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## **The impact of paternal absence on personality traits in young adults: A comparative analysis of aggression, neuroticism and impulsive sensation seeking**

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**Abstract.** This paper investigates personality trait differences, specifically aggression, neuroticism, and impulsive sensation-seeking, in young adults with fathers working abroad intermittently compared to those with fathers working near their homes. The study aims to identify and analyze statistically significant differences in these traits, exploring the impact of the father's absence. Hypotheses are formulated, and a Zukerman-Kuhlman Test is used on a sample of 60 participants aged 18-25, living with their parents. Results confirm differences in neuroticism and aggression based on father's work location but find no significant difference in impulsive sensation-seeking. The study suggests that father absence during childhood may contribute to higher neuroticism and anxiety in adulthood, with potential links to increased aggression. The impact depends on factors like duration, frequency, and the child's age, emphasizing the importance of active parental involvement to mitigate negative effects.

**Keywords.** personality traits, paternal absence, international migration, family dynamics psychological impact, adolescent development, intermittent families, mental health outcomes



## **Introduction**

This study investigates the impact of paternal absence due to international migration on personality traits within families, shedding light on a significant phenomenon that has transformative effects on family dynamics. The absence of fathers resulting from international migration has far reaching psychological implications for both children and partners left behind, necessitating a thorough exploration to comprehend and address potential negative consequences. The study is motivated by a genuine concern for understanding how the absence of a father influences the psychological well-being of family members, considering it a prevalent issue in contemporary society, given the increasing frequency of international migration.

The research recognizes the gap in existing literature, which has primarily focused on intermittent family structures without delving specifically into personality traits within families experiencing paternal absence. This unique focus adds novelty and originality to the study, offering an opportunity to introduce fresh perspectives and insights into the field of family dynamics and psychological well-being.

The theoretical section of the study emphasizes the concept of personality and its development within the context of families with an absent father. Personality, a unique set of psychological traits influencing thoughts, feelings, and behaviors, will be explored through an extensive review of personality theories and models. The study seeks to understand how the absence of a father may influence these personality dynamics. Furthermore, it will delve into the intricate interplay between personality traits and the developmental stages of adolescence and emerging adulthood, critical periods during which individuals shape their identities and encounter specific challenges. Additionally, the research will scrutinize intermittent families, where fathers are present only periodically due to work commitments, investigating how this family structure might impact the personality traits of its members.

By drawing on the existing body of scientific literature, the study aims to contribute to the ongoing discourse on the psychological implications of paternal absence. Previous research has highlighted the profound impact of family structure on individual well-being, emphasizing the need for a nuanced understanding of how the absence of a father, especially due to international migration, influences personality development and mental health outcomes.

This study recognizes the multifaceted nature of family dynamics and aims to uncover the potential long-term consequences of paternal absence on various aspects of individuals lives, ultimately informing the development of targeted interventions to support affected families.



## **1. Personality**

Personality is a nuanced and continually evolving concept within the realm of psychology. The exploration of personality has centered around defining and gauging human characteristics and traits, while also delving into how these factors shape an individual's behavior and experiences. The dynamic nature of personality is shaped by the intricate interplay among biological, cognitive, and social elements, and contemporary research aims to unravel the complexities of this interaction.

Gordon Allport offered a definition of personality as a dynamic organization of psychophysical systems that dictates an individual's specific behavior across diverse environments and moments (Allport, 1937). In 1957, Raymond Cattell delineated personality using 16 primary personality traits and several secondary traits, each varying in significance for everyone (Cattell, 1957). Albert Bandura posited that personality is a cognitive, emotional, and behavioral organization of individual experiences that influences human thinking, behavior, and development (Bandura, 1977). Hans Eysenck suggested that personality can be described through three trait dimensions: extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism, assessable through a questionnaire (Eysenck, 1990).

Personality, therefore, emerges as a dynamic and intricate entity that evolves and develops throughout one's lifespan. In this theory, personality development is conceptualized as an ongoing process of integrating and harmonizing different elements of the ego, personal unconscious, and collective unconscious (Jung, 2012).

Jung also introduced concepts such as synchronicity and archetypes, contributing to the development of transpersonal psychology. Synchronicity refers to meaningful coincidences not caused by typical factors but interpreted as signs of deeper meaning. Archetypes are universal images and symbols appearing in dreams, myths, and cultural traditions, linked to universal human experiences like birth, death, and love (Jung, 2012).

Gordon Allport (1937) outlines several personality characteristics:

1. Individuality: each person possesses their own uniqueness and differs from others.
2. Traits: personality comprises a combination of traits, which are stable features of an individual's behavior and thinking.
3. Unified Functioning: personality is an integrated entity that operates as a whole.
4. Adaptability: personality needs to adapt to the surrounding environment and fulfill social needs and requirements.
5. Continuity: personality is relatively stable over time, although it can be influenced and modified by life experiences and events.
6. Dynamism: personality undergoes changes and evolves throughout life, influenced by various internal and external factors (Allport, 1937).

The Big Five Model, also known as the Five-Factor Model, is one of the most widely accepted and utilized personality assessment models. This model describes personality based on five fundamental traits: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism (Costa, McCrae, 1985).

The early roots of the Big Five model can be traced back to Galton's (1884) application of the lexical hypothesis to personality, suggesting that significant individual differences in character are rooted in language. Allport and Odbert (1936) applied the lexical approach to investigate words



in dictionaries related to personality and personal behaviors, identifying about 18,000 such words, of which approximately 4,500 were considered descriptive of personality traits. Cattell (1943, 1945) further reduced this list of traits, ultimately forming 35 groups of personality variables, which, when factor analyzed, condensed into 12 factors. Tupes and Christal (1961) consistently found a five-factor model: Surgency, Agreeableness, Aggressiveness, Dependency, Emotional Stability, and Culture.

Ultimately, Goldberg (1981) coined the term "Big Five" to describe this five-factor personality model. While the exact formulation and meaning of these five personality factors may vary slightly, the Big Five factors (and the conceptually similar Five-Factor Model) can be labeled as openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism (Feher & Vernon, 2020).

1. Openness to experience: refers to the extent to which a person is open to new ideas and experiences, as well as how creative and imaginative they are.
2. Conscientiousness: relates to the degree of organization, responsibility, and attention to detail a person exhibits.
3. Extraversion: involves the extent to which a person is sociable, enthusiastic, and energetic.
4. Agreeableness: pertains to the degree to which a person is gentle, empathetic, and cooperative with others.
5. Neuroticism: relates to the extent to which a person is affected by negative emotions, such as anxiety or stress (Specht, Schmukle, 2021).

Goldberg argued that these five dimensions represent a universal personality structure applicable to all individuals, regardless of culture or language. He suggested that this structure is useful for understanding individual differences in behavior, thinking, and emotions, as well as for identifying potential mental health issues (Goldberg, 1993).

Personality development begins in the early days of a child's life and continues throughout one's entire life in a continuous process influenced by multiple factors. This developmental process encompasses physical, emotional, and cognitive aspects and can be affected by factors such as genetics, social and cultural environment, life events, and individual emotional and cognitive experiences (Wallace & Fogelson, 1961).

During childhood, personality development is strongly influenced by the relationship between the child and parents or other attachment figures. Research suggests that parental affection and support can positively impact a child's emotional and social development, acting as a protective factor against the development of behavioral or emotional disorders (Wallace & Fogelson, 1961).

