

## **Young Adult Daughters' Relationships With Their Fathers: Review of Recent Research**

LINDA NIELSEN

*Department of Education, Wake Forest University, Winston Salem, North Carolina, USA*

*The young adult years raise a number of intriguing questions about the relationship between fathers and daughters. How does the quality of their relationship throughout childhood manifest itself during a daughter's college years? In what specific ways is the "well-fathered" daughter advantaged compared with daughters who had troubled or distant relationships with their fathers? What aspects of the daughter's college and early adult life are generally more influenced by her relationship with her father than by her relationship with her mother? This review of recent research provides intriguing and occasionally surprising answers to these questions about young adult daughters and their fathers.*

*KEYWORDS* father–daughter, father–daughter relationships, fathers, fathers and young adult daughters

### FATHER–DAUGHTER RELATIONSHIPS: RESEARCH REVIEW OF EMERGING ADULT YEARS

The young adult and college years raise a number of intriguing questions about the relationship between fathers and daughters. How does the quality of their relationship throughout childhood manifest itself during these adult years? In what specific ways is the "well-fathered" daughter advantaged compared with daughters who had troubled or distant relationships with their fathers? Recent research provides intriguing and occasionally surprising answers to these questions about young adult daughters and their fathers, especially for college counselors, coaches, and professors.

---

Address correspondence to Linda Nielsen, Professor of Education, Wake Forest University, Box 7266, Winston Salem, NC 27109, USA. E-mail: nielsen@wfu.edu

## ACADEMIC AND VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Uppermost on the minds of most young daughters and their fathers is her academic and vocational path. How will her academic life manifest itself in terms of the jobs she holds and the income she earns as a young adult? And how will her relationship with her father influence her academic performance and, as a consequence, her career and financial success? Because jobs and incomes are highly dependent on how much education young adults complete beyond high school, we look first at the performance of the 70% of daughters who enter college.

Fathers who have been actively engaged in promoting their daughters' intellectual achievements and autonomy promote her college success in several ways. These daughters are more successful academically than those whose fathers were neglectful or disengaged during her adolescence (Perkins, 2001). Indeed, the daughter's academic success is more closely related to the quality of her relationship with her father than with her mother (Lamb, 2010). Moreover, fathers seem to have more impact on their daughters' academic and vocational achievements than on their sons'. In a study involving 13,000 children, daughters' career achievements were more closely related than sons' to the quality of their childhood relationships with their fathers, even after controlling for family incomes (Flouri, 2005). In part, this may happen because young adult daughters are more likely than sons to ask their fathers for advice about school and career plans (Creamer & Laughlin, 2005). However, a daughter's willingness to ask her father for advice is influenced by the quality of their relationship. When female college students were asked what they would do if their fathers disapproved of their career plans, the overwhelming majority said they would not change their plans. But the daughters who communicated more comfortably and had closer relationships with their fathers were more willing to reconsider their plans if their fathers disapproved (Li & Kerpelman, 2007). Because first-born daughters and those who have no brothers tend to receive more encouragement from their fathers to be high achievers, these daughters are overly represented among the world's political leaders (Steinberg, 2001).

Today's fathers seem to have more impact on their daughters' academic and career choices than fathers in previous generations. Daughters who were born in the 1970s are three times more likely than those born at the beginning of the 20th century to work in the same field as their fathers. Society's less sexist attitudes about women entering traditionally male careers account for much of this change. Still, researchers attributed 20% of the increase to fathers being more likely now to mentor their daughters so they pursue jobs in higher paying, more competitive fields typically populated by men (Morrill & Hellerstein, 2009). Today's fathers are also more likely to give their adult daughters management positions in family-owned businesses—jobs once reserved only for sons and son-in-laws (Haberman & Danes, 2007).

