

EFFECTS OF EARLY AND LATE FATHER ABSENCE ON
FEMALE COLLEGE STUDENTS' LOCUS OF CONTROL

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of father absence during childhood on female college students' perceived locus of control. Subjects were divided into early father-absent, late father-absent, and father-present groups. Father-absent daughters were defined as any female whose father was absent from the home due to death, divorce, abandonment or separation prior to age eighteen. As in previous research, early father absence was defined as the absence of the father from the home at or before the daughter turned age five. Late father absence was defined as the absence of the father from the home after the daughter turned age five.

Subjects were administered the Levenson's Locus of Control Scale and a demographic questionnaire. This thesis failed to find a significant difference in scores on the three Locus of Control subscales for the father-absent, father-present, and early and late father-absent groups. Subsequent analyses revealed a significant correlation between the age at which father absence occurred and locus of control scores. That is, the earlier the daughters experienced father absence, the more internal their self-reported locus of control. This correlational analysis was conducted on all subjects including those who reported that father absence occurred after age eighteen.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The effect of the family constellation on child development is a topic of interest to many researchers. Numerous studies have investigated the importance of mother-child interaction (Bretherton & Waters, 1985; Belsky, Rovine, & Taylor, 1984; Greenspan & Lieberman, 1980; Provence & Lipton, 1962; Rutter, 1979; Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978; Blehar, Lieberman, & Ainsworth, 1977; Bibring, Dwyer, Huntington, & Valenstein, 1976; Stayton & Ainsworth, 1973). A smaller number of studies have examined father-child interaction. A majority of these researchers have focused on the amount of father-child involvement and how fathers act as behavioral models for their children, for example, Lamb, Pleck, Charnov, and Levine (1987). There is consensus that fathers, when compared to mothers, spend less time with their children (Berman & Pedersen, 1987; Lamb, 1987; Montemayor & Brownlee, 1987; Russell, 1983; Bernard, 1981). One explanation may be that the greater paternal time away from home due to work results in less time spent with children.

Recent studies have focused on several factors that may affect fathers' familial involvement. These factors include age, gender, developmental stage of the child (Collins &

Russell, 1991; Hill, 1988; Steinberg, 1988; Maccoby, 1984; Maccoby, 1980; Block, Block, & Morrison 1981), quality of the marital relationship, coping mechanisms used in marital problem-solving (Gottman, 1991; Gottman & Levenson, 1986), and the frequent co-occurrence of children's adolescence and fathers' midlife stage (Montemayor, McKenry, & Julian, 1993).

The impact of father absence from the home during a child's life, whether due to divorce, death, or abandonment, also has been studied. Father absence now affects more children's lives due to the increasing number of divorces in America today. It is estimated that nearly half of the children born in the 1970's and early 1980's may live in single-parent homes for a portion of their childhood (U. S. National Center for Health Statistics, 1991; Frustenberg, 1990; Glick, 1988). Maternal custody rather than paternal custody is still one typical outcome of divorce (Herzog & Sudia, 1973). In some instances, fathers seem to disappear after such an outcome or fail to fulfill their visitation obligations (Bronstein, 1988).

This thesis addresses the issue that little research has been conducted on father-child relationships, and even less research has been conducted on the effect of father absence on girls. Of these studies, areas that have been investigated include personality dynamics in boys (Nelson &

Valliant, 1993), size of human figure drawings (Payne, 1990), Fear of Failure scores on the modified Thematic Apperception Test (Greenfield & Teevan, 1986), children's attitudes toward themselves and their parents (Parish & Wigle, 1985), daughters' sex-role identity, parental identification, and self-concept (Stephens & Day, 1979), effects of father absence on women's perceptions of an ideal mate and father (Vargon, Lynn, & Barton, 1976), effects on females' age of menarche (Moffitt, Caspi, Belsky, & Silva, 1992) and mother-son interactiveness when the father is absent from the home (Longabaugh, 1973).

