

ROLE SATISFACTION IN STAY-AT-HOME FATHERS: IMPACT OF SOCIAL
SUPPORT, GENDER ROLE ATTITUDES, AND PARENTAL SELF-EFFICACY

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To the Dean of the Graduate School:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Sarah Johnson entitled "Role Satisfaction in Stay-at-Home Fathers: Impact of Social Support, Gender Role Attitudes, and Parental Self-Efficacy." I have examined this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy with a major in Counseling Psychology.

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DEDICATION

For all the parents who are bravely trying to balance the demands of life, making difficult choices for the sake of their families. May you be able to navigate the twists and turns of life and arrive at a place of peace, contentment, and joy.

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ABSTRACT

SARAH JOHNSON

ROLE SATISFACTION IN STAY-AT-HOME FATHERS: IMPACT OF SOCIAL SUPPORT, GENDER ROLE ATTITUDES, AND PARENTAL SELF-EFFICACY

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Family and work life have interacted with one another in various ways throughout history. Recently, concerns about the demands of work interfering with family life, and vice versa, have spurred research in the area of work-family conflict. Though past research in this area has focused on mothers, changes in expectations associated with fatherhood have brought about interest in furthering understanding of how fathers might also experience conflict between work and family life. One way in which men are increasingly choosing to approach this conflict is by leaving the work realm and choosing to become primary caregivers for their children. Though the number of men staying home with their children is increasing, stay-at-home fathers continue to encounter a lack of social support as a result of taking on a traditionally feminine role. As such, this study sought to understand the gender role attitudes, social support, and parental self-efficacy of stay-at-home fathers as well as how these variables may relate to their overall role satisfaction. Pearson's r correlations and multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses. Overall, results indicated that gender role attitudes, social support, and parental self-efficacy were significant predictors of overall role satisfaction for stay-

at-home fathers. Implications for findings and directions for future research are discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The spheres of work life and home life have been intertwined in many ways throughout history. Prior to the Industrial Revolution in the United States, family and work lives were one and the same, as the majority of work took place at the family home (Rotundo, 1993). Thus, children were reared at the same place that their family worked, and children were expected to contribute to the family work as soon as physically able. As such, concerns of negative interaction between work and family life were all but non-existent, as the spheres were so intricately interrelated.

After the Industrial Revolution, work began to be characterized as divorced from family or home life (Dowd, 2000). Men increasingly left home to travel to their job sites, leaving their families at home. A man's occupation became an integral piece of his identity, and historical views of men as the breadwinners of families became even more deeply embedded in societal discourse (Burgess, 1997). Jobs at this point in time were given to men, and women were expected to stay home with children and care for the household. These roles were in line with the gender role ideals of masculinity and femininity that already existed within society (Riley, 2003).

In recent decades, women have entered the workforce and it has become increasingly more common for women to join men in having work roles as well as family roles (Dowd, 2000). In keeping with this trend, research has begun to focus on the negative effect that work roles and demands may have not only on general well-being but

also on family life (Premeaux, Adkin, & Mossholder, 2004; Weer, Greenhaus & Linnehan, 2010; Westman, Etzion, & Gortler, 2004; Winkel & Clayton, 2010). Work-family conflict (WFC), defined as “role pressures from the work and family domains [that] are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77), has garnered attention as dual-earner families are becoming more common (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009). The majority of research in this area has focused on the conflict women experience between work and family (e.g., Behson, 2002), and many studies have concluded that, while men experience some degree of WFC, they generally do not experience it to the degree that women do (Byron, 2005; Sayer, 2005).

The focus on women’s experience of WFC likely stems from the idea that women belong in the home and to work outside the home is outside the norm for women (Bernard, 1981). Thus, research aligns with the societal notion that masculinity is synonymous with being the economic provider of a family, working outside the home, whereas femininity is synonymous with caregiving provided within the home (Riley, 2003). Similarly, gender role ideals dictate that men should not be the primary caregiver of children, as this is a role traditionally considered to be inherently feminine (Bolzendahl, 2004). Though some degree of separation from these rigid gender role ideals with regard to work currently exists, heterosexual, dual-earner families in which the mother works outside the home while the father is the primary caregiver for the children continue to be considered atypical and are regarded by some as suspect or odd (Dowd, 2000).

Disenchantment with Work Demands

Increasingly, working adults are becoming disenchanted with the demands of work life (Grandley & Cropanzano, 1999). Careers that require long hours and a constant focus on work are difficult for individuals to manage, particularly those individuals who have other demands, such as family, to which they must attend (Lambert, Hogan, & Altheimer, 2010; Ross, Altmaier, & Russell, 1989; Westman et al., 2004). Yet, societal views of the importance of working hard and obtaining success through working long hours and engaging in workplace competition continue to grow stronger. The fast-paced nature of many career fields necessitates that individuals be almost entirely devoted to their work life, leaving little room for other foci (Dyrbye et al., 2013; Gustavsson, Hallsten, & Rudman, 2010).

In recent years, research has shown the negative effects of working long hours and not leaving room for activities and a life outside of work (Mehri, 2000; Viviers, Lachance, Maranda, & Menard, 2008; Worthington, 2010). Research suggested that poor health outcomes, such as hypertension (Mills, Davidson, & Farag, 2004) and mental health concerns such as depression and anxiety (Reichenberg & MacCabe, 2007), are linked to working long hours and enduring high levels of stress. As the public becomes more aware of the negative consequences of work, a call for ways to marry work life with personal life more effectively has been issued. This is particularly true for individuals who have a family, particularly if that family includes children (Simon, 1995). Research has also focused on the possible negative consequences of children having limited

interaction with parents, an area of interest that directly stems from more parents working outside the home than ever before (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014).

In addition to disenchantment with work demands, individuals are becoming increasingly dissatisfied with characteristics deemed to be desirable or necessary for vocational success (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009). In many vocational fields, these characteristics closely align with masculine characteristics, such as aggressiveness, competitiveness, and independence (Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2002). Individuals have increasingly become frustrated with the emphasis placed on these aggressive traits and many have sought vocations outside of those that emphasize such traits. This trend toward moving away from aggressive, competitive fields is particularly relevant for men, as men are disproportionately represented in upper management positions that tend to emphasize such characteristics even more so than lower level positions (Grant Thornton, 2013). In addition, men are disproportionately represented in career fields that value masculine traits over feminine traits, such as engineers, professional athletes, and some specialties in the legal field (Mendez & Crawford, 2002).

Child Care Concerns

At the same time that individuals are becoming disillusioned with work demands, growing concerns about the affordability and accessibility of child care have increased stress in the family sphere (Greenspan, 2003). In the United States, high quality child care is often not readily accessible to families of lower and middle socioeconomic status, either financially or geographically (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). High quality child care centers are most often built in affluent areas of metropolitan cities, leaving families living

in less affluent or more rural locations little access to such care (Child Care Aware of America, 2012). As such, dual-earner families are often left with the choice between choosing a less desirable child care option or arranging for one parent to leave her or his job and become the primary child care provider for some period of time.

Increasingly, parents are told that their children's development is dependent upon the quality and quantity of parent-child interaction (Jia & Shoppe-Sullivan, 2011). Though much of this research has focused on the involvement of mothers, in recent years, emphasis has been placed on the importance of father involvement in the lives of children (Brown, McBride, Bost, & Shin, 2011). Father involvement has been linked to numerous child outcomes, including academic achievement (McBride, Schoppe-Sullivan, & Ho, 2005), increased paternal sensitivity (Brown, Mangelsdorf, & Neff, 2012), secure father-child attachment in early childhood (Brown et al., 2012; Cox, Owen, Henderson, & Margand, 1992), and decreased mental health symptoms (Cookston & Finlay, 2006). In a shift from previous views of fatherhood, the current view of a good father incorporates the results of these studies, thereby dictating that a good father spends time with his children and enjoys being highly involved in their lives.

This emphasis on parental involvement often leads to feelings of guilt for working parents. Research in this area has primarily focused on the guilt felt by working mothers, as the assumption is that mothers will feel more guilt than fathers (Rotkirch, & Janhunen, 2010). This assumption stems from a societal picture of a mother as innately nurturing and longing to be with her children at all times (Riley, 2003). Indeed, mothers are often the targets in discussions of working parent guilt and fathers are largely left out of the

conversation. Yet, fathers increasingly feel a similar sense of guilt and longing to be more involved in the lives of their children (Wall & Arnold, 2007). This guilt often compounds the search for child care, as parents may feel that, though such child care arrangements are necessary, the parent should be the one to stay at home with the children rather than an outside child care provider (Fischer & Anderson, 2012).

Stay-at-Home Fathers

The combination of WFC, disenchantment with work life, financial concerns, and child care concerns may lead to the choice for one parent to stay at home with the children while the other parent works outside the home (Zimmerman, 2000). Though heterosexual couples in which the mother works outside the home and the father stays at home with the children continue to be somewhat atypical, an increase in the number of families that fall in this category has occurred in the last several years (Latshaw, 2011). Men who choose to stay home with their children most often cite financial or child care concerns as their reason for choosing to stay home, though an increasing number of men cite unhappiness with their work life as one of the primary reasons (Dunn, Rochlen, & O'Brien, 2013). Currently, an estimated 2.2 million men do not work outside the home, and approximately 21% of those men identify that they stay home for the primary purpose of caring for children (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). The vast majority of these men are part of middle-class, heterosexual couples, in which each member of the couple places importance on their children being cared for by a parent rather than an outside child care provider.

Men who choose to stay at home with the children often face resistance and/or judgment from friends, family, and peers (Zimmerman, 2000). This judgment most often stems from the view that men should be economic providers for their families rather than child care providers. Thus, stay-at-home fathers (SAHFs) often experience less social support than working fathers and stay-at-home mothers (Grbich, 1992). Current research has not delved into the relationship between this lack of social support and overall role satisfaction of SAHF, but general research about the impact of social support on well-being has suggested that this lack of social support may have a negative effect on the role satisfaction of SAHF (Levy-Shiff, 1999).

Similarly, as men continue to be told that they are less naturally inclined to be nurturers than are women, their perceived efficacy as parents continues to be below that of mothers (Meuiner & Roskam, 2009). Fathers may view themselves as less efficacious parents than mothers, which they may relate to their lack of familiarity with child care tasks and the relatively small amount of time they spend with their children on a daily basis when compared to mothers (Murdock, 2013). Yet, it stands to reason that fathers who operate as the primary child care provider may feel more efficacious as a parent than fathers who do not act as primary caregiver. To date, no researcher has looked at the parental self-efficacy of SAHF.

Summary and Rationale for the Study

Individuals are becoming increasingly disenchanted with the expectations placed on them by their employers and career fields. In addition, parents are increasingly becoming frustrated with the lack of access to affordable and high-quality child care.

These frustrations have led to a rise in the incidence of SAHFs, as couples are becoming more likely to elect for one parent to stay home with the children. Though traditionally the parent who elected to stay at home was the mother, largely due to societal ideals of mothers as the nurturing caregivers, fathers have become more likely to take on the role of primary caregiver in recent times. Increasingly egalitarian gender role attitudes, as well as an increase in women's earning potential, are both contributors to this change.

Despite this increase in the incidence of SAHF, research has not adequately explored their overall experience. Current research on SAHF consists almost entirely of qualitative studies meant to understand their overall experience, with particular emphasis placed on their gender role attitudes and relationships with their partners. These qualitative studies have given rise to additional questions regarding the social support, parental self-efficacy, and role satisfaction of SAHF. Results of the present research on this population not only provide additional information with respect to SAHF, but also allow more insight into modern fatherhood.

Definition of Terms

Gender role attitudes: "Beliefs concerning behaviors, responsibilities, and activities appropriate for women and for men" (Corrigan & Konrad, 2007, p. 847).

Parental self-efficacy: "The expectation caregivers hold about their ability to parent successfully" (Jones & Prinz, 2005, p. 342).

Role satisfaction: "A pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's [role] or [role- related] experiences" (Barling & MacEwen, 1988, p. 337).

Social support: “Social resources that persons perceive to be available or that are actually provided to them by nonprofessionals in the context of both formal support groups and informal helping relationships” (Gottlieb & Bergen, 2010, p. 512).

Stay-at-home father: For the purposes of this study, stay-at-home fathers were considered to be those fathers who were a primary care provider for their child(ren) for at least 30 hours per week and work outside the home less than 25 hours per week (Fischer & Anderson, 2012; Merla, 2008).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Fatherhood

The definition of fatherhood has changed dramatically over time. Early views of fatherhood conceptualized fathers primarily through a biological perspective, focusing on innate qualities and the role of fathers in the survival of the species (Pleck, 2010). More recently, fatherhood has been conceptualized as a social construction (Latshaw, 2011) that is related to gender, economic, and political structures within the larger societal context that underlie family systems (Matta & Martin, 2006). While nurturing and caretaking of children has traditionally been viewed as a feminine trait or activity, more recent scholarship has suggested that these traits are not innate or biological, but rather, are socially constructed to be in line with femininity (Latshaw, 2011). Parenting skills are therefore acquired primarily by experience (LaRossa, 1988), and thus, the act of caring for children need not be automatically assigned to women. Scholars tend to view fatherhood as a systemic concept that cannot be separated from motherhood (Chesley, 2011). Fatherhood is “created in the shared goings-on between people in the course of their lives through intervals of negotiating, competing, compromising, and rearranging” and must be understood within a larger societal and cultural context (Matta & Martin, 2006, p. 20).

In recent years, feminists have called into question the current socially constructed view of fathers, as this view holds in place traditional family structures and

limits roles for both men and women (Matta & Martin, 2006). In addition, feminists called for a more egalitarian, less dominating model of fatherhood (Silverstein & Auerbach, 1999) that centers around nurture as a vital characteristic of fathers (Dowd, 2000). This focus on fatherhood resulted from a desire to equalize the distribution of family-related burdens, as women were shown to take more than their share of the household and child care duties even when working outside the home (Zimmerman & Addison, 1997). Current feminist literature on fatherhood has sought to better understand the division of power within a couple and how the division of labor may or may not be an adequate representation of the power differential (Ball, Cowan, & Cowan, 1995).

Historical View of Fatherhood

Historically, cultural images of fathers are of authority figures (Dowd, 2000). Their position of power within a patriarchal society was epitomized in images of fathers as kings, rulers, and heroes (Burgess, 1997). These images were further solidified in the Christian view of God as a father, which permeated not only religious groups but society as a whole in preindustrial times (Dowd, 2000). As such, fathers were seen as earthly images of a heavenly deity, relegating them to firm, dominant lawgivers who were meant to rule over submissive women and children (Burgess, 1997). As a result, fathers were depicted in societal images as strong and powerful, which was in direct contrast to images of mothers as demurring caregivers. Though artistic and cultural images of mothers with their children abounded, little to no such depictions of fathers existed (Dowd, 2000).

Rotundo (1993) described two major periods of fatherhood in the United States, which he referred to as patriarchal fatherhood (1620-1800) and modern fatherhood (1800-present). Rotundo noted that economics was perhaps the strongest historical force undermining fatherhood, as economic developments led to women returning to the workplace and men becoming increasingly less likely to be the exclusive breadwinner of the family. Indeed, industrialization had a profound impact on not only the economic state of families, but on the involvement of fathers (Dowd, 2000). Fathers in pre-industrialization America spent a large amount of time with their children due to simple proximity, as they were likely to be working on the family farm or other locations close to their family home. In contrast, the advent of industrialization led to the separation of wage work from families, thereby separating fathers from their children more than ever before, leaving mothers to be the primary caregivers (Dowd, 2000).

More recently, a potential third period of fatherhood, termed participant fatherhood, has emerged (Rotundo, 1993). Within this period, a shift has occurred, moving fatherhood ideals toward a focus on mutuality and personal happiness (Griswold, 1993). A new image of fathers has emerged and this image depicts fathers as being a male role model, friend, and provider in one (LaRossa, 1997). The emergence of the term daddyhood is central to this shift and signals that fathers may be viewed as companions to their children more than ever before. In addition, fathers are expected to be more engaged in the care of their children, though no specific commitment to gender equality underlies this new idea (LaRossa, 1997). Thus, over the last century, the view of fathers has shifted back and forth between two distinct visions of fathers, one as nurturers and

one as providers (Atkinson & Blackwelder, 1993). Currently, the view of the optimal, or good, father lies somewhere in the balance between these two ideals.

The Good Father

The notion of what constitutes a good father shifts over time in order to respond to cultural and institutional changes (LaRossa, Gordon, Wilson, Bairan, & Jaret, 1991). As previously noted, in the United States, the ideal father has shifted from a moral leader to a breadwinner to the current view of the nurturing and involved father (Matta & Martin, 2006). The current view of a good father encompasses the idea that men can be compassionate, involved caregivers of children (Latshaw, 2011), though this view varies somewhat with race, class, and sexual orientation (see section on Diversity in Fatherhood later in review; Bronte-Tinkew, Cararno, & Guzman, 2006). This perception is partially shaped by the fact that family roles are shifting to a more egalitarian view of partnership, such that either parent in a two-parent household may be the family breadwinner or stay home with the children (Dienhart, 2001).

LaRossa (1988) argued that the culture of fatherhood has changed, but the conduct of fatherhood has not. Though fatherhood is now conceptualized as encompassing a broader array of activities, men are not necessarily engaging in these activities (Yeung, Sandberg, Davis-Kean, & Hofferth, 2001). Fathers spend more time involved in the lives of their children than in the past, but continue to view themselves as helpers rather than primary or equal caregivers of the children (Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2006; Carlson, 2006). However, fathers do take on multiple roles within the family

system, including spouse, breadwinner, role model, and partner (Tamis-LeMonda, 2004). Thus, the role of child care provider is one of many roles that fathers can assume.

Research concerning the balance of household work in dual-earner heterosexual couples has indicated that husbands do not share the housework equally with their wives, even when both partners work outside the home (e.g., Miranda, 2011). According to data from the 2013 Bureau of Labor Statistics' Time Use Survey, on average, women spend 2.6 hours on household activities daily (i.e., housework, cooking), while men spend 2.1 hours on such activities. Whereas 19% of men report that they participate in household chores daily, 49% of women report daily engagement in household activities. Similarly, parental duties are distributed disproportionately, such that mothers take on a larger amount of the child care duties than fathers (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013), particularly when both parents are employed in full-time work outside the home (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008).

Fathers report that they are willing to take on child care duties if asked by the child's mother, though this continues to place the burden of responsibility on the mother (Zimmerman, 2000). Little to no research exists concerning this division of labor in families in which one partner does not work outside the home. Though it might be assumed that similar divisions are maintained in such a situation, research is needed in this area in order to fully understand how such a family structure might affect the division of labor within the family, particularly when the father is the stay-at-home parent.

Father Involvement

One of the most influential models of father involvement comes from Lamb, Pleck, Charnov, and Levine (1985). The authors identified a model consisting of three key factors: interaction, the act of the father engaging directly with his children; accessibility, the father being physically available to his children; and responsibility, the father taking responsibility for the children's welfare. The subject of father responsibility is directly related to stay-at-home fathers (Fischer & Anderson, 2012) and is discussed elsewhere in the present paper. Recent research has conceptualized father involvement from a broader perspective than originally offered by Lamb and colleagues, as the structure of modern families often necessitates that parents take on many roles within the family that this model does not measure (Brown et al., 2011). Yet, this model continues to be utilized to understand several dimensions of father involvement and its definition of involvement, though simplistic, continues to be regarded as important (Brown et al., 2011).