Social experiences and interactions with other children and adults in the child's environment also play a role in shaping personality. Through play and interaction with peers, children learn social skills, communication, cooperation, resource-sharing, and social rules (Rubin, Bukowski, & Bowker, 2015). Life experiences can also influence a child's personality development, with stressful or traumatic events potentially having a negative impact on their emotional and social development (Wallace & Fogelson, 1961).

A child's physical development can also influence their emotional and social development. Children with normal and healthy physical development tend to have higher self-confidence and a positive attitude toward themselves and the world around them. Conversely, children facing



physical health issues may experience challenges in emotional and social development, with an increased risk of developing anxiety or depression (Wallace & Fogelson, 1961).

Personality development is a continuous process that begins in childhood and extends throughout one's life. It is influenced by three types of factors: genetic, social, and personal. Genetic factors refer to a person's biological inheritance, social factors involve experiences and influences from the social environment, and personal factors pertain to an individual's personal experiences, such as major life events and how they were handled. Personality development unfolds in a series of stages influenced by these three factors. In childhood, personality is still in the formative stage, and early experiences can have a profound impact on later personality development. As a person grows and develops, their personality can undergo significant changes influenced by life experiences, choices made, and relationships formed. Personality is a dynamic process that can be influenced and modified by life experiences and events (Allport, 1937).

According to Gordon Allport, personality development can be divided into three stages:

1. Early Formative Period:

This stage pertains to the early developmental period of personality, occurring during childhood and adolescence. Personality is still in the formative stage and is significantly influenced by early experiences, such as relationships with parents, siblings, play, and friendships (Allport, 1937).

2. Maturity Period:

This stage refers to the personality development that takes place during adulthood. In this stage, personality develops in a more complex manner, influenced by life experiences and circumstances such as career, romantic relationships, and family formation (Allport, 1937).

3. Late Age Period:

This stage concerns the personality development that occurs in old age. In this stage, personality may undergo significant changes due to major life events, such as the loss of a life partner or health issues (Allport, 1937).

In each stage of personality development, life experiences and circumstances can influence personality, leading to significant changes. In this regard, personality development is a continuous process extending throughout life and influenced by multiple dimensions of human experience (Allport, 1937).

Personality refers to a set of distinctive and relatively stable psychological traits that influence how a person perceives, thinks, feels, and acts in various life contexts and situations (Boeree, 2006).

Motivations are considered internal forces that determine an individual's behavior, while values represent ideas or principles important to an individual, guiding their behavior and choices (Allport, 1937). Allport developed a theory of values indicating that values are organized in a hierarchy, where certain values are more crucial than others. Although this hierarchy may vary from person to person, values are generally considered stable and relatively constant over time. He identified three types of values: personal values (such as personal achievement), social values (such as friendship), and cultural values (such as respect for traditions) (Allport, 1937).

Motivations and values play a significant role in personality formation as they influence individual behavior and choices. For instance, a person with a strong motivation for success might be more willing to take risks and persevere in achieving their goals, while someone with a strong



motivation for security may be less inclined to take risks and may be more cautious in their choices (Allport, 1937).

Beyond their impact on behavior, motivations and values also influence overall personality development. Motivations and values can be considered part of the personality structure, along with traits and temperament (Allport, 1937). For example, a person with a strong value for independence and autonomy may develop traits such as perseverance, determination, and boldness, enabling them to follow their own path and make independent decisions. Meanwhile, a person with a strong motivation for conformity and social approval may develop traits such as adaptability and a sense of duty, allowing them to adapt to others' expectations and values to gain approval (Allport, 1937).

Motivations and values can influence both traits and behavior, but they are not identical to either. For instance, a person may have a strong motivation to be kind and caring, but this does not guarantee that they will always behave that way, as behavior can be influenced by external circumstances (Allport, 1937).

Overall, motivations and values are crucial for personality development as they provide an explanation for an individual's behavior and choices. They can be used to identify the traits and temperament of an individual's personality. Understanding a person's motivations and values allows for a better comprehension of their personality and contributes to more successful interactions with them (Allport, 1937).

Gordon Allport (1937) was one of the first psychologists to argue that personality is influenced by the environment as well as an individual's innate traits. According to this theory, personality is a product of the interaction between individual traits and the surrounding environment.

Allport described three ways in which the environment can influence personality:

a) Socialization:

Personality is influenced by interaction with people, especially during childhood and adolescence. These social interactions include relationships with parents, siblings, friends, teachers, and peers. Through these social interactions, individuals learn social behaviors, values, and norms that can influence personality development (Allport, 1937).

The socialization process begins in childhood and adolescence, continuing throughout life. During this period, individuals learn and internalize social behaviors, values, and norms, aiding in adaptation to the surrounding environment and personality development. Parents play a crucial role in shaping and developing children's personalities through caregiving and education. The importance of friendships and relationships with schoolmates is highlighted in personality development. During this time, individuals form friendships and social relationships that can influence their values, attitudes, and behaviors (Allport, 1937).

b) Experiences:

Individual life experiences, including major life events and circumstances, can influence personality development. These experiences encompass traumas, losses, successes, disappointments, and more (Allport, 1937).

Experiences can be categorized into three types: common experiences shared by most people, such as starting school or the first job; experiences unique to the individual, differentiating them from others, such as a unique travel experience or special passion; and personal experiences



unique to the individual, such as a traumatic event or personal revelation. These experiences strongly impact personality through the process of internalization. Through internalization, experiences are integrated into personality, influencing individual behavior and attitudes (Allport, 1937).

c) Culture:

The culture in which individuals live can also influence personality development. Each culture has its own values, norms, and customs that are transmitted and internalized by its members, influencing individual personality development (Allport, 1937).

The interaction between personality and the environment is a bidirectional relationship, where personality can also influence the surrounding environment. This can include choosing environments that align with individual traits and preferences, as well as how individuals perceive and react to the surrounding environment (Allport, 1937).

Culture has varied effects on different levels of personality. It may have a limited effect on how personality traits are visibly expressed but can have a stronger impact on the content and timing of specific adaptations. Additionally, culture can strongly influence life stories and provide a menu of themes, images, and intrigues for constructing narrative identity. Viewing human evolution as the ultimate and distant context of human individuality, culture, society, and everyday environmental arrangements are considered more immediate and proximal contexts in which individual patterns are formed. In general, behavior is influenced by the interaction between individuals and environments, and culture is an essential component of the environment, influencing different aspects of personality in diverse ways. For personality psychology, culture is an underestimated dimension of the environment, defined as a rich mix of meanings, practices, and discourses about human life prevailing in a particular group or society (Shweder & Sullivan, 1993).

Different cultures may emphasize different patterns of characteristic adaptation, shaping personality in specific ways. For instance, the distinction between individualistic and collectivistic cultures relates to cultural differences in priorities and values associated with independence versus interdependence. Individualistic cultures, such as the United States, encourage independent self-construction, while collectivistic cultures, such as China and Japan, focus more on interdependent self-construction. However, it should be noted that individuals are not always passively guided by predominant cultural values; they can construct lifestyle patterns that contradict cultural conventions. The relationship between characteristic adaptations and culture is complex and contested, with culture often portrayed as a set of contested ideas facing opposition and resistance (McAdams & Pals, 2006).

Thus, culture provides everyone with an extensive set of stories, and each person chooses from this selection. However, since people from the same culture have different experiences and opportunities, no two individuals have the exact same set of stories. They also cannot consume the entire cultural menu, so narrative choices determine their relationship with culture. Like preparing a meal, individuals adapt their preferred stories to their tastes, combining or rejecting them, and may even ask to see the menu again. In this way, individuals choose and assume the stories that constitute their narrative identity, guided by social, political, and economic circumstances, educational experiences, family background, dispositional traits, and characteristic adaptations. By embracing cultural stories, individuals construct their narrative identity, and culture and the self are interdependent through narratives (McAdams & Pals, 2006).



