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THE ROLES OF WORK AND FAMILY IN MEN'S LIVES: A TEST OF LENT AND

BROWN'S (2013) SOCIAL COGNITIVE MODEL OF CAREER SELF-MANAGEMENT

by

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ABSTRACT

THE ROLES OF WORK AND FAMILY IN MEN'S LIVES: A TEST OF LENT AND
BROWN'S (2013) SOCIAL COGNITIVE MODEL OF CAREER SELF-MANAGEMENT

by

Shin Ye Kim

The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, 2016
Under the Supervision of Nadya Fouad, Ph.D.

The percentage of dual-earner families in the United States has increased significantly in the last 35 years (Boushey & O'Leary, 2009). One of the corresponding changes in family structure has been a drastic decrease in the breadwinner-housewife framework, which makes up just over 20% of the workforce in the U.S. (U.S Department of Labor, 2011). Although the breadwinner-homemaker framework of work-family balance is no longer pervasive, the majority of discussion in the work-family interface still tends to focus on women's challenges in balancing work and family needs, likely due to traditional gender role stereotyping. Recent studies reveal that more fathers in dual-earner couples are reported to feel significantly greater work-life issues (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008), and yet we know little about the psychological processes that influence working men's multiple role management.

The primary purpose of this study, therefore, was to examine how the traditional male gender norms relate to their multiple role self-efficacy; and, in turn, how that influences their job, family and life satisfaction. Additionally, this study examined whether this relationship would differ according to the traditionality of a man's career, using Social Cognitive Career Self-Management Theory. This study empirically investigated two research questions. First, the structural model of multiple role career management for working men was examined. Second,

the differences in working men's job, family, and life satisfaction with regard to the level of their father's involvement in family, conformity to masculinity, traditionality of career and multiple role self-efficacy were investigated using vignette experimental method.

Results from this study suggest that gaining a solid understanding of working men's job, family, and life satisfaction can best be achieved by assessing their multiple role self-efficacy and outcome expectation, work conditions as well as paternal and masculine contextual factors. Further, this study provides the clinical, theoretical, and methodological implication that contextual variables such as conformity to masculine norms and paternal role model are critical to the multiple role management, and job, family and life satisfaction of working men.

Dedication

To Nathan Pier and our future children

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Any success in my academic career is primarily attributed to the faculty at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee: First and foremost, I would like to offer my profound thanks and appreciation to my advisor Dr. Nadya Fouad who helped me grow as an independent thinker and researcher while always maintaining her patience with me through the difficult moments and pushed me forward through the occasional bout of self-doubt. I continue to be inspired by her commitment to the field of Counseling Psychology and hope to pattern my own professional service after her example. Without Dr. Stephen Wester's unmatched sense of humor, warmth and pragmatism, I would not have experienced such a high level of personal and academic growth. His candid mentoring style was a gift I hope to give back to my students in the future. I am indebted to Dr. Michael Brondino for his countless hours of mentoring in statistics and research methods. I am especially thankful for his wisdom which helped me appreciate how integrity in statistics and research is the cornerstone of being a virtuous scholar. I thank Dr. Romila Singh for gifting her expertise in Industrial and Organizational Psychology and encouraging me to expand my comfort zone and look further outside of my discipline for opportunities to partner on research. My genuine thanks to Dr. Han Joo Lee for sharing his words of wisdom in transitioning from an international student to a faculty member. I would like to recognize Dr. Patricia Arredondo for all the time she spent mentoring me throughout the years and for instilling in me a balance of professionalism and humility. I am grateful for Dr. Shannon Chavez-Korell's support and guidance through some of the most difficult moments of my training. I am especially indebted to her for the hours spent with me over spring break in 2013, which helped rejuvenate my interest and enthusiasm in academia. I would like to acknowledge Dr. Katie Mosack for her contributions as an exceptionally skilled teacher and mentor.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

Statement of the Problem

The percentage of dual-earner families in the United States has increased significantly in the last 35 years (Boushey & O'Leary, 2009), in large part due to the rise of women in the labor force, especially mothers. Between 1979 and 2010, labor force participation among women rose from 50.9 to 58.6 percent (U.S Department of Labor, 2011). One of the corresponding changes has been a drastic decrease in the breadwinner-housewife approach to family structure, which now makes up less than a quarter of the workforce in the U.S. (U.S Department of Labor, 2011). With the rapid increase of dual earner families, more scholars are examining aspects of work-family interface such as antecedents, correlates, and consequences of gains and strains associated with participating in both work and family roles (Corwyn & Bradley, 2005). Although the breadwinner-homemaker framework of work-family balance is no longer pervasive, the majority of discussion in the work-family interface still tends to focus on women's challenges in balancing work and family needs, likely due to traditional gender role stereotyping. As such, work-family researchers' almost exclusive emphasis on women/mothers over the last few decades has been criticized (Kirby et al., 2003).

More fathers in dual-earner couples feel significantly greater work-life issues (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008). However, little is known about the psychological processes that influence working men's management of their multiple roles. Although studies have examined gender differences in work-family interface for men and women, few have employed a perspective that specifically considers masculinity and men's experiences. This is problematic because work-family issues are a shared concern for both men and women. In turn, this study seeks to examine the relationship between working men's conformity to masculinity, multiple

role self-efficacy, job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and subjective well-being.

Introduction

The investigation of gender has a rich history of scholarship within vocational psychology. Gender, along with social class, is a demographic variable considered to be one of the most important predictors of career development (Heppner & Jung, 2013). Career development theory and research has been traditionally male-centered, primarily due to the social climate within the United States that centralizes the experiences of middle-class men. However, research historically has not examined how men's perceptions of their gender identity and masculine norms affect their work, despite many studies examining how female gender role socialization has affected women's career development over the last several decades. Most of the studies that *have* investigate men's experience in the workplace focus mainly on the traditional nature of career choice and the experiences of men in non-traditional careers (e.g., Dodson & Borders, 2006; Jome & Tokar, 1998; Lease, 2003). Indeed, men in social science research are described as if they have no gender and are independent of culture (Thompson & Pleck, 1995). As such, it is critical to examine this missing half in the field of vocational psychology: how men's sense of masculinity is related to men's career issues and their well-being. This study focused specifically on men and the contextual factors that influence men's working life, especially with respect to how they manage multiple roles in light of job satisfaction and subjective well-being. More specifically, this study examined how men's multiple role self-efficacy and outcome expectations predict job, family, and life satisfaction.

This study utilizes Fouad and Kantamneni's framework of contextual factors in vocational psychology, examining the intersection of multiple dimensions of contextual factors in vocational development (Fouad & Kantamneni, 2008). The first dimension of individual

influences in the current study is multiple role self-efficacy and outcome expectation. The second dimension is gender, more specifically men's perception of conformity to traditional masculinity. The third dimension is organizational support, more specifically, perception of supervisor's support with respect to working men's navigation of multiple roles. The underlying theoretical framework is based on the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT). SCCT incorporates elements of previous career theories and attempts to offer a more comprehensive framework that explains how individuals develop vocational interests, determine occupational choices, and persist in vocational goals to achieve measures of career-related variables (Lent, et al., 1994). The model specifies that contextual background variables, such as race and gender, shape people's early learning experiences. These contextual factors directly influence the kinds of self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations that people develop, which in turn affect the levels of satisfaction at work (Lent & Brown, 2006, 2008).