## ATHLETIC ACHIEVEMENT

Increasingly, daughters' career choices and academic paths involve athletics. Here too fathers have a considerable impact on their adult daughter's athletic achievements (Kay, 2010). Many college and professional female athletes credit their fathers for helping them become tenacious, self-disciplined, ambitious, and successful (Lobo, 2010). On the other hand, her athletic career can also strain their relationship. In interviews with 80 female college athletes, most said their fathers were too focused on and involved with their athletic lives. Many daughters feared disappointing their father and worried about losing his love or respect whenever they failed to excel in sports. These problems were worse if the father was or had been his daughter's coach or trainer. Interestingly, the sport that created the most tension between these fathers and daughters was tennis. In part, this seemed to be related to the large amounts of money these fathers had invested in their daughter's athletic training. Most female athletes felt intense pressure to repay their fathers with college scholarships or lucrative careers as professional athletes. Most also believed their fathers showed too little interest in other aspects of their lives, not allowing them to set their own goals and trying to claim too much credit for their success (Willms, 2009).

## ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS: SEX, DATING, AND MARRIAGE

Beyond his impact on her academic and career development, the father has a significant impact on his daughter's romantic relationships—often a greater impact than the mother. A daughter who has a secure, supportive, communicative relationship with her father is the most likely to create and to maintain emotionally intimate, fulfilling relationships with men. During the college years, these daughters are more likely to turn to their boyfriends for emotional comfort and support than poorly fathered daughters (Black & Schutte, 2006). They are also less anxious and less insecure about their relationships (Last, 2009). Well-fathered daughters are also more satisfied with their appearance and body weight, which, in turn, leads to being more confident and comfortable with their boyfriends (Sanftner, Ryan, & Pierce, 2009). Indeed, African American fathers are more likely than mothers to help those daughters who have darker shades of skin feel good about their appearance in a society that considers lighter shades of skin more "desirable" (Wilder & Cain, 2012). Compared with mothers, the quality of the father-daughter relationship is more highly correlated with the quality of the daughter's romantic relationships (Danes, Frieman, & Kitzmann, 2006; Scharf & Mayselless, 2008). This is also true for daughters between the ages of 18 and 34 whose parents are divorced (Schaick & Stolberg, 2001). Descriptive

reports from therapists further confirm that the quality of the father–daughter relationship is highly correlated with the quality of women’s relationships with their boyfriends and husbands (Leonard, 1998; Murdock, 2005; Rosenthal, 2010; Simon, 2001). Overall then, fathers usually have a greater impact than mothers do on this aspect of their daughters’ lives.

Similarly, fathers have a significant impact on their daughters’ sexual decisions. For 144 college undergraduates, daughters who felt close to their fathers were more assertive and more self-confident in refusing to have sex against their will and refusing to be emotionally dominated by their boyfriends (Katz, 2010). In another study with 377 undergraduates, daughters were generally more concerned than sons about making sexual decisions they believed their fathers would approve of (Miller & Lee, 2001). In noncollege populations with Hispanic American daughters (Biggs, 2010) and with low income daughters in their mid to late twenties (Vigil & Geary, 2006), those who had good relationships with their fathers were more likely to postpone having children and to have waited longer to first have sex.

It is worth noting, however, that a father’s religious views are not closely related to his daughter’s sexual behavior (Regerus & Uecker, 2011). In fact, there are more teenage pregnancies and out of wedlock births in those states where families are the most religiously conservative, even after family incomes are factored in (Strayhorn, 2009). And even though American fathers generally have more conservative religious views about adolescents having sex than fathers in other industrialized nations, American daughters still have significantly higher rates of teenage pregnancy, abortion, and sexual disease (Schalet, 2006).

Recent changes in young adult daughters’ sexual behavior, however, might be related to changes in father–daughter relationships. Most American fathers spend more time with their daughters than fathers did in previous generations and are more likely to encourage daughters to pursue demanding careers (Nielsen, 2012). This might help account for the fact that young adult daughters are waiting longer to have sex and are less likely to get pregnant or to have abortions than ever before (AGI, 2010). In college, more daughters have sex with boyfriends they have no intention of marrying (Bogle, 2008; England & Thomas, 2006). In fact, only 15% of college sweethearts end up marrying each other, compared with almost 25% in 1993 (Harris Interactive, 2008). Daughters are also waiting longer to get married. In the 20- to 24-year-old age group, only 20% are married, whereas 30% are cohabiting and 35% are in a serious relationship. The average marriage age has now risen to 26 for daughters and 28 for sons (Scott, Schelar, Manlove, & Cui, 2010). In short, this generation of daughters seems to be following a path many of their fathers have encouraged: job and financial stability before marriage and motherhood.

