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The Influence of Menarche on Fathers' Perceptions of Father-Daughter Relationships

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THE INFLUENCE OF MENARCHE ON FATHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF FATHER-
DAUGHTER RELATIONSHIPS

by

Jennifer L. Mueller
Master of Arts, University of North Dakota, 2000
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A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of the

University of North Dakota

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

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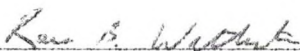
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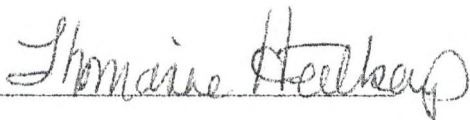
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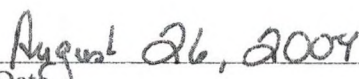




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ABSTRACT

Adolescence is a time of transformation for a young girl and her relationships with her parents. One way to conceptualize the evolving dynamics between father and adolescent daughter is to use the Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems. The purpose of this study is to examine the differences in relationships between fathers and their premenarchal daughters, girls who have not had their first menstrual period, compared to fathers and postmenarchal daughters, girls who have experienced their first menstrual period. The participants completed three questionnaires. The Demographic questionnaire included general demographic questions in order to learn more about the participants. The Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales II-Modified assessed family cohesion and family adaptability. The Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale-Modified assessed the degree of open family communication and extent of problems in father-daughter communication. The overall hypothesis was that there would be a fundamental difference in fathers' relationships with their daughters as the girls experience menarche. Specifically, it was believed that fathers and premenarchal daughters would have more balanced relationships compared to fathers and postmenarchal daughters. In addition, the effect of amount of time that fathers spend with their daughters was examined.

It is important to study this father-daughter relationship because this knowledge may help reduce the conflict that can occur during adolescence and may help a father feel more connected to and open with his daughter. Menarchal status only accounted for a

significant difference on the Cohesion subscale between fathers of premenarchal and postmenarchal daughters. Menarchal status did not account for any significant differences in levels of communication between fathers of premenarchal or postmenarchal daughters. The results also showed the amount of time that fathers spend with their daughters significantly effects balanced relationships, levels of Cohesion and Adaptability, and Open Family Communication. The results suggest that the amount of time that father spend with their daughters may have a stronger effect on the father-daughter relationship than the daughters' menarchal status. Continued research should focus on an intensive, longitudinal study that incorporates the daughter's perspective and examines the influence of other biopsychosocial variables of pubertal development on the father-daughter relationship.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The relationship between a father and daughter is a unique symbiosis.

Undoubtedly the bond between parent and child is an intense and complex relationship that endures many ups and downs during its lifetime. Perhaps the father-daughter dyad is so special because fathers are traditionally associated with their same gendered sons. It is generally assumed that girls have a closer relationship and are more influenced by their mother and that boys are closer and involved in more activities with their father (Youniss & Ketterlinus, 1987). This is not to suggest that men cannot connect with or parent girls, but rather this relationship is different from the mother-daughter relationship. However, this idea does not account for the important role and impact that the other gendered parent has on an adolescent girl.

It may be useful to be able to understand the patterns of interaction between father and daughter that occur throughout the span of adolescence. A father has the ability to impact his daughter in several important areas of her life, such as her self-esteem, gender role socialization, and how she learns to interact and relate with men in general (Harris et al., 1998). By studying the complex father-daughter relationship, counselors and family members may be able to gain a greater understanding of the influence that a father has on his impressionable adolescent. This knowledge may help reduce the conflict that often occurs during adolescence (Laursen, Coy, & Collins, 1998) and may help a daughter feel more connected to and open with her father. In examining these relationships, it may also

be beneficial to understand how a girl's relationship with her father may affect her individuation and separation from her family. This is not to minimize the tremendous role of the mother during this stage of lifetime development, but rather to gain more knowledge about the role of the father in a young woman's life.

One indication of the unique relationship between dads and daughters is the commonly heard phrase "daddy's little girl". This is an affectionate term that is often used when describing young daughters. There is a sense of pride, tenderness, protection, and love associated with these words. A father is usually the first important man in a female's life and for many girls being referred to as "daddy's little girl" is a form of connection and attachment. For a father, the time spent with his little girl is often characterized by fun and play during childhood (Montemayor & Brownlee, 1987). However as the daughter ages and develops, something happens to this father-daughter relationship that undeniably impacts and alters their bond (Steinberg, 1988).

Sometime during late childhood and early adolescence, fathers and daughters seem to lose their initial connectedness. Typically a daughter does not want to be called "little" and instead wants to be viewed as a maturing adult. In addition to the daughter's developmental transformations, a father is going through his own mid-life developmental processes and changes. The combination of these changes can be a difficult transition for a father to make because he is becoming more uncertain and unfamiliar with his daughter. Unfortunately there is no similar loving term that fathers use to describe their adolescent/young adult daughters that reflects their developing status. This lack of comparable terms used to describe the maturing father-daughter relationship is just one of

the many changes that fathers endure as they watch their daughters develop from little girls into women.

One of the most telling signals of a young daughter's progress through the developmental stages is menarche, which refers to the onset of menses or the first menstrual period. This developmental milestone brings and contributes to numerous other changes in the adolescent's life including physiological, psychological, social, and familial status. Trad (1993) found that a young girl's passage to womanhood as a result of menarche can have a radical effect on family life and structure. For parents, it can be not only a reminder of the growth and maturation of their daughter but also an indication of their own advancing age. As a result, puberty and menarche can be a time of confusion and uncertainty for both a young girl and her parents.

Father-daughter relationships go through many changes and fluctuations in their lifetime. As one member of this dyad changes, the whole relationship will be impacted and altered. One particularly crucial time is when the daughter is experiencing puberty and adolescence, while at the same time the father is apt to be experiencing middle age and his own transformations. These developmental changes can impact the father-daughter relationship via amount of interaction, conflict, and communication. One way to better understand these family dynamics is to utilize the Circumplex Model of Family Systems. This model utilizes of family cohesion, flexibility, and communication variables to understand the dynamics of balanced and unbalanced family systems. This model can be utilized to describe some of the changes that fathers and daughters experience in their relationship as daughters progress through puberty. This paper will review influential areas related to fathers' relationship with their developing adolescent daughters,

including menarche, fatherhood, father-adolescent relationships, communication, conflict, developmental transitions, and how the Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems can be used to conceptualize the complex father-daughter relationship. Within this paper, I will review the purpose of this research study, present its four main hypotheses, and describe the methods of investigation associated with this study. In addition, I will present the results of the research, a discussion of the findings which include clinical, theoretical, and empirical implications, and the conclusions of this research study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Adolescence is a time of numerous transformations for girls, as well as their families. Not only does a girl's body transform, but also her relationships with her parents, especially her father, also change. Researchers and the general society are beginning to acknowledge the role that fathers play in parenting their children for fathers are gradually being viewed as meaningful, encouraging, and involved in their children's lives (Harris et al., 1998). Unfortunately, actual paternal involvement is still low in comparison to the mother's involvement (Amato, 1994). During adolescence, daughters are likely to perceive their fathers as less involved in their lives than their mothers (Youniss & Ketterlinus, 1987). There are likely numerous biological, psychological, and social factors that contribute to the transformations that occur during puberty between a girl and her father. One of the most overt signs of change is menarche.

Menarche

One of the most telling signals of a young daughter's progress through the developmental stages is menarche, which refers to the onset of menses or the first menstrual period. This developmental milestone brings and contributes to numerous other changes in the adolescent's life including physiological, psychological, social, and familial status. Trad (1993) found that a young girl's passage to womanhood as a result of menarche could have a radical effect on family life and structure. For parents, it can be not only a reminder of the growth and maturation of their daughter but also an indication

of their own advancing age. As a result, puberty and menarche can be a time of confusion and uncertainty for both a young girl and her parents.

During puberty a female's experience of menarche is a pivotal event that signifies a sharp demarcation point in her life. After this event, a girl is biologically ready and sexually mature to become pregnant and bear children. The information and education associated with sex, puberty, and menarche typically is relayed to a girl from her mother, older sister, friends, school, and the media (Britton, 1996). Important sources of information for girls have been found to come from mothers and friends, with mothers providing the facts and friends discussing their real experiences. While girls may talk to their mothers about menstruation, they rarely do with their fathers (Koff & Rierdan, 1995). The father is almost completely absent as a source of sex education to boys or girls (Amann-Gainotti, 1986).

Historically and throughout various cultures menstruation and menstrual blood have been considered negatively. This likely adds to the secrecy and seclusion that many girls observe after experiencing menarche. In some societies there is shame associated with menstruation, while in other cultures secrecy is upheld to protect men. The media is a strong contributor by developing advertisements that reinforce the idea that certain products will allow a woman to better manage and necessarily conceal her menstruation (Britton, 1996). For many girls, it is probably a combination of many cultural and personal factors that contribute to their secretiveness and discomfort in discussing their menarche or menstruation. Early on, some girls develop the idea that they must hide evidence of their menstruation from boys, brothers, and fathers (Lee, 1994).

The first menses can come as quite a surprise for many girls. In a qualitative study by Lee (1994) women described using numerous different materials, such as toilet paper and tissues, to help them hide and cope with their first period. Women also went to great lengths to hide, throw away, or wash away the evidence. In addition, women reported modifying their clothes and activities to avoid the embarrassment of others discovering her menstruating (Lee, 1994). Due to the great lengths that girls go to hide their menarche and menstruation, it is no wonder that men often have little knowledge when women in their family are menstruating. Men are kept from learning this information and are encouraged to accept women's secret (Laws, 1990).

The parent's reaction to menarche not only has an impact on the daughter's reaction but it also impacts the parent-daughter relationship. Although the event itself is influential in a family, the timing of the menarche is also significant, whether it occurs early or late. The girls who mature early tend to have more difficulties and less cohesion than others, perhaps due to the lack of preparation by both the parent and child (Holmbeck & Hill, 1991). Steinberg (1987) found that pubertal maturation, along with chronological age, is associated with diminished closeness between girls and their parents. In the father-daughter dyad, physically mature girls reported less cohesion, communication, less acceptance by their fathers than less physically mature girls. From the fathers' point of view, fathers' reported less cohesion with physically mature girls than with less physically mature girls (Steinberg, 1987).

According to Trad (1993), as an adolescent undergoes the dramatic transformations caused by puberty, the structure of the family will need to be redefined. Hill, Holmbeck, Marlow, Green and Lynch (1985) conducted a study that examined the

differences in parental warmth-hostility and autonomy-control between premenarchal and postmenarchal girls. They found that postmenarchal daughters perceived less parental influence by their fathers, as well as less acceptance by the fathers. In addition, mothers were also perceived as less accepting by postmenarchal versus premenarchal girls. Daughters in the study also reported being less influenced by their parents and seeking less guidance from the family in the immediate months that follow menarche. Pubertal maturation and menarche may lead to increases in father-daughter conflict as the girl seeks to change the behavior pattern associated with being "daddy's little girl" (Trad, 1993).

Research and Fatherhood

Historical Perspectives

In an attempt to understand the social ideology of fatherhood, LaRossa, Gordon, Wilson, Bairan, and Jaret (1991) reviewed single panel cartoons published in the *Saturday Evening Post* every four years for twenty years from 1924 to 1944. LaRossa et. al. (1991) found that over the years fathers were a little less likely to be portrayed as incompetent in the cartoon. However, when the father was portrayed incompetently it was in the context of child socialization and discipline. In a similarly designed study, Day and Mackey (1986) reviewed cartoons from 1922 to 1968 and 1971 to 1978. In the earlier time period, fathers were more likely to than mothers to be depicted incompetently. However during the later timeframe, mothers were as likely as fathers to be portrayed ineptly. Day and Mackey (1986) concluded that the 1970's were a significant period in history for fatherhood because society was beginning to make a clear paradigm switch in their perception of fathers. Three factors were likely strongly

influential in this standard switch: an increase in the percentage of mothers entering the labor markets, the decline of birth rates, and an increase of positive support of equality in gender roles and duties within the family (Day & Mackey, 1986).

Unfortunately, fathers have not received the same attention and research as mothers from the public's perception or the academic world. There are many possible reasons and barriers that have prevented further research about the role and impact of fathers (Heath, 1978). For example, fathers typically were thought to be unavailable because they were employed outside the home. This led researchers to study mothers because they were presumed to be the children's primary caretakers and available at home. Consequently, data was collected from the involved mother rather than the peripheral father figure. This contributed to the assumption that fathers had little influence on children's development (Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth, & Lamb, 2000).

Current Perspectives

Slowly over the past several years both society and scientists have begun to realize the important role of the father in childrearing. It is becoming socially acceptable for mothers to work outside the home and fathers to be intimately involved in their children's lives. While it is socially acknowledged that the involvement of both parents in a child's life is ideal, parents differ in the ways that they relate to their children. Researchers have shown that fathers and mothers have distinct interaction patterns with their infants and that they continue to differ in parenting styles as the child moves through adolescence (Montemayor & Brownlee, 1987). Adolescents are aware of their parents' different styles. They tend to link emotional qualities to their mother, while

attributing formal and rigid characteristics to their fathers. For example, adolescents generally perceive their mothers as a combination of authority, equality, intimacy, and conflict. In comparison, fathers are viewed as authority figures that dispense advice on practical matters and offer guidelines for behaviors (Paulson & Spota, 1996). Research also indicates that both adolescents and parents see mothers as more responsive, demanding, and involved in the parenting process than fathers (Paulson & Spota, 1996).

The changing perception and roles of fathers has generated an increase of research as a means to better understand how fathers interact and influence their children. A great deal has been written about the new father, both for the scholastic and general population. Books by noted comedians such as Paul Reiser and Bill Cosby provide a humorous reflection of the struggles and rewards of fatherhood. On the other hand, empirical studies have been conducted that examine specific factors such as communication and relational patterns of fathers. Both styles of writing depict an image of the “new father” who is expressive, nurturing, and highly involved in his children’s lives (Harris et al., 1998). This is in stark contrast to the fathers of yesteryear who were considered cold, distant, unemotional financial providers of the family. The traditional paternal role as the family breadwinner typically only allowed for a father’s disciplinary role with his children. Yet the “new father” image advocates for an equal balance of familial duties by blending both paternal and maternal roles (Harris & Morgan, 1991). However, a contradiction exists as men often receive the message that their parenting should not jeopardize their ability to make the most amount of money for their family.

Over the past century, a shift in views has occurred regarding fathers and fatherhood. There is a general belief that fathers should be more involved and invested in

providing care for children because it is more equitable to mothers and there are benefits for the children (Amato, 1996). Research seems to indicate that fathers can have a positive impact on their children's development (Harris et al., 1998). Paternal involvement and nurturance have been positively associated with children's intellectual development, social competence, and internal locus of control (Amato, 1996). An authoritative type of parenting, characterized by high levels of control, nurturance, maturity demands, and communication, by fathers and mothers seems to be linked to these positive and healthy characteristics of involvement with children (Bee, 1994). High levels of warmth, open and regular communication, appropriate maturity demands, and a moderate degree of control characterize the type of authoritative parenting that benefits both children and adolescents (Bee, 1994). When fathers do become highly invested and involved with their children, they report feeling closer to their children, being more attentive to their development and growth, and feeling more important to their children (Harris & Morgan, 1991).

In addition to the positive effects on children, Heath (1978) found becoming a father had significant impact for men. Compared to married men without children, fathers were more physically and psychologically healthy, more mature, and more competent. Although it appears that society has embraced the picture of the involved father and research indicates and supports the positive influence that a man can have on his children, the actual practice of parenting and fatherhood is not as ideal as we have imagined.