There are two major theories regarding the influence of heredity on personality: the hereditary theory and the environmental theory.

The hereditary theory argues that personality is significantly influenced by the genetic inheritance we receive from our parents. This theory is based on the idea that personality traits are transmitted from parents through genes, and certain behavioral characteristics, such as temperament or predisposition to certain conditions, can be inherited (Dafinoiu, 2007).

On the other hand, the environmental theory asserts that personality is largely shaped by the environment and the experiences we have in life. This theory suggests that personality traits are learned and formed through interaction with the environment and other people (Dafinoiu, 2007).

Although there are different theories regarding the hereditary influence on personality, there is no single definitive explanation. Generally, it is believed that personality is influenced by both hereditary factors and environmental factors, such as education, culture, and life experiences (Dafinoiu, 2007).

## **2. Psychology of adolescence**

Adolescence is the transitional phase from child to adult, generally considered to span from 11 to 19 years old. A central task of adolescence is the development of a sense of self as an autonomous individual. The drive for such autonomy arises from internal, biological processes marking the transition to more adult roles and from changes in social roles and expectations accompanying these underlying physiological and cognitive changes. Adolescents experience not only physical growth and change but also emotional, psychological, social, and mental changes and growth. Adolescence can be broadly classified into three stages: early adolescence (11-13 years), mid-adolescence (13-17 years), and late adolescence (17-19 years). Additionally, an emerging adulthood stage has been introduced, covering the ages 18-25 (Salmela-Aro, 2011)

### **Stages of Adolescence**

#### **a) Early Adolescence:**

Early adolescence is a period where biological changes initiate puberty development. Pubertal development related to sexual and reproductive activity is crucial in early adolescence, typically occurring around the age of 11-13 (Salmela-Aro, 2011).

#### **b) Middle Adolescence:**

Middle adolescence marks the transformative phase. While most girls go through the puberty stage, boys are still on the path to physical maturity. Brain development is a significant physiological process in middle adolescence. Friendships play a vital role during middle adolescence, which spans around the ages of 14-17 (Salmela-Aro, 2011).

#### **c) Late Adolescence:**

Late adolescents gradually become more emotionally stable, developing a greater concern for others, and contemplating their life goals. They become interested in serious romantic relationships, integrating both emotional and physical intimacy into their romantic relationships, and now develop a clear sexual identity. Late adolescence is around the age of 17-19 (Salmela-Aro, 2011).

#### **d) Emerging Adulthood Period:**



The emerging adulthood period is a new developmental concept covering the late teens to 20s, with a focus on ages 18-25. These years involve identity exploration, self-focus, possibilities, a sense of intertwining, and instability. The transition to young adulthood occurs at the end of this phase. The central feature of emerging adulthood is that it's a time when young people explore possibilities for their lives in various domains, especially in love and work. However, this new stage is controversial and conditioned (Salmela-Aro, 2011).

The three stages of adolescence, early, middle, and late, differ biologically, emotionally, socially, and cognitively, forming the basis for recognizing sub-stages within adolescence and their demarcations. However, there has been a shift in adolescent development research from stage-oriented approaches to process-oriented approaches. In many developmental domains, the basic process is assumed to involve relatively continuous and progressive changes, rather than transformations from one qualitative stage to another. The process-oriented approach also recognizes that processes must involve interactions between the individual and the social context. Nevertheless, as evident from the changes occurring in adolescence, the three sub-stages remain a useful way of conceptualizing adolescent development (Salmela-Aro, 2011).

The onset of adolescence is a period where biological changes mark the onset of puberty development. The peak of pubertal changes is around the age of 12. Pubertal development related to sexual and reproductive activity is the primary change in early adolescence, while brain development is a significant physiological process in middle adolescence. Biologically, early adolescence is determined by physical growth, hormonal changes, and brain development, whereas in middle adolescence, communication between the functional and emotional centers of the brain rapidly develops. Physiological changes are less prominent in late adolescence (Salmela-Aro, 2011).

Presently, there is increasing evidence that brain maturation processes continue during adolescence. Even simple structural measures, such as the ratio of white to gray matter in the brain, demonstrate widespread changes from early to late adolescence. The impact of this ongoing maturation on emotional, intellectual, and behavioral development has not been extensively studied, but there is considerable evidence that the second decade of life is a period of significant activity in altering brain structure and function. This activity, contrary to prior beliefs about brain maturation in adolescence, extends beyond early adolescence and is not invariably linked to pubertal maturation processes. Brain development is a major physiological process throughout all stages of adolescence, according to recent imaging studies.

Recent research utilizing magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has found that the adolescent brain is not a finished product but a work in progress. Major changes in brain regions associated with response inhibition, risk and reward calibration, and emotion regulation occur in mid-adolescence. This may explain deficient decision-making, impulsivity, and emotional outbursts in early adolescents. Two specific observations about brain development in adolescence are particularly relevant to understanding psychological development in this period. First, a significant portion of brain development during adolescence occurs in regions and brain systems crucial for behavior and emotion regulation, risk and reward perception, and evaluation. Second, changes in arousal and motivation driven by pubertal maturation seem to precede the development of regulatory competence, creating a disjunction between the adolescent's affective experience and



their ability to regulate arousal and motivation. Early adolescence may create a situation where someone starts the engine without yet having the skilled driver behind the wheel.

In middle adolescence, a second wave of gray matter overproduction occurs. Following gray matter overproduction, the brain undergoes a pruning process, where connections between underutilized neurons wither away while those in use remain. This pruning process is believed to make the brain more efficient by reinforcing frequently used connections and eliminating the disorder of those rarely used.

Brain development is also linked to the emotional development of adolescents. Adolescents differ from adults in their ability to read and understand others' facial emotions. Recent research shows that adolescents and adults use different brain regions to respond to specific tasks. Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) scans of adolescents aged 11 to 17, presented with fearful facial expressions, revealed less activity in their frontal lobes (responsible for rational goal-oriented thinking) and more activity in the amygdala (a structure in the temporal lobe involved in discriminating fear and other emotions). Early adolescents (under 14 years) often misinterpret facial expressions, interpreting fear, for example, as sadness, anger, or confusion. In middle adolescence, they respond correctly more often, showing a progressive shift of activity from the amygdala to the frontal lobes. The judgment, insight, and reasoning power of the frontal cortex are not involved in this task, as they are in adults. The frontal cortex, mostly divided into lobes, matures from back to front. The last section to connect is the frontal lobe, responsible for cognitive processes such as reasoning, planning, and judgment. Normally, this "mental fusion" is not completed until somewhere between 25 and 30 years old, much later than previously assumed.

There are also gender differences in brain development. The part of the brain processing information expands during childhood and then begins to thin out, reaching a peak in girls in early adolescence, around 12-14 years, and in boys in mid-adolescence, about two years later. This suggests that girls and boys may be ready to absorb challenging material at different stages, and schools might miss opportunities to engage them. Consequently, early, and middle adolescence clearly differs by gender in terms of brain development.