Given the father’s impact on his daughter’s sexual behavior, it is unfortunate that many fathers are not talking enough to their daughters about sex

and relationships. In a racially diverse group of 234 daughters aged 19 to 21, regardless of race or income, nearly 80% wished their father had talked to them more often, more openly, and more comfortably about sex and relationships (Hutchinson & Cederbaum, 2010). Likewise, for 165 Asian American college students, most said neither parent provided them with enough information about sex or relationships—daughters more so than sons (Kim & Ward, 2007). For another 238 undergraduates, for both sons and daughters, only 16% had ever discussed sex with their mothers and only 10% with their fathers. Furthermore, only 30% had ever discussed their romantic relationships with either parent (Mathews, Derlega, & Morrow, 2006). Although many fathers may be surprised by this, most daughters wish their dads had talked to them more about sex and relationships.

### DEPRESSION, ANXIETY AND EATING DISORDERS

The quality of the father–daughter relationship is also associated with young women’s rates of clinical depression and eating disorders—the highest rates seen in the daughter’s early adult years (Maine, 2004). College women with insecure attachments to their fathers are more depressed and anxious than those who have secure relationships (Last, 2009). Likewise, for 183 daughters aged 17 to 29, those who felt rejected by their fathers were more likely to be clinically depressed (Thompson & Berenbaum, 2009). In a meta-analysis of 24 studies, even after considering family income, older adolescent daughters had higher rates of depression and other emotional problems when their fathers had not been actively involved in their lives (Sarkadi, Kirstiansson, Oberklai, & Bremberg, 2008). Similarly, undergraduates who had the lowest self-esteem and were least satisfied with their lives had the poorest relationships with their fathers (Allgood, Beckett, & Peterson, 2012). According to a review of the literature, depression is more closely correlated with the quality of the daughter’s relationship with her father than with her mother (Videon, 2005).

Because clinically depressed daughters have a higher risk of developing eating disorders, it is not surprising then that troubled father–daughter relationships are one of the factors generally correlated with eating disorders (Agras, 2007). Four of the most common problems between these daughters and their fathers relate to love, communication, and sexuality. First, the daughter often feels ignored, unloved, or unimportant to her father. Second, she feels he is profoundly disappointed in her for not living up to his expectations. Third, she has difficulty communicating honestly or comfortably with her father. Fourth, the daughter believes her father disapproves of her growing up and becoming a sexually mature woman. Keep in mind, however, that eating disorders are psychological disorders that distort the daughter’s perceptions of herself and of other people. Given this, a daughter’s beliefs about

her father may be completely inaccurate or grossly exaggerated (Botta & Dumlao, 2002; Elliott, 2010; Maine, 2004). Still, her negative perceptions of their relationship are correlated with her eating disorder and depression.

This research should not be misconstrued to mean that problems in the father–daughter relationship cause eating disorders. In fact, there appears to be a strong genetic predisposition, with a 55% to 85% risk for daughters with a relative who has had an eating disorder (Zucker, 2007). Moreover, these parents tend to have more obsessive-compulsive disorders, more anxiety disorders, and more clinical depression, which again suggests a genetic basis for their daughter's clinical depression and subsequent eating disorder (Ravi, Forsberg, & Fitzpatrick, 2009). Nevertheless, there is a correlation between eating disorders and the quality of the father–daughter relationship, and therefore, the father–daughter factor cannot be overlooked or dismissed as insignificant.

### FATHER–DAUGHTER CLOSENESS AND COMMUNICATION

Given how much influence the quality of the father–daughter relationship has on daughters' young adult lives, other questions arise: How close do most young adult daughters feel to their fathers? How comfortably do they communicate, especially about meaningful, personal issues?

With both parents still assuming gendered roles in most American families, it is not surprising that sons and daughters generally feel closer to and more comfortable communicating with their mothers (Nielsen, 2012). This is not to say that children love their mothers more than they love their fathers. However, they generally communicate more often and more easily with mothers, especially about personal topics—especially daughters. Throughout their lives, mothers and daughters usually get to know one another better and talk about more personal things than do fathers and daughters. For example, in a study of young adult children over two generations, the bonds between mothers and children usually grew stronger over time, whereas those with fathers did not (Bengston & Roberts, 2002). Most mothers also say they feel closer to their young adult daughters than to their sons (Suitor & Pillemer, 2006). In data gathered over a 15-year period from more than 300 college women, 91% said they were more comfortable talking to their mothers and felt closer to her than to their father (Nielsen, 2006). Even in their old age, fathers receive less attention and less assistance from their daughters than mothers do, regardless of whether the parents are divorced or widowed (Lin, 2008). Overall then, daughters are closer to and share more information with their mothers (Fingerman, Whiteman, & Dotterer, 2010).

