

The Role of Father Involvement in the Perceived Psychological Well-Being of Young Adult
Daughters with a Focus on Women of Color

Diamond Crisa Sciequan

Department of Community Care Counseling, Liberty University

A Dissertation in Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

School of Behavioral Sciences

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Approved By:

Robyn Simmons, Ed.D., Committee Chair

Jeffrey Boatner, Ph.D., Committee Member

Abstract

The study of father involvement from the perspective of the daughter is a field rarely explored, especially from the perspective of young adult women of color. Fathers being more present in the lives of their children has changed the culture of society as more mothers are working outside of the home full-time. With fathers more involved in the rearing of children the questions of what impact do fathers if any have on their children compared to mothers. More importantly what do these children believe regarding their father's impact on their lives as they reach adulthood. The research field is saturated with information about the mother-child relationship, but the father-daughter relationship is yet to be fully explored. This study explored the relationship from the perspective of the daughter with a focus on daughters of color. It examined father involvement and father nurturance from the daughter's perspective and the effects on her self-esteem, psychological well-being, and life satisfaction. Results from Pearson's correlation analyses showed a significant relationship between perceived father nurturance and self-esteem ($p < .001$). Results of psychological well-being and life satisfaction yielded non-significant results. Thus, future studies need to continue researching the importance of father involvement and nurturance in their child's development, and more specifically the development of daughters.

Keywords: Father involvement, father nurturance, self-esteem, psychological well-being, life satisfaction.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to those that influenced and supported this research and in true millennial fashion I must start with my fur babies.

To Pinky, thank you for starting this doctoral journey with me. You were with me through all those all-nighters and cuddled with me when my anxiety took over. You were a source of so much comfort and love during those long-hard nights. I am saddened that you are not here to celebrate this accomplishment with me, but you are forever in my heart.

To Mío, thank you for completing this doctoral journey with me. As a special needs pup, you have showed me the meaning of determination and what it looks like to be a fighter and survivor. Thank you for all the cuddles and brightening every day with your dances.

To my grandmothers, Lela and Grandma I dedicate this dissertation to you. Thank you for being pioneers and coming to America from Puerto Rico and Trinidad many decades ago. You both made this journey as young mothers with little education. However, your tenacity for a change in life and sacrifices has led the way and opened doors for me to complete this doctorate. Your hard-work and sacrifices do not go unrecognized. I completed this dissertation to not only honor you both, but also to open doors and lead the way for the future generations to come just as you did for me.

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List of Abbreviations

Depression Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS)

Father Involvement Scale (FIS)

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Nurturant Fathering Scale (NFS)

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE)

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)

Chapter One: Introduction

Overview

The research field is saturated with literature regarding the relationship between mothers and their children. The topics of mother attachment, the impact of mothering on the development of her children, and the mother-child relationship have dominated the research field (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Palm, 2014; Nielsen, 2012). However, there is one participant that is involved in creating the mother-child dynamic that is missing. Fathers. There is a scarcity of research concerning the father-child relationship, especially the father-daughter relationship.

This initial chapter introduces the dynamic of the father-daughter relationship and discusses the importance of research on the father-daughter relationship, including identifying gaps in this area of study. Additionally, this chapter discusses the significance of the study, present the research questions, provide definitions of terms used throughout the study, and concludes with a summary.

Background

The scarcity of literature regarding the father-daughter relationship raises numerous vital questions such as whether fathers really matter, are they essential, and do they have any influence on the overall wellbeing of their daughters. There is limited research on how fathers influence the development of their children and their outcomes as adults (Palkovitz & Hull, 2018). In addition, there is a lack of research on the father-daughter relationship from the daughter's perspective (Allgood et al., 2012). When studying the family dynamic of father, mother, and child, all participants should be studied in relation to one another. The mother-child relationship has been studied liberally, but less can be said about the father-child relationship,

and the influence fathers have on their children (Nielsen, 2012). Less can be said about the child's perspective, especially for this study, the daughter's perspective.

Fathers Understudied

Nielsen (2012) compared the father-daughter relationship to the light in a refrigerator. It is always there but rarely recognized until the light bulb blows out and the inside of the fridge becomes dark. Father-daughter relationships exist; however, they are seldom recognized until attention is brought to their relationship. The lack of acknowledgment of fathers is evident in the delay in establishing Father's Day as a nationwide celebration. Father's Day was signed into a proclamation in 1966, but Mother's Day was recognized in 1914 (Nielsen, 2012). Studies have demonstrated that fathers are an underappreciated factor in their child's development (Barco, 2012; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018). Furthermore, research lacks evidence on how fathers contribute to their child's development (Palkovitz & Hull, 2018). A small fraction of research has determined that fathers play a unique and crucial role in their child's development (Midha & Geetanjali, 2014). Further investigation is vital to determine how fathers can positively affect their child's development and, more specifically, their daughters' development.

Fathers often question their role in the life of their children and if they are needed (Nielsen, 2012). In the American culture, fathers are viewed primarily as the financial provider, and in terms of building an intimate relationship with their children, they are considered aloof and naïve (Devlin, 2005; Nielsen, 2012). Additionally, the father-daughter relationship is often characterized as awkward, distant, and dysfunctional (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008; Nielsen, 2012). This further perpetuates the problem that the father's role is to provide money and remain distant from building relationships with his children.

There is also another group of fathers that remain primarily understudied, known as father figures. In the Black community, father figures play a vital role (Langley, 2016). Absent, biological fathers may be replaced by a grandfather, uncle, brother, or other male figures. Research is lacking if father figures have the same influence as biological fathers (Langley, 2016; Nielsen, 2012). Father figures in the Black community often feel invisible and disregarded regarding their contributions to the fathering role (Nielsen, 2012).

Societal Shifts

American society has changed during the past couple of decades. Studies show that fathers spend more time than ever with their children, which is about 20 percent less than mothers (Nielsen, 2008). The rate of mothers in the workforce with children under eighteen nearly doubled between 1975 and 2009, and the amount of time fathers spend with their children doubled between 1965 and 1985 (Bianchi, 2011; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008). The increase in mothers returning to work after having children has allowed the opportunity for father involvement to increase. With the increase in father involvement, very little is known about the effects on children with fathers who are more involved. Research on father involvement has gained slight momentum during the past two decades in regards to changes in social norms and the family structure (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Flouri, 2008). More mothers are returning to work, and fathers are assisting in rearing their children. While older generations viewed the father's primary role as the financial provider and the mother as the homemaker (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Miller, 2010; Nielsen, 2008), the current generation tends to promote more egalitarian roles, and fathers are increasingly becoming essential participants in childrearing (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010; Nielsen, 2012). This is especially true for younger fathers who prefer to reduce

their salary to spend more time with their children (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010; Nielsen, 2008). A national survey found that 70% of young fathers are willing to earn less money to spend more time with their children (Radcliff Policy Center, 2000). Additionally, most fathers reported they want to spend more time with their families and feel guilty about their time at work (Bianchi et al., 2006; Radcliff Policy Center, 2000).

Daughters and Father Involvement

The limited research on the father-daughter relationship has demonstrated that involved fathers positively influence their daughter's development (Allgood et al., 2012; Gordon, 2016; Jeynes, 2015; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Trahan & Cheung, 2018). Gordon (2016) and Jeynes (2015) found a positive outcome between father involvement and educational outcomes in children, including children living in disadvantaged communities. Children benefit educationally, and those with involved fathers also tend to have fewer drug abuse rates, teenage pregnancy, low self-esteem, and more life satisfaction (Allgood et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012). Studies have demonstrated that fathers may influence cognitive development and provide intellectual stimulation (Meuwissen & Carlson, 2015; Nielsen, 2012). Current research promotes that involved mothers and fathers positively affect their child's development and may have distinct roles in their child's development (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014).

Research by Palkovitz and Hull (2018) described father involvement as a combination of three qualities: accessibility, engagement, and responsibility (Palkovitz & Hull, 2018). Accessibility is the father's availability and accountability, including providing safety and finances, while engagement is an active and emotionally charged experience (Allgood et al., 2012; Trahan & Cheung, 2018). Fathers who assume societal gender norms may lack father involvement. In addition, the quality of father involvement triumphs over the amount of time a

father spends with his child (Allgood et al., 2012; Meuwissen & Carlson, 2015). No amount of time can compensate for a high-quality and involved father-daughter relationship.

Adolescent and Young Adult Daughters

During adolescence, individuals go through a period of transition and growth. This time is often met with difficulties which can lead to depression. Duchesne and Ratelle (2014) found that adolescents often experience more depression symptoms during their transition to high school. Adolescents who perceived a secure attachment with their mother or father experienced fewer depressive symptoms during adolescence (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014). Father-daughter interactions during adolescence can influence the social cognition and stress response carried into adulthood (Allgood et al., 2012; Byrd-Craven, Auer et al., 2011; Trahan & Cheung, 2018). Adolescents who characterize their relationship with their parents as positive or securely attached are less likely to experience anxiety and depression symptoms during adulthood (Jakobsen et al., 2012).

Young adults with secure attachments tend to express a higher level of life satisfaction (Allgood et al., 2012; Guarnieri et al., 2015). Parental involvement is still significant for young adults even though it is a time to separate from their parents. Young adults tend to seek parental support. Fathers provide not only guidance but also financial support and encouragement for exploration (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014; Nielsen, 2012). Female college students that reported a fearful or avoidant attachment style with their father were at a higher risk for developing negative psychological symptoms (Pace et al., 2012), including a binge eating disorder and low self-esteem.

As daughters transition from childhood to adolescence and into young adulthood, father involvement tends to diminish, leaving daughters to question their importance to their fathers

(Nielsen, 2012). Adolescence is a tumultuous period filled with change for daughters (Nielsen, 2012; Schwartz & Finley, 2010). Fathers can provide a buffer and reduce the adverse effects of this transition (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020; Schwartz & Finley, 2010). Nielsen (2020) and Nielsen (2012) sum up the father-daughter relationship perfectly by explaining there is no expiration regarding issues that affect the father-daughter relationship over a lifetime. Problems between fathers and daughters often extend well into old age, so research in this area is imperative.

Promoting and Supporting Fatherhood

Carlson et al. (2015) describe fatherhood as a “developmental engine” that brings a new identity to men as they enter a caregiving role. Fatherhood is a developmental process that changes with time (Carlson et al., 2015; Nielsen, 2012). Fathers often receive minimal preparation before the birth of their first child. Mothers-to-be have baby showers and receive advice from their mothers, while fathers-to-be tend to be ignored in the transition into new parenthood. In addition, fathers are frequently excluded from maternity leave policies and support services related to parenting (Cabrera, 2010; Nielsen, 2012). The assumption is that fathers are content with being excluded since the primary responsibility of fathers is limited to the breadwinner role. Fathers often feel discouraged discussing the stress of managing fatherhood and work, which implies there needs to be more recognition of fathers’ struggles in their roles (Humberd et al., 2015; Nielsen, 2008, 2020). Open dialogue on the transition to fatherhood can help fathers manage their stress into fatherhood and diminish confusion about the role of fathers.

Fathering programs must move from the traditional family structure to one incorporating new cultural norms in fatherhood today, including an uncle, brother, or grandfather (Langley,

2016; Nielsen, 2012; Richardson, 2009). Furthermore, fathering programs can promote and encourage father-daughter relationships while ultimately promoting the overall well-being of daughters (Yoder et al., 2016). Nielsen (2012) and Sieber (2008) found that fathers often feel excluded from their children's lives. Fathers are less likely to attend their children's medical, school, and mental health appointments or counseling (Nielsen, 2012; Sieber, 2018). This is due to a lack of exclusion of fathers and supporting fathers to attend these appointments. Fathers who are involved and included in their daughter's activities report overall satisfaction and are more inclined to be available to become involved in their daughter's life (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008, 2012).

Problem Statement

Due to the lack of research on the father-daughter relationship, this study will explore the relationship and investigate the connection from the daughter's perspective. Over the past few decades, as more women have entered the workforce full-time, fathers have become more involved in their children's lives (Bianchi, 2011; Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010; Nielsen, 2012). Yet, much remains unidentified about how fathers influence their child's development (Meuwissen & Carlson, 2015). The research field is saturated with the mother-child relationship but remains minimal regarding fathers and their children (Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Palm, 2014; Nielsen, 2012). Furthermore, the father-daughter relationship remains invisible in the research field (Nielsen, 2008; Nielsen, 2012). The limited research on the father-child relationship has noted that healthy relationships can have long-lasting benefits into adulthood (Allgood et al., 2012; Gordon, 2016; Jeynes, 2015; Nielsen, 2012; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Trahan & Cheung, 2018). If fathers can positively influence their child's development, the question remains in what ways they positively impact their children, specifically their daughters. It must also be noted that

the research field lacks studies regarding women of color. Blacks, Latinos, and Asians comprise 13.1%, 19.1%, and 6.3% respectively of the American population (United States Census Bureau, 2022t). Latinos and Asian have many similarities, including an increase in population, immigration, acculturation, and colorism (Nielsen, 2012). Due to this increase in the minority population, it is imperative to understand the dynamic of minority families, including minority women and their fathers. Allgood et al. (2012) examined the father-daughter relationship from the daughter's perspective. However, their study consisted of 97% white female participants (Allgood et al., 2012). The study did not include women of color, and recommendations were made to include Black, Latino, and Asian women in future studies (Allgood et al., 2012). The problem is an apparent gap in research regarding the daughter's perspective on the father-daughter research and, more specifically, the perspective of Black, Latino, and Asian daughters.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to examine the daughter's perspective of her relationship with her father or father figure and the effects of the perceived relationship on the daughter's self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction. This study will focus on the perspective of adult Black, Latino, and Asian daughters and their relationship with their biological father or father-figure. Allgood et al. (2012) recommended that research in the father-daughter field needs to develop and include responses from fathers and daughters and, more importantly, Black, Latino, and Asian daughters. Involved fathers may contribute positively to their daughter's development; however, the daughter's perception of her father's involvement will affect her development the most (Allgood et al., 2012; Gordon, 2016; Jeynes, 2015; Nielsen, 2012). Quality versus quantity becomes very significant for fathers and daughters to develop a healthy relationship (Allgood et al., 2012; Meuwissen & Carlson, 2015). Fathers may spend hours with

their daughters, but if they are not engaged with one another, the time spent together becomes nonexistent. This study will allow Black, Latino, and Asian daughters to share their perspectives on father involvement and what they consider influential and essential. It demonstrated the impact fathers of Black, Latino, and Asian daughters have on their self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction well into adulthood. The results of this study provided insight into how to develop further and promote the father-daughter relationship in the Black, Latino, and Asian communities. In addition, it considered father figures and how they can build relationships with their “daughters” even though they may not be biological fathers. As explained by Nielsen (2012), father-daughter relationships are fragile and unstable due to the lack of understanding that fathers often experience on how to be impactful fathers to their daughters.

Significance of the Study

This study’s significance expands on the research demonstrated by Allgood et al. (2012). Further research is needed on the daughter’s perspective of her relationship with her father or father figure. Research also needs to include Black, Latino, and Asian communities since their population size has grown, and there is minimal research on the father-daughter relationship in these communities (Allgood et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012). By examining these relationships, future research can bring awareness to fathers’ influence on their daughters’ lives. Moreover, results of this research can be used to initiate programs that encourage and support fathers, father figures, and the father-daughter relationship. Nielsen (2012) notes that the father-daughter relationship is a fragile relationship that remains invisible. This can be attributed to social systems and institutions such as mental health services, schools, and doctors’ offices that do not necessarily encourage fathers to be present (Cabrera, 2010; Coleman & Garfield, 2004; Nielsen, 2008; Nielsen, 2012).

Furthermore, this study may help limit stereotypes often placed on fathers, such as being aloof and unempathetic towards their daughters (Nielsen, 2012). There seems to be an assumption that the only purpose and responsibility of fathering is financial support. This study will contribute to the father-daughter relationship research field and include father figures of Black, Latino, and Asian daughters that have often been excluded.

Assumptions and Limitations

Data collection for this particular study is not without assumptions and limitations. As Hayes (2013) explained, assumptions are not always realistic and may only be met by the methods applied. Due to assumptions, the data in this study are only approximations of reality. Along with assumptions, this research does have limitations in which the results must be regarded carefully in how they are applied (Heppner et al., 2016). This research examines the correlations between a daughter's perception of her father's nurturance and involvement and her level of self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction. This research assumes that a daughter's perception of her father's involvement and nurturance is most likely to affect her developmental outcome in adulthood (Allgood et al., 2012; Carlson, 2006; Finley & Schwartz, 2004).

Furthermore, this study is a correlation study and cannot be generalized to other women outside of the population of this study. The participants in this study are women between the ages of 18 and 24 who identify as White, Black, Latino, or Asian. Some of these women may identify with more than one race. Future studies are encouraged to explore women that identify as biracial or multiracial. The participants in this study were surveyed from a faith-based, Christian university in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. The results of this study cannot accurately be overgeneralized to all women, and future studies may want to study various

women of diverse backgrounds, including but not limited to other educational and faith backgrounds.

As research on the father-daughter relationship continues to expand, it may provide more insight into how fathers can be more intentional with the time they spend and the affection they provide their daughters. This research area is vast, and there is more to accomplish. Future studies can provide more mental health services for not only daughters but fathers as well and improve life satisfaction for many men and women (Allgood et al., 2012; Carlson, 2006; Finley & Schwartz, 2004).

Research Questions

This study will examine the daughter's perspective of her relationship with her father or father figure and the effects of the perceived relationship on the daughter's self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction. The daughters in this study will include Black, Latino, and Asian women and will seek to answer the following vital questions pertaining to this research:

RQ1: Does father involvement and father nurturance based on the daughter's perception influence a daughter's level of self-esteem and is there a difference in the level of self-esteem for women of color, and White daughters?

RQ2: Does father involvement and father nurturance based on the daughter's perception influence a daughter's level of psychological distress and is there a difference in the level of psychological distress for women of color, and White daughters?

RQ3: Does father involvement and father nurturance based on the daughter's perception influence a daughter's level of life satisfaction and is there a difference in the level of life satisfaction between women of color, and White daughters?

Definitions

The terms listed below will be used throughout this study. The definitions provided are related to the instruments used in this study and are supported by previous literature.

1. *Father*- Father is a child's male biological parent (Nielsen, 2012).
2. *Father Accessibility*- Father accessibility is the availability a father provides to the child, whether physical or psychologically (Allgood et al., 2012).
3. *Father Engagement*- Father engagement is the direct interaction between a father and child (Allgood et al., 2012).
4. *Father-Figure*- Father-figure is a male who is not a child's biological father (Nielsen, 2012).
5. *Father Involvement*- Father involvement consists of engagement, accessibility, and responsibility and is measured by frequency of contact and relationship quality (Allen & Daly, 2007; Allgood et al., 2012).
6. *Father Responsibility*- Father responsibility is the care and welfare a father provides for his child (Allgood et al., 2012).
7. *Life Satisfaction*- Life satisfaction is the long-term characteristic of psychological well-being (Allgood et al., 2012).
8. *Psychological Distress*- Psychological distress is the exhibition of anxious and depressive symptoms (Allgood et al., 2012).
9. *Self-Esteem*- Self-esteem is a person's evaluation of themselves and includes self-acceptance and self-worth (Bastaitis et al., 2012; Bulanda & Majumdar, 2009).

Summary

This chapter introduced the dynamic of the father-daughter relationship, discussed the importance of research on the father-daughter relationship, and identified gaps in the study of father-daughter relationships. The research field on the father-daughter relationship is minuscule and continues to shrink when considering the connection from the daughter's perspective (Allgood et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012). The standpoint of Black, Latino, and Asian daughters is predominantly non-existent. Nielsen (2012) classifies these families as fragile and further investigation into their family relationships may help to promote healthy and positive life outcomes.

Examining the daughter's perspective of her relationship with her father or father figure and the effects of the perceived relationship on the daughter's self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction can lead to future research investigating ways to promote and support the father-daughter relationship. Fathers are essential to their children's lives, and father-daughter relationships should not remain invisible (Nielsen, 2012). Many fathers want to be at the forefront of their child's life. Still, they are often confused and uneasy about how to evolve their relationship with their child, especially their daughters (Nielsen, 2012). This research will attempt to address these concerns and the effects on daughters.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Overview

To date, much research has focused on mothers' impact on their children. However, there is a lack of research on fathers' effects on their children. Due to the evolving role of fathers, there is increasing importance on the influence a father has on a child's development (Allgood et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Palm, 2014). More importantly, there is growing interest in the father-daughter relationship due to the lack of research in this area, and the potential benefits fathers can provide their daughters (Allgood et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018). Jain (2015) explained the importance and impact of a secure father attachment on a female's well-being. Allgood et al. (2012) and Nielsen (2012) found that fathers positively influence a female's life satisfaction and self-esteem. The relationship between a father and daughter is imperative to the daughter's psychological well-being, self-esteem, and life satisfaction. The father's interactions with his daughter, and the daughter's perspective of their relationship, will influence her development and trajectory throughout adulthood (Jain, 2015; Keller, 2013; Nielsen, 2020).

Fathering

The influence fathers have on their children is often viewed as indirect and often presented through resources that they bring to the household, such as finances (Allgood et al., 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2020). Cabrera and Tamis-LeMonda (2013) explain that fathers not only influence their children through indirect influences but also through direct influences. Indirect influence comes through providing a salary for household expenses and supporting their partner emotionally and physically with household chores. In contrast, a direct influence comes through responsiveness and engagement. This can include reading a book

to their child, playing outside with their child, or assisting their child with homework. The influence fathers have on their children is rarely recognized, and research is beginning to expand in the area of fathering (Allgood et al., 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Nielsen (2008) has studied the relationship between fathers and daughters and has found that fathers have as much or more impact on their daughters as moms do. Numerous studies have demonstrated that fathers are often deemed insignificant in the development of children (Barco, 2012; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018). For this reason, further research is necessary to determine how fathers can positively affect their child's development and, more specifically, daughters' development.

Studies on the father-daughter relationship not only contribute to understanding the influence fathers have on their child's development but also an understanding of how men view fatherhood. Humberd et al. (2015) found that men often feel discouraged communicating the stress of managing fatherhood and work. Future research can assist with developing support and open communication for men learning to balance family and work life. Carlson et al., (2015) describe fatherhood as a developmental engine. Entering fatherhood is a process that develops over time.

Father Importance

Mothers and fathers influence various constructs of their child's life differently (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012; Rostad et al., 2014). For many females, her father is her first attachment to a male figure (Jain, 2015). Fathers represent the first relationship a daughter will have with the opposite sex. This means that a healthy father-daughter relationship is imperative for females to establish other healthy relationships with males. Research on father attachment by Jain (2015) explained that females who were raised without a father, or father

figure, view the paternal role as insignificant. These females develop dominant personalities and engage in dysfunctional relationships with men. Often, these females will seek men who fulfill the traditional male role in the relationship but want to exert their dominance, which causes tension in the relationship (Jain, 2015).

Further, Jain (2015) explains that these females have difficulty expressing their emotions, being open and vulnerable, and communicating with their male partner. Thus, failed relationships can lead to lower self-esteem, depressive symptoms, and lack of life satisfaction. A healthy, secure father-daughter connection provides a protective factor against these adverse outcomes.

Benefits of Fathers

There are many benefits associated with father involvement. When discussing father involvement, it is essential to note that the quality of father involvement is more important than the amount of time (Allgood et al., 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Meuwissen & Carlson, 2015; Nielsen, 2012). Fathers can spend hours with their children, but if there is a lack of emotional investment and active engagement, the time spent together is not practical or influential. In contrast, Adamsons (2013) found that children are more likely to be influenced by their father's enjoyment of being a parent versus their father's involvement. Father involvement is still significant but may have less influence than the father's enjoyment of being a parent. Trahan and Cheung (2018) discussed that the time spent together must be actively engaging with an emotional element. The quality of time spent together has shown to be a protective factor against risky and delinquent behaviors (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Meuwissen & Carlson, 2015; Goncy & van Dulmen, 2010). In addition, studies on brain development and executive functioning in children have demonstrated that research on fathers needs to be

explored since cognitive development is not solely shaped by one primary caregiver (Meuwissen & Carlson, 2015; Nielsen, 2008). One of the most significant ways fathers directly influence their children is cognitive. Fathers tend to challenge their children intellectually, teach them critical thinking skills, encourage self-reliance, and encourage children to try complex tasks (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Meuwissen & Carlson, 2015; Nielsen, 2008).

Roles of Fathers

Fathers comprise a variety of roles that include male role models, offering security and protection. This is essential for daughters since females are often seen as more vulnerable than males. However, Jain (2015) explains that during adolescence, fathers tend to decrease their amount of involvement with their daughters. It is not yet understood why there is a decrease, but there are several theories, including during adolescence, females tend to seek support and guidance from their mothers as they go through puberty (Jain, 2015, Nielsen, 2012, 2020). Daughters may be more comfortable discussing bodily changes and experiences with their mothers than with their fathers, thus creating a closer emotional bond during this development period (Jain, 2015, Nielsen, 2012, 2020; Schaick & Stolberg, 2001). However, due to the benefits of father involvement, it is essential for fathers to continually be involved during all stages of their daughter's life.

Father Involvement

There is a paucity of research focused on how fathers contribute to the development of their children (Palkovitz & Hull, 2018). Due to societal and cultural shifts, father involvement is increasing compared to older generations (Miller, 2010). More mothers are entering the workforce full-time after the birth of a child, which results in the need for household and child-rearing responsibilities to be split more equally. When both parents work, fathers are more likely

to be involved in child-rearing (Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010). Due to this increase in the amount of time and influence fathers have on children, it is vital to understand the implications.

Father involvement comprises three components: engagement, accessibility, and responsibility (Allgood et al., 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Pudasainee-Kapri & Razza, 2015). Engagement is direct interaction, accessibility is physical or psychological availability, and responsibility is providing care (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Allgood et al., 2012). According to developmental theory, a father's engagement with his child during the early years of life correlates with healthy development (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Pudasainee-Kapri & Razza, 2015). Trahan and Cheung (2018) explain that when fathers engage with their children, it is an active and emotionally charged experience for the father and child. Both the father and child are engaging with one another, creating an emotional bond that is influential on healthy development. Trahan and Cheung (2018) further explain that involved fathers influence their child's internal and external behavior.

Mikelson (2008) found that fathers reported they were more involved with their children in comparison to how mothers rated the father's involvement with children. Other studies have examined the expectations of fathers and mothers on how much father involvement is expected in the caregiving of children. Findings indicate that expectations were predictors of father involvement in caregiving (Carlson et al., 2016). This suggests that fathers tend to increase involvement when they are expected to be involved rather than initiating participation.

