

FATHER ABSENCE AND FEMALES: EFFECTS
ON SELF-IMAGE AND IDEALIZATION
OF MOTHER AND FATHER

By

DAN ELKINS JONES
Bachelor of Science
Oklahoma State University
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Thesis Approved:

Kenneth P. Sandberg
Thesis Adviser

Julia L. M. Hale

Frances Everett

Norman H. Durham
Dean of the Graduate College

1042984

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The pattern of events which contribute to the formation of individual personality characteristics is subject to an astounding array of variations. While such variety serves to ensure that each person is quite unique, it simultaneously provides major obstacles to definitive investigations by people interested in human personality development. One major area which seems to be almost universally accepted as a primary factor in the acquisition of personal traits is the influence of family members, and especially parents, on the child. Most psychological theory is based on the assumption that each person is reared in an environment containing both a maternal and a paternal figure and possibly also containing siblings. Such a unit is called the nuclear family and has repeatedly been postulated to be the most desirable milieu in which any person can obtain the necessary combination of factors which would allow her or him to become a mature, functional, self-actuated individual. However, deviations from that idealized unit occur with some regularity and thus subject the developing child to situations which lack the balance of conditions that has been deemed most appropriate. Probably the most common of these situations in Western society is the one-parent home. It is interesting

to note that relatively few studies have been conducted on that specific type of family unit and that the studies which do exist focus on the effects of mother or father absence on the male child. The female child, on the other hand, has been largely ignored even though she is statistically equally represented in one-parent families.

The most salient investigatory relationships, in terms of research interests, have been father/son, mother/daughter, and studies of the effect of parental absence have sustained those interests by looking at the child of the same sex as the absent parent. Since there are a great many more homes without fathers than without mothers, the effect of the absence of a father on his son has received the most attention. Absence of the opposite-sex parent would by the same logic offer more opportunities to study girls without fathers, but to this date little research has appeared in that area. This particular study is an attempt to contribute to the existing knowledge of the effects of father absence on female children.

Review of the Literature

The effects that father absence has on the development of females has been investigated with respect to several dependent variables, but very few replications of any previous studies have been attempted.

Early research (Lynn and Sawry, 1959) suggested that father absent (FA) girls were more dependent on their mothers

than father present (FP) girls. That conclusion was substantiated by Hetherington (1972), but she indicated that such dependency was not a reliable finding. Indeed, Santrock (1970) and Heckel (1963) have evidence which contraindicates increased dependency.

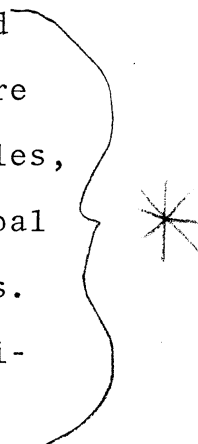
Santrock (1970) found that, in contrast to boys, the FA girls of preschool age were no more aggressive, no more feminine, and no more dependent than their FP counterparts. The lack of increased aggressiveness is corroborated by Hoffman (1976) who also observed no differences between FA and FP girls on indices of moral development. Wohlford, Santrock, Berger, and Liberman (1971) reported that FA girls may, in fact, be less aggressive than FP girls unless they have an older brother in the home. The presence of an older male sibling seems to make the FA child more like the child from the FP family in terms of aggressiveness and dependence. Studies of the rates of delinquency among adolescents have shown that the father-absent girl exhibits a higher rate of delinquent behavior than the father present girl (Monahan, 1957; Seigman, 1966; Toby, 1957). The types of delinquency reported for girls were of a different nature than those reported for boys. Females were most often arrested for sexual misconduct (primarily prostitution) and runaway, while males were most often arrested for robbery, vandalism, and assault (Monahan, 1957, Toby, 1957). When assault, vandalism, auto trespass, and property theft were used as the dependent variables in considering female

delinquency (Austin, 1978), it was found that father absence does not increase delinquency among black girls.

On the other hand, white FA girls were significantly more delinquent than white FP girls. Austin suggested that the social stigma faced by the FA girl in a basically white society (where father absence is a more "deviant" condition) may be more influential than economic disadvantage.