From an industrial/organizational psychology perspective, job satisfaction - which is defined as "an individual's reaction to the job experience" (Berry, 1997) - has various components that are considered to be vital. These variables are important because they influence how people feel about their job. These components include: pay, promotion, benefits, supervisors, co-workers, work conditions, work-family balance, communication, safety, productivity, and the work itself. Each of these factors differentially figures into an individual's job satisfaction.

From a counseling psychology perspective, job satisfaction has been often understood in context of personal variables (e.g., a certain personality and general cognitive ability), environmental variables (e.g., role stressors and strains, perceived organizational support, job autonomy, and organizational climate), and person-environment fit (i.e., job satisfaction resulting

from working in an environment that is congruent with one's personality). Among the different theories of job satisfaction, Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) provides an integrated perspective that incorporates personal variables, environmental variables, and person-environment fit, and sees these several sets of variables as a source for promoting work performance (Lent, 2013). SCCT explicitly incorporates gender as a personal input or contextual factor. While SCCT is a helpful tool to understand one's gendered experience at work, researchers have exclusively focused on women and girls' career development in context of their gender.

The most recent SCCT model of career self-management (Lent & Brown, 2013) extends the previous SCCT model with a special focus on the process and coping aspects of career development, such as work transition, multiple-role management, and sexual identity management at work (Lent & Brown, 2013). Combining the SCCT self-management model with the SCCT job satisfaction model and subjective well-being, the current study investigates how men cope with difficulty with managing multiple roles in the context of men's conformity to masculine norms and how they all affect their sense of job satisfaction and subjective well-being.

When it comes to examining people's psychological health in the context of work, non-work variables that interact with work variables also need to be considered. With this in mind, investigating how people accommodate multiple roles in their lives is critical. With an increasing number of men beginning to manage both work *and* family - just as women have traditionally balanced work and family life - the time has come for researchers to investigate how men manage multiple roles in life and the effect on job satisfaction and psychological health of this "juggling act."

The majority of research on men's work and family life has focused on fatherhood and

the work-family balance (e.g., Daly, 1996; Faludi, 2000); and in the last few decades the value of fathers' caregiving has been pitted against a global economy that requires constant attention to work (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009). Growing attention has therefore been paid to dual earning couples and their impact on an organization (Harrell, 1995). Despite a growing body of research that has been generated in the context of work-family, men have not been the primary subjects of investigations. Often, men are subsumed in couples' experiences with respect to their work and family life (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009). As people have begun to integrate work life with non-work life, work and family conflict/enhancement has been an important concept in vocational psychology. Yet, most inquiries that examined the connections between work and family have largely focused on the female worker's job satisfaction (e.g., Eileen, 1993; Watts, 2009). In the working world of the twenty-first century, managing multiple roles does not apply only to women; there is an increasing emphasis on men's involvement at home and in caregiving compared to the traditional social norm.

Purpose of the study

An extensive review of the literature shows that no study has yet examined relationships between employed male individuals' multiple role management and the resulting well-being outcomes in the context of their masculine contextual factors. In addition, there is a lack of research that explains the underlying mechanism that motivates individuals to seek and achieve multiple role management.

There is a growing body of literature that investigates the utility of SCCT among diverse populations (e.g., specific ethnic groups, female adolescents, and female workers), however studies examining the experiences of men in the context of masculine norms are non-existent to date; thus, additional investigations of SCCT's relevance to men, specifically working men with

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respect to their masculine self, are warranted.

This study applied the SCCT in order to examine how self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations, with reference to the traditionality of a career, influence job satisfaction and well-being. Additionally, this study will explore the masculine norm as a contextual factor that affects men's working lives. More specifically, this study examined the role of self-efficacy and outcome expectations as possible indirect effects on the relationship between conformity to masculinity and job satisfaction, which in turn will affect men's well-being. To the best of this researcher's knowledge, there are no prior studies in male career development that examined the direct and indirect effects of multiple-role self-efficacy and outcome expectations on the relationship between male gender role socialization and well-being. Furthermore, no research has focused on how masculinity as a contextual factor affects men's multiple role self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and well-being. This omission stands in sharp contrast to the extensive research on women's work experience in the context of femininity. The proposed model was tested on a national sample of currently employed men. This research would likely fill a gap in the field of vocational psychology and be one of the first studies that examines men's conformity to an array of masculinity norms as a contextual factor; it allows us to better understand the gendered context of men's vocational development. It also provides clinicians and organizations with deeper insights into how men's masculinity affects their work, family, and their well-being. Given these main purposes of the current study, the following hypotheses and research questions are proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Conformity to the masculine norm will be negatively associated with:

 a) Multiple role self-efficacy

 b) Multiple role outcome expectations

Hypothesis 2: Job satisfaction will be positively associated with life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2a) Family Satisfaction will be positively associated with life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: Work Family Positive Spillover (PSO) will be positively associated with:

   a) Job satisfaction

   b) Family Satisfaction

   And negatively associated with:

   c) Conformity to Masculine norms

Hypothesis 4: Working conditions represented by family friendly supervisor support (FSSB),

will be positively associated:

   a) Work Family Positive Spillover (PSO)

Hypothesis 5: Multiple Role Self-efficacy will have an indirect effect on the relationship

between Conformity to Masculine Norms and Work Family Positive Spillover

Hypothesis 6: Multiple Role Outcome Expectation will have an indirect effect on the relationship

between Conformity to Masculine Norms and Work Family Positive Spillover

Hypothesis 7: The proposed model of work satisfaction will produce a good overall fit to the

data.

Hypothesis 8: The proposed model of family satisfaction will produce a good overall fit to the

data.

Research Question 1: Does an alternative, simplified model better fit the data than the proposed

model?

Research Question 2: Are there any differences in working men's job, family, and life

satisfaction with regard to the level of father's involvement in family, conformity to masculinity,

traditionality of career and multiple role self-efficacy?

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this research, the following terms are defined.

"*Conformity to Masculinity*" is defined as degree of men's conformity to masculine norms (Mahalik et al., 2003).

"*Non-traditional career*" is defined by the U.S. Department of Labor, DOL, as those in which either men or women make up less than 25 percent of the workforce. In current research, only male traditional (men making up more than 75%) and male non-traditional (men making up less than 25%) were examined.

"*Multiple-role Self-Efficacy*" is defined as an individual's degree of belief in his/her ability to successfully complete the tasks that are necessary to remain successfully engaged in multiple roles in life.

"*Outcome expectancy*" is defined as a person's expectations about the consequences of an action.

"Job Satisfaction" is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke, 1976, p.1300).

"Subjective Well-being" is defined as how people experience the quality of their lives, and includes both emotional reactions and cognitive judgments (Diener, 1984).