Fathers are the forgotten and underappreciated factor in child development (Allgood et al., 2012; Barco, 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Research has demonstrated the importance of father involvement in a child's life, especially for daughters, so programs and policies that strengthen and promote father involvement are imperative (Jain,

2015; Nielsen, 2012). Palkovitz and Palm (2009) discuss the importance of studying the cognitive, affective, and behavioral changes that men may encounter throughout life that affect their fatherhood. A father's role, status, or work in various contexts will affect his ability to father. Fathers involved in more fathering activities are more likely to embrace the fathering role (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Palkovitz & Palm, 2009).

Fathers and their children benefit from fathering programs (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Holmes et al., 2010; Nielsen, 2020). The more interactions and contexts a father has that involve fatherhood, the more a father settles into the role of a father (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Palkovitz & Palm, 2009). Fathering programs are not standard, but these results demonstrate the benefits of fathering programs. One benefit for fathers and their children is fathers become more sensitive toward their children (Holmes et al., 2010). Mothers are viewed as comfort and warmth; however, fathers can also be nurturing (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Midha & Geetanjali, 2014). Positive father-child relationships reduce children's risk of delinquent behaviors (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012; Yoder et al., 2016). Furthermore, programs need to move from the traditional family structure to one that incorporates new cultural norms in fatherhood that can include an uncle, brother, or grandfather (Richardson, 2009). This finding supports the importance of programs that encourage and foster father-child relationships.

Fathers can also improve their involvement with their children by enhancing their communication with their spouse or partner. Practical communication skills with a spouse can help increase father involvement (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Rienks et al., 2011). Men with healthy relationships with their spouse or partner and co-parenting tend to have better relationships and higher involvement with their children. Studies in Norway have found a

positive association between paternity leave and father involvement (Rege & Soli, 2013). Many European countries have begun implementing four or more weeks of paternity leave to increase father involvement and assist mothers.

Non-residing Fathers

As discussed, due to societal shifts, fathers are becoming more involved and engaged in their children's lives. Since these changes have occurred, research has questioned whether non-residing fathers have the same levels of engagement and involvement as fathers that live in the home. The question has been answered by Amato et al. (2009), who found that non-residing fathers involvement has increased compared to non-residing fathers from three decades before. Fathers who do not reside in the same physical dwelling as their children still influence their child's development (Bastaitis et al., 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020). This influence can be negative or positive, depending on the type of involvement. Co-parenting is positively associated with father engagement in families where the mother and father are not married or do not reside together (Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020; Pudasainee-Kapri & Razza, 2015). Adolescents with a close relationship with a nonresident father demonstrated better outcomes than adolescents who resided with a father and had no connection (Lopez & Corona, 2012). Cabrera and Tamis-LeMonda, (2013) and Pudasainee- Kapri and Razza (2015) found that fathers involved in supportive co-parenting demonstrated positive father engagement. There are negative consequences that can occur due to the father's absence. Non-residing fathers seem to find it challenging to be consistently involved in their children's lives (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). For some children, father absence correlates with negative social adjustment, especially for children in fragile families (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Martinez et al., 2004; Mott, 1994). Fragile families will be further discussed later in this discussion as it pertains

to minority fathers. The following sections will examine ways a father may be absent and its effects on his children, especially his daughters.

Divorce

Divorce, as it relates to the father-daughter relationship, has many consequences for both fathers and daughters. Daughters born today are more likely to live with a divorced mother or a mother that has never been married (Nielsen, 2012). For daughters, Nielsen (2008) and Nielsen (2012) found that most daughters do become well-adjusted after their parents' divorce; however, the relationship a daughter has with her father tends to become broken. Daughters that have broken relationships with their fathers are at higher risk for anxiety, depression, low self-esteem, and teen pregnancy (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008; Nielsen, 2012).

Daughters report feeling unloved or rejected by their fathers after a divorce more than sons (Nielsen, 2012). In addition, fathers that lose their relationship with their daughters also tend to have higher rates of depression, anxiety, and emotional instability (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008; Nielsen, 2012; Nielsen, 2020). Both father and daughter suffer when the relationship becomes damaged after a divorce. Divorce affects the father-daughter relationship more than the mother-daughter relationship or the father-son relationship (Nielsen, 2008, Nielsen, 2012; Nielsen, 2020).

The effects are long-term for daughters and last well into adulthood as they long for a relationship with their father. Fathers, in turn, often feel demeaned and feel like the "bad guy" since most children reside with their mother after a divorce (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008; 2020). Children often take their mothers' side (Fosco & Grych, 2010; Nielsen, 2012). Many fathers struggle to engage with their children after a divorce which places fathers at a higher risk for depression. These struggles may be attributed to stereotypes that divorced

fathers are often absent, childish, or irresponsible (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2020). Mothers also influence how involved a father will be with his children after a divorce. Fathers often feel that mothers are the gatekeepers of a relationship with their children (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Decuzzi & Lamb, 2004; Nielsen, 2012, Trinder, 2008). With the mother as a gatekeeper, fathers may develop feelings of being unwanted or not needed. Again, this puts the most strain on the father-daughter relationship.

Divorce can be highly stressful for children, especially when one parent leaves home and engagement decreases. However, co-parenting, especially for fathers, allows both parents to continue parental engagement in their child's life and provide a positive influence. Research has also found that fathers can affect their child's self-esteem even if the father and child do not reside in the same household (Bastaitis et al., 2012). This finding indicates that fathers still impact their child's development in divorced families.

Father Figures

In minority families, fathers are more involved when they physically reside in the same household as their children (Guarnieri et al., 2015). Minority fathers that do not reside in the same household may spend less time engaged with their children. When a biological father is less involved in a minority family, a father figure often fulfills the biological father's role. Minority families tend to have more father figures, such as a grandfather, uncle, or brother, who provide care (Guarnieri et al., 2015). For females that do not have a relationship with their biological father, there is often a father figure in their life that plays a pivotal role in their development (Guarnieri et al., 2015). It is essential to recognize who these men are and the qualities of a father that they possess to fulfill the void of a biological father.

Absent by Life Circumstance

When fathers remarry, and their children reside with their mother, this new dynamic often creates tension with their children from their previous marriage. This is most evident in the relationship between father and daughter. When a father remarries, his relationship with his daughter becomes more strained and complicated (Nielsen, 2008; Nielsen, 2012). If a daughter already feels rejected or abandoned, her father's remarriage will further those feelings.

Not only do daughters from divorced families feel a strain on their relationship with their father, but also daughters that have a father that is incarcerated. Incarcerated fathers often find it difficult to sustain a relationship with their daughters (Nielsen, 2012). Furthermore, prisons do not create environments that support father-daughter relationships, so it is difficult for fathers and daughters to communicate and connect (Nielsen, 2012). Research is lacking on the effects on daughters of incarcerated fathers. However, research does demonstrate that children of incarcerated fathers tend to display more aggression and struggle with attention deficits (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Geller et al., 2009).

Daughters that have absent fathers due to military deployment also face struggles in their relationship with their fathers. These struggles often present themselves once the father returns home (Nielsen, 2012). This time tends to be stressful for the entire family since it is a transitional period of getting used to the father being home after being absent for a substantial amount of time. Research on daughters with fathers in the military is lacking, but overall, it seems that sons tend to struggle with fathers on deployment more than daughters (Nielsen, 2012).

Non-Residing Fathers and Policies

As presented, fathers that do not reside in the home with their children can have negative consequences. When co-parenting is present, fathers and daughters can thrive and continue to grow their relationship. To assist non-resident fathers that feel disengaged from their children, communities may want to encourage policies and programs that promote father involvement (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Marsiglio & Roy, 2012). This can help both fathers and daughters. Non-resident fathers are at higher risk for depression after a divorce, and daughters often feel excluded from their non-resident fathers. Policies and programs promoting the father-daughter relationship can help the relationship and overall well-being.

Benefits for Father

Depictions of fathers in society are often demeaning and denigrating (Nielsen, 2008, 2012). Fathers are often depicted as inferior to mothers and absent-minded about the family. Shifting the perception of fathers through research may help to promote more realistic depictions of fathers. Fathers are not deficient to mothers but complement motherhood and are essential to childrearing (Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020). Changing the idea that men must solely provide for their family financially to be a father can help improve a father's self-confidence and self-esteem (Allgood et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2008). Some women make more money than their husbands, and this is especially true for Black fathers. Not being able to support their family the way society deems it acceptable can harm a father's idea of being able to parent. The father-daughter relationship affects his well-being and development (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008, 2012). Fathers actively involved in their children's lives have better physical and emotional health (Baum, 2006; Nielsen, 2012; Stone & Dudley, 2006). Daughters significantly impact their father's opinions, moods, self-confidence, happiness, and stress levels (Nielsen,

2008, 2012). Supporting the father-daughter relationship is effective for both fathers and daughters since their overall well-being relies on one another.

Attachment

Attachment theory implies that forming attachment styles during early life affects relationships throughout life (Keller, 2013). An individual's type of attachment will influence how they interact with people, how they form relationships, and their confidence to explore and take risks. Attachment style can explain why some people have more satisfying relationships and life satisfaction than others (Guarnieri et al., 2015). Healthy attachment provides a bond between two people that consists of reliability, comfort, security, and closeness (Brumariu & Kerns, 2010).

Bowlby's attachment theory explains that children develop an attachment with their caregiver. Those with a healthy attachment, known as secure attachment, recognize that they can rely on their caregiver for their needs (Brumariu & Kerns, 2013). Children who do not develop a secure attachment may form an anxious or avoidant attachment with their caregiver (Brumariu & Kerns, 2013). Attachments with both parents occur during the first year of life, and mothers are seen as a source of comfort and security, whereas fathers are viewed as playful partners (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013).

Other theories, such as The PARTheory (Parental Acceptance-Rejection), explain that children are predisposed to want their parents to care about them (Lopez & Corona, 2012). For this reason, a child's attachment style to their parents influences their development. Fathers and mothers play distinct and vital roles in their child's development (Rostad et al., 2014). Children need and look towards their parents for support, guidance, and warmth as they grow, especially into emerging adulthood or college-age years. Studies and attachment theories have

demonstrated repeatedly that the quality of time spent together is more significant than the amount of time (Allgood et al., 2012; Brumariu & Kerns, 2013; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008)

Guarnieri et al. (2015) found that parental attachment is associated with life satisfaction. Young adults with secure attachments tend to experience a higher level of life satisfaction (Guarnieri et al., 2015). Parental involvement is still significant for young adults even though it is considered a period for them to separate from their parents. Young adults tend to seek parental support during the early years of adulthood. College students may seek counseling for the following reasons: relationship problems, life satisfaction, psychological stress, and low self-esteem (Schwartz & Finley, 2010). Students that sought counseling for these reasons often reported difficulty with their parents (Schwartz & Finley, 2010). Parental relationships, whether with a mother or father, can affect one's quality of life, especially during the early years of adulthood. Females tend to be more attached to their parents due to the protection parents provide their daughters compared to sons (Devi et al., 2017). Sons tend to be viewed as less vulnerable and require less protection than daughters.

Keller (2013) explains that when researching attachment theory, it is crucial to consider the evolution in society and the differences between cultures. These changes and differences may contribute to the different assessments of attachment.

Mother Attachment

There is a plethora of research on mother attachment. In general, there is a recognition that mothers play a vital role in their children's lives. Often, a mother and child have a greater emotional bond (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2013). The mother is usually the primary caregiver during infancy, establishing the mother-child attachment style. Research has demonstrated that their

attachment style impacts a child's psychological well-being and healthy development with their mother (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2013). Duchesne and Ratelle (2013) found that adolescents with a secure attachment with their mothers were less likely to display symptoms of depression during adolescence and into adulthood. Secure parental attachment, and more specifically mother attachment, is associated as a protective factor for children. This protective factor mitigates against numerous factors that could lead to poor life choices and negatively affect life satisfaction. However, as noted by Keller (2013) and Brumariu and Kerns (2010), it is advantageous for research to view father and mother attachment separately and the contributions each has to the development of their child into adulthood.

Father Attachment

Research regarding father-child attachment is imperative to support getting fathers more involved and fathers creating a secure attachment with their children (Palm, 2014). On average, father-daughter relationships tend to represent an insecure attachment due to a lack of communication, making them more fragile (Nielsen, 2012; Jain, 2015). The relationship between fathers and daughters does not demonstrate the same level of emotional closeness as the relationship between mothers and daughters (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014). Often, fathers tend to embody the role of playmate while mothers embody the role of caregiver (Palm, 2014). Children tend to seek their fathers when they want to play and have fun and their mothers for comfort and warmth. However, research indicates that those with a secure attachment with their fathers will often seek guidance from them (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014). There is limited research on the father-daughter relationship. Some researchers are beginning to seek answers as to why this relationship is associated with bonding difficulty and understanding the benefits experienced by daughters who have a healthy and satisfying relationship with their

father (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2012). Differentiating the influences of father-attachment and mother-attachment may help explain how fathers and mothers influence their children differently and, most importantly, how both are needed for healthy development. Jain (2015) found that fathers do influence their daughter's development. For daughters, a secure father-daughter attachment is crucial for proper development.

Daughters that lack a relationship or emotional connection with their fathers may be at risk for depression. Demidenko et al. (2015) found that females diagnosed with depression, compared to females that do not display depressive symptoms, are more likely to report poor to non-existent communication and attachment with their fathers. It is also important to note that females who have parents diagnosed with a mental disorder are at a higher risk for depression (Demidenko et al., 2015). Research conducted on female college students indicated that those with a fearful or avoidant attachment style with their father were at a higher risk for developing negative psychological symptoms (Allgood et al., 2012; Demidenko et al., 2015; Pace et al., 2012).

In addition to psychological well-being, research has demonstrated that an insecure father-daughter attachment can lead to uncertain adult relationships later in adulthood, including a relationship with a romantic partner (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2012). Further, a secure attachment between fathers and daughters leads to secure attachment patterns in adulthood (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2012). For daughters, the relationship with their fathers not only represents the relationship they will have later in life with the opposite sex but also impacts self-esteem. According to Jain (2015), fathers provide their daughters with a sense of self, which results in a higher level of self-esteem. The results of these findings signify that parents significantly influence their children's well-being

and development. It is also essential to understand how fathers and mothers affect their children and their roles in their child's life.

Fathering and Minority Families

In various cultures, secure attachment seems to be the preferred and most beneficial form of attachment (Dexter et al., 2013). It is evident amongst all cultures that a healthy, secure attachment has many benefits for development, social abilities, and developing relationships. Race is not associated with attachment, even though parental behaviors differ between White and Black parents (Dexter et al., 2013). Father involvement and not attachment differ among various cultures. There is also an association between parental attachment and college adjustment that varies across ethnicities (Melendez & Melendez, 2010). Melendez and Melendez (2010) found that White students who felt supported by their parents were better able to handle the stressors of college, Latino students who felt supported by their parents formed better attachments with their college in the form of college pride, and Black students who felt supported by their parents were able to develop independence.

There has been a substantial increase in racial and ethnic minorities in the United States over the past few decades (United States Census Bureau, 2022). The increases have been seen in the Latino, Black, and Asian populations. Latinos represent the most significant growth, with a population of approximately 16%, followed by Blacks at 13% and Asians at 5% (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Regarding these minority groups, the Black and Latino families are considered fragile families. These families are known to have prevalent poverty rates, out-of-wedlock births, and incarceration, making them fragile and more likely to experience unsettling life situations (Nielsen, 2012). Poverty is one of the biggest upsets for families, especially regarding fathering (Nielsen, 2008, 2012). Black and Latino fathers that

cannot provide for their children often avoid the father role due to the inability to fulfill the financial responsibility set forth for fathers.

For this reason, understanding the role that fathers play in these families becomes vital to help these families in fragile situations and possibly build resiliency. Even though Asian families are not considered fragile, they also encounter different family dynamics and issues that are not present in White families (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). These dynamics and issues include immigration and adjusting to a new culture (American) and language (English). Even though these families face many negatives, there are some positives. Landale et al. (2011) found that immigrant fathers, compared to White fathers, are more likely to be married or cohabitate with their child's mother.

Another family dynamic to consider in these minority families is the distinct roles that mothers and fathers encompass due to differences in values, traditions, and cultural norms. Depending on the family's racial or ethnic background, they may be more or less to break cultural norms when it comes to the role of mothering and fathering (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). For the focus of this study, the examination will solely focus on the fathering role in these minority families.

Latino Culture and Fathers

Latinos are the largest growing minority group, and there is a lack of research regarding the impact and involvement of Latino fathers (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013, D'Angelo et al., 2012, Nielsen, 2012). Latino fathers demonstrate the same involvement in their child's school as White fathers (Terriquez, 2013). However, this finding differs when there is a language barrier. Latino fathers that do not speak English tend to be less involved in their child's

activities due to language barriers (Terriquez, 2013). This indicates the need for more fathering programs that consider cultural and language differences.

In addition, Latino fathers tend to be more engaged with their children in primary caregiving and physical play than White fathers (Guarnieri et al., 2015). Latino fathers also tend to be equally involved in the lives of their sons and daughters, and father-daughter conflict during adolescence is more detrimental for Latinas (Lopez & Corona, 2012). This contrasts with the study by Jain (2015), which noted that father-daughter involvement decreases during adolescence. In Latino cultures, there is not a noticeable decrease in father involvement during the child's development. It is important to note that Lopez and Corona (2012) found that the father-daughter conflict negatively influences Latinas. One of the negative consequences is low self-esteem. For Latinos, father attachment is associated with internalizing symptoms related to body image (Carter et al., 2014).

In the Latino culture, there are two concepts to understand when it comes to family dynamics. The first is familismo. Familismo is a value shared in the Latino culture that puts immediate and extended family members as an essential source of identity and support (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). In essence, the benefit and welfare of the family in all situations are seen as a priority. Family is first in the Latino culture. The second concept is known as machismo. Machismo in the Latino culture is viewed as the man's responsibility and commitment to his family (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Men are to protect and provide for their families. Machismo is often portrayed in stereotypical ways as a male being aggressive, harsh, possessive, and insensitive, but in many Latino families, this is not accurate (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Cervantes, 2010; Nielsen, 2012). For most Latino

families, fathers exhibiting familismo and machismo is a way of showing support and care and enhancing their lives by taking an active role.

Many Latino families tend to adhere to traditional gender roles when it comes to parenting compared to White families (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Traditionally, daughters spend most of their time with their mothers rather than their fathers in Latino families. Unlike White daughters, Latina daughters tend to favor the role of their father being the protector and provider while they connect on a higher emotional level with their mothers (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). However, some studies have shown that Latina daughters would like to communicate more with their fathers but indicate that it may feel awkward or uncomfortable (Nielsen, 2012; Way & Gillman, 2000). In addition, Latino fathers tend to be more protective and stricter and expect more respect and obedience than White fathers (Nielsen, 2012). For Latinos, the roles often absorbed are a mix of cultural norms and acculturation into the American culture (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). The longer the family has been in the American culture, the more likely that the concepts of familismo and machismo tend to dissipate.

Understanding the relationship between Latino fathers and daughters is essential because of the influence fathers can have on the development of their daughters (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2008, 2012). Studies have noted the impact Latino fathers can have on their daughter's perception regarding her appearance (Nielsen, 2012). Latino fathers that discuss their daughter's appearance and make her feel good about her appearance can help to boost her self-esteem and build resiliency against discrimination (Nielsen, 2012; Telzer & Garcia, 2009).

As mentioned, there tend to be many stereotypes and misconceptions surrounding Latino fathers. The concept of machismo often facilitates these stereotypes. However, in the Latino culture, machismo enhances the father-daughter relationship (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). For fathers, displaying machismo encourages them to be involved in their child's life and take an active role. Studies have found that Latino fathers tend to be highly engaged in their children's lives, beginning with the prenatal period (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). Latino fathers are often in attendance during routine pregnancy examines and are incorporated in feeling the baby move and hearing the heartbeat (Cabrera et al., 2009). In addition, compared to White fathers, Latino fathers tend to be warmer, more nurturing, and engage in more caregiving activities and physical play (Cabrera et al., 2011). Since many Latino fathers adhere to the concept of familismo engaging with their children, including caretaking activities, Latino fathers tend to be highly involved in their child's life and continue their involvement well into their child's adulthood. Familismo encourages elevated levels of engagement for Latino fathers (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Familismo also helps non-resident Latino fathers remain engaged with their children. Non-resident Latino fathers are more involved with their children than non-resident White fathers. Not only does familismo keep non-resident fathers engaged with their children, but it also shows that having a highly active and engaged father produces better outcomes for children living in poverty.

Black Culture and Fathers

Black parents seem to incorporate a more authoritarian parenting style than White parents (Dexter et al., 2013). Guarnieri, Smorti, and Tani (2015) note that Black families tend to have more father figures than biological fathers that provide care and socialization for children. Few studies have examined the role of men in extended family systems, especially among the Black

population (Richardson, 2009). Black families tend to rely on other males within the family system besides their biological father. These findings suggest the importance of extending father involvement research into father figures, especially for the Black community.

Black fathers are often stigmatized as dead-beat dads that run from the responsibilities of taking care of their children (Nielsen, 2008). The stereotypes of Black fathers are often negative, and the media enhances these stereotypes by displaying Black fathers as criminals or self-absorbed athletes with little time for family matters (Nielsen, 2008). In reality, many Black fathers engage with their children and care for their families. As mentioned earlier, it is essential to remember that Black families are fragile families. They are more likely to live in poverty, in communities with high rates of violence, and experience incarceration and divorce (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). All of these issues will impact the father role of a Black father.

Regarding the father-daughter relationship, Black daughters are the most likely to live in poverty and be born out of wedlock (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Studies show three factors hinder the relationship between Black fathers and their daughters (Hattery & Smith, 2014; Hummer & Hamilton, 2010). The first factor is that Black fathers are more likely to be incarcerated, murdered, or unemployed at an early age. Secondly, Black fathers are more likely to have children out of wedlock since it is more accepted in the Black culture compared to other racial groups. And lastly, married Black fathers are twice as likely compared to other racial groups to have their marriages end in divorce. These factors contribute to different father-daughter relationships in Black families compared to White families. Often in fragile families, the father-daughter relationship can suffer due to the lack of connection a Black father may have with the mother of his child. Involvement and engagement may decrease. Black fathers often

feel driven away from their children and in conflict with their mothers (Nielsen, 2012).

However, some studies have found that Black, non-resident fathers tend to see their children more than White and Latino fathers, but these studies fail to mention the level of engagement or quality of time spent with the child (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Carlson & McLanahan, 2010). It is important to note that even though a Black father may not have a healthy relationship with the mother of his child, it does not necessarily make him an unfit father (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013).

Another feature of the Black father-daughter relationship is that when a biological father is absent or not present regularly, a father figure may assume the father's role. In the Black community, the term father is often attributed to a male that has raised a child, whether or not he is the biological father (Nielsen, 2012). Furthermore, these communities rely heavily on support from family and non-family members to assist with daily caregiving for the children (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). Black fathers often feel misjudged and invisible by society even when they make substantial contributions due to the many negative Black father stereotypes (Nielsen, 2012). Black fathers tend to be stricter and more controlling in the Black culture while displaying less communication and nurturing qualities (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Cabrera and Tamis-LeMonda (2013) discussed that living in a community with high crime rates may contribute to the high-level strictness seen in Black families. Being parent-centered and less sensitive to children during parent-child interactions is common among Black fathers and mothers (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). Black parents transmit their cultural values of respect, fear, and strictness to their children (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). Even though Black fathers tend to be stricter and use harsher punishment than White fathers, Black daughters tend to feel just as close and loved by their fathers (Nielsen, 2012).

For Black daughters, positive interaction with their fathers has demonstrated increased social and cognitive skills beginning in early childhood (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). Studies have shown mixed results regarding whether or not educational attainment and a stable income affects the amount of caregiving and involvement fathers have with their children (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2004). Black fathers with high and low educational attainment seem to engage with their children. In terms of finances, Black fathers with fewer resources tend to favor a more traditional role and often have children with more than one woman (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). Results have not been conclusive regarding how educational attainment and financial status affect the relationship between Black fathers and daughters.

Asian Culture and Fathers

Like the Latino population, the Asian population in the United States increased significantly between 1980 and 2022 (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012; United States Census Bureau, 2022). There has been a 98% increase in Asian families in the United States. Two aspects make the Asian father-daughter relationship distinct from the other minority father-daughter relationships (Nielsen, 2012). First, Asian fathers tend to have at least four years of college experience. Secondly, Asian fathers tend to earn higher incomes when compared to other minorities. Although Asian fathers tend to have different educational and economic resources compared to Latino and Black fathers, they also share many similar aspects of the father-daughter relationship. Asian fathers tend to be less physically affectionate, less emotionally expressive, and less lenient (Nielsen, 2012). While it appears that Asian fathers are distant from their daughters, due to cultural norms, daughters expect their fathers to be more reserved. One study found that Asian fathers tend to be most like Latino fathers but do not

encounter fragile family qualities since they are better off economically and have higher levels of education.

Traditionally the Asian culture tends to be dominated by patriarchy, and males and females tend to follow their expected gender norms. Fathers are expected to care for their household finances and have the highest authority, while mothers care for the children and tend to household chores (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Even though it is part of the Asian culture to stick with traditional gender norms, the Asian culture is slightly beginning to deviate from these norms with mothers taking more responsibility outside of the household (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). In addition, Asian fathers are starting to share household chores and rearing children. Research has noted that these changes vary depending on the Asian country of the family (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). East Asian families tend to have more contemporary views on sharing in the responsibility of caring for their children (Chuang & Su, 2008; Lin & Fu, 1990). Even though these changes are occurring within Asian families, the changes are still relatively minor compared to other minority families with more egalitarian roles. Asian families tend to maintain traditional cultural norms over adopting more contemporary ones.

Asian fathers that take an active role in the rearing of their children tend to predominantly assist in matters related to education (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). Regarding discipline, Asian fathers that follow more contemporary cultural norms tend to be outwardly affectionate and avoid appearing as stern disciplinarians (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). One of the main factors in determining whether an Asian father will follow more of the traditional cultural norm versus the contemporary norm is the amount of acculturation that the father has experienced in the American culture (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Chung & Su, 2008; Lin

& Fu, 1990). Another factor that must be considered is educational attainment. Asian fathers with higher academic levels tend to be involved with their children (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). Asian fathers with less educational attainment tend to prefer following traditional gender norms in which the father's primary responsibility is to provide for the household financially.

