1.5 Men and Participation in Parenting Programs or Child Therapy

Despite the evidentAlthough evidence suggests that fathers can contribute significantly importance of the role of the father in to positive outcomes for their children for children, the majority of research on therapeutic and parenting parenting education interventions for families does not include paternal input from the fathers (Phares et al., 2010). Partly tThis is ean somewhat unsurprising be expected, given the reduced likelihood that fathers will be jointly or solely involved in the interventions alongside or in place of mothers. However, a systematic review of global literature on parenting interventions and therapeutic interventions for children also identified that there are operational biases in the data collection that contribute to the do not identify exclusion of fathers from research in research (Panter-Brick et al., 2014).

Despite these limitations, the available evidence that is available does indicates that paternal involvement can improve outcomes.

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While Research research on Parentparent-Child-child Interaction interaction

Therapy therapy has shown that while there was no difference in short-short-term

results, at follow up, father involvement was correlated with maintained treatment gains in follow-up sessions (Bagner & Eyberg, 2003)-. Further, Father father involvement was found to make even more of a greater positive difference if the intervention was for a child with a developmental delay (Bagner, 2013). Family Cognitive cognitive

Behaviour behaviour Therapy therapy for anxious youths was also shown to have achieve better improved child outcomes if when both the father and the motherparents attended and were engaged in the therapy (Podell & Kendall, 2011). In a meta-analysis of 26 studies on parenting programs, more a greater number of positive changes in children's behaviour and better parenting practices were more likely to be reported when the fathers were also participatineds (Lundahl, Tollefson, Risser, & Lovejoy, 2008)-.

In accord with the Alongside the recent emphasis to on increase men's increased participation in a range of health initiatives, researchers are have recommending recommended increased paternal involvement in that for best outcomes there should also be an increase in men's involvement in interventions for their children and families family interventions (Duhig, Phares; & Birkeland, 2002; Fabiano, 2007; Phares et al., 2010).—.—However, some research has suggested that fathers are less likely than mothers are to report positive gains feedback from parenting training, and tend to give less positive feedback (Lundahl et al., 2008). Research into parenting programs around the world has identified a dominant trend of institutional biases towards a 'father deficit' model, whereby-the design and delivery of programs is tailored specifically for mothers (Panter-Brick et al., 2014).—).

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Panter-Brick et al. (2014) identified a strong gender bias in the policies which that inform parenting programs and helping support organisations institutions, noting that this bias and observed that this bias was carried on through influenced the content of programs, the culture of the institutions; and in the behaviour of the helping professional service sproviders. A consequence of this is that Consequently, staff attitudes sometimes excluded fathers, and the environments were not always found to be father father-friendly, for For example, when parenting groups were sometimes hosted at a women's health centercentres. Furthermore, the content of programs program content tended to be less relevant for to fathers, and did not consider gender differences in parenting styles and goals (Panter-Brick et al., 2014-).

These barriers were also identified in recent Australian research, which acknowledged that it was challenging to recruit fathers and maintain their participation.

The results of a A Victorian study of 27 fathers in focus groups identified that the fathers often felt left out by excluded by workers staff, and did not feel that their contributions were valued (Cosson & Graham, 2012). The fathers spoke of a female-centered culture at the services in support services, and felt that there was perceived a lack of recognition for of their needs even though despite they a desire to wanted to be involved. Practical barriers were also identified as an issue, specifically work commitments and not having a lack of information about athe services available services, and having work commitments. Similarly, A a large large-scale study of communities throughout the United Kingdom has also found fathers were to be reluctant to even enroll in family education or parenting programs, This was especially evident if their programs was viewed perceived to have an innately feminine slant, for example such as those with only all female educators or a focus on sedentary play with children rather than active play (Macleod, 2008).

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An further Australian study incorporating both-surveys and focus groups also further supported found support for previous findings that the negative impact of these institutional biases and practical barriers can have a negative impact (Berlyn, Wise, & Soriano, 2008). In addition, this research identified some interpersonal and intrapersonal factors within the fathers which that were posed potential barriers to fathers' participation. These These included the quality and ecoperation cooperative nature of the parents' relationship, the father's sense of competence, and the cultural appropriateness of the service. Some men also identified that stereotyped gender roles and their own notions of masculinity made it uncomfortable for them to attend, with help-seeking seen-perceived as an admission of failure. This suggests that alongside external barriers, gender role conflict may also be a significant issue.