In 1985, Lamb and colleagues reported that fathers spend an average of 16 to 26 minutes per day in interactive activities with their children. More recent research has indicated that fathers now spend an average of 49 to 56 minutes per day with their children (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008), a finding indicative of an overall increase in the amount of time that fathers engage in parenting related activities (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2013). Expectations of father involvement are socially driven and can vary across dimensions (Jia & Shoppe-Sullivan, 2011), including gender of the child and race of the father (Leavell, Tamis-LeMonda, Ruble, Zosuls, & Cabrera,

2012). Higher levels of father involvement have been shown to be related to a variety of positive outcomes (Brown et al., 2011), including academic achievement (McBride, Schoppe-Sullivan, & Ho, 2005), increased paternal sensitivity (Brown, Mangelsdorf, & Neff, 2012), father-child attachment in early childhood (Brown et al., 2012; Cox, Owen, Henderson, & Margand, 1992), and decreased mental health symptoms (Cookston & Finlay, 2006). Yet, there continues to be a significant difference in involvement level between mothers and fathers.

Fathers report being available to their children approximately one-third to two-thirds as often as are mothers (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008; Lamb et al., 1985). The proportion of availability is higher when the children are older and when mothers are employed outside the home (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2013). Much of the recent literature examining father availability has focused on absent fathers, who would be considered to be completely unavailable to their children (Blanchard & Biller, 1971). The incidence of absent fathers declines as socioeconomic status increases, though mothers have been shown to be more available to children than fathers, regardless of socioeconomic status (Roopnarine, Fouts, Lamb, & Lewis-Elligan, 2005). Research in father involvement also focuses on fathers who work outside the home (Chesley, 2011), and as such, little is known about the availability of stay-at-home fathers and the effect of that availability on children.

Fatherhood Identity

As the view of fatherhood changes overall within society, so does the personal importance of fatherhood to individual identity. Research has indicated that, though men

are more often than before choosing not to be fathers, it remains a normative part of adult men's experience (Tichenor, McQuillan, Greil, Contreras, & Shreffler, 2011). Most men expect to be fathers and fatherhood is often viewed as an inevitable part of life (Lupton & Barclay, 1997). As such, more recent research has utilized identity theory to focus on the salience, centrality, and importance of father identity in men's lives (i.e., DeGarmo, 2010; Habib & Lancaster, 2006). Nicholson, Howard, and Borkowski (2008) identified that the more central fatherhood is to men's identity, the more involved men were in the mental and physical tasks of parenting. Similarly, the higher the salience and more important the fatherhood identity is to men's overall identity, the more likely they are to be involved in the day-to-day care of their children (i.e., Fox & Bruce, 2001; Rane & McBride, 2000).

Yet, measures of identity used in these studies posit identity as a construct arranged hierarchically, thus necessitating that identities be denoted as more or less important than each other (Tichenor et al., 2011). As such, the complicated and interrelated way that men's identities (e.g., father, partner, and employee) may function within individuals may be lost in much of the current research. Tichenor and colleagues (2011) employed a less hierarchical measure and identified that men view fatherhood as an important aspect of identity, but they viewed this portion of their identity as being part of a "package deal" (p. 246). In this manner, career identity was as important as father identity to the 932 men in the study, each of whom identified as being in a married or cohabitating relationship with a woman aged 25-45. The authors interpreted this finding as demonstrating the continued centrality of the provider role for father's identities. Indeed, more research is needed in order to understand the way in which the various

aspects of fathers' identities influence their caregiving and parenting decisions. In addition, the results from Tichenor and colleagues' (2011) study seem to suggest that ideologies concerned with the gendered nature of work and family may profoundly influence fathers' overall identity.

Diversity in Fatherhood

Though the previously discussed views of the ideal father are deeply embedded within society as a whole, there is evidence to suggest that these ideals may vary according to race, class, and sexual orientation. Much of the literature on fathers has focused on White, middle-class, heterosexual men (Dowd, 2000), thereby virtually ignoring the experiences of fathers who do not meet these demographic criteria. Recent research has attempted to close this gap somewhat by studying the ways in which minority men experience fatherhood, though much more research is needed in order to fully understand the variances between groups in terms of fatherhood ideals.

Race. Traditionally, research on non-White fathers has focused almost exclusively on Black men (Dowd, 2000), with a relatively small number of studies focusing on the experience of Hispanic men (Hofferth, 2003). The majority of research on Black fathers has taken a deficit perspective, and has emphasized absence and inability to engage in parenting activities, thereby perpetuating stereotypes of Black fathers as poor residents of inner-city neighborhoods, financially irresponsible, and uninterested in their children's lives (Cochran, 1997; Dowd, 2000). Though Black fathers tend to exhibit higher rates of non-marital childbearing and absentee fathering than White fathers (Eggebeen, 2002), research that accounts for cultural and societal variables in the

experience of Black fathers has shown that they exhibit positive parenting behaviors and interest in their children (Hofferth, 2003).

Black fathers appear to be less likely than White fathers to value highly involved fatherhood and value aspects of fatherhood outside of economic provision (Hofferth, 2003). As such, though Black fathers may not generally conform to all the characteristics of an ideal White father, as a whole, they are interested in their children and value the father role (Dowd, 2000). Additionally, as with other minority groups, the historically oppressive experiences of the Black community (i.e., forced migration that split apart families; institutionalized racism) must be taken into account when assessing parental involvement (Dowd, 2000). These experiences and their long-lasting societal consequences affect Black men's ability to provide financially and be physically present for their children in the same manner that White men may be able to be (Dowd, 2000).

Research on Hispanic fathers has primarily focused on the experiences of Mexican American fathers, and similar to research on Black fathers, has used a deficit perspective to emphasize how Mexican American fathers are different than White fathers (Lamb, 2010). Many of the differences have been linked to cultural idea of machismo, which emphasizes patriarchy, emotional detachment, and rigid gender roles (Hofferth, 2003). To a lesser extent, researchers have cited familism, which emphasizes placing family needs over personal needs, as also contributing to differences between Mexican American fathers and their White counterparts (Zinn, 1980; Dowd, 2000). Consistent with these ideals, Hofferth (2003) identified that Mexican American fathers were less likely than White fathers to view the father role as being important to child development.

Yet, some Mexican American fathers appear to view the fathering role as encompassing not only traditional dimensions (i.e., instrumental provider, disciplinarian), but also more modern dimensions (i.e., playmate, emotional supporters), which has indicated a possible shift in the cultural view of Mexican American fathers (Fitzpatrick, Caldera, Pursley, & Wampler, 1999).

Class. Closely related to the effect of race on fatherhood ideals is the effect of class on fatherhood involvement and ideals (Dowd, 2000). For many men, the intersection of race and class results in less opportunity to embody societal ideals of an involved father (Bryan, 2013). Low-income fathers are less likely to be formally identified as the children's father, less likely to live with their children, and less likely to be partnered with the mother of their children than fathers of a higher class status (Tamis-LeMonda & McFadden, 2010). Findings such as these have led researchers to assert that highly involved fatherhood is limited to the more affluent members of the community (i.e., Cochran, 1997; Messner, 1997). Yet, to do so is to oversimplify the complicated nature of the relationship between class and fatherhood.

The class differences in fatherhood involvement shed light on the idea of involved parenting as a privilege (Tamis-LeMonda & McFadden, 2010). Low-income fathers continue to believe in their role as economic provider for their children, even if this role is difficult to fulfill due to limited job opportunities and lack of financial resources, and comes at the expense of a relationship with their children (Bryan, 2013). In contrast, more affluent fathers who have less difficulty meeting financial needs are afforded the ability to focus on relational aspects of fathering, such as emotional involvement and

engagement (Bryan, 2013). The amount of time low-income fathers spend attempting to fulfill their provider role limits their ability to engage with their children, often leading to discouragement, low self-esteem (Dowd, 2000), strained relationships with children, increased emotional stress, and feelings of marginalization (Tamis-LeMonda & McFadden, 2010). Thus, though low-income fathers may not fulfill all aspects of an ideal father, the inability to do so is due to societal variables rather than their desires. Further research devoted to viewing low-income fathers through a contextual lens is needed in order to fully understand how they experience fatherhood and how current standards of a good father limit their ability to fully engage with their children.

Sexual orientation. Although it has always been the case that gay men have had children, only in recent years have children been raised in openly gay-father families (Golombok & Tasker, 2010), a fact that has resulted in an increase in studies devoted to the experience of gay fathers. Currently, an estimated 170,000 biological, step, or adopted children are being raised by same-sex couples in the United States and 20% of gay males under age 50 are raising a child under age 18 (Gates, 2013). These statistics clearly demonstrate the importance of considering both the similarities and differences between gay and heterosexual men with respect to fathering, as it is clear fathering is not limited to heterosexual men.

Patterson (1995) states, “The central heterosexist assumption that everyone is or ought to be heterosexual is nowhere more prevalent than in the area of parent-child relationships” (p. 255). Indeed, gay fathers are stigmatized by a society that views the term gay and the term family as inherently oxymoronic terms (Tornello, Farr, &

Patterson, 2011). Mallon (2004) noted that the existence of gay fathers directly contests societal assumptions about nurturing, gender, and families, contributing to the idea that gay men are unfit to raise and adopt children (Brooks & Goldberg, 2001). Gay men may encounter difficulty fulfilling the role of the ideal father due not only to the stereotypes about sexual orientation, but also cultural biases against men participating in caregiving roles. As a result, many gay fathers may reject traditional masculine fathering roles in favor of a role characterized by emotional expressiveness, nurturance, and intimate relationships with their children (Golombok & Tasker, 2010).

Stay-at-Home Fathers

Little is known about families in which one parent stays at home full-time with the children and the other parent works outside of the home (Smith, 2009; Zimmerman, 2000). Historically, research on single-earner families has focused on families in which the mother stays home with the children, but shifts in recent years have resulted in a need to better understand families in which the father stays at home with the children while the mother works (Fischer & Anderson, 2012). The changing makeup of families in general calls for more research focused on such nontraditional arrangements (Fischer & Anderson, 2012). Families in which mothers stay at home with the children make up approximately 6-7% of the population in the United States, while the number of families in which the father stays home with the children is even smaller, making up less than 1% of the population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011), though this statistic may not include all fathers who stay at home (Latshaw, 2011). Current research focuses on three primary themes when looking at stay-at-home fathers (SAHF): reasons for staying at home,

vocational involvement, and differences between stay-at-home mothers and SAHFs. It should be noted that all research on SAHF to date focuses on partnered, heterosexual couples, with results being framed in terms of that particular family makeup.

Reasons for staying home. Research indicates that men become SAHF for a variety of reasons. The most frequently cited reason for a father staying at home while the mother works is the mother's superior earning potential (Doucet & Merla, 2007; Zimmerman, 2000). This particular reason is more practical in nature and is reflective of the fact that women are more often able to obtain high-ranking or well-paid positions than in the past (Fischer & Anderson, 2012). A shared belief in the importance of one parent being home with the children, particularly when they are young, is another reason often given for a man deciding to be a SAHF (Zimmerman, 2000). Men may become SAHFs if their partners believe that the father is better suited than the mother for being at home with children or if they are unhappy with their work life (Dunn et al., 2013). Thus, a common theme among families in which the father stays at home and the mother works is the mother acting as a gatekeeper whose beliefs set the stage for how both members of the couple will respond to the demands of childrearing (Fischer & Anderson, 2012).

Doucet and Merla (2007) found that many SAHFs had already achieved their established career goals and were looking for "other forms of fulfillment" (p. 462). In contrast to their female partners, these men expressed that they were at a point in their careers in which they felt comfortable leaving the workplace and pursuing other interests. Many of these men reported that their female partners were younger than they were and at the beginning of promising careers that would suffer if the woman chose to stay home

with the children (Doucet & Merla, 2007). Men may also become SAHFs while attempting a career change, returning to school, or functioning as the family's supplementary wage earner (Dunn et al., 2013). Finally, some men report that they chose to stay at home due to limited child care options, the need to care for children with special needs, or a personal preference or choice (Doucet, 2004).

Overall, the majority of SAHFs report that their decision to stay at home was the result of a "multiplicity of inter-related factors" (Doucet & Merla, 2007, p. 462). Many variables were factors in their decision, including their partner's earning potential, their personal career goals, and shared beliefs or values within the couple. The variety of factors at play is demonstrated in the fact that men across a variety of studies often encountered difficulty attempting to choose one single reason for choosing to stay at home (i.e., Doucet & Merla, 2007; Fischer & Anderson, 2012). The complex nature of this decision speaks not only to the practical considerations that are part of the choice to stay home, but also the broader theoretical and ideological considerations, such as gender role attitudes and philosophies of parenting (Dunn et al., 2013). These theoretical considerations are discussed in subsequent sections, but it is important to note that they were often as important as practical considerations in determining who in the couple would stay home with the children (Doucet, 2004).

Vocational involvement. Many SAHFs continue to be involved in some form of work while they stay home with their children (Fischer & Anderson, 2012; Zimmerman, 2000). Thus, fathers attempt to maintain close ties to paid work even when on temporary or permanent leave to care for their children (Doucet, 2004). In a qualitative study of 70

SAHFs in Canada, Doucet (2004) found that the majority of SAHFs took on self-provisioning work that allowed them not only to contribute financially to the family, but also to display masculine characteristics. The author noted that almost every father in the study felt the need to emphasize their paid work in addition to their work caring for their children. This finding is in contrast to women who stay at home, as they tend to emphasize their caring work and its importance in their lives (Garey, 1999).

Doucet (2004) additionally noted that the men in the study equated having some form of paid work with a sense of worth. One of the participants in the study stated that he had been a SAHF for 15 years, but likely would not have continued in the role for that length of time had he not been working part-time, having “some sense of worth” (Doucet, 2004, p. 288). Similarly, the majority of the men in the study reported a focus on performing work and odd jobs around the house and in the community. Several SAHFs went into great detail about the remodeling they had done to their home, some even going so far as to bring in a photo album of completed projects. The author noted that this emphasis likely stemmed from the men’s desire to emphasize their masculinity and separate themselves from the perceived femininity of care work (Doucet, 2004).

In a similar qualitative study, Doucet and Merla (2007) interviewed 70 Canadian and 21 Belgian SAHFs in an attempt to understand their overall experience of their role as primary caregiver. The men in this study reported that they also felt pressure to conform to the ideal of a wage earner. Almost all of the participants noted that they felt like a failure as a man because they were not the primary earners in their family and sought part-time or volunteer work as a means to bolster their masculine identity (Doucet

& Merla, 2007). The participants noted that they thought of their male friends as having an identity and worth rooted in their respective jobs, and felt pressure to have a similar identity rooted in work outside of the home. Thus, though stay-at-home mothers (SAHM) often report engaging in household provisioning work in order to add to the family economy (Folbre, 1991), SAHFs appear to be motivated to seek this self-provisioning work as a means to maintain their identity as men (Doucet & Merla, 2007).

Differences with stay-at-home mothers. Traditionally, in two-parent, heterosexual families, the mother has been the parent who stays home with the children, while the father works outside the home (Zimmerman, 2000). As such, more research exists on this traditional family structure than on the non-traditional structure of a family in which the mother works outside the home while the father stays home with the children. Most of the research looking at the experience of SAHMs was conducted in the 1970s and 1980s, though recent studies have sought to examine the day-to-day experience and societal acceptance of SAHMs (Folbre, 1991). These more recent studies suggest that SAHMs encounter social stigma related to their position as non-earning family members. Such results would suggest that the experience of SAHMs have become similar to the experience of SAHF, but key differences in gender roles, approval, and religious ideologies exist between SAHFs and SAHMs (Zimmerman, 2000).

Zimmerman (2000) conducted a qualitative study on the similarities and differences between SAHM/career father and SAHF/career mother families. The 50 participants were married with preschool-aged children at home and were similar demographically. Results indicated that several differences exist between these two types

of families. One of the primary differences was the perceived longevity of the current arrangement (Zimmerman, 2000). In families in which the mother stayed at home, participants indicated that the arrangement was relatively permanent, whereas families in which the father stayed at home reported that the arrangement may be more temporary, lasting between several months to several years. The author attributed these differences to the different ways in which the families arrived at the decision for one parent to stay at home, as well as the different perspectives on the importance of wage earning to the identity of the parent currently staying at home (Zimmerman, 2000).

Another difference between the two types of families involved in the study was the primary influence on the decision for one parent to stay at home (Zimmerman, 2000). In families in which the father stayed at home, the decision centered on primarily practical reasons, such as finances and access to adequate child care. In contrast, participants in families in which the mother stayed at home reported religion was the primary influence on the decision for the mother to stay at home. Interestingly, none of the families in which the father stayed home cited religion as an influence on the decision (Zimmerman, 2000). This finding is likely indicative of conservative religious views related to the roles of men and women, and the support within certain religious communities for a more traditional family structure.

Finally, Zimmerman (2000) reported that the men who stayed at home reported significantly higher levels of loneliness, isolation, and social scrutiny than the mothers who stayed at home. SAHFs reported they felt cut off and alone, due in part to the lack of community resources for SAHFs as well as the societal perception that they were “odd”

for taking on this nontraditional role (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 345). Though the SAHMs in the study also reported feeling lonely, they did not appear to experience the same level of social isolation as the SAHFs. Participants in the families in which the father stayed home also reported less initial approval from family and friends than did the participants in the families in which the mother stayed home (Zimmerman, 2000). This particular finding is in keeping with findings of other studies, which suggest community scrutiny and judgment is particularly present in the lives of SAHFs (Doucet, 2004; Dunn et al., 2013; Latshaw, 2011). This judgment does not appear to be relegated solely to the fathers themselves, as career mothers in SAHF/career mother families report receiving negative reactions from other women. These reactions from others contribute to the social isolation and loneliness of SAHFs (Zimmerman, 2000).

Social Support

Social support is a complex construct that has been the focus of much research interest in the last 40 years (Hobfoll, 2002). Social support may be defined as the “social resources that persons perceive to be available or that are actually provided to them by nonprofessionals in the context of both formal support groups and informal helping relationships” (Gottlieb & Bergen, 2010, p. 512). As such, social support is thought to encompass not only received support, but also perception of support (Vaux, 1988) and is best viewed as a process that incorporates several variables, each of which must work together in order to produce a supportive environment or interaction (Barrera, 1986). The term social support has, at times, been used interchangeably with the terms social network and support system, though each term denotes a distinct perspective on resources

within the environment (Gottlieb & Bergen, 2010). For the purposes of this study, the term social support will be utilized to refer to both perception and receipt of social resources.