Research Lacking

The increase in the number of racial and ethnic minorities in the United States over the past few decades raises questions as to how fathers in these families influence their daughters' development. Research is lacking in minority father-daughter relationships (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Lamb, 2010; Nielsen, 2012). Studies that have been conducted have produced mixed results (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Lamb, 2010; Nielsen, 2012). Overall, there seem to be common threads among Black, Latino, and Asian fathers. They seem to fit the patriarchal role often but are also progressing into more of an egalitarian role. Some research suggests that minority fathers tend to follow a patriarchal role due to a lack of knowledge, excluding Asian fathers (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). These fathers tend to be unsure of their role as a father and often assimilate into the standard norm of the financial provider. Even though many minority fathers obtain the role of financial provider, studies have also demonstrated that minority fathers also have the same amount of father involvement as White fathers (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012).

Daughter's Perspective

The daughter's perspective of her relationship with her father is more influential than the actual time spent together. A father's impact on his daughter's life results from her perceived attachment to her father (Allgood et al., 2012). If a daughter perceives and believes that her father is highly involved in her life, she is more likely to perceive a secure attachment. In

addition, it is vital that a daughter's interaction and involvement with her father is positive and engaging versus a generous amount of time together where there is no emotional connection or engagement (Allgood et al., 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020). Allgood et al. (2012) explain that fathers are often accessible but not engaged. Fathers have a belief that physical presence equates to a satisfactory relationship. For daughters, an active and emotional connection is needed to build a secure and healthy relationship (Allgood et al., 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020). The daughter's perspective on the quality of the relationship with her father is imperative. Allgood et al. (2012) emphasized that the child's perspective is necessary to comprehend father involvement fully. If a daughter perceives that her father is highly involved, she is more likely to demonstrate the positive benefits of father involvement, such as high self-esteem, success, and overall life satisfaction.

Benefits for Daughters

There are numerous ways that fathers benefit their daughters (Allgood et al., 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020; Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2004). These benefits occur when fathers are actively involved in their daughters' lives. Nielsen (2008) explained that when mothers work full-time outside the home, it allows fathers and daughters to establish a closer relationship. Benefits that fathers provide to their daughters include the following but are not limited: not overly dependent on men, low risk for teen pregnancy, low risk for drug and alcohol abuse, no arrest record, no eating disorders, successful at school and work, trusting and intimate relationships with men, self-reliant, self-confident, and good mental health (Allgood et al., 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020; Tamis-

LeMonda et al., 2004). The quality of the father's relationship with his children has the most significant impact than the amount of time spent together (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Lamb, 2010; Nielsen, 2012). In addition to the benefits discussed, fathers also encourage social and cognitive development through play (Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2004). This study will examine the effects of father involvement and nurturing on a daughter's self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction.

Self-esteem

There is a positive association between a daughter's level of self-esteem and the relationship with her father. Jain (2015) explains that fathers give their daughters a sense of identity, which contributes to healthy self-esteem. Research has demonstrated that parental involvement is a protective factor against low self-esteem (Bulanda & Majumdar, 2009). However, Bulanda and Majumdar (2009) also emphasize the importance of recognizing that the quality of the father and mother relationship independently influences their child's self-esteem. Their findings demonstrate that adolescents with parents with high involvement and availability tend to have higher levels of self-esteem (Bulanda & Majumdar, 2009). High levels of self-esteem help adolescents to make better decisions, have a positive outlook on life, and increase their self-worth. In return, father involvement is associated with less antisocial behavior and is a protective factor against juvenile delinquency (Goncy & van Dulmen, 2010).

Psychological Distress

It has been indicated that secure parent-child attachment reduces the risk for anxiety and depression in adolescence and adulthood (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014; Jakobsen et al., 2012). Regarding the effects fathers have on psychological well-being, Jain (2015) explains that daughters with highly involved fathers were less likely to develop mental health problems during

adulthood, including depression and eating disorders. Adolescent and college-age females who perceive affection and support from their fathers have fewer experiences with depression and anxiety (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014; Jakobsen et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012). Father involvement is also negatively associated with life difficulties and hyperactivity (Flouri, 2008; Nielsen, 2012). College females with insecure attachments to their fathers are more depressed and anxious than those with secure attachments (Last, 2009; Nielsen, 2012). College females that feel rejected by their fathers are more likely to be clinically depressed than daughters that feel loved (Nielsen, 2012; Thompson & Berenbaum, 2009). Adolescent girls tend to have lower levels of psychological distress when their fathers are involved (Nielsen, 2012; Sarkadi et al., 2008).

Life Satisfaction

Parental attachment is positively associated with life satisfaction (Guarnieri et al., 2015). Guarnieri et al. (2015) found that the association between parental attachment and life satisfaction was significant for father attachment. Individuals with a healthy relationship with their parents, especially with their father, tend to rate their life satisfaction higher than those lacking in their parental relationship. Females that experience a lack of connection with their fathers often cite relationship problems later in life, which affect life satisfaction (Lopez & Corona, 2012). In addition, Jeynes (2015) found a positive outcome between father involvement and educational outcomes. Father involvement plays a mediating role in academic achievement for adolescents living in disadvantaged communities (Gordon, 2016). For adolescents that have fewer resources due to the community in which they reside, father involvement provides a protective factor and increases academic achievement.

Emerging Adulthood

During adolescence, individuals go through a period of transition and growth. This time is often with met difficulties which can lead to depression. Duchesne and Ratelle (2014) found that adolescents often experience an increase in depression symptoms during their transition to high school, and females are at a greater risk for depression beginning at the age of 12. However, adolescents that perceived a secure attachment with either their mother or father experienced fewer depressive symptoms during adolescence (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014; Nielsen, 2012). Daughters that perceive their fathers as involved and nurturing during adolescence are more likely to have better self-esteem and life satisfaction, as well as less psychological distress, compared to daughters that did not perceive their fathers as nurturing and involved (Allgood et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012; Nielsen, 2020). A secure father-daughter attachment with positive father involvement is a protective factor against the difficulties often associated with adolescence. Adolescents who characterize their relationship with their parents as positive or securely attached are less likely to experience anxiety and depression symptoms during adulthood (Jakobsen et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012).

Adolescence

Adolescents tend to believe their mothers know them better than their fathers and feel closer to their mothers even though they care equally for both parents (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). Daughters tend to rate the closeness to their fathers and mothers differently from how fathers and mothers would rate their closeness (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). Duchesne and Ratelle (2014) explain that fathers provide advice and problem-solving guidance while mothers provide emotional warmth and affection. Children with a secure attachment to their parents seek them for guidance, support, and safety. Even though adolescents seek

approval from their peers, they still seek their parents' advice (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014).

Research has discovered that fathers spend more time with sons during adolescence and are less emotionally connected with daughters (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Lopez & Corona, 2012; Nielsen, 2012). Fathers tend to spend more time with their sons during adolescence than with their daughters. This is due to fathers providing a same-sex role model for their sons.

Daughters tend to become closer to their mothers during adolescence, especially as they begin to go through puberty. Depending on the closeness of the relationship, most daughters will feel more comfortable talking to their mothers about bodily changes during adolescence than talking with their father. This tends to put a wedge in the father-daughter relationship (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Lopez & Corona, 2012; Nielsen, 2012). Daughters begin to find themselves at a loss with emotionally connecting with their fathers when fathers are supposed to provide advice and guidance. Daughters with fathers who were actively involved during their adolescent years tend to have fewer psychological problems (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012; Sarkardi et al., 2008). Adolescence is crucial for daughters to connect with their fathers as they begin to receive more independence and develop an identity separate from their parents. Fathers withdrawing from their daughters during adolescence may miscommunicate to daughters that they are unloved or unimportant to their fathers (Nielsen, 2012). Daughters can benefit from the support and guidance of their fathers.

Emerging and Young Adults

College is a time for emerging adults to learn independence and develop their own identity as they still rely on their parents for support and security (Guarnieri et al., 2015; Nielsen, 2012). Daughters can relate to their fathers more maturely and rationally between the ages of 18 and 25 (Nielsen, 2012). Father-daughter interactions during adolescence can influence the social

cognition and stress response carried into adulthood (Byrd-Craven et al., 2011; Nielsen, 2012). For this reason, it is essential to understand how father involvement influences a daughter's life during emerging adulthood. Father involvement impacts how females develop relationships during their adulthood, especially romantic ones (Jain, 2015).

Academic success is also positively related to a father's involvement and not solely the relationship with the mother (Barco, 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Children with a healthy relationship with their fathers tend to do very well during their academic years. Fathers play a different role than mothers in their college-aged children's social and emotional development (Nielsen, 2012). Rostad et al. (2014) concluded that students that experience low acceptance and high rejection by their fathers might be at risk for more negative psychological consequences. They explain that compared to mothers, children often perceive their father's acceptance as challenging to achieve (Rostad et al., 2014). College daughters that have insecure attachments with their fathers and feel rejected are more likely to show more symptoms of depression and anxiety compared to daughters that feel loved and supported by their fathers (Last, 2009; Nielsen, 2012; Thompson & Berenbaum, 2009).

For some adults, making their parents proud is one of their goals in life. They seek approval from their parents. Those who lack support from their father often cope with psychological symptoms (Nielsen, 2012; Rostad et al., 2014). Understanding fathers' impact on college-aged, emerging adults can help prevent or negate negative consequences resulting from a lack of father involvement. Furthermore, a survey on college-aged daughters found that fathers who supported their daughters financially during college were seen as more favorable than fathers who did not provide financially (Nielsen, 2008). The survey also reported that fathers that contributed financially to their daughters during their adult years were more likely to be

cared for by their daughters during old age (Nielsen, 2008). There seems to be some correlation between a father's financial contribution and the closeness of the father-daughter relationship. For daughters, it appears that providing financially contributes to how he is viewed as a father. However, adult daughters generally report that they wish they had spent more time with their fathers during childhood and adolescence (Nielsen, 2008, 2012). If they could make any changes, it would build a closer relationship with their fathers despite any financial obligation.

Perception of Father-Daughter Relationship

Fathers have a life-long impact on their daughters just as much or more than mothers do (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Guarnieri et al., 2015; Nielsen, 2008; Jain, 2015). Fathers and daughters start at a disadvantage partly because our society idealizes mothers in ways that undermine the father-daughter relationship (Allgood et al., 2012, Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020). Fathers being portrayed falsely works against the father-daughter relationship because she begins to expect the best from her mother and the worst from her father (Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020). Idealizing mothers makes it less likely that daughters will turn to their fathers for comfort and advice (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2020). Daughters tend to side with their mothers during disputes, and the imperfections and mistakes of their fathers tend to be amplified. Though mothers and fathers impact their children equally, they relate to their children differently and have different opinions regarding childrearing (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). This does not make one parent inferior to the other (Bulanda & Majumdar, 2009; Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014; Nielsen, 2008). Both parents must relate to their children differently as it provides everything a child needs for successful development. Mothers can help by allowing fathers to be equally involved in child-rearing and not constantly criticize or supervise their parenting (Nielsen, 2012, 2020). As

discussed, father-daughter relationships are already fragile and tend to be less communitive, less relaxed, and less emotionally intimate than the mother-daughter relationship (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Lopez & Corona, 2012; Nielsen, 2012). As a daughter ages, fathers continue to support autonomy, applaud successes, and invite her to participate in activities that further her knowledge and mastery in her field of work (Nielsen, 2012, 2020).

Development of Romantic Relationships

Daughters who do not grow up with a loving father have more difficulty trusting and being emotionally intimate with men (Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2008; Schaick & Stolberg, 2001). Fathers influence the social and sexual aspects of their daughter's life (Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2012; Schaick & Stolberg, 2001). This includes the ability to make friends, her level of self-confidence, and not being overly dependent on others for approval and self-worth (Allgood et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012). Daughters between the ages of 18 and 34 have more satisfying relationships with men when they have good relationships with their fathers (Nielsen, 2012; Schaick & Stolberg, 2001). Daughters often feel that fathers lack communication about sex and romantic relationships (Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2012). Daughters with healthy relationships with their fathers tend to engage in less risky sexual behaviors, which applies especially to Black women (Hutchinson, 2002; Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2012; Schaick & Stolberg, 2001). Healthy father-daughter relationships help promote more beneficial and secure relationships in their daughter's adulthood (Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2012).

Research Lacking

As discussed, much remains to study about the father-daughter relationship, especially what happens to that relationship as the daughter becomes an adult. Most of the research on father-daughter relationships discusses the relationship and its effects during childhood (Cabrera

& Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Feinberg et al., 2007). Nielsen (2020) sums up the father-daughter relationship by explaining that there is no expiration date for issues affecting the father-daughter relationship throughout a lifetime. Fathers remain a constant contributor in the children's lives even once those children become adults. Fathers can contribute positively or negatively. As people continue to live longer, many children care for their elderly parents, which often becomes the daughter's responsibility (Nielsen, 2008, 2020). Daughters that do not have a close relationship with their parents tend to display more depressive symptoms and become resentful at caring for their aging parents (Nielsen, 2008, 2020). Understanding how fathers contribute to their daughters' lives, especially during adulthood, needs further study. Future research is encouraged to delve more into the father-daughter relationship during adulthood.

Summary

Literature has started to conclude that there is no maternal instinct that makes women better parents than men (Allgood et al., 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020). Due to stereotypes, fathers are often portrayed as lacking in their children's lives. However, this is unrealistic since fathers wish they could spend more time with their kids and less at work (Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010; Nielsen, 2008). Fathers struggle just as much as mothers that work full-time to balance the demands of work and family (Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010; Nielsen, 2008, 2012). In addition, fathers work just as hard as mothers for their families; however, their work tends to be more invisible than a mother's work (Nielsen, 2008). Fathers are the ones that assist with more of the physically intensive labor in the house, such as mowing the lawn, painting the house, lifting heavy furniture, and repairing items that break in the home. Fathers are becoming less invisible, and the importance of fatherhood is beginning to become amplified. Fatherhood includes father figures such as grandfathers, uncles,

brothers, and minority fathers (Bianchi et al., 2006; Chuang & Su, 2008; Melendez & Melendez, 2010). Understanding minority fathers is essential due to cultural differences and the perception of fatherhood within the culture.

The father-daughter relationship benefits the daughter's well-being and development and the father's as well (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2008, 2012). Fathers actively involved and engaged in their children's lives have better physical and emotional health (Baum, 2006; Nielsen, 2012; Stone & Dudley, 2006). Children, or for this study, daughters that perceive their fathers to be involved and nurturing, display higher levels of self-esteem, lower levels of psychological distress, and higher levels of life satisfaction (Allgood et al., 2012).

Fathering is not inferior to mothering since there are benefits for both parents, and they are needed (Nielsen, 2008; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Pudasainee-Kapri & Razza, 2015). The father-daughter relationship has far-reaching societal effects but is not fully understood (Allgood et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012). This research examining the impact of father involvement and nurturing on the daughter's self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction, as well as future research, can assist with promoting and supporting healthier father-daughter relationships. The quality of the parenting, not the gender, benefits the child the most (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Pudasainee-Kapri & Razza, 2015). Furthermore, it is imperative to not only understand mothers and fathers and their perspectives on childrearing but also the perspective of the childrearing from the child (Allgood et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012). Research on the father-daughter relationship will not only contribute to understanding the influence fathers have on their child's development but also an understanding of how men view fatherhood.

Chapter Three: Methods

Overview

This study aimed to explore and understand the effects of father involvement based on the perception of young adult daughters identifying as Latino, Black, or Asian. According to Heppner et al. (2016), scientific research aims to establish relations among events and develop theories that help professionals understand current and future events. The following sections will present the study's design, research questions, proposed measures, and identify independent and dependent variables. In addition, statistical procedures and validity will be addressed.

Design

The study utilized a nonexperimental quantitative descriptive design to identify causal relationships between a daughter's perception of the quality or nurturance of the father-daughter relationship (biological or father-figure) and her level of self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction, and a daughter's perception of father involvement (biological or father-figure) and her level of self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction. Quantitative descriptive designs can identify possible relationships among variables (Heppner et al., 2016). A nonexperimental design is considered correlational research since it does not involve a manipulated treatment variable (Warner, 2013). With this design, variables are measured, and then analyses are completed to see whether the variables are related in any way that is consistent with the research hypothesis (Warner, 2013). There are three types of quantitative descriptive research (Heppner et al., 2016). This study is variable-centered research since the research examined possible relationships among various variables concerning a daughter's perception of her relationship with her father and her level of self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction. A father's impact on his daughter's life results from her perceived attachment to her

father (Allgood et al., 2012). For this reason, the daughter's perception of the relationship quality with her father and father's involvement was measured to identify potential causal relationships.

Research Questions

Research has demonstrated that if a daughter perceives that her father is highly involved, she is more likely to show the positive benefits of father involvement, such as high self-esteem, lower levels of psychological distress, and higher levels of life satisfaction (Allgood et al., 2012). Furthermore, research has identified that females with a high-quality relationship with their fathers have healthier overall well-being (Allgood et al., 2012; Carter et al., 2014; Nielsen, 2012). This study further explored the perception of a daughter's relationship with her father and the impact on her life by examining the Latino, Black, and Asian population. The research on the relationship between fathers and daughters is not heavily unexplored, especially among the Latina, Black, and Asian population (Allgood et al., 2012; D'Angelo et al., 2012; Richardson, 2009).

RQ1: Does father involvement and father nurturance based on the daughter's perception influence a daughter's level of self-esteem and is there a difference in the level of self-esteem for women of color, and White daughters?

RQ2: Does father involvement and father nurturance based on the daughter's perception influence a daughter's level of psychological distress and is there a difference in the level of psychological distress for women of color, and White daughters?

RQ3: Does father involvement and father nurturance based on the daughter's perception influence a daughter's level of life satisfaction and is there a difference in the level of life satisfaction for women of color, and White daughters?

Hypotheses

The number of hypotheses is based on the number of variables in this study. The following hypotheses state the expected relationship between the variables, are testable and are founded on the problem statement and the research presented.

H_{a1}: There will be a positive correlation between the perceived father involvement scores on the Father Involvement Scale (FIS) and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) scores and a positive correlation between the perceived father nurturance scores on the Nurturant Fathering Scale (NFS) and the RSE scores. Women of color will have higher levels of self-esteem compared to White daughters.

H_{a2}: There will be a negative correlation between the perceived father involvement scores on the FIS and the Depression Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS) scores and a negative correlation between the perceived father nurturance scores on the NFS and the DASS scores. Women of color will have lower levels of psychological distress compared to White daughters.

H_{a3}: There will be a positive correlation between the perceived father involvement scores on the FIS and the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) scores and a positive correlation between the perceived father nurturance scores on the NFS and the SWLS scores.

Women of color will have higher levels of life satisfaction compared to White daughters.

Participants and Setting

Participants for this study were recruited from a Christian-based faith university. Participants that qualified for this study identified as the female sex and between the ages of 18-24. Allgood et al. (2012) explain that emerging adults often use this stage to reflect on parenting to prepare for adulthood. Participants reflected on their interaction and perception of their

relationship with their father. In addition, qualified participants identified least one of the following White, Black, Latino, or Asian. Lastly, qualified participants confirmed that have communication or awareness of a biological or father figure in their life.

In this study, 182 participants completed the survey through Qualtrics. However, only data from 131 participants met the criteria and were part of the analysis ($N = 131$). The sample was composed of 131 females (Table 1). The ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 24 years old, and 19.8% of them were 20 years old. In terms of racial identity, 58% (76) identified as white, 23.7 (31) Black, (.8%) American Indian or Alaska Native, 3.8% (5) Asian, .8% (1) Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, and 13% (17) Latino. Analysis of participants' educational levels shows that 15.3% (2) completed less than 1 year of college, 9.2% (12) 1 year, 14.5% (19) 2 years, 23.7% (31) 3 years, 15.3% (4 years), and 22.1% (more than 4 years). Next, the analysis of the participants' demographic information showed that 90.1% (118) responded to the survey questions in relation to their biological figure, and 9.9% (13) in relation to a father-figure. From those that responded in relation to their father-figure 6.9% (9) were stepfathers, .8% (1) grandfather, and 2.3% (3) other. Detailed demographic information appear in Appendix I.

Recruitment

Qualtrics, an online survey, was distributed to students at a Christian-based faith university. Female students in the psychology, social work, and counseling program at the university received the survey. In addition, the survey was distributed to the university's international office to assist with identifying Latino, Black, and Asian students.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Participants completed a demographic questionnaire that was included in the survey to ensure that they meet the requirements to participate in the study. Participant information such

as sex, age, ethnicity, and year in college was included. Since this study is based on father-daughter nurturance and involvement, inclusion criteria required that the participant have a male presence in her life as either her biological, adoptive, stepparent, or father figure. In addition, qualified participants confirmed they were between the ages of 18-24 to be considered a young adult for this study. Exclusion criteria will consist of female participants over the age of 24, who do not identify as at least one of the following White, Black, Latino, or Asian or have never had a father or father figure present in their life.

Table 1

Participants' Demographics

Demographic	<i>N</i>	%
Gender		
Female	131	100
Racial Identity		
White	76	58
Black	31	23.7
American Indian or Alaska Native	1	.8
Asian	5	3.8
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	1	.8
Latino or Hispanic	17	13.0
Relation to Father		
Biological Father	118	90.1
Father Figure	13	9.9

Instrumentation

This section will identify the instruments used to measure each variable. Participants were asked to provide their sex, age, ethnicity, year in college, and if they have a relationship with their father or a father figure. Participants that indicated that they have a father figure in their life were asked to identify how they are associated with their father figure, such as an uncle, grandfather, brother, family friend, etc.

Father Involvement Scale

The Father involvement Scale (FIS) measures adolescents' and adults' perceptions of their fathers' involvement (Allgood et al., 2012; Finley & Schwartz, 2004). This scale has been used in father-daughter studies with adolescents and adult females and provided a contemporary and expansive view of fathers (Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020). The scale includes 20 items on a 5-point Likert scale. Each of the 20 items asks the participants to indicate the following: (a) how involved, on a scale of 1 (not at all involved) to 5 (very involved), their fathers or father-figure have been, and then how involved their fathers or father-figure actually were on a scale of 1 (much less involved) to 5 (much more involved) (Finley & Schwartz, 2004). Possible scores range from 20 being the minimum and 100 being the maximum. The FIS demonstrated high Cronbach's alpha values on all three subscales (expressive, instrumental, and advising) for father involvement, which ranged from .90 to .93 (Finley & Schwartz, 2004). Thus, demonstrating the reliability and internal consistency of the FIS (Finley & Schwartz, 2004).

Nurturant Fathering Scale

The Nurturant Fathering Scale (NFS) measures the affective quality of fathering based on the participant's perception of their relationship with their father or father figure (Allgood et al., 2012; Finley & Schwartz, 2004). As with the FIS, this scale has been used in father-daughter studies with adolescents and adult females and provided a contemporary and expansive view of fathers (Nielsen, 2008, 2012, 2020). The scale includes nine items on a 5-point Likert scale. Participants respond to each item using a 5-point rating scale (the anchors vary based on the item's function). Possible scores range from 9 being the minimum and 45 being the maximum. Research by Finley and Schwartz (2004) has demonstrated that Cronbach's alpha values from

numerous studies have ranged high from .88 to .95, indicating that the NFS is reliable and consistent.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) is a measure of global self-esteem. It includes ten items on a 4-point Likert scale and has high reliability within the college student population (Allgood et al., 2012; Corcoran & Fischer, 2013). The scale includes ten items with a method of combined ratings. Low self-esteem responses are disagree or strongly disagree on items 1, 3, 4, 7, 10 and strongly agree or agree items on 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, and 9 (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013). Corcoran and Fischer (2013) explain that the RSE demonstrates exceptional internal consistency and has a reproducibility score of .92 on the Guttman scale. In addition, the RSE demonstrates reliable construct validity by correlating in the expected direction with other measures such as depression and anxiety (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013).

Depression Anxiety and Stress Scales

The Depression Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS) measures depression, anxiety, and stress (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995). It includes 42 items on a 4-point Likert scale rating from Did not apply at all to me = 0 to Applied to me very much or most of the time = 3 (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995). Depression scores are the sum of 3, 5, 10, 13, 16, 17, 24, 26, 31, 34, 37, 38, and 42. Anxiety scores are the sum of 2, 4, 7, 9, 15, 19, 20, 23, 25, 28, 30, 36, 40, and 41. Stress scores are the sum of 1, 6, 8, 11, 12, 14, 18, 22, 17, 29, 32, 33, 35, and 39. Corcoran and Fischer (2013) explain that the DASS demonstrated exceptional internal consistency and was developed through a series of rigorous procedures. The DASS has an internal consistency of .96, .89, and .93 for depression, anxiety, and stress, respectively (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995).

Satisfaction with Life Scale

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) measures subjective life satisfaction. This scale was developed on a sample that included undergraduate students (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013; Diener et al., 1985). It consists of five items on a 7-point Likert scale. The scale ranges from Strongly disagree = 1 to Strongly agree = 7. Scores are summed for a total. The total sum can range from 5 to 35, with higher scores representing higher satisfaction with life (Corcoran & Fischer, 2013; Diener et al., 1985) SWLS has an excellent internal consistency with an alpha of .87.

Procedure

Before the survey was distributed, the researcher received approval from Liberty's Institutional Review Board (IRB) (Appendix A). The survey was distributed electronically via Qualtrics. Participants first read the electronic informed consent form (Appendix B) and consented to participate in the study by clicking on the *I consent, begin the study button*. Any identifying information of participants was not collected. Responses are anonymous. Participants responded to demographic information questions and rated themselves on various statements concerning self-esteem, psychological distress, life satisfaction, and perceived father involvement and father nurturing. The study analyzed the scores from each measure to identify casual relationships related to the daughter's perception of her relationship with her father or father figure and her self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction. To encourage participation, eligible participants that completed the survey were entered into a raffle drawing. After the participants completed the survey, Qualtrics directed the participants to another survey where they could enter a drawing to win one out of 4 \$25 Target gift cards. This ensured

anonymity of the participants. The raffle drawing took place in April, and four participants were drawn at random to win one of the four gift cards.

Data Analysis

The independent variables in this study are the perception of father involvement and father nurturance. According to Heppner et al. (2016), it is imperative to note that these variables are also considered status variables since they cannot be manipulated. A daughter's perception of her relationship with her father or father figure was not manipulated in this study. Independent variables are manipulated to identify a possible effect on the dependent variable (Heppner et al., 2016). The dependent variable in this study is the daughter's level of self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction. The daughter's level of self-esteem was measured using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE). The daughter's level of psychological distress was measured using the Depression Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS). The daughter's satisfaction with life was measured using the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS).