Interestingly, how close young adults feel to their fathers seems to have more impact on daughters than on sons, as evidenced by a British study that followed 13,000 children from birth until age 33 (Flouri, 2005). Those who felt close to their fathers as young children were the most likely to feel close to him

as adolescents and as 33-year-old adults. The correlation, however, was stronger for daughters than for sons. That is, feeling close to her father as a young girl was a stronger predictor of how close she felt to him as an adolescent or as a 33-year-old. Regardless of family income or whether the parents had stayed married, adult children who had felt close to their fathers in childhood were better off in terms of depression, antisocial behavior, and the quality of their own marriages. Two findings are especially noteworthy. First, a daughter's academic and career success was closely related to how close she felt to her father, whereas a son's was not. Second, daughters' marital happiness and rates of clinical depression were more closely associated than sons' with feeling close to their fathers. In short, feeling close to dad as a child had a greater impact on adult daughters than on adult sons (Flouri, 2005).

Because feeling close to other people is related to how much personal information we share with them, we might ask: Why do young adult daughters usually share more personal information with their mothers? Aside from the fact that our society's gender roles promote more personal communication between females, a study with 1,012 college students offers other possible answers. Only 10% of sons and daughters believed their father was a "principal source" of attachment and support, compared with 55% who believed it of their mothers. Daughters, however, withheld more personal information than sons did from their fathers because they believed their dads would be more disapproving than their moms. The daughters also felt less comfortable arguing with their fathers because they said it took longer to recover afterward than when they argued with their mothers. Although most daughters believed their fathers were reliable allies who offered good advice on nonpersonal topics, they sought advice on personal matters mainly from their mothers (Freeman & Almond, 2011). Likewise, in another study with Asian American undergraduates, daughters felt more stressed than sons by the generation gap they believed existed between them and their fathers (Phares, Renk, & Duhig, 2009). It appears then that daughters may share less because they assume—rightly or wrongly—that their fathers will be more critical and disapproving.

Because daughters generally share more personal information with their mothers, we might wonder what information is considered "personal"? In a study with 238 undergraduates, 22% of whom were African American, sons and daughters defined "personal" in similar ways and shared more personal information with their mothers. The most personal topic was sex. Roughly 16% of these young adults had discussed sex with their mother, 10% with their father, 58% with a friend, and 61% with the person they were dating. The next most personal topic was physical or sexual abuse, with 52% having talked to their mothers and 23% to their fathers about this. Other personal topics included psychological problems (39% discussed with mom and 26% with dad), self-esteem issues (53% mom and 32% dad), moral issues or illegal activities (20% mom, 25% dad), and unplanned pregnancies

(26% mom, 13% dad). Daughters shared more with their mothers and less with their fathers than sons did, regardless of whether the topics were personal or not (Mathews et al., 2006). Likewise, in another study involving 300 undergraduates, daughters shared less with their fathers than sons, and both sons and daughters shared more information with their mothers than with their fathers (Proulx & Helms, 2008).

One reason young adult daughters disclose less to their fathers might be related to their feelings about disappointing their dads. In a study with 377 male and female undergraduates, students said their mothers were more critical of daughters than of their sons—and that fathers were more critical of their sons than of their daughters. Both sons and daughters believed their parents were disappointed in them over similar issues: having sex, using drugs, doing poorly in school or in sports, behaving irresponsibly (letting the car run out of gas, bouncing checks), not communicating enough, or being disrespectful to family members. Daughters, however, were more worried than sons that their father would disapprove of their sexual decisions. Contrary to what the daughters expected, most of their fathers were less disappointed in the fact that their daughter was having sex than in the particular man she chose to have sex with (Miller & Lee, 2001). Still, even though their expectations are often wrong, this might help explain why daughters are less willing to share personal information with their fathers.