Given-the the breadth of research linking men's gender role conflict to their-own participation in therapeutic programs, it is eredible-plausible to consider suggest that this conflict might also extend to the participation of men in parenting programs, . It may also affect their willingness toor to the accessing of therapeutic services for their children. While the external barriers have been acknowledged, the influence of fathers' internal barriers from within the father, specifically the potential barrier of gender role conflict, has received little attention in research (Mintz & Mahalik, 1996). It has been suggested that men with higher levels of gender role conflict are less likely to view their wives' interests as being of equal importance, . This means meaning that if both parties work, they men with gender role conflict are still less likely to share in traditional female tasks traditionally undertaken by women, such as house-work and parenting duties (Mintz & Mahalik, 1996). Accordingly, Mahalik and Morrison (2006) published an article in which they suggested that fathers' involvement in the parenting duties can be inhibited by restrictive masculine schemas.

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Specifically, the authors Mahalik and Morrison (2006) proposed that the nature of masculinity to which a man subscribed would could influence his style of fathering involvement (Mahalik & Morrison, 2006). This view allows for more greater complexity in the relationship between gender role and father paternal involvement by acknowledging that a man may wish to be involved, but gender role conflict maybe limited limitin the style depth of his engagement by his gender role conflict. For example, a father who has difficulty sharing and expressing emotions is likely to view his role as being that of protectorive rather than nurturer nurturing. Accordingly Thus, he may have difficulty telling his children that he cares, have little interest in sharing or soothing emotions, or may deliberately attempt to 'toughen up' his children (Mahalik & Morrison, 2006). He may be involved, but not empathically engaged empathetically.

Similarly, a father with a high need for success, power and control is likely to prioritise work and <u>career</u> success in his career over the needs of his family (Mahalik & Morrison, 2006). This has been supported in research that which found that for some men, work was the assumed priority around which other activities were coordinated (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009). Rather than view this as neglectful, a father man may see this as his way of being athe duty of a good father who is providing for his family and provider. Requests from the family that take him awaydivert his attention from his responsibilities could even be viewed as attacks on his parenting (Mahalik & Morrison, 2006). It is reasonable to expect that a man who prioritises his career is likely to experience a conflict between work and other commitments at some stage, and will be less accessible to and responsible for his children.

A high need for success and control may also affect the way in which he-a father interacts with his children, for For example, he may behaving behave competitively with themhis children, emphasizing emphasising winning victory over participation, and devaluing those that who do not win (Mahalik & Morrison, 2006). He may also put

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place pressure and high expectations on his children, and view measure his success as a father as reflective of by his children's through their own success in life. Finally, a father who has discomfort uncomfortable with affection between men may struggle with showing affection towards his sons, and even dismiss or reject a son who is homosexual (Mahalik & Morrison, 2006). Again, this limits the engagement of the father, even if he is involved and responsible.

In summary, the research suggests that for fathers with high levels of gender role conflict, the various aspects of this may hinder them from being optimally be less accessible, engaged and responsible for their child's wellbeing. Attending parenting programs may be viewed as particularly unpalatable, as it is inconsistent with many of the factors qualities often correlated with that make up their view_traditional notions of masculinity of strong masculinity, such as self-reliance and independence. They may also be reluctant to facilitate their child's attendance in therapy if necessary, as they may be sensitive to perceive this as a reflection of failed parenting. Additionally, they may hold stigmatised views of against therapy or mental health issues, or possibly they may not be present or attentive enough to observe the need for a therapeutic intervention in the first instance. To date, there has not been a specific exploration of gender role conflict on father's stated intentions to access parenting programs or child therapy.

1.6 Attitude towards and Understanding of the Fathering Role

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It should also be considered that oOther interpersonal factors may interact with gender role conflict and a father's involvement in parenting programs or willingness to accessing child therapy. It is well_-established in social psychology that

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attitude predicts behaviour, as long as-provided the attitude is one that is decisive and held with confidence (Glasman & Albarracín, 2006). A large-scale study of thousands of United States fathers in the United States from diverse cultural and socio-economic backgrounds found that positive attitudes towards fatherhood predicted both intended and actual involvement with children (Perry, 2013). Other research has found that fathers with favourable attitudes towards fatherhood were significantly more involved across all three aspects of involvement interactions, accessibility; and responsibility; However, though the perceived level of investment did not always mirror the actual amount of parenting behaviour (McBride & Rane, 1997). (McBride & Rane, 1997).