An area in which researchers consistently found significant differences between FA and FP girls was that involving the heterosexual behaviors each group exhibits. The reports of the nature of these behaviors, however, differed from one study to another. Biller (1974) reviewed the available literature and concluded that "the FA female is likely to have sex role conflicts and difficulties in attaining a satisfactory heterosexual adjustment" (p. 158). He also cautioned that the FP girl with an inadequate father may experience many of the same difficulties. Heckel (1963) described a group of FA girls who were "aggressive, negativistic, excessively interested and curious about sex, underachieving in school, daydreaming, lying, and refusing to join in the activities of their peers" (p. 70). He equated these girls with Nabokov's "Lolita." Biller and Weiss (1970) state that FA girls, especially in lower-class families, are the recipients of negative attitudes towards males which are transmitted by mothers, grandmothers, and other significant females. The attitudes "are often reinforced by observation of, or involvement in, destructive male-female relationships"

(p. 85). Trunnel (1968) pointed out that in his study, female children who had lost their fathers made blatant and awkward efforts to involve males in their activities. The FA girls studied by Nelson and Vangen (1971) were found to have begun dating at an early age and generally dated more frequently than FP girls. Additionally, the FA girls were more knowledgeable and expressive with regard to sexual matters. Hetherington (1972) was able to offer the most complete description of research heterosexual behavior differences. Studying white, lower class, 13 to 17 year old girls, she found the daughters of divorcees to engage more often in proximity-seeking and attention-seeking from males, early heterosexual behavior, and various forms of nonverbal communication associated with openness and responsiveness. In contrast, the daughters of widows manifested more inhibition, rigidity, avoidance, and restraint around males.



Hunt and Hunt (1977) studied both black and white junior high school and senior high school girls. They reported race differences in the way FA affects dating behaviors. White FA girls dated with slightly less frequency than their FP counterparts, while black FA girls engaged in significantly more frequent dating activity than black FP girls.

Thomes (1968) investigated the effects of FA versus FP on daughters' responses to the California Test of Personality subscales Social Standards, Anti-social Tendency, School Relations, Belonging, and Self Reliance and to the Bene-Anthony Family Relations Test. She found no significant

difference on any of these scales and concluded that there were no differences between the FA and FP groups on conscious perception of the self and peer relationships.

Cognitive development as measured by intellectual and achievement tests repeatedly has been shown to suffer from prolonged father absence (Bernstein, 1976; Bronfenbrenner, 1967; Deutsch, 1960; Deutsch and Brown, 1964; Hillerbrand, 1976; Landy, Rosenberg, and Sutton-Smith, 1967; Lessing, Zagorin, and Nelson, 1970; Sutton-Smith, Rosenberg, and Landy, 1968). On the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC), FA children demonstrated consistently lower scores on the Performance IQ than their FP peers, regardless of sex or social class. Lessing, et al., found that the Block Design and the Object Assembly subtests could each independently differentiate between the FA and FP groups. Within the FA group, however, sex-typical superiorities were consistent with the trends found on the original standardization group and FA girls therefore obtained exceptionally low scores on those traditionally male-oriented tasks. The Santrock (1972) study included research which evaluated the effect of the age at which father absence occurred and the severity of later IQ and achievement deficits. In general, the results indicated that early father absence (in years 0 - 5 of the child's life) is more detrimental to cognitive development than father absence beginning in later years. One exception was that boys experience more disruption when a father dies in the 6 - 11 year period. A corollary to that

was that boys whose fathers died in the 0 - 2 period tended to score even higher than FP boys on sixth grade achievement tests. Also observed in this study was that FA girls consistently scored higher than FA boys at all grade levels. Again, with the one exception noted above, FA children scored lower on both IQ and achievement tests than FP children regardless of sex.

Hunt and Hunt (1977) looked at achievement in terms of school grades. Of special note was the finding that father absence had no observable effect in either direction on the grades of black girls, but father absent white girls had a dramatically great tendency to have higher grades than white FP girls. This was theorized by Hunt and Hunt to occur because of the "releasing" effect that FA appears to have upon the inhibiting implications of conventional sex-typing with respect to achievement. That is, girls become free to achieve to potential rather than to be passive, caretaking, sex-role limited persons.