Images Vs. Reality

Despite this glorified and heavily promoted image of the "new father", there seems to be little empirical evidence that fathers are actually making this transition of

being more emotionally and physically invested with their children and families. It is clear that not all of the research indicates a strong and positive paternal influence. For example, paternal involvement is still low in comparison to the mother's involvement (Amato, 1994). Way and Gillman (2000) have also shown that fathers are often less involved emotionally, less communicative, and less intimate with their adolescents as compared to mothers. Some research has indicated that the main role that fathers play in their children's lives is as an economic contributor and that they have little influence in their children's well-being and development (Amato, 1996). There have been methodological problems with some of the research because it is difficult to factor out the quality and impact of the mother-child relationship when examining father-child relationships. Even though the majority of research tends to indicate a positive influence of fathers on their children, fathers still only spend a small portion of their time in childcare duties when compared to mothers (Amato, 1996).

Father-Adolescent Relationships

Studies have shown that mothers and fathers have different styles of relating and interacting with their children (Montemayor & Brownlee, 1987). Mother's interactions with children tend to be dominated by care-giving activities, while fathers are more likely to play with the children. Mothers tend to spend more time with their adolescents, and when adolescents do spend time with their fathers, the mother is likely to also be present (Montemayor & Brownlee, 1987). Research also indicates that adolescents tend to view their mothers as more open to listening to problems and understanding their feelings than their fathers (Youniss & Ketterliness, 1987). Paulson, Hill, and Holmbeck (1991) found

that both boys and girls reported greater closeness with their mother than father. In addition, mothers reported greater closeness with their children than did fathers.

A study by Youniss and Ketterlinus (1987) examined how well adolescents thought their parents knew them. While daughters and sons indicated that their mothers knew them about equally well, daughters reported that their fathers knew them significantly less well when compared to sons' reports. This study also showed that fathers know less about their adolescent children as they age. Through self-reports, daughters indicated that they talk more often and openly with their mothers than their fathers. This may stem from the belief that daughters feel that their fathers may be disinterested in their thoughts and feelings (Youniss and Ketterlinus 1987).

Most research indicates that fathers spend more time with their sons than with their daughters (Montemayor & Brownlee, 1987; Harris et al., 1998). Youniss and Ketterlinus (1987) found that sons reported that their fathers knew them better than daughters reported. This seems to support the studies that show males report significantly more emotional and behavioral involvement with their fathers than do girls (Harris, Furstenberg, and Marmer, 1998). Unlike girls, boys tend to discuss themselves less openly with their parents. However, when boys do talk and share details of their lives, they tend to disclose equally with both parents (Youniss and Ketterlinus, 1987). Sons tend to spend more time with their father than their mother, and this time is often spent doing leisure or recreational activities (Montemayor & Brownlee, 1987). With age, boys tend to spend less time with their fathers and families and this previous family time is replaced with more time alone (Larson & Richards, 1991).

According to Lieberman, Doyle, and Markiewicz (1999) older adolescent girls perceive their fathers as less available than younger girls, as well as less available compared to their mothers. Younger girls were equally dependent on their mother and father, while older girls were less dependent on fathers than mothers. The age difference in reliance on fathers may be attributed to the fact that older girls may view their mothers as more available since the women are able to discuss concerns related to their similar reproductive and biological events (i.e. menstruation). This age difference is not surprising other studies have indicated changes in girls' relationships with their fathers during adolescence (Youniss & Ketterlinus, 1987). However, it is unclear if fathers become less available to their daughters as the girls begin to experience puberty, if the adolescent daughters extract themselves from their fathers, or if the processes occur simultaneously (Lieberman et al., 1999). Another possible explanation is that girls report greater closeness with their mothers than fathers because of the additional time that they spend with their mothers and consequently have more invested in the daughter-mother relationship than the daughter-father relationship.

In conclusion, the research suggests that daughters perceive their father as less available and open than their mothers and fathers know their daughters less well, especially as the girls age (Lieberman, Doyle, & Markiewicz, 1999; Montemayor & Brownlee, 1987 and Youniss & Ketterlinus, 1987). However, previous research on fatherhood tends to be focused on the impacts of non-residential fathers and utilized a non-random sample (Harris & Morgan, 1991). Consequently, it is crucial that future research address the influences of residential fathers.

Changes in Parent-Adolescent Relationships

According to Paikoff and Brooks-Gunn (1991), there are many factors that influence changes in parent-child relationships during puberty and adolescence. First, parental expectations and anxiety about the potential changes are likely to influence and or impede a relationship with the teenager. Parents are apt to reflect back to their own adolescence, talk with other parents and take in messages from the media that are frequently inaccurate about the “storm and stress” that accompanies adolescent development. The stereotypes and anxiety that parents encounter may have an unfortunate negative effect on their own relationship with their teen. For instance, parents may attempt to overly restrict and control their child’s behavior as a preventative measure, despite the fact that no such harsh changes are warranted from the child’s current behavioral repertoire. Consequently, teens may respond to new demands by rebelling and performing the very behavior that the parents were trying to prevent. Unfortunately, this may create a cycle in which no one is happy and no one gets along. Researchers have found that parent-child relationships change most acutely and negatively at the height of the biological changes of puberty (Steinberg & Hill, 1978). Greater conflict and emotional distancing, as well as less cohesion and acceptance between parents and adolescents characterize these changes.

Conflict

The maturation process of puberty tends to lead to more assertiveness by adolescents (Bee, 1994). During this time, teens tend to develop more formal thought processes, which are used to create new ideals about how they want to be treated by their parents (Atwater, 1996). At the same time, parents tend to increase their concern and

guiding and controlling behaviors as a way to help the adolescent avoid the problems linked with too much independence that the adolescent can not handle (Bee, 1994). Elkind (1967) theorized that adolescent egocentrism tends to emerge with the onset of formal operational thought. This egocentrism contributes to adolescents' beliefs that others are paying more attention to them and adolescents also perceive themselves as special and unique, which may lead to an increase of self-consciousness. Parent-child relationships are certainly influenced by this egocentric behavior. For example, a child may feel frustrated by their parents' lack of understanding because the parents are clueless or have no idea what the child is experiencing. The child is forgetting that the parents at one time also endured puberty and adolescence. This heightened egocentrism may also contribute to a child's inability or refusal to understand their parents' perspectives due to the fact that a child may only be able to comprehend and accept her/his own point of view.

In early adolescence, the rate of conflict between parents and adolescents increase. The conflict rate that is associated with parent-adolescent relationships seems to be curvilinear. In a meta-analysis of 37 studies, Laursen, Coy, and Collins (1998) found that parent-child conflict is most frequent during early adolescence when compared to childhood or any other stage of adolescence. In mid-adolescence, the conflict rate decreases, but the conflict becomes more heated and intense when compared to early adolescence. During late adolescence, the amount of conflict continues to decline, but there is still a large amount of negative affect associated with it. One possible explanation for the decline during late adolescence is that many children are leaving home for college or involved in work environments. Mueller (2000) also found a curvilinear pattern

relating to levels of attachment to and severity of problems with fathers from the perspective of early, middle, and late adolescent girls.

Seiffge-Krenke (1999) found that both parents and adolescents described the period from early adolescence to late adolescence as a time of significant changes in family cohesion, support, and expressiveness, with the teens indicating lower levels of these characteristics than the parents. While adolescents indicated lower levels of familial cohesion, support, and expressiveness than both parents, there were specific significant low levels of agreement between the adolescent-father dyad.

Adolescents' desire for autonomy may also contribute to the conflict between parents and adolescents. There are bound to be differences related to adolescents' attempts at autonomy and parents desire to control their child and hence conflict occurs. In a study by Pinquart and Srugies (1998) adolescents reported higher conflict rate with their mothers than their fathers. This may be attributed to the greater amount of time spent together with mothers and telling their mothers more about their activities and thoughts. In addition, there was a positive correlation between the amount of father-adolescent time spent together and the frequency of conflict. Due to the fact that fathers spend less time with their children, they have less knowledge about their adolescents' beliefs and activities and that differ from their own standards. This may contribute to the lack of conflict or less intense conflict between adolescents and fathers (Pinquart & Srugies, 1998).

Bulcroft (1991) hypothesized that some of the conflict that occurs between parents and adolescents can be attributed to the physical changes that are occurring during this life stage. He explained the rationale for his hypothesis by using a symbolic

interaction approach. A more mature physical appearance in an adolescent can result in the parents perceiving the adolescent as more adult-like and thus capable of more responsible behaviors. When this recognition occurs, parents tend to support and encourage the adolescent's emerging new self-identity. In contrast, conflict between parents and adolescents can occur when parents do not recognize the physical changes and thus do not offer more independence to their adolescent. As a result, there are more conflicting perspectives and opinions about the adolescent's capabilities and status (Bulcroft, 1991).

Often, the conflict and arguments between parents and children are about everyday issues, such as rules, school, style of dress, and chores around the home (Bee, 1994). Pinquart and Srugies (1998) found significant conflicts between parents and adolescents related to the adolescents' use of leisure time, use of money, friends, school, and occupational choices. This rise in conflict during adolescence does not necessarily indicate poor or deteriorating parent-adolescent relationships. Rather the minor conflicts typically represent the beginning stages of an adolescent's individuation and separation. This developmental process may be exhibited in adolescents' questioning and rejecting parental ideas, influence, and authority, as well as a decreasing dependency on their parents (Shulman & Klein, 1993). In psychosocial theory, this stage of adolescence is defined by one's search for mature identity that includes a sense of self and one's needs and wants (Bee, 1994). The parent-adolescent conflicts represent the struggle that adolescents face when trying to develop their identity.

Communication

Adolescents have distinctly different communication patterns with their mothers and their fathers. Generally, mothers have been described as more likely to listen to problems and to elucidate their feelings than fathers (Youniss & Ketterlinus, 1987). In addition, fathers are apt to have a restricted communication with both their daughters and sons because fathers tend to emphasize certain topics, like future education, but minimize other areas, such as friendship interactions. Communication between father and daughter is quite limited compared to interaction between mother and daughter, as daughters tend to be noticeably more open with their mothers. There are several plausible explanations for the reduced communication between daughters and their fathers. Daughters may believe that their fathers are not interested in their feelings and thus do not share their emotions with their fathers. It is also possible that some daughters believe their fathers are too critical. In addition, it is probable that fathers treat their daughters like a child and not the developing adolescent that they are (Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Whatever the reason, it indicates that the communication patterns between fathers and daughters is a dynamic component of their relationship that is frequently evolving (Youniss & Ketterlinus, 1987)

In a qualitative study, Way and Gillman (2000) found that girls typically expressed satisfaction with their fathers, but that they desired more interactions and conversations with their fathers. Paradoxically, adolescent girls vehemently stated that they do not share intimate or personal concerns with their fathers but instead go to their mothers with these issues. Interestingly, the conversations that girls have with their mothers tend to bring the mother-daughter pair closer, yet daughters deny this same

experience with their fathers. When girls are involved with their fathers, they are typically engaged in action-oriented relationships, such as doing shared leisure and recreational activities with them (Way & Gillman, 2000).

During puberty and adolescence, children and teens are apt to be confused, uncertain, and full of a diversity of questions, particularly about sex and sexuality. These are often difficult topics for both parent and child to bring up and discuss due to the sensitivity of the issues. It is important that parents address the biological changes of puberty and sex for many reasons. First, parents play a crucial role in preparing their children for adult life and sex is a component of adult's lives. It is also an avenue for parents to educate their children on their prescribed values and morals associated with sex. Finally, by creating an open and honest environment regarding sexuality, it is hoped that in the future children will turn to their parents with their concerns, questions, and problems (Feldman & Rosenthal, 2000). Despite the importance of an open dialogue, studies have revealed that there are still limited discussions about sex and sexuality between parent and child because that both parties find the conversations difficult (Rosenthal, Senserrick, & Feldman, 2001). When parents do communicate with their adolescents about sex and sexuality, the topics are typically focused on major developmental milestones and changes, such as menstruation (Feldman & Rosenthal, 2000). In addition, adolescents tend to view their parents' education efforts differently. Feldman and Rosenthal (2000) found that the mother-daughter pair was evaluated most positively and had the most frequent sex-related conversations. Daughters evaluated their fathers as having a more negative style of communication regarding sex and sex-related topics compared to mothers. Overall, both boys and girls indicated little correspondence

with their fathers about sex, as well as communication in general (Feldman & Rosenthal, 2000). Rosenthal, Senserrick, and Feldman (2001) also discovered that adolescents perceived their fathers' comfort and frequency regarding communication about sex as low. In addition, controlling and avoidant styles of communication frequently occurred.

Summary

Overall, the research shows that parents and children experience a change in their relationship as the child progresses through puberty (Seiffge-Krenke, 1999). This change is evident in the increasing conflict that may be influenced by adolescent's desire for autonomy (Bee, 1994) and physical changes with the adolescent (Bulcroft, 1991). However the research also shows that the conflict is not permanent and that the parent-child relationship does stabilize (Laursen, Coy, & Collins, 1998). Communication patterns also change between parent and adolescent, most notably a lack of communication between father and daughter (Youniss & Ketterlinus, 1987). When communication does occur, it is rarely about physiological or biological changes that a girl experiences in puberty (Rosenthal, Senserrick, & Feldman, 2001). Interestingly though, girls would like greater interactions with their fathers (Way & Gillman, 2000). Given that there is a temporary increase in conflict and a decrease in communication, fathers and daughters spend relatively little time together (Youniss & Ketterlinus, 1987). It is difficult to decipher the specific influence of the biological events of puberty, the decreased time together, or a combination of the two factors that contributes to the changed relationship between a father and his adolescent daughter.

Transitions

Not only are adolescent children experiencing developmental transitions, but so also are their fathers. By time their children reach adolescence and the teenage years, many fathers are apt to be entering midlife or middle age. Some researchers even suggest that this time of a man's life is as stressful as or greater than that experienced during adolescence (Levinson, 1977). There are various reasons which may explain why middle-aged fathers have difficulty parenting adolescents. First, these men are likely to be in Erickson's generativity stage and are attempting to teach and mentor their children to their own proscribed values, beliefs, and behaviors. However, the children they are trying to guide are going through their own struggles to develop independence and autonomy. Due to their middle-age status, many men are likely to ponder their own lives, accomplishments, and existence. Thus they may not be able to relate to or be sympathetic to their adolescent's difficulties and problems. Given the major changes that occur during puberty and adolescence, it is highly likely that there is going to be a degree of role adjustment and potential conflict that fathers endure with their teenage children. Julian, McKenny, and McKelvey (1991) found that a father's preoccupation with his own developmental processes and related crises might prohibit him from being very responsive or interactive with his adolescent child. Conversely, less mid-life developmental stress and more expressiveness were significantly related to a higher father-adolescent relationship. One way to conceptualize the evolving dynamics and relationships between father and daughter is to use the Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems.

Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems

Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems was developed to connect research, theory, and practice. It is a focused system that integrates three dimensions that have repeatedly been considered highly relevant in a variety of family theory models and family therapy approaches: family cohesion, adaptability, and communication (Olson, 2000). These three dimensions have been determined to be critical for understanding and assessing marital and family systems (Olson, 2000). The model is specifically utilized for clinical assessment, treatment planning and outcome effectiveness of marital and family therapy.

Family cohesion is defined as the emotional bonding that family members have towards one another (Olson, 2000). Cohesion within the family allows each individual to develop physical, emotional, and intellectual closeness with other family members (Romig & Bakken, 1992). Within the Circumplex Model some of the variables that are utilized to identify family cohesion dimensions are emotional bonding, boundaries, coalitions, time, space, friends, decision-making, interests, and recreation. The focus of the cohesion variable is how systems balance their separateness versus togetherness. There are four levels of cohesion: disengaged (very low), separated (low to moderate), connected (moderate to high), and enmeshed (very high). The model hypothesizes that central or balanced levels of cohesion (separated and connected) make for favorable family functioning (Olson, 2000; See Appendix A). With balanced levels of cohesion individual family members are able to experience and balance the extremes, while at the same time be independent from and connected to their families (Olson, 2000). The extremes or unbalanced levels (disengaged or enmeshed) are generally seen as

problematic for relationships over the long term. Although there is no absolute best level for any relationship, families will likely have problems if they function at either extreme end of the Model for too long (Olson, 2000).