"*Family satisfaction*" is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's family or family experiences (Aryee, 1999)
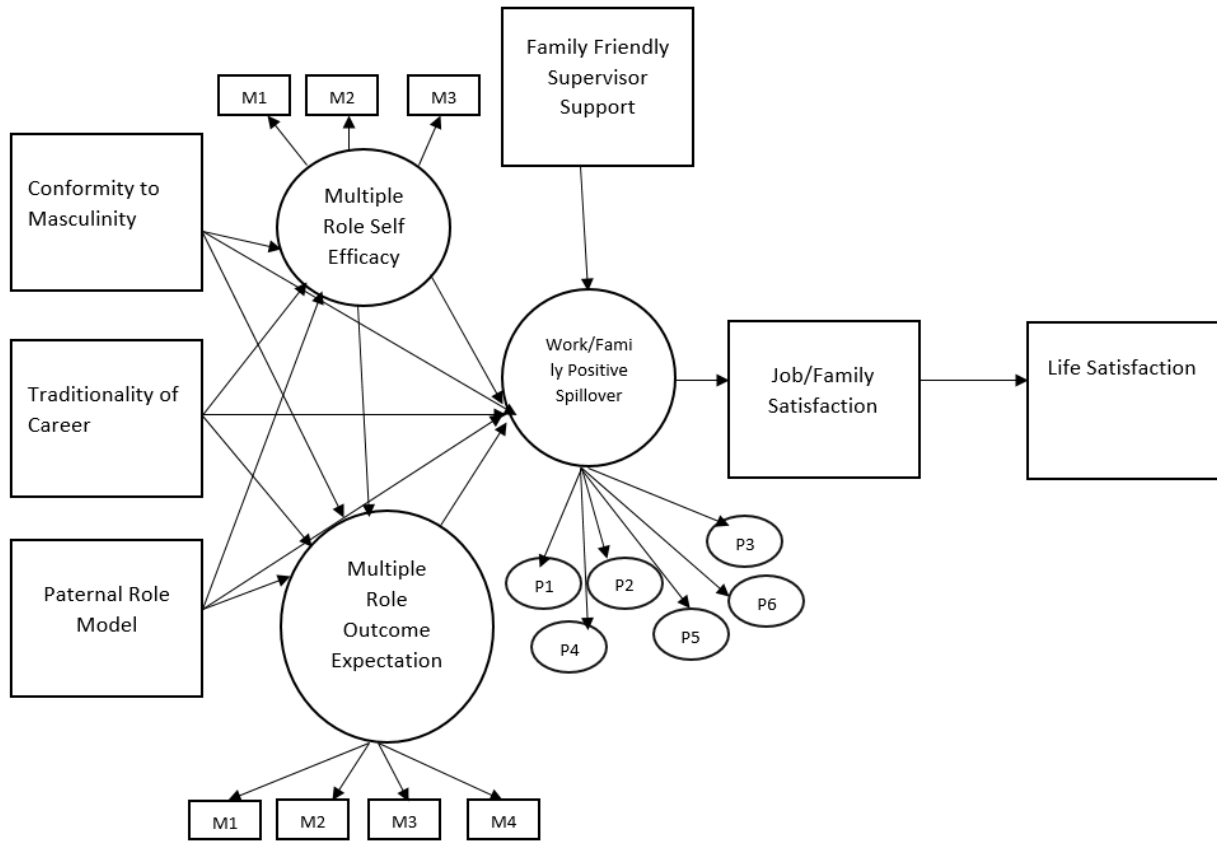
Figure 1. Primary Model
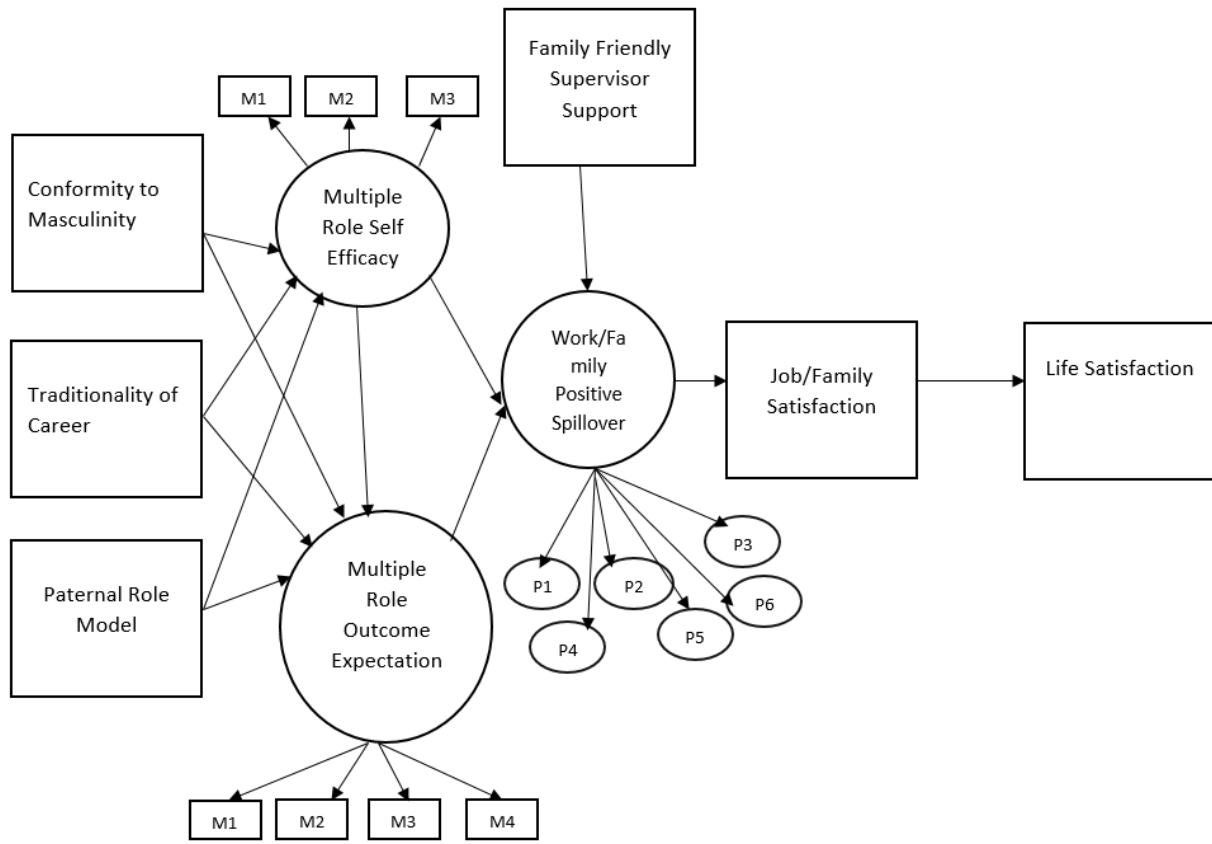
Figure 2. Alternative Model

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Well-being Conceptualizations

The study of well-being has long been a core interest and a goal within the field of counseling psychology (Lent, 2004). One might think that the study of well-being is rather a newer phenomenon, with the recent movement of positive psychology advocating the importance of promoting emotional or psychological well-being (e.g., Seligman, 2002, Walsh, 2003); however, a number of scholars from different disciplines, including personality, social, and counseling psychology have been examining well-being for decades: various conceptualizations, predictive and hindering factors, among other aspects. The study of well-being has been largely dominated by two perspectives in the literature: subjective well-being, derived from the hedonic approach (Diener, 1984), and psychological well-being, derived from the eudaimonic approach (Ryan & Deci, 2001). The two approaches will be reviewed below.