Forms of Support

Social support can take on different forms, including both structural and functional support (Glazer, 2006). Structural social support refers to the presence of social relationships or the degree to which individuals are involved in relationships with other people or groups (Beehr, Jex, Stacy, & Murray, 2000). This form of support is sometimes referred to as received support or social integration (Glazer, 2006). Examples of structural support include the presence or absence of a romantic partner, number of group memberships, or number of friends, but researchers often operationalize the term by creating a composite of several of the aforementioned examples (Beehr, Farmer, Glazer, Gudanowski, & Nair, 2003). Structural support can be found in any setting in which some form of social structure exists, including social, religious, familial, or occupational settings (Glazer, 2006).

In contrast to structural support, functional social support refers to individual perception of the support provided by their social networks (Beehr, Jex, Stacy, & Murray, 2000). Measurements of functional social support often attempt to tap into the degree to which individuals feel loved and cared for, or receive support and guidance when sought (Beehr, Farmer, Glazer, Gudanowski, & Nair, 2003). The two basic components of functional support are emotional and instrumental support (Glazer, 2006). Emotional support refers to the provision of empathy and positive regard, usually provided by

listening to individual concerns and “exemplifying compassion” (Glazer, 2006, p. 606). Instrumental support refers to tangible assistance, such as money, assistance with a task, and provision of information (Beehr et al., 2000). Though other forms of support have been identified by various researchers (Pinkerton & Dolan, 2007), the focus of this paper will be on instrumental and emotional support.

Models of Support

Just as multiple forms of social support exist, multiple sources of social support exist (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Glazer, 2006). Support may come from coworkers and/or supervisors (Lee et al., 2013; Redman & Snape, 2006), family members and/or partners (Oliveri & Reiss, 1987; Walker, 2010), and friends (Eriksson & Salzman-Erikson, 2012). Though prior research clearly delineates possible sources of social support, results are less clear concerning the mechanism through which social support provides positive outcomes. Studies have found social support to act as a moderator of the stressor-strain relationship (Cohen & Wills, 1985), but more recent research has been devoted to examining the direct effect of social support on strain (i.e., Beehr et al., 2003). Each of these models appears to have credibility and each will be examined more closely below.

Main effect model. In the direct, or main effect, model, social support directly reduces strain (Beehr et al., 2003) and social resources have a positive effect regardless of whether individuals are under stress (Cohen & Wills, 1985). In such a model, there is generally a negative relationship between social support and psychological strain. Much of the research on this model exists within the study of vocation, with many studies examining the direct effect of social support on job satisfaction in addition to overall

psychological well-being (i.e., Leung & Lee, 2006; Noblet, 2003). Yet, the correlations between these two variables are often in the teens or near -.20, thereby denoting a rather weak relationship (i.e., Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). Some research has shown that gender role may influence the direct relationship between social support and strain, such that feminine individuals react more positively and strongly to social support than more masculine individuals (Beehr et al., 2003). More research is needed in this area in order to understand fully both the weak correlations within this model and the way in which individual variables might increase or decrease those correlations.

Buffering model. The buffering model of social support posits that social support interacts with stressors to influence the effects of strain on well-being (Cohen & Wills, 1985). As such, social support acts as a buffer between stress and negative outcomes. Cohen and Wills noted that this buffering may occur in one of two ways. First, social support may intervene between the stressor and the stress reaction by preventing a stress appraisal response. Second, social support may intervene between the experience of the stressor and the negative outcome by eliminating or reducing the stress reaction. Thus, positive relationships between stressors and strains would be weaker for people with more social support than for people with less social support (Beehr et al., 2003). In particular, a reasonable match must exist between available support and the type of support needed in order to cope (Cohen & Wills, 1985). For example, parents who need help with child care needs to find such instrumental support within their social network in order for that support to buffer against the negative effects of parenting stress (DeGarmo & Forgatch, 2012).

Correlates of Support

Research has shown correlations between social support and a number of outcome variables. Most commonly, social support has been shown to positively affect subjective well-being, such that individuals who receive social support report most positive well-being (i.e., Beehr et al., 2003; Kahn, Hessling, & Russell, 2003) and fewer self-reported symptoms of distress and psychopathology (i.e., Lindorff, 2000; Stansfeld, Fuhrer, & Shipley, 1998; Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988). Similarly, research has shown a negative relationship between depression and social support (Sayal et al., 2002), particularly in mothers (Huang, Costeines, Kaufman, & Ayala, 2014). Social support is related to the progress of several chronic conditions, including cardiovascular disease and cancer, such that receipt of social support appears to slow the progress of such diseases (Garssen, 2004; Heckman, 2003; King, 1997). This influence on health appears to occur both directly and indirectly through cognitive mechanisms, coping strategies, and health behaviors (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Davis & Swan, 1999; Karademas, 2006).

Gender. Though several researchers have posited that social support may vary according to individual variables (i.e., Beehr et al., 2003), little scholarship has focused on the potential effect of gender on either the receipt or effect of social support (Matud, Ibanez, Bethencourt, Marrero, & Carballeira, 2003). Yet, conceptual reasons exist for why gender may be an important variable to consider in the discussion of social support (Matud et al., 2003). Across the life cycle, gender differences in both interpersonal behavior and interpersonal relationships exist, which may suggest that the way in which individuals participate in social relationships may vary according to gender (Belle, 1987).

In addition, socialization tends to differ according to gender, with the socialization of men often focusing on autonomy and independence, and the socialization of women emphasizing verbal expressiveness and warmth (Matud et al., 2003; Olson & Schulz, 1994). Indeed, women tend to provide more support, be more socially skilled (DeGarmo & Forgatch, 2012), and report larger social networks than men (Taylor et al., 2000).

In a study of dimensionality of social support, Matud and colleagues (2003) identified differences in the structure of perceived social support between men and women in their study. Specifically, women in the sample generalized their perception of social support across domains, whereas men perceived instrumental support as a separate construct from emotional support. As such, women viewed any type of support as helpful and positive, whereas men made a distinction in the type of support and the level of positivity associated with receiving that support. The authors attributed these differences to socialization experiences and gender differences in the expression of gender stereotyped behaviors (Matud et al., 2003).

Similar results were identified for adolescent women (Landman-Peeters et al., 2005). In a study of the interaction between gender, stress, and support in adolescents, results indicated that daughters benefit more from social support than do sons when problems in parent-adolescent communication exist (Landman-Peeters et al., 2005). Thus, there appears to be a gender difference in the buffer-effect of social support. This finding is particularly robust with respect to depressive symptoms, such that a decrease in depressive symptoms was seen for adolescent women who reported high social support. Taken together with other research on the relationship between gender and social support,

these studies seem to suggest that a difference between men and women with regard to the receipt and effect of social support exists.

Vocation. Numerous researchers have sought to determine the relationship between social support, work stressors, and job performance (see Beehr et al., 2000 for a review). Within the work environment, social support from co-workers appears to be related to strain and job performance (Beehr et al., 2000). In addition, giving social support to co-workers has been shown to be positively correlated with receiving social support from co-workers, indicating that both receipt and provision of social support within the workplace are important (Bowling, Beehr, & Swader, 2005). Generally, studies examining social support within the work environment have found evidence of main effects rather than buffer effects of social support (Beehr et al., 2000), though more research is needed in this area in order to determine whether this is truly due to conceptual, rather than methodological, reasons. No research to date has examined the role of social support on the job performance of stay-at-home parents. As most current research in this area focuses on co-worker relationships, current findings on the relationship between social support, job strain, and performance do not appear to be generalizable to stay-at-home parents who do not have co-workers from whom to receive social support.

Social Support for Parents

Social support has been shown to be particularly important for parents, as social isolation and lack of social resources are key factors that can lead to compromised parenting (Castillo, 2009). Conversely, the availability and use of quality social support

can mitigate the effects of stress on parenting (Leinonen, Solanta, & Punamaki, 2003). Yet, parents, especially those with young children, tend to experience reduced social activity after becoming parents (Patulny, 2012). In addition, single parents experience a drastic decrease in social support, though they are perhaps those who would benefit the most from social networks (Belsky, 1984).

Overall, social support systems appear to influence mothers' and fathers' resources for dealing with strains associated with parenting (Cochran & Brassard, 1979; Lindsey, Caldera, & Colwell, 2005). High levels of social support decrease the amount of stress experienced by parents, which in turn, contributes to positive parenting behaviors (Levy-Shiff, 1999). Social support is thereby linked to the quality of both mothers' and father's childrearing behaviors (Volling & Belsky, 1992). This effect appears to be particularly salient for partnered parents who may benefit not only from their own social network, but also from borrowing from their partner's social capital, thereby extending their social network as well as the potential for positive benefits of social support (Patulny, 2012).

Lindsey and colleagues (2005) identified the importance of the co-parenting relationship for partnered parents. In a sample of parents with infants, the authors found that mothers who reported receiving more social support from outside the partnership demonstrated more supportive co-parenting behaviors. This finding is particularly notable due to the fact that, without social support as a factor, mothers tended to show more intrusive than supportive co-parenting behaviors. As such, social support was influential on significant behavioral change that contributed to better relationship quality (Lindsey et

al., 2005). Of note, the authors did not identify the effect of social support on co-parenting behaviors of fathers, as data on the social support of fathers were not obtained in the study. This lack of data collection follows trends of other social support research that focuses primarily on mothers, a trend that will be discussed below.

The majority of research on social support of parents has focused on social support for “disadvantaged” single mothers (DeGarmo, 2012, p. 258). As such, less is known about fathers’ experience of social support than mothers’. Samples for these studies often include fathers, but data are not generally collected on all variables for fathers (i.e., Lindsey et al., 2005). In addition, when data are collected on both parents, interpretation is frequently made based on the fact that the majority of mothers stay at home with children, while the majority of fathers work outside the home (i.e., Levy-Shiff, 1999). Thus, though differences in social support networks appear to exist between mothers and fathers (Huang et al., 2014), caution should be given before generalizing such results to fathers who may be responsible for the majority of child care responsibilities, such as SAHFs.

Social Support for Fathers

Currently, the majority of research on social support for parents focuses on social support for mothers, particularly those transitioning into new motherhood. This lack of research is likely tied to the fact that most family support and parenting programs are targeted primarily toward mothers (Kaminski, Valle, Filene, & Boyle, 2008) and that mothers tend to engage in more formal and informal support seeking behaviors than fathers (Oliveri & Reiss, 1987; Redmond, Spoth, & Trudeau, 2002). As such, the amount

of current research focused exclusively on fathers' experience of social support is small. Much of current scholarship in this area focuses on military fathers' experiences of reintegrating into their families after a deployment, a time in which social support is needed (i.e., Lee et al., 2013). Similarly, researchers have investigated the role of social support in the lives of absent or incarcerated fathers, usually identifying that these fathers rely on large social networks to fulfill their role as father, both while incarcerated and upon release (i.e., Walker, 2010; Walsh et al., 2014). Finally, researchers have shown that Internet communities have become a source of social support for fathers who might not be able to access support elsewhere (Eriksson & Salzman-Erikson, 2012).

Levy-Shiff (1999) conducted a study meant to assess fathers' transition to parenthood with respect to coping and stress. The author recruited 90 Israeli primiparous fathers at a local well-baby clinic and each participant completed measures assessing their stress, coping, and appraisal at one month and 12 months postpartum. The results indicated that mothers and fathers shared more differences than similarities in terms of cognitive appraisals, coping strategies, and use of support resources. Both mothers and fathers used primarily problem-focused coping strategies rather than support-seeking strategies, but that appeared to be the only similarity between mothers and fathers (Levy-Shiff, 1999). Fathers reported the transition to parenthood as less stressful, threatening, and challenging than mothers and they activated coping responses less frequently than mothers (Levy-Shiff, 1999). Overall, fathers found parenthood less demanding than mothers, which the author attributed to the fact that the mothers were the primary caregivers (Levy-Shiff, 1999). As such, though the results indicate differences between

mothers and fathers with respect to the seeking of social support, these specific differences might not hold true in a situation in which fathers are the primary caregivers.

Patulny (2012) investigated social contact and support among 13,375 Australian adults. The author sought to determine the ways in which mothers and fathers may differ with respect to social support accessed and general social contact. Results indicated that married men and women registered less social contact, but more social support and efficacy, regardless of whether or not they had children. The only difference between individuals with children and without children was that married fathers reported somewhat less social contact and a lower likelihood of accessing instrumental social support, but these findings had only moderate support. In contrast, separated or unpartnered fathers reported greater social contact but less social support and efficacy. Thus, the results indicated that, for separated or single fathers, parenthood affords social contact, but not social support or efficacy (Patulny, 2012). Fathers may have larger social networks than childfree men, but being partnered seems to be an important variable in the discussion of their level of social support.

One possible reason that fathers may utilize support systems less often than mothers is the socialized belief that men should not ask for help with problems (Sanchez, Bocklandt, & Vilain, 2013). Lee and colleagues (2013) conducted a qualitative study with 39 men in the United States Air Force in order to understand their experience of transitioning to fatherhood. Overall, the men reported accessing social support regularly, though they emphasized that, when receiving instrumental support in the form of information or advice, the credibility of the source was key. Co-workers were seen as

particularly credible, as they were more likely to understand specific experiences (Lee et al., 2013). Though mothers were not included in the sample, participants discussed aspects of their female partners' experiences with parenthood. From these discussions, the authors concluded that mothers and fathers have fundamentally different experiences with parenthood and social support, a fact that they attributed to the level of care given to children from the respective parent (Lee et al., 2013). As with previously discussed studies, this conclusion seems to assume a traditional model of care in which mothers are the primary caregivers and fathers are the primary breadwinners. The authors did not make any conclusions about how their results might differ for a family in which this traditional care structure was not present.

The idea that fathers report turning to co-workers for support is notable in relation to how vocational experience may interface with social support availability. Yet, the type of contact present between colleagues is characterized by low intimacy and is not as supportive or friendly as "soft" bonding contacts (Patulny, 2009, p.42). These collegial networks are also vulnerable to decay from changing jobs, losing jobs, or retiring (Berry, Rodgers, & Dear, 2007). As such, it may be inferred that SAHFs, particularly those who left a job to become primary caregivers, may have lost a portion of their social network in the process. Further research is needed in order to understand this aspect of a SAHFs experience.

As little research exists on SAHFs in general, little research also exists on social support in the lives of SAHFs (Zimmerman, 2000). Research focused on SAHM indicates that women who stay home experience higher levels of stress than women who work

outside the home (Bird & Ross, 1993). SAHMs experience higher levels of depression when they feel unsupported by their partners, both emotionally and in more tangible ways, such as a lack of help with household chores (Blair & Johnson, 1992). Women who work outside the home report that a primary factor in role strain is whether or not their partner actively contributes to the household responsibilities, including child care (Blair & Johnson). Though these findings relate specifically to SAHMs, similar results might be found for SAHFs (Zimmerman).

A factor that likely contributes to both increased stress as well as the high need for social support of SAHFs is the negative stigma associated with being men who stay at home rather than working outside the home (Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008). Interestingly, though SAHFs often experience negative stigma from the general public, they also often receive positive reactions from friends and family (Rochlen et al., 2008), though this is not always the case (Grbich, 1992). Many SAHFs reported an increase in positive perception among family and friends over time, so that the family members and friends eventually reported changed societal attitudes toward men who stay at home (Grbich, 1992).

Rochlen and colleagues (2008) conducted a study aimed at examining psychological well-being and adjustment among SAHFs. The results indicated that SAHFs experience high levels of life satisfaction, psychological well-being, and relationship satisfaction. Overall, the data suggest that SAHFs tend to be content and well-adjusted in their nontraditional roles, which is consistent with previous research (Robertson & Verschelden, 1993). Yet, despite reporting high levels of life satisfaction

and well-being, SAHFs reported low levels of social support, which appeared to be influenced by societal views of masculine gender roles (Rochlen et al., 2008). Though the men experienced less social support than average men, the social support they did receive appeared to be significantly influential on their overall wellbeing, particularly the social support received from their partners (Rochlen et al., 2008). These studies seem to indicate that SAHFs benefit from social support but may be lacking in the support they receive from others. In addition, SAHF may experience loneliness and isolation within their role as SAHF (i.e., feeling rejected by other at-home parents), but it appears that social support they receive from other sources may mitigate the consequences of that lack of social support. More research is needed in order to better understand the role of social support in the lives of SAHF, as currently, results of such studies are mixed (Zimmerman, 2000).

Gender Role Attitudes

Gender role attitudes refer to beliefs concerning behavior, activities, and responsibilities considered to be appropriate for women and men (Corrigan & Konrad, 2007; Eagly, 1987; Williams & Best, 1990). These attitudes tend to be culturally bound, such that society dictates the system of social rules and customs concerning what men and women are “supposed to be and do” (Fagot & Leinbach, 1993, p. 206). Individuals vary in their gender role attitudes, with some tending toward a traditional view of strict gender roles and others expressing more modern, egalitarian views of gender roles (Riley, 2003). These variances in attitudes may be due to individual gender, as women tend to have more liberal gender role attitudes than men (Shearer, Hosterman, Gillen, &

Leftowitz, 2005). In addition, gender role attitudes may vary based on individual educational attainment, identification as feminist, and overall heightened awareness of gender inequity (Shearer et al., 2005).

Individuals espousing traditional gender role attitudes about families view women's role as homemaker and men's role as the primary provider for the family (Bernard, 1981; Riley, 2003). In men's role as provider, they are seen as responsible for furnishing food, shelter, and clothing for partners and offspring. As such, traditional gender role attitudes assert that men are inherently responsible for providing care to the family outside of, and beyond, physically caring for children and the home (Riley, 2003). This traditional idea of masculine gender roles is therefore in direct opposition to the traditional view of women as homemakers. The view of women as child-centered housewives was idealized in the 1950s and originated in the industrialization of the 19th century (Bernard, 1981). As previously discussed in this paper, during the industrial revolution, men began to work away from the home, leaving women at home to care for the children and perform household-related tasks. As such, during this time period, so-called women's work came to be associated with low levels of prestige and negative values when compared to the role of men as breadwinner (Riley, 2003). Though traditional gender role attitudes are becoming somewhat less pervasive, men continue to attach significance the breadwinner role when framing their own masculine identity, regardless of their personal gender role attitudes (Bolzendahl, 2004).

In contrast to traditional gender role attitudes, modern egalitarian gender role attitudes dictate that women can, and should, share in financial support for the household

(Riley, 2003). Similarly, individuals holding egalitarian gender role attitudes note that such values also dictate that men can, and should, participate in traditionally feminine nurturing and childcare activities. In addition to family-related tasks, egalitarian gender role attitudes indicate an expectation of greater expressiveness, nurturance, and intimacy from men, who traditionally were not expected to display such feminine qualities (Riley, 2003). Thus, the adoption of egalitarian gender role attitudes involves new ideas for both men and women (Potuchek, 1992). Indeed, societal views of women have become increasingly more egalitarian as women have increased participation in the labor force (Bolzendahl, 2004; Loo & Thorpe, 1998), though many people continue to hold traditional gender role attitudes, particularly with respect to familial responsibilities and vocation (Riley, 2003).

Masculinity

History. Outside of the family setting, gender role ideologies dictate acceptable patterns of behavior and attitudes for men and women in all realms of their lives (Sanchez, Westefeld, Liu, & Vilain, 2010). Masculinity was originally understood to be a static trait that existed in direct opposition to femininity, with the two traits conceptualized as existing on opposite ends of a spectrum (Smiler, 2004). As such, masculinity was viewed as natural and inherent, and was assumed to be culture-free (Smiler, 2004). The only state perceived as normal was for men's behavior and identity to parallel their biological sex.