In 1972, Hetherington proposed that father absence would affect adolescent girls' psychological functioning. Her ground-breaking study consisted of three groups of white, lower and lower-middle class, first born girls 13 to 17 years of age who attended a local recreation center. The three groups were defined as father-absent due to divorce, father-absent due to death, and intact families. None of the girls had male siblings living in the home. Data was gathered from several measures which included (1) observational measures of each girl's behavior in the recreational setting; (2) measures of each girl's nonverbal behavior during an interview with a male or female interviewer; (3) ratings based on an interview with the daughter; (4) the California Personality Inventory

Femininity Scale (Gough, 1957) (5) the Internal-External Control Scale (Rotter, 1966), (6) the Manifest Anxiety Scale (Bendig, 1956), and (7) the Draw-a-Person Test (Machover, 1957). No differences appeared among the groups for mean age, education, occupation, age of mothers or fathers, maternal employment, religious affiliation, or number of siblings.

The most striking difference between father-absent and father-present groups was that the father-absent daughters were more likely to disrupt their interactions with males with attention and proximity seeking behaviors. Differences were reported for the groups in nonverbal communication only with the male interviewers. Daughters of divorced parents had more proximity-seeking and attention-seeking behaviors when compared to the controls. Hetherington suggested that girls may lack the opportunity for constructive interaction with a loving, attentive father which may result in apprehensive and inadequate skills when relating to other males.

Hainline and Feig (1978) designed a similar study. Subjects consisted of college women aged 17 to 23, all from families of lower-middle and middle-class income levels. Further differences from Hetherington's (1972) study were that interviews were conducted with subjects only, not the mothers, and the behavioral observations were made only

during the interview. In addition, romantic love and sex role traditionalism were assessed.

Hainline and Feig's (1978) study did not support Hetherington's (1972) overall finding of females' disrupted interactions with males as a result of father absence. This failure to support Hetherington's (1972) findings may have resulted from factors such as the age of the daughter when father absence occurred, the subjects' age at the time of the study, the presence of another male, specifically a brother, and possibly the subjects' socioeconomic status (Hainline & Feig, 1978).

Fleck, Fuller, Malin, Miller, and Acheson (1980) studied the effect of father absence by examining daughters' sexual behaviors and attitudes. This study consisted of 160 never-married female college students measured on the following five variables: 1) life history, 2) sexual history, 3) child problem behavior, 4) the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970), and 5) the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974). Results indicated that father absent daughters reported greater frequency of heterosexual involvement.

Eberhardt and Schill (1984) studied 90 single, Black, lower socioeconomic status females from ages 14 to 17 years old. Comparisons were made regarding attitudes about sexual permissiveness and likely sexual behaviors of 53 father-

present subjects and 37 father-absent subjects. Results indicated that father-absent and father-present groups did not differ in reported likely sexual behaviors or attitude regarding sexual permissiveness. However, within the father-absent group, subjects showed a greater degree of discrepancy between their behavioral and attitudinal scores. That is, their behavior was reported to be more permissive than their attitudes. Also, the father-absent subjects who became father-absent before age five displayed a significantly higher need for social approval as compared to the subjects who became father-absent after age five. Eberhardt and Schill discussed differences in data collection, subject socioeconomic status, and different measuring instruments as potential causes of the inconsistent findings between their study and previous studies, such as Hetherington's (1972).

Hainline and Feig (1978) also investigated sexual attitudes and behaviors. The authors reported no differences between father-absent and father-present groups on attitudes toward the father, amount of dating, age of first intercourse, and amount of sexual activity. In addition, early father-absent daughters appeared to have more traditional attitudes about some aspects of sexual behavior, including less acceptance of intercourse in a love relationship.

In summary, these studies reveal inconsistent findings on the effects of father absence on daughters' sexual attitudes and sexual behaviors. It appears that some of the results may be affected by the daughter's age when the father absence occurred. It is also logical that major life events might affect girls differently during different developmental stages (Erikson, 1950). Finally, it is unknown whether the impact of father-absence has changed in the last fifteen years. This study may help fill this gap in our knowledge.