The Hedonic View: Subjective Well-being

The hedonic approach concerns the experience of pleasure versus displeasure. Scholars who have adopted the hedonic view have based their work on the notion that people with increased pleasure and decreased pain will have a "happier" life. This hedonic view has been described as "subjective well-being," a scientific term used to examine so-called "happy" lives. Subjective well-being comprises affective functioning (the degree to which people have positive and negative affect) and a cognitive component (the degree to which one is satisfied with one's life). With respect to positive and negative affect, Diener (1984) noted that the two are not the opposites of each other, rather they are two distinct constructs. From this hedonic perspective, people experience happiness or "subjective well-being" when they have a higher positive affect, a lower negative affect, and a higher satisfaction with life (Carruthers & Hood, 2004). Subjective

well-being is an empirically-driven construct that measures emotional-well-being and has generated a number of empirical investigations (Diener et al., 1999). The subjective well-being approach has been operationalized using tripartite conceptualizations that comprise positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction (Diener, 1984). From a multi-method/multi-trait study, life satisfaction was found to be related to positive and negative affect, but it was differentiated from both.

The Eudaimonic View: Psychological well-being

The eudaimonic view of well-being argues that the hedonic approach lacks theoretical grounding and well-being is more than simply "feeling good" per se. This argument evolved from the long-standing debate in psychology with respect to rationalism versus empiricism. Rationalists argue that psychological constructs need to be theoretically driven, while empiricists assert that they need to be primarily derived from empirical evidence (Nunnally, 1967). Eudaimonic scholars have adopted the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) to conceptualize happiness (Keyes et al., 2002; Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT is concerned with three basic psychological needs that must be fulfilled for well-being: autonomy, competence, and relatedness; these needs are essential to one's psychological well-being. This eudaimonic approach is based on Maslow's idea of self-actualization and Roger's concept of the fully functioning person and his/her subjective well-being (Rogers, 1963). Eudaimonic well-being is therefore derived from the notion that people feel happy if they experience life purpose, challenges, and growth rather than simply experience high positive affect, low negative affect, and higher life satisfaction.

The relationship between the two viewpoints

Ryan and Deci (2001) reviewed research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being and

concluded that there is enough evidence to assert that well-being is better conceptualized as a multidimensional phenomenon that includes both hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. The two viewpoints of well-being have been found to be moderately correlated, but the research indicates that both foci are overlapping and yet distinct from each other; well-being is best understood by measuring it in both ways (Compton et al, 1996). When people were asked to rate the features of a good life, both happiness and meaning were identified (King & Napa, 1998). In addition, when a diverse set of mental health indicators were analyzed, McGregor & Little (1998) discovered that two factors, one reflecting happiness and another reflecting meaningfulness could be identified. It appears, furthermore, that it is the *combination* of the two types of well-being that positive psychology suggests would constitute authentic and stable happiness (Vella-Brodrick, Park & Peterson, 2009; Carruthers & Hood, 2004).

Lent (2004)'s theoretical perspective on SWB

Lent (2004) proposed a theoretical perspective on well-being, incorporating both SWB and PWB in a different manner. In his model, he suggests that activities that promote eudaimonic well-being serve as a route to achieve and sustain hedonic well-being. In his framework, eudaimonic processes include setting and progressing toward personal goals and engaging in valued activities; by doing so, people develop a sense of purpose and take meaning from their lives.

For the current study, only SWB was measured. While SWB and PWB are related and yet discernible constructs, empirical support for PWB in the work area is significantly limited. Furthermore, within social cognitive career theory, job satisfaction has been mainly linked with subjective well-being.

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been one of the most widely studied areas in industrial/organizational psychology (Judge & Church, 2000). There are many models to explain the variables that predict job or work satisfaction (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002; Locke & Latham, 1990; Porter & Lawler, 1968; Vroom, 1964). These models attempt to predict job/work satisfaction in the most parsimonious manner (Duffy, 2009) as well as examine its influence. Job satisfaction research will be briefly reviewed and the theoretical framework (social cognitive career theory) of the current study will be introduced.

Job satisfaction has been defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). It is also referred to more simply as "work well-being." Historically, studies of job satisfaction have been mostly conducted through self-reporting. Although the need for an objective measure of job satisfaction has been argued, it is also acknowledged that job satisfaction is more of a subjective matter (Lent & Brown, 2013).

In measuring job satisfaction, vocational researchers tend to use either global or facet satisfaction (Lent & Brown, 2013). Global job satisfaction refers to overall satisfaction with the work domain. Examples of global job satisfaction instruments include the Index of Job Satisfaction (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) and the Job in General Scale or JIG (Ironson, Smith, Branick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989). Facet measures, on the other hand, attempt to measure specific aspects of one's job such as rewards or working conditions. The common scales include the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire or MSQ (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). One of the important theories arising from the facet perspective is the Range of Affect Theory. Locke (1976) argued that the importance of

work facets differs for each individual, and thus satisfaction is determined by (1) a discrepancy between what each individual *wants* in a job and what one *has* in a job, and (2) the importance of the facet for each individual.

A major hypothesis in this theory is that employees weight facets differently when assessing job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). In this theory, what one values in the work setting (e.g., autonomy, support, etc.) may differ from individual to individual, and this moderates how one determines satisfaction or dissatisfaction within the work setting. If, for example, one values autonomy in one's job and the expectation is not being met, an individual is more likely to feel dissatisfied in the workplace. Several studies have found support for the "range-of-affect hypothesis" (Rice, Markus, Moyer, & McFarlin, 1991; McFarlin & Rice, 1992; McFarlin, Rice, Schweizer, & Paullay, 1987; Mobley & Locke, 1970; Rice, Gentile, & McFarlin, 1991). In Rice, Gentile, and McFarlin's (1991) study of 97 working college students, it was discovered that the relationship between the amount of item discrepancy and item satisfaction was generally stronger among those who regard the item of higher importance than those who regard the item of lower importance. This is consistent with later findings by McFarlin and Rice (1992) and McFarlin et al. (1995). Although Locke's theory of job satisfaction has been empirically supported, one of the main limitations of existing research is a lack of diversity in the participants (e.g., no ethnicity information has been reported) and an overrepresentation of college students. It is also problematic that this theory puts a high emphasis on the individual's wants, desires, and wishes with little attention to the context in which the individual operates.

In addition to the distinction between global and facet job satisfaction, the time frame of an assessment needs to be considered (Lent & Brown, 2013). Job satisfaction, for example, can be assessed over particular time periods (e.g., today, last week, etc.) or it can be measured in

more general terms (e.g., often, most of the time, etc.) (Ironson et al., 1989).

From vocational psychology's perspective, there are four major views with respect to job satisfaction: person/disposition, environment, P-E fit, and integrative positions (Lent & Brown, 2013). A brief summary of these will follow.

Person/Disposition.

Staw, Bell, and Clausen (1986) proposed a dispositional approach to job satisfaction. Their theory suggests that job satisfaction is determined by an individual's traits and tends to be stable over time. This theory conceptualizes job satisfaction as an individual trait. Judge and colleagues (Judge et al., 1998; Judge et al., 2001; Judge et al., 2005) argue that there are four characteristics - called core self-evaluations - that determine an individual's job satisfaction: self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism. Their model hypothesizes that higher self-esteem, higher self-efficacy, and higher locus of control will lead to higher job satisfaction, as will a lower level of neuroticism. Judge et al. (1998) found that the four core self-evaluations related both directly (.15-.49) and indirectly through perceptions of work characteristics (.12-.24) to job satisfaction. An important finding of this study was that "core evaluations of the self" have consistent effects on job satisfaction, independent of the attributes of the job itself" (Judge et al., 1998). From this study, Judge and colleagues have argued the importance of the dispositional aspect of job satisfaction and that more than 30 percent of the variance in job satisfaction can be accounted for by the core self-evaluations (Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000; Judge et al., 2005). One notable limitation of this line of research is its lack of consideration for environmental and contextual influences on job satisfaction.