Statistical Procedures

The data collected from Qualtrics was processed and analyzed through IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 29. The statistical procedure conducted on the data collected was a Pearson's correlation analysis. This procedure was used to determine any relationship between a daughter's perception of her father's involvement and the quality of the father-daughter relationship on her level of self-esteem and life satisfaction. Warner (2013) explains that Pearson's r is implemented to determine the strength of a relationship between two quantitative variables. A positive correlation is reflected when scores on the X and Y variables increase. In contrast, a negative correlation is reflected when the scores on the X variable increase and the scores on the Y variable decrease (Warner, 2013). The range of values for

Pearson's r is from -1.00 (strong negative relationship) to 1.00 (strong positive relationship), with a correlation near 0 indicating that there is no linear association (Warner, 2013). The researcher predicted that the relationship between a daughter's perception of her father's involvement and the father-daughter relationship and the daughter's level of self-esteem and life satisfaction will produce a positive linear association. With Pearson's r , small sample sizes (N is less than 30) are influenced by outliers affecting the strength of the relationship between the variables (Warner, 2013). Warner (2013) emphasizes that correlations are not indicative of causation. This study only assessed correlations between a daughter's perception of her father's involvement and nurturance and the daughter's self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction.

Validity

Heppner et al. (2016) explain that internal validity is the degree of certainty when making statements about the relationship between two variables. With Pearson's r , a Type I error may occur when running a large number of correlations. Warner (2013) explains that it is best to limit the number of correlations before running the data to reduce the risk of a Type I error. It is familiar with nonexperimental research to run many tests, increasing the risk of Type I error (Warner, 2013). A Type I error is determining a relationship between two variables when there is no relationship (Heppner et al., 2016). Outliers can impact statistical results, which produces inaccurate effect sizes (Heppner et al., 2016). Therefore, to reduce the impact of outliers and Type I error, the data was examined for outliers by conducting a bivariate scatter plot. Heppner et al. (2016) explain that external validity is the degree to which the relationships found in the study are generalizable. In this study, it is essential to note that the participants were from Christian-faith-based university. Given that the participants are students at a Christian-faith-

based university it is highly likely that their own personal faith is Christian-based, making the results less generalizable to daughters that do not identify with a Christian faith or attend a university. However, this does not mean that every participant that attends the university identifies with the Christian faith. To increase the degree of external validity, the researcher will utilize a setting that closely resembles their study (Warner, 2013). This study explicitly researched the perception of young adult daughters, including undergraduate university students' age group.

Summary

This study explores the father-daughter relationship from the daughter's perspective. There are many discussions regarding the mother-child relationship in the research field, but there is minimal research regarding fathers and their children (Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Palm, 2014; Nielsen, 2012). The limited research on the father-child relationship has noted that there are many benefits from father involvement and nurturance that extends well into adulthood (Allgood et al., 2012; Gordon, 2016; Jeynes, 2015; Nielsen, 2012; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Trahan & Cheung, 2018). If father involvement and nurturance benefit children in general, how can these benefits affect daughters in particular? In addition, the question of how father-daughter involvement affects women of color, including Blacks, Latinos, and Asians, needs to be investigated further. With the increase in the minority population, it is imperative to understand the dynamic of minority families, including minority women and their fathers. Allgood et al. (2012) encourage research regarding the daughter's perspective on the father-daughter relationship, specifically from the perspective of Black, Latino, and Asian daughters, since their research was conducted on primarily White daughters. Thus, the results of this study can provide insight into how to develop further and promote the father-daughter relationship in

the Black, Latino, and Asian communities. In addition, the research needs to factor in father figures and explain how they can build relationships with their “daughters” even though they may not be biological fathers. Father-daughter relationships are fragile and unstable due to the lack of understanding that fathers often experience on how to be impactful fathers to their daughters (Nielsen, 2008; 2012; 2020).

This expands on the research demonstrated by Allgood et al. (2012). The expansion includes adding women of color to the sample, documenting life satisfaction, and including father figures. This data can be used to initiate programs encouraging and supporting fathers, father figures, and the father-daughter relationship.

Chapter Four: Findings

Overview

This chapter provides descriptive statistics of the data which includes frequencies, correlations, means, and standard deviations for the variables of father involvement, father nurturance, self-esteem, psychological distress (depression, anxiety, and stress), and life satisfaction. In addition, comparisons of women of color and white daughters on the variables of self-esteem, psychological distress (depression, anxiety, and stress), and life satisfaction are presented. The results of the statistical analysis for each hypothesis are also presented. Tables are shown in this section to facilitate understanding of the statistical results for each hypothesis. Statistical analyses are part of appendices J, K, and L.

Descriptive Statistics

Pearson's Correlation Analysis

A Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted to understand the relationship between father involvement and self-esteem, psychological distress (depression, anxiety, and stress), life satisfaction, and father nurturance and self-esteem, psychological distress (depression, anxiety, and stress), life satisfaction. The analysis will be used to determine if the relationship is weak, strong, positive, or negative. Positive relationships indicate that as one variable increases so does the other variable (Heppner et al., 2016; Warner, 2013). Whereas, if the one variable increases and the other variable decreases, a negative relationship is indicated (Heppner et al., 2016; Warner, 2013). Assumptions of homoscedasticity, linearity, and normality are also examined. Homoscedasticity measures the amount of variation in one variable is similar in difference points in the other variable (Heppner et al., 2016; Warner, 2013). Linearity is the data provides a somewhat straight line (Heppner et al., 2016; Warner, 2013). Normality shows that

the data is normally distributed (Heppner et al., 2016; Warner, 2013). The analysis included 131 participants ($N = 131$). The table below shows the means and standard deviations for the data.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations

	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>N</i>
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	21.3969	5.34312	131
Life Satisfaction	21.7328	6.12288	131
DASS42- Depression	8.1832	7.68595	131
DASS42- Anxiety	8.0687	8.01651	131
DASS42- Stress	12.5496	9.17456	131
Father Involvement	55.4580	19.41976	131
Father Nurturance	26.1679	8.86666	131

Self-Esteem

For father involvement and self-esteem, an inspection of histograms suggested that the assumption of normality was not violated (Appendix J). In line with this, Shapiro-Wilk tests suggested that perceived father involvement, $W(131) = .98, p = .094$, and self-esteem, $W(131) = .99, p = .186$, were normally distributed. Additionally, an inspection of a scatterplot suggested that there was a linear relationship between father involvement and self-esteem, and that the assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated (Appendix J).

A Pearson's correlation analysis examined the relationship between perceived father involvement and self-esteem (Table 3). Scales scores were computed by adding responses to the 20 questions on the FIS scale resulting in a minimum possible score of 20 and maximum of 100, and by adding responses to 10 questions on the RSE scale with lower scores indicating a higher level of self-esteem. The mean for perceived father involvement was 55.5 ($SD = 19.42$) and the mean for self-esteem was 21.4 ($SD = 5.34$). The relationship was positive, weak in strength, and not statistically significant, $r = .149, n = 131, p = .089$.

For perceived father nurturance and self-esteem, an inspection of histograms suggested that the assumption of normality was not violated (Appendix B). In line with this, Shapiro-Wilk tests suggested that perceived father nurturance, $W(131) = .97, p = .010$, and self-esteem, $W(131) = .99, p = .186$, were normally distributed. Additionally, an inspection of a scatterplot suggested that there was a linear relationship between father nurturance and self-esteem, and that the assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated (Appendix J).

A Pearson's correlation analysis was also used to examine the relationship between perceived father nurturance and self-esteem (Table 3). Scales scores were computed by adding responses to the nine questions on the NFS scale resulting in a minimum possible score of 9 and maximum of 45, and by adding responses to 10 questions on the RSE scale with lower scores indicating a higher level of self-esteem. The mean for perceived father nurturance was 26.2 ($SD = 8.87$) and the mean for self-esteem was 21.4 ($SD = 5.34$). The relationship was positive, moderate in strength, and statistically significant, $r = .275, n = 131, p < .001$.

Psychological Distress

For father involvement and psychological distress (depression, anxiety, and stress) an inspection of histograms suggested that the assumption of normality was not violated (Appendix B). In line with this, Shapiro-Wilk tests suggested that perceived father involvement, $W(131) = .98, p = .094$, and depression, $W(131) = .85, p < .001$, perceived father involvement, $W(131) = .98, p = .094$, and anxiety, $W(131) = .85, p < .001$, perceived father involvement, $W(131) = .98, p = .094$, and stress, $W(131) = .94, p < .001$, were normally distributed. Additionally, an inspection of a scatterplot suggested that there was a linear relationship between perceived father involvement, and depression, anxiety, and stress, and that the assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated (Appendix J).

A Pearson's correlation analysis examined the relationship between perceived father involvement and level of depression, anxiety, and stress (Table 3). Scales scores were computed by adding responses to the 20 questions on the FIS scale resulting in a minimum possible score of 20 and maximum of 100, and by adding responses to 42 questions on the DASS scale with lower scores indicating lower levels of depression, anxiety, and stress. The mean for perceived father involvement was 55.5 ($SD = 19.42$), the mean for depression was 8.1 ($SD = 7.69$), the mean for anxiety was 8.1 ($SD = 8.02$), and the mean for stress was 12.5 ($SD = 9.17$). The relationship between perceived father involvement and depression was positive, moderate in strength, and statistically significant, $r = .233$, $n = 131$, $p = .007$. The relationship between perceived father involvement and anxiety was positive, weak in strength, and not statistically significant, $r = .141$, $n = 131$, $p = .109$. The relationship between perceived father involvement and stress was positive, moderate in strength, and statistically significant, $r = .299$, $n = 131$, $p < .001$.

For perceived father nurturance and psychological distress (depression, anxiety, and stress), an inspection of histograms suggested that the assumption of normality was not violated (Appendix J). In line with this, Shapiro-Wilk tests suggested that perceived father nurturance, $W(131) = .97$, $p = .010$, and depression, $W(131) = .85$, $p < .001$, perceived father nurturance, $W(131) = .97$, $p = .010$, and anxiety, $W(131) = .85$, $p < .001$, perceived father nurturance, $W(131) = .97$, $p = .010$, and stress, $W(131) = .94$, $p < .001$, were normally distributed. Additionally, an inspection of a scatterplot suggested that there was a linear relationship between perceived father nurturance, and depression, anxiety, and stress, and that the assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated (Appendix J).

A Pearson's correlation was also used to examine the relationship between perceived father nurturance and psychological distress (depression, anxiety, and stress) (Table 3). Scales scores were computed by adding responses to the nine questions on the NFS scale resulting in a minimum possible score of 9 and maximum of 45, and by adding responses to 42 questions on the DASS scale with lower scores indicating lower levels of depression, anxiety, and stress. The mean for perceived father nurturance was 26.2 ($SD = 8.87$), the mean for depression was 8.1 ($SD = 7.69$), the mean for anxiety was 8.1 ($SD = 8.02$), and the mean for stress was 12.5 ($SD = 9.17$). The relationship between perceived father nurturance and depression was positive, moderate in strength, and statistically significant $r = .239, n = 131, p = .006$. The relationship between perceived father nurturance and anxiety was positive, weak in strength, and not statistically significant $r = .172, n = 131, p = .050$. The relationship between perceived father nurturance and stress was positive, strong in strength, and statistically significant $r = .344, n = 131, p < .001$.

Table 3

Pearson's Correlations

		Rosenber g Self- Esteem	Life Satisfactio n	DASS42- Depressio n	DASS42 -Anxiety	DASS42 -Stress	Father Involveme nt	Father Nurturanc e
Rosenberg Self- Esteem	Pearson Correlatio n	--						
Life Satisfactio n	Pearson Correlatio n	-.513**	--					
DASS42- Depression	Pearson Correlatio n	.589**	-.489**	--				
DASS42- Anxiety	Pearson Correlatio n	.566**	-.365**	.795**	--			

DASS42-Stress	Pearson Correlation	.617**	-.438**	.767**	.795**	--		
Father Involvement	Pearson Correlation	.149	-.480**	.233**	.141	.299**	--	
Father Nurturance	Pearson Correlation	.275**	-.533**	.239**	.172	.344**	.886**	--

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Life Satisfaction

For father involvement and life satisfaction, an inspection of histograms suggested that the assumption of normality was not violated (Appendix J). In line with this, Shapiro-Wilk tests suggested that perceived father involvement, $W(131) = .98, p = .094$, and life satisfaction, $W(131) = .99, p = .286$, were normally distributed. Additionally, an inspection of a scatterplot suggested that there was a linear relationship between father involvement and self-esteem, and that the assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated (Appendix J). A Pearson's correlation examined the relationship between perceived father involvement and level of satisfaction with life (Table 3). Scales scores were computed by adding responses to the 20 questions on the FIS scale resulting in a minimum possible score of 20 and maximum of 100, and by adding responses to five questions on the SWLS scale with higher scores representing higher satisfaction with life. The mean for perceived father involvement was 55.5 ($SD = 19.42$) and the mean for satisfaction with life was 21.7 ($SD = 6.12$). The relationship between perceived father involvement and satisfaction with life was negative, moderate in strength, and statistically significant, $r = -.480, n = 131, p = <.001$.

For father nurturance and life satisfaction, an inspection of histograms suggested that the assumption of normality was not violated (Appendix J). In line with this, Shapiro-Wilk tests

suggested that perceived father nurturance, $W(131) = .97, p = .010$, and life satisfaction, $W(131) = .99, p = .286$, were normally distributed. Additionally, an inspection of a scatterplot suggested that there was a linear relationship between father nurturance and life satisfaction, and that the assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated (Appendix B). A Pearson's correlation was also used to examine the relationship between perceived father nurturance and level of satisfaction with life (Table 3). Scales scores were computed by adding responses to the nine questions on the NFS scale resulting in a minimum possible score of 9 and maximum of 45, and by adding responses to five questions on the SWLS scale with higher scores representing higher satisfaction with life. The mean for perceived father nurturance was 26.2 ($SD = 8.87$) and the mean for satisfaction with life was 21.7 ($SD = 6.12$). The relationship was negative, moderate in strength, and statistically significant $r = -.533, n = 131, p < .001$.

Independent-samples t-test

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to investigate if there were significant differences between women of color and white daughters and their level of self-esteem, psychological distress (depression, anxiety, and stress), and life satisfaction. Effect size is provided to interpret the difference in terms of practical significance. Cohen's d effect size indicates if the difference is large enough to be detectable, too small to detect any difference or of practical significance (Warner, 2013). The table below shows the means and standard deviations for the data.

Table 4*Means and Standard Deviations*

		<i>N</i>	Mean	Std. Deviation
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	White	76	22.3421	5.27017
	Women of Color	55	20.0909	5.21136
DASS42-Depression	White	76	8.7632	7.63478
	Women of Color	55	7.3818	7.75431
DASS42-Anxiety	White	76	9.5395	8.31455
	Women of Color	55	6.0364	7.17238
DASS42-Stress	White	76	13.6184	9.01993
	Women of Color	55	11.0727	9.26334
Life Satisfaction	White	76	22.4737	6.78130
	Women of Color	55	20.7091	4.95413

Self-esteem

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to assess whether mean self-esteem differed significantly for women of color compared to white daughters (Table 5). The assumption of homogeneity of variance was assessed by the Levene test, $F = .000$, $p = .998$; this indicated that the homogeneity of variance assumption has been violated. Therefore, the equal variances not assumed was utilized. The mean self-esteem did not differ significantly, $t(117) = 2.43$, $p = .017$, two-tailed. The mean self-esteem for women of color ($M = 20.09$, $SD = 5.21$) was about two points lower than mean self-esteem for white daughters ($M = 22.34$, $SD = 5.27$). A small effect size was noted, $d = .429$, indicative of a weak degree of practical significance.

Psychological Distress

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to assess whether mean depression differed significantly for women of color compared to white daughters (Table 5). The assumption of homogeneity of variance was assessed by the Levene test, $F = .347$, $p = .557$; this indicated no significant violation of the equal variance assumption. Therefore, the equal variances assumed was utilized. The mean depression did not differ significantly, $t(129) = 1.02$, $p = .312$, two-tailed.

The mean depression for women of color ($M = 7.38$, $SD = 7.75$) was about one point lower than mean depression for white daughters ($M = 8.76$, $SD = 7.63$). A very small effect size was noted, $d = .180$, indicative of a weak degree of practical significance.

In addition, an independent samples t test was conducted to assess whether mean anxiety differed significantly for women of color compared to white daughters (Table 5). The assumption of homogeneity of variance was assessed by the Levene test, $F = .278$, $p = .098$; this indicated no significant violation of the equal variance assumption. Therefore, the equal variances assumed was utilized. The mean anxiety did not differ significantly, $t(129) = 2.52$, $p = .013$, two-tailed. The mean anxiety for women of color ($M = 6.04$, $SD = 7.17$) was about three points lower than mean anxiety for white daughters ($M = 9.54$, $SD = 8.31$). A small effect size was noted, $d = .446$, indicative of a weak degree of practical significance.

To conclude psychological distress, an independent samples t test was also conducted to assess whether mean stress differed significantly for women of color compared to white daughters (Table 5). The assumption of homogeneity of variance was assessed by the Levene test, $F = .148$, $p = .701$; this indicated no significant violation of the equal variance assumption. Therefore, the equal variances assumed was utilized. The mean stress did not differ significantly, $t(129) = 1.58$, $p = .117$, two-tailed. The mean stress for women of color ($M = 11.07$, $SD = 9.26$) was about two points lower than mean stress for white daughters ($M = 13.62$, $SD = 9.02$). A small effect size was noted, $d = .279$, indicative of a weak degree of practical significance.

Life Satisfaction

An independent samples t test was conducted to assess whether mean life satisfaction differed significantly for women of color compared to white daughters (Table 5). The assumption of homogeneity of variance was assessed by the Levene test, $F = 7.41$, $p = .007$; this

indicated no significant violation of the equal variance assumption. Therefore, the equal variances assumed was utilized. The mean life satisfaction did not differ significantly, $t(129) = 1.64, p = .104$, two-tailed. The mean life satisfaction for women of color ($M = 20.71, SD = 4.95$) was about two points lower than mean life satisfaction for white daughters ($M = 22.47, SD = 6.78$). A small effect size was noted, $d = .290$, indicative of a weak degree of practical significance.

Table 5*Independent-samples t-test*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				Significance		t-test for Equality of Means		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	One-Sided p	Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	Equal variances assumed	.000	.998	2.424	129	.008	.017	2.25120	.92864	.41387	4.08853
	Equal variances not assumed			2.429	117.264	.008	.017	2.25120	.92695	.41546	4.08694
DASS42-Depression	Equal variances assumed	.347	.557	1.015	129	.156	.312	1.38134	1.36048	-1.3104	4.07309
	Equal variances not assumed			1.013	115.347	.157	.313	1.38134	1.36390	-1.3201	4.08286
DASS42-Anxiety	Equal variances assumed	2.777	.098	2.519	129	.007	.013	3.50311	1.39087	.75124	6.25498
	Equal variances not assumed			2.579	124.990	.006	.011	3.50311	1.35829	.81488	6.19134
DASS42-Stress	Equal variances assumed	.148	.701	1.576	129	.059	.117	2.54569	1.61498	-.6495	5.74097
	Equal variances not assumed			1.570	114.660	.060	.119	2.54569	1.62194	-.6671	5.75854
Life Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	7.410	.007	1.638	129	.052	.104	1.76459	1.07698	-3.662	3.89542
	Equal variances not assumed			1.721	128.982	.044	.088	1.76459	1.02534	-.2640	3.79326

Results

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis is that perceived father involvement, as measured by the Father Involvement Scale (FIS) and perceived father nurturance, as measured by the Nurturant Fathering Scale (NFS), correlates positively to self-esteem, as measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE). Pearson's correlation of perceived father involvement and self-esteem showed a weak positive correlation that was not statistically significant ($r = .149, p = .089$). Contrarily, perceived father nurturance and self-esteem showed a moderate positive correlation that was statistically significant ($r = .275, p < .001$).

Results indicate that perceived father involvement does not correlate to self-esteem, whereas perceived father nurturance does correlate to self-esteem. This means that perceived father nurturance and self-esteem increase at a similar rate. The first hypothesis that perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance correlates to self-esteem was partially supported.

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis is that perceived father involvement, as measured by the Father Involvement Scale (FIS) and perceived father nurturance, as measured by the Nurturant Fathering Scale (FNS), correlates negatively to psychological distress, as measured by the Depression Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS). Pearson's correlation of perceived father involvement and depression showed a moderate positive correlation that was statistically significant ($r = .233, p < .001$). Pearson's correlation of perceived father involvement and anxiety showed a weak positive correlation that was not statistically significant ($r = .141, p =$

.109). Pearson's correlation of perceived father involvement and stress showed a moderate positive correlation that was statistically significant ($r = .299, p < .001$).

Furthermore, Pearson's correlation of perceived father nurturance and depression showed a moderate positive correlation that was statistically significant ($r = .239, p < .001$). Pearson's correlation of perceived father nurturance and anxiety showed a weak positive correlation that was not statistically significant ($r = .172, p = .050$). Pearson's correlation of perceived father nurturance and stress showed a strong positive correlation that was statistically significant ($r = .299, p < .001$).

Results indicate that perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance correlates to some psychological distress, such as depression and stress, whereas perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance does correlate to anxiety. This means that perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance and depression and anxiety increase at a similar rate. The second hypothesis that perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance correlates to psychological distress was not supported.

Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis is that perceived father involvement, as measured by the Father Involvement Scale (FIS) and perceived father nurturance, as measured by the Nurturant Fathering Scale (FNS), correlates positively to life satisfaction, as measured by Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). Pearson's correlation of perceived father involvement and life satisfaction showed a moderate negative correlation that was statistically significant ($r = -.480, p < .001$). Similarly, a Pearson's correlation of perceived father nurturance and life satisfaction showed a moderate negative correlation that was statistically significant ($r = -.533, p < .001$).

Results indicate that perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance negatively correlates to life satisfaction. This means that perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance and life satisfaction do not increase at a similar rate. The third hypothesis that perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance correlates positively to life satisfaction was not supported.

Hypothesis Four

The fourth hypothesis is that women of color and white daughters will score differently on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE), the Depression Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS), and the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). The independent-samples *t*-test showed no significant difference in level of self-esteem between women of color ($M = 20.09$, $SD = 5.21$) and white daughters ($M = 22.34$, $SD = 5.27$), $t(129) = 2.42$, $p = .017$, two-tailed. Similarly, the independent-samples *t*-test conducted to compare level of depression, anxiety, and stress between women of color and white daughters demonstrated no significant difference in level of depression between women of color ($M = 7.38$, $SD = 7.75$) and white daughters ($M = 8.76$, $SD = 7.63$), $t(129) = 1.02$, $p = .312$, two-tailed; no a significant difference in level of anxiety between women of color ($M = 6.04$, $SD = 7.17$) and white daughters ($M = 9.54$, $SD = 8.31$), $t(129) = 2.52$, $p = .013$, two-tailed; non-significant difference in level of stress between women of color ($M = 11.07$, $SD = 9.26$) and white daughters ($M = 13.62$, $SD = 9.02$), $t(129) = 1.58$, $p = .117$, two-tailed. Lastly, the independent samples *t* test showed no significant difference in level of life satisfaction between women of color ($M = 20.71$, $SD = 4.95$) and white daughters ($M = 22.47$, $SD = 6.78$), $t(129) = 1.64$, $p = .104$, two-tailed. Additionally, the effect size for all the analyses was too small to detect any difference or practical significance. The fourth hypothesis that women of color and white daughter would score differently on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

(RSE), the Depression Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS), and the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) was not supported.

Chapter Five: Conclusions

Overview

This concluding chapter analyzes the findings as they relate to the research questions and the hypotheses. A discussion will be presented regarding the findings as well as the findings that were discussed in the literature. Results of this research demonstrated that perceived father involvement, as measured by the Father Involvement Scale (FIS), did not correlate significantly to self-esteem, as measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE). Unlike perceived father involvement, perceived father nurturance, measured by the Nurturant Fathering Scale (NFS), significantly correlated with self-esteem. Furthermore, the results indicated that both perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance did not significantly correlate with psychological distress, as measured by the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scales (DASS). Life satisfaction, as measured by the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS), resulted in a negative correlation with perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance. This resulted in the opposite direction of the third hypothesis, which hypothesized that life satisfaction would result in a positive correlation with perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance. Results also showed that there was no significant difference in level of self-esteem, psychological distress, and satisfaction with life between women of color and white daughters. The conclusion of this chapter will also discuss implications, limitations, and recommendations for future studies.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance on a daughter's self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction. In addition, the study placed a focus on women of color to see if a daughter's race

and familial upbringing played a role in her level of self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction. Five instruments were used to measure perceived father involvement, perceived father nurturance, self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction. The literature, as discussed in Chapter Two, supports the use of these variables as they relate to father-daughter relationship, as well as a daughter's emotional and cognitive development (Allgood et al., 2012; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2012, 2020). Therefore, past, and current literature findings on the father-daughter relationship, and emotional and cognitive development in children informed this study.

Research Question One

The first research question addressed the relationship between both perceived father involvement (FIS) and perceived father nurturance (NFS) and self-esteem. Results indicate that perceived father involvement did correlate to self-esteem but was not statistically significant. However, perceived father nurturance did correlate to self-esteem and was statistically significant. The overall scores for perceived father involvement ($M = 55.5$, $SD = 19.42$) and self-esteem ($M = 21.4$, $SD = 5.34$) demonstrated that there may be a positive correlational relationship between perceived father involvement and level of self-esteem. Additionally, the scores for perceived father nurturance ($M = 26.2$, $SD = 8.87$) and self-esteem ($M = 21.4$, $SD = 5.34$) also indicted that there may be a positive correlational relationship between perceived father nurturance and level of self-esteem. These results indicate that perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance have some sort of relationship with the self-esteem of daughters. Daughters that perceived high involvement and nurturance from their fathers may develop a healthy self-esteem.

The literature on father-daughter relationships supports the theory that fathers do have an influence in the level of their daughters' self-esteem. Studies have demonstrated that fathers who promote self-confidence and self-reliance tend to have daughters with higher levels of self-esteem versus daughters that do not have a relationship with their father (Allgood et al., 2012; Bulanda & Majumdar, 2009; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014; Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2012, 2020). Research has further indicated that daughters that have quality involvement with their fathers have a healthy sense of identity that contributes to a healthy self-esteem (Bulanda & Majumdar, 2009; Jain, 2015). Within the father-daughter relationship, it is important to recognize that the quality of the relationship is more valuable versus the amount of time spent together (Bulanda & Majumdar, 2009; Nielsen, 2012, 2020). The results of this study for Research Question One aligns itself with previous research on the father-daughter relationship and self-esteem (Allgood et al., 2012; Bulanda & Majumdar, 2009; Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014; Jain, 2015; Nielsen, 2012, 2020). A daughter's healthy self-esteem and self-worth can be fostered by father involvement and nurturance.