It is commonly said that adolescence begins in biology and ends in culture, as the transition to adolescence is marked by the dramatic biological changes of puberty, while the transition to young adulthood is less clearly marked. Transitions to young adulthood have been defined by entering the workforce and becoming a parent. As these transitions occur later in contemporary society, the period between 18 and 25 years is treated as a separate developmental period, called "emerging adulthood." Research on adolescent brain development, indicating incomplete brain maturation, and new research demonstrating that mature decision-making processes do not occur until the mid-twenties, have the potential to reshape definitions of adolescence and transitions to young adulthood (Tanner & Arnett, 2016).

In terms of the lifespan, age affects the urgency of normative tasks facing young individuals; as older individuals approach established deadlines for major developmental tasks, they may feel more pressure to take these tasks seriously when considering their future. With increasing proximity to normative deadlines, individuals feel compelled to invest more effort in achieving certain developmental goals. Emerging adulthood is a period of identity exploration, self-focus, transition, and instability.



Recentring has been proposed as the process during which emerging adults transition from dependent adolescents to independent young adults. The transition to young adulthood occurs at the end of this phase. The most central feature of emerging adulthood is that it is a period when young people explore possibilities for their lives in various domains, especially in love and work. At the end of this period, most people have made life choices regarding love, partnership, and family.

However, both the duration of the education period and the initiation of parenthood have been extended in recent decades. Biologically, adolescence seems to occur at earlier stages for an increasing number of people, while typical social transitions to adulthood, such as completing education or professional training, starting a career, and living independently from the biological family, occur at later ages now than in the past. Therefore, the period of adolescence is much longer now than in the past.

At the core of adolescents' cognitive development is the attainment of a more conscious, autonomous, and self-regulated mind, as well as abstract thinking. This psychological development occurs against the backdrop of rapid physical changes, including puberty, pubertal growth spurt, and accompanying maturity changes in other organ systems. During early adolescence, individuals show significant improvements in reasoning (especially deductive reasoning), information processing (both in terms of efficiency and capacity), and expertise.

The transition from concrete thinking to formal logical operations begins, marking the initiation of more complex thinking processes (also called formal logical operations), including abstract thinking (thinking about possibilities); the ability to reason from known principles (generate new ideas or questions); the ability to consider multiple perspectives based on different criteria (compare or debate ideas or opinions); and the ability to think about the thinking process itself. Indicators showing progression from simpler to more complex cognitive development include the use of more complex thinking focused on personal decision-making in the school and family environment. Early adolescents begin to demonstrate the use of formal logical operations in academic activities and start questioning authority and societal standards. Early adolescents begin to form and articulate their own thoughts and opinions on a variety of topics, usually more related to their own lives, such as which sports are better to engage in, which groups are better to be part of what personal appearances are desirable or attractive, and what parental rules should be changed.

During middle adolescence, developing adolescents acquire the ability to systematically think about all logical relationships within a problem. Increasing verbal abilities, associating the law with morality, and the onset of fervent ideologies (religious, political) occur in middle adolescence. However, each adolescent progresses at different rates in developing their ability to think in more complex ways and develops their own worldview. Some adolescents may be able to apply formal logical operations to academic topics long before they can apply them to personal dilemmas. With some experience in using more complex thinking processes, the mid-stage adolescent often expands to include more philosophical and futuristic concerns. The mid-stage adolescent often asks questions and analyzes more broadly, thinks, and begins to form their own ethical code (e.g., What do I think is right?), thinks about different options and begins to develop an individual identity (e.g., Who am I?), thinks and begins to systematically consider possible future goals and plans (e.g., What do I want?), and begins to think long-term. In middle adolescence, the use of systematic thinking also begins to influence relationships with other people.



In turn, during late adolescence, complex thinking processes are used to focus on less self-centered concepts as well as personal decision-making. Individuals can engage in complex abstract thinking and have increased control over impulses. Further development of personal identity occurs, including the development or rejection of religious and political ideologies. Late adolescents have increased thoughts about more global concepts such as justice, history, politics, and patriotism. Late adolescents often develop idealistic views on specific subjects or concerns and can debate and develop intolerance towards opposing opinions. Late adolescents also begin to focus on making career decisions and establishing a role in adult society.

Adolescence is described as a period in which independence is achieved, especially in individualistic cultures. The primary developmental task in this domain is the attainment of autonomy (changes in autonomy assertion patterns, expressing autonomy). During adolescence, there is a decrease in the time spent in relationships with parents, while the importance of peers and romantic partners increases. These significant changes in social development occur in different phases of adolescence. Through social development, adolescents adjust their behaviors and emotions with peers, parents, romantic partners, and teachers.

During the transition to adolescence, young people spend more time alone and with friends, with a dramatic decrease in the amount of time adolescents spend with their parents. Despite these changes in time allocation, adolescents' relationships with their parents influence their interactions with peers.

In early adolescence, emotional separation from parents occurs, and a strong identification with peers begins. As early adolescents' distance themselves from their parents in the search for identity, the peer group gains particular importance. It can become a haven where adolescents can test new ideas and compare physical and psychological growth. In early adolescence, the peer group is typically composed of non-romantic friends, often including "cliques," gangs, or clubs. Group members often try to behave similarly, dress similarly, have secret codes or rituals, and participate in the same activities. Generally, during early adolescence, friends begin to value loyalty and intimacy more, becoming more trusting and self-disclosing.

In early adolescence, crowds emerge. These are large collections of peers defined by reputations and stereotypes. Crowds contribute to identity development by influencing how adolescents see themselves and others and influence adolescents' behavior by setting norms for their members. For most adolescents, crowds become less important, less hierarchical, and more permeable between mid and late adolescence.

Young people are most influenced by peers in middle adolescence compared to early and late adolescence. During middle adolescence, cliques change, shifting from single-sex to mixed-sex. As the young person transitions into and beyond middle adolescence, the peer group expands to include romantic friends. During middle adolescence, friendships evolve into more intimate, supportive, and communicative relationships. Close friendships usually begin within same-sex pairs, but as adolescents mature, many become close friends with opposite-sex members, usually around the time they start dating. Social skills, such as initiating interactions, self-disclosure, and offering support, increase as adolescents mature into middle adolescence and are linked to the quality of friendship. There is some evidence that, among girls, friendship intimacy is fostered through conversation, while among boys, it is achieved through shared activities. Tolerance for



individuality among close friends increases with age, while friends' emphasis on control and conformity decreases. By mid-adolescence, most adolescents have had a romantic partner.

In late adolescence, the development of social autonomy takes place, and intimate relationships become more important. In late adolescence, cliques often transform into groups of couples who date. By late adolescence, friendships evolve into more intimate, supportive, and communicative relationships.

Research on changes in family relationships during adolescence continues to focus on the conflict between parents and adolescents, although several investigations also examine changes in closeness and companionship. Three types of parent-adolescent conflict are often examined: conflict rate, conflict affect, and total conflict (combined rate and affect). However, results do not strongly support the widely held view that parent-child conflict increases and then decreases throughout adolescence. Conclusions regarding puberty-related changes and conflict affect are nuanced due to the limited number of available studies. Two divergent sets of linear effects emerge, one indicating a decrease in conflict rate and total conflict with age, and the other indicating an increase in conflict affect with both age and pubertal maturation. In meta-analyses, conflict rate and total conflict decrease from early adolescence to mid-adolescence and from mid-adolescence to late adolescence; conflict affect between adolescents and parents increases from early to mid-adolescence. A positive linear association is found between conflict affect and pubertal maturation. However, effect size patterns vary little in analyses tracking potentially moderating variables, implying similarities in the direction (though not magnitude) of conflict between parent-adolescent dyads, reporters, and measurement procedures.

