THE EFFECT OF EARLY LOSS OF FATHER UPON
THE PERSONALITY OF BOYS AND GIRLS
IN LATE ADOLESCENCE

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THE EFFECT OF EARLY LOSS OF FATHER UPON
THE PERSONALITY OF BOYS AND GIRLS
IN LATE ADOLESCENCE

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
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By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Program Statement of the Child Study Association of America Annual Conference, March 25, 1957, emphasizes the need for two effective parents in the home; further, that attention has long been focused on the mother of the family, and that detailed knowledge of how mother and child interact has added greatly to our understanding of what goes into the making of personality. It was pointed out, however, that the father's role, equally important yet in many respects different from the mother's, will profoundly affect his children's true coming of age. By leaving out the father, half of the picture is lost in getting a view of how the boy becomes a man and the girl a woman. Because of changing times, and for many reasons, the father today is living with his children in ways that are new and often confusing. The program poses questions as follows:

Have external forces accelerated these changes, and how may they affect the child's concept of himself? What of the fatherless families, those where death, separation, desertion, or the husband's lengthy absence from home in the army or on business, forces the mother to carry on alone as best she can?

Statement of the Problem

It was the purpose of this study to determine whether the early loss of the father is conducive to injury of personality development of boys and girls, which injury may still be evident in late adolescence, the crucial time in life when educational, vocational and other important decisions are being made.

In this examination of the personality differences, at the time of late adolescence, between boys and girls who had lost their fathers early in life and those who had not lost their fathers, two major hypotheses concerning over-all adjustment, and twelve secondary hypotheses concerning specific areas of differences, were formulated as follows:

Major Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a: Boys orphaned by death of the father tend to have less satisfactory over-all adjustment than do non-orphaned boys, and boys father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.

Hypothesis 1b: Girls orphaned by death of the father tend to have less satisfactory over-all adjustment than do non-orphaned girls, and girls father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.
Secondary Hypotheses

Hypothesis la: Home adjustment of boys orphaned by death of the father tends to be less satisfactory than that of non-orphaned boys, and boys father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.

Hypothesis 1b: Home adjustment of girls orphaned by death of the father tends to be less satisfactory than that of non-orphaned girls, and girls father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.

Hypothesis 2a: Health adjustment of boys father-orphaned by any reason will not tend to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned boys.

Hypothesis 2b: Health adjustment of girls father-orphaned by any reason will not tend to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned girls.

Hypothesis 3a: Submissiveness of boys orphaned by death of the father tends to be more pronounced than that of non-orphaned boys, and boys father-orphaned by other reasons will not tend to be significantly different from those orphaned by death.

Hypothesis 3b: Submissiveness/self-assertion of girls father-orphaned by any reason tends to be no different from that of non-orphaned girls.
Hypothesis 4a: Emotionality of boys orphaned by death of the father tends to be less satisfactory than that of non-orphaned boys, and boys father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.

Hypothesis 4b: Emotionality of girls orphaned by death of the father tends to be less satisfactory than that of non-orphaned girls, and girls father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.

Hypothesis 5a: Hostility-friendliness of boys father-orphaned by any reason will not tend to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned boys.

Hypothesis 5b: Hostility-friendliness of girls orphaned by death of the father will not tend to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned girls, while girls father-orphaned by other reasons will tend to be more hostile than non-orphaned girls.

Hypothesis 6a: Masculinity of boys orphaned by death of the father will not tend to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned boys, and the same prediction is made for boys father-orphaned by other reasons.

Hypothesis 6b: Femininity of girls orphaned by death of father tends to be less pronounced than that of non-orphaned girls, and it is not expected that femininity of girls father-orphaned by other reasons will be significantly different from
Survey of Related Literature

There appears to be a dearth of studies concerning adolescents who have lost their fathers early in life, particularly girls. Most of the studies show the adverse effects which exist during early or middle childhood, but fail to show whether the child is able to overcome the difficulties by late adolescence, the crucial time in life when educational, vocational and other important decisions are being made.

Theoretical Review and Research Studies

Bach\(^2\) found in his study of children age six through ten without a father that boys experienced fantasies more similar to girls\(^1\).

Sears\(^3\) and others in a study of the effects of father-absence in wartime on pre-school age children, found that father-absent boys were less frequently aggressive than father-present boys. No such finding was reported for girls.

Parsons\(^4\) points out that in the family structure in our culture the boy or girl makes the first identification with the mother. As the boy grows older he becomes aware of the cultural expectations that he behave in a masculine manner.

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\(^4\) T. Parsons, "Certain Sources and Patterns of Aggression in the Social Structure of the Western World," Psychiatry, X (1947), 172.
As a result, he frequently shows exaggerated masculine behavior identification. Further, this circumstance leads the young boy to identify "goodness" with femininity, and in rejecting his feminine identification, he frequently engages in antisocial acting out in symbolic assertion of his masculinity.

Siegras compared the relative frequency of antisocial activities in a group of male students whose fathers were away in the armed forces during early childhood with that found in a group of male adults whose fathers were not away from home during early childhood, and found more evidence of antisocial behavior in the father-absent group.

An editorial in Child Study in 1947 points out that children need a great deal of mothering from their mothers, and that management of daily routine inevitably tends to fall on the mother; but, that children also are in need of a father who is a real and significant person. Otherwise, children run the risk of growing up in the belief that women are the source of authority, and that the male is relatively powerless. Such a belief tends to breed passive men and aggressive women.

Eisenbud says that our picture of the father as the breadwinner, main source of authority, and dispenser of justice, who

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6Editorial, Child Study, XXI (Fall, 1943), 2.

regulates behavior and lends the growth of character, is an inheritance of the past. From the father and the mother children derived the primary axes of their character, developed in one piece, and possessed the structural strength to withstand the later pulls, pressures and tensions. Eisenbud laments that today the father often has little more than mechanical claim to paternity, and about the same relationship to the other members in the family as a boarder in the house; further, that the consequences to society of the changing family relationship are probably enormous. The person tries to find in government the security, the guidance, and the authority he failed to secure in the home, to seek outside himself the unity and the integration he lacks as an individual.

Ellenwood\(^8\) admits that the father is no longer the real authority in the home, but says that dictators are spoiled persons, and underprivileged as well. Autocrats never mature. Ellenwood sees a worthwhile and workable relationship, however, in the democratic family of today, where there is give and take and more freedom for all. The father is still important as a member of the family group, but not in the same way as of old. Ellenwood does not see the new family relationship as harmful.

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\(^8\)James Lee Ellenwood, "A Father Looks Back," Child Study, XXI (Fall, 1943), 6-30.
Levine⁹ feels that the fathers of the present generation, as a whole, play a much greater part in the care and development of young children than did their predecessors. He attributes this situation to scarcity of household help, or mothers working outside the home, which results in the fathers becoming more involved in the care of the children. He sees this cooperation between the mother and the father as a vital factor in the emotional development of children, and, specifically, as developing a feeling of security in the child. From approximately five years of age and up, the father's role in the personality development of his children assumes increasing importance—important in the life of a girl, but more important in the life of a boy, as boys in these days tend to live too much in a feminine world, both at home and at school.

Nelson¹⁰ wrote during World War II about father absence and seemed to feel that the absence would have an effect on the entire family, including the father. She put it this way, "A man cannot go off to war and be separated from his wife and children for months or years, and return the same man, to the same wife, to the same children." In essence, she felt that personality changes were sure to develop in all members of the family; and that after the return of the father, there would


be a period of readjustment which could prove to be difficult for all members. She did not elaborate as to the specific personality changes involved.

Josselyn\textsuperscript{11} in speaking of the young boy says, "His world invaded by girls, who dress and act much as he does, the growing boy sometimes wonders where his special province lies." Josselyn feels that, sociologically, we seem to be drifting toward he-women and she-men. Boys and girls play many of the same games and engage in many of the same activities. As the dating age arrives, however, social mores help create an artificial way to show the social difference between the sexes:

Thus, the little boy who finds the little girl an adequate companion for exploring the swamp, for studying the works of an alarm clock or observing the habits of snakes and mice, is suddenly required to scrub himself clean, dress up and open the door for his little female companion who now appears too weak to open the door herself. Through this social gesture the sexual differentiation becomes sharp, perhaps because of parental and social pressure, but more likely because there is a biological difference between boys and girls which presses for expression.\textsuperscript{12}

Wanser\textsuperscript{13} in a study of boys in late adolescence found that father-orphaned boys were no less masculine than the non-orphaned boys. He felt, however, that the use of projective methods might provide a measure of masculinity at a deeper

\textsuperscript{11} Irene Josselyn, "The Young Boy--No Kingdom of His Own?," Child Study, XXXIV (Summer, 1957), 2-7.

\textsuperscript{12} Ibid., 5.

level not touched by the instrument he used, the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey. He concludes that counselors must avoid any tendency to anticipate either personality problems or femininity among orphan boys unless further study using projective techniques produces other findings.

Lynn and Sawrey in their 1959 study of the effects of father absence on Norwegian boys and girls, ages eight to nine and one-half, noted insecure father identification with considerable compensatory masculine behavior, and found that boys suffered more adverse effects from father absence than girls. Specifically, they concluded that boys were influenced in four ways: immaturity, lack of father identification, insecurity, and poor peer adjustment. The father-absent girls, however, were not influenced except for becoming more dependent on the mother. This opinion appears to be in partial conflict with Freudian theory. Although by 1931 Freud had revised his Oedipus theory concerning women, he stated "... at the end of the girl's development it is the man—the father—who must come to be the new love-object ..." Thus, it would seem that he considered the presence of the father in the home as a necessary factor in the proper development of the girl into her appropriate female role.

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Mowrer believes that in the ideal family constellation, the little boy finds it very natural and rewarding to mold himself in his father's image; the little girl finds the same situation in molding herself in the mother's image. Disturbed family conditions, however, tend to produce the neurotic who fails to make a full-fledged identification with the same-sexed parent and a proper identification with the opposite-sexed parent.

Brim feels that personality is "the learned repertoire of roles," and that each person has learned his behavior in each situation, or role, from what he believes his parents, or others, have expected of him in the specific situation.

Peterson and others relate that most contemporary research and clinical practice concerning child behavior problems place emphasis on the maternal influence. Their study of fifty-three kindergarten children and twenty-four children attending a guidance clinic included both the mothers and the fathers of the subjects. Their findings support the hypothesis that the attitudes of fathers are at least as intimately related as the attitudes of mothers to maladjustment tendencies among children.


The composite attitudinal picture for clinic mothers was of a cold, maladjusted woman, evidently unable or unwilling to assume responsibility for the rearing of her children. The model clinic father appeared to be a cold, maladjusted, punitive man, lacking the human kindness shown by the fathers of the relatively well-adjusted kindergarten children.