Environment/Job Characteristic.

Another important variable in job satisfaction is the Environment variable/Job characteristic. According to Hackman and Oldman (1976), there are certain universal components in a job that lead individuals to be more satisfied than others. These include skill variety (SV), task identity (TI), task significance (TS), autonomy (A), and job feedback (F). The authors proposed the following formula: satisfaction = (SV + TI + TS)/3 x A x F 3. This job characteristic theory has been widely studied and supported empirically over the last four decades. In a recent meta-analysis by Humphrey, Nahrgang, and Morgenson (2007) that examined 259 studies with 219,625 participants, the five job characteristics (SV, TI, TS, A, F) and three more recently studied job characteristics (task variety, information processing, and job complexity) accounted for 34 percent of the variance in job satisfaction. Their result also indicated that, beyond both motivational and social characteristics, work characteristics explained incremental variances of 4 percent in job satisfaction. Although they included well-being outcomes in their meta-analysis (anxiety, stress, burnout/exhaustion, and overload), this well-being conceptualization focuses more on negative consequences, and thus the relationship between job characteristics and the positive aspects of the well-being construct is unanswered.

Person-Environment fit.

The interaction between person-environment fit has been of particular interest to vocational psychologists (Lent & Brown, 2013). This perspective argues that it is not so much the individual's disposition or environmental variables that matter; but, instead, it is the interaction between the two that is paramount. From the Minnesota Theory of Work Adjustment, job satisfaction is defined as "an internal indicator of correspondence; it represents the individual worker's appraisal of the extent to which the work environment fulfils his or her requirements"

(Dawis & Lofquist, 1984, p. 55). Similarly, Holland's theory maintains that both people and environments can be described in terms of their resemblance to six models or types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional (Nauta, 2013, handbook); thus, people will be more satisfied when their vocational/personal interests are congruent with their environment. Several studies have examined the relationship between congruence and job-related outcomes, including job satisfaction. Although there is empirical support that congruence is positively related with job satisfaction with small effect size, (Assoulin & Meir, 1987; Spokane et al., 2000), there is a lack of a significant overall relationship between the two (Tranberg, Slane, and Ekeberg, 1993). Tranberg et al. (1993) therefore suggest the practice of caution when predicting satisfaction from the interest/congruence perspective.

The Lent and Brown (2006) model incorporates essential constructs from existing job satisfaction models and brings together the person, environment, and P-E fit perspective in their model. Unlike existing models, their model includes variables that are relatively modifiable (e.g., self-efficacy). This makes this model advantageous for researchers when considering the practical implications and possible use of this theory in real life situations.

Well-being at work

Many disciplines within psychology - industrial-organizational, vocational, rehabilitation, health, community, and consulting - have studied work at length. However, despite work's central role in people's lives and many discussions and investigations in the various disciplines, "psychological discussions of work, for the most part, have been compartmentalized or have been marginalized within our discipline" (Blustein, 2008, p.288). This criticism parallels Richardson's (1993, 1996, 2009, 2011) proposition that there needs to be a shift from career development to a study of work in people's lives; this shift would better capture how important

work is. Eventually, within the intervention realm, the "false split" between career counseling and individual counseling would be closed. Addressing this "false split" is critical, as Juntunen pointed out regarding Richardson's position stating: "… by focusing on career as an activity that is external to the person, we negate the central role of work in human experience" (Juntunen 2006, in Swanson 2012). This shift - where vocational issues are addressed as an important context in the understanding of the multiple life roles in people's lives - then, gives us a critical lens by which to examine a worker's multiple roles and his/her relationship to job attitudes and psychological health.

The study of job satisfaction has been largely conducted by industrial-organizational psychologists rather than by counseling psychologists. This has resulted in the majority of existing scholarly inquiry being viewed from an organizational perspective, and the generation of studies that examine the organizational consequences of lack of job satisfaction, such as productivity or turnover (Wright & Bonett, 2007). The consequences of work to an individual's well-being, which would be of more direct interest to vocational and counseling psychologists, however, have not been paid much attention within the discipline (Lent 2008, Swanson, 2012). A few of the major contributions that examine the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction from the industrial-organizational perspective will be reviewed.

Tait, Padgett, and Baldwin (1989) provided the first meta-analytic estimate reviewing 34 studies that reported on the relationships between job and life satisfaction. They found a sizable overlap between work and non-work experiences, and a correlation of .44 between job and life satisfaction. This result is consistent with previous research (e.g., Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983) that suggested that the study of work should be examined with non-work variables (Tait et al., 1989). They also conducted moderation analysis of gender; the strength of

the relationship between job and life satisfaction was much stronger for men than women in studies conducted prior to 1974, but gender difference was not significant in studies after 1974. 1974 is the year in which authors began to choose equal numbers of male and female respondents in their studies. They argued that social changes became more noticeable after the Civil Rights Act of 1964 with greater involvement of women in the working world. One limitation of this study is that its authors did not specify disciplines in their meta-analysis. Although they included literature in psychology, sociology, counseling, management, and leisure in the study - and this provides a larger sample with shared variables of interest - contextual understanding of each discipline is missing in the meta-analysis. What it means to be satisfied at work from the counseling perspective might be very different from job satisfaction in the management perspective.

Judge and Watanabe (1993), using longitudinal analysis, examined the causal nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. The analysis involved simultaneous considerations of cross-sectional and longitudinal effects, which had not previously been considered in the literature. In their results, the cross-sectional analysis indicated a relatively strong relationship between job and life satisfaction, while their longitudinal analysis suggested a weaker relationship between the two over a 5-year period. The authors argue that the difference between the coefficients in the longitudinal and cross-sectional models is not surprising given the differences in theoretical inquiry for each model; the cross-sectional analysis measures the nearly instantaneous effect of job satisfaction and life satisfaction, while the longitudinal analysis assesses effects over a considerable time interval. It is of note that this study provided no moderating effect of gender; and therefore, an examination of the specific aspects of the relationship is warranted.

In a meta-analysis of 56 studies where the researcher reviewed the relationship between job satisfaction and subjective well-being (Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010), positive relationships between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, happiness, and positive affect were found, along with an absence of negative affect. This result is consistent with previous meta-analytic findings that indicate a positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Tait et al., 1989), as well as a positive and negative affect (Bowling et al., 2008). This meta-analysis differed from previous meta-analyses in that differential relationships for global job satisfaction and job satisfaction facets were examined. The analyses found that global job satisfaction yielded a stronger relationship with subjective well-being than did the facets of job satisfaction. One notable limitation of this meta-analysis is that they did not examine the moderators of the relationship between job satisfaction and subjective well-being such as gender. The results should thus be interpreted with caution.