Family adaptability is the ability of a family system to change its power structure, role relationships, and relationship rules in response to situational and developmental stress (Olson, 1989). The concepts considered under the umbrella of adaptability include: leadership, negotiation styles, role relationships and relationship rules. The focal point of adaptability is on how systems balance stability versus change. The four levels of adaptability range from rigid (very low) to structured (low to moderate) to flexible (moderate to high) to chaotic (very high) (See Appendix A). As with cohesion, it is hypothesized that balanced levels of adaptability are more conducive to good family functioning, with the extremes being the most challenging for families as they move through their developmental life cycle. Generally, adaptability emphasizes the change in a family's leadership, roles and rules (Olson, 2000). Families need both stability and change and the ability to change when appropriate. It is these characteristics that distinguish functional couples and families from dysfunctional ones (Olson, 2000). As with cohesion, relationships and families having moderate scores are more able to balance some change and remain stable in a practical manner.

The Circumplex Model provides a method for classifying families with two main dimensions, cohesion and adaptability. Optimal family functioning is characterized by a balance of both variables. A quadrant typology approach places families into one of four categories based on their levels, high or low, of cohesion and adaptability (see Appendix A and B). Flexibly separated families are high in adaptability and low in cohesion and

flexible-connected are high in adaptability and cohesion. Structured-separated are low in cohesion and adaptability. Structure-connected are high in cohesion and low in adaptability (Lavee and Olson, 1991). The four levels of cohesion (disengaged, separated, connected, and enmeshed) and adaptability (chaotic, flexibly, structured, and rigid) create a total of 16 types of family systems (Olson et. al., 1992). These 16 types are grouped into more general types: Balanced, Mid-Range, and Extreme (Barnes & Olson, 1985). Balanced families fall in the central area of the model and represent optimal family type as they are able to modify their levels of cohesion and adaptability to meet their changing needs. Mid-range families are characterized by mid level on one variable and extreme, high or low, on the other variable. Extreme families represent very high or low levels on both cohesion and adaptability (Barnes & Olson, 1985).

Communication is the third dimension in the Circumplex Model and is considered a facilitating component for movement on the other two dimensions (Olson, 2000). Because it is an assisting dimension, communication is not graphically included in the model along with cohesion and flexibility. Family communication is measured by focusing on a variety of the family's communicative skills, such as listening skills, speaking skills, self-disclosure, clarity, continuity tracking, and respect and regard. Positive communication patterns allow families to share with one another their changing needs and preferences, as related to cohesion and flexibility. In contrast, negative communication habits reduce the ability of family members to share their feelings and hence restrict their movement towards cohesion and flexibility.

As a family changes with each person's maturation and development, the family must acclimatize itself to the changing member. This is especially imperative as a child

begins to move through puberty towards adolescence and gain autonomy. The desire to change the family dynamics by one family member can facilitate change for the entire family (Olson, 2000). Family cohesion and adaptability are important in supporting and allowing the adolescent to gain a level of independence while still remaining connected to the family. The Circumplex Model is dynamic and assumes that changes occur in family types over time (Olson, 2000). Olson (1989) suggested that a positive, linear relationship likely exists between family functioning, cohesion, and adaptability.

In a study examining intimacy development and family cohesion and adaptability, Romig and Bakken (1992) found that higher levels of family cohesion correlate with higher levels of companionship and intimacy in family relationships. They found that greater adaptability within a family is positively correlated with the capability of adolescent females to utilize control in other relationships. Also, the levels of emotional bonding in families have some influence on adolescents' intimacy development. Overall, researchers found that the family dynamics of cohesion and adaptability are necessary in providing an adolescent the ability to develop future companionship, responsibility, and intimacy in their peer relationships (Romig and Bakken, 1992).

Self-report assessments are used to evaluate the cohesion and adaptability dimensions of the model. A conceptual three-dimensional version of the model was developed to characterize the balanced versus unbalanced components of cohesion and adaptability (See Appendix B). As a result of this new model, high scores on the FACES II assessment are reflective of balanced systems while low scores are suggestive of unbalanced systems (Olson, 2000). There are numerous advantages to this three-dimensional design. It is more conceptually and empirically related to other family

models. Second, the model demonstrates more clearly the similarity within the balanced and unbalanced types. In addition, first- and second-order change is more effectively incorporated into the model. First-order change is curvilinear because too much or too little change is problematic and represents the adaptability dimension. Second-order change is change from one system type to another system type and can only be assessed over time as it represents a change within the family system itself (Olson, 2000). The three-dimensional model and the order of changes are used to demonstrate the “dynamic similarity” within the balanced and unbalanced family types (Olson, 2000). With this design, the Circumplex Model illustrates how the four balanced types are more similar to each other than to the unbalanced types and conversely that the unbalanced types are more alike to one another than the balanced types.

Purpose and Predictions of This Study

As a young girl experiences menarche, her family relationships need to adjust and accommodate her developments. It is apparent that fathers and daughters undergo a variety of changes in their relationships, as they both age and develop. These changes occur in areas such as the amount of time spent together, involvement, communication patterns, and levels of conflict. Adaptability, cohesion, and communication are some qualities that may assist families through the transition that its members are experiencing. While the changes in father-daughter relationships cannot be solely attributed to the occurrence of menarche for young women, it is apt to be one of many significant factors that influence the dynamic father-daughter relationship.

Typically research examining the variables of adolescent daughters, menarche, and parents has utilized information from the adolescents’ and mothers’ perspectives,

with fathers often having a silent voice (Heath, 1978). Consequently, this study is designed to give voice to how fathers' perceive their relationships changing as their daughters experience menarche. In addition, this study will add to the limited amount of research that exists regarding fathers' point of view regarding their children, especially their daughters.

The purpose of this study was to examine the differences in relationships between fathers and their premenarchal daughters, girls who have not had their first menstrual period, versus their postmenarchal daughters, who have experienced their first menstrual period. According to Steinberg (1985) most American girls begin menstruating around age 13, although some girls begin as early as nine-years-old. The underlying hypothesis of this study was that there would be a fundamental difference in fathers' relationships with their daughters as the girls experience menarche. Menarchal status was measured by the fathers' self-report of whether or not his daughter has experienced her first menstrual period. Fathers' relationships with their daughters were operationalized by participants' scores on the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales II (FACES II; Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxen, & Wilson, 1992), a measure of family cohesion and adaptability. Fathers' communication with their daughters was measured by participants' scores on the Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale (PACS; Barnes & Olson, 1986), a measure of the positive and negative aspects of parent-adolescent communication.

Hypothesis 1

Using the Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems, the first hypothesis was that fathers of premenarchal girls will have more balanced relationships, as indicated

by a higher Family Type score on the FACES-II, compared to fathers of postmenarchal daughters.

Hypothesis 2a and 2b

Hypothesis 2a postulated that fathers with premenarchal girls will indicate more levels of cohesion and adaptability with their daughters, as indicated on the FACES II. In contrast, Hypothesis 2b hypothesized that fathers of postmenarchal girls will indicate lower levels of cohesion and adaptability.

Hypothesis 3a and 3b

Hypothesis 3a suggests that fathers of premenarchal girls will indicate more open communication and fewer problems in communication, as indicated by subscales on the PACS. In contrast, hypothesis 3b states that fathers of postmenarchal girls will indicate less open communication and more problems in family communication.

Hypothesis 4

It was expected that a significant relationship would exist between communication patterns, as measured by the total score from the PACS, and Balanced relationships, as reported by Family Type scores on the FACES-II.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter contains a description of the participants, materials, procedures, and recruitment approach used in this research study. The chapter concludes with a summary of the content and data analyses, an account of the type of statistical program that was utilized, as well as the type of analysis used to test each of the three hypotheses.

Participants

Eight hundred men were invited by letter to participate in this study. 74 men responded to the survey regarding a total of 92 daughters, as some fathers had more than one daughter. 55 men (74.3%) had daughters who attended a local school district and 19 (25.7%) belonged to the Dads And Daughters (DADs) organization. The average age of participants was 44.5 years with a standard deviation of 6.17 years. Participants had an average of 2.5 children, including 1.9 daughters. Participants responded to the surveys regarding a total of 92 daughters. 47 (51.1%) daughters were premenarchal or had not experienced their first menstrual period, 45 (48.9%) daughters were postmenarchal or had already experienced their first menstrual period. One participant was excluded because the father did not know his third oldest daughter's menarchal status. Fifty-six (75.7%) men provided completed the survey for one daughter, while 18 (23.3%) participants responded regarding two or more daughters. The average age of the participants' daughters was 10.4 years. Of the 92 daughters that fathers responded about, 62 participants (67.4%) were considered the oldest daughter, 27 (29.3%) were considered

the second oldest daughter, and 3 (3.3%) were considered the third oldest daughter. With regards to the fathers' ethnicity, 72 (97.3%) of the fathers identified themselves as Caucasian, 1 (1.4%) as Asian and 1 (1.4%) as Hispanic.

Materials

Materials consisted of an introductory letter (See Appendix A), the informed consent form (See Appendix B), a Demographic Questionnaire (See Appendix C), the 30-question Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales (See Appendix D), and Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale (See Appendix F).

Demographic Questionnaire

This 21-item questionnaire was designed for the purposes of this study. The purpose of this questionnaire was to obtain basic descriptive information about the general makeup of the sample. Participants were asked to provide limited personal data regarding their own age, number of daughters, and ethnic background. In addition, participants were asked questions about their relationship with their daughter/s, ages eight to 15, such as number of daughters, their ages and ethnicity, amount of time spent together, and living arrangements. Fathers were also asked to indicate "yes, no, or do not know" if his daughter has "reached menarche, her first menstrual period". The response to this question determined if the father was grouped into the premenarchal or postmenarchal independent variable group. Research by Holmbeck and Hill (1991) found a .81 to .90 correlation between parents rating of daughters' menarchal timing and daughters' actual menarchal timing. They also found a 76% percent of agreement between fathers and daughters for daughters' menarchal status. In this sample, 97.8% of

fathers responded that they were “very confident” in their knowledge of their daughters menarchal status (see Appendix C).

Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales-II

The Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scales-II (FACES) is a 30-item self-report instrument that assesses the two major dimensions of the Circumplex Model, family cohesion and family adaptability. Although FACES III is the most recent version of the FACES assessment, research suggests that FACES II is more appropriate for research purposes for three reasons (Olson et. al., 1992). The alpha reliability is higher in FACES II because it consists of more test items. Second, the correlation between adaptability and cohesion with social desirability is less problematic. Finally, the concurrent validity for FACES II is higher than FACES III, particularly for family adaptability.

In this assessment, questions were assigned a five point Likert scale, ranging from almost never (value of one) to almost always (value of five), to indicate how frequently the described behavior occurs in the family. Individual scores were obtained for the Cohesion and Adaptability subscale. The total subscale raw scores were transformed into linear scores, ranging from one (disengaged and rigid) to eight (very connected and very flexible). From the normative sample for the Cohesion variable, parents reported a range of scores from 16-80, with a mean score of 64.9 and a standard deviation of 8.4. From the normative sample for the Adaptability variable, parents reported a range of scores from 16-80, with a mean score of 49.9 and a standard deviation of 6.6. The linear scores from the Cohesion and Adaptability subscales are combined and then divided by two in order to obtain the family type. A family type of score of one and two indicate extreme

types, three and four suggest mid-range types, five and six indicate moderately balanced types, and seven and eight specify balanced family types.

The authors of this instrument calculated a Cronbach's alpha statistical test of instrument internal consistency reliability and found it to be .87 for cohesion and .78 for adaptability, and .90 for the total score (Olson et. al., 1992). The authors also reported that the FACES-II has very good evidence of face and content validity, as well as correlations between the Cohesion and Adaptability scales ranging from .25 to .65 (Olson et. al., 1992). With permission of the publisher, the FACES II assessment has been slightly modified to more accurately fit the topic of this research. In most instances, the original items contained statements regarding "family members" and this was changed to read "fathers and daughters".

A Cronbach's alpha statistical test of instrument internal consistency reliability was calculated on the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales-II (FACES-II) for the sample of fathers of premenarchal daughters and fathers of postmenarchal daughters. For fathers of premenarchal daughters, the Cronbach's alpha of the FACES-II instrument for Cohesion was .78, Adaptability was .74, and Family Type, or total score, was .85.

Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale-Modified

The Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale (PACS) is a 20-item, 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from strongly disagree (value of one) to strongly agree (value of five), to indicate how frequently the described behavior occurs in the family. This assessment is composed of two subscales, which is a measure of the degree of open family communication and extent of problems in family communication (Olson et. al.,

1992). The Open Family Communication subscale assesses positive components of parent-adolescent communication, including the extent to which information is exchanged without constraint, the degree of understanding, and satisfaction experienced in the interactions. The second subscale, Problems In Family Communication, measures the negative aspects of communication, such as hesitancy, negative interaction styles, selectivity, and caution in sharing information. This subscale is scored by reverse-scoring. The PACS total score is the sum score of the two scales, with an overall range of 20 to 100.

The authors of this instrument calculated a Cronbach's alpha statistical test of instrument internal consistency reliability and found it to be .87 for the Open Family Communication subscale, .78 for Problems in Family Communication subscale, and .88 for the total score (Olson et. al., 1992). With permission from the publisher, the PACS assessment has been slightly modified to more accurately fit the topic of this research. The original items contained statements regarding "my child" and this was altered to read "my daughter(s)".

A Cronbach's alpha statistical test of instrument internal consistency reliability was calculated on the Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale (PACS) for the sample of fathers of premenarchal daughters and fathers of postmenarchal daughters. Based on the PACS instrument for fathers of premenarchal daughters, the alpha for Open Family Communication was .74, Problems in Family Communication was .66, and the total PACS score was .81. The alpha of the PACS instrument for fathers of postmenarchal daughters for Open Family Communication was .78, Problems in Family Communication was .73, and the total PACS score was .82.

Procedure

In an attempt to obtain a diverse sample, participants for this study were randomly selected from four schools within a local school district and the Dads and Daughters (DADs) organization. Four hundred eighty fathers who had daughters in third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh or eighth grades from two local elementary and middle schools were selected to participate. I received a list of the names and addresses from the principals of the respective schools. Every father who had a daughter listed in the respective grades received an assessment packet and invitation to participate in the research study. DADs is a national education and advocacy nonprofit organization for fathers and daughters and participants have voluntarily joined the organization. As an organization, DADs is committed to supporting and nurturing the father-daughter relationship. Random sampling was utilized by organizing the entire mailing list (2745 participants) in ascending order by zip code, beginning with the lowest zip code. A random sample was determined by selecting every ninth case, beginning with the very lowest zip code value as the first case. A total of 320 DADs members were selected for the mailing.

Of the 800 households that received the mailing, 16 questionnaire packets were undeliverable due to expired forwarding addresses or incorrect addresses. Although the DADs mailing list is updated approximately every month, it was expected that several of those selected for the mailing list would have incorrect addresses. Two questionnaire packets were undeliverable due to expired or incorrect addresses from the local school district. Therefore of the 800 households selected for this sample, only 782 fathers actually received the questionnaire packet. A total of 74 fathers participated in this survey, giving a response rate of approximately 9.5%.

Although a total of 800 households received the questionnaire packets, the packets were not all sent at the same time. In January 2003, 400 packets were sent out, 300 to DADs members and 100 to fathers who had daughters in the local school district. Due to a lack of participants, an additional 200 packets were sent out in March 2003 to fathers who had daughters in the school district. An additional 200 packets were mailed in April 2003 to fathers who had daughters in eighth grade as a way to increase the likelihood that the daughters would be postmenarchal. This incorporated 180 fathers of daughters from the locally used school district and 20 DADs members. Because of the uncertainty of the DADs members' daughters' ages, the packets were sent to fathers who had daughters in the school district to insure that potential participants had daughters in the specified age range of this study. The second mailing also resulted in a low response rate. In reviewing the data, I noticed that I had an unequal amount of premenarchal girls and a low amount of postmenarchal girls. Consequently, the age of daughters was increased from initially third to seventh grades to third to eighth grades as a means to obtain information from fathers whose daughters had already experienced menarche.