Researchers and clinicians also have been interested in the effect of father absence on a variety of psychosocial factors such as self-esteem (Shook & Jurich, 1992; Parish & Nunn, 1988; Musser & Fleck, 1983; Harter, 1983), depression (Halida, 1994; Allgood-Merten, Lewinsohn & Hops, 1990), and anxiety (Fleck et al, 1980; Musser & Fleck, 1983; Hainline & Feig, 1978; Young & Parish, 1977; Hetherington, 1972). Hetherington (1972) reported that girls separated from their fathers due to divorce exhibited high anxiety levels. Halida (1994) found that father-absent females reported more depressive symptoms than father-present females. Halida (1994) also found that father-absent females had lower self-esteem scores than their controls.

The effect of father absence on internal and external locus of control has also been investigated (Parish &

Copeland, 1980; Hainline & Feig, 1978; Hetherington, 1972). Locus of Control is a concept developed by Julian B. Rotter in 1966. Locus of Control is defined as a component of one's personality that describes how people perceive the consequences of their actions (Rotter, 1966). According to this theory, people who generally have an internal locus of control believe their actions are controlled by their own will, and they are responsible for their own successes or failures. People who are said to have an external locus of control see their lives as guided by forces beyond their control and regard success or failure as a result of luck, chance, or fate (Lefcourt, 1981; Rotter, 1982).

Locus of Control has been frequently used to study differences between groups, societies, and individuals (Rotter, 1966; Rotter, 1982). Studies of locus of control have been used extensively in social science literature and locus of control has been associated with variables such as self-esteem (Martin & Coley, 1984; Ormel & Schaufeli, 1991), and psychological adjustment (Fish & Biller, 1973; Baumrind & Black, 1967), and it has been used to predict positive mental and physical health (Brown & Granick, 1983; Lefcourt, Martin, Flick, & Saleh, 1985).

The effects of divorce or living in a maritally disrupted family on children's locus of control has been studied in several settings. St-Yves, Dompierre, Freeston,

and Jaques (1989) found positive correlations between anxiety and externality in children from intact families and anxiety and internality in children from maritally disrupted families. The authors suggested that anxious internal children may hold themselves responsible for the disruption. Kurdek (1989) studied divorce adjustment between siblings. Kurdek's study indicated that older siblings' self-reports revealed a better understanding of the divorce, fewer problematic beliefs regarding the divorce, and a more internal locus of control than did their younger siblings. Hetherington (1972) reported father-absent daughters showed significantly different scores on the Internal-External Control Scale, and they exhibited feelings of less personal control.

In summary, these studies suggested that divorce or marital disruption may affect children's locus of control. Findings, however, do not necessarily agree on how children's locus of control is affected as a result of family disruption.

Parish and Copeland (1980) reported no significant differences between college students' locus of control and whether they were from an intact family or one in which there was father absence. Hetherington (1972) reported that father-absent daughters tended to report more externality. Hainline and Feig (1978) reported no significant differences

in locus of control between father-absent and father-present groups. They found that early father-absent daughter's reported more beliefs in external control when father absence was divided into early and late groups.

In summary, these studies have shown effects of father absence on female's locus of control. However, they do not necessarily agree. It appears as though timing of father absence may affect the female's locus of control.

Locus of Control can be measured in many ways (Reid & Ware, 1974; Nowicki-Strickland, 1973; Levenson, 1972; Rotter, 1966; and Crandall, Katkovsky & Crandall, 1965). Rotter's definition of locus of control describes the construct as unidimensional. Levenson (1972) defined locus of control as a tridimensional construct, with subscales of Internal, External Chance, and External Powerful Others. These subscales were designed to measure beliefs in chance expectations as something different from a powerful others orientation. While the Internal Control subscale deals with the belief that an individual has control over one's life events, the External Chance subscale assesses the belief that chance or fate plays a major role in the outcome of life events. The External Powerful Others subscale is a third aspect that assesses one's belief that individuals in authority have control over one's life events.