Lifshitz (1975) measured cognitive development in terms of ability to perceptually integrate neutral visual stimuli (Rorschach's Test). She found that a child's family structure (intact family versus family with deceased father) did not affect the organization of the ink blots. However, when considered in terms of how similar the child feels to the mother (Bieri Test of Cognitive Complexity), the FA subjects organized the neutral stimuli better when the social differences between child and mother were small, while the FP

subjects had more organized responses when they felt greater social dissimilarity from their mothers. Sex differences of the children were not discussed. Lifshitz interpreted her findings to mean that the FA child who feels socially different from her mother is likely to exhibit more insecurity in handling unstructured situations.

Further indication of disturbance exists in the finding that early parental loss (father loss outnumbered mother loss 2:1) was associated significantly with a greater number of consults, both psychiatric and general medical, for FA adolescents than FP adolescents (Seligman, Gleser, Rauh, and Harris, 1974). A related but more specific finding by Hill (1969) was that paternal death is related to a greater number of suicidal attempts by depressed female adolescents. That is, those female adolescents who lost a father between ages ten and fourteen and who later became depressed seemed to suffer a more severe depression. McDermott (1970), while studying divorce and its effects on children, observed that children of both sexes often identified with a lost parent in whole or part as a way of dealing with the loss and with the conflict surrounding it for both mother and child. Hoffman (1971a) found that girls in general who identified with their father were high in rule conformity. Sutton-Smith et al. (1968) reported that the FA girl who would ordinarily identify with her father and become competitive with a younger brother, fails to become competitive without the stimulus of a father.

Father absence due to death of the father was particularly likely to result in idealization of the dead parent by the daughter (Arthur and Kemme, 1964), and girls who so idealize a dead father were found by Birtchnell (1969) to strongly resent attempts to intrude upon or devalue the fantasy relationship with their fathers. Negative feelings toward the dead parent were denied and sometimes were projected onto the mother, who was held responsible for the father's death. Kestenbaum and Stone (1976) observed that when the absent father was idealized, the remaining parent was depreciated to some degree by all of the involved daughters. If the mother was not overtly blamed for the father's absence, she was at least the object of covert hostility which made some type of un verbalized truce between mother and daughter a necessity. Bach (1946) earlier reported

. . . that father-separated children produced idealistic fantasy pictures of the father who has a good time with his family and who is enjoyed by them. He gives and receives much affection and has little marital discord. This fantasy-father shows very little hostility and does not exert his authority (p. 71).

The FA girls were also shown by Bach to produce the greatest number of affectionate fantasies.

In light of the above findings, several general hypotheses come to mind. It would seem that the girl whose father died would idealize the image of him and would be likely to identify with her lost parent as a way of dealing with the loss and her internalized conflict. She would probably feel less able to compete with males in general and although

attracted to them, be quite uncomfortable approaching them or being aggressive around them. Thus she could become increasingly dependent upon her mother and might have a tendency toward depression while still in her adolescence.

On the other hand, the girl whose parents divorced would be somewhat less likely to idealize her absent father, partially because of the continued negative input of her adult female relatives. She could be more aggressive in her relationships with males because they are not idealized and yet her heterosexual behaviors might still be awkward or inappropriate because of a lack of parental role modeling and cross-sex exposure. Moral attitudes and self-concept of both groups of girls would seem to be subject to the same social influences found for girls from intact families. Likewise, the mother in the picture should be no more or less aggrandized in one group of girls than in another. The possible exception to this might be the widows, who potentially could be held responsible for their husbands' deaths, but who also could be providing support and emotional stability to an increasingly dependent daughter.

From those general hypotheses I offer the following specific hypotheses:

1) Girls from FA families will evaluate themselves no differently than girls from intact families.

2) Girls whose fathers died will have an image of their real fathers which is more idealized than girls from intact families or divorced families.

3) Girls from divorced families will have a less ideal image of their real father than either of the other groups.

4) There will be no significant differences in the evaluation of the mothers of each of the groups.