Packets, containing a consent letter and the questionnaires, were mailed to 800 households selected for the mailing. Each household selected received a packet containing an introductory letter that explained the purpose of the research, voluntary participation, and confidentiality, two copies of the informed consent, a demographic questionnaire, the two assessment measurements, and a self-addressed, stamped envelope. Members of DADs also received a letter from Joe Kelly, the executive director, explaining that I had the DADS organizational support and permission to conduct research. The introductory letter explained that participants needed to sign a copy of the

informed consent if they chose to participate in the study and that they were to keep a copy of the informed consent forms for their personal records. Participants were informed that all participants who completed the assessments would be eligible for one of two 25-dollar gift certificates his choice of either a book or music store. Participants were also informed that they were entitled to a copy of the final research results and to receive the results they needed to fill out a blank card with their name and mailing address and to include the card in the envelope. Once I received the envelopes from the participants, the consent form, surveys, and cards with addresses on them were separated and kept in different locations in order to insure that the participants' responses remained anonymous. Once the research is completed, participants who requested a copy of the study results will receive the findings in the method they indicated.

A follow-up letter was sent to all of the 800 households selected for this study, approximately four weeks after the initial questionnaires were sent. This letter served as a reminder, requesting that participants complete and return the questionnaires. It also included a phone number and an email address for the researcher in the event that they had misplaced a questionnaire packet and would like to participate. In addition, this letter served as a thank-you to those fathers who had already responded to the survey.

Analyses of Data

All data analyses were computed by utilizing the SPSS software package for Windows version 10.0. The analyses consisted of descriptive, hypothesis-testing, and exploratory statistical procedures. An alpha level of .05 was utilized for all statistical analyses in determining the level of significance.

Descriptive statistical analyses were computed in order to describe the sample characteristics. Measures of central tendency and variation, as well as frequency and percentages were used in this description of the data when appropriate for the demographic data, such as age, ethnicity, number of daughters, and menarchal status of daughters. Similarly, descriptive analyses of the data were conducted to determine the frequencies, percentages, standard deviations, and means of the subscales and total scores on the FACES-II and PACS.

Hypotheses Testing Analyses

Preliminary Analyses

Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were performed to determine if there was a significant difference between two groups of participants, the DADs members and fathers from the local school district. In addition, ANOVAs were performed to determine if there was a significant difference between the amount of time that fathers spend with their daughters and cohesion, adaptability, family type, open family communication, problems in family communication, and total PACS score.

Hypothesis 1

Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was calculated to test the hypothesis that fathers who had premenarchal daughters would have a higher family type score, or total score, on the FACES-II than fathers who had postmenarchal daughters, controlling for the effects of time spent with daughter.

Hypothesis 2a & 2b

Multiple Analyses of Covariance (MANCOVA) were calculated to determine whether the scores of fathers who had premenarchal daughters were significantly higher

on the FACES-II subscales of Cohesion and Adaptability than fathers who had postmenarchal daughters, controlling for the effects of time spent with daughter. ANCOVAS were conducted as follow-up tests to the significant MANCOVAs for each dependent variable.

Hypothesis 3a & 3b

MANCOVAS were calculated to determine whether the scores of fathers who had premenarchal daughters were significantly higher on the PACS subscales of Open Communication and Problems in Communication than fathers who had postmenarchal daughters, controlling for the effects of time spent with daughter. ANCOVAS were conducted as follow-up tests to the significant MANCOVAs for each dependent variable.

Hypothesis 4

A Pearson's correlation coefficient was computed to test the hypothesis that there would be a significant relationship between communication as reported by the total score on the PACS and balanced relationships as reported by the Family Type scores on the FACES-II.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The results are presented in five sections. In the first section, I present the descriptive statistics based on the sample of participants. In the second section, I present the results of the preliminary analyses between the two groups of participants on the dependent variables: Cohesion, Adaptability, Family Type, Open Communication, Problems in Family Communication, and PACS total. I also present the data concerning the preliminary analyses on the relationship between the amount of time fathers spend with daughters and the dependent variables. In the third section, I present the results of Hypothesis 1 addressing the level of balanced relationships between fathers of premenarchal compared to postmenarchal daughters, controlling for the effects of time spent with daughter. In the fourth section, I present Hypothesis 2a and 2b regarding the data on levels of Cohesion and Adaptability with fathers and their premenarchal or postmenarchal daughters, controlling for the effects of time spent with daughters. In section five, I focus on the results for Hypothesis 3a and 3b regarding levels of Open Family Communication and Problems in Family Communication, controlling for the effects of time spent with daughters. Finally, in the sixth section I present the results of the relationship between communication and balanced relationships, which is Hypothesis 4.

Descriptive Statistics

In the demographic questionnaire, participants provided a great deal of information about themselves and their relationships with their daughters. Fathers reported that 88.4 % of daughters reported on were considered their biological daughters, 9.8% stepdaughters, and 5.4% adopted daughters. Fathers reported that 88.4% were married to the biological mother of their daughters, 8.7% were divorced from the biological mother, 2.2% were never married to the biological mother, and 4.3% of fathers classified their relationship with their daughters' biological mother as "other". In addition, 77.2% of fathers reported that their daughters live with both biological mother and father, 4.4% of fathers reported that their daughters live with only one biological parent, 8.8% of fathers reported that their daughters live with a biological parent and a stepparent, and 5.4% of fathers reported that their daughters live with adoptive parents and 4.3% reported that their daughter lives with "other". The results are reported in Table 1.

Preliminary Analyses

Sample of Participants

The participants for this study came from two samples, the DADs organization and a local school district. Six individual Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs) were computed, with the alpha level set at .05. An ANOVA was performed to determine if there were significant differences between the samples of participants on Cohesion, Adaptability, Family Type, Open Family Communication, Problems in Family Communication, and the total PACS score. The independent variable was membership in

the DADs organization or local school district. The dependent variables were the subscale and total scores on the FACES-II and PACS. There were no significant differences found between the two groups on the dependent variables. The results are presented in Table 2

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

	Premenarchal		Postmenarchal	
	<i>n</i>	Percent	<i>n</i>	Percent
Sample				
DADs	12	25.5%	12	26.7%
School	35	74.5 %	33	73.3%
Daughters' are Considered				
Biological	42	89.4%	36	80%
Step-daughter	2	4.3%	7	15.6%
Adopted	3	6.4%	2	4.4%
Relationship with Daughters' Biological Mother				
Married	39	83.0%	39	86.7%
Divorced	4	8.5%	4	8.9%
Never Married	1	2.1%	1	2.2%
Other	3	6.4%	1	2.2%
Daughters' Living Arrangement				
Biological mother and father	37	78.7%	34	75.6%
Biological mother only	0	0.0%	2	4.4%
Biological father only	1	2.1%	1	2.2%
Biological mother and step-father	2	4.3%	5	11.1%
Biological father and step-mother	1	2.1%	0	0.0%
Adoptive	3	6.4%	2	4.4%
Other	3	6.4%	1	2.2%
Amount of Time Spent with Daughter				
Daily	31	66.0%	24	53.3%
Weekly	13	27.7%	12	26.7%
Yearly	3	6.4%	3	6.7%
Other	0	0.0%	6	13.3%

Note: Premenarchal Group (*n* = 47) Postmenarchal Group (*n* = 45)

Table 2

Summary of Univariate Analyses of Group Membership on Father-Daughter Relationships

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2	<i>p</i>
Family Type	1, 90	.98	.01	.41
Cohesion	1, 90	3.49	.04	.07
Adaptability	1, 90	.36	.00	.55
PACS Total	1, 90	.53	.01	.47
Open Communication	1, 90	.09	.00	.76
Problems in Communication	1, 90	.92	.01	.34

Note. (*= $p < .05$.) DADs Group ($n = 24$) School District Fathers Group ($n = 68$) Family Type is the combination of the Cohesion and Adaptability subscale of the FACES-II.

Time Spent with Daughter

While I hypothesized that daughters' menarchal status would contribute significantly to the differences in fathers' scores on the assessment measurements, I recognized that other variables could influence fathers' scores. The demographic variables of Daughter Is Considered (biological daughter, step-daughter, adopted, etc), Relationship With Biological Mother (married, divorced, separated, etc), Daughter Lives With (biological mother and father, biological parent and step-parent, one biological parent, etc), and Amount of Time Spent With Daughter (daily, weekly, monthly, etc) were considered most likely to be influential on the assessment measurements. Due to the unequal groups for most demographic variables, only Amount of Time Spent With Daughter was further analyzed. In addition, the amount of time spent with daughter was analyzed further because research by Larson and Richards (1991) found that as girls' age,

they spend less time with their family members. Thus, it was thought that the amount of direct and prolonged interaction that fathers have with their daughters could influence the dependent variables. The time spent with daughter variable was collapsed from originally seven to four categories in an attempt to make the number of participants in each group more equal. As a result of the collapsed categories, 60.2% of fathers indicated that they have daily prolonged and direct one-on-one time with their daughter, 26.9% indicated that they have weekly contact, 6.5% indicated that they have yearly contact, and 6.5% classified the amount of time spent with their daughter as "other".

Initially, an independent *t* test was conducted to compare the means between the fathers of premenarchal versus postmenarchal daughters on the four levels of time. The independent variable was daughters' menarchal status, pre versus post, and the dependent variable was the amount of time spent with daughter which was categorized as 1= daily, 2=weekly, 3=monthly, or 4=other. The mean amount of time that fathers spent with premenarchal daughters was 1.40 with a standard deviation of .614 and the mean amount of time fathers spent with postmenarchal daughters was 1.80 with a standard deviation of 1.06. The results show that fathers of premenarchal daughters spend significantly a greater amount of time with their daughters than fathers of postmenarchal girls ($t(45) = 2.183, p < 0.05$). The results of the *t*-test are presented in Table 3

An ANOVA was used to analyze the results for follow up analysis with the alpha level set at .05. This was done to determine if there was a significant difference between the amount of time that fathers spend with their daughters and Cohesion, Adaptability, Family Type, Open Family Communication, Problems in Family Communication, and the total PACS score. The independent variable was amount of time spent with daughter

Table 3

Summary of Means and Standard Deviations for Fathers' Reported Time Spent with Daughter

	M	SD
Premenarchal	1.40	.61
Postmenarchal	1.80	1.06

Note: Premenarchal Group ($n = 47$) Postmenarchal Group ($n = 45$)

which was categorized as 1= daily, 2=weekly, 3=monthly, or 4=other. The dependent variables were the subscale and total scores on the FACES-II and PACS. A Bonferroni post hoc test was conducted when groups were homogenous and a Dunnett C post hoc test was utilized when groups had unequal variances. The results are presented in Table 4

The ANOVA analyses determined that a significant difference existed between the Cohesion variable of the FACES-II and the four categories of time spent with daughter ($F [92,3]= 7.746, p < .05$) with an effect size of .207 and power level of .986. A Dunnett C post hoc test was conducted to determine which of the four levels of time spent with daughter differed from one another; however no significant mean differences were found between the four categories of time spent with daughter. A significant difference of FACES Family Type was found between the four categories of time spent with daughter ($F [92,3]= 3.897, p < .05$) with an effect size of .116 and power level of .811. A Bonferroni post hoc test indicated that fathers who have daily contact with their daughter have significantly higher scores on the FACES-II Family Type than fathers who categorized the amount of time that they spend with their daughter/s as "other".

A significant difference existed between the Open Family Communication subscale of the PACS and the four levels of time spent with daughter ($F [92,3]= 3.468, p < .05$) with an effect size of .106 and power level of .759. A Dunnett C post hoc test was conducted to determine which of the four levels of time spent with daughter differed from one another; however no significant mean differences were found between the four categories of time spent with daughter. A significant difference of PACS total score was found between the four categories of time spent with daughter ($F [92,3]= 3.010, p < .05$) with an effect size of .034 and power level of .692. A Bonferroni post hoc test indicated that fathers who have daily contact with their daughters have significantly higher PACS total scores than fathers who have monthly contact with their daughters.

Given these findings, multiple analyses of covariance (MANCOVA) and analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted to test the four hypotheses, with time spent with daughter as the covariate. First, it was utilized to determine if time spent with daughter had a significant effect on each hypothesis. Second, it was used to determine if menarchal status still had a significant effect on the dependent variables when taking into account the amount of time fathers spent with their daughters.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis stated that fathers of premenarchal girls would have more balanced relationships, via a higher family type score, compared to fathers of postmenarchal girls as measured by the FACES-II. An Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to examine the influence of menarchal status on Family Type, controlling for amount of time fathers spent with daughters. The independent variable was fathers' report of his daughters' menarchal status (premenarchal or postmenarchal). The dependent variable

Table 4

Summary of Univariate Analyses of Variance for the Effect of Time on Father-Daughter Relationships

Source	n	M	SD	F
Family Type				3.77*
Daily	55	5.31	1.32	
Weekly	25	5.02	1.09	
Monthly	6	4.67	.683	
Other	6	3.50	2.14	
Cohesion				7.554**
Daily	55	65.36	7.14	
Weekly	25	63.04	6.36	
Monthly	6	60.50	7.23	
Other	6	50.00	15.67	
Adaptability				1.70
Daily	55	48.93	6.42	
Weekly	25	47.92	5.92	
Monthly	6	46.50	1.87	
Other	6	43.17	8.59	
PACS Total Score				.2.89*
Daily	55	77.58	9.10	
Weekly	25	74.64	10.68	
Monthly	6	66.33	5.79	
Other	6	71.83	15.04	
Problems in Family Communication				2.41
Daily	55	37.60	5.72	
Weekly	25	36.04	6.11	
Monthly	6	31.00	2.00	
Other	6	37.33	8.82	
Open Family Communication				3.47*
Daily	55	39.98	4.67	
Weekly	25	38.60	5.37	
Monthly	6	35.33	3.93	
Other	6	34.50	6.95	

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Premenarchal Group ($n = 47$) Postmenarchal Group ($n = 45$)

Family Type, Cohesion, and Adaptability are subscales of the FACES-II

PACS Total Score, Problems in Family Communication, and Open Family Communication are subscales of the PACS.

was levels of Family Type from the FACES-II: Extreme, Mid-Range, Moderately Balanced, and Balanced. The covariate was fathers' reported time spent with daughter (the categories of daily, weekly, monthly, and other were collapsed into one overall category of time). The mean of the FACES-II assessment for fathers of premenarchal girls was 5.38 (*S.D.* = 1.08), which falls in the Moderately Balanced level. The mean for fathers of postmenarchal girls was 4.74 (*S.D.* = 1.53), which falls in the Mid-Range level. The ANCOVA was significant for the time variable $F(1,89)=7.53, p < .05, \eta^2 = .08$. The ANCOVA was not significant for menarchal status $F(1,89)=2.94, p > .05, \eta^2 = .03$. The results do not support the hypothesis. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Summary of Univariate Analyses of Covariance for Menarchal Status and FACES-II Family Type, Controlling for Time Spent with Daughter

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2	<i>p</i>
Time Spent	1, 89	7.53	.08	.01*
Menarchal Status	1, 89	2.94	.03	.09

Note. (*= $p < .05$.) Premenarchal Group ($n = 47$) Postmenarchal Group ($n = 45$)
Family Type is a subscale of the FACES-II.

Hypothesis 2a and 2b

Hypothesis 2 postulated that fathers of premenarchal girls would indicate higher levels of Cohesion and Adaptability with their daughters, as indicated on the FACES II. In contrast, it was proposed that fathers of postmenarchal girls would indicate lower levels of Cohesion and Adaptability. A Multiple Analyses of Covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted to examine the influence of menarchal status on the Cohesion and Adaptability subscales, when controlling for amount of time fathers spent with daughters.