Levenson's (1972) instrument has been widely used in measuring many aspects of social functioning. Such aspects include life style habits (Long, Williams, Gaynor & Clark, 1988), parental supporting and controlling type behaviors (Levenson, 1973), indicators of child abuse potential (Stringer & La Greca, 1985), social behaviors (Lefcourt, et al., 1985) and adult communication patterns with difficult children (Bugental & Shennum, 1984).

The present study will assess the effects of father-absence on female's locus of control using Levenson's Locus of Control Scale. The Levenson scale will be used in order to more specifically assess how female's perceive their personal control over life events. Prior studies which have used Rotter's unidimensional internal-external scale have produced inconsistent findings. The present study examines the effect of early versus late father absence and father-presence on daughters' locus of control. This is important because women who live some of their childhood years without direct paternal influence may develop lifestyles that are significantly different from those who have had their father present. Issues relating to women's adult decisions, marriage choices, parental responsibilities, and self-concept may be affected in a way that may hamper self-satisfaction and competence.

It is currently unclear what the effects of father absence are on females' psychosocial functioning. It is important to consider other aspects of father absence, such as the daughter's age when the father absence occurred and the amount of time since the father was absent. The advantages of the present study include examining the effects of time since father absence occurred and drawing subjects from a university with a large non-traditional student population. This allows the affects of father-absence to be assessed in a sample which has greater age variability.

CHAPTER II

METHODS

Subjects

Subjects were females recruited from General Psychology, Psychology of Adjustment, Tests and Measurements, and Human Interaction courses at Austin Peay State University. Subjects may have received extra credit from their instructors for their participation. Although data gathered from females was analyzed for this study, males were also given the same opportunity to earn the extra credit points.

Based on previous research in this area (Hainline & Feig, 1978; Hetherington, 1972), subjects have been traditionally divided into father-present and father-absent groups, as well as early and late father-absent groups. Father presence was defined as any female whose father was present in the home from birth until 18 years of age. Father absence was defined as any female whose father was absent from the home due to death, divorce, or abandonment before the age of 18. Early father absence was defined as the absence of the father from the home at the daughter's age of five or younger. Late father absence was defined as the absence of the father after the daughter turned age five.

In this study, seven females reported that father absence occurred after the age of eighteen. In any analysis using traditionally defined groups, these seven subjects were included in the father-present group. Eight subjects were omitted due to incomplete forms or ambiguous answers. Eighteen males participated, however, their data was not analyzed.

Measures

The Levenson's Locus of Control Scale was used to assess participants' self-reported locus of control. This scale was developed by Hanna Levenson in 1972 and was designed to evaluate one's expectancies that fate, chance, or powerful others control life events. The instrument is comprised of 24 statements, divided into three scales: 1) internal, 2) external chance, and 3) external powerful others. Each scale has eight items scored on a 6-point Likert scale (see Appendix A). A high score on a particular subscale indicates a person is more likely than most others to view the world from the perspective assessed by that subscale. For instance, a subject who scores high on the internal subscale demonstrates more internal locus of control expectations. The Levenson scale has high reliability indicators, with test-retest and alpha coefficients ranging from .64 to .78 on all three scales (Walkey, 1979).

A demographic questionnaire (Halida, 1994) was used to gather information regarding age, race, gender, socioeconomic status, age of father absence, and a description of whom the individual considers their father (see Appendix B).

Procedures

An informed consent statement was signed by each participant and procedures of the study were fully explained. Subjects were gathered on an hourly basis to allow for group administration of data packets. Each packet contained an inventory of demographic information and the Levenson Scale, which was completed by each individual.

Subjects were asked not to write their name on the data packet information so as to ensure confidentiality. Informed consent statements were collected separately and subjects were informed that all data collected would remain confidential. All subjects were observed to ensure that consent forms were read thoroughly. Written instructions were provided on the data packet items and the researcher was available to answer all questions. In an effort to increase the educational benefit for participating in research, subjects were given additional information about the methodology of the study as a group following completion of the data packet.