5) Remarriage of the mothers will have no significant effect on the evaluations of fathers, mothers, or selves of either of the FA groups.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects participating in this study were all female undergraduate students attending Oklahoma State University during the fall semester of 1973. All subjects were volunteers from introductory psychology and educational psychology classes and all subjects were given extra classroom credit for their assistance in the study. A total of 98 subjects comprised the subject population, which was divided into five subgroups whose membership was determined on the basis of specific identifying characteristics. The first group was a control group consisting of subjects who had been reared in an intact family; that is, a family in which both parents were alive and present throughout the subject's life. The second group was composed of subjects who had experienced separation from their fathers due to divorce of the parents. In this group the subjects' mothers had later remarried. The third group also was formed of subjects whose fathers were absent because of divorce, but in this group the mothers had never remarried. Groups four and five contained subjects who had lost fathers by the death of the father. In group four the mothers had remarried and in group five they

had not. Ages of the subjects ranged from seventeen to twenty-three, with the mean age being 18.6 years. Among the experimental subjects, the average age of separation from father was 9.9 years and the average length of separation (to date of testing or to remarriage of mother) was 5.0 years. Forty of the experimental subjects related having had a father figure while growing up, while thirty-one felt they had none.

The number of subjects in each group was not equal. This was because of the difficulties inherent in finding subjects who could qualify for group membership based on the above criteria. The 71 experimental subjects and the 27 control subjects were selected by means of a questionnaire given to almost 1400 women.

Procedure

The instrument chosen for evaluating self-image and for assessing the idealization of mother and father images was a 25-item list of semantic differential adjectives taken from the list appearing in Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957, p. 37). A seven point Likert rating scale was used in this instrument. Ratings for all 25 adjective pairs were recorded for each concept being described; however, primary attention was focused on the twelve adjective pairs most highly loaded on the evaluative (E) dimension. Each subject was given an instruction sheet (Appendix A) and five separate lists of the semantic differential adjectives (Appendix B).

Each list was labeled according to the individual to be described. The labels included: Self, Natural Father, Natural Mother, Ideal Father, and Ideal Mother. The labeled lists had been organized into random orders and each subject was allowed as much time as necessary to complete the descriptions. All data collection was accomplished in the same college classroom. The subjects were scheduled at thirty minute periods during specific times of several consecutive days. They were seated at individual desks with a male examiner presenting the task and remaining available to answer questions. There were usually two subjects in the room at any one time, but conversation was discouraged.

Statistical Analyses

On hypotheses 1, 4, and 5, two-tailed t-tests were utilized to investigate predictions of non-significant effects on the dependent variables by the independent variables.

Hypotheses 2 and 3 allowed the use of directional one-tailed t-tests while looking at predicted differences of the dependent variables with respect to specified independent variables. However, because of the high levels of significance found, the power of the two-tailed t-test was considered sufficient and all reported results appear in that measure.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The effect of father absence (FA) on self evaluation (hypothesis 1) was measured by comparing the FA groups to the control group in terms of their combined scores on the adjective pairs of the semantic differential scale which were loaded most highly on the evaluative dimension. Each of the four experimental groups was individually compared with the control group by subjecting those scores to a two-tailed t-test. It was found that none of the experimental groups differed significantly from the control group. The results of those comparisons are detailed in Table I and are supportive of the first hypothesis. The control group, composed of women from intact families, is designated INTACT on all tables. Similarly, DIV stands for the group of women whose parents divorced, and D indicates that group separated from their fathers by death of the father. RM and NRM are used to show that the mothers of the women in those groups remarried or never remarried, respectively.

The second hypothesis was tested by utilizing t-tests to analyze the scores obtained by taking the difference between the evaluative totals of the natural father and the ideal father of each woman and then summing those difference scores over the appropriate independent variables.