Faragher, Cass, and Cooper (2005) conducted a meta-analysis that investigated the link between job satisfaction levels and health. They reviewed 485 studies with a combined sample size of 267,995 individuals and evaluated the research evidence linking self-report measures of job satisfaction to measures of physical and mental well-being (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005). They discovered that job satisfaction was most strongly associated with mental/psychological consequences such as burnout (corrected $r=0.478$), self-esteem ($r=0.429$), depression ($r=428$), and anxiety ($r=0.420$). They also discovered a modest correlation between job satisfaction and subjective physical illness ($r=0.287$). This research finding gives us useful empirical evidence indicating that work is closely connected with an individual's psychological health. The natural next step would be to investigate this relationship in a theory-driven manner.

Lent (2008) proposed a theoretical framework for job satisfaction from a vocational

psychology perspective using social cognitive career theory. In his model, he argues that job satisfaction is an essential part of work adjustment and the overall mental health of the individual (Lent, 2008). Combining his model of well-being (Lent, 2004) and job satisfaction (Lent, 2008), we now have a theoretical framework by which to examine the relationship between domain-specific well-being (well-being at work) and psychological health. Although one might think that there is an obvious link between work and psychological health from a counseling psychology perspective, the relationship between the two has, surprisingly, not been paid much attention. The studies that come closest within industrial-organizational psychology and occupational medicine have been empirical in nature, and have looked mainly at the link between career and psychological health without much consideration of any specific theory. Therefore, there is a dire need of a theory-driven investigation of the link between work and subjective well-being.

Masculinity and Well-being

It has only been three decades since the study of men and masculinity emerged as an area of social scientific inquiry and clinical intervention (Addis & Mahalik, 2003; O'Neil, 2008). It is also noteworthy that counseling psychology was one of the first divisions in the American Psychological Association to recognize the importance of this line of inquiry (O'Neil, 2008). As Wester and Vogel (2012) summarized in a recent handbook chapter, the majority of scholars in the field of men and masculinity have been involved in examining the intrapersonal consequences of adhering to traditionally socialized male gender roles; more often than not, these consequences tended to focus on negative outcomes.

There are two dominant theoretical perspectives that address the costs of enacting European-American masculinity (Wester & Vogel, 2012). The first perspective is that of social learning theory (e.g., Bandura, 1977). This learning framework argues that people "learn" to

behave in certain ways by observing, reinforcing, and replicating the social norms to which they have been exposed. One of the first theories within social learning was gender role strain (GRS; Pleck, 1981, 1995), which postulates that individuals experience negative psychological consequences as a result of gender role discrepancy. Taking GRS a step further, O'Neil developed the theory of gender role conflict (GRC). GRC is defined as a "psychological state in which socialized gender roles have negative consequences for the person or others" (O'Neil, 2008).

A second perspective is social constructivism. Addis and Mahalik (2003) conceptualize masculinity as both a social and a dynamic construct. Mahalik et al. (2003) developed a 'conformity to masculine norms inventory' to measure the degree of an individual's identification with the traditional characteristics of American masculinity. Because this research is concerned with working men's sense of masculine norms in terms of their conformity to traditional roles (rather than making assumptions with respect to the negative consequences of gender role conflict), the conformity to masculine norms inventory will be used.

Conformity to traditional masculine norms (i.e., risk taking, emotional control, primacy of work) has been related to a variety of behavioral, attitudinal, and psychological variables, including (a) attitudes toward professional psychological help (e.g., Yousaf, Popat, & Hunter, 2014), (b) willingness to see a mental health professional (e.g., Addis & Mahalik,2003), (c) mental health symptoms (e.g., Hammilton & Mahalik,2009), (d) family conflict (e.g., Sharpe & Heppner, 1991), and career development and work values (e.g., Tokar & Jome, 1998).

O'Neil reviewed 232 empirical studies (from 1982 to 2007) that used the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS), and he summarized and analyzed the diversity of men's intrapersonal, interpersonal, and therapeutic aspects (O'Neil, 2008). One of the most consistent findings

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regarding adherence to traditional masculine norms was the relationship to depression and, more specifically, a GRC pattern of restricted emotionality that was, in fact, the most consistent predictor (Blazina & Watkins, 1996; Cournoyer & Mahalik, 1995; O'Neil, 2008; Wester & Vogel, 2012). Anxiety, stress, and men's gender roles also have been examined; the results indicate that GRC has a significant relationship with men's anxieties (Blazina & Watkins, 1996; Burke, 2000) and stress (Fragoso & Kashubeck, 2000; Kratzner, 2003). In O'Neil's review, GRC was defined as "the opposite of psychological well-being". A handful of studies that examined psychological well-being and GRC also indicate that GRC is associated with poor psychological well-being. A common limitation in this line of research is an over dependence on cross-sectional design studies. There is an additional issue of over-representation of college-age men and a distinct lack of working males in their samples; it is thus difficult to generalize the findings to a broader population.

Scholars in "men and masculinity" acknowledge and appreciate the value and timely contribution of the dominant model of the "new psychology of men" (NPM), a model that provides a conceptual framework that questions traditional norms for the male role, and recognizes some of the negative consequences of it (Levant & Pollack, 1995). There is, however, a recent scholarly movement that has begun to look at masculine norms in the context of positive psychology (e.g., Hammer & Good, 2010). Hammer and Good (2010) argue that, as the deficit model in the psychology of women pathologized women from an androcentric framework, the focus on the negative consequences of male gender norms has also led to an unbalanced view of traditional masculine norms. In the last several years, however, a new framework of positive masculinity has been introduced (Kiselica, Englar-Carlson, Horne, & Fischer, 2008; Kiselica & Englar-Carson, 2010). Kiselica and Englar-Carson (2010) proposed ten positive masculinity

frameworks for researchers and clinicians to consider, including males' action-oriented caring and relational styles, generative fatherhood, the worker/provider tradition of men, male courage, daring, and risk-taking.

One of the first empirical studies regarding positive psychology and traditional masculine norms was conducted by Hammer and Good (2010) with 250 men who ranged from 18 to 79 years of age. It examined the link between traditional male norms and six positive psychological strengths. It hypothesized the following: (1) more traditional men will report higher levels of courage, (2) more traditional men will report higher levels of grit, (3) more traditional men will report higher levels of personal control, (4) more traditional men will report higher levels of autonomy, (5) more traditional men will report higher levels of physical endurance and fitness, (6) more traditional men will report higher levels of resilience, and (7) self-esteem and life satisfaction would be negatively associated with the traditional masculine norms and positively associated with the six positive psychological strengths. They found that overall conformity to traditional masculine norms was significantly and positively correlated with endurance; but negatively correlated with grit, personal control, and autonomy. Additionally, although self-esteem and life satisfaction were significantly negatively correlated with risk-taking and self-reliance, pursuit of status positively correlated with self-esteem. Enjoying one's participation in sports also explained almost 20 percent of the variance in men's physical endurance. Although four of their hypotheses were not supported by the results, their study is an important introductory empirical study of men and masculinity.

Within the movement of positive psychology, the traditional view of masculine norms is rapidly and significantly changing. Although there are a few studies that introduce the idea of positive psychology in the context of male gender role socialization, none of the studies examine

the specific work context. To date, research that examines the relationship between masculinity, work attitude, and well-being is nonexistent. This has been acknowledged as a significant irony by a number of scholars since being a worker and a provider are such essential aspects of male identity and self-esteem (Axelrod, 2001, Heppner & Heppner, 2008; Kiselica & Englar-Carson, 2010). Research into these relationships would therefore appear to be vital to a holistic understanding.

