24 hours of the drawing if you win that you may have a gift card mailed to you or an e-gift card emailed to you. Gift cards will be sent within 2 days of contact. Should you choose to enter your information it will not be associated with your responses and will be kept confidential only being used for the drawing. Your information will not be shared nor will you be contacted for follow up research, you will only be contacted if you win the $15 gift card, and your name and information will not be linked to your responses being stored separately, and will be deleted upon completion of the drawing.

Participation in this study will require approximately 20-30 minutes of your time. Your participation is completely voluntary. If at any time during the survey completion you do not feel comfortable, you may choose not to answer any question(s) and/or you are free to exit the survey.

If you have any questions, please contact me at wildersarah@me.com or (309)-531-8715.
Thank you for your consideration of involvement in this study.

Sarah Wilder
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Appendix B

Online Moderator Permission Request

Hi Group Moderator,

I'm a doctoral candidate at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. I am currently conducting a study about divorce processes and the role of interactions with ex-spouses, family, and friends on the divorcing person's adjustment.

In order to get participants who are or have been divorced for my study, I'd like to post my call for participants to your group. Before I post, however, I'd like to get your permission. Please let me know how you would feel about me sharing my study with your group or if you would be willing to pass the information along to members. Below you will find exactly what I would be posting online as well as contact information should you desire further information. I appreciate your help.

Thank you for your consideration,

Sarah Wilder

(Attach Appendix A- Recruitment Script here)

Appendix C

Script for Contacting Facilitators of Face-to-Face Groups

Hi Group Facilitator,

I'm a doctoral candidate at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. I am currently conducting a study about divorce processes and the role of interactions with ex-spouses, family, and friends on the divorcing person's adjustment.

In order to get participants who are divorced to complete my study, I'd like to share my study and call with your group. I'd be happy to come to a meeting to discuss my experiences and research more in depth and answer any questions individuals may have before deciding if they would like to access the survey, or I would be happy to send you more information about my study. I would also be happy to share my results with your group upon completion of the study.

To complete the study, participants just have to be 19 years or older and be legally divorce at some point in their past. To participate in the study, individuals access a survey online via a link I would provide to you or them and complete the survey online. It takes approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. Participants may remain totally anonymous if they choose not to provide any personal information, or they may enter information to be entered into a drawing to receive a $15 Visa gift card. One person per every 25 participants will win a gift card.

Please let me know if you would be interested in learning more, sharing with your group, or having me come discuss my research. I appreciate your help.

Thank you,

Sarah E. Wilder
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Appendix D

Informed Consent

University of Nebraska – Lincoln
Department of Communication Studies
Participant Informed Consent
Communicative Interactions and Adjustment to Divorce
IRB Approval # 20110811824EP

Researchers find that divorce can be a difficult process to manage and to adjust. One aspect that may aid in this transition is interaction with others. I am currently conducting a research study to examine how supportive or unsupportive interactions from multiple relationships (ex-spouse, family member, and friend) influence the adjustment to divorce. Information for the study will be collected via an on-line survey.

The following information is provided in order to help you make an informed decision about whether or not to participate. To be included in the study, you must meet the following criteria:

(1) You must be at least 19 years old, and
(2) You must be legally divorced

If you meet the above criteria, you may continue to the survey. The survey will ask you some demographic information and then ask you to answer questions about interactions during your divorce with your ex-spouse, with a family member, and with a friend or nonrelative. The entire survey will take approximately 20-30 minutes.

The information you share will not be linked to you in anyway as you do not have to enter any personal identifying information in order to complete this survey.

At the end of the survey you will be given the option to list your information to be entered into a drawing to receive a $15 Visa or Mastercard gift card. One person per every 25 participants will win a gift card. Drawings will occur within three months of the posting of this notice (Insert date for drawing); you will be notified within 24 hours of the drawing that you may have a gift card mailed to you or an e-gift card emailed to you. Gift cards will be sent within 2 days of contact. Should you choose to enter your information it will not be associated with your responses and will be kept confidential only being used for the drawing. Your information will not be shared nor will you be contacted for follow up research, you will only be contacted if you win the $15 gift card, and your name and information will be deleted upon completion of the drawing. The primary and secondary researchers will conduct the drawing and your information will be deleted upon completion of the drawing.

You may also choose to enter an email addresses to be sent a summary of the results found from this study.

If you choose to voluntarily submit your information to receive research credit or submit your name and information to be entered in a drawing, your name will not be associated with any of your responses and will remain strictly confidential. Your information will not be linked with your responses, as upon download it will be stored in a separate file and deleted upon completion of the drawing. Your responses will not be associated with you individually in any way, and your

name (if submitted for credit or the drawing) will not be tied to any of your answers, as they will be stored in a separate document, and deleted upon completion of the research. The only individuals with access to your responses will be the researchers of this study. Results will be presented at an academic conference and possibly published in an academic journal; however, no identifying information will be included in the presentation of these results.