TABLE I
t-TEST VALUES (SELF-RATINGS)

Group	N	\bar{x}	SD	S ²
INTACT	27	22.30	5.74	32.91
DIV/RM	26	24.38	6.63	44.01
DIV/NRM	17	24.65	6.27	39.37
D/RM	11	23.91	5.30	28.09
D/NRM	17	24.24	6.71	45.07

t (INTACT vs DIV/RM) = -1.2239, df = 51, NS.

t (INTACT vs DIV/NRM) = -1.2681, df = 42, NS.

t (INTACT vs D/RM) = -0.8304, df = 36, NS.

t (INTACT vs D/NRM) = -0.9857, df = 42, NS.

Additionally, remarriage or failure to remarry was disregarded in this hypothesis, and so the information was further collapsed over the variables death of father (D) and divorce of parents (DIV). The t -scores found in Table II supported only one of the two relationships integral to hypothesis 2. That is, DIV versus D was accurately predicted and was at a high level of significance ($p < .001$, two-tailed). The second relationship, INTACT versus D, resulted in t -test scores which contradicted the hypothesized nature of the relationship. Examination of the means of these groups, as well as the t -scores, revealed that a statistically significant relationship exists ($p < .05$) in the direction opposite that predicted by the hypothesis.

The third hypothesis also was represented by two t -tests of relationships found in Table II. Both (INTACT versus DIV, and DIV versus D) were significant at the $p < .001$ level (two-tailed) in the predicted direction.

Table III provides the statistical information generated in the investigation of hypothesis 4. As predicted, the evaluations of the mothers by all groups were similar enough that no significant differences were found in any of the relationships which were compared.

Finally, Table IV provides support for hypothesis five. When each of the FA groups whose mothers had remarried were compared with those whose mothers had not, no differences were found in their evaluations of themselves, their mothers, or their fathers.

TABLE II

t-TESTS ON DIFFERENCE SCORES NATURAL FATHER - IDEAL FATHER

Group	N	\bar{x}	SD	S ²
INTACT	27	2.52	4.31	18.57
DIV/RM	26	20.08	14.17	200.87
DIV/NRM	17	16.47	13.73	188.64
DIV	43	18.65	13.95	194.61
D/RM	11	4.73	8.58	73.62
D/NRM	17	6.94	6.73	45.31
D	28	6.07	7.44	55.33

t (INTACT vs DIV) = -7.0642, df = 68, p < .001.

t (INTACT vs D) = -2.1751, df = 53, p < .05.

t (DIV vs D) = 4.9100, df = 69, p < .001.

t (INTACT vs D/RM) = -0.8125, df = 36, NS.

t (INTACT vs D/NRM) = -2.4153, df = 42, p < .05.

t (INTACT vs DIV/RM) = -6.0552, df = 51, p < .001.

t (INTACT vs DIV/NRM) = -16.8072, df = 42, p < .001.

TABLE III

t-TESTS ON DIFFERENCE SCORES NATURAL MOTHER - IDEAL MOTHER

Group	N	\bar{x}	SD	S ²
INTACT	27	4.04	5.56	30.96
DIV/RM	26	6.00	11.06	122.4
DIV/NRM	17	7.06	7.38	54.43
DIV	43	6.42	9.69	93.87
D/RM	11	7.09	7.01	49.09
D/NRM	17	7.06	11.79	139.06
D	28	7.07	10.03	100.59

t (INTACT vs DIV) = -1.3052, df = 68, NS.

t (INTACT vs D) = -1.3939, df = 53, NS.

t (DIV vs D) = 0.2716, df = 69, NS.

t (INTACT vs D/RM) = -1.2894, df = 36, NS.

t (INTACT vs D/NRM) = -0.9894, df = 42, NS.

t (INTACT vs DIV/RM) = -0.8113, df = 51, NS.

t (INTACT vs DIV/NRM) = -1.4490, df = 42, NS.

TABLE IV
t-TEST VALUES (RM vs NRM)

Self-Ratings:

t (DIV/RM vs DIV/NRM) = -0.1311, df = 41, NS.

t (D/RM vs D/NRM) = -0.1430, df = 26, NS.

Natural Father - Ideal Father:

t (DIV/RM vs DIV/NRM) = 0.8321, df = 41, NS.

t (D/RM vs D/NRM) = -0.7224, df = 26, NS.