During the feminist movement in the 1970s, critiques of this gender ideology emerged, with researchers drawing attention to the privileged status of masculinity as

well as the lack of attention to androgynous qualities (Bem, 1993). This critique, coupled with emerging sex role theories (Garnets & Pleck, 1979), contributed to the shaping of the view that masculinity was not an inherently biological trait, but rather a socially constructed ideal to which individuals attempt to conform (Smiler, 2004). Since that time, researchers have expanded on the view of masculinity as a social construction. Current movements have sought to update existing theories of masculinity in order to incorporate a focus on social and historical contexts as well as the idea of multiple masculinities (Smiler, 2004). Thus, masculinity is viewed as a combination of individual identity and social and cultural practice (Segal, 1990; Smiler, 2004).

Masculine ideology. Though masculine ideology is believed to vary according to diversity variables, a common set of standards and expectations exist across groups (Dowd, 2000). These standards are often referred to as the traditional masculinity ideology. This particular ideology is characterized by emotional stoicism, heterosexual dominance, sexual drive, toughness, competitiveness, and ambition (Chu, Porche, & Tolman, 2005). These themes have been identified as common across the Western world (Chu et al., 2005; Doyle, 1995). Traditional femininity ideology is described as being traits that are in direct opposition to masculine traits (i.e., emotionality, weakness, submissiveness; Smiler, 2004). Thus, the core dilemma of masculinity is seen as the need to constantly prove oneself to be a man, with man being defined as an individual who meets societal standards of masculinity (Kimmel, 1996). In the following sections, the effects of masculinity on fathering and vocational attainment are discussed.

Fatherhood and Masculinity

Fatherhood and masculinity potentially intersect in a number of ways (Dowd, 2000; Pleck, 2010). Dowd (2000) notes that, “men’s identities as fathers do not exist in isolation from their identities as men” (p. 181). Indeed, fatherhood and patriarchy have historically been intertwined, such that the definition of father has in many ways been synonymous with the definition of a man (Griswold, 1993). The role of the father has been seen as both essential and unique, and much of the discourse surrounding ideologies of fathering seeks to emphasize the differences between fathers and mothers (Dowd, 2000). Historically, the definition of father has incorporated an emphasis on the role of the breadwinner, which is seen as the application of dominance and competition within the familial sphere. As such, the emotional or companionate side of fatherhood has been secondary to the dominant provider role (See History of Fatherhood earlier in this review for more discussion; Dowd, 2000).

Masculinity and fatherhood intersect in various capacities throughout men’s course of fatherhood (Pleck, 2010). Male gender role status has been shown to influence the circumstances around which parenthood occurs, as ideologies of masculinity influence the age at which men decide to have children (Lamb, 2010; Pleck, 2010). This relationship is reciprocal, such that having children may make men feel more masculine, while having a more traditional masculine orientation may lead to higher fertility (Marsiglio & Pleck, 2005). After the birth of children, male gender role status affects parenting behaviors. The nature of men’s identity as a father contributes to their willingness to be involved in his children’s lives (Pleck, 2010). In a related vein, men

who adhere to a more traditional masculine ideology may encounter greater difficulty defining their father identity, as accounts of masculinity do not often focus on fathering (Pleck, 2010). In contrast to women, whose gendered ideology often includes discussion of the motherhood role, men do not receive as many messages regarding how to integrate their identity as a man with their identity as a father. Thus, fatherhood becomes a biological display of manliness, with the focus on an ability to produce a child, and a father identity is formed by applying established gender ideologies to a familial context (Pleck, 2010).

Influence on parenting behavior. One of the primary ways in which masculine ideology directly affects fatherhood is through the relationship between masculine ideology and parenting behavior, particularly level of involvement (Doucet, 2006; Dowd, 2000; Lamb, 2010). Pleck and Masciadrelli (2004) note that the “most well-established difference in parenting by parental gender is that fathers on average spend less time with their children than mothers do” (p. 227). This relationship between masculine ideology and parental involvement is evident in the focus on the crisis of non-resident fathers and its feared impact on child development (Lamb, 2010). Indeed, simply having a father with whom children live or connect may have a profound impact on the children’s development (Pleck, 2010).

Male gender may also act as a moderator in terms of perception of parenting behavior (Pleck, 2010). The same parental behavior may be perceived differently, both by children and others, if coming from mothers rather than fathers. For example, discipline from fathers may have a stronger effect than the same discipline given by

mothers (Pleck, 2010). Traditional masculinity ideologies also affect the level of emotionality fathers display in relationships with their children and their partners (Levant, 1995). As part of male socialization, boys are taught to “tune out, stifle, and channel their emotions” (Levant, p. 236). This focus on the diminishing of emotions, accompanied by a focus on competition and dominance, may lead to the idea of relationships as stages for comparison (Levant, 1995; Pleck, 2010). In this manner, traditional ideas of masculinity limit men’s ability to emotionally connect with their partners and their children (Doucet, 2006).

Traditional masculine ideologies also contribute to the emphasis placed on the father’s role as playmate to his children (Doucet, 2006). Fathers tend to emphasize their involvement in play and sports with the children, particularly their sons (Lamb, 2010). Thus, fathers’ involvement with children has traditionally been characterized by a high level of physical activity (Doucet, 2006; Parke, 1996). This emphasis is related to masculine ideologies of strength and physical domination, and is also an attempt to distinguish themselves from mothers and impart what is seen as masculine care (Doucet, 2006). Research on older fathers supports these ideas, as older fathers are consistently viewed as less masculine due in part to their perceived inability to physically play with their children (i.e., Thompson, 2006). As a result, aging fathers rate their fathering abilities more poorly than do younger fathers, as they see physical play as an essential task of fatherhood (Shirani, 2013).

Responsibility for child care. Though fathers’ involvement has increased significantly in recent years, women have continued to shoulder much of the

responsibility for childcare and domestic tasks (Coltrane & Adams, 2001; Doucet, 2006; Silver, 2000). Indirect childrearing tasks, such as planning and scheduling (Doucet, 2006; Lamb, 2010), are noted to be separate from involvement, which is more focused on engaging in activities and being physically present (Doucet, 2009). Doucet (2009) argues that three kinds of responsibility exist: emotional responsibility, community responsibility, and moral responsibility. Emotional responsibility involves attentiveness and responsiveness on the part of the parents (Gilligan, 1982). Community responsibility is the connection between the domestic sphere and the community sphere, and this form of responsibility involves such task as social networking, coordinating, balancing, and orchestrating others involved in the children's lives. Moral responsibility relates to how people think they should act in society and is involved in the formation of identity as moral beings (Doucet, 2009).

Overall, fathers are less likely than mothers to hold any of these forms of responsibility with regard to their children (Doucet, 2009), though it is worth noting that religious fathers may highly value a sense of moral responsibility for their children and family (Dowd, 2000). Masculine gender ideologies directly affect the amount of responsibility assumed by fathers, as some forms of responsibility may translate to tasks considered to be women's work (i.e., feeding the child, caring for the home). This difference in responsibilities appears to be particularly true for fathers of young infants, as traditional gender roles dictate more involvement on the part of mothers during this time period in children's lives (Doucet, 2006). A participant in Doucet's (2006) study noted that, "even in a society where people believe that men and women are equal and

can do just about everything, they don't really believe that men can do this with a baby, especially a really tiny baby" (p. 697). These concerns may be related to biologically-based concerns, such as the need for women to breastfeed, as well as gendered attitudes (Doucet, 2009).

The intersection of masculinity and responsibility for child care is particularly relevant for SAHFs. The idea that men are less able to care for young infants often leads to SAHFs receiving comments from strangers, questioning the fathers' ability to care for children (Doucet, 2009). Similarly, SAHFs often encounter resistance when attempting to take community responsibility for their children (Doucet, 2006). Though SAHFs take more responsibility for care than employed fathers, they are often made to feel unwelcome or ostracized in community groups that are comprised primarily of women (Doucet, 2006). As such, with this particular group of fathers, it is difficult to identify whether men may actually take less responsibility in this area or if they face such strong resistance that they give up.

Vocation and Masculinity

One of the most enduring roles perceived to be associated with masculinity is the role of breadwinner or economic provider (Dowd, 2000). Though shifts have occurred in the makeup of the workplace (i.e., more women in paid work), men continue to perceive themselves as having the breadwinner role, a perception that imposes expectations of financial and occupational success (Moya, Exposito, & Ruiz, 2000). Socialization concerning gendered expectations of career success and acceptable careers for men and women occurs early in life. Mendez and Crawford (2002) conducted a study on the

intersection of career aspirations and gender with gifted boys and girls in sixth through eighth grade. The results indicated that boys restricted their career aspirations to those careers perceived as masculine (i.e., professional athlete, mechanical engineer) and neutral (i.e., social worker, veterinarian), whereas girls indicated they aspired to careers labeled as feminine (i.e., makeup artist, nurse), as well as those labeled masculine and neutral. In addition, boys were more likely than girls to aspire to careers high in prestige and educational attainment (Mendez & Crawford, 2002). These results are in line with other similar studies (i.e., Dunnell & Backen, 1991; Fiebig & Beauregard, 2010) and appear to indicate that socialization about the intersection of gender and career is ingrained from a young age.

Contemporary work environments tend to emphasize the value of masculine traits over feminine traits (Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2002). Traits, such as aggressiveness, competitiveness, and independence, are highly valued in the work environment, particularly in settings considered to be highly prestigious and financially successful (Ngo, Foley, Ji, & Loi, 2014). As a result, individuals considered to be highly masculine exhibit high levels of career commitment and career centeredness, and tend to progress further in their chosen career path than women at the same level (Ngo et al., 2014). Similarly, individuals high in masculinity, both men and women, are more likely to experience job satisfaction (Dodson & Borders, 2006) and perceive greater career success (Ngo et al., 2014). In contrast, individuals high in femininity are more likely to experience role stress and lack of person-organization fit in the workplace (Bay, Allen, &

Njoroge, 2001). Ideologies of gender clearly have an impact on the vocational experience of men and women in general, though this impact is particularly salient for fathers.

Impact on fathers. As previously discussed, the idea of fatherhood has evolved over time (see section on History of Fatherhood). Similarly, the way in which fathers are expected to provide for their families has evolved somewhat over time. In hunter-gatherer cultures, men were expected to be providers in order to ensure the survival of their offspring, a responsibility that was in their reproductive and evolutionary interests (Hewlett & MacFarlan, 2010). As such, fathers were more concerned with ensuring survival through economic provision than through providing day-to-day care of their children. Fathers were also concerned with signaling their reproductive and survival abilities to their partners and potential future partners (Hewlett & MacFarlan, 2010). Thus, the idea of fathers as breadwinners appears to be rooted in evolutionary concerns of survival.

More recently, in industrialized countries, men have been the primary earners due to gender role attitudes (i.e., assuming women should stay home with children) and economic concerns (i.e., men earning higher wages than women; O'Brien & Moss, 2010). Perhaps the greatest challenge to the male role as breadwinner came from an increase in the number of women participating in wage work (Dowd, 2000). Yet, despite the increase in women in the workforce, attitudes regarding role expectations of men and women in the workplace have changed only minimally (Dowd, 2000). Though most people endorse the idea of partnered, childfree women participating in the labor force, attitudes change dramatically after the birth of children (Treas & Widmer, 2000). When

young children are present in the family, the majority of individuals indicate that a woman should discard or reduce her paid work obligations (Treas & Widmer, 2000) and men should become “economic providers in chief” (O’Brien & Moss, 2010, p. 551; Pfau-Effinger, 2004; Plantin, 2007).

Fathers may experience greater pressure than childfree men to support their families and excel both financially and vocationally (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Children intensify the expectation for a man to provide financially (Forret, Sullivan, & Mainiero, 2010). As a result, fathers who experience unemployment may feel like failures and report higher levels of psychological distress during unemployment than men without children (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006). In a study of men across three generations, Forret and colleagues (2010) found that men with children were more likely to perceive unemployment as a defeat than those without children. In contrast, women in the study identified unemployment as an opportunity for personal and professional growth, regardless of whether or not they had children. These results shed light on the importance men in general, and fathers in particular, place on their role as provider and the threat that lack of ability to provide poses to their identities as men and fathers.

Impact on stay-at-home fathers. In a qualitative study of SAHFs, Doucet (2006) noted that each of the 100 participants made some comment about their responsibility to be a breadwinner for their family and how they felt they were not “pulling [their] weight” (p. 710) by being at home with the children. Despite SAHFs reporting more egalitarian gender role attitudes (Fischer & Anderson, 2012), there appears to be a sense of failure on their part for not fulfilling the societally prescribed role

of financial provider. Similarly, research indicates that men in nontraditional careers (i.e., nurse, school counselor) express egalitarian gender role attitudes, but continue to place importance on the breadwinner role as part of their masculine identity (Dodson & Borders, 2006). Doucet (2009) reported that SAHFs in qualitative interviews tend to emphasize the importance of their part-time work in their lives. More research is needed in this area in order to better understand the intersection of vocation and gender role attitudes in the lives of SAHFs, though current evidence is clear that a complicated relationship exists between the two variables.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) refers to a belief in the ability to perform a particular behavior successfully. The concept of self-efficacy can be found in the literature under various terms, including sense of personal efficacy (Downey & Moen, 1987), personal autonomy (Seeman & Seeman, 1983), self-agency (Dumka, Stoerzinger, Jackson, & Roosa, 1996), and sense of competence (Johnston & Mash, 1989). For the sake of clarity, the term self-efficacy will be utilized throughout in order to denote that which is “concerned with the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to exercise control over a given event” (Ozer & Bandura, 1990, p. 472). High levels of self-efficacy have been found to predict competence in the face of environmental demands, the ability to conceptualize difficult situations as challenges, have less negative emotional arousal in the face of stress, and to exhibit perseverance when challenged (Jerusalem & Mittag, 1995). In contrast, low levels of self-efficacy are associated with self-doubt, high levels of anxiety when faced with adversity, assuming

more responsibility for task failure than success, interpreting challenges as threats, and avoiding difficult tasks (Weaver, Shaw, Dishion, & Wilson, 2008).

Social learning theory dictates that self-efficacy expectations stem from four primary informational sources: personal accomplishment history, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal (Bandura, 1977). Personal accomplishment history is one of the most powerful influences on mastery expectations (Coleman & Karraker, 1997). Individuals choose what challenges to undertake, how much effort to give to a particular endeavor, and how long to persevere despite experienced difficulties based upon sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1988, 1989). Thus, the stronger their self-efficacy belief, the greater and more persistent they are in their efforts toward success. When individuals obtain undesirable outcomes to a given situation, those with a strong sense of self-doubt, who are thereby lacking in self-efficacy, are likely to abort their attempts prematurely. Conversely, individuals who have a strong sense of self-efficacy will exert greater effort in the face of adversity or potential dissatisfaction, which then pays off in an increased sense of self-efficacy (Bandura & Cervone, 1983). As such, it may become difficult to increase self-efficacy beliefs in those who have obtained a deep sense of self-doubt or who have responded to unfavorable situations with a sense of defeat (Coleman & Karraker, 1997).

In addition to obtaining self-efficacy information from personal accomplishment history, individuals develop self-efficacy beliefs based on vicarious experience (Bandura, 1977; Coleman & Karraker, 1997). In this modeling approach to self-efficacy development, individuals generate expectations based upon what they have seen others

accomplish, thereby persuading themselves “that if others can do it, they should be able to...” (Bandura, 1977, p. 197). Vicarious learning is less reliable as a source of self-efficacy information than personal accomplishment history (Bandura, 1977), though the effectiveness of modeling may be increased by seeing models overcome difficulties through genuine effort (Kazdin, 1973), viewing behavior that has a clear outcome (Kazdin, 1974), and being exposed to diversified modeling (Bandura & Menlove, 1968).

Verbal persuasion is a widely used means of influencing self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977). Individuals are led by persuasive arguments to believe that they are able to accomplish difficult tasks regardless of what has overwhelmed them in the past. Yet, as with vicarious learning, self-efficacy beliefs formed as a result of verbal persuasion are easily swayed and generally weaker than those based on personal accomplishment history. Verbal persuasion, though initially effective, does not provide an experiential base for the beliefs instilled. As a result, individuals faced with distressing situations and the possibility of failure may readily abandon these beliefs in the presence of disconfirming situations (Bandura, 1977).

Self-efficacy beliefs may also be effected by emotional arousal elicited by stressful situations (Bandura, 1977). Individuals assess their degree of anxiety in a given situation by attending to internal signals of physiological arousal. Individuals are more likely to expect success in situations in which they are not aversively aroused than in situations in which they are tense and agitated (Bandura, 1977). Strong fear reactions tend to lead individuals to equate stressful or difficult situations with fear and anxiety, thereby reducing their sense of self-efficacy in the face of such situations. Such emotional

arousal often leads to avoidance behaviors, thereby preventing individuals from altering self-efficacy beliefs through success (Bandura, 1977). This is an unfortunate cycle, as individuals who experience mastery or success through personal accomplishments or who observe such success through modeling are likely to experience reduced fear response and increased self-efficacy (Coleman & Karraker, 1997).

Though each of these four avenues of information has the potential to effect self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977, 1989), the impact of such information on the development of a personal sense of efficacy is dependent on how the information is cognitively appraised (Bandura, 1989). Contextual factors, such as social, situational, and temporal circumstances under which a situation occurs, affect how the four potential factors influence self-efficacy and actually enhance or decrease self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1989; Coleman & Karraker, 1997). For example, individuals who are low in self-efficacy beliefs doubt their ability to complete a task successfully and tend to dwell on their personal deficiencies in stressful situations (Bandura, 1986). These individuals do not exert much cognitive effort in processing information and are likely to label an insufficient performance as due to personal inaptitude (Bandura, 1989). In contrast, individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs are active cognitive processors and are very efficient in their ability to make decisions in complex situations (Bandura, 1986). These individuals are active producers of memory performance and employ more attentional and cognitive resources in decision-making than individuals low in self-efficacy (Berry, 1989). The means through which self-efficacy beliefs develop and the way in which appraisal processes effect this development are complex and interrelated, though

cognitive appraisal of a situation is clearly influential (Bandura, 1989; Coleman & Karraker, 1997).

Some conflict exists in the literature regarding whether self-efficacy beliefs pertain to a specified set of tasks or requirements in a particular context, labeled task-specific self-efficacy (Bandura, 1989) or a broader sense of efficacy that emerges from the combined efficacy information from many conceptually related experiences, labeled domain self-efficacy (Woodruff & Cashman, 1993). This conflict is indicative of a broader disagreement with respect to the best understanding of the construct of self-efficacy (Murdock, 2013). Many researchers have contended that self-efficacy may be best understood and measured in a variety of ways in order to create a broader, multidimensional picture of functioning (e.g., Berry & West, 1993). In addition, the applicability of either task-specific or domain self-efficacy may vary according to the group being assessed (Coleman & Karraker, 1997), particularly when looking at such groups as parents (Jones & Prinz, 2005; Murdock, 2013). This idea is further explored in subsequent sections.