Becker and others express a hope for the development of a measurable set of dimensions which will permit more refined studies of the relationships between parent and child behavior. They indicate that some important contributions are being made toward achievement of this end. They studied two groups of families, one with a child not in need of clinical services and the other with a child in need of clinical services. The children were ages six to twelve. The study indicates that in families with conduct problem children, both parents are maladjusted, give vent to unbridled emotions, and tend to be arbitrary with the child. The mother tended to be tense, dictatorial, and thwarting. The father tended not to enforce regulations. Personality problems in the child (shy, sensitive, inferior) showed associations only with father behavior ratings. They concluded that future research, and perhaps therapeutic practice, should give more consideration to the role of the father in child development.

Lerner\textsuperscript{20} points out the rising influence of the mother on the children and the decreasing influence of the father in the modern American family. Lerner feels that the father's virtual disappearance from the home holds important consequences for his wife and daughters, but that it is more critical for his sons. Young people do not have anything to revolt against; a firm father whom they can use as a foil. The father is no longer the source of authority in the family, and the wife now has the task of exercising the authority. "But while she reigns, she cannot rule. With rare exceptions, there is no effective emotional authority in the American home." Lerner believes, however, that automation will allow more leisure time, and that the father may come back to the home. Such an article in the popular press seems to indicate that the public is becoming concerned about the role of the father in our modern culture.

Stolz\textsuperscript{21} and others used several types of play technique in their study of two groups of matched children whose ages ranged from four years and seven months to eight years and nine months. One group had been separated from their fathers during World War II for the first year of life and the other groups had not been separated. The war-separated children

\textsuperscript{20}Max Lerner, "The Vanishing American Father," Readers Digest (July, 1965), 116-118, condensed from McCall's (May, 1965).

were found to have stronger aggressive feelings than the non-separated, and the war-separated boys displayed stronger aggressive feelings than the war-separated girls. The war-separated group seemed to have a greater amount of hostility and a greater fear of aggression than the non-separated. The non-separated children behaved more naturally with adults than the war-separated. They were more positive and negative, while the war-separated tended to be more dependent and demanding.

Stolz²² studied the effect of war on the developing personalities of children. She feels that the mother is of extreme importance during the early life of the child. "Mother and baby are really two in one. . . It is the mother who can develop emotional strength or weakness in her baby." If war means separation of the baby from the mother, there is bound to be anxiety. Separation from the father is less disturbing unless the mother transmits her anxiety to her child. Separation from the father may mean that the child becomes closer to the mother, and this can hamper his development. The absence of the father may interfere with or delay the normal psychosexual development of the child. Children whose fathers were away showed less tendency to aggression than those with fathers at home. The child may experience disappointment upon the return of the father, having built up

an idealistic picture of him. "In other words, when Santa
Claus turns out to be human there is likely to be trouble not
only for the child, but for Santa Claus as well."

Bronfenbrenner believes that parental roles are chang-
ing, with fathers yielding parental authority to mothers and
taking on some of the nurturant and affectional functions
traditionally associated with the maternal role. Formerly,
the mothers tended to employ love-oriented techniques of
discipline, and the fathers relied on more direct methods
like physical punishment, but the fathers tended to be more
lenient with girls than boys. Thus, paternal authority
tended to be salutary for sons but detrimental for daughters.
As parental roles change, both parents tend to have similar
effects on their children. Bronfenbrenner believes that
boys tend to be more responsible when the father is the
principal disciplinarian, and girls more dependable when the
mother is the major authority figure. In essence, boys
thrive in a patriarchal context and girls in a matriarchal
one. The equalitarian family tends to produce the most
dependent and least dependable adolescents. The democratic
family tends to produce young people who do not take initia-
tive, look to others for direction and decision, and cannot
be counted on to fulfill obligations. He feels, however,

23Urie Bronfenbrenner, "The Changing American Child--A
Speculative Analysis," Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, VII, No. 2
(April, 1951), 72-83.
that current trends indicate that we can anticipate something of a return to the more explicit techniques of an earlier era.

Havighurst and Neugarten feel there is a great diversity among American families when they are viewed as social systems. The family is a small social unit composed of a few members who are related in intimate and complex ways. The family is patrilineal, with the wife and children taking the father's name, and moving wherever the husband's job dictates. The mother, however, tends to be the central figure as far as the children are concerned, and takes responsibility for the daily socializing of the child, as the father is away from home for most of the day. With the modern family becoming increasingly democratic, there is a growing sense of equality among the members, but the responsibilities and privileges for each member are well defined. All infants are in the role of the protected, and the wife is at times. The husband is in the role of the protector. It is the social role of the father that has declined in the past hundred years. He has become less authoritarian, but has become a major source of acceptance and affection. The psychological influence of the father has not declined. It is primarily the behavior of the father, rather than that of the mother, that accounts for the differential effects of parental behavior on the two sexes.

Steimel and Suziedelis\textsuperscript{25} using 198 college males as subjects, gave the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and a specially designed instrument on which they reported the predominance of the influence of one or the other parent on development. They found significant differences between the father-group and the mother-group. The father-group was significantly higher on engineer, chemist, production manager, aviator, math-science teacher, forest service, YMCA director, personnel director, public administrator, senior CPA, accountant, and on the interest maturity and masculinity-femininity scales. The mother-group was significantly higher on the real estate salesman, advertising manager, and lawyer scales. The findings were in keeping with what might be expected in that subjects reporting predominant father influence have interests more typically masculine.

Brunken\textsuperscript{26} used the responses of 289 male college students in investigating the relationship of parental attitudes and parental identification to probable, possible, and fantasy vocational choices. The relationship between parental attitudes and probable choice was used as a test of Roe's theory of early determinants of vocational choice. Brunken found no


\textsuperscript{26}Richard J. Brunken, "Perceived Parental Attitudes and Parental Identification in Relation to Field of Vocational Choice," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XXII, No. 1 (Spring,
significant relationships to vocational choice. He did find a significant interaction between type of identification and father/mother, which indicates that sons identify more with their fathers, and that they perceive their real fathers as different from their ideal fathers.

Martin and Stendler\(^2\) point out that in 1950 there were more than four million children in the United States who lived in families which had been broken by widowhood, divorce or separation. When a father is left with young children he usually brings in a substitute mother and continues his role as breadwinner. When the father is missing from the family the mother may become both breadwinner and homemaker. The father means different things to children at different stages of development. The young child sees him as a person who can accomplish prodigious tasks and who represents strength and security. To the growing boy, the father is a model and an important source of learning sex-appropriate behavior. To the growing girl, the father acts as a reinforcer of her femininity by admiring her hairdo, commenting on her clothes, and treating her differently from her brother. Conversely, a father can subtly encourage a girl to be boylike and make her task of becoming feminine more difficult. Absence of the father or rejection by him may create an unsatisfied need in a girl, and she may go through life continually seeking a

father in the men she meets. Fatherless children may develop a number of problems such as becoming excessively dependent on the mother, becoming rebellious and defiant, or they may develop antisocial behavior in such forms as stealing.

Coleman\textsuperscript{28} points out the prevailing view of the relationship between inadequate mothers and the incidence of schizophrenia in male offspring. He feels, however, that there is also a definite relationship between inadequate, indifferent, or passive fathers and the incidence of schizophrenia in males, also, that such types of fathers tend to have an adverse influence on daughters who become schizophrenic. The father is often highly contemptuous and derogatory toward the mother while being seductive toward the daughter. This tends to force the mother into competition with the daughter and devalues the mother as a model for the daughter. The daughter may come to despise herself for any resemblances to the mother. In essence, a disturbed family constellation, whether involving the mother, the father, or both, can have an adverse influence on the developing personality of either the boy or the girl.

Madow and Hardy\textsuperscript{29} studied the social history of 211 neurotic patients who had from four months routine duty in the


\textsuperscript{29}Leo Madow and Sherman Hardy, "Incidence and Analysis of the Broken Family in the Background of Neurosis," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, XVII (July, 1947), 521-528.
Army to prolonged exposure to severe combat. They found more than twice the incidence of broken homes among the patients than is common in the general population of the United States.

McCord and others compared boys from broken homes who were living with their natural mothers, with boys from intact homes. They found only slight evidences of femininity if the boy was between six and twelve years of age when the father left or if the mother was deviant or rejecting. Abnormal fears were not found to be related to paternal absence. Delinquency and criminality appeared to be related to the general instability of the broken home rather than to paternal absence as such.

Despert says that almost one out of three marriages in the United States ends in the divorce courts. In addition to these, there is "emotional divorce" in which the couple are estranged emotionally, but continue to live in the same household and do not get a divorce. She speaks of the emotional needs of the child and of the strain on the child because of divorce or other disturbance of the family constellation, but she feels that wise actions on the part of the parents can help the child through the adjustment. She implies that the greatest proportion of delinquents come from

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31 J. Louise Despert, Children of Divorce (Garden City, pp. 20-22, 119, 282.
emotional divorce homes, less from divorce, and much less from homes broken by death. She does not state what proportion comes from homes broken by desertion, as these do not appear in the statistics as legal separations, but she implies that many of the delinquents do come from this category of broken homes. She seems to consider love as the most important thing in good adjustment and happiness for all concerned—children, parents, grandchildren, and so on. She says that "Beyond nourishing food and shelter from the elements, children need little that is material. But their needs of the spirit, though simple, are absolute. If these are met, nothing else matters."

Maslow and Mittelmann\textsuperscript{32} feel that two types of factors contribute to psychopathology in the parent-child relationship: (1) attitude of the parents toward their child and their method of handling him, and (2) disturbances in the family constellation, such as death. If one parent is frequently absent over long periods of time, the child may become too much attached to the other and consider the frequently absent parent a rival, which may lead to hostility and guilt. If one of the parents dies when the child is young, the child may feel that he has been deprived of a supporter and may blame the surviving parent for the death of the other.

This sometimes leads to a feeling that fate is potentially against him in everything he undertakes; the feeling may be particularly strong if both parents die when the child is young or if the step-parent is harsh.

Barker and Adams\textsuperscript{33} made a study of delinquents in two Colorado training schools—one for boys between the ages of ten and eighteen, and one for girls between the ages of ten and twenty-one. They found approximately one-third of each group from complete homes. Those who were living with only one parent generally were with the mother, and sometimes with the mother and stepfather. The enormous impact of the lack of the natural father in the home is evident. The causal factor in the development of anti-social feelings and delinquent behavior among delinquent young males is frequently the absence of the father. Or, the failure of the natural father either by his absence or deficiencies, to act as a strong, supportive figure with whom the boy could identify frequently pointed toward anti-social feelings and delinquent behavior of boys. Girls without their natural fathers were also found to be adversely affected, and in many different ways such as attempting to resolve their uncertainties through sexual acting-out. Barker and Adams point to the schools in the United States as one of the most important social systems.

in the life of the adolescent. In spite of unfavorable family constellations, some adolescents are able to make adequate social and other adjustments through their associations with peers, teachers, and others in the school environment.