During early adolescence, there is an increase in mild conflicts, such as arguments and disagreements between parents and adolescents. This increase in mild conflicts is often followed by a decrease in closeness and, notably, the time spent together by adolescents and parents. These transformations in parent-adolescent relationships have implications for the mental health of parents and the psychological development of adolescents, with a substantial number of parents reporting difficulties in adapting to the individuation and autonomy-seeking of the adolescent. Eventually, the imbalance process in early adolescence is usually followed by the establishment of a less conflictual, more egalitarian, and less volatile parent-adolescent relationship. The "authoritative" parenting style – warm and firm – of parents is linked to higher levels of competence and psychosocial maturity among early adolescents. Authoritative parenting is associated with a wide range of psychological and social advantages in adolescence. Adolescent development is influenced by an interplay of genetic, family, and non-family influences, and attempts to parse the variability in adolescent adaptation into genetic and various environmental components fail to capture the complexity of socialization processes.

The sibling relationship in adolescence is emotionally charged, marked not only by conflict and rivalry but also by giving and social support. As children mature from childhood to early adolescence, sibling conflict increases, with adolescents reporting more negativity in sibling relationships compared to relationships with peers. High levels of conflict in early adolescence gradually decrease as adolescents transition into middle and late adolescence. As siblings mature, relationships become more egalitarian and supportive, and, as with the parent-adolescent relationship, sibling relationships become less influential as adolescents extend their relationships outside the family.



The third decade of life is a period in which individuals face more transitions and life decisions than any other stage of life. These include transitioning from education to work, initiating a career, establishing intimate relationships, and starting a family. These transitions and role changes are perceived by individuals as important indicators of the transition to adulthood. Many of these transitions take several years to complete and consist of multiple successive stages. Primarily, a career development trajectory usually involves a complex set of decisions regarding education and career. Another typical feature of age-graded environments is that transitions associated with different life domains interact with each other, representing a nexus. For instance, transitions in education and career can have consequences for the timing of interpersonal transitions, such as bringing a child into the family.

A central challenge for adolescents is the creation of an integrated self-image, including a representation of oneself as a romantic partner. In the initiation phase, triggered by pubertal maturation, peers provide norms for romantic relationships. The initiation phase symbolizes a turning point in the adolescent's social activities. During this phase, early adolescents must reorient and readjust to the opposite sex. The primary goals in this initial phase are broadening the self-concept and gaining confidence in one's ability to relate to potential partners romantically. Thus, the focus is on the self, not the romantic relationship. Romantic encounters occur in the context and with the help of same-sex peers.

Subsequently, mid-adolescents quickly transition to a stage of casual dating that fulfills affiliation needs as well as sexual ones. During mid-adolescence, romantic involvement is linked to social status within the peer group. In the second phase, the status phase, adolescents face pressure to have the "right types" of romantic relationships. Dating the "wrong" individuals can seriously affect the adolescent's position within the group. Thus, romantic relationships may be used to gain or enhance acceptance from peers and, as such, may hinder the establishment of a mutually satisfying romantic relationship. They then progress to stable relationships, where attachment needs coexist with sexuality and affiliation. The third phase, the affection phase, is characterized by a shift in focus from the context in which the relationship exists to the romantic relationship itself. The romantic relationship becomes a personal and relational affair; simultaneously, the influence of the peer group decreases.

The goal of adolescence is to achieve a coherent identity and avoid identity confusion. The beginning of adolescence is a period of disorganization. In early adolescence, youth seek connections, networks, supportive relationships, and groups. The ability to invest in and connect with diverse social relationships provides the foundations and supports needed for subsequent identity explorations and commitments.

According to Erikson (1959), adolescents learn how to respond satisfyingly and happily to the question, "Who am I?" During successful early adolescence, as a mature temporal perspective develops, the young person gains self-assurance, as opposed to self-awareness and self-doubt. Early adolescents report more daily fluctuations in self-esteem than younger or older individuals, but self-esteem stabilizes over time. They come to experience different roles, usually constructive ones, rather than adopting a "negative identity" (such as delinquency).

Adolescents seek a role model (someone to be a source of inspiration) and gradually develop a set of socially congruent and desirable ideas. Middle adolescence is marked by individuals describing themselves in occasionally discrepant ways, but these discrepancies tend to



decrease by late adolescence, forming a more consistent self-view. Self-concepts become more differentiated and well-organized in late adolescence. Global self-esteem often moderately increases in late adolescence. Identity is primarily formed in late adolescence, between 18 and 22 years old, and the actual work on identity unfolds during the age of emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2013).

### **3. Intermittent families**

Family represents one of the most important contexts in which individuals develop and form their personalities. However, situations arise where families undergo changes and instability, significantly impacting its members. A specific type of family that has drawn attention is intermittent families, characterized by periods of separation and reunion of parents, creating a complex dynamic in family life (Carlson & Högnäs, 2011).

Intermittent families are defined as those in which there is a temporary or physical break between parents, either due to one parent relocating or temporary separation or divorce. These situations can occur for various reasons, such as work-related motives, financial needs, or relational issues. It's noteworthy that intermittent families can also involve single-parent families, where one parent is predominantly absent from the child's life (Towe-Goodman et al., 2013).

The family plays an essential role in an individual's development on multiple fronts, offering emotional and social support, guidance, behavior models, and creating a safe and stable environment for a child's growth and learning. Family dynamics significantly impact an individual's development, influencing aspects like self-esteem, interpersonal relationships, and success in various life domains (Carlson & Högnäs, 2011).

Fathers, especially during adolescence, exert a significant influence on children. Studies suggest that father absence can have negative effects when certain aspects of fatherly responsibilities remain unfulfilled, especially those vital for family functioning, such as social, emotional, and economic support (East, Jackson & O'Brien, 2006).

In countries like Pakistan, fathers play a crucial role as the primary authority figure and support in the family. The absence of the father leads to emotional and social support deficiencies for adolescents, causing distress during multiple physiological, emotional, psychological, and cognitive transitions (Bano & Naqvi, 2017).

Father absence, whether intermittent or temporary, can result from various factors. Temporary father absence is often associated with occupational conditions, such as military service, offshore oil and fishery industry work, mining, and transportation industry work, leading to geographic separation from their families (East, Jackson, & O'Brien, 2006).

Research in Western psychology has particularly emphasized the effects of father absence in cases of parental disorders or death, circumstances affecting children and adolescents differently. Positive interactions where fathers engage with family life have a greater influence on children's positive development than the actual time spent with them. Overall, intermittent father absence due to work obligations may have a limited negative impact on children and adolescents, but frequent separations and reunions can significantly alter family life and affect the well-being of family members (Cronin & Swords, 2013).

Empirical research suggests that temporary father absence can yield positive outcomes for adolescents, fostering maturity and self-sufficiency, leading to more cooperative and responsible attitudes within the family environment. While adolescents may experience tensions due to intermittent father



absence, many acknowledge the positive aspects, such as the extra time spent with their fathers upon their return. Despite challenges, most mothers in families with intermittent father absence believe their children have adapted well to the temporary absences, especially when the reasons behind the absence are understood (Andres & Moelker, 2011; Flake, Davis, Johnson, & Middleton, 2009).

Within intermittent families, several types can be identified based on the nature and duration of parental separation. One type involves a parent moving to another country for work, leaving the rest of the family in the home country. This geographic separation can last for months to several years. Another type involves temporary parental separation, with children spending time in each parent's home, alternating based on custody agreements. This alternation can vary weekly, monthly, or seasonally (Cooksey & Craig, 1998).