Natural Mother - Ideal Mother:

t (DIV/RM vs DIV/NRM) = -0.3769, df = 41, NS.

t (D/RM vs D/NRM) = 0.0084, df = 26, NS.

In summary, all hypotheses were supported with one exception. That exception involved the comparison of natural and ideal fathers on the second hypothesis. In that case, the relationship between the INTACT and the D groups would have been significant had the opposite direction been predicted.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Prior to discussing the specific hypotheses integral to this study, it seems appropriate to explore with the reader the particular set of difficulties associated with the acquisition of experimental subjects. Since no previous investigator had reported unusual problems in locating father-absent females, initial plans for this study included provisions for instituting a variety of controls across groups. An information sheet (see Appendix C) was filled out by all of the women in introductory psychology and educational psychology classes at a major state university. That questionnaire was designed to discriminate among subjects on bases of type of separation from father, age at separation, remarriage by mother, length of separation before remarriage of mother, presence of a substitute father figure, birth order, family size, socioeconomic status, and geographical area type. When the questionnaires were collected and analyzed, it was decided that placing even half of those controls on experimental groups would result in excessive fragmentation of already amazingly small groups.

Even the primary identifier (father absence) was much less common among the college female population than would have been predicted from general population statistics. Only

71 women out of almost 1400 women answering the questionnaire indicated that they had absent fathers. That figure seems obviously quite low in comparison to estimates of the current divorce rate which by itself is nearly one of every three marriages. Forty-three women out of the surveyed population came from divorced families and lived with their mothers while growing up. That is approximately three percent. Those whose fathers had died (28) represented about two percent of the sample. While a somewhat lower number had been expected in that case, a two percent figure still came as a surprise. Explanations seemed necessary.

One reason for so few FA subjects may be the finances involved in attending college. Perhaps girls without fathers simply do not receive the monetary support that is necessary. While such a statement may fit superficially, there are several arguments against it. First, women whose mothers had remarried were still considered appropriate for inclusion in the study. That would suggest that the family's income should approximate the income of an FP family. In that instance, it would logically follow that there would be a great many more women with remarried mothers than with mothers who never remarried. In fact, 37 women had mothers who remarried and 34 had mothers who did not. However, further confounding the picture is the information that half again as many women in the divorce group (26 vs 17) had remarried mothers, but half again as many mothers of women in the group with deceased fathers (17 vs 11) had not remarried.

Approached in this direction, it may be seen as financially more advantageous for widows to remain unmarried because of survivors' benefits, social security, and so forth, which possibly would be discontinued upon remarriage. Or perhaps insurance money would make it easier for a widow to provide for her family without pressuring her to locate monetary help such as that provided by a spouse.

A second reason for the low percentage of experimental subjects might have been the wording of the selection questionnaire. Girls who regularly saw their fathers after their parents' divorce may not have interpreted the condition of the relationship as being separation. During the oral presentation of the questionnaire, however, separation was equated with the absence of the natural father from the home in which the woman was reared. There were few questions raised during presentation of the questionnaire and so it was assumed the wording was fairly clear with regard to intended meaning.

A third possible explanation is that the discrepancies in cognitive development which have been found to be to the disadvantage of the FA girl have served to prevent many FA girls from entering college. Both the real limitations of abilities and the psychological effect of repeatedly falling short in academic interactions with age-peers may serve as influences which discourage matriculation into the highly competitive university atmosphere.

It is additionally possible that the survey reflected

no lack of subjects, but rather a lack of subjects willing to admit to the identifying characteristics and/or willing to have someone delve with them into a life situation with many unhappy memories and unpleasant feelings attached to it. The divorce of one's parents, even though it does not make one a social outcast, certainly still has some negative import to others besides the involved family. The absence of a father is discussed behind one's back, is given by many as an excuse for poor scholastic performance, unrefined social skills, badly controlled anger, and any of a number of other less than desirable conditions. It sometimes evokes unwanted pity or sometimes results in undeserved ostracism. Perhaps the rewards offered for participating in the study did not sufficiently offset the perceived social liabilities or emotional hardships which could potentially be suffered.

Some girls may simply have not wished to answer any questions about themselves or their families. They may have felt that their mothers would have objected or that someone's privacy--their own or their mother's--was being invaded.