Gomberg\textsuperscript{34} believes that the fact that yesterday's families seem to have had more clearly defined models of the father figure and the mother figure does not necessarily indicate that they were healthier. He thinks of the modern family as a personality capable of infinite variation. Society may determine how a male or female is supposed to behave in any one given period in history, and society may clarify or confuse sex identity, but the maleness or femaleness is there, and it has within it an urge to grow. It may be blocked or obstructed, but the inner urge seeks its own fulfillment. In essence, we may hinder some of the maleness of a boy or the femaleness of a girl by the kind of clothes or outward behavior we insist upon, but there is some force to help each one to achieve sex identity. Gomberg feels that we are moving towards an era when it will be progressively less important to distinguish between male and female on the basis of social activity and responsibility. When emphasis is put on inner personal fulfillment, the child will find strength from within, buttressed by the family, to find his own way and to play out his own role.

\textsuperscript{34}M. Robert Gomberg, "Tomorrow's Family," Child Study, XXXIV (Summer, 1957), 7-11.
Mussen and Distler\textsuperscript{35} made a study of thirty-eight middle-class, kindergarten boys, which was designed to evaluate three hypothesized processes of identification—developmental, defensive, and role-taking. The developmental hypothesis states that identification with the father depends on a positive, affectionate relationship between father and son. The defensive hypothesis states that by identifying with his father, the boy's fears of counter-aggression are reduced and, at the same time, he vicariously obtains his mother's attention and affection. This has been called "identification with the aggressor" and "defensive identification." The role-taking hypothesis states that identification, or role-playing, depends on the power of the identificand—a combination of his reward value and his threat or punishment potential. The findings of the study supported all three of the hypotheses, thus indicating that the subjects were able to make their male identification through either one of the three processes of identification.

Payne and Mussen\textsuperscript{36} in a study of 182 junior and senior high school boys found high father identification when the relationships were rewarding and affectionate. High father identification


identification was related to social and emotional adjustments as manifested by calmness and friendliness. They also found that father identification correlated highly with masculinity.

Burton and Whiting view the process of identification and the development of identity as the status envy hypothesis. "This process of identification consists of learning a role by rehearsal in fantasy or in play rather than by actual performance, and this rehearsal is motivated by envy of the incumbent of a privileged status." Status envy is a motivational component of status disability, and such motivation leads to learning by identification. The child rehearses in play or in fantasy the grown-up whose privileged status is envied. Burton and Whiting believe that the absence of the father produces in the boy cross-sex identification which is either acted out or, more usually, defended against by exaggerated masculine behavior. They feel that more study is needed, and continue with

Although the general effect of father absence seems evident, the details of the process are not. For example, are there critical periods when the absence of the father is more critical than other times? How long does it take for a child to establish identity? What are the relative effects of a weak father and an absent father? What is the effect of the absent father on the development of a girl?


38Ibid., p. 94.
Strecker and Appel view the term "identification" in a rather broad sense. They see projection as permitting us to ignore or disown our weaknesses and as giving us the feeling of security and strength. They see identification as a related psychological mechanism by which we identify ourselves as closely as possible with people and institutions that represent for us ideal qualities, and it is used from the cradle to the grave. "Identification is potent medicine, and must be used sparingly. In excessive doses it is subtle and dangerous poison." In the most usual form of identification, idealization, the child idolizes his parents and finds security and certainty in the qualities of the parents. It is with difficulty that children give up this sense of security and begin thinking for themselves. The emancipation comes at varying ages with different children.

Allport relates that, in the Darwinian view, conforming has survival value. The young child is helpless unless he strings along with his parents. His only pattern for survival is their pattern, and if their design is tolerant or hostile, so, too, is his. Allport feels that the term "identification" is broad and ill-defined, but that it serves to convey the sense of emotional merging of oneself with others. In the


American home the father is away for most of the day, and the child is with the mother, who provides the model and mentor for his conduct. An early identification with the mother usually sets in. The identification is no problem for the girl, at least for some years, as she soon learns that she will be a housewife and mother. The boy, however, is early placed in conflict; womanish ways are not for him. As a kind of over-compensation, he may later identify vigorously with the father. The rough and tough behavior in boyhood culture can be explained, in part, as an over-reaction to mother domination. The father often plays a part in inducing compulsive masculinity in the son, as the father is a carrier of the competitive culture with its frontier tradition.

Goode\(^4\) apparently agrees with the classical psychoanalytic view that the infant and mother establish a close emotional relationship shortly after the baby's birth, and that the world of the infant soon expands to include other members of the family; further, that the child will conclude his infancy period by becoming emotionally attached to the parent of the opposite sex. Social norms, however, eventually interfere with the relationship. Goode feels that it is more important for the boy to give up his oedipal tie with the mother than for the girl to give up her attachment to the father. He continues:

Assumption of the adult status requires the male to be relatively independent, dominant, and instrumental in social interaction, and to be able to discharge his obligations as head of the family. He cannot, without criticism from others and a feeling of personal failure, move directly from being mother's little boy to being his wife's little boy. By contrast, a girl is permitted to move from being dad's little girl to being her husband's little girl with less criticism. In fact, of course, a large but unknown percentage of people fail to resolve their oedipal ties, and the psychodynamic consequences hamper adult functioning.\textsuperscript{42}

Despert\textsuperscript{43} reviews the changing role and waning power of the father from the early Greek and Roman civilizations up to the present time in our culture. Through the centuries the father's powerful function as head of the family did not include physical or emotional closeness to the child. The Colonists did not leave the father's tyrannical authority behind, but it was short lived because of the rebellion of the child, a better insight into the emotional needs of the child, and the emancipation of women, which tended to reduce the power of the father. Despert is not specific as to the present role of the father, but she seems to imply that it is an important one in the life of the child. In discussing the fatherless family and the effects on the child, she relates that the most traumatic kind of separation is a permanent one, death, and that the effects may be more severe if the father dies suddenly rather than after a long illness. If death of

\textsuperscript{42} Ibid., p. 78.

\textsuperscript{43} Louise Despert, "The Fatherless Family," Child Study, XXXIV (Summer, 1957), 22-23.
the father occurs when the child is very young, the effects may not be severe at the time; but the traumatic realization of death will come later and the sense of loss increase as the years go by. If the father dies before the resolutions of the oedipal conflict, the unconscious hostility of the boy toward the father may stir up intense guilt feelings; and he may fear that his death wish toward the father was actually what caused the father’s death. The girl who is in the midst of an unresolved oedipal conflict at the time the father dies has somewhat different problems. The loss of the father will be more devastating if she has been excessively attached to him, and guilt feelings toward her mother will also be intensified. Despert feels that the adverse effects of father loss by divorce, separation, or other reasons will not tend to be as great as those of loss by death. She concludes, "The most important single factor is the emotional climate of the family and the emotional maturity of the mother at the time the separation, of whatever type, takes place. Indeed, this is the common denominator of the diverse phenomena of 'The Fatherless Family.' 

Truxal and Merrill⁴ believe that the effects upon children of loss of the father for any reason, death, divorce, desertion or separation, are particularly damaging to the personality of the child of a family of western Europe and

America. This is a result of the nature of the family system—small, closely integrated family of one, two, or three children and the husband and wife, which causes a high degree of emotional participation on the part of the family members. Thus, loss of the father has a greater impact on the child in our small family grouping than in the extended family of other cultures where the loss of one member creates little, if any, disruption in the life of the child in a larger family constellation. Further, the adverse effects on the child in our culture are likely to be in ascending severity when loss is by (1) death, (2) divorce, and (3) separation or desertion. Truxal and Merrill, however, make a special point of stating that little information exists as to the effects on the child of loss of parent by death.

Klineberg comments that emphasis on the part played by the mother in the development of the child is reflected in a large body of research concerning the devastating effect produced by maternal deprivation. He then asks, "But does it matter if there is no 'fathering'?" He relates that only one empirical investigation has come to his attention concerning the father—the Stolz study of children cited elsewhere in this paper, whose fathers had been absent for some years in the military service. Klineberg feels that much research is badly needed as to the father's role. He believes that the

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role of the father in the American family was much easier to
define in the past than it is now. He continues:

We are getting a little tired of "Momism"—but we
don't want to exchange it for "neo-Dopism." What we need
rather is recognition that bring up children is a part-
nership of equals. There are signs that psychiatrists,
psychologists, social workers, and specialists on the
family are becoming more aware of the part men play, and
they have decided that women should not receive all the
credit—nor all the blame. We have almost given up say-
ing that "woman's place is in the home." We are begin-
ning, however, to analyze man's place in it. Nor is that
place irrelevant to the healthy development of the child.

The family is a cooperative enterprise for which it
is difficult to lay down rules because each family needs
to work out its own ways for solving its own problems.
One conclusion, however, seems pretty reasonable. It is
to the effect that excessive authoritarianism has un-
happy consequences, whether it wears skirts or trousers,
and that the ideal of equal rights and equal responsi-
bilities is pertinent not only to a healthy democracy,
but also to a healthy family.

With an open mind we should seek to discover what will
lead to greater satisfactions and inner security without
seeking to restore the rigid preconceptions of the past.

Wynn⁴⁶ states that the problem of the fatherless family
is world-wide, but has become a matter of particular concern
in our modern, industrial, urban society. She points out that
if a child loses his mother attempts are made to replace her,
but if he loses his father no such attempts are at present
accepted as being necessary. The child will be taught when
first at school by women teachers, and so in his early years
may have very little male society. Wynn does not go into
detail as to the psychological effect on boys and girls who

⁴⁶Margaret Wynn, Fatherless Families (London, 1964),
are deprived of the father except to point out the higher incidence of delinquency among fatherless boys. She continues:

We do not know enough about how to compensate a child for the loss of his father. The consequences of that loss and the effect on the child of being brought up without a father or father substitute have not been sufficiently studied. The effects of maternal deprivation, on the other hand, have been examined and re-examined. The young child needs a close and continuing relationship with his mother or mother substitute. Does he need a similar relationship with his father? Up to what age can a child safely be left without male influence and support? How can a child in a family without a father be taught how to be a good father in his turn?