Data Analysis

Four separate analyses were conducted on the data from this study. First, an analysis of variance was conducted using the traditionally defined father-absent and father-present groups. A mean score was calculated for each dimension of Levenson's Locus of Control Scale, which were external chance, external powerful others, and internal.

A second analysis of variance was conducted to detect relationships among the traditionally defined early and late father-absent groups and their reported external chance, external powerful others, and internal locus of control. The seven subjects who reported father absence after the age of eighteen were included in this analysis as father present subjects.

Thirdly, an analysis of variance was calculated to assess the relationship between the type of father absence and self-reported locus of control. That is, father absence reported as a result of death or divorce, and the subjects self-reported internal, external chance, or external powerful others subscales.

Fourth, a correlational analysis using the Pearson product correlation coefficient was conducted to more specifically assess the impact of father absence at different ages and locus of control. In previous research, early and late father-absent groups have been divided at age

five (Eberhardt & Schill, 1984; Hainline & Feig, 1978; Hetherington, 1972). However, these studies involved daughters who were generally below age 22. In this analysis using a non-traditional-age college sample, the entire range of ages at which father absence occurred was utilized. The seven subjects who reported father absence after the age of eighteen were included in this analysis.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

A summary of the demographic information is provided in Table 1. The total number of female subjects used in the analysis was 119, ranging in ages from 18 to 44. The mean age was 23.87 with a standard deviation of 6.07.

The effect of father absence on female college student's locus of control was analyzed by an analysis of variance using an alpha level of .05. The means for the Levenson's Locus of Control Scale are presented in Table 2. The analysis of variance of the traditional father-absent and father-present groups failed to find a significant difference between the mean scores for the two groups on the three locus of control subscales (internal, external chance and external powerful others).

There was no significant difference between the father-absent group as defined by death ($M = 37.60$) or divorce ($M = 36.86$) and their reported internal subscale scores $t(37) = -.42, p > .05$. There was no significant difference between subject's reported external chance subscale measures and father absence due to death ($M = 21.20$) or divorce ($M = 21.21$), $t(37) = .99, p > .05$. Lastly, there was no significant difference between subject's reported external powerful others subscale

measures and death ($M = 21.70$) or divorce ($M = 21.38$),
 $t(37) = -.16, p > .05$.

Within the father-absent group, Pearson correlation coefficients indicated a significant negative correlation between the age at which the father absence occurred and the subject's self-reported internal locus of control measures, $r = -.30, p < .05$. That is, the earlier the father absence occurred in the daughter's life the higher the self-reported internal locus of control. There was, however, no significant correlation indicated from the analysis for the external chance subscale, $r = -.05, p > .05$ or external powerful others subscale, $r = -.27, p > .05$.

Table 1.

FREQUENCIES FOR TRADITIONALLY-DEFINED FATHER-PRESENT,
FATHER-ABSENT, AND EARLY AND LATE FATHER-ABSENT GROUPS.

	Father- Present n=75	Father- Absent n=44	Early Father- Absent n=22	Late Father- Absent n=22
Socioeconomic Status ^a				
Poor	5	9	4	5
Middle-Class	64	31	17	14
Upper-Class	6	3	1	2
Race				
African-American	11	11	5	6
White	62	32	16	16
Asian	2	1	1	0
Type of Father Absence				
Father Death	0	9	4	5
Father Divorce	0	29	12	17
Father Abandonment	0	6	6	0

^a1 participant did not respond

Table 2.

MEANS AND (STANDARD DEVIATIONS) FOR FATHER-PRESENT,
FATHER-ABSENT, AND EARLY AND LATE FATHER-ABSENT GROUPS.