The MANCOVA was also chosen to assess any significant effects on any linear combinations of the dependent variables, while controlling for the effects of time fathers spent with daughters. The independent variable was daughters' menarchal status (premenarchal or postmenarchal). The dependent variable was levels of Cohesion and Adaptability. The covariate was fathers reported time spent with daughter (daily, weekly, monthly, and other). To evaluate significance, the statistical numbers reported for Wilks' Lambda was considered, as it is most frequently used in social science literature (Green, Salkind, & Akey, 2000).

The mean of the Cohesion variable for fathers of premenarchal girls was 66.26 (*S.D.* = 6.00) while the mean for fathers of postmenarchal daughters was 60.44 (*S.D.* = 9.68). The mean of the Adaptability variable for fathers of premenarchal girls was 48.47 (*S.D.* = 5.26) and for fathers of postmenarchal girls the mean was 47.76 (*S.D.* = 7.34). The MANCOVA was significant for the time variable $F(2, 88) = 7.23, p < .05, \eta^2 = .14$. The MANCOVA was significant for menarchal status $F(2, 88) = 5.52, p < .05, \eta^2 = .11$. The data did support the hypothesis. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Summary of Multivariate Analyses of Covariance by Menarchal Status and Cohesion and Adaptability, Controlling for Time Spent with Daughter

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2	<i>p</i>
Time Spent	2, 88	7.23	.14	.00**
Menarchal Status	2, 88	5.52	.11	.01*

Note. * = $p < .05$. (** = $p < .001$). Premenarchal Group ($n = 47$) Postmenarchal Group ($n = 45$). Cohesion and Adaptability are subscales of the FACES-II. Time Spent with Daughter is a combination of the categories of daily, weekly, monthly, and other time spent.

ANCOVAs on each dependent variable were conducted as follow-up tests to the significant MANCOVAs of time spent with daughter and menarchal status. When examining time spent, the results showed that there was a significant effect on both the Cohesion variable $F(1, 89) = 14.61, p < .05, \eta^2 = .14$ and the Adaptability variable $F(1, 89) = 4.42, p < .05, \eta^2 = .05$. With menarchal status, the ANCOVA for the Cohesion variable was significant, $F(1, 89) = 7.65, p < .05, \eta^2 = .08$. However, the ANCOVA on the Adaptability variable was not significant, $F(1, 89) = .00, p > .05, \eta^2 = .00$. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Summary of Univariate Analyses of Covariance for Cohesion and Adaptability, Controlling for Time Spent with Daughter

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2	<i>p</i>
Time Spent				
Cohesion	1, 89	14.61	.14	.00**
Adaptability	1, 89	4.42	.05	.04*
Menarchal Status				
Cohesion	1, 89	7.65	.08	.01*
Adaptability	1, 89	.00	.00	.96

Note. * = $p < .05$. (** = $p < .001$). Premenarchal Group ($n = 47$) Postmenarchal Group ($n = 45$). Cohesion and Adaptability are subscales of the FACES-II. Time Spent with Daughter is a combination of the categories of daily, weekly, monthly, and other time spent.

Hypothesis 3a and 3b

The third hypothesis estimated that fathers of premenarchal girls would have significantly higher levels of Open Family Communication and lower levels of Problems in Family Communication. In contrast, it was proposed that fathers of postmenarchal girls will indicate lower levels of Open Family Communication and greater Problems in Family Communication. For the sample of fathers of premenarchal daughters, the mean Open Family Communication score was 40.19 with a standard deviation of 4.75 and the mean Problems in Family Communication score was 37.89 with a standard deviation of 5.53. Fathers of postmenarchal daughters reported an Open Family Communication mean of 37.64 with a standard deviation of 5.36 and the mean Problems in Family Communication was 35.51 with a standard deviation of 6.38.

A MANCOVA was conducted to examine the influence of menarchal status and amount of time fathers spent with daughters on the Open Family Communication and Problems in Family Communication subscale scores on the PACS. The independent variable was daughters' menarchal status (premenarchal or postmenarchal). The dependent variable was levels of Open Family Communication and Problems in Family Communication from the PACS. The covariate was fathers reported time spent with daughter (daily, weekly, monthly, and other).

The results were unexpected. The MANCOVA for time spent with daughter was significant $F(2, 88) = 3.92, p < .05, \eta^2 = .08$. There were no significant differences with the menarchal status variable $F(2, 88) = 1.85, p > .05, \eta^2 = .04$. The data did not support the hypothesis. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Summary of Multiple Analyses of Covariance by Menarchal Status and Open Family Communication and Problems in Family Communication, Controlling for Time Spent with Daughter

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2	<i>p</i>
Time Spent	2, 88	3.92	.08	.02*
Menarchal Status	2, 88	1.85	.04	.16

Note. * = $p < .05$. (**= $p < .001$). Premenarchal Group ($n = 47$) Postmenarchal Group ($n = 45$). Open Family Communication and Problems in Family Communication are subscales of the PACS. Time Spent with Daughter is a combination of the categories of daily, weekly, monthly, and other time spent.

ANCOVAs were conducted on each dependent variable as follow-up tests to the significant time spent with daughter MANCOVA. The ANCOVA on the Open Communication variable was significant, $F(1, 89) = 7.47, p < .05, \eta^2 = .08$. The ANCOVA on the Problems in Family Communication was not significant, $F(1, 89) = 1.21, p > .05, \eta^2 = .01$. The results are presented in Table 9

Table 9

Summary of Univariate Analyses of Covariance for Open Family Communication and Problems in Family Communication, Controlling for Time Spent with Daughter

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2	<i>p</i>
Time Spent				
Open Communication	1, 89	7.47	.08	.01*
Problems in Communication	1, 89	1.21	.01	.28

Note. * = $p < .05$. Premenarchal Group ($n = 47$) Postmenarchal Group ($n = 45$). Open Family Communication and Problems in Family Communication are subscales of the

PACS. Time Spent with Daughter is a combination of the categories of daily, weekly, monthly, and other time spent.

Hypothesis 4

In Hypothesis 4, I postulated that a significant relationship would exist between father-daughter communication, as measured by PACS total score, and Family Types, as measured by FACES-II. Fathers of premenarchal daughters had a mean Family Type score of 5.38 with a standard deviation of 1.08 and the mean total PACS score was 78.09 with a standard deviation of 9.41. Fathers of postmenarchal girls had a mean Family Type score was 4.74 with a standard deviation of 1.53 and the mean total PACS score reported a mean of 73.76 with a standard deviation of 10.34. In support of the hypothesis, there was a positive relationship, significant at the .01 level, between FACES-II Family Type variable and the PACS total score variable ($r = .66$). In order to better understand this relationship, separate Pearson's correlation coefficients were conducted for fathers of premenarchal daughters and fathers of postmenarchal daughters. There was a positive relationship, significant at the .01 level for fathers of premenarchal daughters on the FACES-II Family Type and PACS total score variable ($p = .61$). There was a positive relationship, significant at the .01 level for fathers of postmenarchal daughters on the FACES-II Family Type and PACS total score variable ($p = .66$). The correlations for the PACS total score and FACES-II Family Type score are presented in Table 10.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

In the beginning section of this chapter, a summary and interpretation of the results of hypothesis 1 are discussed, followed by hypothesis 2, 3 and 4. Next, the limitations of the present study are examined. Finally, the chapter concludes with the potential research, theoretical, and clinical implications of the findings, followed by the conclusion.

The purpose of the present study was to examine the differences in relationships between fathers and their premenarchal daughters, girls who have not had their first menstrual period, versus fathers of postmenarchal daughters, girls who have experienced their first menstrual period. Given that adolescence is a time of numerous changes for both a young girl and her relationships with her parents, particularly her father. It is essential that research be conducted on how developmental changes, such as menarche, may influence the father-daughter relationship. No current researchers have examined how the level of adaptability, cohesion, and communication may facilitate the father-daughter relationship as the girl makes the transition from child to adult.

I expected that there would be a fundamental difference in fathers' relationships with their daughters after girls experience menarche. I predicted that fathers of premenarchal girls would have more balanced relationships compared to fathers of postmenarchal girls. I anticipated that fathers with premenarchal girls would indicate higher levels of cohesion and adaptability with their daughters compared to fathers of

postmenarchal girls who would indicate lower levels of cohesion and adaptability. I also expected that fathers of premenarchal girls would indicate more open communication and fewer problems in communication versus fathers of postmenarchal girls who would report less open communication and more problems in family communication. Furthermore, I predicted that a significant relationship would exist between open communication and balanced relationships.

Summary of Findings

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that fathers of premenarchal girls will have more balanced relationships, as indicated by a higher Family Type score on the FACES-II, compared to fathers of postmenarchal daughters. The results showed that the degree of time that fathers spend with their daughters significantly influences the Family Types. However, when controlling for the influence of time, daughters' menarchal status does not have a significant influence on father-daughter Family Type.

Adolescence and puberty are stages in which family relationships experience transformation. Just as their bodies change during adolescence and puberty, children's relationships with their parents inevitably change. Larson and Richards (1991) found that with age girls decrease the amount of time that they spent with their family. Family cohesion, support, and expressiveness are qualities that comprise the Circumplex Model and make up the attributes of Balanced relationships. These characteristics are fostered and nurtured over time as they are the accumulation of years of interaction with one another. Consequently, a developmental event such as menarche is not apt to significantly alter these qualities. Menarche is a biological event that only the daughter experiences.

Conversely, time spent between father and daughter is an interaction they both share. Thus, an event that only one member of the dyad directly experiences may not be the variable that changes the entire type of father-daughter relationship. The results of this study show that Family Type is significantly influenced by the amount of time that a father spends with his daughter rather than his daughter's menarchal status.

One potential explanation for the significance of fathers' time spent with his daughters is the increasing role that friendships and peers have in girls' lives. Larson and Richards (1991) examined the differences in quality and quantity of time that children and adolescents spend with different companions. Their results indicated that adolescent girls significantly increased the amount of time they spend with friends from fifth grade to ninth grade and subsequently decreased the amount of time that they spent with their family. Although eighth and ninth grade girls had previously spent a substantial amount of time with their family, as they got older they tended to devote more time to their friends. Because friendships play such a crucial role in adolescents' lives, adolescent girls spend approximately half of their waking hours with other teenagers and less than five percent of their time with their parents (Bee, 1994). Consequently, if fathers and daughters spend less time together, they are less likely to be able to continue to cultivate the qualities such as emotional bonding and flexibility that comprise Balanced family types.

During adolescence, children try to establish autonomy from their parents, while at the same time maintaining their sense of connectedness to their family (Bee, 1994). As a result of this internal struggle, the time that parents and children spend together during the adolescent years may be filled with tension. As adolescents work through the process

of individuation and separation from their parents, conflicts can become more frequent. The conflicts may be the result of the physical, psychological, and cognitive changes that occur within the adolescent; however, the disagreements may also reflect the parents' reaction to all the changes that their child is experiencing. A meta-analysis by Laursen, Coy, and Collins (1998) found that parent-child conflict rates decline as a child chronologically moves through adolescence. At the same time, the affective intensity of the conflict tends to rise from early to mid-adolescence. If there is increasing conflict between father and daughter, then it is likely that the dyad spend considerable less amount of time together, which does not allow them to continue to develop or experience their unity and adaptability.

Hypothesis 2a and 2b

Hypothesis 2a postulated that fathers with premenarchal girls will indicate more levels of cohesion and adaptability with their daughters, as indicated on the FACES II. In contrast, Hypothesis 2b stated that fathers of postmenarchal girls will indicate lower levels of cohesion and adaptability. Results showed that the amount for time that fathers spend with their daughters significantly influences levels of Cohesion and Adaptability. When accounting for the influence of fathers' time spent with daughter, menarchal status still had a significant effect on fathers' report of Cohesion and Adaptability. In follow-up analyzes on menarchal status, fathers of premenarchal girls reported significantly higher scores on Cohesion compared to fathers of postmenarchal girls. In follow-up analyzes on menarchal status, there were no significant differences on the Adaptability variable between fathers of premenarchal and postmenarchal daughters.

At transitional periods, such as puberty and menarche, the issues of redefining cohesion and adaptability become especially important, not just for the individual experiencing developmental changes, but also for the whole family system (Feldman & Gehring, 1988). In this study, fathers of premenarchal girls reported higher levels of cohesion than fathers of postmenarchal daughters. Olson (2000) defined cohesion as the emotional bond that family members have towards one another. Cohesion is the variable that helps families balance separateness versus togetherness. According to theory and research in family functioning, families are most cohesive in the early stages of the family life cycle and least cohesive in the adolescent stages (Seiffge-Krenke, 1999). The results of this study suggest that fathers and premenarchal daughters are still experiencing a sense of unity and attachment.

Paikoff and Brooks-Gunn (1991) found that pubertal maturation contributes to a sense of discomfort for many parents. This may be due to a cultural prohibition on talking about the physical aspects of puberty because such changes are associated with sexuality and sexual maturity. They also found that father-daughter conversations about the female pubertal development do not occur (Paikoff & Brooks-Gunn, 1991). Researchers have shown that pubertal status is clearly associated with changes in the parent-child relationship as they found that physically mature girls reported more intense conflict, less cohesion, and less calm communication (Paikoff & Brooks-Gunn, 1991). Steinberg (1987) also found that fathers reported less cohesion with physically mature daughters than less physically mature daughters. Given that menarche is one of the latter pubertal developments, a postmenarchal daughter is apt to have visible secondary sex characteristics. It cannot be assumed that menarchal status is a causal factor to the

decrease in cohesion between father and daughter. J. P. Hill's 1988 study (as cited in Paikoff & Brooks-Gunn, 1991) found that fathers became brusquer with their postmenarchal daughters. He attributed this change to be one way that fathers physically distance themselves from their sexually maturing daughters due to the cultural taboo and potential implications about physical closeness with a sexually mature girl.

There are numerous other influential factors, such as the relationships between mother and daughter and daughter and friends, which may contribute to a decrease in cohesion between father and postmenarchal daughter. For example, Steinberg (1988) found that pubertal maturation increases the likelihood of arguments between mother and daughter. Cole and Jordan (1989) speculated that the quality of the type of relationship that a father has with his children may depend on the quality of his marriage. Larson and Richards (1991) found that with age adolescent girls significantly increase the amount of time they spent with friends and decrease the amount of time that they spent with their family. This is consistent with the results of this study that found fathers of postmenarchal daughters spend significantly less time with them than fathers of premenarchal daughters. Steinberg (1987) found that pubertal maturation increases the emotional distance between adolescents and their parents. Previous research (Steinberg 1987; Larson & Richards, 1991) supports the finding of this study that fathers of premenarchal daughters reported higher levels of Cohesion than fathers of postmenarchal daughters.

The second statement of Hypothesis 2 was not supported because fathers of premenarchal daughters did not have statistically different ratings on the Adaptability variable compared to fathers of postmenarchal daughters, when controlling for the

influence of fathers' time spent with daughters. According to Maynard and Olson (1987), family adaptability is the ability of a family system to change its power structure, role relationships, and relationship rules in response to a situational and developmental stressor. One way to consider the lack of significance is that the occurrence of menarche may not necessitate a change in the power structure of the father-daughter relationship. Menarche is a normal developmental change that occurs during puberty for girls. Because menarche is an expectable life cycle change, it may not be considered a family stressor. Consequently, most families are capable of making the adjustment without major changes to existing structure. In terms of the Circumplex Model, the onset of menstruation is a developmental change for the girl and can contribute changes in attachment, but the father-daughter relationship does not need to reorganize its system.

In examining the data, one potential contributing factor to the lack of significance may be because the groups were heterogeneous. For example, there was a wide degree of variability of the participants' scores on the Adaptability subscale. This resulted in a 34-point range in the scores and consequently a larger standard deviation. The unequal variances may be the result of some extreme scores by the participants. This suggests that fathers were potentially experiencing fluctuations and changes in their flexibility with their daughters.