Becker and others, in a study of children between six and twelve years of age, searched for important relationships between parent and child behavior. Their findings suggest the hypothesis that the adjustment of the father is more critical in determining personality problems in children than is the adjustment of the mother. They relate that standard practice in psychiatry and clinical psychology has been to see the mother and child in therapy in problem-child cases; this on the assumption that the mother relationship is more important in child development than that of the father. The findings suggest a need to re-evaluate this assumption and to explore in more detail the role of the father in child development. They feel that future research, and perhaps therapeutic practice, should give more consideration to the role of the father in child development.

Becker, Wesley C., Peterson, Donald R., Hellmer, Leo A., Shoemaker, Donald J., and Quay, Herbert C., "Factors in Parental Behavior and Personality as Related to Problem Behavior in..."
Baughman and Welsh indicate that psychologists seem to have a rather clear picture of the mother's influence on the developing personality of the child; but the extent, and the exact effect, of the father's influence is less well defined. They believe that fathers, besides influencing their sons' sex-role behavior, affect many other role-behaviors of both sons and daughters, and feel that future research needs to probe this hypothesis deeply. They point up the lack of information concerning the father in these words:

"The literature on personality and child development that stresses the influence of the mother's behavior is mountainous, but the few articles that focus on the father's significance make a pitifully low mound. During a child's first year or two of life, when activities such as feeding and toilet training are on center stage, it is undeniable that mothers—by sheer weight of the time they spend with a child—are in a position to make the greatest impact on his behavior. Yet without denying mother's importance—even pre-eminence—we can still challenge the view that father is an insignificant figure.

Anderson studied 3,200 children, ages 9 to 17, with fourteen inventories and tests in 1950, and again in 1954 and 1957. He found that items in the cognitive, intellective, skill and knowledge areas did change consistently with age, but that emotional and personality items showed no significant relationship to age. He suggests that as the person grows, he changes, and the demands made upon him change; further, that as the person moves into new areas of experience, some


of his earlier difficulties tend to get straightened out, but it is difficult to determine how much is a result of growth and how much is a result of change in the situation confronting the individual. Anderson concludes that prediction of adjustment over a long period of time is difficult.

Analysis of the Related Literature

The survey of literature indicates both agreement and disagreement as to the effects on boys and girls resulting from early loss of the father by death or other reasons. There is also agreement and disagreement concerning the father's role—how much, if any, his presence or absence influences the developing personality of the child. There appears to be complete agreement that early maternal deprivation has rather severe adverse effects on children. There seems to be considerable agreement that more study is needed concerning the effects of early paternal deprivation. Some studies suggest that boys are more adversely influenced than girls by father-absence, while a few studies indicate that girls are about equally influenced as boys, but perhaps in different ways.

Only one study was found which dealt with the adverse effects, if any, of early father-absence which are still evident at the time of late adolescence. That study, by Wanser, found no more negative personality traits among boys.

orphaned boys than non-orphaned boys, but suggested that projective measurements might probe a deeper level of personality than a self rating device and result in different findings.

Two studies of adult males found some evidence of personality maladjustment lingering into adulthood as a result of early disturbance in the family constellation. Siegram studied male adults whose fathers had been away in the armed forces during early childhood and found more evidence of antisocial behavior in that group than in a group whose fathers had not been away. Madow and Hardy found more evidence of schizophrenia among soldiers who came from broken homes than is common in the general population. The broken homes were of all types—not just involving loss of the father.

Upon the basis of the literature concerning the effects of early loss of the father upon boys and girls, it can be anticipated that some adverse effects may still be evident at the time of late adolescence. It seems questionable, however, as to what degree of effects will be evident at this stage of the life of boys and girls because of the operation of "adjustment over time" influences as described by Anderson. Another factor entering the total picture which may tend to

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52 Madow and Hardy, "Incidence and Analysis of the Broken Home in the Background of Neurosis," pp. 521-525.

influence the degree of the adverse effects is the changing American family. There seems to be agreement that the American family has been in a state of change since Colonial times, but there is disagreement as to the effects of the change upon the developing personality of boys and girls. For instance, Eisenbud\textsuperscript{54} feels that the father now has about the same relationship to the other members in the family as a boarder in the house, and that the consequences to the society of the changing family relationships are probably enormous. Ellenwood\textsuperscript{55} sees the father as no longer the real authority in the home, and sees more freedom for all members, but does not feel that the new family relationship is harmful. Levine\textsuperscript{56} feels that modern fathers play a much greater part in the care and development of young children than did their predecessors. Josselyn\textsuperscript{57} feels that, sociologically, we seem to be drifting toward "he-women and she-men." Lerner\textsuperscript{58} sees the father as no longer the source of authority in the family, and that this change, with rare exceptions, has left no effective emotional authority in the home. Bronfenbrenner\textsuperscript{59} believes that boys

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{54}Eisenbud, "The Father of the Family," pp. 3-29.
\item \textsuperscript{55}Ellenwood, "A Father Looks Back," pp. 6-30.
\item \textsuperscript{56}Levine, "The Father in the Home," pp. 8-32.
\item \textsuperscript{57}Josselyn, "The Young Boy—No Kingdom of His Own?," pp. 2-7.
\item \textsuperscript{58}Lerner, "The Vanishing American Father," pp. 116-118.
\item \textsuperscript{59}Bronfenbrenner, "The Changing American Child—A Speculative Analysis," pp. 73-83.
\end{itemize}
thrive in a patriarchal context and girls in a matriarchal one. He relates that the modern equalitarian family tends to produce the most dependent and least dependable adolescents, while the modern democratic family tends to produce young people who do not take initiative, look to others for direction and decision, and cannot be counted on to fulfill obligations. Havighurst and Neugarten see the modern family as increasingly democratic and that the psychological influence of the father has not declined. Gomberg sees the modern family as a personality capable of infinite variation and as presenting an environment which is as favorable as yesterday's family concerning personal fulfillment.

Despert in discussing the fatherless family and the effects on the child, relates that the most traumatic kind of separation is death. She feels that the adverse effects of father-loss by death will tend to be greater than by divorce, separation or other reasons. As to delinquency, Despert implies that the greatest proportion of delinquents come from "emotional divorce" homes, less from divorce, and much less from homes broken by death. Truxal and Merrill believe

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60 Havighurst and Neugarten, Society and Education, pp. 77-103.
64 Truxal and Merrill, The Family in American Culture, pp. 630-650.
that the adverse effects of father-loss on the personality of
the child are likely to be in ascending severity when loss is
by (1) death, (2) divorce, and (3) separation or desertion.
They, however, make a special point of stating that little
information exists as to the effects on the child of loss by
dead of the father.

Definition of Terms

Early loss of the father--loss by death, separation,
divorce, desertion, or other reason, by age eight of the child,
and no father substitute in the home up to the time of the
study.

No loss of father--natural father present in the home
until time of the study (that is, not absent because of
divorce or other reasons).

Late adolescence--ages 17, 18, or 19.

Injurious effects upon the personality which are still
evident at the time of adolescence--single over-all adjustment
score as measured by the Rotter Incomplete Sentences Blank,
College Form, and by the Bell Adjustment Inventory, Revised
(1962) Student Form (six measures of personal and social adjust-
ment).

Subjects--college freshmen, ages 17, 18 or 19.
Limitations of the Study.

Subjects were drawn from North Texas area colleges which may, or may not, be representative of a sampling of college students or other age-mates on a national basis.

Public school drop-outs and high school graduates who do not attend college were not included in the sampling.

No attempt was made to match the subjects by socio-economic level. The subjects were of the level which traditionally attend the selected colleges. The Rotter Manual does not mention socio-economic level, which seems to imply that such is not a factor on the college level. The Bell Adjustment Inventory eliminated socio-economic background from an earlier version after use and statistical study. This action seems to imply that socio-economic conditions are not pertinent to the Inventory on college level subjects.

Basic Assumption

It is assumed that personality is adversely influenced during childhood of both boys and girls by early loss of the father. The basis for the assumption is set forth in the works by Back, Burton and Whiting, Despert, Freud, Lynn and Sawrey, Martin and Stenäler, Sears and others, Stolz and others, and Truxal and Merrill, as cited in the Survey of Literature of this paper.
CHAPTER II

METHOD OF THE STUDY

Procedures for Collecting Data

The Rotter Incomplete Sentences Blank, College Form, and the Bell Adjustment Inventory, Revised 1962, Student Form, were administered to male and female college freshmen in North Texas area colleges and universities during the spring semester of the 1965-66 school year. Most of the students were therefore in the second semester of their freshman year. The area colleges and universities appear to have an average degree of selectivity, and the majority of the students are presumably from the middle class of the socio-economic structure. The tests were administered to classes of students taking basic subjects in an attempt to get a sampling which would represent as closely as practical the freshman population of the area schools before specialization and other bias factors had set in. A total of 998 students were tested and this population may, or may not, be representative of a sampling on a national basis.

As each class convened the students were asked to cooperate in a group study by completing two personality measuring devices and an information sheet. They were told that the results would be used solely for the purposes of the study and that they, or others, would not be informed as to the individual scores.
They were to read the instructions on the first test and to complete it, and to follow the same procedure concerning the second one. Finally, they were to turn the last page face up and to furnish information, as applicable. The testing packets were then distributed with the Rotter on top, the Bell and its answer sheet next, and the Information Sheet last (face down), and testing was begun. It was deemed advisable to place the Information Sheet last and face down to assist in preventing bias in testing.

From the 993 students tested a total of 303 subjects, 155 males and 148 females, were obtained for the purposes of the study. The subjects were divided into groups according to the Information Sheet (see Appendix) completed by each S at the time of testing. The 695 not falling within the selected groupings were eliminated from the study. The assignment of Ss was to the following cell groups: Boys-Father Present, 70 Ss; Boys-Father Absent-Death, 43 Ss; Boys-Father Absent-Other, 42 Ss; and Girls-Father Present, 64 Ss; Girls-Father Absent-Death, 42 Ss; and Girls-Father Absent-Other, 44 Ss. By use of a table of random numbers, the groupings were reduced to the same proportion from column to column or from row to row. The net subjects for study were 64 each, boys and girls, Father Present; 40 each, boys and girls, Father Absent-Death; and 42 each, boys and girls, Father Absent-Other. The average chronological age of the Ss was eighteen years and eleven and one-half months. (See Figure 1, page
In the sampling of 998 students, seventeen per cent lost the father by death, two per cent the mother by death, and less than one per cent both parents by death. Approximately the same percentages held concerning permanent parental loss by reasons other than death. The remaining forty-eight per cent experienced more or less temporary parental absence due to such causes as employment, illness, estrangement, and service in the Armed Forces.