Parental Self-Efficacy

Parental self-efficacy (PSE) refers to the expectations individuals have about the degree to which they are able to perform competently and effectively as parents (Jones & Prinz, 2005; Teti & Gelfand, 1991). In keeping with the basic ideas in Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1989), PSE incorporates specific knowledge of parenting behaviors (domain-specific PSE; Pennell, Whittingham, Boys, Sanders, & Colditz, 2012) as well as the degree of confidence in the ability to carry out these designated behaviors (domain-

general PSE; Coleman & Karraker, 1997; Pennell et al.). Additionally, PSE includes a sense of personal agency, or belief that individual actions will produce the intended outcome (Jones & Prinz, 2005). Extrapolating from this idea, PSE involves parents' beliefs about their ability to influence both their children and the environment in ways that would bring about the development and success of children (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001). Thus, PSE is a specific case of the more general construct of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1989).

Conceptual Framework

Ardelt and Eccles (2001) presented a conceptual model of PSE based on self-efficacy theory by Bandura (1977, 1989, 1997). In this model, a reciprocal relationship between PSE beliefs, promotive parenting strategies, and children's developmental success are depicted in a sort of feedback loop. As such, parents who exhibit higher PSE are likely more engaged in promotive parenting strategies than those who exhibit lower PSE (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001). These employed promotive parenting strategies are likely to increase children's success, both academically and psychologically (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001; Bogenschneider, Small, & Tsay, 1997; Eccles et al., 1993; Murry & Brody, 1999). Additionally, parents who exhibit high PSE are likely to be positive models for their children, thereby increasing the likelihood that their children will adopt a similar sense of efficacy (Eccles et al., 1993). This sense of efficacy on the part of the children has been shown to in turn have a positive effect on their school success and success in general (Bandura, 1997).

Ardelt and Eccles (2001) also suggested that reverse effects may exist. Parents who exhibit low PSE may use promotive parenting strategies ineffectively, or not use them at all, and may give up easily when they encounter difficulties. These experiences may thereby confirm their beliefs in their ineffectiveness (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001; Bandura, 1977). Similarly, parents with children who are maladjusted or exhibiting difficult behavior may have difficulty maintaining PSE in the face of adverse experiences (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001; Jones & Prinz, 2005). Yet, even in the face of adversity or perceived failure, individuals who exhibit high PSE are likely to sustain such efficacy beliefs despite setbacks or failure (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001; Bandura, 1995). In this manner, PSE beliefs operate similarly to general self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977).

Domain-General and Domain-Specific Parental Self-Efficacy

PSE beliefs can be categorized as domain-specific, domain-general, or a combination of the two (Pennell et al., 2012). Domain-general PSE beliefs refer to judgment about global efficacy in the parenting role and are not tied to specific parenting tasks. Several studies on domain-general PSE have shed light on the effect of this construct. Domain-general PSE has been shown to be a mediator in the relationships between parents, children, and situational factors with quality of parenting (Coleman & Karraker, 2000; Teti & Gelfand, 1991). Additionally, maternal domain-general PSE has been shown to mediate the relationship between psychosocial risk factors (i.e., social support, socioeconomic status) and maternal competence (Teti & Gelfand). Low domain-general PSE has been found to be associated with parental depression (Teti & Gelfand), high parental stress (Wells-Parker, Miller, & Topping, 1990), difficult infant behavior

(Cutrona & Troutman, 1986), and low social support (Cutrona, 1984). Taken together, these results indicate that the quality of care provided by parents to their children is strongly influenced by their PSE beliefs (Coleman & Karraker, 1997).

Domain-specific PSE refers to the level of self-efficacy parents exhibit with relation to specific parenting tasks or behaviors (Barnes & Adamson-Macedo, 2007). This level of PSE is generally measured by assessing performance on specific tasks in specific contexts (Sanders & Woolley, 2005). Domain-specific PSE has been found to be positively related to parental monitoring and responsiveness (Bogenschneider et al., 1997), parental encouragement (Elder, Eccles, Ardlet, & Lord, 1995), and involvement (King & Elder, 1998). Domain-specific PSE has also been shown to mediate the relationship between psychological symptoms and self-perceived parent competence (Pennell et al., 2012).

Research Support

Among various studies, PSE has been posited to serve as an antecedent, a consequence, a mediator, and a transactional variable (Jones & Prinz, 2005). When conceptualized as an antecedent, PSE is generally viewed as an influence on parenting competence. PSE has been linked to parental warmth and control with older children (Dumka et al., 1996; Izzo, Weiss, Shanahan, & Rodriguez-Brown, 2000), to positive parenting in kindergarten children (Hill & Bush, 2001), and to parental involvement and monitoring of adolescents (Bogenschneider et al., 1997). Overall, research has supported a strong link between PSE and parental competence (Jones & Prinz, 2005) across age

groups (e.g., Shumow & Lomax, 2002), methodology (observation versus parental self-report; e.g., Ardel & Eccles, 2001), and racial groups (Elder et al., 1995).

Research on PSE as a consequence has generally focused on the way in which problematic or difficult child behavior might affect PSE (Jones & Prinz, 2005). Day, Factor, and Szkiba-Day (1994) found that parents with lower PSE tended to view children as having more behavioral problems than parents with high PSE. Similarly, Hill and Bush (2001) found that lower PSE was related to higher parental report of children's behavioral problems. These results may be particularly true for parents of young children, as evidence shows that children's behavior is particularly influential on PSE during early childhood (Meunier & Roskam, 2009). Taken together, these results lend support for the view of PSE as a consequence, but caution is warranted in their interpretation, as studies have thus far not specified the direction of the relationship between PSE and children's behavior (Jones & Prinz, 2005).

Numerous studies have identified PSE as a mediator primarily between ecological variables and parenting competence (Jones & Prinz, 2005). Coleman and Karraker (1997) found that PSE mediates the child-driven effect of externalizing behavior on parental behavior, such that difficult child behavior does not directly impair parental functioning, but serves to undermine the competence of parents. PSE has also been found to mediate the relationship between child behavior problems and discipline, whereby parents low in PSE beliefs used more severe discipline techniques and reported a higher amount of child behavior problems than those high in PSE (Day et al., 1994). In addition, PSE has been supported as a mediator of social support and parental competence. PSE has been found

to fully mediate the effect of social support on parenting practices (MacPhee, Fritz, & Miller-Heyl, 1996) as well as the relationship between social support and parental warmth (Izzo et al., 2000) and maternal depression (Cutrona & Troutman, 1986).

PSE may also function as a transactional variable (Jones & Prinz, 2005). This idea is supported by general self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977), which notes that self-efficacy and outcomes may interact in a feedback loop. Such may be the case in the relationship between PSE and role satisfaction. Though evidence has been found to support a significant relationship between PSE and parental satisfaction (Jones & Prinz), the direction of the relationship is unclear. PSE may impact parental role satisfaction directly or parental satisfaction may serve to enhance PSE (Coleman & Karraker, 2000). Similarly, the established link between PSE and maternal depression (e.g., Cutrona & Troutman, 1986; Gross, Sambrook, & Fogg, 1999; Teti & Gelfand, 1991) may be the result of a transactional relationship between PSE and depressive symptoms. As low PSE may contribute to vulnerability for depression, depression may also lead to lower PSE and such interaction could contribute to a feedback loop between depression and PSE (Jones & Prinz).

Parental Self-Efficacy in Fathers

The majority of research on PSE has been focused on mothers and their specific experiences of PSE (e.g., Pierce et al., 2010; Sevigny & Loutzenhiser, 2010; Teti & Gelfand, 1991). Most previous studies that included samples of mothers and fathers did not generate separate analyses by gender, thereby limiting the usefulness of the outcomes specifically for fathers. Currently, no studies except the present research exist that

examine PSE in SAHF, and most studies that have included fathers reported that the majority of fathers in the sample work outside the home (e.g., Murdock, 2013; Seigny & Loutzenhiser, 2010) Thus, additional research is needed in order to better understand PSE in fathers in general as well as in SAHF.

Several studies that have compared the experience of PSE in mothers and fathers have found that mothers' and fathers' PSE are similarly related to child behavior, parental stress, parental support (Meuiner & Roskam, 2009), parental warmth, and parental overactivity (de Haan, Prinzie, & Dekovic, 2009). Thus, some aspects of maternal and paternal PSE appear to be similar. However, differences in maternal and paternal PSE have also been identified. For example, a positive association between PSE and general self-efficacy, negative control, and perception of problematic behavior (Meuiner & Roskam, 2009) as well as a negative association with child difficultness has been identified for maternal PSE only (Seigny & Loutzenhiser, 2010). Studies that have found such differences between mothers and fathers with respect to PSE have been criticized for utilizing measures not applicable to fathers and ignoring social-cognitive variables in the explanation of such differences (Murdock, 2013). As such, though differences in PSE between mothers and fathers may exist, current research has not provided sufficient information to determine the reason behind such differences or how much of a role measurement bias may play into the results.

The majority of studies on PSE, including those that have compared maternal and paternal PSE, have utilized task-specific rather than domain-specific methods of measuring PSE (e.g., Gross et al., 1999; King & Elder, 1998; Seigny & Loutzenhiser,

2010). Yet, measurement of PSE at the domain level, rather than the task level, may be a better indicator of PSE, as it taps into a broader construct (Woodruff & Cashman, 1993) and allows parents to draw on many different parenting experiences in their responses, rather than limiting them to task-specific experiences (Murdock, 2013). Therefore, domain-specific measures may be more applicable to fathers, as many of the measures that are specific to parental tasks tend to emphasize the importance of duties traditionally taken on by mothers rather than fathers (e.g., toilet training, caring for a sick child; Jones & Prinz, 2005). Interestingly, task-specific measures seem to incorporate items more relevant to parents who stay at home with children than parents who work outside the home (e.g., “How good are you at finding things for your baby to do while doing housework?;” Teti & Gelfand, 1991) and may in that case cross gender lines. No current research compares the relevancy for task-specific versus domain-specific measures between parents of differing employment statuses.

Sevigny and Loutzenhiser (2010) conducted one of the few studies in which results were differentiated between fathers and mothers. The authors recruited 62 mothers and 62 fathers from various locations frequented by parents of young children, including day care centers and recreational programs. Participants completed self-report measures of PSE, general self-efficacy, depression, marital satisfaction, parenting stress, child difficulty and family functioning. Results indicated that parenting stress, depressive symptoms, and relational functioning were similarly and negatively associated with both maternal and paternal PSE. Interestingly, a positive association between PSE and general self-efficacy and a negative association with child difficulty were found for maternal

PSE only. The authors concluded that this difference was best attributed to the differences between mothers and fathers with respect to the saliency of the parent identity. They concluded that being a parent is likely a more salient aspect identity for women than for men.

Though Sevigny and Loutzenhiser (2010) reached the above-stated conclusion, limitations to the study exist that warrant attention before coming to a conclusion. Nearly all the fathers in the sample (93.5%) were employed full-time outside the home, whereas a smaller percentage of mothers (71%) were employed outside the home. Thus, the saliency of the parenting identity may be related less to gender and more to number of identities (i.e., parent, employee, partner) and time spent in the parenting role. Indeed, research has shown that paternal identity represents an average of 34.1% of the overall identity of fathers of young children, thereby existing as a fairly salient piece of their identity (Tremblay & Pierce, 2011). In addition, the saliency of the parenting role has been shown to increase over time with experience (Tremblay & Pierce). The participants in Sevigny and Loutzenhiser's (2010) study were all parents to first-born children between the ages of 18 and 36 months. As such, their identification with the parenting role will likely continue to increase as their children's ages and current measurements may not be predictive of later measurements of the identity (Tremblay & Pierce, 2011).

Murdock (2013) conducted a study in direct response to Sevigny and Loutzenhiser (2010) and their interpretation of the differences between mothers' and fathers' PSE. Using domain-specific measures hypothesized to be more relevant than task-specific measures for fathers (Coleman & Karraker, 2003; de Haan et al., 2009;

Meunier & Roskam, 2009), the authors sought to examine the experience of PSE for both mothers and fathers. The sample consisted of 49 mothers and 33 fathers of young children (ages three to five years old), recruited through flyers posted at social service agencies, churches, business, and schools in a Midwestern college town. Results indicated that PSE was significantly and positively associated with general self-efficacy for both mothers and fathers, thereby showcasing the importance of the parenting role for both mothers' and fathers' sense of competence. In addition, PSE was significantly and positively associated with paternal involvement. Thus, in direct contrast to interpretations made by Seigny and Loutzenhiser (2010), the parenting role appears to be salient for both mothers and fathers and has a significant impact on their overall sense of competence.

Differences between mothers' and fathers' experience of PSE were also identified by Murdock (2013). For mothers, PSE was negatively and significant associated with negative affect and child behavior problems (Murdock, 2013). Overall, the results of the study indicated that paternal general self-efficacy and PSE are significantly associated, which provides evidence that the parenting role is important and valued for fathers. Yet, the majority (78.8%) of the men in the sample worked outside of the home and no analyses were conducted comparing men who worked inside the home with those who worked outside the home. Further research is needed in order to accurately assess PSE specifically in SAHFs.

Giallo, Treyvaud, Cooklin, and Wade (2013) sought to examine how PSE might affect mothers' and fathers' involvement in home activities with their children and is one

of the few studies that accounted for employment status of the parents in their analyses. Expanding on earlier studies that linked PSE with increased involvement in home learning activities with older children (e.g., Grolnick, Beniet, Kurowski, & Apostoleris, 1997), the authors examined PSE as a mediator between parent factors and parent involvement in younger children. Participants were recruited from a broader Australian study of parent health and well-being and 851 mothers and 131 fathers agreed to participate in the study. Results indicated that significantly more mothers involved children in daily routines, read books, and played outdoors with children than fathers. However, these differences were minimal after accounting for employment status. Overall, mothers and fathers employed full-time outside the home reported lower levels of involvement than those in part-time or no employment. PSE was found to mediate the pathways between parent involvement and stress, anxiety, depression, and difficult temperament for both mothers and fathers (Giallo et al., 2013).

These results indicate that at least some of the differences between mothers and fathers in terms of parental involvement may be due to employment status. These differences are in keeping with prior research that indicates mothers' and fathers' hours of employment reduce time spent with their children (Sayer, Bianchi, & Robinson, 2004). Regardless of gender, mothers and fathers who work outside the home have less time to participate in daily activities with their children. The authors did not directly assess how employment status might or might not affect PSE and did not specifically delineate outcomes for parents who stayed home with the children rather than worked outside the

home. These limitations should be addressed in future research in order to better understand how SAHFs experience PSE.

Summary of Literature Review

Expectations of fatherhood have changed over time (Dowd, 2000) such that the idea of good fathers have evolved from that of providers to that of fathers who both provide for their family and are heavily involved in the upbringing and care of their children (LaRossa et al., 1991). Though fathers continue to be seen as responsible for acting as the breadwinner of the family (Moya et al., 2000), increasing numbers of men have elected to assume the role of primary caregiver for their children, a role historically reserved for women (Riley, 2003). Prior research indicates that men who elect to be SAHF tend to espouse less traditional gender role attitudes, though the directionality of the link between gender role attitudes and choosing to become a primary caregiver is unclear (Fischer & Anderson, 2012). In addition, qualitative studies on SAHF have identified that SAHF tend to experience less social support than SAHM and employed fathers, which may contribute to psychological distress and poorer overall wellbeing (Grbich, 1992). Yet, some researchers note that SAHF tend to report greater wellbeing and sense of contentment with their position (Rochlen et al., 2008).

Purpose and Significance of Study

Research on SAHF is severely lacking with respect to their receipt and experience of social support, sense of PSE, and gender role attitudes. Relatedly, past research has focused somewhat on the well-being of SAHF, but has neglected to focus on the role satisfaction of men in this group. Given that so few studies have focused on the variables

that might predict role satisfaction in SAHF, the current study was designed to further knowledge in this area. The researcher sought to uncover the impact of social support, sense of PSE, and gender role attitudes on overall role satisfaction for SAHFs.

Research Question

The overall research question for the study was, “What variables contribute to the role satisfaction of SAHF?” The first hypothesis was that social support would be statistically significantly positively correlated with role satisfaction, such that SAHFs who experience higher levels of social support would exhibit higher levels of role satisfaction. The second hypothesis was that gender role attitudes would be statistically significantly positively correlated with role satisfaction, such that SAHFs who exhibit egalitarian gender role attitudes would exhibit higher levels of role satisfaction. Thirdly, it was hypothesized that PSE would be statistically significantly positively correlated with role satisfaction, such that SAHFs who exhibit higher levels of PSE would experience more role satisfaction those who exhibit low levels of PSE.

The fourth hypothesis was that role satisfaction would be predicted by social support, PSE, gender role attitude, and socioeconomic status. The fifth hypothesis was that ethnicity would act as a moderator in the relationship between socioeconomic status and role satisfaction, such that the relationship between socioeconomic status and role satisfaction will be stronger for SAHFs who identify with an ethnic minority. The sixth hypothesis was that age would act as a moderator in the relationship between PSE and role satisfaction, such that the relationship between PSE and role satisfaction would be stronger for older men. The seventh, and final, hypothesis was that sexual orientation

would act as a moderator in the relationship between gender role attitude and role satisfaction, such that the relationship between gender role attitude and role satisfaction would be stronger for men who identify as heterosexual.