You should also know that at any time throughout the survey completion you are free to take a break, choose not to answer any questions, and/or are free to exit the survey and withdraw from the study at any time without adversely affecting your relationship with the investigators, the department of Communication Studies, or the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. Your decision will not result in any loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

There are no direct benefits to you as a result of participating in this study. However, you will be contributing to a body of knowledge that is exploring communication and outcomes for those who experience divorce.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to contact Sarah Wilder at (309) 531-8715 or Dr. Jordan Soliz at (402) 472-8326. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant that have not been answered by the investigator or would like to report any concerns about the study, you may contact the University of Nebraska-Lincoln Institutional Review Board, telephone (402) 472-6965. In the event discussing your divorce makes you feel uncomfortable, you may contact the UNL Psychological Consultation Center at (402) 472-2351. It is the responsibility of each participant to pay for treatment if they choose to seek it. The researcher will not be held liable for treatment expenses incurred.

You are voluntarily making a decision whether or not to participate in this study. By clicking the agree button you are certifying that you have decided to participate, having read and understood the information presented and your consent is implied. You are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time without adversely affecting your relationship with the investigators or the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. Your decision will not result in any loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. By clicking the agree button you are also indicating that you are in fact at least 19 years old, and that you are legally divorced. You should print a copy of this informed consent for your records.

Please click the agree button below to agree to this information.

I agree

Date: _____

Should you have any questions regarding your participation in this study, please feel free to contact any or all of the following people:

Sarah E. Wilder
Phone: (309) 531-8715
Email: wildersarah@me.com

Dr. Jordan Soliz
Phone: (402) 472-8326
Email: jsoliz2@unl.edu

Appendix E

Questionnaire

The following questionnaire is designed to gain information about interactions with multiple members of your network during and following your legal divorce.

Personal Information

Select the most appropriate answer for the following questions.

1. How did you hear about the survey?
    a. Received a Mailing
    b. Online Group
    c. Communication Studies Website
    d. The link was passed to me from someone I know
    e. Other:

2. What is your current age? _____In years

3. What is your sex?
    a. Male
    b. Female

4. When was your divorce legal/finalized? _____Month and year

5. Who filed for the divorce?
    a. I did
    b. My ex-spouse did

6. Do you have children?
    a. No
    b. With my ex-spouse only
    c. With my ex-spouse and from another relationship

7. How many children do you have total? _____

8. Do your children reside with you:
    a. Part time
    b. Full time
    c. Not at all

9. Please list the race(s)/ethnicitie(s) for which you identify.

10. What is your current relationship status?
    a. Single
    b. Dating
    c. Remarried

Adjustment

The following statements are feelings and attitudes that people frequently experience during and following a divorce. Keeping in mind the divorce on which you are reporting, read each statement and select how much you agree with the statement

1) strongly disagree, 2) disagree, 3) undecided, 4) agree, 5) strongly agree

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
I have been happier than my spouse with the decision to divorce.	1	2	3	4	5
Looking back, I think the divorce was a good idea.	1	2	3	4	5
The divorce has improved my social situation.	1	2	3	4	5
The divorce has worsened my financial situation.	1	2	3	4	5
The divorce has improved my peace of mind.	1	2	3	4	5
I am comfortable telling people I am divorced from my former spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
It is difficult for me to accept I am no longer married.	1	2	3	4	5
It is easy for me to organize my daily routine of living following the divorce.	1	2	3	4	5
I believe it is best for all concerned to have our marriage ended.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel incapable of dealing with and facing my life and problems.	1	2	3	4	5

Partner and Relationship Information

Keeping your ex-spouse in mind, select the answer that is most appropriate:

1. What is the sex of your ex-spouse
    a. Male
    b. Female

2. What is the age of your ex-spouse _____ in years

Select a family member of your choosing with whom you had some communication during and following your divorce. You do not have to be close to this person, as long as you interacted some, but you may be close; it is up to you on whom you report. Keep this person in mind anytime you are asked to report on the family member.

Keeping your family member in mind, select the answer that is most appropriate:

1. What is the sex of your (targeted partner)?
    a. Male
    b. Female

2. What is the relationship of your family member to you (i.e., sister, mother) _____

3. What is the age of your family member _____ in years

Select a friend or acquaintance of your choosing with whom you had some communication during and following your divorce. You do not have to be close to this person, as long as you interacted some, but you may be close; it is up to you on whom you report. Keep this person in mind anytime you are asked to report on your friend or non-relative.