Another influential factor may have been the low effect size and low reliability on the Adaptability subscale. The small number of participants probably contributed to the low values. The sample contained only 47 fathers of premenarchal girls and 45 fathers of postmenarchal girls, which may not be an adequate sample size to get a true reflection of

the population. Cohen (1998) suggests a sample size of 64 in each group when the alpha level is set at .05 and for a medium effect size.

Hypothesis 3a and 3b

Hypothesis 3a suggested that fathers of premenarchal girls will indicate more open communication and fewer problems in communication, as indicated by subscales on the PACS. In contrast, hypothesis 3b stated that fathers of postmenarchal girls will indicate less open communication and more problems in family communication. In this study, results showed that the amount of time that fathers spend with their daughters significantly influences levels of Open Family Communication and Problems in Family Communication. When controlling for the influence of time, menarchal status did not have a significant influence on fathers' report of Open Family Communication and Problems in Family Communication. In further examining the dependent variables, amount of time spent with daughters significantly influenced Open Family Communication, but not Problems in Family Communication.

Steinberg and Hill (1978) found that changes in parent-child communication patterns are linked to changes in physical maturity, which supports the premise that there would be changes in the communication patterns between fathers of premenarchal versus postmenarchal daughters. However, surprisingly this research did not support the hypothesis that menarchal status did not significantly influence the communication variables.

There are numerous factors that may be contributing to the lack of significance. First, research indicates that fathers spend more time with their sons than with their daughters (Montemayor & Browniee, 1987; Harris, Furstenberg, & Marmer, 1998). In

addition, Piquart and Srugies (1998) found that adolescents report spending more time with their mother than father and more time talking to their mothers more about their attitudes and behaviors than fathers. As a result, fathers and daughters spend relatively little time interacting and talking to one another. This reduced contact likely contributes to the lack of communication between the dyad, which reduces the opportunity for problems in the communication. Spending more time with and having a greater communication with one's mother signifies that mothers tend to play a significant role in an adolescent's life compared to fathers. Given that studies have found that mothers tend to spend more time and be more emotionally involved with their children than fathers (Amato, 1994; Way & Gillman, 2000), it is plausible that the mother-adolescent relationship could impact not only communication, but also cohesion and adaptability between fathers and daughters.

The results of the analyses found that the amount of time that fathers spend with their daughter significantly impacts their communication. The time that fathers spend with daughters is apt to involve some type of communication. Even physical play, activities that fathers commonly do with their children, requires a certain level of communication and understanding between the participants. Thus, changes in amount of time spent together are likely to impact the communication between the pair. In contrast, menarche is a biological event that does not need nor depend on communication between father and daughter.

Interestingly, the results also showed that time significantly impacts Open Family Communication but not Problems in Family Communication. According to Olson et al. (1992), the Open Family Communication measures the positive aspects of parent-

adolescent communication, with an emphasis on free flowing exchange of information, a degree of understanding and satisfaction, and sense of lack of restrictions. In comparison, Problems in Family Communication measures the negative aspects of communication, including hesitancy to share, negative interaction styles, and selectivity and caution in what is shared with other family members. Based on the characteristics of Open Family Communication, a degree of rapport and empathy is needed between the two members conversing. These are qualities that need to be established over time and with a certain level of trust between the people. In contrast, Problems in Family Communication is characterized by communication techniques. Thus, the amount of time a father spends with his daughter effects that spirit of the communication and not the technical aspects of the dialogue.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 stated that a significant relationship would exist between the subscale Open Communication from the PACS and Balanced relationships as reported by Family Type scores on the FACES-II. In this study, the results show that there was a significant positive relationship between Family Type, as measured by the FACES-II, and the total PACS communication score.

The results supported the hypothesis that a significant relationship exists between father-daughter communication and family types. This is consistent with the hypothesis of the Circumplex Model that balanced types of families will have more positive communication compared to unbalanced families (Olson, 2000). Within the Circumplex Model, effective communication is the mechanism families utilize to share their changing preferences, needs, and feelings. Positive communication facilitates movement on the

Cohesion and Adaptability variables and negative communication decreases the ability to share their feelings and thoughts with one another and inhibits the family's ability to change on the other two dimensions (Olson, 2000). Bhushan and Shirali (1992) found a positive association between balanced family types and effective communication. Research by Barnes and Olson (1985) found that based on parents' reports balanced families were associated with better communication and low communication scores were associated with Extreme family types. Families who have a balanced relationship are able to be both independent and connected to their families (Olson, 2000). Anderson (1986) also found support for the hypothesis that positive communication is related to balanced levels of cohesion and adaptability, the characteristics that make up the Balance family type. These findings about the relationship between family type and communication are correlational and further experimental research is needed to determine the directionality of this relationship.

Limitations of This Study

As with all survey research, there were several limitations of this study. The first limitation pertains to the sample selection. This sample was selected from two distinct groups of fathers. One sample was from the DADs organization and the other sample was from a Midwestern city that had daughters attending local public elementary and middle schools. When preliminary analyses were performed, it was found that there were no significant differences between the DADs' members and local school district participants. With the fathers who had daughters attending the local schools, I had initially randomly selected the participants and sent them the questionnaires. The response rate was low and a second set of questionnaires were sent to the remaining fathers not originally selected

through the randomization process. I still did not have enough participants and therefore I sent questionnaires to fathers from another school, within the same school district, to insure that potential participants had a daughter in the specified age range. I did not send more questionnaires to the DADs fathers because I did not know if they had a daughter in the age range of this study. As a result, the sample of fathers chosen for this study may not reflect a truly random sample of the population.

Another limitation is related to the sample composition. Members of the DADs organization are located in several states and countries around the world. However, questionnaires were only sent to United States postal addresses to insure that the questionnaires would be returned by the specified date. The other sample of fathers was from a rural Midwestern town, which consists of predominantly Caucasian men. Since this sample consisted of only one Midwestern town, these results might also not generalize to fathers in other regions of the country or other ethnically diverse fathers given that 93% of the participants identified themselves as Caucasian. In addition, there may be some other characteristics of this sample of fathers that makes them different from other fathers. It is impossible to tell if the participants are a true representative sample of fathers from the general population. The participants of the study invested time and energy in completing the surveys that others may not have done.

A third limitation of this study may have been the data analysis, as a conservative statistical approach was utilized. It was recognized that the amount of time that fathers' spent with daughters was a confound, which would influence fathers' responses regarding their overall relationships with their daughters. However, it is likely that time spent with daughter and daughters' menarchal status shares some variance. The covariance was done

to control for the effect of the time spent with daughter confound. Consequently by controlling for the influence of the amount of time spent with daughters, I may have unintentionally covaried out or controlled for some of the influence of menarchal status. The influence of daughters' menarchal status may have been stronger than the statistical analyses suggests. The conservative approach was used as a way to deal with the confound of fathers' time spent with daughters on the dependent variables.

Another limitation involved the study design. Because this study involved survey research, I was not able to control for extraneous factors that may have impacted the results. For example, the timing of data collection may have been influential for the father-daughter dyad. I was unable to obtain an accurate indication of how long the postmenarchal daughters had been menstruating. The length of time since the onset of menarche may be a factor in the quality of the relationship between father and daughter. In addition, I was unable to attain the specific pubertal stage of the premenarchal girls. Some girls may have been developmentally closer to menarche than others and this variable could impact the father-daughter relationship.

It is likely that there were numerous other developmental factors, not just menarchal status, impacting fathers' responses on the questionnaires. For example, this study's preliminary analyses examined the influence of the amount of time that fathers spent with daughters on the dependent variables. This variable was analyzed because it was thought that the amount of direct and prolonged interaction that a father has with his daughter may be influential. Other researchers have found that as girls' age they increase the amount of time that they spend with their friends and decrease the amount of time that they spend with their family (Larson & Richards, 1991). Adolescence is a time for

numerous transformations in young girls. Not only are they going through biological changes, but they are also experiencing psychological, social, emotional, and cognitive changes. Because just daughters' menarchal status was assessed, it is difficult to determine if differences between fathers of premenarchal and fathers of postmenarchal daughters are due only to the onset of menstruation for the daughter or other changes that occur while moving through puberty and adolescence. It is possible that the relationship between fathers and postmenarchal daughters are qualitatively different, even without the menstruation factor.

One weakness of this study was that daughters' menarchal status was based on fathers' response to only one question. While Holmbeck and Hill (1991) found a .81 to .90 correlation between parents rating of daughters' menarchal timing and daughters' actual menarchal timing, this was only a strong positive relationship and not a percentage of accuracy. Previous research has used a variety of methods to determine menarchal status, including observation, self-report, and report via mothers (Steinberg, 1988, Brooks-Gunn & Warren, 1988; Silverberg & Steinberg, 1990). Having multiple sources could increase the study's reliability and validity.

It is likely that there are other relationships that may impact the father-daughter dyad; such as, the relationship between mother and daughter, and the quality of this parent-child relationship. In addition, the Cole and Jordan (1989) speculated that the quality of the relationship that a father has with his child may depend on the quality of his marriage. The levels of these variables and other confounding variables may have also influenced fathers' responses on the questionnaires. Finally, because this is not an experimental study and I did not have a control group, it is impossible to determine that

menarche was the sole cause of the differences in fathers' responses. One can only assume that it was one of many contributing factors.

Implications of Findings

Research Implications

Various recommendations for future research will be discussed in this section based partly upon the limitations of the present study. Recommendations include (a) improving the diversity of participants, (b) extending the sample under investigation (e.g., relationship with their daughter), (c) having multimodal assessments, (d) incorporating multi-informant data, and (e) developing a longitudinal research design.

To enhance the possibility of revealing more information about father-daughter relationships, I would modify some participant variables within the project. First, I would use a larger and more diverse sample of fathers. With a low response rate of 10.5%, I had only a total of 72 fathers participate, with the majority of these being Caucasian. A larger sample and one with a more diverse socio-economic status would be more reflective of the population. For example, fathers from other cultural and ethnic backgrounds may have different types of relationships with their daughters.

Given that 78.8% of participants reported on their biological daughters and 79.8% of fathers indicated that they were married to the biological mother of their daughters, this research was not able to examine the numerous other types of father-daughter relationships. In this study, the samples of adopted or step-daughters were too small to conduct statistical analyses. However, these are important categories of father-daughter relationships that need further research. Given the diversity of today's family compositions, such as biological, step, adoptive, foster, and extended families, it will be

important to examine how the family composition may influence the parent-child and father-daughter relationship. It is probable that differences could exist in the characteristics of the father-daughter relationship depending on the type of family arrangement.

One drawback of this research was that the independent variable was based on the participants' response to one question "Has your daughter/s reached menarche, her first menstrual period?" The results of this study are based on the assumption that the father was accurate in his response to the question. To better insure the accuracy of the answer to this crucial question, I would incorporate multiple assessments from multiple informants. This would include assessing, via survey or interview, the mother about her awareness of her daughter's menarchal status. In addition, I would want to allow the daughter the opportunity to provide the first-hand knowledge about her menarchal status. Finally, I would want to compare the parents' knowledge of their daughter's menarchal status with an assessment completed by the daughter. This would better insure that I have an accurate measurement of the daughter's menarchal status.

The purpose of this research is to examine the father-daughter relationship. Since the current research design only examines one component of this dyad, I would want to incorporate information obtained from the daughter's perspective about her relationship with her father in future research. I would examine variables such as the daughter's perceived level of cohesion, adaptability, communication patterns, and interaction styles. This would allow me to compare if both members view the relationship similarly or if there are difference perspectives between father and daughter. In addition, there may be changes, subtle or overt, in the daughters' thoughts, feelings, or interactions that impact

their relationships with their fathers. In turn, this change on the daughters' part has the potential to impact how the father acts and feels about his daughter. With this information, researchers would have a better understanding of and how fathers and daughters experience and acknowledge the changes in their relationship as the girl moves through the pubertal developmental process.

Like many psychological phenomena, the father and adolescent daughter relationship is dynamic and ever changing. Unfortunately, much of the current research that examines parents and adolescent children is cross sectional. Typically, researchers take a quick snapshot picture of the relationship and then leave, rarely to return again. I believe it is necessary to study the parent-child relationship longitudinally for many years. Both parent and child experience numerous changes as they progress through their individual developmental stages. According to the systems approach, when one family member experiences many changes, other family members are apt to be impacted (Atwater, 1996). Longitudinal studies are costly, both financially and through attrition. Yet from my perspective, the empirical and economic costs would be minimal compared to the potential richness of the data and insight gained into the father-daughter dyad.

I would like to design a study that examines fathers and daughters from the moment the relationship begins, either at the time that the sex of the unborn child is announced or at the daughter's birth. While it is impossible to ask an infant daughter to respond to objective surveys, it would be suitable to conduct observational research to monitor the interactions between father and infant daughter. As the relationship grows with age, I would want to continue the observational data collection and add both quantitative and qualitative methods. Results from this study show that changes occur in

the amount of time that fathers spend with their premenarchal versus postmenarchal daughters. These findings and others illustrate the need to further study the amount of time that fathers and daughters spend together. It would be critical to examine the variation in amount, quality, and variation of interactions over the years. There are other numerous variables that would be fruitful to study including influence of communication patterns, father's changing lifespan developmental stages, the influence of school and work, and daughter's birth order. With this type of design, I could obtain information on a variety of occasions, which would allow me to monitor the potential fluctuations and changes in the relationship. In addition, I would have a mass of data rather than scores from just one assessment period.

Theoretical Implications

Due to the shortage of research that has been conducted, there are few theories or theoretical models that conceptualize fathers or fatherhood. Consequently, I utilized the Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems as a theoretical foundation for this study. This model integrates family cohesion, adaptability, and communication. These variables are considered highly relevant in family theory models and critical for understanding family systems (Olson, 2000). This model is based on the assessment of the entire family; therefore, there is uncertainty about its applicability and capability to only assess the father-adolescent daughter relationship. Based on face validity, the variables and assessments associated with the model appear appropriate for measuring important qualities of the father-daughter relationship. Although I have permission from the author and publisher to modify the assessments to more clearly obtain information

about the dynamics of fathers and daughters, there is no literature that suggests that the altered assessments still measure the same constructs of the model.

The results of this study highlight some considerable gaps in applying the Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems to the father and adolescent daughter relationship. First and foremost, the Model only conceptualizes and evaluates aspects of the marital relationship and whole family system. A family is made up of numerous subsystems, all of whom may differ considerably from one another on various characteristics. It is necessary to understand the relationship between the family members in order to fully comprehend the family as whole (Feldman & Gehring, 1988). Research by Barnes and Olson (1995) illustrated the need to take into account responses of numerous family members rather than depending on one person's perspective. They found low levels of agreement and different opinions about family dynamics, such as cohesion and adaptability, between family members. The differences between family members' responses could be fruitful in gaining a better understanding into the family dynamics. For example, in this study it would have been beneficial to have responses from both father and daughter in order to more fully comprehend their dynamics. No single score or assessment can fully represent the complexity of the family dynamics. By allowing the family unit to be comprised of one unit of analysis is to dismiss important family characteristics (Cole & Jordan, 1989). To more fully incorporate family systems ideas in the future, there is a need for theoretical conceptualization and measurement to include individuals, dyads, triads, and other configurations of the family members. It is possible that the Circumplex Model does not accurately represent the characteristics of a husband-wife, parent-child, or sibling system within the family. Consequently, a new

depiction may be needed to more precisely illustrate these dynamic relationships. This research could have gained from having a specific parent-child model, as opposed to superimposing the father-daughter system into a family system model. In addition, dyad or triad specific instruments should be devised in order to more accurately assess the within family systems. This research study could have greatly benefited from a specific father-daughter assessment instrument, rather than making semantic modifications to the overall family system measurement.