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

Participants

Eighty-seven stay-at-home fathers originally completed the survey. Seven fathers were dropped due to the fact that they indicated they worked more than 25 hours per week outside the home. Thus, the final sample was 80 stay-at-home fathers ranging in age from 23 to 62 years old ($M = 36.8$, $SD = 7.42$). Though there was some diversity in the sample, the majority of the participants were White, married, upper-middle class men. In addition, the majority of the participants were highly educated, able-bodied, and identified as heterosexual. See Table 1 for descriptive statistics on the categorical demographic variables in this study and Table 2 for the descriptive statistics on continuous demographic variables.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Sample Demographics: Categorical Variables

Variable	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percent
Sexual Orientation			
Gay	5	6.3	6.3
Heterosexual	67	83.8	90.1
Bisexual	1	1.1	91.2
Did Not Respond	7	8.8	100.0
Race/Ethnicity			
Black/African American	1	1.3	1.3
White/Caucasian	66	82.5	83.8
Asian American/Pacific Islander	2	2.5	86.3

Hispanic/Latino	3	3.8	90.0
Native American/Alaskan Native	8	10.0	100.0
Household Income (per year)			
\$0- \$24,999	3	3.8	3.8
\$25,000- \$49,999	7	8.8	12.5
\$50,000- \$74,999	16	20.0	32.5
\$75,000- \$99,999	19	23.8	56.3
\$100,000- \$124,999	18	22.5	78.8
\$125,000- \$149,999	8	10.0	88.8
\$150,000- \$174,999	1	1.3	90.0
\$175,000- \$199,999	3	3.8	93.8
\$200,000- \$224,999	1	1.3	95.0
\$225,000 and above	4	5.0	100.0
Level of Education			
High School or Equivalent	9	11.3	11.3
Some college	14	17.5	28.8
Bachelor's Degree	29	36.3	65.0
Master's degree	26	32.5	97.5
Doctoral degree	1	1.3	98.8
Professional degree	1	1.3	100.0
Relationship Status			
Married	74	92.5	92.5
Partnered	6	7.5	100.0
Divorced	-- ^a	--	--
Separated	--	--	--
Widowed	--	--	--
Single, Never Married	--	--	--
Disability Status			
I identify as having a disability	7	8.8	8.8
I identify as able-bodied	69	86.3	95.0
Other	4	5.0	100.0

$n = 80$. ^a No participants were found for the Divorced, Separated, Widowed, or Single, Never Married groups

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Sample Demographics: Continuous Variables

Variable	Mean	Range	SD
Age in Years	36.8	23-62	7.42
Number of Children Living with Participant	1.86	1- 6	1.04
Number of Hours per Week Worked Outside Home	6.58	0- 25	8.27

n = 80

Instrumentation

Demographics

A Demographic Questionnaire was created by the investigator in order to assess personal characteristics of study participants. The questionnaire consisted of seven items assessing age, sexual orientation, number of children in the home, number of hours worked per week outside the home, ethnicity, income level, and level of education. (See Appendix A)

Parental Self-Efficacy

The Parental Self-Agency Measure (PSAM; Dumka et al., 1996) is a five-item questionnaire designed to assess level of parental self-agency, which is defined analogously to parental self-efficacy. The items are positively phrased and designed to indicate confidence, knowledge, and willingness to expend effort in problem solving with relation to parenting tasks and abilities. A sample item would be, “I know I am doing a

good job as a father.” Respondents indicate the frequency with which they agree with each statement, from rarely (1) to always (7). An average score is calculated for each participant, with a higher average score indicating a higher degree of parenting self-agency. Though the scale was originally designed with ten items, factor analysis indicated that five items were a better overall indicator of parental self-agency. Dumka and colleagues reported Cronbach’s alpha for the revised PSAM was .70. In a study comparing the PSE of mothers and fathers, the internal consistency for the 5-item PSAM was reported as $\alpha = .83$ (See Appendix B). In the present study, the internal consistency of the PSAM was $\alpha = .85$.

Gender Role Attitudes

Gender role attitudes were measured in this study by the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O’Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986). The 37-item scale includes four scale dimensions: Success, Power, and Competition (SPC), Restrictive Emotionality (RE), Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (RABBM), and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations (CBWFR). Respondents rated their level of agreement with each statement on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). Total scores on the measure are calculated by adding all individual items and dividing by 37; thus, scores may range from 1 to 6. Higher scores on the GRCS indicate a higher degree of conflict with the gender role conflict factors.

SPC describes personal attitudes about success that are pursued and awarded through the utilization of competition and power (O’Neil, 2008) and this subscale is made up of 13 items (e.g., “I worry about failing and how it affects my doing well as a man”).

The RE subscale, which measures an individual's difficulty or fear concerning the expression of emotions as well as difficulty finding or utilizing appropriate words to express emotions, is made up of 10 items (e.g., "I have difficulty telling others I care about them"). Eight items make up the RABBM subscale (e.g., "Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable"), which assesses having only limited ways to express thoughts and feelings to other men as well as difficulty and reluctance to touch other men. Finally, the CBWFR subscale measures the conflict experienced when trying to balance roles in both work and family life and this conflict often results in health concerns, stress, and lack of time for relaxation (O'Neil, 2008) and six items make up this subscale (e.g., "My needs to work or study keep me from family or leisure more than I would like"). Subscale scores are calculated by totaling each respective subscale score and dividing by the number of items in the subscale.

The GRCS has been used extensively in research on gender role conflict in men over the last 30 years (i.e., Amato, 2012; Blashill & Vanderwal, 2009; Blazina, Settle, & Eddins, 2008; Dodson & Borders, 2006; Wade, 1995). The four scales have shown adequate internal consistency, with reliability scores ranging from .73 to .90 (O'Neil, 2014). In addition, test-retest reliabilities for each factor range from .72 to .86 (O'Neil, 2014). In the present study, the internal consistency of the GRCS was $\alpha = .93$. Convergent and divergent validity have been shown with other widely used masculinity and gender attitudes scales, such as Liberal Feminist Attitude Ideology Scale (Morgan, 1996; Walker, Tokar, & Fischer, 2000; See Appendix C).

Role Satisfaction

To assess role satisfaction, fathers were asked to respond to the following question: “Overall, how satisfied do you feel in your role as primary caregiver?” Respondents indicated their level of satisfaction on a six point Likert scale, from completely dissatisfied (1) to completely satisfied (6). Many studies assessing the level of role satisfaction utilize a similar one question measure rather than a longer questionnaire and have demonstrated satisfactory reliability and validity (i.e., Harrison & Minor, 1982; Haydock, Mannix, & Gidman, 2011; Olson & DiBrigida, 1994; See Appendix D).

Social Support

Fathers’ social support was assessed using the Social Provisions Scale (SPS; Cutrona & Russell, 1987). This scale contains 24 items, with 4 items on each of the 6 subscales: attachment (e.g., “I have close relationships that provide me with a sense of emotional security and well-being”), social integration (e.g., “I feel part of a group of people who share my attitudes and beliefs”), nurturance (e.g., “There are people who depend on me for help”), reassurance of worth (e.g., “I have relationships where my competence and skill are recognized”), reliable alliance (e.g., “There are people I can depend on to help me if I really need it”), and guidance (e.g. “There is someone I could talk to about important decisions in my life”). Participants respond to each item by indicating their level of agreement with the statement, from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (4). A total social support score is calculated by adding all six of the individual subscale scores.

High scores indicate high social provision and research suggests this score is a reliable, valid index of general perception of social support (Cutrona & Russell, 1987). The SPS has shown high reliability, with the individual scales showing Cronbach's alpha between 0.79 (nurturance) and 0.92 (reassurance of worth) The internal consistency for the total score ranges from 0.85 to 0.92 across various populations (Cutrona & Russell, 1987).). In the present study, the internal consistency of the PSAM as a whole was $\alpha = .76$ (See Appendix E).

Procedure

Participants were recruited through online websites (i.e. www.athomedad.org), message boards (i.e. www.dadstaysathome.com), and in-person groups targeted at parents (i.e. local MeetUp groups for SAHFs). The electronic recruitment letters for the survey were distributed via email or website post accessible by potential participants. Finally, snowball sampling was utilized in order to access existing social networks. The electronic recruitment letter and paper advertisement contained identical information (see Appendix F).

Participants completed the survey online via PsychData. PsychData utilizes encryption technology to ensure security and confidentiality of participants' information. When participants accessed the survey, they read the Informed Consent letter first (See Appendix G). Upon indicating their understanding of the information contained in the Informed Consent, participants then completed the Demographic Questionnaire. The presentation of the PSAM, GRCS, and SPS were counterbalanced in order to help control for order effects. Participants completed the Role Satisfaction question last.

Upon exiting the survey, participants were provided with a list of counseling resources (See Appendix H). Upon completion of the measures, participants were eligible to enter a drawing for a \$50 Amazon gift card. Participants who provided informed consent, completed all measures, and indicated a desire to enter the drawing were directed to provide contact information in order to be notified if they were chosen as the drawing winner. Participation in the study was voluntary and all participants were given the opportunity to withdraw from study participation at any time.

Statistical Analyses

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, and ranges for all continuous variables were calculated. Frequencies and percentages were calculated for all categorical variables. Additionally, a correlation matrix was completed for all continuous variables.

Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses are listed below with their respective statistical analyses listed to the right of each hypothesis.

Hypothesis	Analysis
1. It was hypothesized that social support would be statistically significantly positively correlated with role satisfaction.	Pearson's Correlation
2. It was hypothesized that gender role attitudes would be statistically significantly negatively correlated with role satisfaction.	Pearson's Correlation

- | | |
|---|-----------------------|
| 3. It was hypothesized that parental self-efficacy would be statistically significantly positively correlated with role satisfaction. | Pearson's Correlation |
| 4. It was hypothesized that role satisfaction would be predicted by social support, PSE, and gender role attitude. | Multiple regression |
| 5. It was hypothesized that ethnicity would act as a moderator in the relationship between socioeconomic status and role satisfaction. | Multiple regression |
| 6. It was hypothesized that age would act as a moderator in the relationship between PSE and role satisfaction. | Multiple regression |
| 7. It was hypothesized that sexual orientation would act as a moderator in the relationship between gender role attitude and role satisfaction. | Multiple regression |

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Initially, descriptive statistics for the Parental Self-Agency Measure (PSAM; Dumka et al., 1996), the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986), the Social Provisions Scale (SPS; Cutrona & Russell, 1987), and the overall role satisfaction scale are presented, followed by preliminary analyses. Following this, the results for the primary hypotheses and exploratory analyses are noted.

Descriptive Statistics

Means, ranges, and standard deviations were calculated for all continuous variables on measures used in this study. See Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Data for Measures

Variable	Mean	Range	SD
PSAM	3.92	1-7	.69
GRCS	3.10	1-6	.77
SPS	54.14	1-65	18.28
Role Satisfaction	4.64	2-6	1.00

Note. PSAM= Parental Self-Agency Measure; GRCS= Gender Role Conflict Scale; SPS= Social Provisions Scale

Scores on the PSAM reflect a continuum of parental self-efficacy (PSE). Higher scores reflect higher levels of PSE, whereas lower scores reflect lower levels of PSE

(Dumka et al., 1996). Scores on the GRCS measure the extent to which individuals experience conflict with the gender role conflict factors. Higher GRCS scores represent higher degree of gender role conflict factors, which indicates more traditional gender role attitudes. Thus, lower GRCS scores indicate a lower degree of conflict with the gender role conflict factors, indicating less traditional gender role attitudes (O'Neil et al., 1986). Scores on the SPS reflect perceived level of social support. Higher scores on this scale indicate a higher degree of social support, whereas lower scores indicate less perceived social support (Cutrona & Russell, 1987). Lastly, responses on the role satisfaction scale indicate degree to which the individual is satisfied with his role as a stay-at-home father, with higher scores indicating more satisfaction with the role.

Scores on the PSAM were slightly above average when compared to normative samples (Dumka et al., 1996), indicating that on the whole, participants viewed themselves as being efficacious parents. Overall scores on the GRCS were below average when compared to normative samples (O'Neil, 2016), indicating that overall, participants held less traditional gender role attitudes. Scores on the SPS were above average when compared to normative samples (Cutrona & Russell, 1987), indicating that, on the whole, participants perceived themselves as having strong social support. Finally, scores on the role satisfaction scale indicated that, overall, participants were more satisfied rather than less satisfied in their roles as stay-at-home fathers.

Correlations

Correlations were calculated between all continuous variables in the study, including demographics and scores on the PSAM, GRCS, SPS, and role satisfaction scale. These correlations are presented below in Table 4.

Table 4

Correlations for the Major Variables

	Age	Hrs Work Per Week	Number Children	PSAM	GRCS	SPS	RS
Age	--						
Hrs Work Per Week	-.11	--					
Number Children	.26*	-.15	--				
PSAM	.02	.03	-.18	--			
GRCS	.09	-.03	-.14	.07	--		
SPS	-.14	.22	-.02	.13	-.23*	--	
RS	-.01	.07	.02	.57**	-.60**	-.15	--

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Note.* PSAM= Parental Self-Agency Measure; GRCS= Gender Role Conflict Scale; SPS= Social Provisions Scale, RS= Role Satisfaction

Correlations measure the strength of the relationship between variables. PSAM scores, which measured degree of PSE, were significantly positively correlated with gender role attitudes, social support, and role satisfaction. The finding that more

traditional gender role attitudes were positively correlated with parental self-efficacy was unexpected.

Analyses for Major Hypotheses

Hypothesis One. In hypothesis one, the researcher hypothesized that social support, measured by the SPS, would be significantly and positively correlated with role satisfaction, such that, as social support increased, role satisfaction would also increase. This hypothesis was not supported, $r = -.15$, $p = .20$.

Hypothesis Two. In hypothesis two, the researcher predicted that gender role attitudes, measured by the GRCS, would be significantly and negatively correlated with role satisfaction, indicating that as scores on the GRCS decreased, indicating less traditional gender role attitudes, role satisfaction increased. The hypothesis was supported, $r = -.60$, $p < .01$.

Hypothesis Three. In hypothesis three, the researcher predicted that PSE, measured by the PSAM, would be significantly and positively correlated with role satisfaction, indicating that as scores on the PSAM increased, indicating more PSE, role satisfaction increased. The hypothesis was supported, $r = .57$, $p < .01$.

Hypothesis Four. In hypothesis four, the researcher hypothesized that role satisfaction would be predicted by social support, PSE, gender role attitudes, and socioeconomic status. A multiple regression analysis was used to test this hypothesis. A significant model emerged: $F(4, 67) = 201.00$, $p < .005$. The model explains 91.8% of the variance in role satisfaction (Adjusted $R^2 = .92$). See Table 5 for information about regression coefficients for the predictor variables entered into the model. All of the

variables were significant predictors and PSE and socioeconomic status had positive relationships with role satisfaction. Gender role attitudes and social support each had a negative relationship with role satisfaction.

Table 5

Results for the Multiple Regression Analysis

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	5.44	.27		20.56	.00
PSE	1.01	.05	.71	20.25	.00
GRA	-1.01	.05	-.78	-21.86	.00
SS	-.02	.00	-.42	-11.87	.00
SES	.09	.02	.19	5.27	.00

Note: Dependent Variable: Role Satisfaction; PSE= Parental Self-Efficacy; GRA= Gender Role Attitudes; SS= Social Support; SES= Socioeconomic Status

Hypothesis Five. In hypothesis five, the researcher hypothesized that ethnicity would act as a moderator in the relationship between socioeconomic status and role satisfaction, such that the relationship between socioeconomic status and role satisfaction would be stronger for participants who identified as an ethnic minority. Examination of the frequencies of self-identified ethnicity indicated that the majority of the sample identified as White (82.5%), with the remaining groups accounting for less than 10% of the sample. Due to the discrepancies across group sizes, traditional moderation analyses could not be calculated.

In order to examine the potential differences in the relationship by ethnicity, ethnicity was recoded into two groups (White vs. non-White). Pearson's product moment correlations were then computed for the relationship between socioeconomic status and role satisfaction for each group separately to assess any differences in the relationship. The relationship between socioeconomic status and role satisfaction for both groups was nonsignificant ($r_{\text{White}} = .35, p = .21$; $r_{\text{NonWhite}} = -.00, p = .89$). A Fisher's z test was performed to compare these correlations and the results were non-significant. Overall, these findings can best be described as inconclusive, failing to support or refute the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis Six. In hypothesis six, the researcher hypothesized that age would act as a moderator in the relationship between PSE and role satisfaction, such that the relationship between PSE and role satisfaction will be stronger for older men. The hypothesis was analyzed using the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Model 1; Hayes, 2013). The overall regression model was significant, $F(3, 67) = 12.89, p < .001$. The model explains 36% of the variance in role satisfaction (Adjusted $R^2 = .36$).

To avoid concerns of multicollinearity, all continuous items were mean centered following the recommendation of Aiken and West (1991). When entered separately into the model, neither age ($Beta = -.02, p = .21$) nor PSE scores ($Beta = .62, p = .08$) were significantly associated with role satisfaction. However, the interaction term of Age X PSE was significantly associated with role satisfaction, $Beta = -.09, p = .04$. Using the Hayes (2013) macro and definition, which is based on Baron and Kenny (1986), the average age refers to the mean age, and low age and high age are defined as ± 1 SD from

the mean. Thus, the average age of the sample is 36.8 years old, low age is 29.4 years old or less, and high age is 44.2 years old or more. As shown below in Figure 1, at low ages, role satisfaction differed by levels of PSE; however, at high ages, role satisfaction leveled out regardless of PSE. Overall, these results support the research hypothesis.

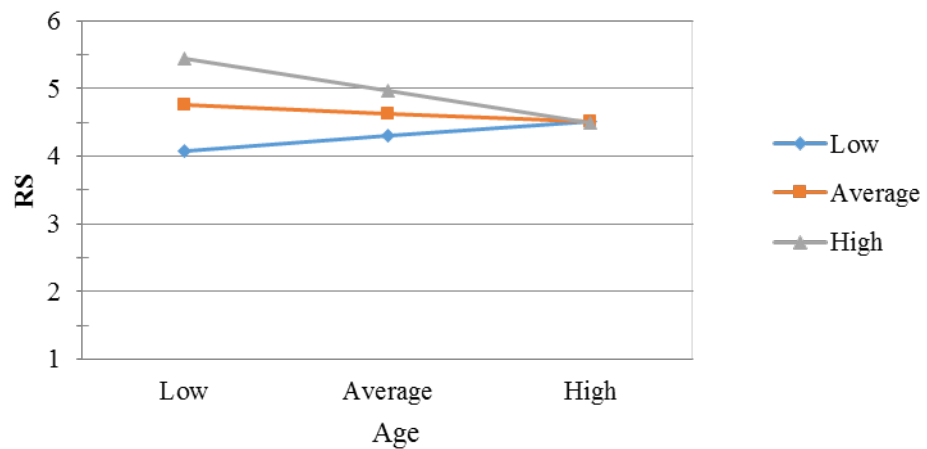


Figure 1. Interaction of age by PSE on role satisfaction.

Hypothesis Seven. In hypothesis seven, the researcher hypothesized that sexual orientation would act as a moderator in the relationship between gender role attitude and role satisfaction, such that the relationship between gender role attitude and role satisfaction would be stronger for men who identify as heterosexual. Of the 80 participants who participated in this study, only six identified as a sexual orientation other than heterosexual, with five (6.3%) identifying as gay and one (1.3%) identifying as bisexual. Due to the limited number of non-heterosexual participants, the potential moderating role of sexual orientation could not be tested.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In the discussion that follows, a summary of the major findings of this study are presented and are integrated with current literature and theory. Implications for research, theory, practice, and graduate training are noted, as well as strengths and weaknesses of the investigation. A final conclusion is given at the end of the chapter.

Summary of Major Findings

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of gender role attitudes, social support, and parental self-efficacy on the role satisfaction of stay-at-home fathers (SAHFs). As the experience of SAHFs is largely absent from the literature (Zimmerman, 2000), the study sought to address the lack of knowledge about SAHFs as well as to provide more insight into modern fatherhood. The possible links between role satisfaction and parental self-efficacy, gender role attitudes, and social support, respectively, were measured through a multiple regression analysis. Additionally, prospective moderator relationships were measured using regression analyses, where possible.

Three of the seven hypotheses were not supported, ambiguous, or could not be tested. Specifically, results failed to confirm Hypothesis 1, in which the researcher posited that social support would be significantly and positively correlated with role satisfaction. Hypothesis 5 was neither supported nor refuted, as the data were inconclusive. As the majority of the participants identified as White, the discrepancy in group size between White and non-White participants was quite large. As such,

traditional moderation analyses were not able to be calculated for this hypothesis. The data on race of the participants were recoded and the hypothesized relationship was found to be non-significant. Hypothesis 7 was unable to be tested due to the limited number of participants identifying as non-heterosexual.