The experience of intermittent families can significantly impact the emotional and social development of children. Separation or alternating between homes can evoke feelings of sadness, anxiety, and confusion in children. They may struggle to adapt to frequent changes and may require additional support to develop communication skills, resilience, and emotion management. Additionally, children's interpersonal relationships may be affected, and the formation of stable and healthy attachments can become a more complex process (Dyer & Coates, 2014).

For adults involved in intermittent families, managing separation and reunion can be challenging. They must adapt to the absence of their partner or periods when children return home. This process may be accompanied by emotions such as loneliness, frustration, or sadness. However, adults can seek effective communication and negotiation strategies to maintain a healthy relationship with their children and ensure stability and routine within the family (Lamb, 2010).

Adaptation and adjustment to intermittent family situations are crucial aspects of family life amid the specific changes and instability in these family types. Adults in intermittent families face psychological, emotional, and social challenges in adapting to and managing these situations. Coping mechanisms, such as open and honest communication, mutual trust, and finding ways to maintain emotional connection despite physical distance, play a pivotal role in adults' adaptation (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

In addition to managing separation and absence, adults in intermittent families must adapt to changes in roles and responsibilities within the family. During a member's absence, the other adult may need to take on additional tasks and responsibilities, such as managing finances, raising children, and making important decisions. Adapting to these new roles may require adjustments in the couple's relationship, necessitating constant communication and negotiation to maintain balance and harmony in the family (Parke et al., 2004).

Adaptation of adults in intermittent families can be influenced by factors such as social support, available resources, and the level of communication and cooperation among family members. Support from extended family, friends, or other trusted individuals can be a key factor in stress management and adaptation to the specific situations in intermittent families (Flouri & Buchanan, 2002).

An important aspect of adults' adaptation in intermittent families is resilience—the ability to cope with challenges and changes. This involves developing problem-solving skills, flexibility, and the ability to adapt to different situations in a healthy and constructive manner (Lamb, 2010).

#### Approaches and Management Strategies for Intermittent Families

##### a) Counseling and Psychological Support

Effective approaches for managing intermittent families include counseling and psychological support. Both children and adults can benefit from individual or family counseling services to express emotions, understand the problem, and find healthy ways to cope with separation and constant adjustments. Counseling provides a safe space for family members to explore and resolve emotional and relational issues, developing coping strategies and constructive approaches to managing their situation (Flouri & Buchanan, 2002).

##### b) Communication and Negotiation in Parent-Child Relationships



Open and honest communication between parents and children is essential in intermittent families. Parents should provide a space where children can express their emotions and concerns, responding with empathy and support. Additionally, proper negotiation regarding rules and responsibilities within the family is crucial, allowing children to feel involved and engaged in the decision-making process (Carlson & Berger, 2013).

c) Building Stability and Routine in the Family

To compensate for the instability caused by frequent separations and reunions, building stability and routine

#### **4. Methodology of research work**

##### **Objectives and Research Hypotheses**

General Objective: To evaluate personality traits of the study participants.

Specific Objectives:

O1: Identify personality traits of participants with fathers working abroad and of those with fathers working nearby.

O2: Determine statistically significant differences in personality traits between individuals with fathers working abroad and those with fathers working in the hometown or nearby.

O3: Identify personality traits emphasized due to the permanent absence of the father.

Hypotheses:

H1: Statistically significant differences in neuroticism are assumed between individuals with fathers working abroad and those with fathers working nearby.

H2: Statistically significant differences in aggression are assumed between individuals with fathers working abroad and those with fathers working locally.

H3: Statistically significant differences in the impulsive search for sensations are assumed between individuals with fathers working abroad and those with fathers working nearby.

##### **Participants group**

A total of 60 participants aged between 18 and 25 were selected for the study. The sample includes both males and females to ensure a balanced perspective on the studied personality traits. Among the participants, 31 are females, representing approximately 51.67%, while 29 are males, representing approximately 48.33% of the sample.

Another criterion for participant selection was the father's work situation, including those with fathers working abroad and those with fathers working in or near the participants hometown.

All participants currently live with their parents and are either undergraduate or master's students. The choice of participants in this specific life stage aims to examine personality traits in a context where individuals are still in the process of forming their identities. Living with parents may also influence participants' personality traits and social interactions.

Regarding the distribution of respondents based on age groups, we collected detailed information about the age of each participant to gain a comprehensive perspective on the sample composition. Participants were selected from a specific age range, between 18 and 25 years, as this life period represents a crucial moment in personal development and formation.

After analyzing the collected data, the following percentages were obtained for each age group: 18 years - 10%, 19 years - 15%, 20 years - 20%, 21 years - 18%, 22 years - 12%, 23 years



- 10%, 24 years - 8%, 25 years - 7%. This distribution allows for the observation of age variation among participants.

Another important criterion used to divide participants into two distinct categories is the father's employment situation. The aim was to explore the impact of the father's presence in the participants' daily lives and how it might influence personality traits. Consequently, two distinct groups of participants were identified based on their father's situation.

The first group consists of 28 participants whose fathers work in proximity to their homes. These participants have benefited from their father's presence in their daily lives, being able to interact frequently and directly benefit from his support and influence. This can significantly influence how these participants develop certain personality traits and relate to their social and family environment.

The second group is composed of 32 participants whose fathers work in another country. These participants live in a situation where their father is physically absent for a significant period, working abroad to make a living but returning intermittently. This absence can impact the relationship between participants and their fathers, as well as how they develop specific personality traits and relate to others.

### **Instruments of research**

For this study, the Zuckerman-Kuhlman Personality Questionnaire (ZKPQ) was used to measure and evaluate personality traits. Developed by psychologists Marvin Zuckerman and Robert Kuhlman in the United States, the ZKPQ is a widely used psychological assessment tool in fields such as research, clinical psychology, and industrial-organizational psychology. The questionnaire consists of five subscales measuring specific personality traits, including sensation-seeking, neuroticism-anxiety, aggression-hostility, sociability, and activity. The ZKPQ provided a detailed perspective on participants personality traits, aiding in comparative and correlational analyses.

### **Research Design**

The research design involved a systematic approach, from clearly stating the research problem and establishing theoretical foundations to setting specific objectives, hypotheses, data collection using a validated questionnaire (ZKPQ), statistical analysis, and presenting results. The study implemented ethical considerations, obtaining informed consent, ensuring confidentiality, and balancing risks and benefits. A comprehensive and structured design was followed to ensure the validity and coherence of the psychological research.

### **Ethical considerations of research**

The research adhered to ethical standards outlined in the Code of Ethics of the Romanian Psychologists' College, ensuring proper recording, processing, and storage of data. The study prioritized informed consent, confidentiality, and the welfare of participants. Ethical principles included voluntary participation, anonymity, balanced benefits and risks, and respect for cultural diversity. These considerations had a significant impact on the research process, promoting the ethical conduct of psychological research.



### Limitations of the research

The study's limitations include the use of convenience sampling, a relatively small sample size of 60 participants, and the reliance on online questionnaires, raising concerns about representativeness and response validity. Additionally, temporal constraints impacted the planning, execution, and analysis of the study, potentially influencing its validity and representativeness. Acknowledging these limitations is crucial, emphasizing that results are specific to the sample and should not be generalized exhaustively.

### Research Results and Their Significance:

The data from the participant sample were processed using IBM SPSS Statistics 20 to test the formulated hypotheses. The obtained results for the three initial hypotheses are described and further analyzed.