This current research is an example of the need to expand the Model. The father-daughter relationship is an infrequently studied dyad. While the results of this study are informative, the fathers' responses cannot be considered characteristic of his relationships with other family members. The changes in cohesion between fathers of premenarchal versus postmenarchal daughters may not have been illuminated if he was to respond to assessment items about his whole family. While I was able to obtain the fathers' perspective of the father-adolescent daughter relationship, I am unable to even make hypotheses about how the daughters' views on the father-daughter relationship or how the father considers the whole family's relationship. Another area in that the Circumplex Model needs to expand upon is time. Currently, the Model does not account for the time that family members spend together. The results of this study found that the amount of time that fathers spend with their daughters does affect the scales and subscales of the Circumplex Model. By incorporating a variable about the amount of time spent together, the Model may be able to provide one of many potential reasons for the current levels of functioning and thus depict a more accurate representation of the family and its subsystems.

Adolescence is a timeframe in which a girl experiences numerous modifications in her biological, social, psychological, and cognitive world. The family systems perspective postulates that as one member of the family changes, other family members must adapt or accommodate the changes. The results of this study suggest that fathers and daughters experience changes when a girl goes through adolescence, particularly when a daughter experiences menarche. Steinberg (1988) found that pubertal maturation distances adolescents from their parents by increasing conflict and decreasing closeness.

The Circumplex Model is lacking the ability to distinguish between temporary and normal variations and clinically significant long-term problems. This means that researchers and therapists need to utilize the Model and its assessments repeatedly over time in order to obtain an accurate description of the family system and subsystems. While the Adaptability variable does account for the family's ability to be flexible in response to situational and developmental stress, it does not distinguish between normal stress and chronic, clinical stress. This could be done by incorporating test items that assess for severe signs of distress, such as abuse. In addition, the assessment could benefit from supplementary questions that allow the family to identify and/or describe stressors or experiences that are currently occurring. This distinction would be important for therapists to be able to differentiate when working with families. Different types of interventions may be needed in order to assist families experiencing normal developmental changes compared to families with significant clinical impairment.

Clinical Implications

There are several components that may be hindering better relationships between fathers and their adolescent daughters. Historically, adolescence and puberty have been

viewed as difficult times for both parent and child. One of the hallmarks of pubertal change for girls is menarche. Unfortunately, this important event in young girls' lives is typically overlooked and not discussed equally by both parents. In fact, many girls attempt to hide this pivotal occurrence in a sense of fear, embarrassment, and shame. These emotions and reactions are likely learned from a girl's society and culture as many religious and cultural traditions stigmatize menstruating women. For example in Western societies, the popular reference to menstruation as "the curse" began with the biblical telling of it being inflicted on Eve because of her sin (Merskin, 1999). Taboos and folk tales that surround menstruation also cross cultural and historical boundaries. The belief that menstrual blood is dirty and toxic can be traced to the writings of the early Greeks and Romans. For example, in Persia people thought a menstruating woman was possessed by a demon. In Rome, she was believed capable of destroying entire crops and wilting plants if she walked by them (Mahoney, 1988).

Research suggests that much of the fear associated with menses comes from the lack of input or information from parents (Koff & Rierdan, 1995). According to Hockenberry-Eaton, Richman, Dilorio, Rivero, and Maibach (1996), studies reveal that adolescents lack sufficiently accurate information about human sexuality and reproduction. When there is parental involvement in sex education, the information typically comes from the mother (Amann-Gainotti, 1986). This is the case not only in the United States, but also in other countries such as Bangladesh, the United Kingdom, Italy, and Spain. Unfortunately, parents typically feel uncomfortable talking about puberty, sex, and sex education. In a study examining mother and adolescent knowledge of sexual development terms, Hockenberry-Eaton, Richman, Dilorio, Rivero, and Maibach (1996)

found that mothers were more likely to correctly define the terms than either adolescent males or females. However, they were not able to adequately define most of the sexual development terms. These results raise concerns that mothers and fathers are unqualified to teach their children about sex or reinforce information that adolescents learn in school. This could result in uncertainty and even trauma for some girls who are unprepared, mentally or physically, for her first menstrual period.

Recent surveys reveal that adolescents' understanding of sexual issues, like menstruation, may be inadequate, indicating either that students never acquired basic information about sexual development or that the information was not retained (Hockenberry-Eaton, Richman, Dilorio, Rivero, and Maibach, 1996). To counter this lack of accurate information, parents and the education system can together provide children with accurate sex education and information about puberty. Consequently, creative and practical approaches to teaching sex education are needed. While utilizing a lecture approach is useful in communicating accurate information, it is associated with inattention and boredom. It is also least likely to result in absorption and assimilation of information into adolescents' lifestyles. Interactive education methods, such as group discussions and role-playing, allow teenagers to test their understanding of the knowledge and to identify errors in their comprehension of the information. Active approaches also allow adolescents to recognize that others may also not understand concepts (Hockenberry-Eaton, Richman, Dilorio, Rivero, and Maibach, 1996). While a mass societal attitudinal change about menarche and menstruation is unlikely, with a variety of educational approaches young adults will have a greater opportunity to learn accurate information about sexual development.

While the school systems can provide a variety of methods of information dissemination, mothers and fathers should also educate their children about sexual development through a diversity of methods. Parents could benefit from community programs about sexual development and reproductive issues as a way to obtain accurate information, to develop appropriate presentational formats, and to practice presenting the sensitive issues. Community-based programs could also be an interactive environment for parents and children to come together to discuss their questions and concerns regarding sex and puberty. There are a variety of ways for parents to have “the talk” with their children. Rather than having one conversation that covers the entire spectrum of puberty and sexual development, it is more beneficial for parents to start a series of casual conversations about their children’s more immediate concerns. Appropriate humor can also help parents and children get started talking about various topics. Allen (2000) suggests that parents screen books and other resources before sharing them with their children. She also suggests that parents and children get in the car and start driving so they do not have to make eye contact when talking about touchy issues.

Another approach to enhancing the parent-child relationship is therapeutic counseling services. Family therapy is one avenue for the entire family to examine their roles, duties, and relationships with one another. This process would be done with the support of the therapist who can teach and guide the family to build better rapport and communication. Olson (2000) outlined three main goals for family therapy based on the Circumplex Model. The first goal is to reduce the presenting problems and symptoms, which is done through interventions that focus on changing the dysfunctional family type

of the family system. The assumption is that the current Mid-Range or Extreme family type is helping to maintain the problems.

The second goal of therapy using the Circumplex Model is to modify the family system (Olson, 2000). This goal is typically achieved by changing one level on cohesion and adaptability towards a more balanced level. Given that communication is a facilitating factor in the Circumplex Model, any change or modification on this family characteristic is bound to change other qualities. Research by Anderson (1986) suggests that clinicians who target improved communication skills as their goal of therapy may also influence families towards more balanced levels of cohesion and adaptability. Consequently, increasing positive communication skills of families can facilitate system change. Family members can learn to assert their needs and feelings in a constructive manner, as well as how to provide empathic listening and responses to each other (Olson, 2000). Once the entire family is able to appropriately voice their concerns and listen to one another, they will be capable to work on balancing their levels of separateness and togetherness and balancing their levels of stability and change. In addition, therapists who work to clarify boundaries and flexibility within a family may also indirectly have an effect on the family's communication patterns (Anderson, 1986). Having good communication skills can assist families to more clearly enunciate the desired levels of cohesion and flexibility (Olson, 2000).

The third goal of the Circumplex Model is to increase the ability to negotiate system change over time. One hypothesis of the Model is that families need to alter their system as their individual and familial needs change (Olson, 2000). The onset of menstruation may require a change. While the adjustment is mainly for the girl, in

accordance with family systems the family also undergoes a change. Consequently, the overall goal of therapy is to teach and provide the family with the necessary skills to rationally discuss current stressors, as well as potential future challenging issues. This is an important preventative goal of the therapy beyond just dealing with the identified patient or issue.

These three goals of therapy are particularly relevant with fathers and adolescent daughters. The results of previous research (Steinberg, 1988; Steinberg & Hill, 1978) show that fathers and daughters experience a qualitative change in their relationship as girls experience adolescence. In addition, results of this study suggest that there is a qualitative change after the onset of menarche. By being involved in therapy with the entire family or just father and daughter, the dyad would be better able to identify and address the lack of balance in their relationship. Typically, a father and his teenage daughter do not spend much time together and they have different perspectives, worldviews, and opinions. The results of this study show that the amount of time that fathers and daughters spend together can influence aspects of their relationship. Consequently, therapy could serve three functions. First it could be an avenue to teach family members effective interpersonal skills as a way to have healthier relationships. Second, therapy would method to insure that fathers and daughters would have time together that they may not have outside of a counseling session. Third, therapy would be an advocate to encourage parent and child to continue to interaction and spend time together in mutually enjoyable activities. Way and Gillman (2000) found that girls desire more interactions and conversations with their fathers. Counseling could be the catalyst for fathers and postmenarchal daughters to build greater emotional intimacy, cohesion,

adaptability, and communication by allowing them to devote their attention to one another, a luxury that likely does not occur during busyness of daily life.

Conclusion

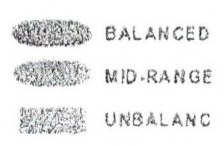
Research by Olson and Barnes (1986) on the Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems found that cohesion, adaptability, and the facilitating variable of communication are important dimensions of a family system. The stage of the family's life-cycle and its member composition has considerable influence on the degree of these three qualities, as well as the type of family system. One such meaningful stage in a family's life is when a child progresses through puberty and adolescence. The physical, emotional, social, and cognitive changes that a young girl experiences has ramifications on her own life, as well as her family's life. A major task for the girl and her family is to redefine the familial roles and relationships in order to accommodate the transformation from child to adult. During this pubertal timeframe, a father's relationship with his daughter may no longer best be characterized by the phrase "daddy's little girl" as she is no longer be physically or developmentally little. It is hopeful that the same loving and caring relationship that existed between father and child will continue to exist, with some minor modifications, between father and adolescent daughter

In the present study, the influence of menarchal status and amount of time spent together was examined on levels of cohesion, adaptability, family type, and communication between fathers and daughters. The current research shows there are distinguishable differences in the relationship between fathers of premenarchal daughters and fathers of postmenarchal daughters. The findings support the family systems perspective that boundaries and relationships must change as a function of development

(Minuchin, 1985). The findings of this study do not answer the difficult, if not impossible, question of if daughters' menarchal status alone contributes to changes in the quality of relationship between fathers and adolescent daughters. It is crucial that continued research be conducted on the role and influence of father and fatherhood, as for so many years information about this parental figure was neglected. It is recognized that many factors influence fathers' relationships with their adolescent daughters due to the evolving nature of adolescence and lifespan development. Continued research should focus on an intensive, longitudinal study that examines the influence of other biopsychosocial variables of pubertal development on the father-daughter relationship.

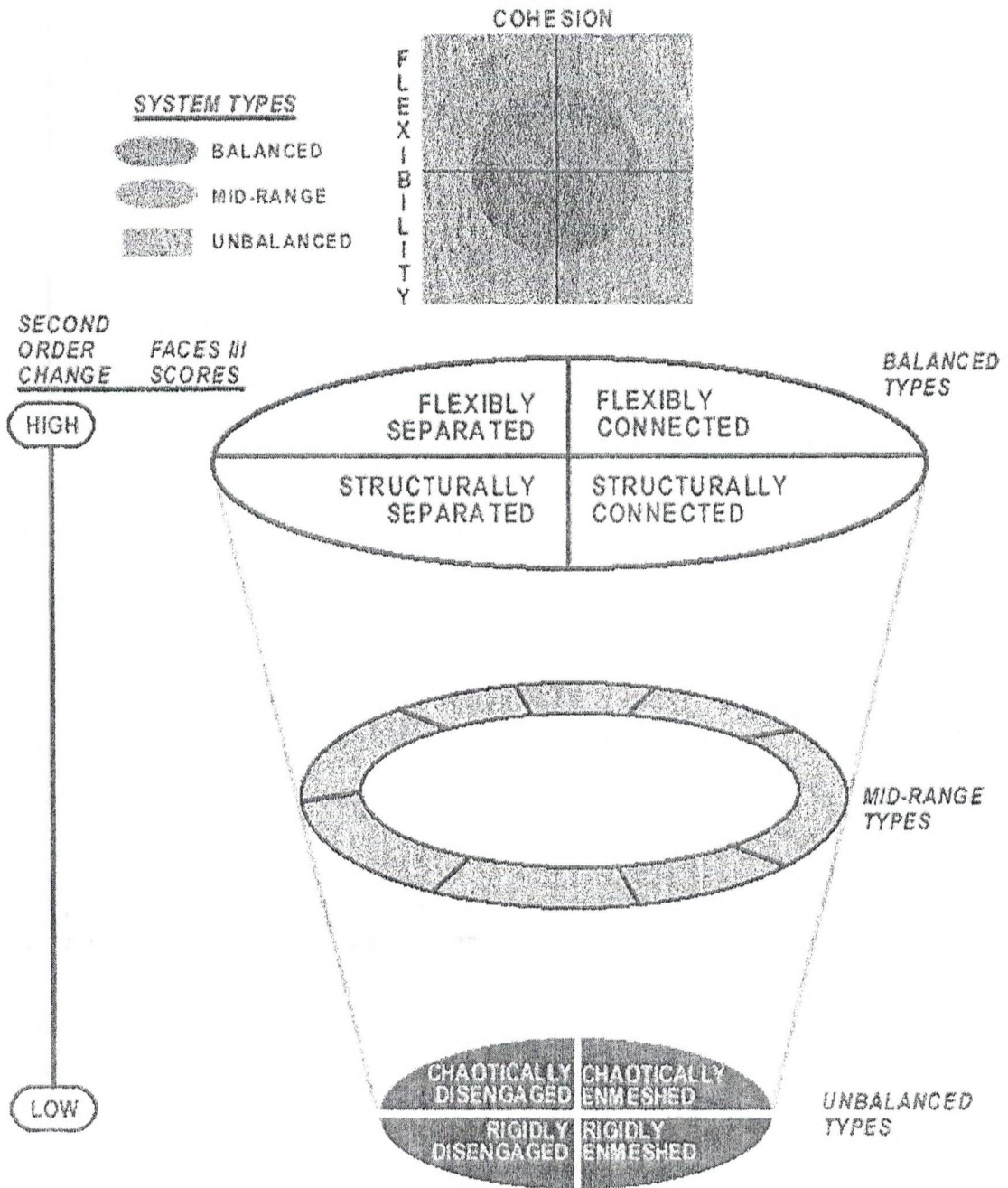
Appendix A
Circumplex Model: Sixteen Types of Marital and Family Systems

		Low ————— COHESION ————— High				
		DISENGAGED	SEPARATED	CONNECTED	ENMESHED	
High F L E X I B L I T Y Low	CHAOTIC	CHAOTICALLY DISENGAGED	CHAOTICALLY SEPARATED	CHAOTICALLY CONNECTED	CHAOTICALLY ENMESHED	LEVELS OF FLEXIBILITY CHAOTIC <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of leadership • Dramatic role shifts • Erratic discipline • Too much change
	FLEXIBLE	FLEXIBLY DISENGAGED	FLEXIBLY SEPARATED	FLEXIBLY CONNECTED	FLEXIBLY ENMESHED	FLEXIBLE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shared leadership • Democratic discipline • Role sharing change • Change when necessary
	STRUCTURED	STRUCTURALLY DISENGAGED	STRUCTURALLY SEPARATED	STRUCTURALLY CONNECTED	STRUCTURALLY ENMESHED	STRUCTURED <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership sometimes shared • Somewhat democratic discipline • Roles stable • Change when demanded
	RIGID	RIGIDLY DISENGAGED	RIGIDLY SEPARATED	RIGIDLY CONNECTED	RIGIDLY ENMESHED	RIGID <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authoritarian leaders • Strict discipline • Roles seldom change • Too little change
LEVELS OF COHESION:		DISENGAGED	SEPARATED	CONNECTED	ENMESHED	
I - We Balance:		I	I - We	I - We	WE	
Closeness:		Little Closeness	Low-Moderate	Moderate-high	Very high	
Loyalty:		Little Loyalty	Some loyalty	High loyalty	Very High loyalty	
Independence/Dependence		High Independence	Interdependent (More independence than dependence)	Interdependent (More dependence than independence)	High dependency	



BALANCED
 MID-RANGE
 UNBALANCED

Appendix B: Three-Dimensional Family Circumplex Model



Appendix C
Informational Letter

Dear Participants,

I, Jennifer Mueller, am a graduate student in the Department of Counseling at the University of North Dakota. As a part of my doctoral degree requirements, I am conducting a research project about parent-adolescent relationships. I am working in conjunction with my faculty advisor, Dr. Donald Daughtry. The purpose of this study is to learn more about the possible changes that occur within father-adolescent relationships.