Research Question Two

The second research question investigated the correlation between both perceived father involvement (FIS) and perceived father nurturance (NFS) and psychological distress (DASS). Results indicate that perceived father involvement did correlate with psychological distress, but not in the direction hypothesized. Additionally, perceived father nurturance did correlate to self-psychological distress, but not the direction hypothesized. The second hypothesis for this study hypothesized that higher levels of perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance would contribute to lower levels of psychological distress. However, the scores demonstrated

that the higher levels of perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance resulted in higher levels of psychological distress. The overall scores for perceived father involvement ($M = 55.5$, $SD = 19.42$), perceived father nurturance ($M = 26.2$, $SD = 8.87$), depression ($M = 8.1$, $SD = 7.69$), anxiety ($M = 8.1$, $SD = 8.02$), and stress ($M = 12.5$, $SD = 9.17$) demonstrated that there may be a positive correlational relationship between both perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance and psychological distress.

The findings from this study based on perceived father involvement, perceived father nurturance, and psychological distress differs from the literature. Studies on the parent-child relationship demonstrated that relationships in which a child feels secure and supported by their parent reduce the risk for anxiety and depression in adolescence and adulthood (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014; Jakobsen et al., 2012). Furthermore, Jain (2015) found that daughters that had healthy relationships with their fathers were less likely to develop mental health problems in adulthood. Specifically, daughters were at a reduced risk of developing depression and eating disorders (Jain, 2015). In terms of adolescent and young adult daughters it has been found that daughters that perceive affection and support from their fathers experience less symptoms of depression and anxiety (Duchesne & Ratelle, 2014; Jakobsen et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012). This is compared to daughters in college that felt they were rejected by their fathers. Daughters that did feel affection or support from their father in college were more likely to be clinically depressed (Nielsen, 2012; Thompson & Berenbaum, 2009).

Furthermore, the findings from this present study differed from the literature previously cited that no matter how involved and nurturing the participants rated their fathers, some still presented with psychological distress. For this reason, these findings cannot be attributed to causation. This present study was conducted after the Covid pandemic whereas the literature

cited presented findings before the Covid pandemic. The covid pandemic has been attributed to mental health crisis across many age groups, especially young adults (Cui & Hong, 2021; Glowacz & Schmits, 2020; Graupensperger et al., 2022; Koelen et al., 2022; Twenge & Joiner, 2020; Villanti et al., 2022). Since the Covid pandemic young adults have presents that social and relational stressors which have increased symptoms of depression and anxiety (Graupensperger et al., 2022; Kujawa et al., 2020; Twenge & Joiner, 2020). Young adults struggled more with adapting to lockdown and lifestyle changes during the pandemic compared to older populations (Alzueta et al., 2021; Glowacz & Schmits, 2020; Kujawa et al., 2020). During this unprecedented time in the world with limited stability and stressors across all age groups it seems that perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance did not help to mediate the stressors of the Covid pandemic.

Research Question Three

The third research question seeks to determine if perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance correlate with satisfaction with life. Results indicate that both perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance correlates with satisfaction with life, but not in the direction hypothesized. The overall scores for perceived father involvement ($M = 55.5$, $SD = 19.42$), perceived father nurturance ($M = 26.2$, $SD = 8.87$), and satisfaction with life ($M = 21.7$, $SD = 6.12$) indicate a negative correlational relationship between both perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance and satisfaction with life.

Literature on life satisfaction indicates that secure parental attachment is positively associated with life satisfaction (Guarnieri et al., 2015). More specifically, this is evident with the father-daughter relationship (Guarnieri et al., 2015; Jeynes, 2015; Lopez & Corona, 2012). In addition, fathers tend to function as a mediating role for children that may reside in

disadvantage communities (Gordon, 2016). Children in disadvantaged communities that have a healthy relationship with their father tend to have more positive outcomes, including academic achievement in adolescence (Gordon, 2016; Jeynes, 2015). This differs from the results of this study which found that a majority of participants rated their satisfaction with life as low and rated their father involvement and father nurturance as high. These results imply that even if a daughter perceived her father as highly involved and nurturing it did not produce higher levels of satisfaction with life.

As discussed in Research Question Three, the Covid pandemic has increased levels of psychological distress. People are more stressed, anxious, and depressed (Cui & Hong, 2021; Glowacz & Schmits, 2020; Graupensperger et al., 2022; Koelen et al., 2022; Twenge & Joiner, 2020; Villanti et al., 2022). With the rise in psychological distress there has also been a decrease in life satisfaction (Glowacz & Schmits, 2020; Graupensperger et al., 2022). Glowacz and Schmits (2020) and Graupensperger et al. (2022) studied the longitudinal effects of the Covid pandemic on the mental health and wellbeing of young adults and found that along with an increase in depression and anxiety that financial stressors were strongly associated a decrease in life satisfaction. As previously discussed, studies have found that young adults struggled the most with adapting to lockdown and lifestyle changes during the pandemic compared to older populations (Alzueta et al., 2021; Glowacz & Schmits, 2020; Kujawa et al., 2020). The experience of insatiability, uncertainty, and hopelessness could possibly lead to the decrease in life satisfaction. Perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance did not adjust the levels of life satisfaction for daughters in this study. Even though there is a correlational relationship, since there is no causation, it cannot be said that high levels of perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance cause lower levels of life satisfaction.

Research Question Four

The fourth research question addressed differences in level of self-esteem, psychological distress, and satisfaction with life between women of color and white daughters. Results indicated that there was no significant difference between women of color and white daughters on self-esteem, psychological distress, and satisfaction with life. The overall score of self-esteem for women of color ($M = 20.09$, $SD = 5.21$) was about two points lower for white daughters ($M = 22.34$, $SD = 5.27$). In terms of psychological distress, the overall score of depression for women of color ($M = 7.38$, $SD = 7.75$) was about one point lower than depression for white daughters ($M = 8.76$, $SD = 7.63$). Additionally, the overall score of anxiety for women of color ($M = 6.04$, $SD = 7.17$) was about three points lower than for white daughters ($M = 9.54$, $SD = 8.31$). The last psychological distress symptom, stress, had an overall score for women of color ($M = 11.07$, $SD = 9.26$) that was about two points lower than stress for white daughters. None of these scores proved statistically significant. The differences were not large enough to detect any practical differences.

Findings on minority families have indicated that healthy attachment in the parent-child relationship is beneficial and leads to healthy and successful development. However, even though there is no difference in attachment pertaining to race, there are different parental behaviors between white and black parents (Dexter et al., 2013). Furthermore, father involvement tends to differ among various cultures ((Dexter et al., 2013; Melendez & Melendez, 2010). Due to these culture differences, there may be differences between women of color and white daughters and how they rate their level of self-esteem, psychological distress, and satisfaction with life.

In Latino families, daughters tend to favor the role of their father being the protector and provider while they connect on a higher emotional level with their mothers unlike white daughters (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013). Studies have also shown that Latino fathers that positively acknowledge their daughter's appearance, boost her self-esteem, and build resiliency against discrimination (Nielsen, 2012; Telzer & Garcia, 2009). In addition, due to the concept of familismo in the Latino culture, fathers tend to have elevated levels of engagement with their family (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Similarly, to the idea of familismo, black fathers tend to be stricter and use harsher punishment compared to white fathers (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). However, even with stricter fathers, black daughters tend to experience closeness and love by their black fathers (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012).

Implications

The current study contributes to the existing body of research on father-daughter relationships, particularly from the daughter's perspective. In addition, it has also contributed by including the relationships that women of color have with their fathers. This study investigated the influence that fathers have on the emotional, social, and cognitive development of their children. Subsequently, this study expanded on the research demonstrated by Allgood et al. (2012). Allgood et al. (2012) had a very small percentage of women of color included in their study. Due to a population increase in the Latino, Black, Asian communities research ought to further explore the father-daughter relationships in these communities (Allgood et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2012). Future research can assist with generating more awareness regarding the influence and impact that fathers have on the lives of their daughters.

The limited research on the father-daughter relationship has promoted this study to explore the father-daughter relationship and investigate the connection from the daughter's perspective. The research field is saturated with findings regarding the mother-child relationship, yet the father-child relationship has yet to be explored to that extent (Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Palm, 2014; Nielsen, 2012). With the rise of more women entering the workforce full-time, more fathers have become involved in childrearing (Bianchi, 2011; Meteyer & Perry-Jenkins, 2010; Nielsen, 2012). However, much remains to be identified on how fathers impact the development of their child through adulthood (Meuwissen & Carlson, 2015; Nielsen, 2012; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018; Palm, 2014). Furthermore, studies on the father-daughter relationship can assist with eliminating stereotypes that fathers are aloof, unbothered, unapproachable, and solely for the purpose of financial support (Nielsen, 2012, 2020).

Fathers that engage in the lives of their daughters' development may contribute positively to her development (Allgood et al., 2012; Gordon, 2016; Jeynes, 2015; Nielsen, 2012). However, it is imperative to consider the daughter's perspective of the father-daughter relationship. The results of this study on perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance and level of self-esteem aligns itself with previous studies that quality versus quantity is significant for fathers and daughters to develop a healthy relationship (Allgood et al., 2012; Meuwissen & Carlson, 2015). The scores for perceived father involvement ($M = 55.5$, $SD = 19.42$), self-esteem ($M = 21.4$, $SD = 5.34$), perceived father nurturance ($M = 26.2$, $SD = 8.87$) and self-esteem ($M = 21.4$, $SD = 5.34$) demonstrate a positive correlational relationship between perceived father involvement and perceived father nurturance and level of self-esteem. The daughter's perception of her father's involvement and nurturance will have the most significance in her development, especially for a healthy self-esteem and self-worth.

Limitations

The data collected from this study is not without assumptions and limitations. The research examined the correlations between a daughter's perception of her father's nurturance and involvement and her level of self-esteem, psychological distress, and life satisfaction. It is assumed that a daughter's perception of her father's involvement and nurturance is most likely to affect her developmental outcome in adulthood (Allgood et al., 2012; Carlson, 2006; Finley & Schwartz, 2004). Due to these assumptions, the data presents only a correlational relationship. Assumptions are not always realistic and may only be met by the methods applied, which mean the research has limitations and the results must be regarded carefully in how they are applied (Hayes, 2013; Heppner et al., 2016). Furthermore, since this is a correlational study, the results of this study cannot be generalized to women outside of the population of this study. The participants of this study were all women between the ages of 18-24, who are students at a Christian-faith-based southern university. Christian-faith based schools tend to be family oriented. The students that go to these schools tend to be raised in families that focus strongly on the family values and faith (Alexander, 2022; Yust, 2017). This differs from the general population that has high rates of cohabitation and divorce (Kumar, 2017; Stevenson & Wolfers, 2007; Thornton & Young-DeMarco, 2001). Due to the convenience sample (the sample consisted of participants readily available to the researcher), the results of this study cannot be applied to women who may fall outside of the age range, may have a different faith, do not attend university, or are not from the community in which the sample was taken (Warner, 2013). Convenience samples tend to lead to underrepresentation and limit the generalizability of the results (Warner, 2013).

Recommendations for Future Studies

Based on the results of this study, the first recommendation for future studies is to include more women that have a relationship with a father-figure. A father-figure can be any male that is not the child's biological father (Nielsen, 2012). The responses from this study that included a father-figure were not enough to analyze. Future studies may want to explore the field of daughters and father-figures. Father-figures are especially vital in black families (Guarnieri et al., 2015; Langley, 2016). These families tend to have grand-fathers, brothers, and uncles that often have the role as a father-figure. Father-figures fulfill the void when a biological father is absent. Further research can explore the implications of a father-figure on the development of a daughter's life and if it is a mediating factor when a biological father is absent.

Secondly, future research would benefit from including more women of color in their study. In terms of minority population growth, Latinos represent the most significant growth, with a population of approximately 16%, followed by blacks at 13% and Asians at 5% (Cabrera & Tamis-LeMonda, 2013; Nielsen, 2012). Growth in minority populations provides more opportunity for future studies to include women of color and the effects of both father involvement and nurturance on their development. Future research can assist in implementing programs and awareness to foster the father-daughter relationship. Research has demonstrated that healthy father-daughter relationships not only benefits daughter, but fathers as well (Allgood et al., 2012; Carlson, 2006; Finley & Schwartz, 2004).

Finally, as mentioned earlier in this research, Nielsen (2012) compared the father-daughter relationship to the light in a refrigerator. The light bulb in the fridge is always there but is not recognized until it blows out and the fridge becomes dark. The same illustration applies to father-daughter relationships. They have always existed, but minimal attention to applied to the

relationship. Fathers are an underappreciated factor in their child's development (Barco, 2012; Palkovitz & Hull, 2018). Future research can explore the importance of the father involvement and nurturance in their child's development, and more specifically the development of daughters.

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Appendix A: Institutional Review Board Approval



March 17, 2023

Diamond Sciequan
Robyn Simmons

Re: IRB Exemption - IRB-FY22-23-773 The Role of Father Involvement in the Perceived Psychological Well-Being of Young Adult Daughters with a Focus on Women of Color: A Multiple Regression Study

Dear Diamond Sciequan, Robyn Simmons,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under the following exemption category, which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46:104(d):

Category 2.(i). Research that only includes interactions involving educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording).

The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Your stamped consent form(s) and final versions of your study documents can be found under the Attachments tab within the Submission Details section of your study on Cayuse IRB. Your stamped consent form(s) should be copied and used to gain the consent of your research participants. If you plan to provide your consent information electronically, the contents of the attached consent document(s) should be made available without alteration.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any modifications to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty University IRB for verification

of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by completing a modification submission through your Cayuse IRB account.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible modifications to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP

Administrative Chair of Institutional Research

Research Ethics Office

Appendix B: Informed Consent Form

Title of the Project: The Role of Father Involvement in the Perceived Psychological Well-Being of Young Adult Daughters with a Focus on Women of Color: A Multiple Regression Study

Principal Investigator: Diamond Sciequan, Doctoral Candidate, School of Behavioral Sciences, Liberty University

Invitation to be Part of a Research Study

You are invited to participate in a research study. To participate, you must be between the ages of 18-24 and female. In addition, the participant must identify as at least one of the following White, Black, Latino, or Asian. Participants must have communication or awareness of a biological or father figure in their life. Taking part in this research project is voluntary.

Please take time to read this entire form and ask questions before deciding whether to take part in this research.

What is the study about and why is it being done?

The purpose of the study is to gather information regarding the father-daughter relationship. For this study, you will be asked to answer questions regarding your relationship with your father or father-figure.

What will happen if you take part in this study?

If you agree to be in this study, I will ask you to do the following:

1. Complete a 30-minute online survey responding to questions about the father-daughter relationship.

How could you or others benefit from this study?

Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

Benefits to society include examining the effects father involvement and father nurturance from the daughter's perspective.

What risks might you experience from being in this study?

The expected risks from participating in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

How will personal information be protected?

The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records.

- Participant responses will be anonymous.
- Data will be stored on a password-locked computer. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.

How will you be compensated for being part of the study?

Participants can enter a drawing to be compensated for participating in this study. At the conclusion of the survey participants will be asked if they would like to provide their email address to enter a drawing to receive 1 out of 4 \$25 Target gift cards. Any participant who chooses to withdraw from the study after beginning but before completing all study procedures will not be able to enter the drawing. Email addresses will be requested for compensation purposes; however, they will be collected through a separate survey from the study survey to maintain your anonymity.

Is study participation voluntary?

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time prior to submitting the survey without affecting those relationships.

What should you do if you decide to withdraw from the study?

If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

Whom do you contact if you have questions or concerns about the study?

The researcher conducting this study is Diamond Sciequan. If you have questions, **you are encouraged** to contact her at [REDACTED]. You may also contact the researcher's faculty sponsor, Dr. Robyn Simmons, at [REDACTED].

Whom do you contact if you have questions about your rights as a research participant?

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the IRB. Our physical address is Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA, 24515; our phone number is 434-592-5530, and our email address is irb@liberty.edu.

Disclaimer: The Institutional Review Board (IRB) is tasked with ensuring that human subjects research will be conducted in an ethical manner as defined and required by federal regulations. The topics covered and viewpoints expressed or alluded to by student and faculty researchers are those of the researchers and do not necessarily reflect the official policies or positions of Liberty University.

Your Consent

Before agreeing to be part of the research, please be sure that you understand what the study is about. You can print a copy of the document for your records. If you have any questions about the study later, you can contact the researcher using the information provided above.

Appendix C: Study Invitation

Dear Student:

As a doctoral student in the School of Behavioral Sciences at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The purpose of my research is to gather information regarding the father-daughter relationship based on a biological father-daughter relationship or father figure-daughter relationship, and I am writing to invite eligible participants to join my study.

Participants must be between the ages of 18-24 and female. In addition, the participant must identify as at least one of the following White, Black, Latino, or Asian. Participants must have communication or awareness of a biological or father figure in their life. Participants, if willing, will be asked to provide demographic information and complete a survey. It should take approximately 30 minutes to complete the procedures listed. Participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.


To participate, please click here

https://liberty.col.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_23NOoNkKW95EOB8

A consent document is provided as the first page of the survey. The consent document contains additional information about my research. After you have read the consent form, please click the button to proceed to the survey. Doing so will indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey.

Participants that provide their email address at the end of the survey will be entered in a raffle to receive 1 out of 4 \$25 Target gift cards.

Sincerely,
Diamond Sciequan
Doctoral Student



Appendix D: Demographic Questionnaire

1. Please indicate your sex.

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

2. Please indicate your age by moving the slider.

A horizontal slider interface for selecting age. The top of the slider has numerical labels from 18 to 30 in increments of 1. Below the labels is a horizontal track. A vertical line is positioned at the value 18, and a small grey slider knob is attached to this line. The word "Age" is printed to the left of the track. The track itself is a light grey bar with a slightly darker grey line running through its center.

3. Which of the following do you identify most as?

- ☐ White
- ☐ Black
- ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- ☐ Latino or Hispanic

4. How many years of college have you completed?

- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ 1 year
- ☐ 2 years
- ☐ 3 years
- ☐ 4 years
- ☐ More than 4 years

5. This survey will ask questions regarding your father or father-figure (E.g. step-father, grandfather, brother, uncle). Please indicate how you will respond to the questions.
- I will answer the survey questions based on the relationship with my biological father.
 - I will answer the survey questions based on the relationship with my father-figure.
 - If I will answer the survey questions based on the relationship with my father-figure was selected, then the following question was asked:
6. My father-figure is my
- Step-father
 - Grandfather
 - Brother
 - Uncle
 - Other

Appendix E: FIS – Father Involvement Scale and Permission to Use

How involved was your father or father figure in the following aspects of your life and development?

Directions: Indicate involvement by rating each aspect of your life and development on a scale from 5 to 1, with 5 being always involved, 4- often involved, 3- sometimes involved, 2- rarely involved, and 1- never involved.

_____ Intellectual development

_____ Emotional development

_____ Social development

_____ Ethical/moral development

_____ Spiritual development

_____ Physical development

_____ Career development

_____ Developing responsibility

_____ Developing independence

_____ Developing competence

_____ Leisure, fun, play

_____ Providing income

_____ Sharing activities/interests

_____ Mentoring/teaching

_____ Caregiving

_____ Being protective

_____ Advising

_____Discipline

_____School/homework

_____Companionship

What did you want your father or father figure's level of involvement to be compared with what it actually was?

Directions: Indicate involvement by rating each aspect of your life and development on a scale from 5 to 1, with 5 being much more involved, 4- a little more involved, 3- it was just right, 2- a little less involved, and 1- much less involved.

_____Intellectual development

_____Emotional development

_____Social development

_____Ethical/moral development

_____Spiritual development

_____Physical development

_____Career development

_____Developing responsibility

_____Developing independence

_____Developing competence

_____Leisure, fun, play

_____Providing income

_____Sharing activities/interests

_____Mentoring/teaching

_____Caregiving

_____ Being protective

_____ Advising

_____ Discipline

_____ School/homework

_____ Companionship



The Father Involvement and Nurturant Fathering Scales: Retrospective Measures for Adolescent and Adult Children

Author: Gordon E. Finley, Seth J. Schwartz

Publication: Educational and Psychological Measurement

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Date: 2004-02-01

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Appendix F: NFS – Nurturant Fathering Scale and Permission to Use

Directions: For the next set of questions, please record the appropriate answer for each item based on your relationship with your father or father figure.

1. How much do you think your father *enjoyed* being a father?
 - ☐ A great deal
 - ☐ Very much
 - ☐ Somewhat
 - ☐ A little
 - ☐ Not at all
2. When you needed your father's *support*, was he there for you?
 - ☐ Always there for me
 - ☐ Often there for me
 - ☐ Sometimes there for me
 - ☐ Rarely there for me
 - ☐ Never there for me
3. Did your father have enough *energy* to meet your needs?
 - ☐ Always
 - ☐ Often
 - ☐ Sometimes
 - ☐ Rarely
 - ☐ Never
4. Did you feel that you could *confide in* (talk about important personal things with) your father?
 - ☐ Always

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Rarely
- ☐ Never

5. Was your father available to spend *time* with you in activities?

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Rarely
- ☐ Never

6. How emotionally *close* were you to your father?

Extremely close

- ☐ Very close
- ☐ Somewhat close
- ☐ A little close
- ☐ Not at all close

7. When you were an *adolescent* (teenager), how well did you get along with your father?

- ☐ Very well
- ☐ Well
- ☐ Ok
- ☐ Poorly
- ☐ Very poorly

8. Overall, how would you *rate* your father?

- Outstanding
- Very good
- Good
- Fair
- Poor

9. As you go through your day, how much of a *psychological presence* does your father have in your daily thoughts and feelings?

- Always there
- Often there
- Sometimes there
- Rarely there
- Never there



The Father Involvement and Nurturant Fathering Scales: Retrospective Measures for Adolescent and Adult Children

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Appendix G: DASS – Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scales and Permission to Use

Please read each statement and circle a number 0, 1, 2, or 3 which indicates how much the statement applied to you over the past week. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any statement.

The rating scale is as follows:

0 = Did not apply to me at all

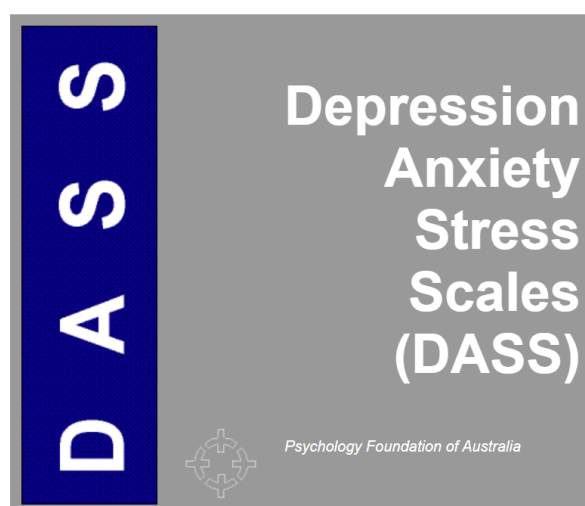
1 = Applied to me to some degree, or some of the time

2 = Applied to me to a considerable degree, or a good part of time

3 = Applied to me very much, or most of the time

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I found myself getting upset by quite trivial things | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2. I was aware of dryness of my mouth | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3. I couldn't seem to experience any positive feeling at all | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4. I experienced breathing difficulty (eg, excessively rapid breathing, breathlessness in the absence of physical exertion) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5. I just couldn't seem to get going | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 6. I tended to over-react to situations | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 7. I had a feeling of shakiness (eg, legs going to give way) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 8. I found it difficult to relax | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 9. I found myself in situations that made me so anxious I was most relieved when they ended | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 10. I felt that I had nothing to look forward to | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 11. I found myself getting upset rather easily | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 12. I felt that I was using a lot of nervous energy | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 13. I felt sad and depressed | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 14. I found myself getting impatient when I was delayed in any way (eg, elevators, traffic lights, being kept waiting) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 15. I had a feeling of faintness | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 16. I felt that I had lost interest in just about everything | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 17. I felt I wasn't worth much as a person | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 18. I felt that I was rather touchy | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 19. I perspired noticeably (eg, hands sweaty) in the absence of high temperatures or physical exertion | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 20. I felt scared without any good reason | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 21. I felt that life wasn't worthwhile | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 22. I found it hard to wind down | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 23. I had difficulty in swallowing | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 24. I couldn't seem to get any enjoyment out of the things I did | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 25. I was aware of the action of my heart in the absence of physical | | | | |

exertion (eg, sense of heart rate increase, heart missing a beat)	0	1	2	3
26. I felt down-hearted and blue	0	1	2	3
27. I found that I was very irritable	0	1	2	3
28. I felt I was close to panic	0	1	2	3
29. I found it hard to calm down after something upset me	0	1	2	3
30. I feared that I would be "thrown" by some trivial but unfamiliar task	0	1	2	3
31. I was unable to become enthusiastic about anything	0	1	2	3
32. I found it difficult to tolerate interruptions to what I was doing	0	1	2	3
33. I was in a state of nervous tension	0	1	2	3
34. I felt I was pretty worthless	0	1	2	3
35. I was intolerant of anything that kept me from getting on with what I was doing	0	1	2	3
36. I felt terrified	0	1	2	3
37. I could see nothing in the future to be hopeful about	0	1	2	3
38. I felt that life was meaningless	0	1	2	3
39. I found myself getting agitated	0	1	2	3
40. I was worried about situations in which I might panic and make a fool of myself	0	1	2	3
41. I experienced trembling (eg, in the hands)	0	1	2	3
42. I found it difficult to work up the initiative to do things	0	1	2	3



The DASS is a 42-item self-report instrument designed to measure the three related negative emotional states of depression, anxiety and tension/stress. The DASS questionnaire is in the public domain, and may be downloaded from this website. The DASS manual contains more detailed information about the DASS, and may be ordered for a nominal fee of \$55.00.

Appendix H: SWLS – Satisfaction with Life Scale and Permission to Use

Below are five statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the scale below indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Slightly disagree

4 = Neither agree nor disagree

5 = Slightly agree

6 = Agree

7 = Strongly agree

____ 1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.

____ 2. The conditions of my life are excellent.

____ 3. I am satisfied with my life.

____ 4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

____ 5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Ed Diener

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Scales PowerPoint

Scales

Permissions to use scales: These scales are copyrighted by Ed Diener and his co-authors. The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) is in public domain, and may be used if proper citation is given. Although copyrighted, the Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE) and Flourishing Scale (FS) may be used as long as proper credit is given. Permission is not needed to employ the scales and requests to use the scales will not be answered on an individual basis because permission is granted here.