Similarly, qualitative research from on fathers in focus groups found that the style of involvement by fathers was influenced by the importance and personal meaning they attached to the role, and the personal meaning attached to the different dimensions of fathering (Olmstead et al., 2009). Fathers who reported feeling that they felt competent in their own caregiving skills and viewed paternal care as important were also found to be more involved in the practical care of infants (Beitel & Parke, 1998). This research does suggests that a father's attitudes about his value as a parent, his competence, his pleasure in the role of parenting and the meaning he attaches to the role can predict his involvement in the care of his children. It may be possible that a father will subscribe to traditional male and female roles, but have a positive attitude towards fatherhood, and eConsequently, he may be heavily invested in the wellbeing of his child, and be enthusiastic about involvement. Conversely, a man may feel uncomfortable and unsure as a father, and choose to be less involved due to his own sense of incompetence (Beitel & Parke, 1998; Kwok, 2013).

Therefore, it is has been proposed that attitudes towards and understanding of the fathering role should be considered as a possible moderators

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between the relationship of gender role conflict and program participation. For example, and recent study examined the relationship between employment and father involvement, using and used fathering attitudes as a moderator (McGill, 2014). This research found that attitude was indeed a moderator. Even if a father worked long hours, if he had a positive attitude towards the his fathering role allowed him to remain he was still able to be actively involved in child rearing, usually by reducing non-family leisure time. The author also found that fathers who had with a less traditional view of fatherhood, termed 'new fathers', were more likely to be actively engaged with and responsible for their children. Conversely, the fathers who identified with more traditional parenting ideals identified the role of provider as more important (McGill, 2014). This lends cautious support to the hypothesis that gender role conflict may predict hands-on parenting involvement, but any interaction between gender role and attitude was not remains unexplored.

In a recent Australian study of the role of fathers at child meal-times, Mallan et al. (2014) the authors constructed a measure, the Role of Fathers' Questionnaire

(ROFQ), to assess how how positive the men's attitudesmen were towards their roles as fathers fathers, the Role of Fathers' Questionnaire (ROFQ, used with permission) (Mallan et al., 2014). Theis questionnaire ROFQ investigated how strongly men endorsed statements which that queried the importance of fathers to be present, engaged, and responsible for the practical care of their children, with qQuestions related to around emotional, physical, and psychological needs. The authors reported that a more involved and positive attitude towards fatherhood was positively related to how often fathers ate meals with their children. This relationship was present even when controlling for hours spent in paid employment (Mallan et al., 2014).

The ROFQ consisted of 14 items scored on a five-point Likert scale, three of which were reverse scored. Higher scores indicated a more involved and engaged

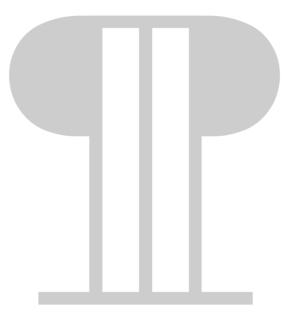
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attitude, with scores ranging from 14 to 70. Exploratory factor analysis of the ROFQ indicated a single_single_factor solution, which accounted for 30% of the variance. Internal reliability of the scale was found to be sufficient with a Chronbach's Cronbach's alpha of .75. While iIt would be preferable to use a scale with more established credentials—However, of the research reviewed for this present study, this was the scale scale's with items were the most appropriate to the research question, namely men's attitudes towards the value of a father's availability, engagement and responsibility for his child or child/ren (Mallan, et al., 2014).

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1.5 Men and Participation in Parenting Programs or Child Therapy

Although evidence suggests that fathers can contribute significantly to positive outcomes for their children, the majority of research on therapeutic and parenting education interventions does not include paternal input (Phares et al., 2010). This is somewhat unsurprising, given the reduced likelihood that fathers will be jointly or solely involved in interventions. However, a systematic review of global literature on parenting and therapeutic interventions for children identified operational biases in data collection that contribute to the exclusion of fathers from research (Panter-Brick et al., 2014). Despite these limitations, the available evidence indicates that paternal involvement can improve outcomes.

While research on parent-child interaction therapy has shown no difference in short-term results, father involvement was correlated with maintained treatment gains in follow-up sessions (Bagner & Eyberg, 2003). Further, father involvement was found to make a greater positive difference if the intervention was for a child with a developmental delay (Bagner, 2013). Family cognitive behaviour therapy for anxious youths was also shown to achieve improved child outcomes when both parents attended and engaged in the therapy (Podell & Kendall, 2011). In a meta-analysis of 26 studies on parenting programs, a greater number of positive changes in children's behaviour and better parenting practices were more likely to be reported when fathers participated (Lundahl, Tollefson, Risser & Lovejoy, 2008).