Are there ways other than sharing personal information that daughters can feel close to their fathers? It would appear so. In a small but intensive study involving 30 sons and daughters with an average age of 32, several noteworthy findings emerged in terms of what made them feel close to each parent as they moved through adulthood. Nearly one-third felt closer to their fathers when they “did things with him,” whereas only 6% said this made them feel closer to their mothers. Most believed their mothers expressed closeness by being physically affectionate, whereas their fathers expressed closeness by spending time with them. Leaving home for college decreased closeness to their mothers (85%) more than to their fathers (56%). In contrast, getting engaged or married increased closeness to mothers (36%) only somewhat more than to fathers (26%). Surprisingly, becoming parents themselves did not dramatically increase their closeness to their own parents. Only 13% felt closer to their father and only 26% felt closer to their mother after having children themselves. Keeping in mind that all these adult children were White and 90% had attended or graduated from college, the overall finding is still worth noting: how close daughters feel to each parent is related to different types of events (Golish, 2012).

Along the same lines, there appear to be certain turning points or significant events that affect how close fathers and daughters feel to one another, according to interviews with 43 fathers and daughters who were not related to one another (Morman, 2012). Again, this was a highly educated group of people, with nearly 80% of the fathers (ages 45 to 70) and 65% of the

daughters (ages 22 to 49) having college degrees. According to both fathers and daughters, participating in activities together was the most important way of feeling closer, especially athletic activities. Some daughters also mentioned working with their dads or vacationing alone with him. The second most frequent turning point for both was daughters getting married. In cases where the father disliked the new husband, closeness of course decreased. The fathers' third significant event was when their daughters started dating, which generally decreased their closeness because their daughters grew more distant and less communicative—and because fathers began the process of letting go. The daughters' third event was leaving home for college, which most believed had increased closeness because their fathers treated them more like adults. Much more than fathers, daughters believed that having children made them feel closer to their dads because they were better able to understand what he had gone through as a parent. In other words, fathers and daughters do not always have the same feelings about which events bring them closer and which do not.

### LIFELONG REACTIONS TO STRESSFUL SITUATIONS

Finally, an emerging body of research is demonstrating a link between the ways young adult deal with stressful events and the quality of their relationships with their parents during childhood. The quality of the parent–child relationships and overall family functioning has a physiological impact on the activity of the hypothalamus, pituitary, and adrenal glands—not only while the children are living in that family but in their adult years as well. These glands control the level of cortisol in the body, which helps reduce stress when released in appropriate amounts when we feel physically or emotionally threatened or challenged. For fathers and daughters this means the quality of their relationship appears to have an impact on her cortisol levels as an adult. That is, people with abnormal cortisol levels are at higher risk for a wide range of behavioral and physical health problems, including sleep disturbances, obesity, high blood pressure, asthma, alcoholism, smoking, heart disease, chronic pain disorders, somatic symptoms, fibromyalgia, chronic fatigue syndrome, and autoimmune diseases (Byrd, Auer, Grander, & Massey, 2012; Luecken, Kraft, & Hagan, 2009).

To test this hypothesis with regard to father–daughter relationships, 88 undergraduate women rated their relationships with their fathers. As predicted, those who gave their relationships poor ratings had lower than normal cortisol levels, which, in turn, was related to being overly sensitive to emotional changes and having less control over emotions. In the experiment the women were asked to talk to a friend about any topic for a short period of time. Those with the lower cortisol levels and the worst relationships with their fathers were more likely to talk about stressful situations in

their relationships than the women who had better relationships with their fathers and normal cortisol levels. In other words, there was a correlation between having a poor relationship with their fathers, lower cortisol levels, and talking about stress in their relationships in terms of rejection, unpredictability, or coercion. In whatever ways these factors are interacting, this is the first study to demonstrate that the quality of the father–daughter relationship is potentially related to how well daughters cope with stress in their adult peer relationships (Byrd et al., 2012). Likewise, in another study with 76 college students, sons and daughters who had negative, stressful family situations as children had lower cortisol levels after participating in stressful role playing situation than the students who had not experienced family adversity as children (Luecken et al., 2009). In sum, the father–daughter relationship appears to have a far-reaching physical impact on the daughter's physiological ability to deal with stress—and on an array of lifelong stress-related health problems.