Appendix I: Statistical Procedures – Frequencies

Frequencies

		Statistics					
		Gender	Age	Racial Identity	Years of College Completed	Relation to Father	Relation to Father Figure
N	Valid	131	131	131	131	131	13
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	118

Frequency Table

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	131	100.0	100.0	100.0

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	12	9.2	9.2	9.2
	19	12	9.2	9.2	18.3
	20	26	19.8	19.8	38.2
	21	18	13.7	13.7	51.9
	22	24	18.3	18.3	70.2
	23	21	16.0	16.0	86.3
	24	18	13.7	13.7	100.0
	Total	131	100.0	100.0	

Racial Identity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	White	76	58.0	58.0	58.0
	Black	31	23.7	23.7	81.7

American Indian or Alaska Native	1	.8	.8	82.4
Asian	5	3.8	3.8	86.3
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	1	.8	.8	87.0
Latino or Hispanic	17	13.0	13.0	100.0
Total	131	100.0	100.0	

Years of College Completed

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 1 year	20	15.3	15.3	15.3
	1 year	12	9.2	9.2	24.4
	2 years	19	14.5	14.5	38.9
	3 years	31	23.7	23.7	62.6
	4 years	20	15.3	15.3	77.9
	More than 4 years	29	22.1	22.1	100.0
	Total	131	100.0	100.0	

Relation to Father

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Biological Father	118	90.1	90.1	90.1
	Father Figure	13	9.9	9.9	100.0
	Total	131	100.0	100.0	

Relation to Father Figure

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Step-father	9	6.9	69.2	69.2
	Grandfather	1	.8	7.7	76.9
	Other	3	2.3	23.1	100.0
	Total	13	9.9	100.0	

Missing System	118	90.1		
Total	131	100.0		

Appendix J: Statistical Procedures – Histograms

Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Father Involvement	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

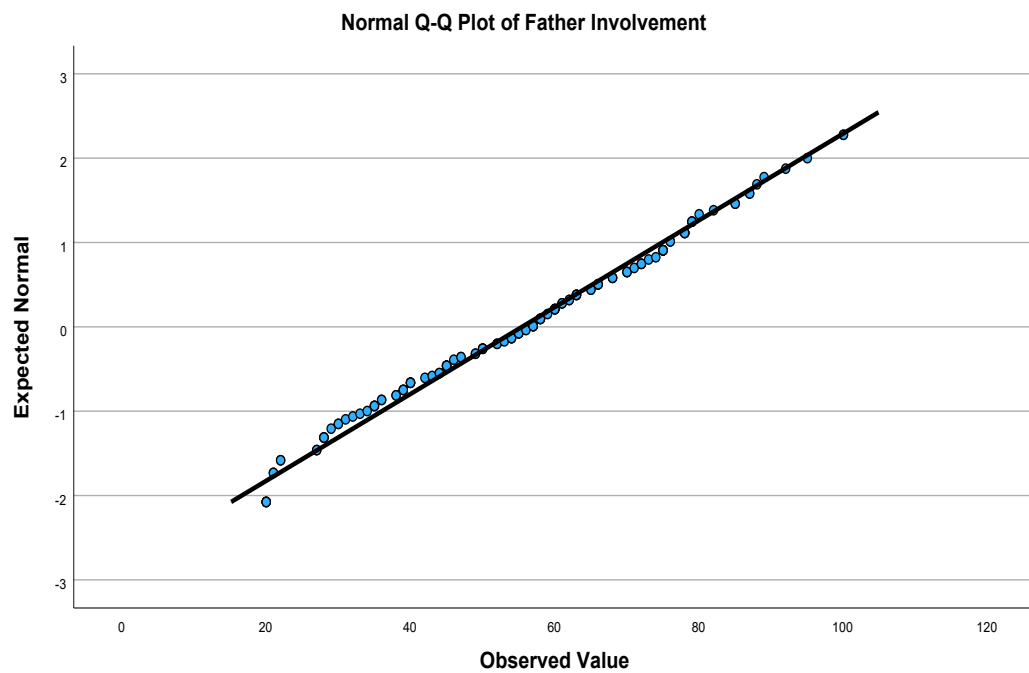
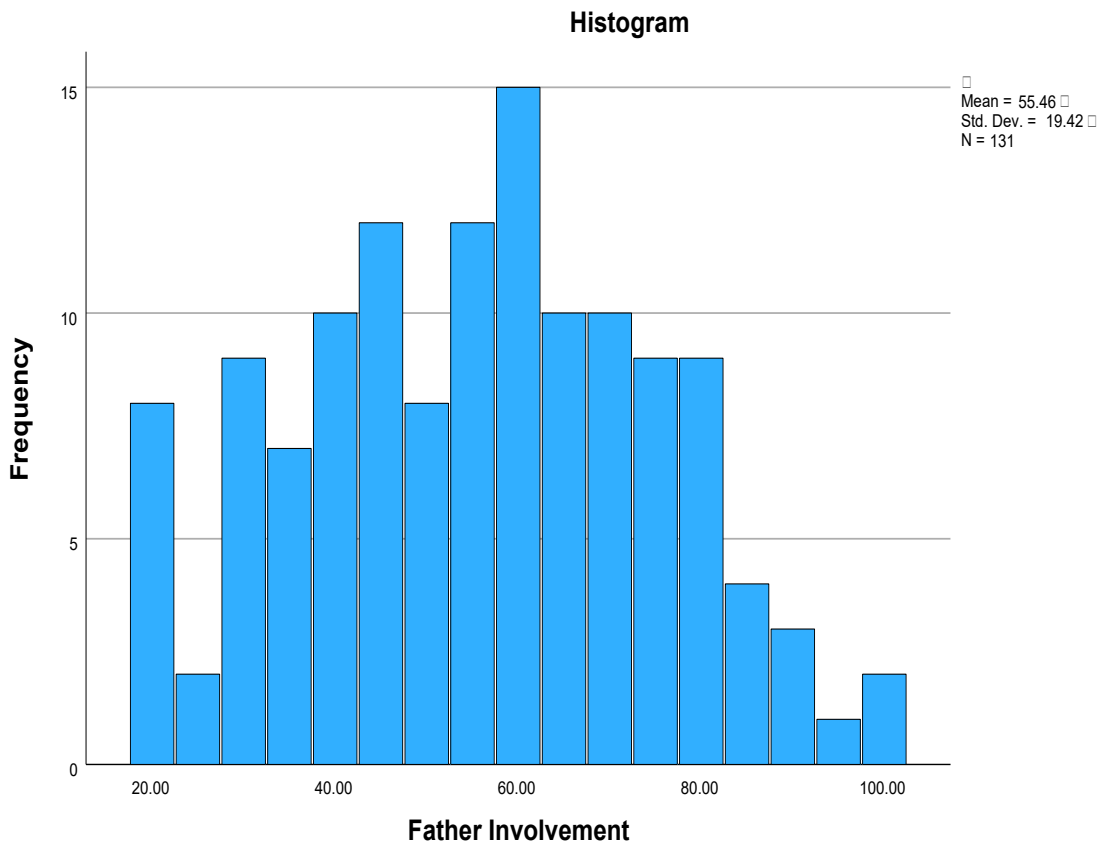
Tests of Normality

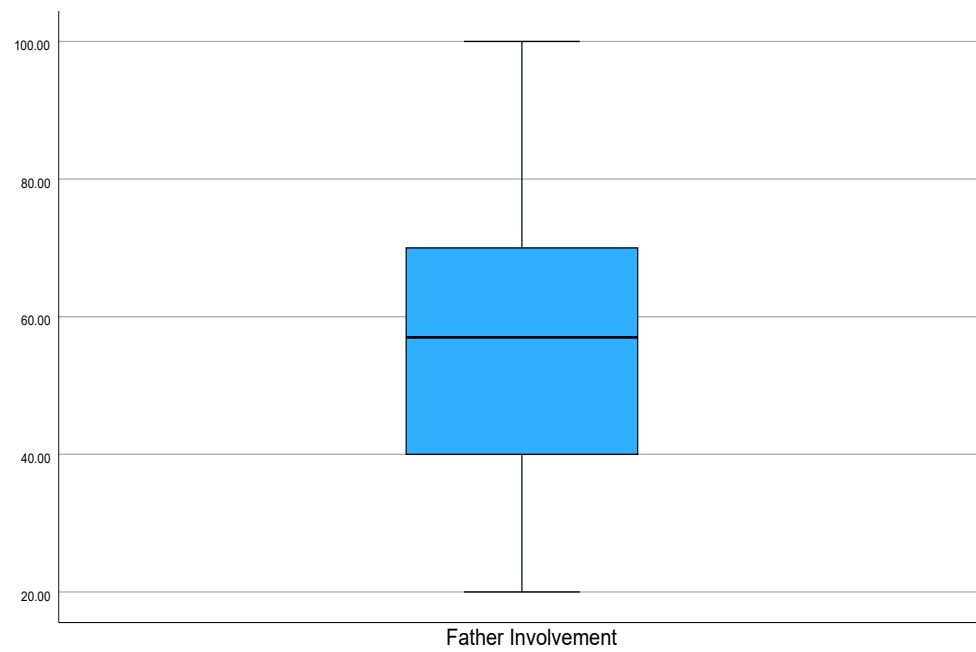
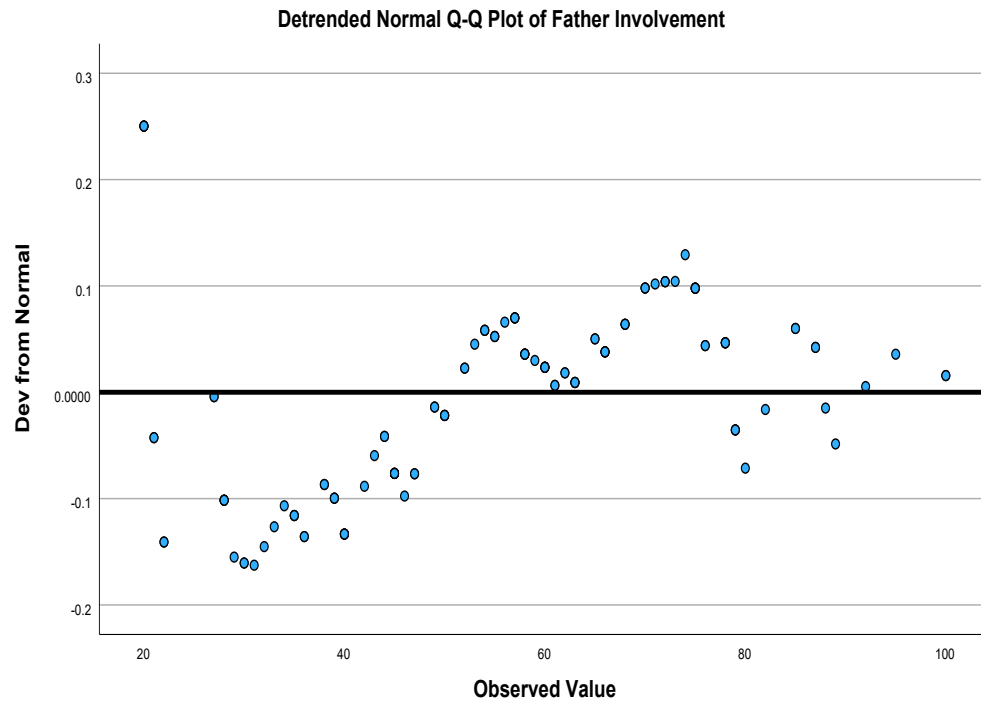
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Father Involvement	.054	131	.200*	.983	131	.094
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	.058	131	.200*	.986	131	.186

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

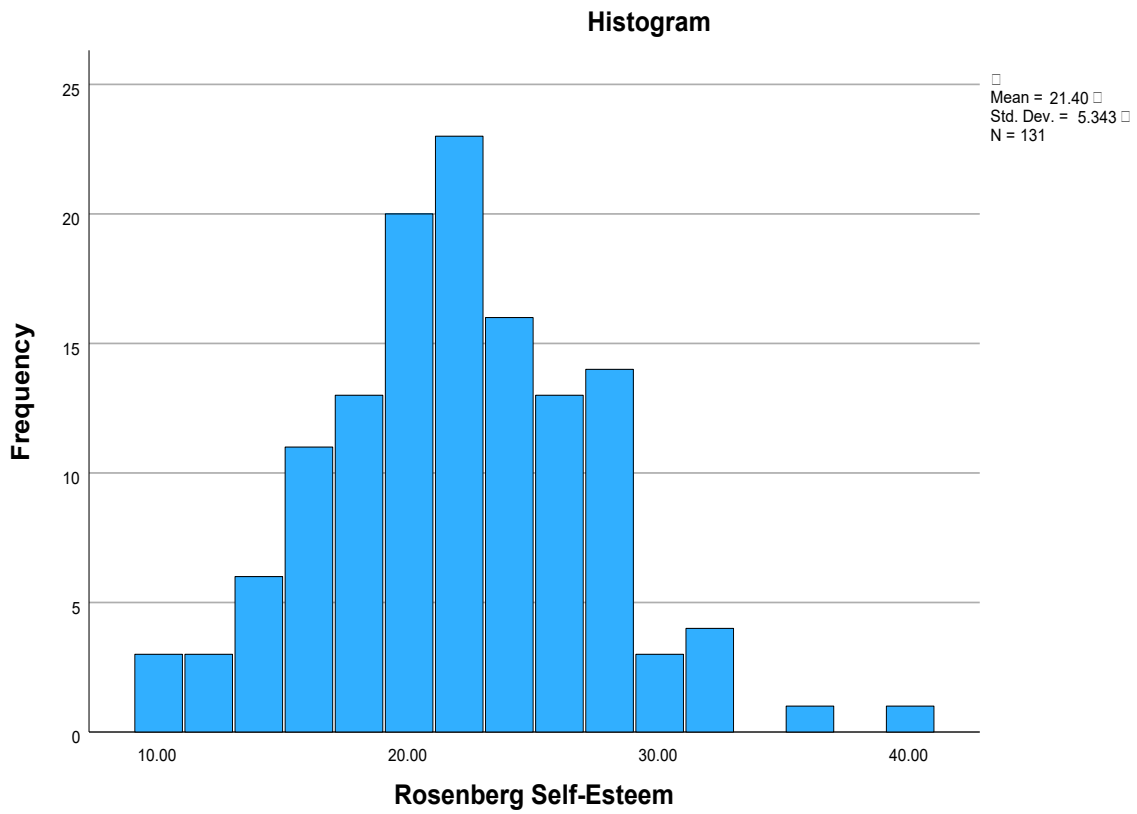
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

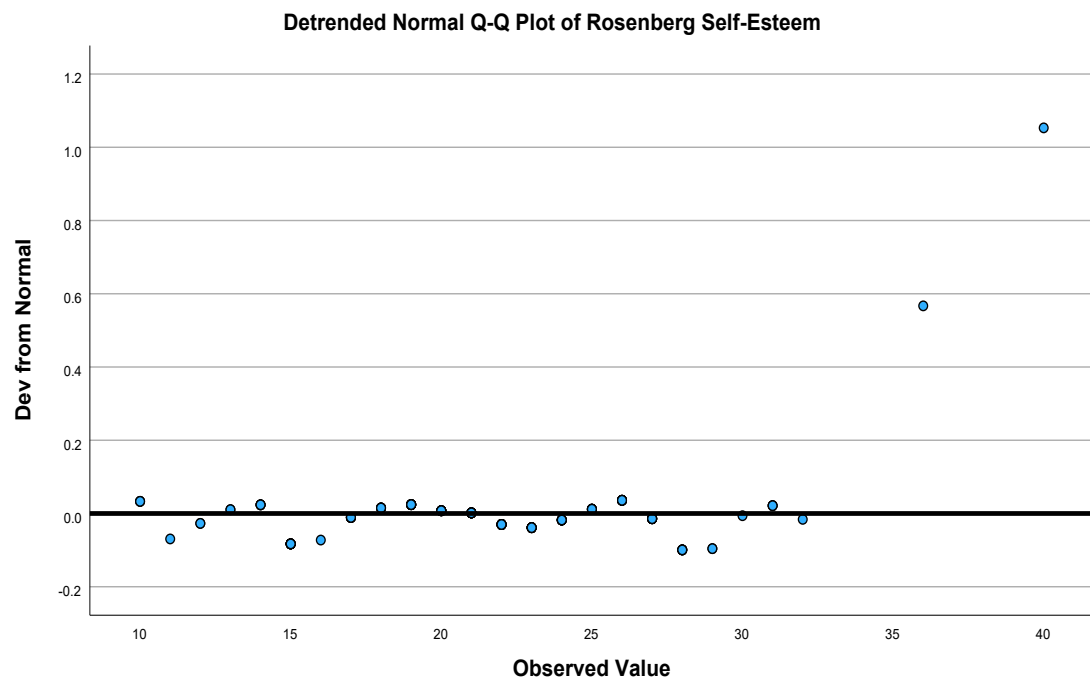
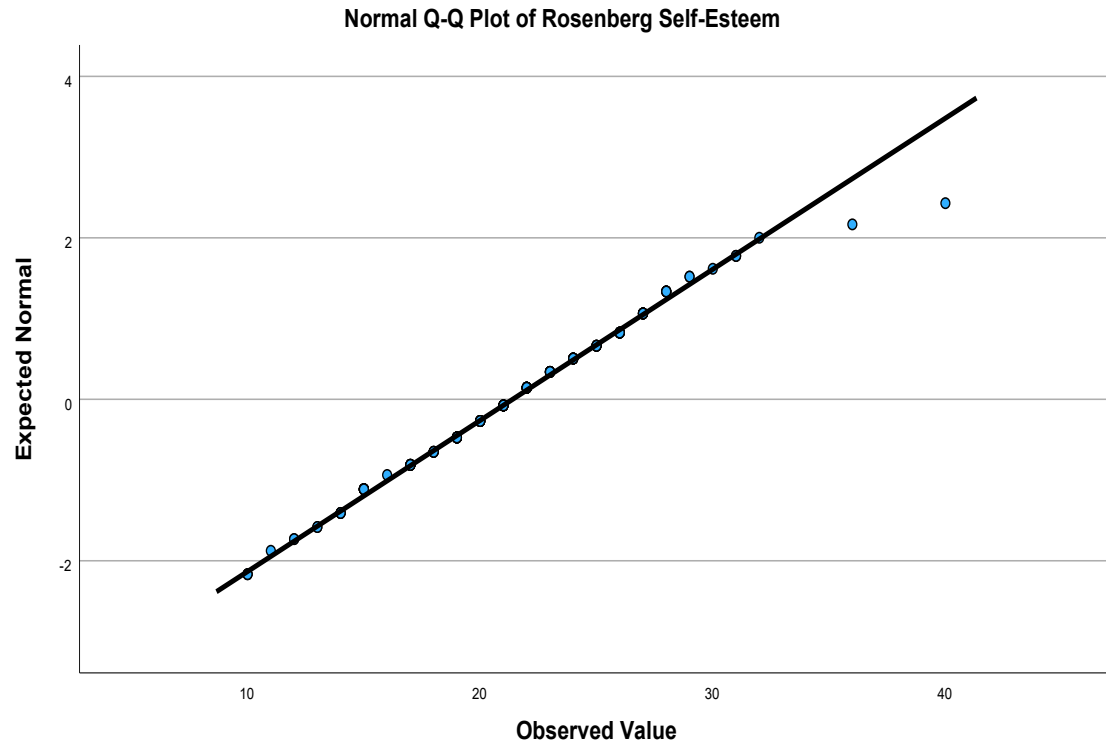
Father Involvement

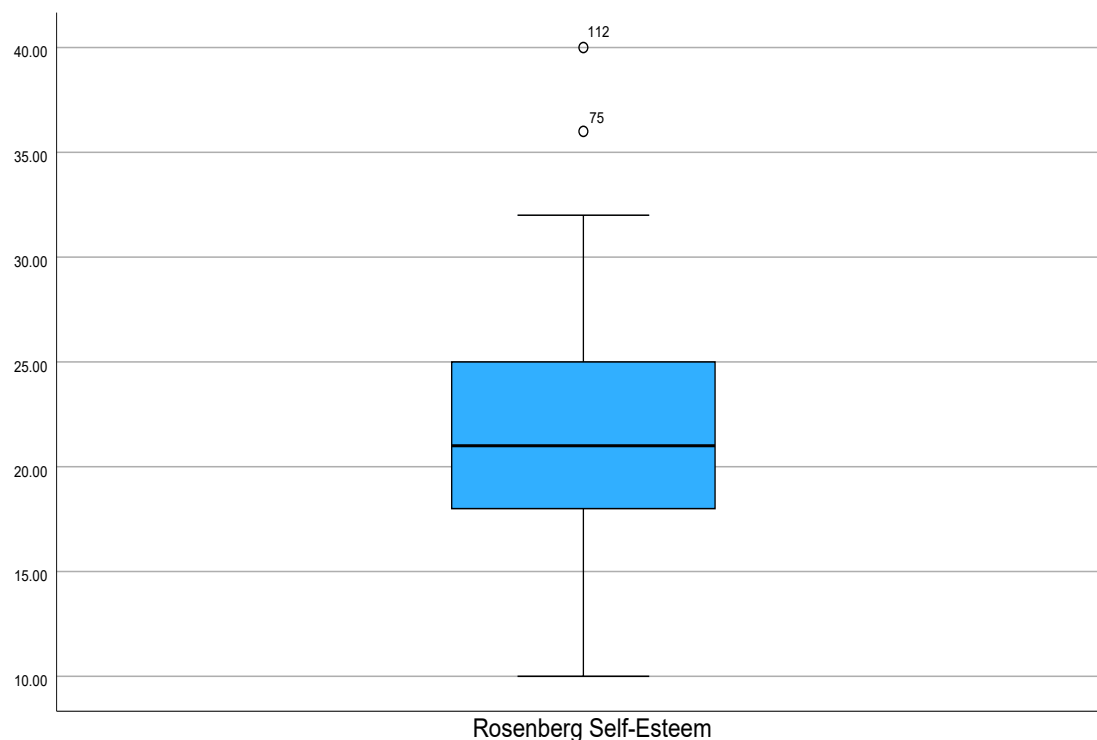




Rosenberg Self-Esteem







Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%
Father Nurturance	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

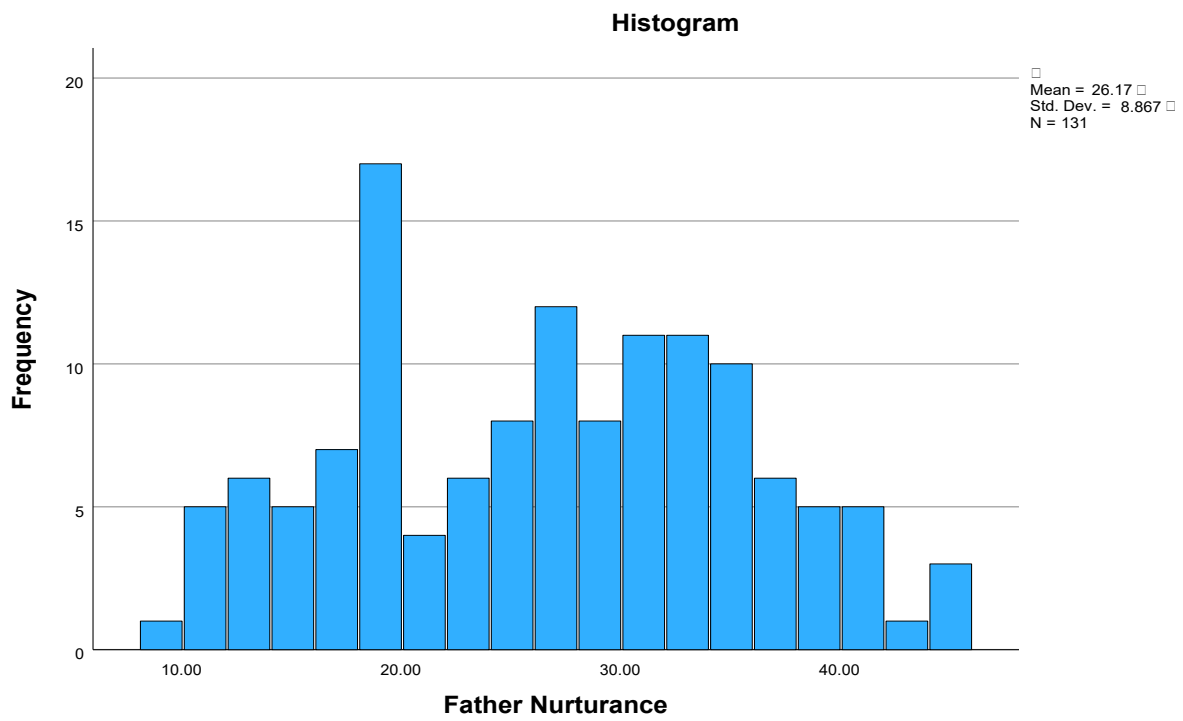
Tests of Normality

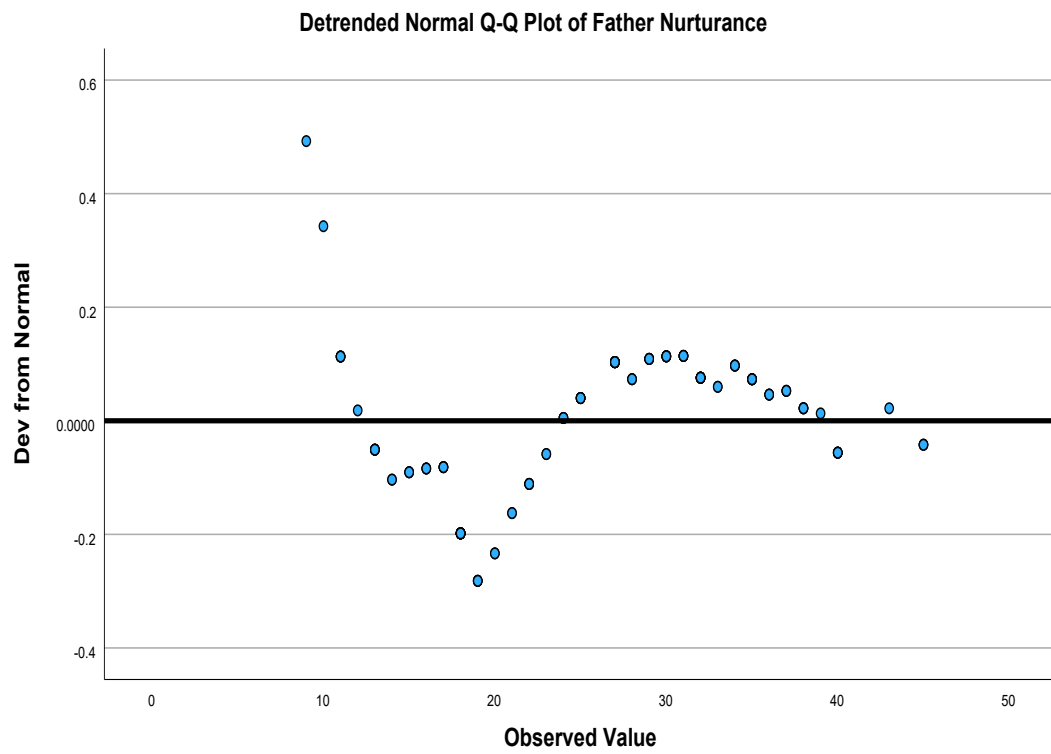
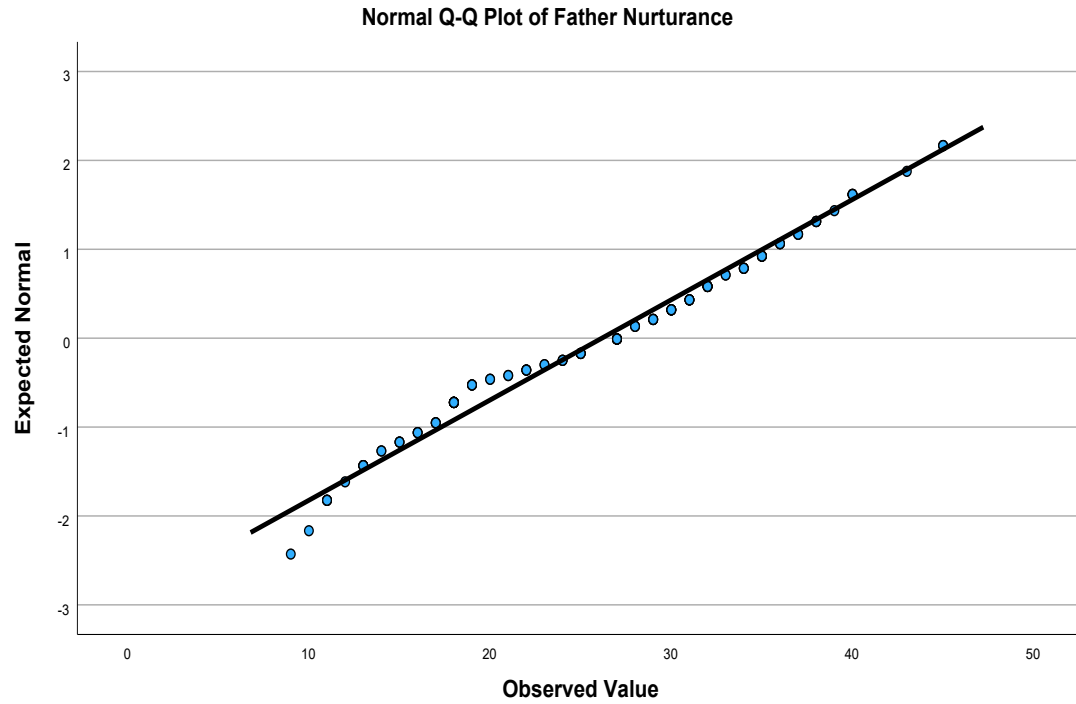
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	.058	131	.200*	.986	131	.186
Father Nurturance	.104	131	.001	.973	131	.010