The structure of the statistical design followed Lindquist's method for the analysis of variance and the testing of the simple effects. A two by three factorial design was employed. Figure 1 depicts the schema of the statistical design for the analysis of variance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Father Status</th>
<th>N = 146</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father Present</td>
<td>N = 64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father Absent-Death</td>
<td>N = 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father Absent-Other</td>
<td>N = 42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>N = 146</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>N = 64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>N = 64</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Father Status</th>
<th>N = 128</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Effect</td>
<td>N = 80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total N = 292

Fig. 1—Schema of analysis of variance.

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In Figure 1 it may be observed that the two main classifications and their respective sub-classifications are Sex—boys, girls; and Father Status—father present, father absent—death, and father absent—other.

Description of the Criterion Measures

The Rotter Incomplete Sentences Blank, College Form, was used as one measuring device. This instrument is a semistructured projective device which yields a single over-all adjustment score for each subject, and it may be administered individually or to groups. Each subject is asked to complete forty sentences for which the first word or words are supplied. As in other projective devices, it is assumed that the subject reflects his own wishes, desires, fears, and attitudes in the sentences he writes. A sample of the items for sentence completion is listed below:

1. I like . . .
5. I regret . . .
7. Boys . . .
11. A mother . . .
20. I suffer . . .
30. I hate . . .
34. I wish . . .
35. My father . . .
36. I secretly . . .
40. Most girls . . .
Historically, the incomplete sentences method is related most closely to the word association test; the major difference appears to be in the length of the stimulus. In the sentence completion tests, tendencies to block and to twist the meaning of the stimulus words appear and the responses may be categorized in a somewhat similar fashion to the word association method. There is no attempt to measure speed of reaction and there is no real pressure for immediate association. The method of analysis is frequently more similar to that of the Thematic Apperception Test than that of the word association method. Theoretically, scores can range from zero to 240; practically, they range from around seventy to 200 with scores of 110 to 150 being most common. High scores indicate poor adjustment, and low scores, good adjustment. A cutting score can be established for separation of adjusted and maladjusted subjects, although the cutting score could not be considered a magic figure which miraculously separates the truly adjusted from the truly maladjusted.

The Rotter Manual reports a corrected split-half reliability of .84 based on male college students, and .83 based on female students. Inter-scorer reliability for two scorers trained by the authors was .91 for male and .96 for female.

As to validity, female students in mental hygiene were compared with those not under treatment, and despite some overlap, a cutting score of 135 on the Rotter correctly
identified 78 per cent of the adjusted cases and 59 per cent of the maladjusted. The biserial correlation coefficient between the classification of adjusted and maladjusted and Rotter scores for females was .50. The data for males showed that a cutting score of 175 correctly identified 89 per cent of the adjusted and 52 per cent of the maladjusted, the biserial coefficient was .62. Churchill and Grandall found test-retest reliability on college students as .52 for one year and .40 for three years.

The Bell Adjustment Inventory, Revised (1962), Student Form, was used as a second measuring device. This instrument is a self-report of the individual's life adjustments as they have been experienced by him. It may be administered individually or to groups, and there is no time limit. It provides six measures of personal and social adjustment:

a. Home Adjustment
b. Health Adjustment
c. Submissiveness—Self-Assertion
d. Emotionality
e. Hostility—Friendliness
f. Masculinity—Femininity

There are 200 questions, and the subject is to respond to each question with "yes," "no," or "?." Each of the 200 items has the letter a, b, c, d, e, or f printed immediately in front of the question to indicate the category in which it is included; a, indicating Home Adjustment; b, Health Adjustment and so on. Representative questions are:
8a Did you ever have a strong desire to run away from home?

14b Are you subject to hay fever or asthma?

21c Did you ever take the lead to enliven a dull party?

28d Do you often feel lonesome, even when you are with people?

34e Have you ever felt that someone was trying to do you harm?

35f Would you like to be a private secretary?

The answer sheets may be scored on the IBM test scoring machine or by hand using the same stencils employed for machine scoring. High scores indicate unsatisfactory adjustment and low scores excellent adjustment, with the exception of one reverse situation—the Masculinity-Femininity score for men. Profiles may be plotted, if desired, on a sheet which reflects descriptive norms on the reverse side.

The Bell Manual reports coefficients of reliability for each of six sections of the Inventory as above .80, ranging from .80 to .89. Coefficients of validity, matching Submissiveness with Alport A/S, etc., range from .73 to .93. Although other research investigators have reported various findings concerning the Inventory, the consensus of opinion appears to be favorable as to the usefulness of the instrument. For instance, Vance sees the revised Inventory as providing

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3Forrest L. Vance, "Review of Revised Student Form," The Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook, Oscar Krisen Buros, Editor (Highland Park, 1965), pp. 147-149.
"a total face lifting for this venerable member of the first generation of objectively scored personality questionnaires." Further, that the manual gives interpretive guidelines, which are in happy contrast to the perfunctory materials provided with many devices. Vance feels that the revision is supported by sufficient validity data to justify trial use as a screening device. Siegel seems to feel that the revised version is not necessarily an improvement over the older edition. He says that "on the whole, the revision of this inventory is not likely either to encourage or discourage more widespread use of the instrument."

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CHAPTER III

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The results of this study follow in the same order as the listing of the hypotheses in the second chapter. The .05 level of probability was selected as the significant level for the acceptance or rejection of all theoretical and statistical hypotheses. The analysis of variance procedure was applied to determine if there was significant interaction concerning each of the seven variables. The variables were as follows: over-all adjustment, home adjustment, health adjustment, submissiveness—self-assertion, emotionality, hostility-friendliness, and masculinity-femininity. If there was significant interaction among the cell means of the groups, the main sex effects and the main father effects were ignored, and the simple effects (boys by father status, and girls by father status) were tested by obtaining the means, standard deviations, mean differences, and t values. In essence, this was testing the statistical (null) hypotheses that Mean I = Mean II, Mean I = Mean III, and Mean II = Mean III for each sex separately for the three groups as follows: (M-I) Father Present, (M-II) Father Absent Death, and (M-III) Father Absent Other. If there was no significant interaction, the main sex effect
and the main father effects were tested. If any significant
difference was suspected among the main sex means, or the
main father means, a t test of the significance of the
difference between the means was made.

Over-all Adjustment

In Table I it may be observed that the analysis of
variance, Sex by Father, yielded an F ratio of 3.319 which
was significant at less than the .05 level of confidence.
Since there was significant interaction among the variances
in the cells, the main sex effect and the main father effects
were ignored, and the simple effects were tested.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father (F)</td>
<td>26885.000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13442.500</td>
<td>3.319*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (C)</td>
<td>72.800</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>72.800</td>
<td>&lt;1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Father (SF)</td>
<td>1567.200</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>783.600</td>
<td>3.319*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Cells (w)</td>
<td>67528.000</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>236.112</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>95053.000</td>
<td>291</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 level of probability,
**Significant at .001 level of probability.

Table II reflects the means, standard deviations, mean
differences, and t values concerning the simple effects, Sex
by Father.
From an inspection of Table II it was readily apparent that all means were significantly different except for the Father Absent-Death group of girls and the Father Absent-Other group of girls. High scores indicate good adjustment and low scores indicate poor adjustment. It was predicted (major Hypotheses la) that boys orphaned by the death of the father tend to have less satisfactory over-all adjustment than non-orphaned boys, and that boys father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father. The data support the prediction.

### TABLE II

**Means, Standard Deviations, Mean Differences, and t Values, Father Present, Father Absent-Death, and Father Absent-Other, Simple Effects, Sex by Father, Rotter Incomplete Sentences Blank**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(M-I)</th>
<th>(M-II) Father Absent-Death</th>
<th>M diff.</th>
<th>t values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>N: 64</td>
<td>Father Present: Mean = 117.750, SD = 16.549</td>
<td>N: 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>N: 64</td>
<td>Father Present: Mean = 111.861, SD = 14.846</td>
<td>N: 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(M-I)</td>
<td>Father Present</td>
<td>(M-III) Father Absent-Other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>N: 64</td>
<td>Father Absent-Death: Mean = 9.250</td>
<td>N: 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>N: 64</td>
<td>Father Absent-Other: Mean = 9.250</td>
<td>N: 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(M-II) Father Absent-Death</td>
<td>(M-III) Father Absent-Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>N: 40</td>
<td>Father Absent-Death: Mean = 127.000, SD = 12.563</td>
<td>N: 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>N: 42</td>
<td>Father Absent-Other: Mean = 132.175, SD = 14.685</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#Significant at .01 level of probability.
##Significant at .001 level of probability.
The same prediction (major hypothesis lb) was made concerning the over-all adjustment of girls. The data support the prediction concerning girls orphaned by death of the father, but do not support the prediction regarding girls father-orphaned by other reasons.

Figure 2 depicts the over-all adjustment as reflected by Table II. It may be observed that the boys appeared to
be progressively influenced in about equal degrees when
father-loss was by death and father-loss was by other reasons.
The girls, however, seemed to be slightly more affected by
loss of the father by death with only a slight change when
the loss resulted from other reasons.

Home Adjustment

Home adjustment and the next five measures of personal
and social adjustment involve the scores as obtained by the
Bell Adjustment Inventory. It is again pointed out that high
scores indicate unsatisfactory adjustment and low scores in-
dicate excellent adjustment, with the exception of one reverse
situation—the Masculinity-Femininity score for males.

In Table III it may be observed that the analysis of
variance concerning home adjustment indicates that inter-
action was not significant regarding the simple effects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father (F)</td>
<td>590.874</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>295.437</td>
<td>7.790***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (S)</td>
<td>9.619</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.619</td>
<td>&lt;1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Father (SF)</td>
<td>178.030</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>89.016</td>
<td>2.348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Cells (w)</td>
<td>10645.668</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>37.923</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11624.641</td>
<td>291</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***Significant at .001 level of probability.
Sex by Father, and that the F ratio does reflect significance at the .001 level concerning the main Father effects.

Table IV reflects the means, standard deviations, mean differences, and t values concerning the main Father effects.

**TABLE IV**

**MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, MEAN DIFFERENCES, AND t VALUES, MAIN FATHER EFFECTS, BELL ADJUSTMENT INVENTORY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Boys &amp; Girls</th>
<th>Father Present</th>
<th>(M-I) Father Absent-Death</th>
<th>M diff.</th>
<th>t values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(N-I)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>7.734</td>
<td>5.692</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant at .001 level of probability.**

From an examination of Table IV it is apparent that combining the sexes for an investigation of the main Father effects revealed only one t value which was significant (.001 level). The data reflected that the boys and girls who had lost the father by reasons other than death had less satisfactory home adjustment than the boys and girls who had not lost the father.
It was predicted (secondary Hypothesis la) that the home adjustment of boys orphaned by death of the father tends to be less satisfactory than that of non-orphaned boys, and that boys father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father. The hypothesis was not tenable.