## CONCLUSION

During the early adult years, daughters face an array of new and challenging situations. Among the most important are academic and career development; romantic relationships; mental health in regard to anxiety, eating disorders, or clinical depression; and physiological responses in dealing with stressful situations. This review of recent research underscores the impact that fathers have on these aspects of their daughters' lives. Despite the increasingly loud chorus of researchers emphasizing the importance of fathers in child development, there is still too little emphasis placed on building and strengthening father–daughter relationships—and on maintaining or improving the quality of these relationships during daughters' adult years. Informed by this research, mental health practitioners, college educators, and others involved in working with families will hopefully make father–daughter relationships a higher priority, especially during the years of emerging adulthood.

## REFERENCES

- AGI. (2010). *America's teenagers sex and reproductive health*. New York, NY: Alan Guttmacher Institute.
- Agras, S. (2007). Fathers influence on daughters eating disorders. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 56, 110–119.
- Allgood, S., Beckett, T., & Peterson, C. (2012). The role of the father in psychological well being of young adult daughters. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 33, 15–26.
- Bengston, V., & Roberts, R. (2002). *How families still matter: A longitudinal study of youth in two generations*. New York, NY: Cambridge Press.

- Biggs, M. (2010). Factors associated with delayed childbearing in Latinas. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 33*, 77–103.
- Black, K., & Schutte, E. (2006). Recollections of being loved. *Journal of Family Issues, 27*, 1459–1480.
- Bogle, K. (2008). *Hooking up: sex and relationships on campus*. New York, NY: New York University.
- Botta, R., & Dumlao, R. (2002). Conflict and communication between fathers and daughters. *Health Communication, 14*, 199–219.
- Byrd, J., Auer, B., Grander, D., & Massey, A. (2012). The father-daughter dance: relationship quality and daughters' stress response. *Journal of Family Psychology, 26*, 87–94.
- Creamer, E., & Laughlin, A. (2005). Self-authorship and women's career decision making. *Journal of College Student Development, 46*, 13–27.
- Danes, S., Frieman, B., & Kitzmann, K. (2006). Young adults' reports of parenting. *Journal of General Psychology, 133*, 5–18.
- Elliott, C. (2010). Fathers, daughters, and anorexia nervosa. *Perspectives in Psychiatric Care, 46*, 37–47.
- England, P., & Thomas, R. (2006). Rise of the college hook up. In D. Skolnick (Ed.), *Families in Transition* (pp. 151–162). Boston, MA: Allyn Bacon.
- Fingerman, K., Whiteman, S., & Dotterer, A. (2010). Mother child relationships in adolescence and old age. In H. Reis & S. Sprecher (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of human relationships* (pp. 48–52). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Flouri, E. (2005). *Fathering and child outcomes*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Freeman, H., & Almond, T. (2011). Young adults' use of fathers for attachment support. In L. Newland, H. Freeman, & D. Coyl (Eds.), *Emerging topics in father attachment* (pp. 218–240). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Golish, T. (2012). Changes in closeness between adult children and their parents. *Communication Reports, 13*, 79–97.
- Haberman, H., & Danes, S. M. (2007). Father-daughter and father-son family business management transfer. *Family Business Review, 20*, 163–184.
- Harris Interactive. (2008). *College relationships*. New York, NY: Harris Polls.
- Hutchinson, K., & Cederbaum, J. (2010). Talking to daddy's little girl about sex. *Journal of Family Issues, 38*, 1–14.
- Katz, J. (2010). Father emotional responsiveness and college women's sexual refusal behaviors. *American Journal of Family Therapy, 38*, 344–356.
- Kay, T. (2010). *Fathering through sports and leisure*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Kim, J., & Ward, M. (2007). Silence speaks volumes—parental sexual communication among Asian American emerging adults. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 22*, 3–31.
- Lamb, M. (2010). *Role of the father in child development*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Last, R. (2009). Parental attachment styles of late adolescents. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 47*, 316–329.
- Leonard, L. (1998). *The wounded woman: Healing the father-daughter wound*. Boston, MA: Shambhala.
- Li, C., & Kerpelman, J. (2007). Parental influences on young women's career aspirations. *Sex Roles, 56*, 105–115.
- Lin, F. (2008). Adult children's support of frail parents. *Marriage and the Family, 70*, 113–128.