Keeping your friend in mind, select the answer that is most appropriate:

1. What is the sex of your (targeted partner)?
    a. Male
    b. Female

2. What is the age of your friend _____ in years

Seeking Support

For the following questions, keep in mind the interactions that occurred with your ex-spouse, family member, and friend during and following the divorce when working through and making decisions about the divorce and concern/problems. Please select the most appropriate response for each relationship. In other words, you should answer each question three times—once for each person. Please use the following scale.

1) strongly disagree, 2) disagree, 3) undecided, 4) agree, 5) strongly agree

	Ex-Spouse					Family member					Friend				
I was concerned this person would get a negative impression of me if I discussed the problem	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
*I was worried that this person might tell others about the problem	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I did not want to burden this person with my problems	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I was hesitant to talk about the problem because I did not want to feel dependent on them	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I was worried it was wrong to share this problem with this person	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I doubted whether talking about the problem would do any good	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Note. *Indicates item was removed from all analysis following CFA.

Communicating Support

For the following questions, keep in mind the interactions that occurred with your ex-spouse, family member, and friend during and following the divorce when working through and making decisions about the divorce and concern/problems. Please select the most appropriate response for each relationship. In other words, you should answer each question three times—once for each person. Please use the following scale.

1) strongly disagree, 2) disagree, 3) undecided, 4) agree, 5) strongly agree

	Ex-Spouse					Family member					Friend				
This person helped me work through my thoughts and feelings about decisions concerning the stressful event.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
This person patiently and sensitively listened to me talk about the problem I was having.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
*When/if I discussed the problem I was having with this person, he/she didn't seem to pay attention.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
This person helped me cope with my problems by offering help if I needed it and suggesting possible solutions.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
*This person avoided me when/if I was depressed.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
This person listened to me talk without judging me.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
This person said and did supportive things for me when/if I was feeling down.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
*When/if I wanted to talk to	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

this person, (s)he seemed to have other things to do.															
This person showed genuine concern for my problems.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
This person gave me good advice when/if I asked for it.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
This person made it very easy to discuss my personal feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
This person listened to my side of the story even (s)he thought I was wrong.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
This person made an effort to make me feel better when/if I was down.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Note. *Indicates item was removed from all analysis following CFA.

Closeness

For the following questions, keep in mind the relationship with your ex-spouse, family member, and friend following the divorce. Please select the most appropriate response for each relationship.. You should answer each question three times based on what you expect for that type of relationship. Please use the following scale:

1) strongly disagree, 2) disagree, 3) undecided, 4) agree, 5) strongly agree

	Ex-Spouse					Family member					Friend				
We are very close to each other.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
This person has a great deal of influence over my behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I trust this person completely.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
*We feel very differently about most things.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I willingly disclose a great deal of things about myself honestly and fully to this person.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
*We do not really understand each other.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
This person willingly discloses a great deal of things fully and honestly to me.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
*I distrust this person.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I like this person more than most people I know.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
*I seldom interact/communication with this person.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I love this person.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

I understand this person.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
*I dislike this person.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I interact/communicate with this person more than with most people I know.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
*We are not very close at all.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
We share a lot in common.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
We do a lot of helpful things for each other.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
*I have little in common with this person.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Note. *Indicates item was removed from all analysis following CFA.

Relational Satisfaction

For the following questions, keep in mind the relationship with your ex-spouse, family member, and friend following the divorce. Please select the most appropriate response for each relationship. For example, if your ex-spouse pays child support, and this is what you expect from the relationship, they could meet your expectations for that relationship. You should answer each question three times based on what you expect for that type of relationship. Please use the following scale:

1) strongly disagree, 2) disagree, 3) undecided, 4) agree, 5) strongly agree

	Ex-Spouse					Family member					Friend				
This person meets my needs.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I am satisfied with my relationship with this person.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
My relationship is a good relationship compared to other similar relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I often wish I hadn't gotten into this relationship or didn't have this relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
My relationship meets my expectations for this type of relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I am content with this relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
There are problems in my relationship with this person.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for taking the time to complete the survey.

Optional information follows. This will not be connected to your responses in any way.

If you would like to be entered into a drawing to receive a $15 Visa gift card, enter your name and mailing information below. One in every 25 participants will win a gift card. Drawings will occur within three months of posting date (11/27/11). You will be notified within 24 hours if you win. Your information will not be linked with your responses, as upon download it will be stored in a separate file and deleted upon completion of the drawing. No follow up information will be sent to you regarding research.

If you are completing this survey for research credit or extra credit in a UNL Communication Studies course, enter your name, your instructor's name, and the course below. Your information will not be linked with your responses, as upon download it will be stored in a separate file and deleted upon completion of the semester. No follow up information will be sent to you regarding research.