	Father- Present n=75	Father- Absent n=44	F	p
External Chance	22.72 (6.39)	21.36 (5.80)	-1.19	N.S.
Internal	35.65 (5.08)	36.66 (4.69)	1.07	N.S.
External Powerful Others	22.37 (5.92)	21.68 (5.46)	-0.63	N.S.
	Early n=22	Late n=22	F	p
External Chance	20.91 (5.84)	21.82 (5.31)	0.52	N.S.
Internal	36.86 (4.80)	36.46 (4.68)	-0.29	N.S.
External Powerful Others	21.91 (5.26)	21.46 (5.78)	-0.27	N.S.

Note: N.S. = non-significant difference between groups

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Hetherington's (1972) research on early adolescent females who experienced father absence indicated a significant difference between father-absent and father-present females' locus of control measures. In contrast, the results of Hainline and Feig's (1978) study of late adolescent to young college aged females found no significant difference between the father-absent and the father-present groups on the same locus of control measure. The results of this study support Hainline and Feig (1978) in that there was no difference between father-present daughters and father-absent daughters on their reported locus of control, even with the use of a different instrument and a wider subject age range.

The generalizability of this finding may be limited somewhat because the subjects in this study were all college students. That is, the locus of control scores of females who have chosen to put forth the effort required to obtain a college degree may not be representative of the locus of control scores of females in general. Including subjects such as non-college bound students may have yielded different results. For instance, these individuals may feel they are not capable of obtaining a college degree because

they do not have a strong internal locus of control.

The traditionally-defined early father-absent group (absence at age five or before) and late father-absent group (absence after age five) did not significantly differ on the self-reported locus of control subscales. However, the literature does not provide a rationale for selecting age five as the dividing mark for defining early and late father-absent groups. This apparently arbitrary choice may have limited the chance of discovering differences related to the age at which father absence occurred. Treating age as a continuous variable rather than a categorical variable would eliminate this problem.

The significant Pearson correlation coefficients found in this study indicate that the earlier the father absence occurred, the more internal the daughters were on the self-reported locus of control measure. It is possible that early absence gives daughters more time to develop views that they are responsible for the events that happen in their lives. Fogas, Wolchik, Braver, Freedom & Bay (1992) discussed how daughters may have developed a sense of internal control over the consequences of their life events by feeling that they had to rely more on themselves when their family experienced parental separation.

Another possible explanation for this finding may be the effect of the relationships the daughters had with their

mothers. In some cases, how daughters coped with their father's absence may have been modeled after their mother's internal or external verbalizations and behaviors. This modeling under crisis circumstances may have had a profound impact on their daughter's development of an internal or external focus. This impact could have been greatest for the youngest daughters because they had not yet developed their own approach to life events. It is possible that mothers of the daughters who later chose to attend college responded to divorce in a more internal fashion.

Another possible explanation may stem from the idea that the family situation before the father absence occurred may have been quite disruptive and dysfunctional. The earlier the developmental age of the daughter, such as in the pre-operational period (Piaget, 1932, 1929), the less clearly she may have understood her parents' behavior and relationship. This misunderstanding may have resulted in a feeling of personal responsibility for some type of family dysfunction or parental separation. As a result, a child may in some way felt responsible for the family disruption (St-Yves et al., 1989).

As suggested by the discussion above, there may be multiple explanations for the result indicated in this study. Future research will be needed in order to better understand the relationship between father absence and it's

effect on daughter's locus of control. Research conducted in the future should consider the likely confounding influence of living in a single-parent home. Daughters who experience father absence by definition experience single parenting for some period of time.

The modern day lifestyle of many single parent families seems to impact girls' beliefs about their personal control over life events. More girls may be growing up less able to rely on their parents for daily functions. The outcomes of these girls' lives may be affected by the necessity to maintain independence in order to survive.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix A

LEVENSON LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

please circle the number below which you think best represents the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

Strongly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6
1) Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability.				1 2 3 4 5 6	
2) To a great extent my life is controlled by accidental happenings.				1 2 3 4 5 6	
3) I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful others.				1 2 3 4 5 6	
4) Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am.				1 2 3 4 5 6	
5) When I make plans, I am most certain to make them work.				1 2 3 4 5 6	
6) Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interest from bad luck happenings.				1 2 3 4 5 6	
7) When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky.				1 2 3 4 5 6	
8) Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those in positions of power.				1 2 3 4 5 6	
9) How many friends I have depends on how nice a person I am.				1 2 3 4 5 6	
10) I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.				1 2 3 4 5 6	
11) My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others.				1 2 3 4 5 6	