Four of the seven hypotheses were supported. The results of the correlation analysis for Hypothesis 2 indicated that gender role attitudes were significantly negatively correlated with role satisfaction; thus, SAHFs who expressed less traditional gender role attitudes indicated higher levels of role satisfaction than those who expressed more traditional gender role attitudes. Similarly, the results of the correlation analysis for Hypothesis 3 showed that parental self-efficacy was significantly positively correlated with role satisfaction. As such, results supported that SAHFs who view themselves as more efficacious parents report higher levels of role satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4 was supported, indicating that participants' role satisfaction was predicted by their level of social support, gender role attitudes, parental self-efficacy, and socioeconomic status. Specifically, greater parental self-efficacy, lower social support, less traditional gender role attitudes, and greater socioeconomic status were significant predictors of higher role satisfaction. Overall, the results supported Hypothesis 6, in which the researcher posited that age would act as a moderator in the relationship between parental self-efficacy and role satisfaction. After testing for multicollinearity, it was shown that the interaction between age and parental self-efficacy was significantly associated with role satisfaction. As age increased, the effect of parental self-efficacy on

role satisfaction leveled out. Younger participants in the sample had a greater difference in role satisfaction as related to parental self-efficacy than older participants.

Integration with Previous Literature

Stay-at-Home Fathers

Previous research on families in which one parent stays home with the children have focused almost exclusively on families with a stay-at-home mother and a father who works outside the home (Fischer & Anderson, 2012). Additionally, past research that did seek to understand the experience of SAHFs was primarily qualitative in nature (i.e., Doucet, 2004) and focused on determining the reason men stayed at home (i.e., Doucet & Merla, 2007), the vocational involvement of SAHFs (i.e., Fischer & Anderson, 2012), and/or differences between stay-at-home mothers (SAHMs) and SAHFs (Zimmerman, 2000). The present study sought to provide information about the overall experience of SAHFs and their level of satisfaction with their role. In contrast to the previous, primarily qualitative work, the present study utilized quantitative methods to examine data on social support, gender role attitudes, parental self-efficacy, and role satisfaction of SAHFs.

Past research indicated that men choose to stay at home with their children as a result of a “multiplicity of inter-related factors” (Doucet & Merla, 2007, p. 462). Though information about specific reasons for staying home was not sought in this study, results lend support for the conjecture that broader theoretical and ideological considerations may have as much impact on this decision as logistical considerations. Specifically, the less traditional gender role attitudes held by the participants could indicate that the

participants' decision to stay home may have been impacted by their ideologies of gender and parenting. In addition, participants' reported an overall high level of role satisfaction. As the participants were primarily satisfied with their roles as SAHFs, it stands to reason that their occupied role may have been congruent with their broader gender role ideologies.

In previous studies on SAHFs, researchers emphasized the tendency of SAHFs to be involved in some sort of work outside the home while also acting as the primary caregiver for the children (i.e., Fischer & Anderson, 2012). Researchers concluded that the engagement in work outside the home was meant to allow SAHFs to continue to occupy the traditionally masculine role of financial contributor to the family (Doucet, 2004). In the present study, slightly more than half of the participants indicated that they worked outside of the home in addition to caring for their children at least 30 hours per week. The mean number of hours worked outside of the home was 6.58, which was fewer hours than what was reported by participants in past studies (Doucet, 2004; Doucet & Merla, 2007). Interestingly, the number of hours worked outside the home was not significantly correlated with other study variables, including role satisfaction.

The relatively small number of hours worked outside the home and the lack of correlation between these hours and overall role satisfaction seem to contradict previous research indicating the need for SAHFs to work outside the home in order to see themselves as masculine and to be satisfied in their roles. As participants in the present study showed less traditional gender role attitudes, it may be that participants did not see the need to work outside the home in order to maintain a traditionally masculine identity.

Similarly, if participants did not view gender roles traditionally and, therefore, did not need to be seen as traditionally masculine in order to be satisfied with their role, it stands to reason that the need to engage in work outside the home was not as high as in past studies.

The lack of significant relationship between hours worked outside the home and role satisfaction could be the result of a curvilinear relationship between these variables, though this possibility has not been examined. In addition, other reasons may exist for SAHFs to work outside the home other than to address masculine ideologies. Fathers may seek to work outside the home in order to garner adult interaction, gain social support, or provide financial resources for their family. As the present study did not employ the qualitative methods of previous studies, it is difficult to determine the reason for the disparities with regard to hours worked outside the home, though the conclusions noted above appear to be logical and in line with the overall results of the study.

Social Support

One of the primary ways in which SAHFs have been shown to differ from SAHMs has been the differences in perceived levels of social support (Zimmerman, 2000). Zimmerman reported that SAHFs reported significantly less social support and more loneliness and isolation than SAHMs. Though the present study did not examine the experience of SAHMs, the conclusions drawn about the social support of SAHFs provided important information about how they experience social support within their role as SAHF. Overall, results in the present study support that SAHFs experience high levels of perceived social support.

Gender differences in perception and receipt of social support are well documented in the literature (Belle, 1987; Matud et al., 2003; Olson & Schulz, 1994; Taylor et al., 2000). Overall, men have been shown to provide less social support, be less socially skilled, and have smaller social networks than women (DeGarmo & Forgatch, 2012; Taylor et al., 2000). Though these disparities appear to exist generally within society, it has been unclear how SAHFs experience social support. Parents in general tend to experience less social support than childfree adults, particularly when their children are young (Patulny, 2012). Yet, parents rely on social support to provide resources for dealing with the stress and strain of parenting (Lindsey et al., 2005).

The results of the present study appear to contradict past conclusions that men experience low levels of social support across the board. Additionally, past research focusing on the social support of fathers indicated that fathers access less social support than mothers (Levy-Shiff, 1999). Yet, the participants in the current study reported high levels of social support. One possible reason for this disparity lies in the gender role attitudes of the participants. While previous research indicated that negative stigma results in fathers accessing less social support than mothers, this concern about stigma may not be as concerning for SAHFs who already hold less traditional gender role attitudes and therefore may not be as bothered by the possibility of appearing less traditionally masculine.

Another possible explanation for the participants' high levels of social support is their potential participation in online communities. Eriksson and Salzmann-Erikson (2012) reported that fathers who were able to access supportive internet communities

reported higher levels of social support than those who did not have access to these communities. Though participants in the current study did not indicate their participation in an online community, the study was taken online and recruitment took place largely through online communities and other social support networks. As such, it may be reasonable to infer that participants may have been part of online communities in some form and may have received support from these communities. Thus, the recruitment of participants in the present study may have garnered a sample of SAHFs who regularly receive either in-person or online social support.

The social support measure utilized in the present study may have also contributed to the finding of high social support. The Social Provisions Scale (Cutrona & Russell, 1987) primarily measures the ways in which people may provide one another with aspects of social support such as nurturance, attachment, and guidance. Though previous research has shown this measure to be a reliable indicator of general social support (Cutrona & Russell, 1987), not all forms of social support are assessed by the measure. Specifically, the measure does not assess for instrumental social support, which refers to tangible assistance such as money, supplies, and provision of information (Beehr et al., 2000). Previous research has shown that men differentiate between instrumental and emotional support when considering their overall level of perceived support (Matud et al., 2003). As such, it may be that the men in the sample receive instrumental support from others, but did not generalize this support across domains.

Though participants indicated high levels of perceived social support, this social support was not significantly related to role satisfaction. Previous research has shown that

SAHFs can express high levels of life satisfaction, psychological well-being, and relationship satisfaction without also reporting high levels of social support (Rochlen et al., 2008). As such, social support may not be necessary for role satisfaction and it therefore stands to reason that a direct correlation between these two variables might not be significant. Social support may have positive benefits for SAHFs while not being directly correlated with their overall role satisfaction. Further research is needed in this area, as the results of this study join previously mixed results (Zimmerman, 2000) within the literature.

Parental Self-Efficacy

Parental self-efficacy (PSE) refers to the expectations that parents have about the degree to which they can perform effectively and competently as parents (Jones & Prinz, 2005). Previous research has primarily focused on the experience of PSE for mothers, as it has been assumed that the parental role is more salient for mothers than for fathers (Pierce et al., 2010; Sevigny & Loutzenhiser, 2010). No previous literature exists about the PSE of SAHFs, with most studies on PSE in fathers specifically noting that the participants worked outside the home (i.e., Murdock, 2013). As such, the present study serves as the first study to examine the PSE of SAHF, as far as is known to the researcher.

Previous studies tended to utilize task-specific measures of PSE rather than domain-specific measures (i.e., Gross et al., 1999; King & Elder, 1998). These measures have been criticized for not being as applicable to fathers (Jones & Prinz, 2005) and not fully tapping into the construct of PSE (Woodruff & Cashman, 1993). The present study

utilized a domain-specific measure (Dumka et al., 1996) in order to increase the probability that the results accurately reflected the broad experience of PSE for fathers. Thus, the high levels of PSE reported by the participants in the present study, though higher than in past studies on PSE of fathers (Murdock, 2013; Sevigny & Loutzenhiser, 2010), may be a more accurate depiction of fathers' PSE than has been previously shown in the literature.

Another finding regarding the PSE of SAHFs was the interaction between age and PSE and the subsequent effect on role satisfaction. For younger fathers, role satisfaction differed greatly with regard to levels of PSE. In contrast, for older SAHFs, role satisfaction leveled out regardless of PSE. Thus, over time, the effect of PSE on overall role satisfaction became less important. Previous literature on the interaction of age and PSE focuses solely on the age of the children rather than the age of the parent (i.e., Glatz & Buchanan, 2015; Pierce et al., 2010). Yet, research on identity development in men may help explain this particular finding.

Developmental theorists often note that an individual's identity develops gradually throughout their lifetime, typically culminating in a period of intensified exploration during adolescence and early adulthood (i.e., Erikson, 1963). Individuals tend to advance toward identity achievement into early adulthood (Beaumont & Zukanovic, 2005), which is typically identified as the stage between 18 and 40 years old (Erikson, 1963). As such, younger participants in the present study would be categorized in the identity achievement stage of development. Their sense of PSE may have more of an impact on their role satisfaction at this stage, as their identity development overall may be

in flux and more significantly impacted by perceived self-efficacy (Beaumont & Zukanovic, 2005). This finding is particularly relevant to their fathering identity, which has been shown to be a dynamic, fluid identity impacted over time by social and contextual factors (McBride et al., 2005).

Young SAHFs navigating identity exploration may also face challenges related to being in a nontraditional occupational role (Fischer & Anderson, 2012). Occupational roles typically impact an individual's sense of identity in early adulthood (Pulkkinen & Kokko, 2000), particularly for men (Fadjukoff, Kokko, & Pulkkinen, 2010). Thus, young SAHFs may face the unique challenge of attempting to develop a sense of occupational identity while also navigating a nontraditional role. As with other identities, occupational identity solidifies over time as individuals move toward identity achievement (Fadjukoff et al., 2010), which may relate to the result that older fathers' role satisfaction was not as affected by their parental self-efficacy, because their occupational identity may be more fully developed.

Overall, the literature on identity development in men may serve to inform the finding that younger fathers' role satisfaction differed greatly with regard to levels of PSE, while older fathers' role satisfaction leveled out regardless of PSE. As younger men attempt to form fathering, occupational, and other identities, their sense of efficacy in these identities and roles significantly impacts their overall satisfaction with their SAHF role. More research is needed with regard to the relationship between PSE, age, and role satisfaction in order to better understand how identity development impacts this relationship.

Implications for Research

Though stay-at-home fathers are becoming more common (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011), research on their experience is lacking. The current study provides useful information on their gender role attitudes, parental self-efficacy, social support, and role satisfaction. However, further research can be conducted on each of these areas in order to better understand the overall experience of SAHFs.

The present study meaningfully contributes to the knowledge base on the gender role attitudes of SAHFs. It stands to reason that SAHFs would espouse less traditional gender role attitudes, as they are daily filling a role that has been considered to be more traditionally feminine. Though this makes logical sense, previous literature has not examined the gender role attitudes of SAHFs. As such, the results of the current study provide support for the notion that SAHFs tend to hold egalitarian gender role attitudes. Additionally, the current study supports that SAHFs who express less traditional gender role attitudes report more satisfaction with their roles as SAHFs. Future research in this area could expand on the current study by continuing to examine the gender role attitudes of SAHFs in order to provide more evidence for the results obtained in this study. Research on the gender role attitudes of the SAHFs' partners may also provide meaningful insight into how the gender role attitudes of SAHFs and their partners intersect and how this relationship impacts role satisfaction.

Prior research indicated that, even in heterosexual households in which both partners adopt egalitarian gender roles, the female partner tends to engage in more household labor than the male (Barstad, 2014). The results of the present study suggest

that SAHFs espouse less traditional gender roles, which may be indicative of a more egalitarian household in which household responsibilities are shared among the adults in the home. More research is needed in this area to determine whether SAHFs in heterosexual relationships tend to share household duties equally or conform to previously identified patterns of continuing to engage in less household work than the female partner. Additionally, future research should seek to identify how this balance of household work happens in non-heterosexual couples, as previous research has focused almost exclusively on heterosexual couples (Lachance-Grzela & Bouchard, 2010), particularly when considering the impact of the parental roles on household responsibilities (Sabattini & Leaper, 2004).

In addition to providing meaningful information on the gender role attitudes of SAHFs, the present study informs the current literature base by providing information about the parental self-efficacy of SAHFs. Prior literature reported primarily on the parental self-efficacy of mothers (i.e., Pierce et al., 2010; Seigny & Loutzenhiser, 2010), with few studies investigating the parental self-efficacy of fathers in general (Murdock, 2013) and SAHFs specifically. The results of the present study indicate that SAHFs as a whole experience high degrees of parental self-efficacy and that this self-efficacy contributes to higher role satisfaction. These results meaningfully contribute to the knowledge base by measuring the parental self-efficacy of SAHFs. Future research could benefit from further investigation of the parental self-efficacy of SAHFs as well as fathers in general. For example, future research may benefit from investigating whether SAHFs experience increased parental self-efficacy as a result of being the primary

caregiver or if this heightened parental self-efficacy was already present before becoming the primary caregiver.

Research on the parental self-efficacy of the partners of SAHFs may provide information regarding how parental self-efficacy is distributed between the primary caregiver and their partner. Traditionally, mothers have shown higher levels of parental self-efficacy than fathers (Meuiner & Roskam, 2009), though it has been unclear what variables contributed to that self-efficacy. Further research that compares parental self-efficacy of heterosexual SAHFs to that of their female partners may provide insight into how much of mothers' parental self-efficacy is due to being a primary caregiver. As no known research exists on the PSE of gay fathers, future research on the PSE of both gay SAHFs and their partners could provide additional information regarding the distribution of PSE within the partnership.

The results of the present study did not support the hypothesis that social support was significantly related to role satisfaction, though lower social support was a meaningful predictor of role satisfaction. Given this somewhat counter-intuitive finding, future research could benefit from further investigation of the relationship between these variables. Studies that utilize a social support measure more reflective of the experience of a SAHF may yield opposing results. Specifically, a measure that measures parental social support may be useful, as social support may come about in many ways (Glazer, 2006), some of which may be relevant to parenting role satisfaction and some of which may not. Specifically, there should be further investigation of the ways in which SAHFs

require support, how they elicit this support, and what particular form of support is most beneficial to their well-being.

Though the present study provided meaningful and useful information, the demographics of the sample were not diverse enough to gather information regarding the impact of socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, or race on role satisfaction. Future research should endeavor to find a diverse sample that allows for a better understanding of diverse populations. As the experiences of fathers may differ significantly with regard to race (Dowd, 2000; Hofferth, 2003; Lamb, 2010), sexual orientation (Golombok & Tasker, 2010; Patterson, 1995), and socioeconomic status (Bryan, 2013; Tamis-LeMonda & McFadden, 2010), generalizing the current results to these populations should be done with caution. More research is needed to begin to understand the experience of SAHFs who identify with non-majority groups.

Implications for Theory

Historically, the societal view of fatherhood has changed based on economics and larger cultural shifts (Dowd, 2000; Rotundo, 1993). As such, the view of fatherhood has largely been socially constructed and therefore has tended to hold in place more traditional family structures (Matta & Martin, 2006). Additionally, a culturally-dictated definition of fatherhood limits roles for both men and women, as this definition tends to place strict boundaries on the characteristics of fathers, mothers, and parents in general (Matta & Martin, 2006). Fathers have been historically seen as authority figures and breadwinners (Atkinson & Blackwelder, 1993), whereas mothers have been relegated to the roles of nurturer and caregiver (Dowd, 2000).

The increasing commonality of SAHFs appears to signify a shift, however small, in the societal view of parental roles. As men begin to occupy roles traditionally held by women, it seems that the definition of fatherhood may be changing (Dowd, 2000; LaRossa et al., 1991). Indeed, theorists have labeled the current period of fatherhood as participant fatherhood (Rotundo, 1993). Within this label is the notion that fathers are able to occupy not only the role of provider, but also the roles of role model and caregiver (Dowd, 2000). The results of the present study support this notion that the view of fatherhood may have expanded to include more aspects than in the past. The participants' high levels of PSE and less traditional gender role attitudes suggest that shifts in the definition of fatherhood have occurred.

The results of the present study appear to support the feminist view that fatherhood is a socially constructed idea (Matta & Martin, 2006). The high rates of PSE, less traditional gender role attitudes, and overall high levels of role satisfaction of the participants suggests that fathers may be able to occupy more roles than in the past and may be able to do so happily. Though social support was not shown to be significantly related to role satisfaction, participants indicated high levels of social support overall. As such, it seems that not only can fathers occupy additional roles, but that they may be supported in these roles. Such support lends evidence to views of fatherhood shifting over time (Dowd, 2000) and seems to indicate a shift toward less rigid, traditional views of fatherhood.

Similarly, the results of the present study provide information on the current state of masculine ideology. Traditional masculine ideology characterizes masculinity as being

made of traits such as emotional stoicism, sexual drive, toughness, and competitiveness (Chu et al., 2005). Though this view of masculinity has not been eradicated from society, the indication that the men in the present study espoused attitudes in direct contrast to these traditional notions of masculinity seems to signify that a shift has occurred or is still occurring. Though the participants may have been responding within their roles as fathers, theory and past research indicate that men's identities as fathers exist alongside of, and in relation to, their identities as men (Dowd, 2000). As such, their views on gender roles may be viewed as global indications of shifts with regard to views of masculinity rather than simply shifts in the view of fatherhood.

The results of the current study provide important information in regard to a previously established conceptual model of PSE. Ardel and Eccles (2001) created a conceptual model of PSE in which PSE beliefs, promotive parenting strategies, and developmental success of the child exist in a feedback loop. Yet, this model was focused on the PSE of mothers and had not been previously examined as a possible model of PSE in fathers. The high PSE displayed by the participants in the present study may indicate that the fathers in the study engage in more promotive parenting strategies than non-SAHF or SAHFs with lower PSE. More research is needed in order to understand how the previously established conceptual model fits for SAHFs, though the current study presents an important first step in examining this fit.