- Lobo, R. (2010). *Fathers, daughters and sports*. New York, NY: Ballantine Books.
- Luecken, L., Kraft, A., & Hagan, M. (2009). Negative relationships in the family predict attenuated cortisol in emerging adults. *Hormones and behavior, 55*, 412–417.
- Maine, M. (2004). *Father hunger: fathers, daughters and the pursuit of thinness*. New York, NY: Gurze.
- Mathews, A., Derlega, V., & Morrow, J. (2006). What is highly personal information? *Communication Research Reports, 23*, 85–92.
- Miller, M., & Lee, J. (2001). Communicating disappointment. *Journal of Family Communications, 1*, 111–131.
- Morman, M. (2012). Turning points of closeness in the father daughter relationship. *Journal of Family Issues, 44*, 1–10.
- Morrill, M., & Hellerstein, J. (2009). Father's impact on daughter's career. *Journal of Human Resources, 46*, 333–372.
- Murdock, M. (2005). *Fathers' daughters*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Nielsen, L. (2006). College daughters' relationships with their fathers: A fifteen year study. *College Student Journal, 54*, 16–30.
- Nielsen, L. (2012). *Fathers and daughters: contemporary research and issues*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Perkins, R. (2001). Father-daughter relationships and family interactions. *College Student Journal, 35*, 616–626.
- Phares, V., Renk, K., & Duhig, A. (2009). Gender differences in positive and negative feelings between adolescents and their fathers and mothers. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 18*, 213–218.
- Proulx, C., & Helms, H. (2008). Change in relationships with young adult sons and daughters. *Journal of Family Issues, 29*, 234–261.
- Ravi, S., Forsberg, S., & Fitzpatrick, K. (2009). Parental psychopathology and adolescents with anorexia nervosa. *Eating Disorders, 17*, 71–83.
- Regerus, M., & Uecker, J. (2011). *Premarital sex in America*. Cambridge, MA: Oxford University Press.
- Rosenthal, S. (2010). *The unavailable father*. New York, NY: Jossey Bass.
- Sanftner, J., Ryan, W., & Pierce, P. (2009). Body image in college men and women. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy, 23*, 262–280.
- Sarkadi, A., Kirstiansson, R., Oberklai, F., & Bremberg, S. (2008). Fathers' involvement and children's developmental outcomes. *Acta Paediatrica, 97*, 153–158.
- Schaick, K., & Stolberg, A. (2001). Paternal involvement and young adults' intimate relationships. *Journal of Divorce and Remarriage, 36*, 99–121.
- Schalet, A. (2006). *Raging hormones, regulated love*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago.
- Scharf, M., & Mayseless, O. (2008). Late adolescent girls' relationships with parents and romantic partner. *Journal of Adolescence, 31*, 837–855.
- Scott, M., Schelar, E., Manlove, J., & Cui, C. (2010). *Young adult attitudes about relationships and marriage*. Washington, DC: Child Trends Research Center.
- Simon, C. (2001). *Fatherless women*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Steinberg, B. (2001). The making of female presidents and prime ministers. *Political Psychology, 22*, 89–114.
- Strayhorn, J. (2009). Religiosity and teen pregnancy. *Journal of Reproductive Health, 44*, 14–27.

- Suitor, J., & Pillemer, K. (2006). Why mothers favor adult daughters over sons. *Sociological Perspectives, 49*, 139–161.
- Thompson, R., & Berenbaum, H. (2009). Rejection and depression in the context of women's relationships with their parents. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 26*, 327–339.
- Videon, T. (2005). Parent child relationships and adolescents' psychological well being. *Journal of Family Issues, 26*, 55–78.
- Vigil, J., & Geary, D. (2006). Parenting and women's life-history development. *Journal of Family Psychology, 20*, 597–604.
- Wilder, J., & Cain, C. (2012). Teaching and learning color consciousness in black families. *Journal of Family Issues, 32*, 577–604.
- Willms, N. (2009). Fathers and daughters: Relationships in sport. In T. Kay (Ed.), *Fathering through sport and leisure* (pp. 122–145). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Zucker, N. (2007). Anorexia nervosa and autism spectrum disorders. *Psychological Bulletin, 133*, 43–49.