	Strongly Agree 1	Moderately Agree 2	Agree 3	Disagree 4	Moderately Disagree 5	Strongly Disagree 6
12)	Whether or not I get into a car					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
13)	People like myself have very little chance of protecting personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
14)	It's not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
15)	Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
16)	Whether or not I get to be a leader or not depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
17)	If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make many friends.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
18)	I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
19)	I am usually able to protect my personal interests.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
20)	Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
21)	When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard for it.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
22)	In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
23)	My life is determined by my own actions.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
24)	It's chiefly a matter of fate whether or not I have a few friends or many friends.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix B

Questionnaire

The definition for father in this study is not limited to the biological father. The father is anyone who the child feels cares for their needs and well-being. It may be a step-father, biological father or adopted father. The term father is relative to each individual.

- 1) Please describe who you are referring to as "father" when you answer this questionnaire:

- 2) Please circle the sentence below that best describes your family situation during your childhood:

Father present from birth to 18 years of age.

Father absent due to death.

Father absent due to divorce.

Father absent due to abandonment. Please explain:

- 3) What age were you when your "father" left? _____

- 4) Please circle the sentence below that describes the income of your family throughout your childhood:

Poor

Middle-class

Upper class

- 5) What is your race? _____

- 6) What is your age? _____

- 7) What is your gender? _____

Appendix C

**Informed Consent to Participate in Research
Austin Peay State University
Clarksville, Tennessee 37044**

You are being asked to participate in a research study. This form is designed to provide you with information about this study and to answer any of your questions.

1. TITLE OF RESEARCH STUDY

The Effects of Father Absence on Female College Students' Locus of Control

2. PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATORS

Cindy Anderson, Graduate Student, Psychology Department, Austin Peay State University, Clarksville, TN, (615) 648-7233

Nanci Stewart Woods, Ph.D., Austin Peay State University, Psychology Department, Clarksville, TN, (615) 648-7236

3. THE PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of this study is to examine how living without a father may effect a female's view of her life events. Locus of control is a psychological variable that describes how a person thinks about their life's events as being a result of their own behaviors or as the result of things beyond one's control. Growing up without a father may have lasting effects on one's life, and also may shape how a person sees events happening in their life. The discovery of such effects is important given that half of the children born in the late 1970's and early 1980's will live in single parent homes. Of these, only 10 percent will live with their fathers.

4. PROCEDURES FOR THIS RESEARCH

You will be asked to fill out a confidential questionnaire that will ask you about your father, family background, age and gender. You will also be asked to fill out the Levenson's Locus of Control Scale. This is a questionnaire that will investigate

your views of life events, as either controlled by you (internal locus of control), by something else (external chance), or by someone else (external powerful others). The session is expected to last less than one hour. The researcher will be available to answer any questions you might have about the study.

5. POTENTIAL RISKS TO YOU

There are no known risks from participation in this study.

6. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO YOU OR OTHERS

The benefits to you from participation in this study are minimal. You may receive extra credit for a class for participating. The extra credit will be given to you at the professor's discretion. You may enjoy answering the questionnaires, or assisting in investigating a possible effect of father absence on daughters.

7. INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

I agree to participate in the present study being conducted by Cindy Anderson, a graduate student at Austin Peay State University. I have been informed orally and in writing of the procedures to be followed and about any discomfort which may be involved. Cindy Anderson has offered to answer any further inquiries that I may have regarding the procedures and she can be contacted by phone (648-7236).

I understand that I am free to terminate my participation at any time without penalty or prejudice and to have all data obtained from me withdrawn from the study and destroyed. I have also been told of any benefits that may result from my participation.

NAME (please print)

SIGNATURE

DATE