Hypothesis 1: It is assumed that there are statistically significant differences in neuroticism between individuals whose fathers work abroad and those whose fathers work in proximity to their place of residence.

To validate the proposed hypothesis, the distribution of the obtained results was checked.

*Table 4.1. Normality Test for the neuroticism variable based on the participants fathers' workplace: abroad or in the city/vicinity of home.*

Tests of Normality							
Variable	Father	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Neuroticism	Working abroad	,218	32	,000	,943	32	,090
	Working locally or nearby	,138	28	,185	,944	28	,140

In the table above, as a result of applying the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, a non-normal distribution can be observed concerning participants whose fathers work abroad (0.000 smaller than 0.05), and a normal distribution regarding participants with fathers working in the vicinity of home (0.138 greater than 0.05).

Considering the results obtained from the normality test, a non-parametric statistical test will be applied to determine the statistical relationship between the two samples.

*Tabel 4.2. Mann-Whitney U test results*

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Neuroticism
Mann-Whitney U	276,500
Wilcoxon W	682,500
Z	-2,554
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,011

Upon applying the Mann-Whitney U test, a resulting Asymp Sig (2-tailed) value of 0.011 smaller than 0.05 indicates statistically significant differences between the tested samples regarding neuroticism. Thus, the proposed hypothesis is confirmed.



Research suggests that paternal absence can impact the psychological development and well-being of children, including adolescents. However, it is crucial to note that the effects of paternal absence may vary depending on factors such as the quality of the parent-child relationship, the presence of other support figures, and the overall family environment.

Studies indicate that the effects of paternal absence on neuroticism and anxiety levels may extend into adulthood. Individuals who experienced paternal absence during childhood and adolescence may continue to exhibit higher levels of neuroticism and anxiety later in life. Research also suggests that the absence of a father working abroad may have specific effects on children and the remaining family. This separation can evoke various emotions and influence family relationships and dynamics. The absence of a father may contribute to higher levels of neuroticism and anxiety in adolescent boys. Emotional instability and disrupted support systems can increase vulnerability to negative emotions. Family stress and conflict associated with paternal absence may contribute to higher levels of anxiety. The absence of a paternal figure can impact the development of secure gender identity and self-esteem, contributing to higher levels of neuroticism and anxiety.

According to research, gender differences exist in behavioral and emotional issues during adolescence. Boys are more prone to developing behavioral problems, such as drug abuse and externalizing behaviors, while girls are more predisposed to emotional problems such as anxiety, depression, irritability, and suicidal thoughts. Throughout adolescence, there is an increase in the use of internal and active coping. Older adolescents also show an increased tendency to use emotion-focused coping, and, in general, the quantity of coping mechanisms used increases with age. Maladaptive coping strategies are associated with psychological distress, symptom severity, and depression.

Regarding neuroticism, a personality trait characterized by a tendency to experience intense negative emotions, anxiety, emotional instability, and excessive stress, there is no universally accepted conclusion regarding differences between individuals with fathers working abroad and those with fathers working in proximity to their residence.

Some studies suggest that adolescents with parents working abroad may exhibit higher levels of neuroticism. The absence of a parent and the associated uncertainty can contribute to children's stress and anxiety. Additionally, changes in family dynamics, separation, and physical distance can have an emotional impact on children, influencing the level of neuroticism.

However, the impact of paternal absence may vary depending on several factors, including how children and the family respond to this situation, the resources available to cope with stress, and social support. Each individual and family is unique, and the influences on neuroticism can be complex, interacting with a wide range of personal, familial, and cultural factors.

For a more comprehensive and up-to-date understanding, it is recommended to consult recent studies and research in the field, which may provide a more detailed and specific perspective on this topic.

Research in this field is continually evolving, and conclusions may vary depending on the study and the population examined. Some studies support the idea that paternal absence can have negative effects on children and families left behind, while others find no significant connection between paternal absence and the level of neuroticism. In addition to neuroticism, there are other aspects of children's or adolescents' development and family relationships that can be affected by



paternal absence. For example, they may experience attachment difficulties, behavioral problems, and difficulties in interpersonal relationships.

At the same time, some studies have indicated that they can develop resilience and learn to cope with the situation successfully. The absence of a father can influence the attachment style of both boys and girls. Insecure attachment styles, such as anxious or avoidant attachment, may be more prevalent in individuals who have experienced paternal absence. These attachment styles can contribute to higher levels of neuroticism and anxiety. A regression analysis study highlighted a significant relationship between the cognitive regulation of emotions and emotional stress in adolescents with fathers working abroad.

It was also observed that there is a relationship between the cognitive regulation of emotions and emotional distress in adolescent girls aged 12-14 and 15-17, but not in those aged 18-19. In adolescent boys, the cognitive regulation of emotions was associated with emotional distress at the age of 12-14 but not at the ages of 15-17 and 18-19. Thus, the cognitive regulation of emotions plays a significant role in the emotional health of adolescents with fathers working abroad. Psychologically, we believe that changes in family dynamics resulting from the father's departure can have significant consequences for adolescents. Such changes bring about redistributions of responsibilities within the family, making the mother take on the tasks of managing all family aspects. This change in role can generate additional stress and pressure in their lives, as they may face significant alterations in how they are cared for and emotionally supported. Such changes can disrupt the emotional balance of young adults and contribute to the development of neurotic traits.

On the other hand, the impact of paternal absence is an important aspect in understanding the psychological impact of his departure. Adolescents with fathers working abroad may feel a lack of emotional stability and security, as the paternal figure is no longer present in their daily lives. This absence can generate uncertainty and frustration in the child's relationship with his father. As a result, adolescents may develop neurotic traits, such as anxiety and excessive concern, in an attempt to cope with the absence and compensate for the need for emotional connection with their father. Additionally, paternal absence can cause feelings of abandonment and insecurity, which, in turn, may be associated with higher levels of neuroticism among adolescents.

Neuroticism is a personality trait characterized by a tendency to experience intense negative emotions, such as anxiety, stress, and depression. It can be argued that the absence of the father in the daily life of adolescents, due to working abroad, may contribute to the development of a higher level of neuroticism. The lack of a significant parental figure can create feelings of emotional insecurity and can affect the stability and social support adolescents need to regulate their emotions and develop healthy psychological resilience. Therefore, adolescents with fathers working abroad may exhibit a higher level of neuroticism compared to those whose fathers are present in proximity to their residence.

The absence of the father can have implications for family dynamics and the social support networks available to adolescents. A father present in the vicinity of adolescents residence can contribute to family stability, effective communication, and the provision of adequate emotional support. Through these factors, adolescents can benefit from a safer and more protected environment, reducing the risk of developing neuroticism. In contrast, paternal absence can create an emotional void and limit access to social support and resources needed to cope with the stress



and adversities of life, thereby contributing to an increase in the level of neuroticism. It is important to note that neuroticism is influenced by a series of factors, and the absence of the father is not the sole determining factor. Other factors such as genetics, life experiences, and socio-cultural context can also play a significant role in the development of neuroticism in adolescents.

Hypothesis 2: It is assumed that there are statistically significant differences in aggression between individuals with fathers working abroad and those with fathers working locally.

Normality tests were conducted on aggression data, revealing a normal distribution for both groups.

*Table 4.3. Normality test for the aggression variable based on the location where the participants' fathers work: abroad or in the city/vicinity of home*

		Tests of Normality					
Variable	Father	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Aggression	Working abroad	,141	32	,105	,965	32	,381
	Working locally or nearby	,119	28	,200*	,954	28	,256

In the above table, as a result of applying the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, a normal distribution can be observed for both participants with fathers working abroad (0.105 greater than 0.05) and participants with fathers working near home (0.200 greater than 0.05).