The same prediction (secondary Hypothesis lb) was made concerning the home adjustment of the girls. Again the data showed that the hypothesis was not tenable.

Health Adjustment

In Table V it may be observed that the analysis of variance concerning health adjustment indicates that interaction was not significant regarding the simple effects, Sex by Father, and that the F ratio does reflect significance at the .05 level concerning the main Sex effect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father (F)</td>
<td>11.301</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.650</td>
<td>&lt; 1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (S)</td>
<td>92.109</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>92.109</td>
<td>4.488*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Father (SF)</td>
<td>34.980</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17.490</td>
<td>&lt; 1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within (w)</td>
<td>5869.350</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>20.522</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6007.740</td>
<td>291</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 level of probability.
As interaction was not significant concerning the simple effects, Sex by Father, regarding health adjustment, the main Sex effect was tested. Table VI reflects the means, standard deviations, mean difference, and t value regarding the main Sex effect.

### TABLE VI

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, MEAN DIFFERENCE, AND t VALUE, COMBINED GROUPS, MAIN SEX EFFECT, BELL ADJUSTMENT INVENTORY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M-I Boys</th>
<th></th>
<th>M-II Girls</th>
<th></th>
<th>M diff.</th>
<th>t value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Combined Groups</td>
<td></td>
<td>Combined Groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>7.760</td>
<td>4.100</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>8.883</td>
<td>4.869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.100</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.883</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.869</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-2.125*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 level of probability.

It may be observed from Table VI that the main Sex effect was significant at the .05 level. The boys combined as one group, without regard to father status, reflected better health adjustment than the girls when combined into a similar group. In essence, loss of the father did not appear to be an influencing factor in relationship to the health adjustment of either the boys or the girls, but the sex factor was operative at the significant level.

It was predicted (secondary Hypothesis 2a) that the health adjustment of boys father-orphaned by any reason will not tend to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned
boys. The data support the hypothesis. It thus appeared that the absence of the father had no significant bearing upon the health adjustment of the boys.

The same prediction (secondary Hypothesis 2b) was made concerning the health adjustment of the girls. The data support the hypothesis. It seemed that the absence of the father was not a significant factor in relationship to the health adjustment of the girls.

Submissiveness—Self-Assertion

As shown in Table VII, interaction was significant at the .05 level concerning the simple effects, Sex by Father. Since there was significant interaction among the variances in the cells, the simple effects were tested.

TABLE VII
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE, SEX X FATHER STATUS, BELL ADJUSTMENT INVENTORY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father (F)</td>
<td>87,500</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>43.750</td>
<td>&lt;1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (S)</td>
<td>64,277</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>64,277</td>
<td>1.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Father (SF)</td>
<td>426,289</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>213,144</td>
<td>3.561*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within (w)</td>
<td>1,711,602</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>59,855</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,769,668</td>
<td>291</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 level of probability.
Table VIII reflects the means, standard deviations, mean differences, and t values concerning the simple effects, Sex by Father, regarding the submissiveness-self-assertion continuum.

TABLE VIII

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, MEAN DIFFERENCES, AND T VALUES, FATHER PRESENT, FATHER ABSENT-DEATH, AND FATHER ABSENT-OTHER, SIMPLE EFFECTS, SEX BY FATHER, BELL ADJUSTMENT INVENTORY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(M-I) Father Present</th>
<th>(M-II) Father Absent-Death</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M diff.</th>
<th>t values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys 64 13.828 7.543</td>
<td>40 10.500 7.992</td>
<td>-3.328</td>
<td>2.134*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls 40 12.931 7.750</td>
<td>40 13.600 7.261</td>
<td>+1.569</td>
<td>-1.006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(M-III) Father Present</td>
<td>(M-III) Father Absent-Other</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M diff.</td>
<td>t values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys 64 13.828 7.543</td>
<td>42 11.976 8.313</td>
<td>-1.852</td>
<td>1.205</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls 40 12.931 7.750</td>
<td>42 15.024 7.142</td>
<td>+2.993</td>
<td>-1.948</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table VIII it may be observed that only one t value is shown as significant. The boys orphaned by death of the father were significantly more submissive than the boys who had not been father-orphaned. As to the girls, there appeared to be no relationship between father-loss and the submissiveness-self-assertion continuum.
Figure 3 depicts the submissiveness-self-assertion continuum as reflected by Table VIII.

It was predicted (secondary Hypothesis 3a) that the submissiveness of boys orphaned by death of the father tends to be more pronounced than that of non-orphaned boys, and that boys father-orphaned by other reasons will not tend to be significantly different from those orphaned by death of the father. The data support the hypothesis.

In the submissiveness-self-assertion continuum it was predicted (secondary Hypothesis 3b) that girls father-orphaned by any reason would not be significantly different
from non-orphaned girls. The data (Table VIII) support the hypothesis. Loss of the father appeared to have no significant bearing upon the adjustment of girls concerning the submissiveness-self-assertion continuum.

**Emotionality**

In Table IX it may be observed that the analysis of variance yielded an F ratio of 5.164 regarding Sex by Father which was significant at the .01 level. Since there was significant interaction among the variances in the cells, the main sex effect and the main father effects were ignored, and the simple effects were tested.

**Table IX.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father (F)</td>
<td>61.708</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30.854</td>
<td>&lt;1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (S)</td>
<td>1346.332</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1346.332</td>
<td>27.029***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Father (SP)</td>
<td>514.657</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>257.343</td>
<td>5.164**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within (w)</td>
<td>14245.996</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>49.811</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15163.723</td>
<td>291</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant at .01 level of probability.**

**Significant at .001 level of probability.**

Table X reflects the means, standard deviations, mean differences, and t-values concerning the simple effects, Sex by Father.
TABLE X

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, MEAN DIFFERENCES, AND 
\textit{t} VALUES, FATHER PRESENT, FATHER ABSENT-DEATH, 
AND FATHER ABSENT-OTHER, SIMPLE EFFECTS, 
SEX BY FATHER, BELL ADJUSTMENT 
INVENTORY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(M-I) Father Present</th>
<th>(M-II) Father Absent-Other</th>
<th>M diff.</th>
<th>\textit{t} values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>12.000</td>
<td>6.408</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>13.922</td>
<td>7.404</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N-I) Father Present</td>
<td>(N-II) Father Absent-Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>12.000</td>
<td>6.408</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>13.922</td>
<td>7.404</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N-II) Father Absent-Death</td>
<td>(N-III) Father Absent-Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8.275</td>
<td>5.924</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16.850</td>
<td>7.268</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 level of probability.  
**Significant at .01 level of probability.

From an examination of Table X it is apparent that only two \textit{t} values indicate significance. The boys who lost the father by death had significantly better emotional adjustment (at .01 level) than the boys who had not experienced such a loss. The boys who had lost the father by reasons other than death were less well adjusted emotionally (significant at the .05 level) than the group who experienced loss of father by death. There was no significant difference between the boys with a father and those who lost the father by reasons other than death.
Concerning the girls, there was no significant difference between any two of the groups. The girls who lost the father by death exhibited a trend (approaching significance) toward less satisfactory emotional adjustment when compared with the girls who had not lost the father.

Figure 4 depicts the emotional adjustment as reflected by Table X.
It was predicted (secondary Hypothesis 4a) that the emotionality of boys orphaned by death of the father tends to be less satisfactory than that of non-orphaned boys, and that boys father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father. The data did not support the hypothesis. The father absent-death group was significantly different from the father present group, but in the opposite direction from that predicted. In essence, of the three groups of boys, the group orphaned by death of the father had a mean score which placed them in the "good" adjustment level, and the other two groups had means which placed them in the "average" adjustment level, according to the descriptive norms published by Bell.

The same prediction (secondary Hypothesis 4b) was made regarding the girls. The data lent some support (approached significance) to the prediction that the emotional control of girls orphaned by death of the father tends to be less satisfactory than that of non-orphaned girls. But, the data did not support the prediction that girls father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.

Hostility-Friendliness

In Table XI it may be observed that the analysis of variance concerning the hostility-friendliness continuum
yielded F ratios which were not significant. There was no significant interaction regarding the simple effects, Sex by Father, and the main effects are not shown as significant. It therefore appeared that the Ss were homogeneous as to hostility-friendliness. In essence, the presence or absence of the father seemed to have no significant bearing upon this element of personality.

**TABLE XI**

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE, SEX X FATHER STATUS, BELL ADJUSTMENT INVENTORY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father (F)</td>
<td>20.098</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.049</td>
<td>&lt; 1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (S)</td>
<td>44.507</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>44.507</td>
<td>1.527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Father (SF)</td>
<td>84.095</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>42.047</td>
<td>1.442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within (w)</td>
<td>8334.520</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>29.142</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>8483.220</td>
<td>291</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the hostility-friendliness continuum, it was predicted (secondary Hypothesis 5a) that boys father-orphaned by any reason will not tend to be significantly different from non-orphaned boys. The data support the hypothesis. This continuum may be more influenced by relationships with peers than by the relationships with parents.

In hostility-friendliness, it was predicted (secondary Hypothesis 5b) that girls orphaned by death of the father
will not tend to be significantly different from non-orphaned girls, while girls father-orphaned by other reasons will tend to be more hostile than non-orphaned girls. The data support the prediction of no difference between girls orphaned by death of the father, but failed to support the prediction that girls orphaned by other reasons will tend to be more hostile than non-orphaned girls. It appeared that loss of the father had no significant bearing upon the hostility-friendliness of the girls. Again, this continuum may be influenced more by peer relationships than by parental ones.

Masculinity-Femininity

As shown in Table XII, the analysis of variance regarding masculinity-femininity reflects interaction which is significant at the .05 level as to the simple effects, Sex by Father. Since there was significant interaction among the variances in the cells, the main sex effect and the main father effects were ignored and the simple effects were tested.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father (F)</td>
<td>4.256</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.128</td>
<td>&lt;1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (3)</td>
<td>7340.054</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7340.054</td>
<td>516.482***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Father (SF)</td>
<td>124.139</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>62.069</td>
<td>4.371*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within (w)</td>
<td>4061.223</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>14.200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11529.672</td>
<td>291</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 level of confidence
Table XIII reflects the means, standard deviations, mean differences, and t values concerning the simple effects, Sex by Father, regarding the masculinity-femininity continuum.

In Table XIII it may be observed that only one t value is significant. The girls who lost the father by reasons other than death were less feminine than the girls with deceased fathers. Loss of the father appeared to make no material difference to the boys.