Implications for Practice

The results of the present study suggest that several considerations for practice be explored. Though men tend to utilize mental health care less often than women (Oliver,

Pearson, Coe, & Gunnell, 2005), it is feasible that mental health professionals will encounter SAHFs in their work. This is particularly true as the rates of SAHFs increase (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011) and the role begins to become less stigmatized. Thus, the results of the study may be useful in informing mental health professionals' work with SAHFs, particularly those who indicate that they are dissatisfied with their roles as primary caregivers.

In the case of SAHFs seeking mental health care, it is likely that role satisfaction will be a focus of treatment, as the various roles occupied by men tend to be important aspects of identity (DeGarmo, 2010; Habib & Lancaster, 2006). As it has been shown that SAHFs with less traditional gender role attitudes tend to express more satisfaction with their role, gender role attitudes would likely be an area for mental health professionals to explore with SAHFs. Clients may benefit from exploration of their gender role attitudes, particularly in the case of more implicit and firmly held beliefs (Stieger, Burger, Schiller, Schulze, & Voracek, 2014). Thus, clients may not be aware of their attitudes toward gender roles and the way in which such attitudes negatively affect their role satisfaction.

Similarly, the results of the study highlight the importance of mental health providers attending to the parental self-efficacy of SAHFs. This is particularly true for SAHFs of a younger age. The socialization of men as fathers tends to emphasize that mothers are more capable and competent than fathers in their parenting role (Riley, 2003). This socialization begins early in life, as girls are socialized into roles as caregivers through experience caring for other children (Levant & Doyle, 1983). Thus,

young boys, who are not being socialized into these caregiver roles, are not afforded the same opportunities for experience in child care (Palm & Palkovitz, 1988). Relatedly, boys tend not to have male role models who provide child care in the same manner that girls have female role models who provide child care (Hawkins & Roberts, 1992). Overall, this difference in socialization may result in lower parental self-efficacy in fathers, particularly during the transition to fatherhood, as they have not been socialized to feel competent in their roles as caregivers (McBride, 1990).

Fathers may therefore view themselves as less efficacious parents than mothers (Meuiner & Roskam, 2009). Mental health providers may work with clients to help increase parental self-efficacy by means of addressing internalized messages about the intersection of efficacious parenting and gender. As SAHFs with high parental self-efficacy were shown to have high role satisfaction, it stands to reason that improving a father's sense of parental self-efficacy would improve his satisfaction with his role as a SAHF.

A potential way to increase parental self-efficacy is by involving fathers in parental education programs. Such programs have been shown to be effective at improving familial communication (Wright & Wooden, 2013), changing children's problematic behavior (Salinas, Smith, & Armstrong, 2011), and increasing parental involvement and skills, particularly when the education is undertaken during the transition to parenthood (Doherty, Erickson, & LaRossa, 2006). Few parenting education programs focus specifically on fathers, though research indicates that when fathers do participate, their involvement with their children and their overall satisfaction with their

parenting role increases (Doherty et al., 2006). As such, it stands to reason that participation in parental education programs may increase fathers' parental self-efficacy and practitioners may consider encouraging such participation.

Though the present study focused specifically on SAHFs, implications for fathers in general may be gleaned from the results. The emergence of SAHFs and the increasing commonality of men as primary caregivers for children over recent years suggests that the landscape of fatherhood is changing (Dowd, 2000). As men begin to fill roles formerly held by women, the way in which fathers are viewed may change (Matta & Martin, 2006). Mental health professionals should endeavor to discuss the changing face of fatherhood with their clients and help facilitate exploration and understanding of the meaning this holds for individuals. In turn, fathers in general, and SAHFs in particular, may grow in their comfort and satisfaction with their role.

Implications for Training

The results of the present study provide several implications for training. Courses on family systems and theory could be enriched with incorporation of discussion on SAHFs and their unique experiences. Graduate students could likely benefit from further knowledge about the gender role attitudes, social support, and PSE of SAHFs. Additionally, discussion of the variables that predict role satisfaction for this population could be beneficial for trainees. In order to more fully encompass the variety of familial experiences, courses in family psychology and theory should endeavor to explore and discuss SAHFs as a unique and growing population.

Similarly, courses in development could benefit from the incorporation of the results of the present study as well as the larger knowledge base on SAHFs. The findings from the current study regarding the interaction of age and PSE provide information on identity development. As such, discussions on identity development could benefit from exploration of the potential impact of PSE, age, and other potential variables on the identity achievement of SAHFs. In addition, broader implications exist for developmental curricula that focus on the changing face of fatherhood. As views of fatherhood have changed over time (Dowd, 2000), exploration of this evolution, as well as a focus on current views of fatherhood, are important areas to explore further in graduate training courses. Relatedly, discussions of work-life balance and how families seek to resolve an imbalance could enrich course discussions.

Results of the current study could encourage graduate students to engage in advocacy for social change. Though views of fatherhood have changed over time, fathers, such as SAHFs, occupying non-traditional roles may continue to experience negative social consequences (Fischer & Anderson, 2012). Training programs can further explore the implications of societal expectations and gender role attitudes on the acceptance of SAHFs. Exploring and leading conversations with students, instructors, and healthcare professionals regarding the experience of SAHFs may help to reduce the stigma associated with being a SAHF as well as promote awareness of their overall experience.

Strengths of the Study

Upon creating the study, the researcher was not aware of any similar studies that sought to understand the overall role satisfaction of SAHFs as well as the specific impact

of gender role attitudes, social support, and parental self-efficacy on this satisfaction. With the exploration of this gap in the literature, the researcher sought to address variables affecting the role satisfaction of SAHFs and explore the overall experience of SAHFs. Through correlational analyses and multiple regressions, the researcher was able to examine how a variety of variables affect the role satisfaction of SAHFs. The results provided new insights, indicating that for SAHFs, gender role attitudes, social support, and parental self-efficacy significantly predict role satisfaction. In addition, results indicated that age has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between PSE and role satisfaction in SAHFs. The above-mentioned results highlight the unique experience of SAHFs while also supporting the notion that more research is needed on this population. Further strengths of the study include its design and strong statistical support. The sample size of the study, though small, was large enough to provide sufficient power for the conducted analyses.

Limitations of the Study

Though the study provided meaningful information in an area that previously was understudied, limitations of the study existed. As the sample was limited with respect to race, the generalizability of the results to non-White SAHFs is limited. Similarly, the sample was limited in terms of sexual orientation. As a result, the generalizability of the results to non-heterosexual individuals is limited. Another limitation of the study was the social support measure that was utilized in the study. Though this measure has been shown to meaningfully measure social support in other studies (i.e., Cutrona & Russell, 1987), it may be that a social support measure more significantly related to the

experience of being a parent or to other dimensions of social support (e.g., instrumental support) would have yielded different results with regard to the relationship between social support and role satisfaction.

Another limitation of the current study is the relatively small sample size. Though enough participants were garnered to be able to provide sufficient power for the regression analyses, the small sample size limits generalizability. The current study includes more participants than most prior research on SAHFs (Doucet, 2004; Doucet & Merla, 2007; Zimmerman, 2000), but a larger sample size would increase power and may yield results more easily generalized to SAHFs. This is particularly true with regard to the limited diversity of race, sexual orientation, and socioeconomic status of the participants.

As the sample in the present study was recruited primarily through online and in-person support communities, it may be the participants regularly engaged in the receipt of social support. In this manner, participants in the present study may differ significantly from other SAHFs who do not regularly engage in such communities. Future research could further examine potential differences between

Conclusion

The current study explored the impact of gender role attitudes, parental self-efficacy, and social support on the role satisfaction of SAHFs. As it is becoming more common for fathers to elect to stay home and become the primary caregiver of children, continuing to learn more about the experience of SAHFs is critical. Furthermore, as

societal views of fatherhood and masculinity continue to evolve, it is increasingly important to note that the experience of fatherhood varies significantly among men.

Though the field of psychology has begun to investigate the experiences of SAHFs, further investigation is necessary in order to better understand this population specifically as well as fathers and families in general. Future research, clinical practice focused on the exploration of gender role socialization, and intentionally attending to the changing face of families may all contribute to a better understanding of how fatherhood and families are changing and conforming less and less to traditionally-held views. Overall, the experience of SAHFs is a meaningful and important aspect of the individual experience that should not be overlooked.

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Appendix A
Demographics Questionnaire

Demographics Questionnaire

DIRECTIONS: Please complete the following questions.

1. Age: _____
2. Sexual Orientation: _____
3. What is your race/ethnicity (Please click on the number in the one that best describes you):
 1. Black/African/African American
 2. White/Caucasian/European American
 3. Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander
 4. Hispanic/Latino(a)
 5. Native American/Alaskan Native
 6. Other: _____
4. Number of children living with you: _____
5. Number of hours per week you work outside the home: _____
6. Household income (per year):
 1. \$0- \$24,999
 2. \$25,000- \$49,999
 3. \$50,000- \$74,999
 4. \$75,000- \$99,999
 5. \$100,000- \$124,999
 6. \$125,000- \$149,999
 7. \$150,000- \$174,999
 8. \$175,000- \$199,999
 9. \$200,000- \$224,999
 10. \$225,000 and above
7. Level of Education:
 1. High school or equivalent
 2. Vocational/ technical school
 3. Some college
 4. Bachelor's degree
 5. Master's degree
 6. Doctoral degree
 7. Professional degree (MD, JD, etc.)
8. Relationship Status
 1. Married
 2. Divorced
 3. Separated
 4. Widowed
 5. Partnered
 6. Single, Never Married

9. Hours per week child(ren) spend in day care, preschool, or school

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| 1. My child(ren) do(es) not attend day care/school | 6. 21-25 hours per week |
| 2. <5 hours per week | 7. 26-30 hours per week |
| 3. 6-10 hours per week | 8. 31-35 hours per week |
| 4. 11-15 hour per week | 9. 36-40 hours per week |
| 5. 16-20 hours per week | 10. 41 or more hours per week |

10. What are the ages of child(ren) living in your home? _____

11. Please indicate which description best describes you:

1. I identify as having a disability _____
2. I identify as able-bodied with no physical, intellectual, or emotional disabilities that cause impairment in daily life activities. _____
3. Other (please explain) _____

Appendix B
Parental Self-Agency Measure

Parental Self- Agency Measure
Dumka, Stoerzinger, Jackson, & Roosa, 1996

Please read each statement below, and indicate the answer that corresponds to your feelings about parenting your child(ren).

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

1. I feel sure of myself as a father.
2. I know I am doing a good job as a father.
3. I know things about being a father that would be helpful to other parents.
4. I can solve most problems between me and my child
5. When things are going badly between my child and me, I keep trying until things begin to change.

Appendix C
Gender Role Conflict Scale

Gender Role Conflict Scale
O'Neil et al., 1986

Instructions: Choose the number that most closely represents the degree that you agree or disagree with the statement. There is no right or wrong answer to each statement; your own reaction is what is asked for.

Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Mildly Disagree 3	Mildly Agree 4	Moderately Agree 5	Strongly Agree 6
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1. Moving up the career ladder is important to me.
2. I have difficulty telling others I care about them.
3. Verbally expressing my love to another man is difficult for me.
4. I reel torn between my hectic work schedule and caring for my health.
5. Making money is part of my idea of being a successful man.
6. Strong emotions are difficult for me to understand.
7. Affection with other men makes me tense.
8. I sometimes define my personal value by my career success.
9. Expressing feelings makes me feel open to attack by other people.
10. Expressing my emotions to other men is risky.
11. My career, job, or school affects the quality of my leisure or family life.
12. I evaluate other people's value by their level of achievement and success.
13. Talking about my feelings during sexual relations is difficult for me.
14. I worry about failing and how it affects my doing well as a man.

15. I have difficulty expressing my emotional needs to my partner.
16. Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable.
17. Finding time to relax is difficult for me.
18. Doing well all the time is important to me.
19. I have difficulty expressing my tender feelings.
20. Hugging other men is difficult for me.
21. I often feel that I need to be in charge of those around me.
22. Telling others of my strong feelings is not part of my sexual behavior.
23. Competing with others is the best way to succeed.
24. Winning is a measure of my value and personal worth.
25. I often have trouble finding words that describe how I am feeling.
26. I am sometimes hesitant to show my affection to men because of how others might perceive me.
27. My needs to work or study keep me from my family or leisure more than I would like.

Appendix D
Role Satisfaction

Role Satisfaction Scale

Instructions: Read the question below and choose the number that most closely represents your level of satisfaction.

Overall, how satisfied do you feel in your role as primary caregiver?

1	2	3	4	5	6
Completely Dissatisfied	Mostly Dissatisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Mostly Satisfied	Completely Satisfied

Appendix E
Social Provisions Scale

Social Provisions Scale
Russell & Cutrona, 1984

Instructions: In answering the following questions, think about your current relationships with friends, family members, co-workers, community members, and so on. Please indicate to what extent each statement describes your current relationships with other people. Use the following scale to indicate your opinion.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4

So, for example, if you feel a statement is very true of your current relationships, you would respond with a 4 (strongly agree). If you feel a statement clearly does not describe your relationships, you would respond with a 1 (strongly disagree).

1. There are people I can depend on to help me if I really need it.
2. I feel that I do not have close personal relationships with other people.
3. There is no one I can turn to for guidance in times of stress.
4. There are people who depend on me for help.
5. There are people who enjoy the same social activities I do.
6. Other people do not view me as competent.
7. I feel personally responsible for the well-being of another person.
8. I feel part of a group of people who share my attitudes and beliefs.
9. I do not think other people respect my skills and abilities
10. If something went wrong, no one would come to my assistance.
11. I have close relationships that provide me with a sense of emotional security and well-being

12. There is someone I could talk to about important decisions in my life.
13. I have relationships where my competence and skill are recognized.
14. There is no one who shares my interests and concerns.
15. There is no one who really relies on me for their well-being.
16. There is a trustworthy person I could turn to for advice if I were having problems.
17. I feel a strong emotional bond with at least one other person.
18. There is no one I can depend on for aid if I really need it.
19. There is no one I feel comfortable talking about problems with.
20. There are people who admire my talents and abilities.
21. I lack a feeling of intimacy with another person.
22. There is no one who likes to do the things I do.
23. There are people who I can count on in an emergency.
24. No one needs me to care for them.

Appendix F
Online Recruitment Letter

October, 2014

Please consider participating in my dissertation study. This research is intended to expand knowledge about the experience of fathers who act as primary caregivers for their children. While research on this topic has been done before, this study will seek to assess components of the experience that have not previously been assessed. Your participation in this study may enhance the understanding of the lives of primary caregiver fathers.

Your participation is completely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time. Identifying information is only requested to voluntarily enter a gift card drawing, and to voluntarily receive results of the study. No identifying data will be associated with your responses or shared with anyone. There is a potential risk of loss of confidentiality in all email, downloading, and internet transactions. Your participation consists of completing a consent form and four brief questionnaires as well as a short demographics form. Participation will take approximately 20-35 minutes. Potential risks from participation in this study include discomfort due to the content of the study and loss of time.

You may access this study online at [study link].

This study is only open to men who stay home to care for their child(ren) and work outside the home no more than 25 hours per week.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study, please contact Sarah Johnson at shall.johnson@gmail.com or Sally Stabb, Ph.D. at SStabb@mail.twu.edu. Thank you for your time and attention.

Sincerely,
Sarah Johnson, M.A.
Texas Woman's University
Counseling Psychology Doctoral Student

Appendix G
Informed Consent

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICPATE IN RESEARCH

Title: Role Satisfaction in Stay-at-Home Fathers: The Influence of Gender Role Attitudes, Social Support, and Parental Self-Efficacy

Investigator: Sarah Johnson.....shall.johnson@gmail.com
Advisor: Sally D. Stabb, Ph.D.....SStabb@mail.twu.edu

You are being asked to participate in a research study for Ms. Johnson's doctoral dissertation at Texas Woman's University. The purpose of this research is to explore the impact of gender role attitudes, social support, and parental self-efficacy on the role satisfaction of stay-at-home fathers. For this study, you will complete three questionnaires regarding the topics noted above. The questionnaires will be completed using an online computer survey. The questionnaires will take approximately 20-35 minutes to complete.

Confidentiality will be protected to the extent allowed by law. All data contained within the questionnaires will remain anonymous. Identifying information is only obtained for informed consent and will not be associated with your responses. All raw data will be stored in a password protected computer file to be accessed only by the researcher. The data may be published for dissertation, books, and/or journals but no identifying information will be included in any publication.

Participation in this study may result in discomfort. If this should occur, you may stop at any time and withdraw from the study. If you feel you need to discuss your discomfort with a professional, counseling resources will be provided to assist you. If a problem should occur, please notify the researcher immediately and you will be assisted. Please note that TWU does not provide medical or financial assistance for injuries incurred while participating in the research.

The direct benefit to you is that upon completion of the study, you may obtain a summary of the results via mail upon request. You may also enter a drawing for a \$50 Amazon gift card.

For any questions about the research, please contact the researchers at the email addresses listed at the top of this form. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a participant or about the manner in which the study has been conducted, you may email IRB@TWU.EDU.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without penalty.

By clicking “I agree” below, you are stating that you have read and understand the above statements and consent to participate in the study.

Appendix H
Counseling Resources

Counseling Resources

American Psychological Association Psychologist Locator

<http://locator.apa.org/>

National Register of Health Service Psychologists

<http://www.findapsychologist.org/>

Psychology Today Find a Therapist

<http://therapists.psychologytoday.com/rms/>

American Association for Marriage and Family Therapy

<http://www.therapistlocator.net/iMIS15/therapistlocator/>

National Board for Certified Counselors

<http://www.nbcc.org/CounselorFind>

Appendix I
IRB Approval Letter



Institutional Review Board
Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
P.O. Box 425619, Denton, TX 76204-5619
940-898-3378
email: IRB@twu.edu
<http://www.twu.edu/irb.html>

DATE: March 6, 2015
TO: Ms. Sarah Johnson
Psychology & Philosophy
FROM: Institutional Review Board - Denton

Re: *Approval for Role Satisfaction in Stay-at-Home Fathers: Impact of Social Support, Gender Role Attitudes and Parental Self-Efficacy (Protocol #: 18053)*

The above referenced study has been reviewed and approved by the Denton Institutional Review Board (IRB) on 3/6/2015 using an expedited review procedure. This approval is valid for one year and expires on 3/5/2016. The IRB will send an email notification 45 days prior to the expiration date with instructions to extend or close the study. It is your responsibility to request an extension for the study if it is not yet complete, to close the protocol file when the study is complete, and to make certain that the study is not conducted beyond the expiration date.

If applicable, agency approval letters must be submitted to the IRB upon receipt prior to any data collection at that agency. A copy of the approved consent form with the IRB approval stamp is enclosed. Please use the consent form with the most recent approval date stamp when obtaining consent from your participants. A copy of the signed consent forms must be submitted with the request to close the study file at the completion of the study.

Any modifications to this study must be submitted for review to the IRB using the Modification Request Form. Additionally, the IRB must be notified immediately of any adverse events or unanticipated problems. All forms are located on the IRB website. If you have any questions, please contact the TWU IRB.

cc. Dr. Daniel Miller, Psychology & Philosophy
Dr. Sally D. Stabb, Psychology & Philosophy
Graduate School