Theoretical Framework

Social Cognitive Career Theory

Social cognitive career theory (SCCT) was developed by Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994, 2004). It is an expansion of Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory and Hackett and Betz's (1981) career self-efficacy theory. It has been applied to many domains to explain an individual's career-related decisions. SCCT's interest, choice, and performance model has been well supported by various empirical studies. Longitudinal investigation supported the model by predicting adjustments to engineering majors across gender and race/ethnicity (Lent et al., 2013), and predicting Mexican adolescent women's career choices (Flores & O'Brien, 2002). Other cross-sectional studies that used SCCT's interest, choice, and performance model have also found generally good support for the model in middle school (Fouad & Smith, 1996), high school (Lopez, Lent, Brown, & Gore, 1997), college students (Ferry, Fouad, & Smith, 2000), women engineers (Singh et al., 2013), East Asian international graduate students (Garriott & Flores, 2013), and low-income perspective, first generation college students (Garriott, Flores, & Martens, 2013).

SCCT highlights cognitive mechanisms such as self-efficacy beliefs, outcome

expectations, and career goals as the main variables through which individuals regulate their work-related decisions and behaviors. Contextual influences with respect to career choice behaviors - such as support and barriers - have been identified within the model and are hypothesized to interact with cognitive mechanisms to influence career development (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2000).

Self-efficacy is described as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action that are required to attain designated types of performance" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). It is assumed to develop through four experiential and informational sources: (1) vicarious learning experiences, (2) physiological and affective states and reactions, (3) verbal encouragements, and (4) personal performance accomplishments. These learning experiences are influenced by personal input variables (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and gender role attitudes) and background contextual affordance (e.g., barriers and support systems). *Outcome expectations* are personal beliefs about the probable outcomes of particular actions and the consequences that one imagines will result from a particular behavior within one's interests in a domain-specific manner.

Based on a previous social cognitive model of career development (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 1994), and existing well-being literature, Lent (2004) suggested a unifying theoretical model that predicts life satisfaction. Lent (2004) proposed five main variables that promote overall life satisfaction: (a) personality traits and affective dispositions, (b) participation/progress in goal-directed activities, (c) self-efficacy, (d) environmental support and resources, and (e) outcome expectations. Lent suggests that all of these variables predict life satisfaction via domain satisfaction. Personality traits and affective dispositions and participation in goal-directed activities were also considered to directly predict life satisfaction; while a number of

mediational relationships, including outcome expectation mediating the relationships among self-efficacy, support, and outcome expectations, lead to domain and life satisfaction.

Lent and Brown (2006), based on Bandura's (1986) social cognitive framework, proposed a theory of work satisfaction that combines many of these components into a unified and empirically-testable model. This model comprises five classes of predictor variables: personality/affective traits, participation/progress in goal-directed activities, self-efficacy expectations, work conditions, and environmental supports and obstacles. The model is based on the assumption that people are likely to be generally satisfied with their job when these five conditions are met. One important aspect of the theory is its usefulness in intervention since it focuses on variables that are relatively modifiable (e.g., self-efficacy and goal participation). Although counseling psychologists have long been interested in examining work satisfaction, there is limited research on people who are already in the workforce; there has been much more focus on major/career choice and work entry. Many studies have used this model to examine the predictors of domain and life satisfaction within various populations: U.S college students (Lent et al., 2005; Ojeda, Flores, & Navarro, 2011; Singley, Lent, & Sheu, 2010), U.S engineering students (Lent, Singley, Sheu, Schmidt, & Schmidt, 2007), Italian teachers (Lent et al., 2011), and U.S. teachers (Duffy & Lent, 2009).

More recently, addressing the importance of *process* rather than the *content* aspects of career behavior, Lent and Brown (2013) proposed a social cognitive model of career self-management to complement the existing SCCT models. They argued that previous SCCT research has focused on a number of content questions, such as predicting a certain major or career, rather than asking the process questions: where and how people obtain certain career ideas, and how they manage challenges once they start work. Lent and Brown used a metaphor

that focused on the journey rather than the destination in their paper (Lent & Brown, 2013). In this most recent model, more detailed directions were proposed for future researchers with respect to how to address the *process* aspects of vocational behavior; these included managing work-family-life conflicts and coping with the stresses and conflicts related to one's new roles and responsibilities.

The literature above examined several social and cognitive variables that were found to be pertinent to the career development of various populations: college students from different countries (e.g., U.S., Portugal), adolescents, women students, women engineers, and teachers from different countries (e.g., U.S., Italy). Many of these same variables are also likely to be important to the psychology of the employment of working men; however, the SCCT model has never been tested exclusively within the context of working men and with a special focus on their sense of masculinity.

Men and Work/Family

The last three decades have witnessed a substantial body of literature in the interface between work and family lives (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Barling & Sorensen, 1997). There are a number of societal changes that have contributed to this phenomenon, such as more women in the workplace, an increase in dual-earner partners, and more single parents in the labor force. As the words "work" and "family" indicate, scholarly inquiry into this topic has historically tended to polarize the aspects of work and family; some scholars focus on the work aspect, while others focus on the family. Whiston, Campbell, and Maffini (2012) paraphrased Blustein's (2001) position: "This separation of the worlds of work and family is inconsistent with the experiences of most people" and "most individuals have difficulty cordoning off these critical segments of their lives into separate and distinct entities."

Additionally, the study of work and family has largely focused on the conflict between the two (Barnett, 1988; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). This conflict perspective is based on the scarcity hypothesis: there is a fixed amount of time and human energy. It also assumes that a work-family balance is achieved by freedom from work-family conflicts. As positive psychology influences various scholarly disciplines, work-family scholars have also adopted the positive aspects of the work-family interface. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) introduced the idea of work-family enrichment that is defined as the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role. The four major perspectives in the work-family interface will be briefly reviewed and their implications within the context of working men will be discussed.

Conflicts between work and family

Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) seminal definition of the work-family conflict focused on the interface between one role being made difficult by the other role. In this definition, a bidirectional perspective is implied, and scholars should note the importance of distinguishing the two (Whiston, Campbell, and Maffini, 2012). In Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran's (2005) meta-analysis, the overlap between the measures of the work-to-family (WFC) and the family-to-work conflict (FWC) was examined. They investigated the relationship between WFC and FWC to provide empirical evidence that they are two distinct constructs; this had been assumed in the literature without much empirical verification. Often, the early research that investigated the work-family conflict did not specify the direction of the conflicts (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvarans, 2005). Twenty-five independent samples with 9079 participants were included in their meta-analysis. Their results indicate that, despite some overlap between WFC and FWC, the two measures have sufficient independent variance to consider them to be distinct constructs, and, as such, provide discriminant and incremental validity between WFC and FWC.