Considering the results obtained from the normality test, to determine the statistical relationship between the two samples, a parametric statistical test will be applied.

*Table 4.4 T-test results*

		Independent Samples Test								
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Aggression	Equal variances assumed	,420	,519	6,326	58	,000	5,219	,825	3,567	6,870
	Equal variances not assumed			6,289	55,276	,000	5,219	,830	3,556	6,882

Following the normality tests, a parametric statistical test (Levene's test) was applied, resulting in a significance value less than 0.05. This indicates statistically significant differences in aggression between the tested groups.



Research suggests that paternal absence due to working abroad can impact children's emotional and behavioral development, potentially leading to aggressive behavior. Reduced communication and sporadic interactions may contribute to aggression as a means of seeking attention or expressing frustration. The absence of a stable paternal role may affect discipline styles and family dynamics.

Additionally, paternal absence may influence children's social interactions and perceptions of masculinity, possibly leading to the search for alternative role models. Adequate social support can mitigate the negative impact, emphasizing the importance of trustworthy individuals such as extended family or friends.

The return of the father after a period of absence requires supportive reintegration to rebuild family bonds and routines. The duration and frequency of paternal absence play a crucial role in assessing the impact on aggression, with prolonged absence associated with a higher risk of aggressive behavior.

Studies indicate gender-specific responses, with boys more prone to aggressive behavior and girls exhibiting internalized problems like anxiety and depression. However, it's crucial to note that not all children with absent fathers display aggressive behavior, as individual factors such as temperament, social interactions, and behavior modeling also play significant roles.

In conclusion, the hypothesis proposing a connection between active paternal presence and lower aggression levels in adolescents is supported by statistically significant differences. Psychologically, active paternal involvement contributes to socio-emotional development and aggression regulation, while sociologically, it impacts family dynamics and available social support networks.

Hypothesis 3: It is assumed that there are statistically significant differences in sensation-seeking behavior between individuals whose fathers work abroad and those whose fathers work nearby.

To validate the proposed hypothesis, we began by checking the distribution of the obtained results.

*Table 4.5. Normality test for the sensation-seeking variable based on the location where the fathers of the participants work: abroad or in the city/vicinity of home.*

Tests of Normality							
Variable	Father	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Sensation seeking behavior	Working abroad	,201	32	,002	,925	32	,028
	Working locally or nearby	,183	28	,017	,942	28	,122



In the above table, after applying the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, a non-normal distribution can be observed regarding the participants with fathers working abroad (0.002 smaller than 0.05) as well as for the participants with fathers working near home (0.017 smaller than 0.05).

Considering the results obtained from the normality test, to determine the statistical relationship between the two samples, a non-parametric statistical test will be applied.

*Tabel 4.6. Mann-Whitney U test results*

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Sensation seeking behavior
Mann-Whitney U	376,500
Wilcoxon W	782,500
Z	-1,068
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,285

The application of the Mann-Whitney U test resulted in an Asymp Sig (2-tailed) value of 0.285, greater than 0.05. Therefore, regarding sensation-seeking impulsivity, the statistical differences are nonsignificant, meaning that the decision is suspended, and the hypothesis is not confirmed.

Concerning the differences in impulsivity between individuals whose fathers work abroad and those with fathers working in proximity to their residence, it is important to note that specific research and conclusive findings in this field are limited. However, some psychological and sociological aspects influencing behavioral development and impulsivity in such contexts can be discussed.

Relational stability and emotional security play a significant role in developing self-control skills and managing impulses during adolescence. A stable and secure family environment provides a framework where teenagers can learn and practice impulse regulation skills, especially with a consistently present and emotionally supportive father. In such an environment, adolescents have more opportunities to develop less impulsive behaviors compared to those who have experienced intermittent paternal absence.

Growing up in a family where the father is consistently present, adolescents benefit from an authoritative figure and consistent emotional support. This support and constant presence contribute to building a secure foundation for regulating impulses and making more balanced choices. The father can actively play a role in shaping appropriate behavior and teaching self-control skills by providing guidance and support in the face of adolescent challenges and pressures.

On the other hand, adolescents who have experienced intermittent paternal absence may encounter difficulties in developing impulse regulation skills. Intermittent father absence can create uncertainty and instability in the family environment, affecting the emotional security of adolescents. The lack of constant support and the absence of a paternal figure may lead adolescents to seek other sources for emotional satisfaction and impulse regulation, such as peer groups or riskier behaviors.

Parental support and role modeling are essential factors in developing impulse control in children and adolescents. The active involvement of the father in the child's life and his



constant presence as a source of support and guidance can significantly impact the development and promotion of impulse regulation skills and the prevention of impulsive behaviors.

Individuals with a consistently present father in their lives benefit from positive role models and continuous support in learning impulse regulation skills. The father can be an important source of inspiration and guidance in managing impulses. Through his active involvement, the father can convey values and appropriate behaviors, providing concrete examples and demonstrating how to make rational choices and exercise self-control.

Furthermore, the constant presence of the father can create a sense of safety and emotional stability in the child's or adolescent's life. Knowing that the father is there for them as a source of support and trust, children can develop confidence in themselves and their ability to cope with challenges and control impulses.

Moreover, constant parental support provides a framework where children and adolescents can experience and learn from mistakes in a safe manner. The father can be there to offer guidance and help children understand the consequences of impulsive behaviors, encouraging them to find more constructive ways to express their needs and emotions.

In conclusion, the active involvement of the father and his presence as a source of support and guidance in the child's or adolescent's life plays an essential role in the development of impulse control. Through positive role models and constant support, the father can contribute to shaping impulse regulation skills and preventing impulsive behaviors among children and adolescents.

Despite the participants in this study being in the emerging adolescence or young adult stage, it is imperative to emphasize the need and justification for exploring the influence of intermittent family dynamics on personality traits in the earlier stages of development, as these traits are formed from birth. Therefore, research examining this subject in children is particularly relevant and informative in this context.

From a psychological perspective, sensation-seeking impulsivity is often associated with risky behavior and the pursuit of intense experiences. It can be argued that the active presence of the father in the lives of adolescents can impact how they regulate their impulses and seek sensations. As a parental figure, the father can provide emotional support and model appropriate behaviors in managing impulses and risk. Through daily interactions and involvement in common activities, the father can promote impulse regulation and consequence evaluation strategies, reducing the tendency for impulsive sensation-seeking behavior among adolescents.

From a sociological perspective, the presence of the father in proximity to the residence of adolescents can influence family dynamics and the social context in which they develop. A physically present father can contribute to family stability and increased emotional bonds, creating a supportive and emotionally safe environment. This environment can offer adolescents healthy alternatives for satisfying their need for intense sensations, such as involvement in constructive activities or exploring interests and passions. Thus, adolescents with a father present in proximity to their residence may have a lower tendency for impulsive sensation-seeking, benefiting from a more solid family and social support.



It must be mentioned that the level of sensation-seeking impulsivity is influenced by a multitude of factors, and the active presence of the father is just one of them. Other factors, such as personality traits, education, and reference groups, can also play a significant role in impulsive sensation-seeking behavior among adolescents.

In conclusion, the father's absence during childhood and adolescence may be associated with higher levels of neuroticism and anxiety in adulthood, as well as an increased risk of aggressive behavior. The impact varies based on the duration, frequency, and age of the child. Active involvement and parental support are essential to counteract these negative effects.

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