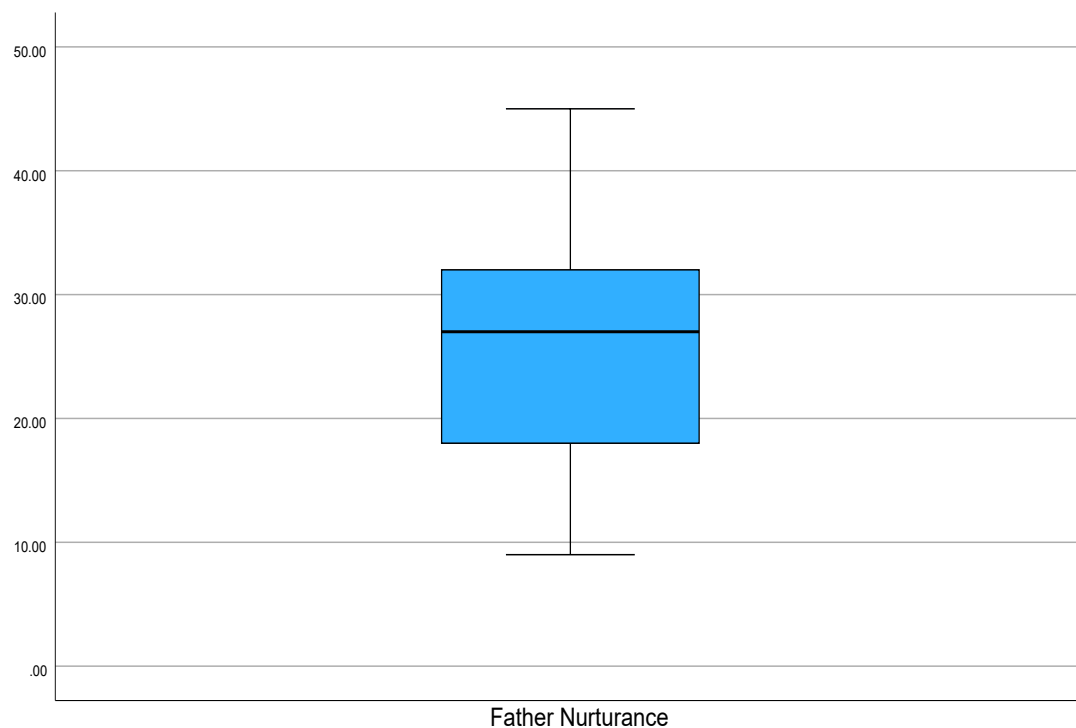
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Father Nurturance







Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Father Involvement	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%
DASS42-Depression	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

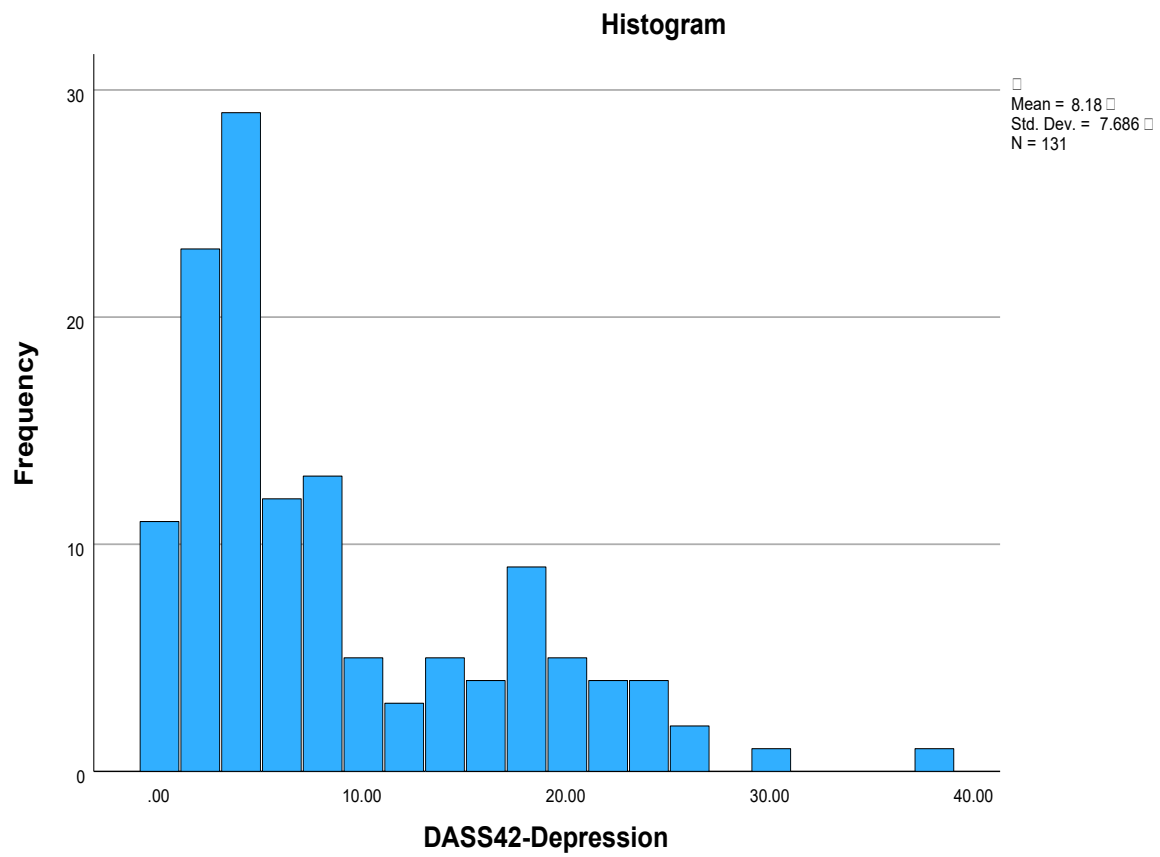
Tests of Normality

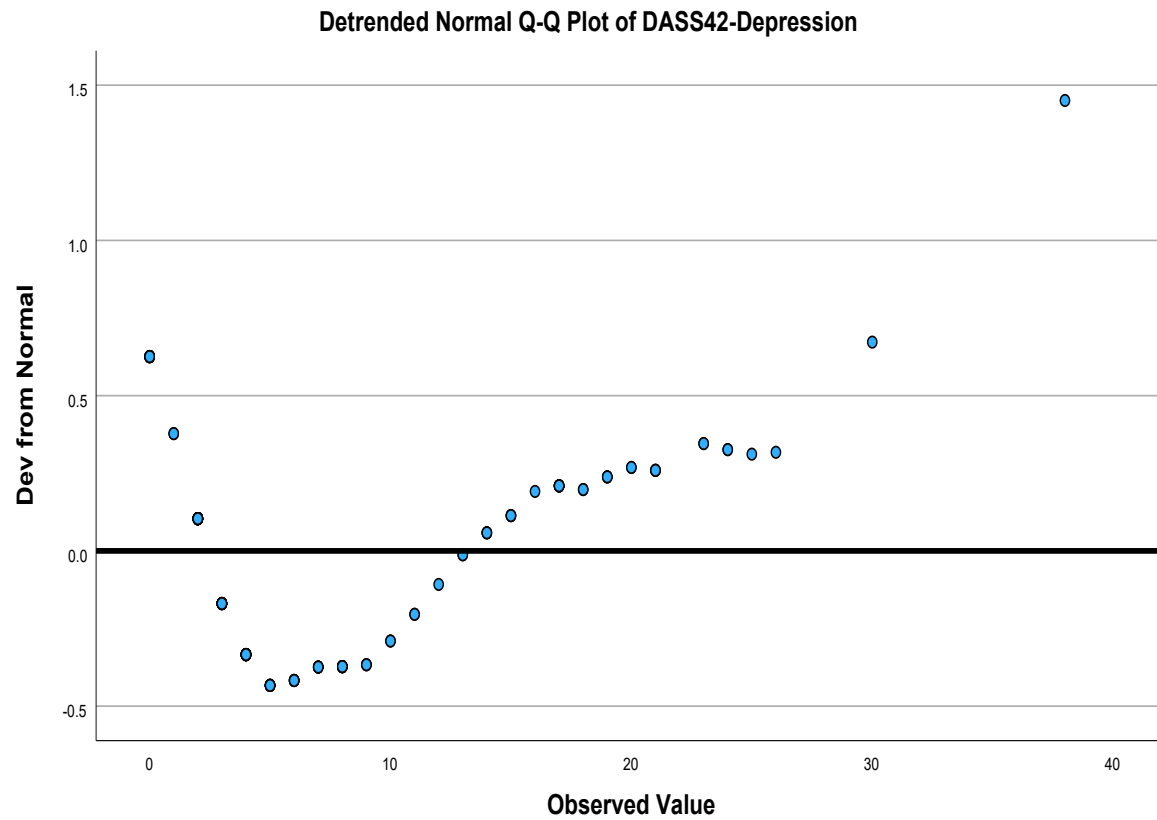
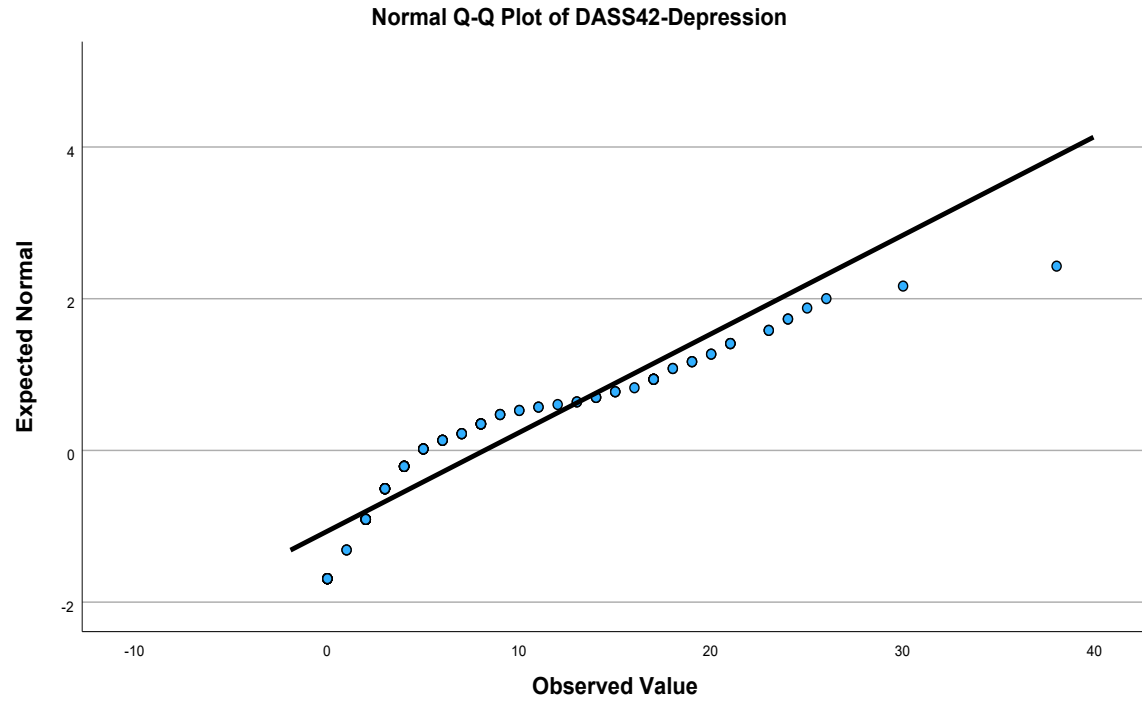
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Father Involvement	.054	131	.200*	.983	131	.094
DASS42-Depression	.195	131	<.001	.854	131	<.001

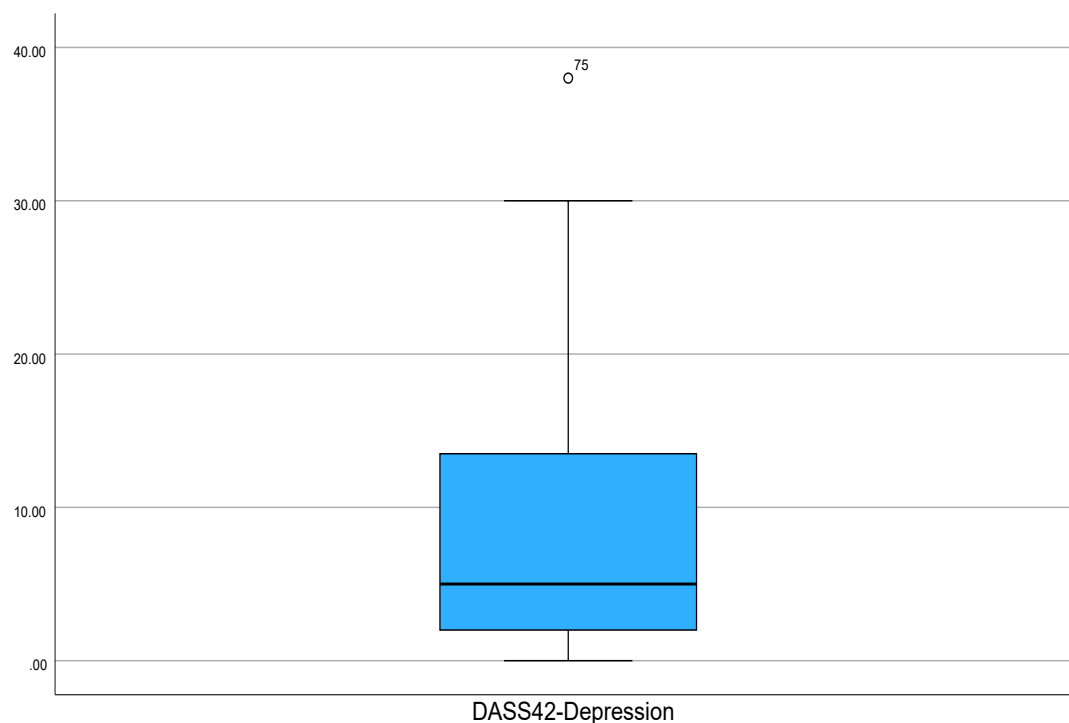
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

DASS42-Depression







Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Father Nurturance	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%
DASS42-Depression	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Father Nurturance	.104	131	.001	.973	131	.010
DASS42-Depression	.195	131	<.001	.854	131	<.001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Father Involvement	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%
DASS42-Anxiety	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

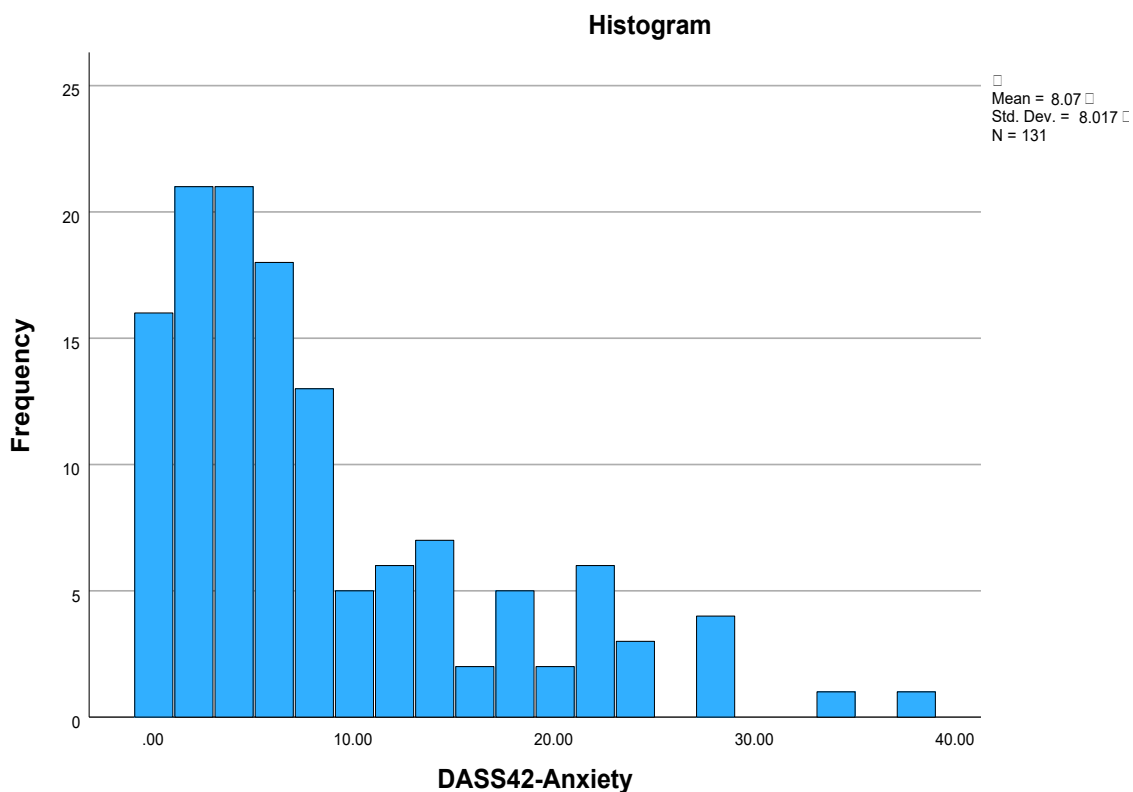
Tests of Normality

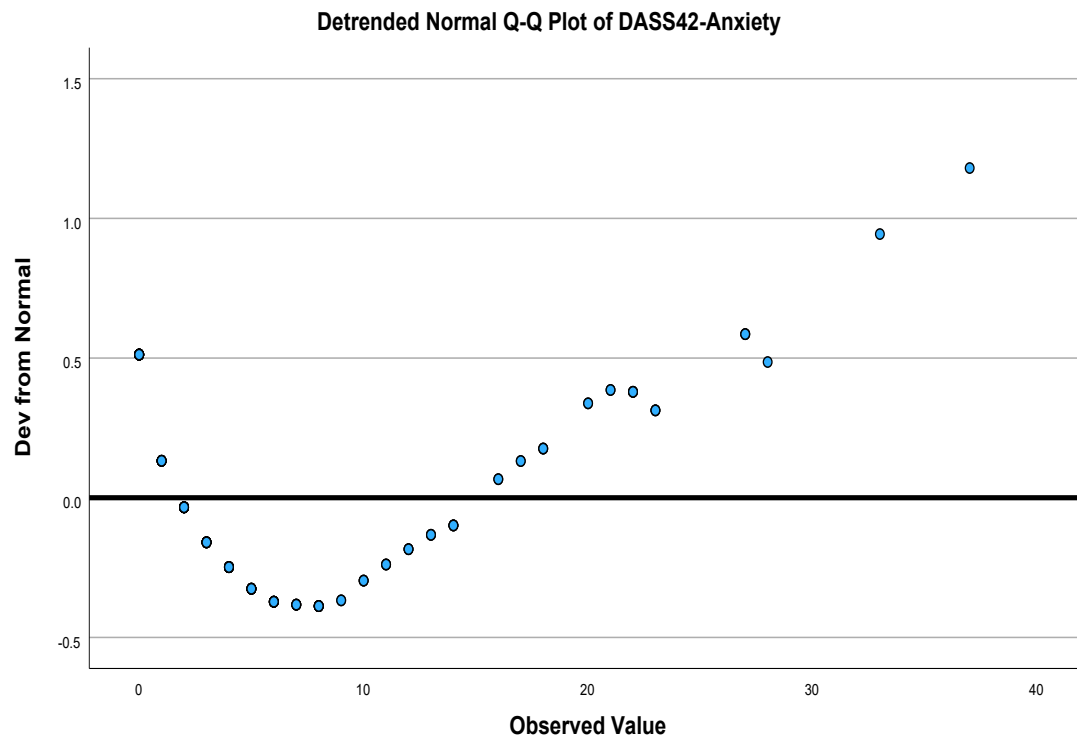
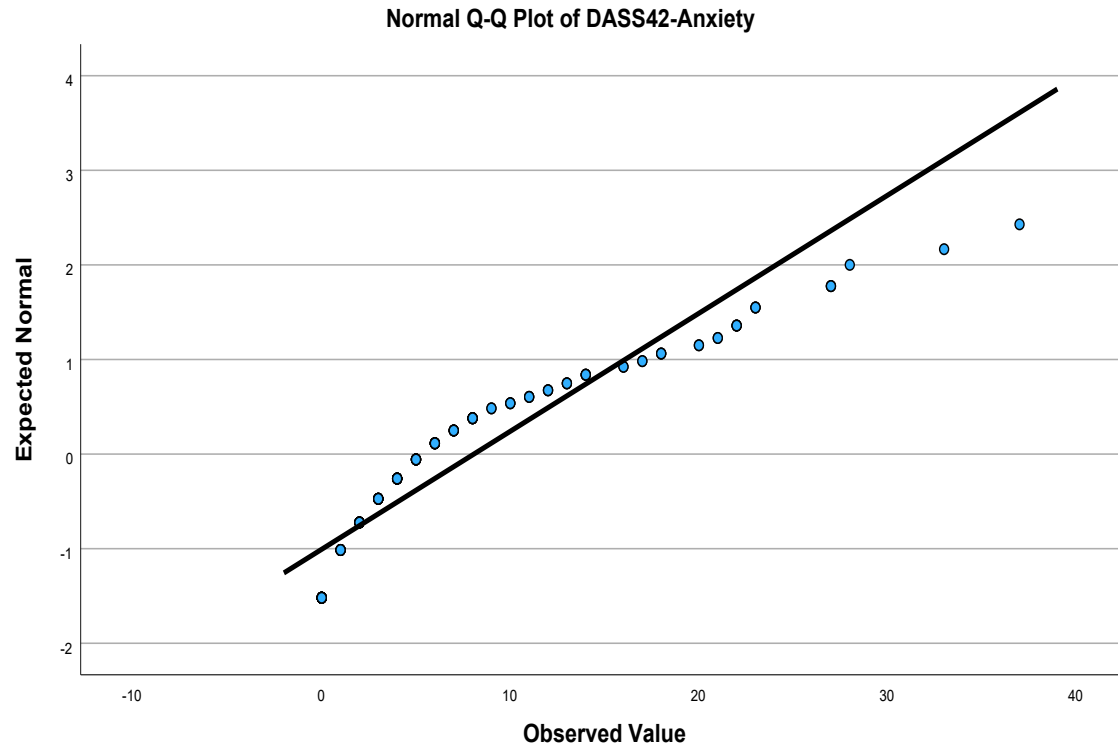
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Father Involvement	.054	131	.200*	.983	131	.094
DASS42-Anxiety	.183	131	<.001	.852	131	<.001