In any case, the expected numbers of experimental subjects were not available for study. It is hoped that the findings of this thesis can be generalized beyond the specific experimental population, but the readers dealing with dissimilar groups of women need certainly to critically evaluate group composition before making statements or

decisions with specific impact.

In spite of the difficulties obtaining subjects, this study did render some results which provide valuable information about the woman who has grown up without the continued presence of her natural father in her family home. First, father absence did not appear to significantly alter the self-evaluation of any of these groups of college-age women. The women without fathers attributed to themselves just as positive a set of descriptive adjectives as the women from intact families did. It is probable that a woman of college age has been able to compare herself in a variety of circumstances with her peers and the FA women as a group have not encountered any enduring hardship severe enough to produce a lasting negative effect on their self-perceptions. Those FA girls who have made it to college have evidently been able to compete intellectually with their FP contemporaries and thus have no reason to describe themselves any less positively than any other group of university women.

The second and third hypotheses of this study, when taken together, predicted that daughters of widows would idealize their fathers significantly more than the control group, while the daughters of divorcees would have a significantly less ideal image of their natural father than the controls. That relationship was not supported by the data, but there were significant differences among the three groups. The group found to have the most idealized image of their

natural father was the intact family group. Intermediate in terms of idealized natural father image was the D group, and the least idealized image, as predicted, was held by the DIV group. Each group was significantly different from every other group. Thus it seems that the investigations of child and adolescent images of the absent father generalize accurately to the college age woman in the case of the divorce separated family, but do not completely make the same transition in the case of women who lost fathers due to death. Dead fathers were idealized more than divorced ones, but less than fathers from intact families.

Divorce remains an unpleasant experience for children and adults alike within the family. The observation that a female child is often exposed by older female relatives to overtly expressed attitudes of a negative nature regarding her real father has been made earlier and would appear to be a viable explanation contributing to the development of a less than ideal father image that persists into adulthood. Perhaps also the absence of wanted affection and the feelings of rejection that accompany such a separation stand in the way of identification with and idealization of the lost parent.

Some amount of those feelings of rejection may contribute additionally to the internalization of an image even of the dead father. The fantasy described by Bach (1946) of a father who provides enjoyment and affection to his family may tend to fade through the years and be tarnished by rejection

that is unrealistic, yet is nonetheless perceived. The data in this study indicated that the father image of a deceased father is indeed idealistic, but the data also showed that a father from an intact family who can actually be with his daughter and help provide for her emotional and intellectual needs as well as her physical needs, may in fact become in his adult daughter's eyes an idealized figure who is nearer perfection than the father of any other group of women.

The results of the final two hypotheses may be viewed as somewhat comforting. First, the mother of the female child in each type of family is a positive figure who undergoes neither aggrandizement nor devaluation when the girl's father is gone from the home. This kind of image stability provides not just greater predictive accuracy for the researcher/therapist/teacher. It provides a reliable reference for the developing female herself at a time when so many other elements of her life are rapidly shifting. And lastly, the results showing that remarriage has no significant effect on the woman's evaluation of her father, her mother, or herself, can allow many mothers to replace their absent spouse with some assurance that their daughters will not suffer greater damage to their self-images and will not be forcibly moved towards unrealistic aggrandizement or unnecessary deprecation of either of their natural parents.

It seems to this investigator that there is a great deal of unused space in this area of research. Why, for instance, is the FA woman so poorly represented in college populations?

Are factors such as length of separation, age at separation, birth order, socioeconomic status, presence of a father surrogate, mother's occupation, etc., which could not be controlled in this study, critical in identification and image formation? Are phenomena like internalized images or cognitive abilities affected by parental separation at later stages in life?

There are still a plethora of questions and few answers.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

The purpose of this test is to find out your ideas about someone according to some specific adjectives. Each pair of adjectives represents a concept which can describe some aspect of an individual's personality. The paired adjectives are opposite ends of the personality dimension.