### Table XIII

**Means, Standard Deviations, Mean Differences, and t Values, Father Present, Father Absent-Death, and Father Absent-Other, Simple Effects, Sex by Father, Bell Adjustment Inventory**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(K-I) Father Present</th>
<th>(K-II) Father Absent-Death</th>
<th>M diff. t values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N Mean SD</td>
<td>N Mean SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>64 19.672 3.487</td>
<td>40 20.625 3.985</td>
<td>+.953 -1.255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>64 10.031 3.522</td>
<td>40 8.575 2.818</td>
<td>-1.456 1.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(K-I) Father Present</td>
<td>(K-III) Father Absent-Other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N Mean SD</td>
<td>N Mean SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>64 19.672 3.487</td>
<td>42 19.238 4.185</td>
<td>-.434 .580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>64 10.031 3.522</td>
<td>42 10.548 4.366</td>
<td>+.517 -.690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(K-II) Father Absent-Death</td>
<td>(K-III) Father Absent-Other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N Mean SD</td>
<td>N Mean SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>40 20.625 3.985</td>
<td>42 19.238 4.185</td>
<td>-1.387 1.666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>40 8.575 2.818</td>
<td>42 10.548 4.366</td>
<td>+1.973 -2.369*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 level of probability.

In the masculinity-femininity continuum, it was predicted (secondary Hypothesis 6a) that the masculinity of
boys father-orphaned by any reason would not tend to be different from that of non-orphaned boys. The data support the hypothesis.

Concerning the girls, it was predicted (secondary Hypothesis 6b) that the femininity of girls orphaned by death of the father tends to be less pronounced than in non-orphaned girls. Further, that girls father-orphaned by other reasons would not be significantly different from girls orphaned by death of the father. The data did not support the hypothesis. There was, in fact, a trend (approaching significance) in the opposite direction from that predicted concerning girls orphaned by death of the father. These girls were more "feminine" than non-orphaned girls.

Figure 5 depicts the masculinity-femininity continuum as reflected by Table XIII. It should be noted that in this continuum, high scores indicate good adjustment for boys and low scores indicate good adjustment for girls.
Fig. 5—Sex by father status, masculinity-femininity continuum.
CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine if the early loss of the father is related to injurious effects upon the personality development of boys and girls which are still evident in late adolescence, the crucial time in life when educational, vocational and other important decisions are being made. It was assumed that personality is adversely influenced during childhood of both boys and girls by the early loss of the father. The Ss were college freshmen, ages 17, 18 and 19.

The discussion of the results of the study will be organized around the tests of the two major hypotheses concerning over-all adjustment, and the twelve secondary hypotheses which provide the basis for the investigation of the differential effects of the loss of the father on the adjustment of the adolescent. The fourteen working hypotheses were concerned with seven experimental variables as follows: over-all adjustment, home adjustment, health adjustment, submissiveness—self-assertion, emotionality, hostility-friendliness, and masculinity-femininity.

Over-all Adjustment

The findings of the study regarding over-all adjustment revealed that the group of male Ss who experienced loss of the
father by death were significantly (.01 level) less well adjusted than the group of boys who had not lost the father; further, that the group of boys who lost the father by divorce, separation, desertion or other reasons were significantly (.05 level) less well adjusted than the boys who lost the father by death. These findings support the hypothesis concerning the boys which predicted the ascending severity of the effects of father-loss when it occurred by death and when it occurred by other reasons.

The same prediction was made regarding the girls. It was found, however, that the girls did not follow the specific pattern as set by the boys. Essentially, the girls did appear to be adversely influenced by father-loss but it seemed to make little difference to them how the loss occurred. Figure 2 depicts these findings.

Levine\(^1\) feels that the father's role in the personality development is very important to boys and girls, and that it is more detrimental to boys than to girls to lose the father. Wynn\(^2\) seems to be in agreement with Levine. Truxal and Merrill\(^3\) make no distinction as to any differential effects between boys and girls regarding father-loss, and they feel that the adverse effects are in ascending severity when the

\(^1\)Levine, "The Father in the Home," pp. 8-32.


\(^3\)Truxal and Merrill, The Family in American Culture, pp. 630-650.
loss is by (1) death, (2) divorce, and (3) separation or
desertion. Despert seems to be in agreement with Truxal and
Merrill except that father-loss by death is believed to be
more traumatic to the child than loss by divorce, separation,
or other reasons. The findings of the current study seem to
be rather close to the theories as held by Truxal and Merrill.

Home Adjustment

The findings of the study revealed no significant differ-
ences between any two groups of the boys or any two groups
of the girls. The hypothesis predicted adverse effects in
ascending severity for boys when (1) father-loss occurred by
death and when (2) the loss resulted from other reasons. The
same prediction was made concerning the girls. Neither
hypothesis was tenable. The main Father effects, however,
did reflect significance. Combining the sexes revealed that
the group of boys and girls who lost the father by reasons
other than death had less satisfactory home adjustment
(significant at .001 level) than the group of boys and girls
who had not lost the father. No other significant differences
developed. It is believed that several factors may have con-
tributed to the adverse effects experienced by the group of
boys and girls who lost the father by reasons other than
death. The attitude of the mother toward the live but absent
father could be the most significant factor. Despert⁴ believes

that in such a situation, the mother is frustrated and disappointed in her marriage, and that she is therefore hampered in her ability to help the child in a very painful situation.

Health Adjustment

Loss of the father did not appear to be an influence in relationship to the health adjustment of either the boys or the girls, and the finding was in line with the hypotheses. The main Sex effect, however, was found to be significant at the .05 level. The related literature is silent concerning health adjustment as related to father-loss, and it is also silent regarding a comparison of the sexes relative to health matters. It can only be surmised that these adolescent girls saw themselves as experiencing some health difficulties due to such factors as menstrual disturbances. Further, it is also possible that the boys were less prone than the girls to admit to health problems, seeing such an admission as a threat to their masculine role.

Submissiveness--Self-Assertion

In the submissiveness--self-assertion continuum it was found that the boys who lost the father by death were more submissive (significant at .05 level) than the boys who had not lost the father. There was no significant difference between the two groups of father-absent boys. The findings were in line with the prediction. Allport believes that the

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father plays a part in inducing compulsive masculinity in the son, and that the father "is a carrier of the competitive culture with its frontier tradition." This seems to imply that father-absence brings about submissiveness in the personality make-up of boys. Sears and others found that father-absent boys were less frequently aggressive than father-present boys. This also seems to imply that father-absence is related to submissiveness in boys.

Loss of the father appeared to have no significant bearing upon the adjustment of the girls regarding the submissiveness—self-assertion continuum. The finding was in line with the hypothesis. As the related literature is silent concerning girls and this continuum, it can only be surmised that peers and the mother are more influential than the father in the submissiveness—self-assertion development of girls.

Emotionality

Regarding emotionality of the male Ss, adverse effects in ascending severity were predicted (1) when father-loss occurred by death and (2) when it occurred by other reasons. The data did not support the prediction. Of the three groups of boys, the group orphaned by death of the father reflected better emotional control (at significant levels) than either of the other two groups (which were approximately equal

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in emotional adjustment). These findings appear to be in con-
flict with Levine's belief that the father plays a vital role in the emotional development of the boy. There appears to be conflict with the Payne and Mussen study of boys which found that high father identification was related to good emotional adjustment. It can only be surmised that the boys in the present study, who lost the father by death, may have had experiences and have assumed responsibilities which brought about emotional adjustment comparable to that of men.

Losing the father appeared to have no significant rela-
tionship to the emotional adjustment of the girls. Adverse effects in ascending severity had been predicted (1) when father-loss occurred by death and (2) when it occurred by other reasons. Perhaps the findings of the present study may be explained by the possibility that the mother, rather than the father, influences the emotional development of the girl. This supposition seems to be supported by Stolz who feels that "it is the mother who can develop emotional strength or weakness in her baby."

**Hostility-Friendliness**

In the hostility-friendliness continuum, no difference was found between any two groups of the boys, and findings

were in agreement with the hypothesis. The presence or absence of the father seemed to have no significant bearing upon hostility-friendliness adjustment of the boys. The findings appear to be in agreement with a study by Barker and Adams\textsuperscript{10} which points to the schools in the United States as one of the most important social systems in the life of the adolescent. In spite of unfavorable family constellations, many adolescents are able to make adequate adjustments through their associations with peers, teachers, and others in the school environment. The findings of the current study appear to be in conflict with a study by Stolz\textsuperscript{11} which found the war-separated child to have a greater amount of hostility than the non-separated children. The father-absence, due to war, seemed to have a more pronounced effect on girls than boys. The Stolz study involved young children. Perhaps the boys in the present study were able to overcome any early difficulties by the time of late adolescence. Such a possibility is in line with the study by Anderson\textsuperscript{12} which found that "earlier difficulties tend to get straightened out" as the person grows.

Concerning the girl Ss, it was predicted that the group which lost the father by reasons other than death would be more hostile than the other two groups. The prediction was based on


\textsuperscript{11}Stolz, Father Relations of War-Born Children, pp. 181-207.

\textsuperscript{12}Anderson, "The Prediction of Adjustment Over Time," pp. 63-68.
the possibility that the disturbed family constellation before and after the home was broken would tend to create hostility in the girls toward their home situation and their total environment. The data did not support the prediction. Father-absence did not appear to have any bearing on the hostility-friendliness adjustment of the girls. The findings seem to be explainable in the same manner as that of the boys above.

**Masculinity-Femininity**

In the masculinity-femininity continuum, it was predicted that the masculinity of boys father-orphaned by any reason would not tend to be different from that of non-orphaned boys. The data support the hypothesis. The finding appears to be in line with the theory as expressed by Josselyn, which indicates that parental and social influences cause sexual differentiation to become sharp, but more likely "there is a biological difference between boys and girls which presses for expression." Josselyn seems to be saying that boys assume their masculine role and girls their feminine role because of biological influences rather than environmental factors such as parental pressure or parental absence. Gomberg says that "society may clarify or confuse sex identity, but the maleness or femaleness is there, and it has within it an urge to grow."

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13Josselyn, "The Young Boy—No Kingdom of His Own?" pp. 2-7.

In the masculinity-feminity continuum, it was predicted that the femininity of girls orphaned by death of the father tends to be less pronounced than that of non-orphaned girls; further, that girls father-orphaned by other reasons would not tend to be significantly different from girls orphaned by death of the father. The data did not support the hypothesis. There was, in fact, a trend (approaching significance) in the opposite direction of that predicted concerning girls orphaned by death of the father. These girls were more feminine than non-orphaned girls. The prediction was based on a theory of Freud\(^{15}\) which seemed to indicate that he considered the presence of the father in the home as a necessary factor in the proper development of the girl into her appropriate female role. A further basis for the prediction was found in the theory of Martin and Stendler,\(^{16}\) which holds that by admiring her hairdo, commenting on her clothes, and treating her differently from her brother, the father acts as a reinforcer of the growing girl's femininity. Perhaps the finding can be explained by the girls forming a closer association and identification with the mother as a result of the death of the father. Support for this supposition seems to come from a study by Lynn and Sawrey,\(^{17}\) in which father-absent girls became more dependent on the mother. Further support comes

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\(^{15}\)Freud, "Female Sexuality," pp. 194-211.