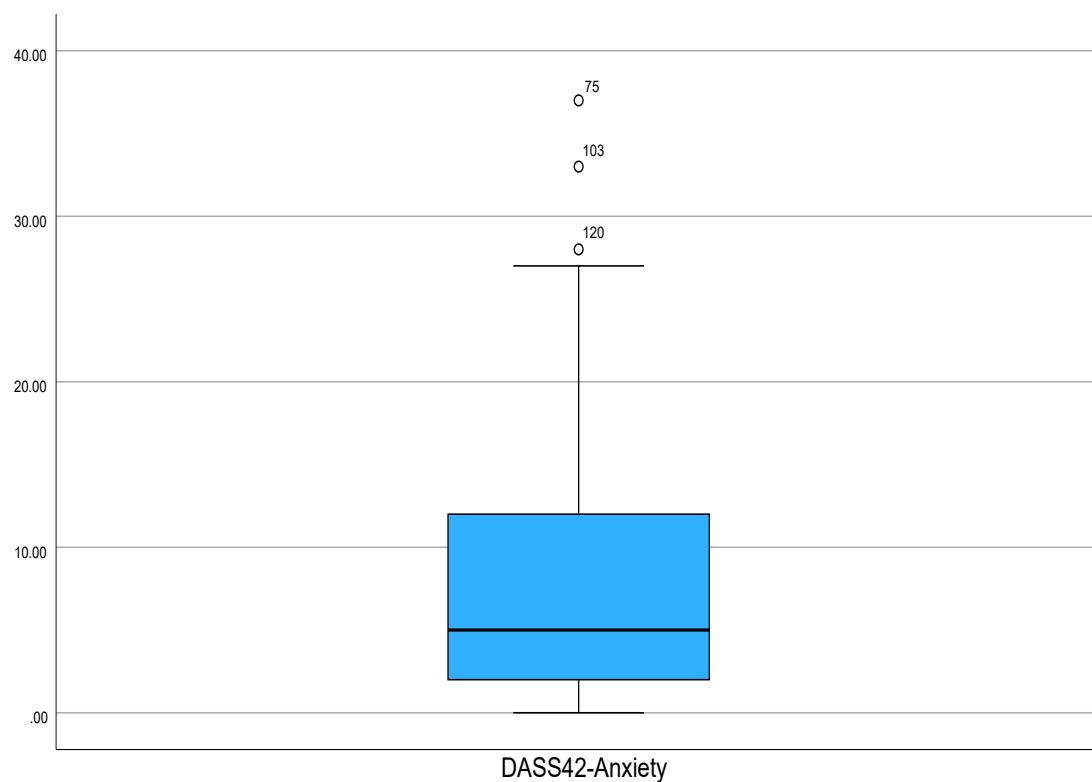
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

DASS42-Anxiety







Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Father Nurturance	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%
DASS42-Anxiety	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Father Nurturance	.104	131	.001	.973	131	.010
DASS42-Anxiety	.183	131	<.001	.852	131	<.001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Father Involvement	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%
DASS42-Stress	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

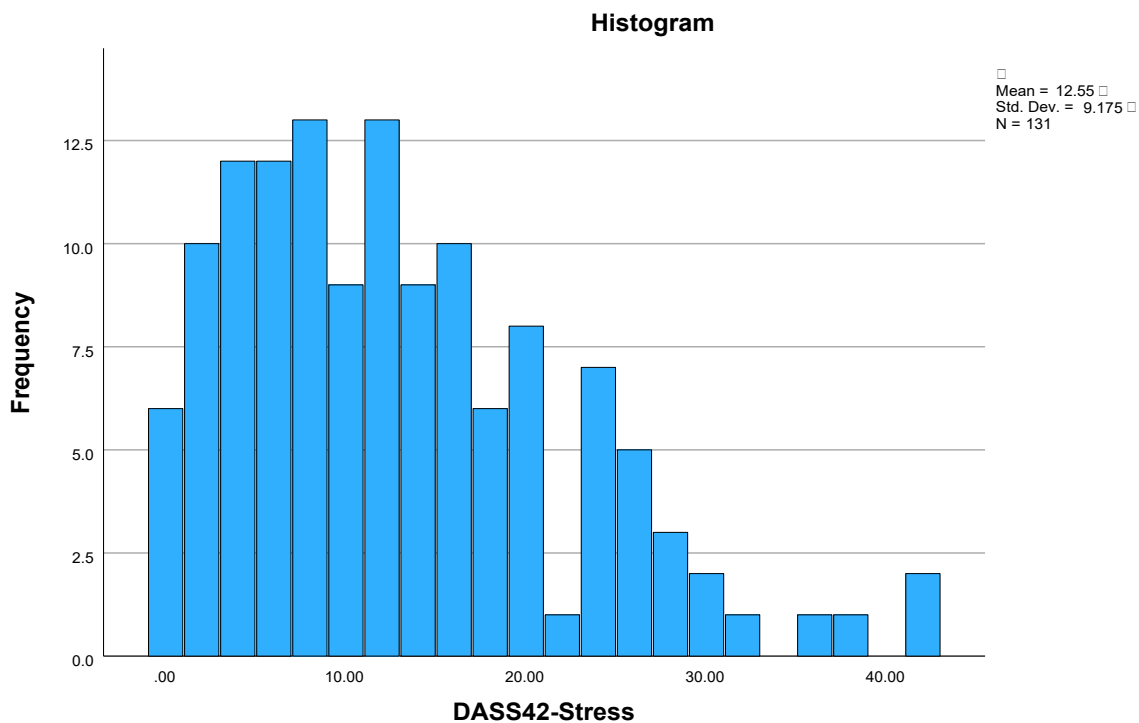
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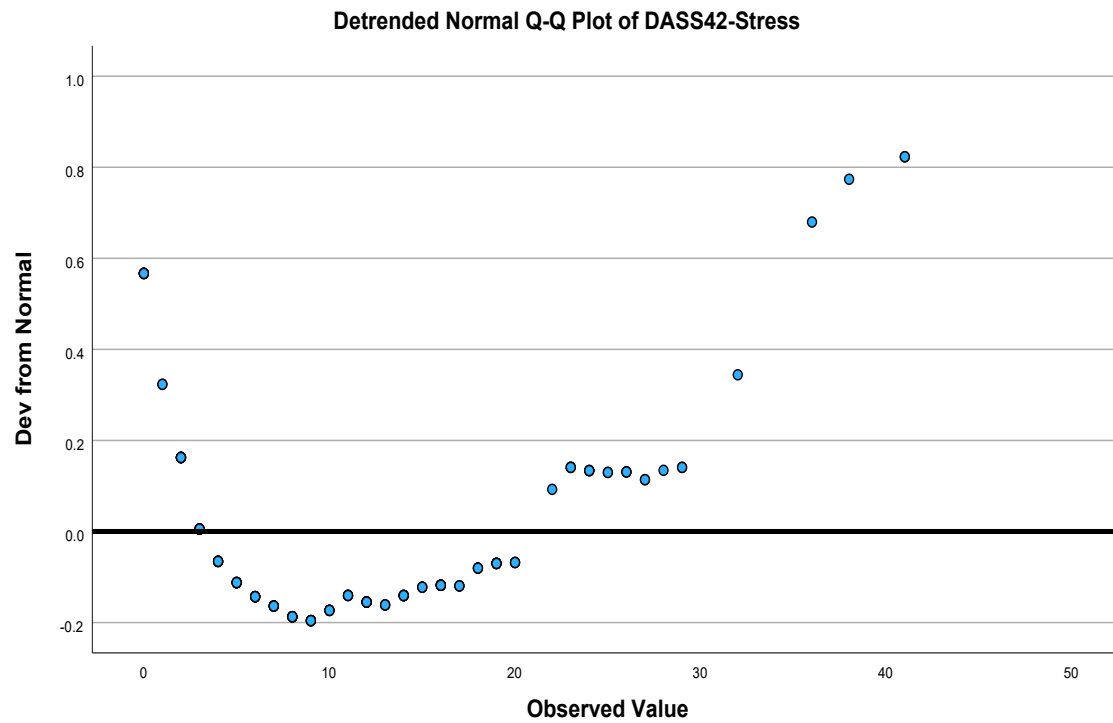
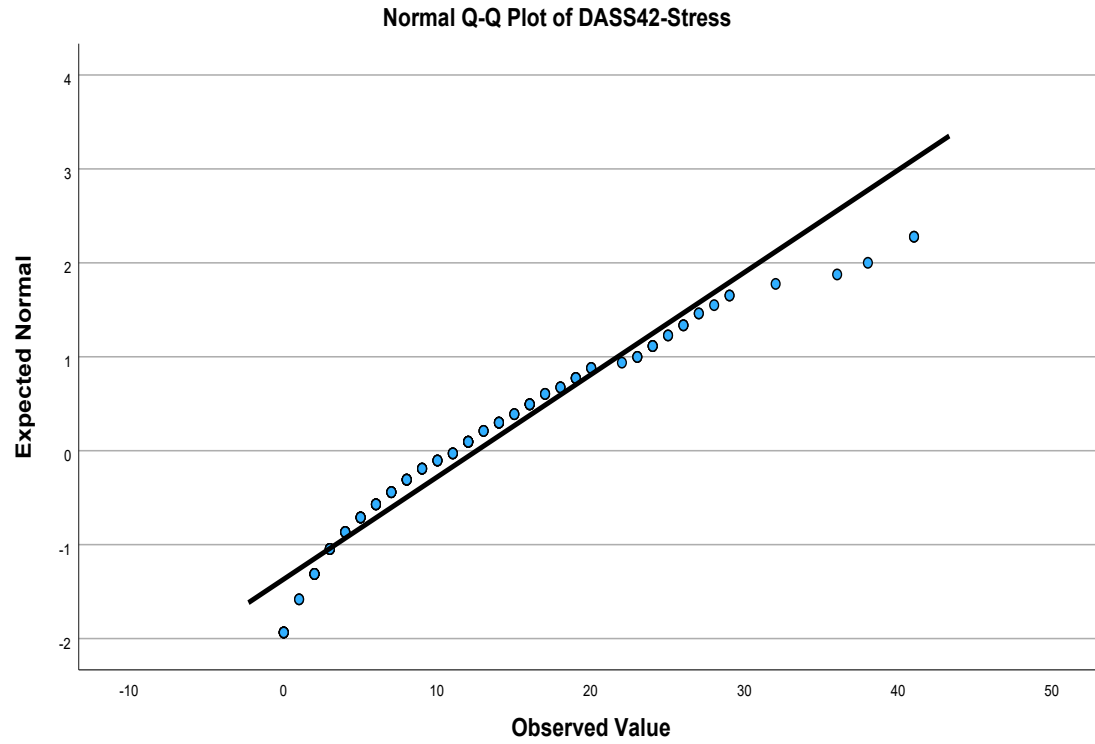
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Father Involvement	.054	131	.200*	.983	131	.094
DASS42-Stress	.096	131	.005	.936	131	<.001

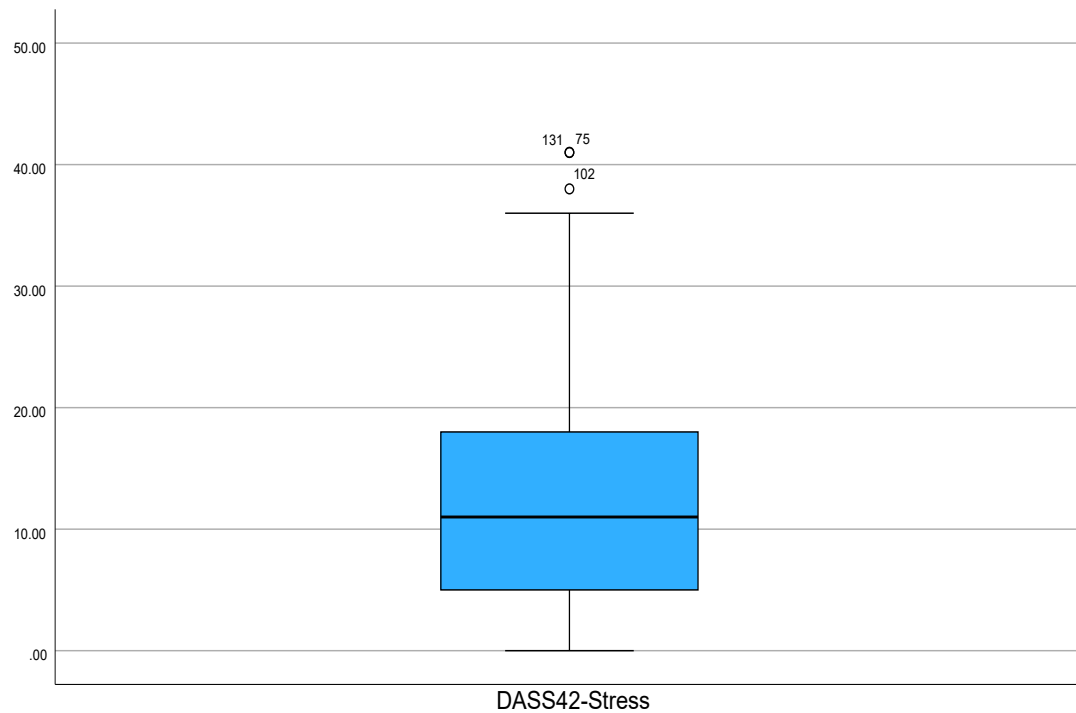
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

DASS42-Stress







Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Father Nurturance	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%
DASS42-Stress	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Father Nurturance	.104	131	.001	.973	131	.010
DASS42-Stress	.096	131	.005	.936	131	<.001

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Father Involvement	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%
Life Satisfaction	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

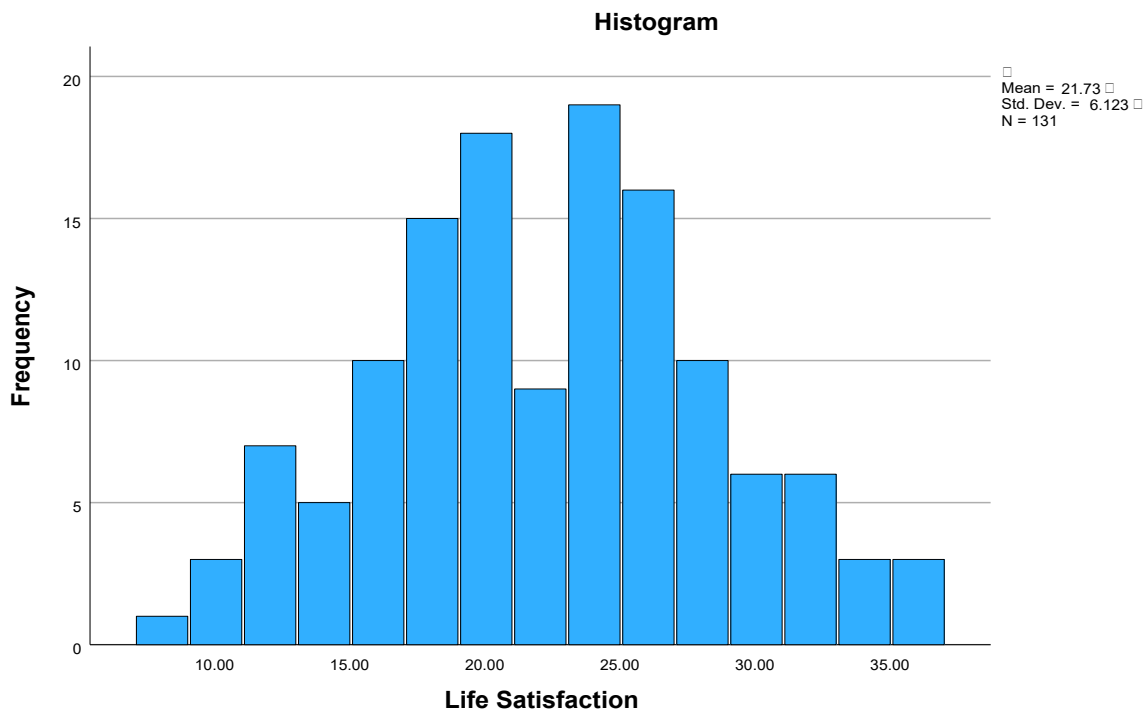
Tests of Normality

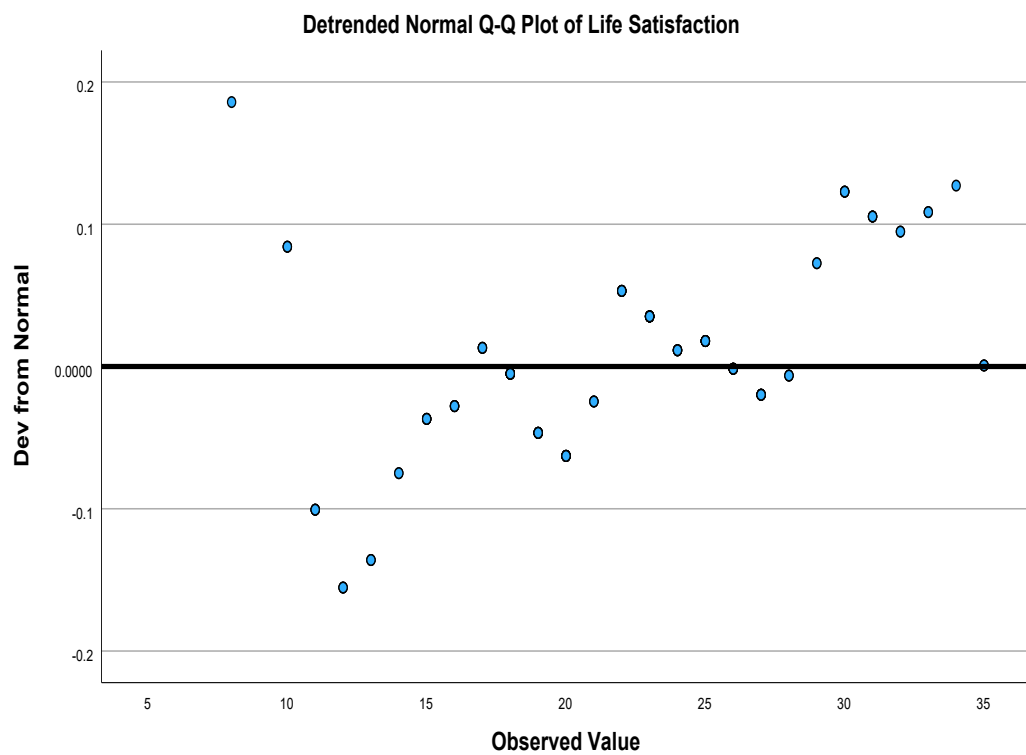
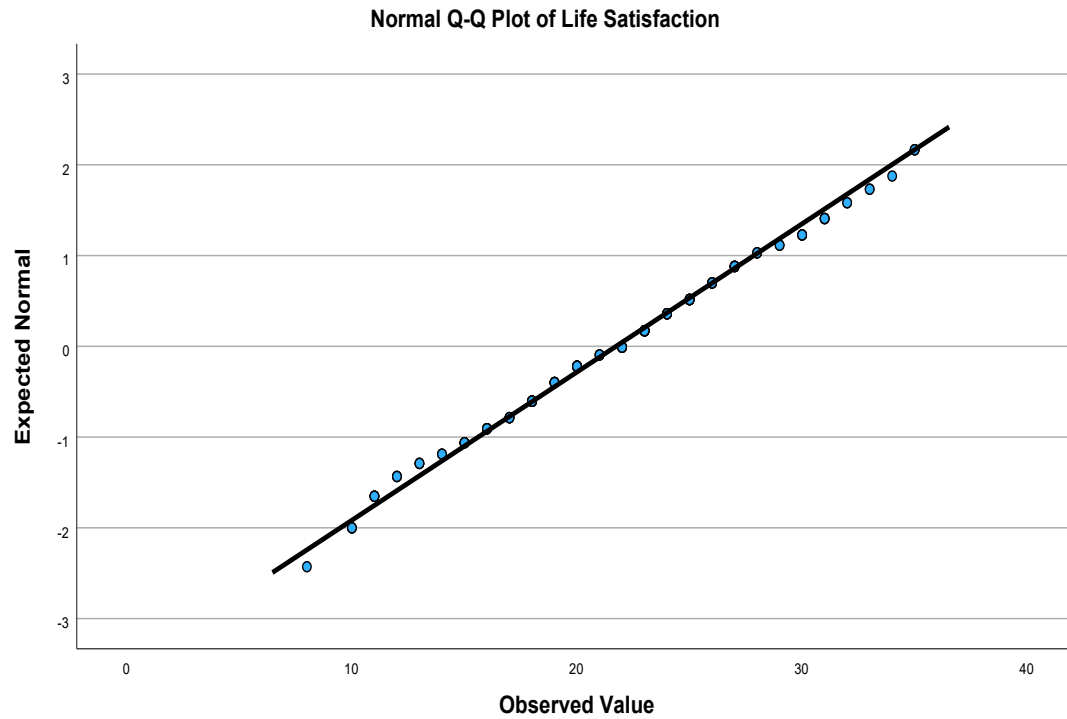
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Father Involvement	.054	131	.200*	.983	131	.094
Life Satisfaction	.063	131	.200*	.988	131	.286

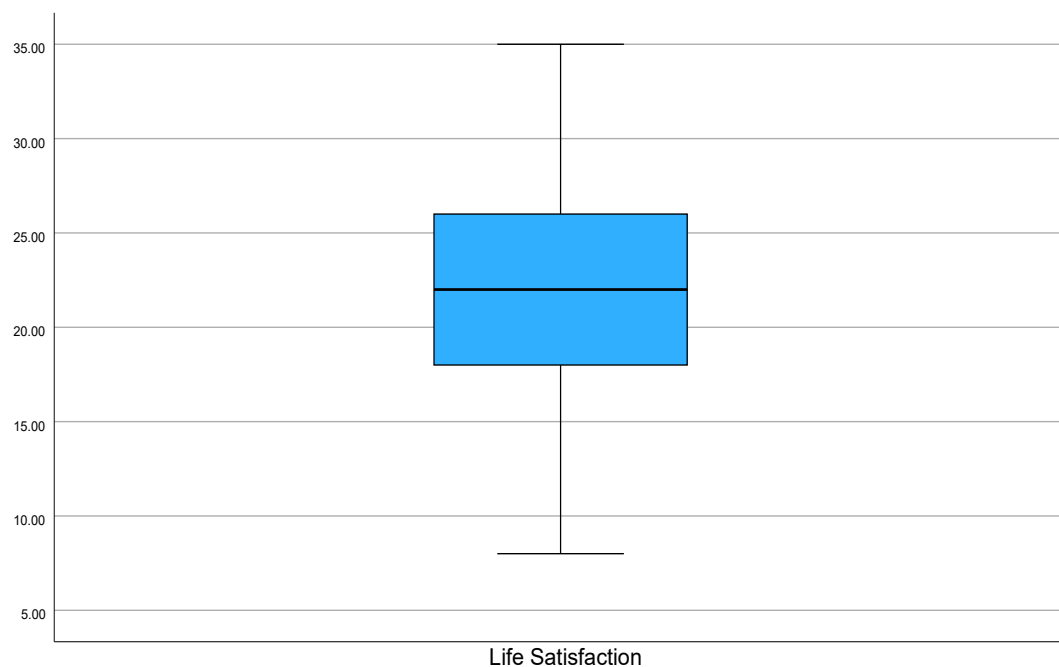
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Life Satisfaction







Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Father Nurturance	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%
Life Satisfaction	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Father Nurturance	.104	131	.001	.973	131	.010
Life Satisfaction	.063	131	.200*	.988	131	.286

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Appendix K: Statistical Procedures – Correlations

Correlations

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	21.3969	5.34312	131
Life Satisfaction	21.7328	6.12288	131
DASS42-Depression	8.1832	7.68595	131
DASS42-Anxiety	8.0687	8.01651	131
DASS42-Stress	12.5496	9.17456	131
Father Involvement	55.4580	19.41976	131
Father Involvement- Wanted	42.9008	13.99882	131
Father Nurturance	26.1679	8.86666	131

Correlations^b

		Rosenberg Self-Esteem	Life Satisfaction	DASS42- Depression	DASS42- Anxiety	DASS42-Stress	Father Involvement	Father Involvement- Wanted	Father Nurturance
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	Pearson Correlation	--							
Life Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-.513 **	--						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001							
DASS42-Depression	Pearson Correlation	.589 **	-.489 **	--					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001						
DASS42-Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	.566 **	-.365 **	.795 **	--				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001					
DASS42-Stress	Pearson Correlation	.617 **	-.438 **	.767 **	.795 **	--			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001				
Father Involvement	Pearson Correlation	.149	-.480 **	.233 **	.141	.299 **	--		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.089	<.001	.007	.109	<.001			
Father Involvement-Wanted	Pearson Correlation	-.169	.249 **	-.118	-.265 **	-.294 **	-.427 **	--	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.004	.178	.002	<.001	<.001		
Father Nurturance	Pearson Correlation	.275 **	-.533 **	.239 **	.172	.344 **	.886 **	-.402 **	--
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	<.001	.006	.050	<.001	<.001	<.001	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

b. Listwise N=131

Appendix L: Statistical Procedures – Independent-samples *t*-test

T-Test

□ Group Statistics

	NeweRace	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	White	76	22.3421	5.27017	.60453
	Women of Color	55	20.0909	5.21136	.70270
DASS42-Depression	White	76	8.7632	7.63478	.87577
	Women of Color	55	7.3818	7.75431	1.04559
DASS42-Anxiety	White	76	9.5395	8.31455	.95374
	Women of Color	55	6.0364	7.17238	.96712
DASS42-Stress	White	76	13.6184	9.01993	1.03466
	Women of Color	55	11.0727	9.26334	1.24907
Life Satisfaction	White	76	22.4737	6.78130	.77787
	Women of Color	55	20.7091	4.95413	.66802

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Significance One-Sided p	Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower Upper
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	Equal variances assumed	.000	.998	2.424	129	.008	.017	2.25120	.92864	.41387 4.08853
	Equal variances not assumed			2.429	117.264	.008	.017	2.25120	.92695	.41546 4.08694
DASS42-Depression	Equal variances assumed	.347	.557	1.015	129	.156	.312	1.38134	1.36048	-1.31041 4.07309
	Equal variances not assumed			1.013	115.437	.157	.313	1.38134	1.36390	-1.32018 4.08286
DASS42-Anxiety	Equal variances assumed	2.777	.098	2.519	129	.007	.013	3.50311	1.39087	.75124 6.25498
	Equal variances not assumed			2.579	124.990	.006	.011	3.50311	1.35829	.81488 6.19134
DASS42-Stress	Equal variances assumed	.148	.701	1.576	129	.059	.117	2.54569	1.61498	-.64958 5.74097
	Equal variances not assumed			1.570	114.660	.060	.119	2.54569	1.62194	-.66716 5.75854
Life Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	7.410	.007	1.638	129	.052	.104	1.76459	1.07698	-.36624 3.89542
	Equal variances not assumed			1.721	128.982	.044	.088	1.76459	1.02534	-.26407 3.79326

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Rosenberg Self-Esteem	Cohen's d	5.24563	.429	.077	.779
	Hedges' correction	5.27638	.427	.077	.775
	Glass's delta	5.21136	.432	.074	.786
DASS42-Depression	Cohen's d	7.68504	.180	-.168	.527
	Hedges' correction	7.73008	.179	-.167	.524
	Glass's delta	7.75431	.178	-.171	.526
DASS42-Anxiety	Cohen's d	7.85667	.446	.094	.796
	Hedges' correction	7.90272	.443	.093	.792
	Glass's delta	7.17238	.488	.127	.845
DASS42-Stress	Cohen's d	9.12261	.279	-.070	.627
	Hedges' correction	9.17608	.277	-.070	.623
	Glass's delta	9.26334	.275	-.077	.624
Life Satisfaction	Cohen's d	6.08359	.290	-.059	.638
	Hedges' correction	6.11924	.288	-.059	.635
	Glass's delta	4.95413	.356	.001	.708

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.