Alongside the recent emphasis on men's increased participation in a range of health initiatives, researchers have recommended increased paternal involvement in family interventions (Duhig, Phares & Birkeland, 2002; Fabiano, 2007; Phares et al., 2010). However, some research has suggested that fathers are less likely than mothers are to report positive feedback from parenting training (Lundahl et al., 2008). Research into parenting programs around the world has identified a dominant trend of

institutional biases towards a 'father deficit' model, whereby the design and delivery of programs is tailored specifically for mothers (Panter-Brick et al., 2014).

Panter-Brick et al. (2014) identified a strong gender bias in the policies that inform parenting programs and support organisations, noting that this bias influenced the content of programs, the culture of the institutions and the behaviour of professional service providers. Consequently, staff attitudes sometimes excluded fathers, and environments were not always found to be father-friendly. For example, parenting groups were sometimes hosted at women's health centres. Further, program content tended to be less relevant to fathers, and did not consider gender differences in parenting styles and goals (Panter-Brick et al., 2014).

These barriers were also identified in recent Australian research, which acknowledged that it was challenging to recruit fathers and maintain their participation. A Victorian study of 27 fathers in focus groups identified that fathers often felt excluded by staff, and did not feel their contributions were valued (Cosson & Graham, 2012). The fathers spoke of a female-centred culture in support services, and perceived a lack of recognition of their needs despite a desire to be involved. Practical barriers were also identified as an issue, specifically work commitments and a lack of information about available services. Similarly, a large-scale study of communities throughout the United Kingdom found fathers were reluctant to even enrol in family education or parenting programs. This was especially evident in programs perceived to have an innately feminine slant, such as those with only female educators or a focus on sedentary play with children rather than active play (Macleod, 2008).

An Australian study incorporating surveys and focus groups further supported previous findings that institutional biases and practical barriers can have a negative impact (Berlyn, Wise & Soriano, 2008). In addition, this research identified some interpersonal and intrapersonal factors that posed potential barriers to fathers'

participation. These included the quality and cooperative nature of the parents' relationship, the father's sense of competence and the cultural appropriateness of the service. Some men also identified that stereotyped gender roles and their own notions of masculinity made it uncomfortable for them to attend, with help-seeking perceived as an admission of failure. This suggests that alongside external barriers, gender role conflict may also be a significant issue.

Given the breadth of research linking men's gender role conflict to their participation in therapeutic programs, it is plausible to suggest that this conflict might also extend to the participation of men in parenting programs. It may also affect their willingness to access therapeutic services for their children. While external barriers have been acknowledged, the influence of fathers' internal barriers, specifically the potential barrier of gender role conflict, has received little attention in research (Mintz & Mahalik, 1996). It has been suggested that men with higher levels of gender role conflict are less likely to view their wives' interests as being of equal importance. This means that if both parties work, men with gender role conflict are still less likely to share in tasks traditionally undertaken by women, such as housework and parenting duties (Mintz & Mahalik, 1996). Accordingly, Mahalik and Morrison (2006) suggested fathers' involvement in parenting duties can be inhibited by restrictive masculine schemas.

Specifically, Mahalik and Morrison (2006) proposed that the nature of masculinity to which a man subscribed could influence his style of fathering. This view allows for greater complexity in the relationship between gender role and paternal involvement by acknowledging that a man may wish to be involved, but gender role conflict may limit the depth of his engagement. For example, a father who has difficulty sharing and expressing emotions is likely to view his role as protective rather than nurturing. Thus, he may have difficulty telling his children that he cares, have little

interest in sharing or soothing emotions, or may deliberately attempt to 'toughen up' his children (Mahalik & Morrison, 2006). He may be involved, but not engaged empathetically.

Similarly, a father with a high need for success, power and control is likely to prioritise work and career success over the needs of his family (Mahalik & Morrison, 2006). This has been supported in research that found for some men, work was the assumed priority around which other activities were coordinated (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009). Rather than view this as neglectful, a man may see this as the duty of a good father and provider. Requests from family that divert his attention from his responsibilities could even be viewed as attacks on his parenting (Mahalik & Morrison, 2006). It is reasonable to expect that a man who prioritises his career is likely to experience a conflict between work and other commitments at some stage, and will be less accessible to and responsible for his children.