I am requesting your consent to participate in this study. Participants will be asked to complete three instruments, which will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. The Demographic instrument includes 16 general descriptive questions in order to learn about the participant. The Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales II asks participants to respond to 30 statements about how frequently each item is true for their relationship with their father. The Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale is a 20-item instrument that asks participants to assess the degree of open family communication and extent of problems in father-daughter communication.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to choose not to participate and can withdraw from the study at any time. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study will be anonymous and will remain confidential. Your name will not be on the questionnaires and only group data will be presented in my report. Following the completion of this study, the consent forms and the data will be kept for three years in separate locked cabinets and then they will be destroyed. Participants who complete the questionnaires and return them to the researcher will be eligible to win one of two \$25 gift certificates to his choice of either a bookstore or music store.

It is believed that there are minimal risks to completing the instruments. There is a slight possibility that you may experience some inconvenience due to time in completing the questionnaire. It may be possible that you could experience some discomfort in disclosing some information about your personal relationships. The benefits of your participating include being able to participate in scientific research. The obtained data will add important information about the impact and role that a father has on his adolescent daughter.

If you would like a copy of the final results, please complete the enclosed blank card with address where you would like to receive the information. The results can be sent to you via the postal mail system or electronically, such as email. Please place the card in the envelope that you are returning the survey results in. Once the researcher receives the envelope, the card with the information and the instruments will be separated and kept in different locations to protect your confidentiality.

Your decision to participate will not impact your future relations with the University of North Dakota or the Department of Counseling. If you have any questions about the

research project, please feel free to contact the researcher, Jennifer Mueller, jennifer_mueller@und.nodak.edu or (701) 777-9830, or faculty advisor, Dr. Donald Daughtry at donald_daughtry@und.nodak.edu or (701) 777-6234.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Jennifer L. Mueller, M.A.
Department of Counseling
University of North Dakota

Donald Daughtry, Ph.D.
Committee Chair
Department of Counseling

University of North Dakota

Appendix D Consent Form

You are invited to participate in a study of father-adolescent relationships. I, Jennifer Mueller, am a graduate student in the Department of Counseling at the University of North Dakota and I am being supervised by Dr. Donald Daughtry, my faculty advisor. As a part of my degree requirements, I am conducting this research project. Through this project, I hope to learn more about the possible changes that occur within father-adolescent relationships.

If you choose to participate, you will be asked to complete three questionnaires that would take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. The questionnaires ask you to respond to several statements about your feelings about your daughter and your relationship with her. You will have several possible answers to choose from that will best reflect your relationship with your daughter. It may be possible that you have more than one daughter in 8-13 age range that this study is examining. Consequently, there is room on the instruments for you to answer each question for your daughters, individually, by indicating the appropriate letter of possible responses on the line next to the daughter that it applies to. This way you will be able to answer the questions for each daughter individually.

It is believed that there are minimal risks not beyond those in encountered daily life to completing the questionnaires. It may be possible that you would experience some inconvenience due to time in completing the questionnaire. It may be possible that you would experience some discomfort in disclosing information about your personal relationships. If you do experience discomfort, I would encourage you to consult your local yellow pages to discuss your concerns with a professional counselor or psychologist. You may benefit from this study because it may help you become more aware of the relationship with your daughter. There are no other foreseeable benefits to the participants other than helping the researcher. The benefits to participating involve adding to the information about the changes that occur within father-daughter relationships. The information obtained may be useful in reducing the tension that commonly occurs during adolescence between parent and child. The results could also be used to develop techniques that could be used to foster better relationship between fathers and daughters.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study will be anonymous and will remain confidential. Your name will not be on the questionnaires and only group data will be presented in my report. Following the completion of this study, the consent forms and data will be kept in separate locked cabinets for three years and then they will be destroyed. Your decision whether or not to participate will not change your future relations with the University of North Dakota or the Department of Counseling. Participation in this study is voluntary. If you decide to participate, you are free to discontinue participation at any time without it being held against you. You will be given a copy of this form.

The investigators involved are available to answer any questions you have concerning this research. In addition, you are encouraged to ask any questions concerning this research that you may have in the future. Questions may be addressed by contacting Jennifer Mueller at jennifer_mueller@und.nodak.edu or (701) 777-9830 or Dr. Donald Daughtry, faculty advisor, at donald_daughtry@und.nodak.edu or (701) 777-6234.

After reading the above information, please read the following statement and sign below if you agree to participate.

ALL OF MY QUESTIONS HAVE BEEN ANSWERED AND I AM ENCOURAGED TO ASK ANY QUESTIONS THAT I MAY HAVE CONCERNING THIS STUDY IN THE FUTURE. I have read all of the above and willingly agree to participate in this study explained to me by Jennifer Mueller. I have also received a copy of the consent form to keep for my own records.

Participant's Signature

Date

Jennifer L. Mueller, M.A.
Researcher

Date

Donald Daughtry, Ph. D.

Date
Advisor

Appendix E
Demographic Questionnaire

Carefully read the following questions. Please circle the most appropriate answer as it applies to your life. **DO NOT put your name or your daughter's name on this form or any of the other questionnaires.** This study is interested in father-daughter relationships as the daughter experiences menarche, the first menstrual period. This typically occurs between the ages of 8 and 13. Please answer the following questions as they relate to your daughter(s) between the ages of 8 and 13.

If you have more than one daughter between the ages of 8 and 13, please answer every question for each daughter. This would involve placing the appropriate letter that correctly answers the question next to the line for each daughter. This way you will be able to answer the questions for each daughter individually. For example, an oldest daughter may be 12-years-old, second oldest daughter 10, and third oldest daughter 8. It is possible that you will have different answers for a question for each daughter.

1. How old are you? _____
2. How many children do you have? _____
3. How many daughters do you have? _____
4. What are the ages of your daughters?

Oldest Daughter	_____
Second Oldest Daughter	_____
Third Oldest Daughter	_____

5. What is your ethnic background?
 - a. African-American
 - b. Caucasian
 - c. Hispanic/Latino
 - d. Native American
 - e. Asian-American
 - f. Other, please describe

6. What is your daughter's ethnic background?

a. African-American	Oldest Daughter	_____
b. Caucasian	Second Oldest Daughter	_____
c. Hispanic/Latino	Third Oldest Daughter	_____
d. Native American		
e. Asian-American		
f. Other, please describe		

7. Is/are the girl/s that you consider your daughter/s, your _____?

a. Biological daughters	Oldest Daughter	_____
b. Step-daughters	Second Oldest Daughter	_____
c. Nieces	Third Oldest Daughter	_____
d. Granddaughters		

- e. Foster child
- f. Adopted
- g. Other, please describe

8. Are you _____ from the biological mother of your daughter?

- | | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Married | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. Separated | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. Divorced | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| d. Widowed | | |
| e. Never married | | |
| f. Living together | | |
| g. Other, please describe | | |

9. Whom does your daughter/s live with?

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Biological mother and father | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. Biological mother only | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. Biological father only | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| d. Biological mother and step-father | | |
| e. Biological father and step-mother | | |
| f. Grandparents | | |
| g. Foster parents | | |
| h. Adoptive parents | | |
| i. Other, please describe | | |

10. How often do you spend prolonged and direct one-on-one time with your daughter/s?

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Daily | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. Once a week | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. A couple times a week | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| d. Once a month | | |
| e. A couple times a month | | |
| f. Once a year | | |
| g. A couple of times a year | | |
| h. Never | | |
| i. Other, please explain | | |

11. Have you specifically talked to your daughter about puberty?

- | | | |
|--------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Yes | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. No | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |

12. If yes, did you do so in conjunction with your wife/partner?

- | | | |
|--------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Yes | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. No | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |

13. Has your daughter/s reached menarche, her first menstrual period?
- | | | |
|----------------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Yes | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. No | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. Do Not Know | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |

14. How confident are you of your response to Question 13?
- | | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Very confident | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. Somewhat confident | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. Neutral | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| d. Somewhat unconfident | | |
| e. Very unconfident | | |

14. If yes, who told you about this event in your daughter's life?
- | | | |
|--|------------------------|-------|
| a. Daughter | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. Wife/Partner | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. Daughter's siblings | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| d. School | | |
| e. No one told me, I just figured it out | | |
| f. Other, please explain | | |

13. If yes, how long ago did this event occur?
- | | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| a. 1-3 months ago | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. 4-6 months ago | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. 7-9 months ago | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| d. 10-12 months ago | | |
| e. More than 1 year ago | | |
| f. More than 2 years ago | | |
| g. Do Not Know | | |

14. Since your daughter has begun to menstruate, how has your relationship with her been impacted?
- | | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Not at all | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. A little bit | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. Some differences or changes | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| d. Significant changes | | |
| e. Completely changed | | |

15. Young girls experience many physical changes during puberty. Please indicate **all** physical changes of your daughter, as more than one response is possible.
- | | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Breast Development | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. Underarm hair | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. Increase in height | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| d. Menarche | | |
| e. No physical changes | | |

16. How confident are you of your response to Question 15?

- | | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Very confident | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. Somewhat confident | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. Neutral | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| d. Somewhat unconfident | | |
| e. Very unconfident | | |

17. Young girls experience many behavioral changes during puberty. Please indicate **all** behavioral changes of your daughter, as more than one response is possible.

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Changes in aggressiveness | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. Increased time spent alone | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. Decreased time spent alone | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| d. Increased time spent with peers | | |
| e. Decreased time spent with family | | |
| f. Increased time spent with boys | | |
| g. Dating | | |
| h. No behavioral changes | | |

18. How confident are you of your response to Question 17?

- | | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| a. Very confident | Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| b. Somewhat confident | Second Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| c. Neutral | Third Oldest Daughter | _____ |
| d. Somewhat unconfident | | |
| e. Very unconfident | | |

Appendix F
 FACES II: Family Version-Modified
 David H. Olson, Joyce Portner & Richard Bell

Carefully read the following questions. Please place the number of the most appropriate answer as it applies to your daughter(s) aged 8-13. If you have multiple daughters between the ages of 8 and 13, please answer the questions for each daughter on the line that reflects their chronological age. **DO NOT** put your name on this form or any of the other questionnaires.

<u>Response Choices</u>				
1	2	3	4	5
Almost Never	Once in Awhile	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost
Always				

1. Father and daughter(s) are supportive of each other during difficult times.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
2. In our family, it is easy for father and daughter(s) to express his/her opinion.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
3. It is easier to discuss problems with people outside the family than with my daughter(s).
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
4. Father and daughter(s) has input regarding major family decisions.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
5. Father and daughter(s) gather together in the same room.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
6. Daughter(s) have a say in their discipline.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
7. Father and daughter(s) do things together.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
8. Father and daughter(s) discuss problems and feel good about the solutions.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

9. In our family, father and daughter(s) go his/her own way.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

10. We shift household responsibilities from person to person.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

11. Father and daughter(s) know each other's close friends.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

12. It is hard to know what the rules are in our family.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

13. Father and daughter(s) consult with other family members on personal decisions.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

14. Father and daughter(s) say what they want.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

15. We have difficulty thinking of things to do as father and daughter.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

16. In solving problems, the daughter's suggestions are followed.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

17. Father and daughter(s) feel close to each other

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

18. Discipline is fair our family.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

19. Father and daughter(s) feel closer to people outside the family than to each other.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

20. Father and daughter(s) try new ways of dealing with problems.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
21. Father and daughter(s) go along with what the family decides to do.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
22. In our family, father and daughter(s) share responsibilities.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
23. Father and daughter(s) like to spend their free time with each other.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
24. It is difficult to get a rule changed between father and daughter(s).
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
25. Father and daughter(s) avoid each other at home.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
26. When problems arise, we compromise.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
27. We approve of each other's friends.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
28. Father and daughter(s) are afraid to say what is on their minds.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
29. Father and daughter(s) pair up rather than do things as a total family.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
30. Father and daughter(s) share interests and hobbies with each other.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter

Appendix G

Sample Modifications Made to the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale-II

Original Item

1. Family members are supportive of each other during difficult times.
6. Children have a say in their discipline.
11. Family members know each other's close friends.
16. In solving problems, children's suggestions are followed.
21. Family members go along with what the family decides to do.
28. Family members are afraid to say what is on their minds.

Modified Item

1. Father and daughter(s) are supportive of each other during difficult times.
6. Daughter(s) have a say in their discipline.
11. Father and daughter(s) know each other's close friends.
16. In solving problems, the daughter's suggestions are followed.
21. Father and daughter(s) go along with what the family decides to do.
28. Fathers and daughter(s) are afraid to say what is on their minds.

Appendix H
 Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale-Modified
 Howard L. Barnes & David H. Olson

Carefully read the following questions. Please place the number of the most appropriate answer as it applies to your daughter(s) aged 8-13. If you have multiple daughters between the ages of 8 and 13, please answer the questions for each daughter on the line that reflects their chronological age. **DO NOT** put your name on this form or any of the other questionnaires.

<u>Response Choices</u>				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I can discuss my beliefs with my daughter(s) without feeling restrained or embarrassed.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
2. Sometimes I have trouble believing everything my daughter(s) tells me.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
3. My daughter(s) is a good listener.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
4. I am sometimes afraid to ask my daughter(s) for what I want.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
5. My daughter(s) has a tendency to say things to me which would be better left unsaid.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
6. My daughter(s) can tell how I'm feeling without asking.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
7. I am very satisfied with how my daughter(s) and I talk together.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
8. If I were in trouble, I could tell my daughter(s).

8. If I were in trouble, I could tell my daughter(s).
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
9. I openly show affection to my daughter(s).
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
10. When we are having a problem, I often give my daughter(s) the silent treatment.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
11. I am careful about what I say to my daughter(s).
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
12. When talking to my daughter(s), I have a tendency to say things that would be better left unsaid.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
13. When I ask questions, I get honest answers from my daughter(s).
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
14. My daughter(s) tries to understand my point of view.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
15. There are topics I avoid discussing with my daughter(s).
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
16. I find it easy to discuss problems with my daughter(s).
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
17. It is very easy for me to express all my true feelings to my daughter(s).
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
18. My daughter(s) nags/bothers me.
 _____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest Daughter
19. My daughter(s) insults me when she is angry with me.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest
Daughter

20. I don't think I can tell my daughter(s) how I really feel about some things.

_____ Oldest Daughter _____ Second Oldest Daughter _____ Third Oldest
Daughter

Appendix I

Sample Modifications Made to the Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale

Original Item

1. I can discuss my beliefs with my child without feeling restrained or embarrassed.
5. My child has a tendency to say things to me which would be better left unsaid.
9. I openly show affection to my child.
13. When I ask questions, I get honest answers from my child.
17. It is very easy for me to express all my true feelings to my child.

Modified Item

1. I can discuss my beliefs with my daughter(s) without feeling restrained or embarrassed.
5. My daughter(s) has a tendency to say things to me which would be better left unsaid.
9. I openly show affection to my daughter(s).
13. When I ask questions, I get honest answers from my daughter(s).
17. It is very easy for me to express all my true feelings to my daughter(s).

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