\(^{17}\)Lynn and Sawrey, "The Effects of Father-Absence on Norwegian Boys and Girls," pp. 258-262.
from a study by Stolz, which found that father separation caused the child to become closer to the mother. Brim feels that personality is "the learned repertoire of roles." The girls may have become more feminine as a result of becoming closer to the mother and learning her role to a greater extent than the other girls.

In summary of the results, it appears that some relationship did exist between the personality adjustment of the various groups and the presence or absence of the father. Essentially, in over-all adjustment, as measured by the Rotter, the boys and girls father-orphaned by death tended to be less well adjusted than the non-orphaned. In the loss of father by reasons other than death, the boys seemed to be more adversely influenced than the girls. The six variables, as measured by the Bell, revealed some differences, but did not seem to account fully for all of the specific personality factors which were influencing the over-all adjustment. Perhaps the self rating device did not probe deeply enough, and it may have not included all of the influencing factors.

Suggestions for further study:

The effects of emotional divorce versus legal divorce upon the personality development of children.

The effects upon children of father-loss as it is related to the attitude of the mother regarding the absent father.

\[16\] Brim, "Personality Development as Role-Learning," p. 141.
A study similar to the present one which compares father absence—one group which was able to identify with another male and one group which was not able to identify with another male.

A study similar to the present one which employs other measuring devices. For instance, a combination of two or more of the following: Rotter Incomplete Sentences Blank, Rorschach, S-O Rorschach, Thematic Apperception Test, Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, California Psychological Inventory, and Bonney-Fessenden Sociograph or other sociometric device:

A study similar to the present one involving older Ss.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This paper investigated the relationship of the early loss of the father to injurious effects upon the personality development of boys and girls which are still evident in late adolescence. There have been a number of studies which indicate that adverse effects exist during early or middle childhood, but fail to show whether the difficulties persist into late adolescence.

Major Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a: Boys orphaned by death of the father tend to have less satisfactory over-all adjustment than do non-orphaned boys, and boys father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.

Hypothesis 1b: Girls orphaned by death of the father tend to have less satisfactory over-all adjustment than do non-orphaned girls, and girls father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.

Secondary Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a: Home adjustment of boys orphaned by death of the father tends to be less satisfactory than that of
non-orphaned boys, and boys father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.

Hypothesis 1b: Home adjustment of girls orphaned by death of the father tends to be less satisfactory than that of non-orphaned girls, and girls father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.

Hypothesis 2a: Health adjustment of boys father-orphaned by any reason will not tend to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned boys.

Hypothesis 2b: Health adjustment of girls father-orphaned by any reason will not tend to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned girls.

Hypothesis 3a: Submissiveness of boys orphaned by death of the father tends to be more pronounced than that of non-orphaned boys, and boys father-orphaned by other reasons will not tend to be significantly different from those orphaned by death.

Hypothesis 3b: Submissiveness—self-assertion of girls father-orphaned by any reason tends to be no different from that of non-orphaned girls.

Hypothesis 4a: Emotionality of boys orphaned by death of the father tends to be less satisfactory than that of non-orphaned boys, and boys father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.
Hypothesis 4b: Emotionality of girls orphaned by death of the father tends to be less satisfactory than that of non-orphaned girls, and girls father-orphaned by other reasons tend to be more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father.

Hypothesis 5a: Hostility-friendliness of boys father-orphaned by any reason will not tend to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned boys.

Hypothesis 5b: Hostility-friendliness of girls orphaned by death of the father will not tend to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned girls, while girls father-orphaned by other reasons will tend to be more hostile than non-orphaned girls.

Hypothesis 6a: Masculinity of boys orphaned by death of the father will not tend to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned boys, and the same prediction is made for boys father-orphaned by other reasons.

Hypothesis 6b: Femininity of girls orphaned by death of the father tends to be less pronounced than that of non-orphaned girls, and it is not expected that femininity of girls father-orphaned by other reasons will be significantly different from that of those orphaned by death.

Method

The Rotter Incomplete Sentences Blank, College Form, and the Bell Adjustment Inventory, Revised 1962, Student Form, were administered to male and female college freshmen (ages 17, 18
and 19) in North Texas area colleges during the spring semester of 1966. The tests were administered to classes of students taking basic courses. The number of subjects for study were 64 each, boys and girls, Father Present; 40 each, boys and girls, Father Absent-Death; and 42 each, boys and girls, Father Absent-Other. The loss of the father had to occur by age eight of the child with no subsequent father substitute in the home. The Father Absent-Other category was defined as loss of the father by separation, divorce, desertion or other reason. The injurious effects measured were as follows: over-all adjustment as measured by the Rotter, and six measures of personal and social adjustment as determined by the Bell. No attempt was made to match the subjects by socio-economic or intelligence levels, as the test manuals indicate these factors are not pertinent on the college level.

A two by three factorial design was employed to analyze the variability of the population on the seven different factors. Interaction and main effects were studied in detail. The t test was used to analyze the simple effects and the main effects (as applicable) in reference to the basic differences between the means of the various groups. The two main classifications and their respective sub-classifications were Sex--boys, girls; and Father Status--father present, father absent death, and father absent other.
Conclusions

Boys orphaned by death of the father were found to have less satisfactory over-all adjustment than non-orphaned boys, and boys father-orphaned by other reasons were more adversely affected than those orphaned by death of the father. Major Hypothesis 1a was accepted.

Girls orphaned by death of the father were found to have considerably less satisfactory over-all adjustment than non-orphaned girls. The girls father-orphaned by other reasons had slightly higher mean scores than those orphaned by death of the father, although the difference was not significant. In essence, the girls were affected by loss of the father, but the manner of loss made little difference to them. Major Hypothesis 1b was accepted as to the girls orphaned by death of the father, and rejected concerning those orphaned by other reasons.

Boys father-orphaned by death were found to be as satisfactory in home adjustment as non-orphaned boys, and boys father-orphaned by other reasons had significantly less satisfactory home adjustment than either of the other two groups. Secondary Hypothesis 2a was accepted concerning the boys father-orphaned by other reasons, and rejected concerning the boys father-orphaned by death.

Girls father-orphaned by death were found to have less
was no significant difference between the father absent-groups. Losing the father appears to have had some adverse effects on the girls, although the manner of loss did not seem to be an influencing factor. Secondary Hypothesis 1b was accepted in part and rejected in part.

Boys father-orphaned by any reason were not found to be significantly different from non-orphaned boys concerning health adjustment. Secondary Hypothesis 2a was accepted.

Girls father-orphaned by any reason were not found to be significantly different from non-orphaned girls concerning their health adjustment. Secondary Hypothesis 2b was accepted.

Boys father-orphaned by death were found to be more submissive than non-orphaned boys, and there was no significant difference between the two groups of orphaned boys. The manner of father-loss appeared to make no material difference. Secondary Hypothesis 3a was accepted.

Girls father-orphaned by any reason were not found to be significantly different in the submissiveness--self-assertion continuum from non-orphaned girls. Father-loss appeared to have no significant bearing upon the submissiveness--self-assertion adjustment of the girls. Secondary Hypothesis 3b was accepted.

Boys orphaned by death of the father were found to have significantly better emotional adjustment than non-orphaned boys. This finding was in the opposite direction of that predicted. There was no significant difference between the
non-orphaned boys and the boys father-orphaned by reasons other than death. Secondary Hypothesis 4a was rejected.

Girls father-orphaned by any reason were not found to be significantly different in emotional adjustment from non-orphaned girls. Secondary Hypothesis 4b was rejected.

Boys father-orphaned by any reason were not found to be significantly different in hostility-friendliness from non-orphaned boys. Secondary Hypothesis 5a was accepted.

Girls father-orphaned by any reason were not found to be significantly different in hostility-friendliness from non-orphaned girls. Secondary Hypothesis 5b was accepted in part and rejected in part. It had been predicted that girls father-orphaned by reasons other than death would be more hostile than girls father-orphaned by death.

The masculinity of boys father-orphaned by any reason was not found to be significantly different from that of non-orphaned boys. Secondary Hypothesis 6a was accepted.

Girls father-orphaned by death exhibited a trend (approaching significance) toward being more feminine than non-orphaned girls. This finding was in the opposite direction to that predicted. There was no significant difference between non-orphaned girls and the girls father-orphaned by reasons other than death. Secondary Hypothesis 6b was rejected.

As so little is known about the importance of the role of the father in the personality development of the child (particularly the effects of his absence and whether the
effects persist into the later life of the child), further studies seem to be in order. Additional studies should tend to confirm the findings of this study which indicate that father absence is related to injurious effects which persist into the later life of the child. Such information could be of value to parents, teachers, counselors, psychologists, and others who deal with young people in close relationships.
Information Sheet

Name________________________Birth Date________________Race__________

Freshman   Sophomore   Junior   Senior   Graduate Student________

Are both of your natural parents living? Yes  No_________.
If both natural parents are living, has either your mother or father been absent from the home for extended periods of time (Yes  No) because of separation, divorce, other reason?__________

Did your father leave home not to return for some reason other than death? Yes  No________. Divorce, separation, desertion, other. What age were you when he left?__________
Did you have a substitute father in the home during his absence? Yes  No________. Grandfather, other person. Did you have a substitute father outside the home; someone you especially admired, or looked to for advice and guidance? Yes  No________. Classify the person (such as family friend, uncle, minister or priest, school teacher, as applicable)__________

If either parent is deceased, which one? Father  Mother_________.
What age were you at the time?_________. Did the surviving parent remarry? Yes  No________. If the surviving parent did not remarry, did you have a substitute parent in the home? Yes  No________.
Grandmother, grandfather, other person. Did you have a substitute father outside the home; someone you especially admired, or looked to for advice and guidance? Yes  No________. Classify the person (such as family friend, uncle, minister or priest, school teacher, as applicable)__________

Educational level of your Mother Father_________.
(Even though parent deceased, show educational level at time became deceased.)__________

Father's occupation________________________Mother's occupation________________________
(Show occupation each parent followed even though now deceased.)__________

I have _______ brothers and _______ sisters.

Ages of brothers_________________________________Ages of sisters_________________________________
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