A high need for success and control may also affect the way in which a father interacts with his children. For example, he may behave competitively with his children, emphasising victory over participation, and devaluing those who do not win (Mahalik & Morrison, 2006). He may also place pressure and high expectations on his children, and measure his success as a father by his children's success in life. Finally, a father uncomfortable with affection between men may struggle with showing affection towards his sons, and even dismiss or reject a son who is homosexual (Mahalik & Morrison, 2006). Again, this limits the engagement of the father, even if he is involved and responsible.

In summary, the research suggests that fathers with high levels of gender role conflict may be less accessible, engaged and responsible for their child's wellbeing.

Attending parenting programs may be viewed as particularly unpalatable, as it is inconsistent with many of the qualities often correlated with traditional notions of

masculinity, such as self-reliance and independence. They may also be reluctant to facilitate their child's attendance in therapy, as they may perceive this as a reflection of failed parenting. Additionally, they may hold stigmatised views of therapy or mental health issues, or they may not be present or attentive enough to observe the need for a therapeutic intervention in the first instance. To date, there has not been a specific exploration of gender role conflict on fathers' stated intentions to access parenting programs or child therapy. Further research is necessary.

1.6 Attitude Towards and Understanding of the Fathering Role

Other interpersonal factors may interact with gender role conflict and a father's involvement in parenting programs or willingness to access child therapy. It is well established in social psychology that attitude predicts behaviour, provided the attitude is decisive and held with confidence (Glasman & Albarracín, 2006). A large-scale study of thousands of fathers in the United States from diverse cultural and socio-economic backgrounds found that positive attitudes towards fatherhood predicted both intended and actual involvement with children (Perry, 2013). Other research has found that fathers with favourable attitudes towards fatherhood were significantly more involved across all three aspects of involvement—interactions, accessibility and responsibility. However, the perceived level of investment did not always mirror the actual parenting behaviour (McBride & Rane, 1997).

Similarly, qualitative research on fathers in focus groups found that the style of involvement by fathers was influenced by the importance and personal meaning they attached to the role (Olmstead et al., 2009). Fathers who reported that they felt competent in their own caregiving skills and viewed paternal care as important were also found to be more involved in the practical care of infants (Beitel & Parke, 1998). This suggests that a father's attitudes about his value as a parent, his competence, his pleasure in the role of parenting and the meaning he attaches to the role can predict his

involvement in the care of his children. It may be possible that a father will subscribe to traditional male and female roles, but have a positive attitude towards fatherhood. Consequently, he may be heavily invested in the wellbeing of his child and enthusiastic about involvement. Conversely, a man may feel uncomfortable and unsure as a father, and choose to be less involved due to his own sense of incompetence (Beitel & Parke, 1998; Kwok, 2013).

Therefore, it has been proposed that attitudes towards and understanding of the fathering role should be considered possible moderators between the relationship of gender role conflict and program participation. For example, a recent study examined the relationship between employment and father involvement, using fathering attitudes as a moderator (McGill, 2014). This research found that attitude was indeed a moderator. Even if a father worked long hours, a positive attitude towards his role allowed him to remain actively involved in child rearing, usually by reducing nonfamily leisure time. The author also found that fathers with a less traditional view of fatherhood, termed 'new fathers', were more likely to be actively engaged with and responsible for their children. Conversely, fathers who identified with more traditional parenting ideals identified the role of provider as more important (McGill, 2014). This lends cautious support to the hypothesis that gender role conflict may predict hands-on parenting involvement, but any interaction between gender role and attitude remains unexplored.

In a recent Australian study of the role of fathers at mealtimes, Mallan et al. (2014) constructed a measure, the Role of Fathers' Questionnaire (ROFQ), to assess how positive men were towards their roles as fathers. The ROFQ investigated how strongly men endorsed statements that queried the importance of fathers to be present, engaged and responsible for the practical care of their children. Questions related to emotional, physical and psychological needs. The authors reported that a more involved

and positive attitude towards fatherhood was positively related to how often fathers ate meals with their children. This relationship was present even when controlling for hours spent in paid employment (Mallan et al., 2014).

The ROFQ consisted of 14 items scored on a five-point Likert scale, three of which were reverse scored. Higher scores indicated a more involved and engaged attitude, with scores ranging from 14 to 70. Exploratory factor analysis of the ROFQ indicated a single-factor solution, which accounted for 30% of the variance. Internal reliability of the scale was found to be sufficient with a Cronbach's alpha of .75. It would be preferable to use a scale with more established credentials. However, of the research reviewed for this present study, this scale's items were the most appropriate to the research question, namely men's attitudes towards the value of a father's availability, engagement and responsibility for his child or children (Mallan et al., 2014).