Please indicate the position along the continuum which you think would most accurately describe the person in question by placing an X in the appropriate box. Choose only one box within each concept. If you think both adjectives of the pair are equally relevant to your description, mark the box in the center. The more closely an adjective fits, the closer you should make your X to that adjective. Answer each item separately; that is, do not refer back to previous items even though you feel the item is similar to another concept. It is your first impressions we want, so do not spend too much time puzzling over any one item.

Example:

Santa Claus

GOOD

X						
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 BAD

APPENDIX B

SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL ADJECTIVES

1. GOOD ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ BAD
2. HARD ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ SOFT
3. STRONG ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ WEAK
4. CLEAN ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ DIRTY
5. CALM ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ AGITATED
6. VALUABLE ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ WORTHLESS
7. KIND ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ CRUEL
8. LOUD ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ SOFT
9. DEEP ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ SHALLOW
10. HAPPY ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ SAD
11. SHARP ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ DULL
12. BRAVE ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ COWARDLY
13. HOT ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ COLD
14. HONEST ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ DISHONEST
15. ACTIVE ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ PASSIVE
16. ROUGH ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ SMOOTH
17. FAIR ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ UNFAIR
18. HEALTHY ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ SICK
19. BEAUTIFUL ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ UGLY
20. TENSE ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ RELAXED
21. BRIGHT ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ DARK
22. FAST ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ SLOW

23. NEAR

--	--	--	--	--	--	--

 FAR

24. BITTER

--	--	--	--	--	--	--

 SWEET

25. SACRED

--	--	--	--	--	--	--

 PROFANE

APPENDIX C

SUBJECT-FINDING QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Have you experienced the separation from your natural father due to death of your father or divorce of your parents? Yes _____ No _____

If your answer to question No. 1 was Yes, please answer all of the following questions. If your answer to question No. 1 was No, please answer questions 6 through 9 only.

2. Was the separation due to: death of father? _____
divorce of parents? _____
3. What was your age at the time of separation? _____
4. Has your mother remarried? Yes _____ No _____
If yes, how old were you at the time of remarriage? _____
5. Was there anyone who served as a father figure to you as you were growing up (uncle, brother, family friend, etc.)? Yes _____ No _____
6. In your family, were you an only child? Yes _____ No _____
If not, what order were you born (Example: 1st, 2nd, etc.; note: twins should both occupy the same position in the birth order)? _____
How many children were in your family? _____
7. What kind of economic situation do you think you were raised in?
rich _____ upper middle class _____ lower middle _____ poor _____
8. What kind of geographical area were you raised in?
urban (inner big city) _____ suburban _____
rural or small town _____
9. Would you be willing to participate in research consisting of an interview and some pencil and paper questionnaires? This would take approximately one to one and one-half hours of time at a maximum.
Yes _____ No _____

If yes, please give us the following information:

Name _____

Marital Status: Single ____ Married ____ Divorced ____

Address _____

Age _____ Telephone No. _____

Instructor's Name _____

Class Number _____

Section Number _____

VITA²

Dan Elkins Jones

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: FATHER ABSENCE AND FEMALES: EFFECTS ON SELF-IMAGE
AND IDEALIZATION OF MOTHER AND FATHER

Major Field: Psychology

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Los Angeles, California, February
3, 1947, the son of J. M. Virgil and Edna A. Jones.
Married K. Renee Kauerauf August 3, 1972.

Education: Graduated from Putnam City High School in
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, May 1965; received the
Bachelor of Science degree from Oklahoma State
University in July, 1972, with a major in Psy-
chology; completed requirements for the Master of
Science degree with a major in Psychology at
Oklahoma State University in December, 1979.

Professional Experience: Psychological associate at
the Oklahoma State University Psychological Guid-
ance Center, 8/72 - 7/74; Psychological associate
at Bi-State Mental Health Clinic, 8/74 - 5/75;
graduate research assistant, 8/72 - 5/73; graduate
teaching in psychology, 8/73 - 5/75; clinical
internship in psychology at the University of
Oklahoma Health Sciences Center, 9/75 - 8/76;
employed as a psychometrist for clinical psy-
chologists in private practice, 9/76 - 5/78;
substance abuse counselor for the Oklahoma Depart-
ment of Corrections, 5/78 - present.