The Work-to-Family Conflict (WFC) is defined as the extent to which work interferes with family or a situation in which there is a negative spillover from work to family (Bellavia & Frone, 2005; Byron, 2005; Frone, 2003). There is empirical support that WFC is largely related to many family variables such as marital satisfaction and family dissatisfaction (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Frone, Russel, & Cooper, 1997 in Whiston, Campbell, and Maffini, 2012), as well as a negative relationship with life satisfaction and general mental health (Allen et al., 2000; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). An increasing amount of research has been conducted to examine the relationship between WFC and psychological and behavioral outcomes. It has been documented that WFC is positively correlated with general psychological distress, higher stress levels, and poor physical health (Whiston, Campbell, and Maffini, 2012), but there is limited research on the relationship between WFC and psychological well-being. Research in WFC has incorporated the characteristics of the individual differences; specifically, sex or gender differences. Gender or sex differences in WFC, interestingly, are minimal and are consistent throughout the literature (Byron, 2005; Frone, 2000), although Duxbury and Higgins (1991) found that WFC had a more negative effect on men's quality of life than women's (Whiston, Campbell, and Maffini, 2012).

Family-to-work Conflict

The family-to-work conflict occurs when family variables negatively affect work-related factors or when there is negative spillover from family to work (Frone, 2003). Understandably, FWC is found to be associated with work dissatisfaction, lower job performance, and job malfunction (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Wayne et al., 2004). Researchers into FWC also indicate that FWC might have more direct negative influences on people's psychological health than WFC (Whiston, Campbell, and Maffini, 2012). Frone (2000)

examined the relationship between the work-family conflict and employees' psychiatric

disorders such as mood, anxiety, substance dependence, and substance abuse in a representative

national sample of 2700 employees. Using hierarchical logistic regression analysis, he found that

both WFC and FWC were positively related to various psychiatric disorders. He separated the

effects of WFC and FWC with respect to psychiatric disorders. The results indicated that, while

individuals who experience WFC often were 3.13 times more likely to have a mood disorder,

2.46 times more likely to have an anxiety disorder, and 1.99 times more likely to have a

substance dependence than individuals who never experienced WFC; individuals who experience

FWC often were 29.66 times more likely to have a mood disorder, 9.49 times more likely to have

an anxiety disorder, and 11.36 times more likely to have a substance dependence than were

individuals with no FWC. From this result, FWC would seem to have a significantly larger effect

on an individual's psychological health than WFC.

In terms of gender differences, Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro (2005) found

that men experience more depressive disorders when they experience FWC than women.

Additionally, earlier studies by MacEwen and Barling (1994) indicate that WFC is more strongly

related to depression and anxiety among women than among men; while FWC is more strongly

related to depression and anxiety among men than among women. This finding is consistent with

Frone (2000) in that men endorse more anxiety disorders when experiencing FWC. Although

there are some mixed findings with respect to gender differences in FWC and WFC and their

influences on psychological health, FWC has been shown to have a more consistent negative

affect on men than women.

One main limitation in the existing literature in this line of inquiry is that, when

researchers examined FWC or WFC in terms of gender, they looked at the gender difference in

terms of a dependent variable; but their variables of interest (e.g., depression or anxiety

disorders) have never been examined in terms of their gender identity; specifically, masculine

norms. Although previous research has shed light on gender differences in WFC and FWC, the

extent to which the differences are based on an employee's sense of gender identity has therefore

been unaddressed.

Work-to-family and Family-to-work facilitation

In the last fifteen years, researchers in the work-family domain have acknowledged that

there needs to be a perspective change in the field that addresses the positive aspects of the work-

family interface (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). This has emerged

from role enhancement theory; or what Thoits (1982) referred to as the identity accumulation

hypothesis, which argues that multiple roles could provide individuals with positive

psychological outcomes as well as resources, power, and prestige (Ahrens & Ryff, 2006; Marks,

1977; Sieber, 1974; Thoits, 1983). Barnett and Hyde (2001) argue that multiple roles are, in

general, beneficial for both men and women, specifically adding work roles to women's lives

and adding family roles to men's lives. They point out that researchers have long been focusing

on the negative aspects of multiple roles in dual-earner couples such as psychiatric disorders or

inter-role conflicts. An investigation of the relationship between multiple roles and subjective

well-being is warranted.

Work-to-family facilitation

Although there has been substantial research that describes the negative consequences of

work, many workers also report upon the positive aspect that their work has on family life

(Wayne et al., 2004). Van Steenbergen, Ellemers, and Mooijaart (2007) conducted research

using both qualitative and quantitative methods. In their qualitative study, 44 percent of the

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participants reported energy-based WF facilitation, with statements such as "My job is interesting and inspiring. I get a lot of energy out of it, and that is something you take home with you." The participants also reported more psychological WF facilitation than behavioral WF facilitation in this study. In the quantitative portion of their study, psychological WF facilitation was related to higher job performance for men than women. In addition, energy-based WF facilitation was related to higher affective commitment for men.

This study, using a mixed method, provides important empirical evidence of the various interfaces within work and family in the context of positive perspectives. Unfortunately, the researchers used a single item for work/family satisfaction because of the length of the survey; this could engender methodological issues.

Family-to-work facilitation

Family-to-work facilitation (FWF) is defined as experiences in the family domain that have a positive effect on an individual's work life (Frone, 2003). In a meta-analysis of 21 studies for WFF and 25 studies for FWF, McNall, Nicklin, and Masuda (2009) found that both WFF and FWF were positively related to job satisfaction, affective commitment, and family satisfaction. FWF was more strongly related to non-work-related variables; however, the effect size for FWF and job satisfaction was lower than the effect size for WFF. Although they examined the interface between family, work, and job satisfaction, they produced limited information regarding life satisfaction. This would indicate that there is a lack of research that examines the relationship between work, family, and overall life satisfaction or psychological well-being.

Allis and O'Driscoll (2007) examined the positive effects of non-work to work facilitation on well-being in the work, family, and personal domains in 938 local government employees in New Zealand. They discovered that levels of non-work to work facilitation were

moderate, and significantly higher than non-work to work conflicts; well-being was moderately high. This study is unique in that it not only examined family aspects, but also personal activities that are not family-related. One notable limitation of this study is that the study participants were all local government employees; the findings cannot necessarily be generalized to employees in other countries, and other occupations in other situations.

As mentioned earlier, one of the most notable limitations in the literature relating to the work-family interface is its lack of consideration of an individual's sense of gender identity. Most researchers were interested in the gender difference in the variables of their particular interest (e.g., mental health or physical health), but contextualized understanding of the participants' gendered experience has not been addressed. Specifically, fathers at work have long been ignored.

Men as the local agents of change towards gender equality in the work/family interface

Burnett, Catrell, Copper, and Sparrow (2013) reviewed fatherhood in the gender and organization literature on work and family, and how fathers have been the "ghost in the organizational machine." They also conducted qualitative research on 1,100 fathers at work in the UK between 2009 and 2011 to demonstrate how male workers often feel invisible at work with respect to their paternal role despite their being valued as a worker. Two themes that emerged from this study are notable. First, gender disparity between how men and women are treated by their organization. Fathers in the study reported that their request to alter work patterns to care for children were not taken seriously compared with mothers' requests. The participants argued that, although there is a legal right to request flexibility, the benefits are still geared toward working mothers. There are apparent needs to move "more in the other direction."

A second important theme is peer relations. This study not only examined how working

fathers themselves perceive their roles in both work and family, it also addressed the issue of how fathers at work are treated by their peers. Only a small number of fathers perceived their colleagues to be supportive, while the majority of the fathers reported being treated as "second class" or "part-time" if they requested work flexibility, even if they were full-time workers. The participants reported that the traditional "breadwinner" model of male workers had not changed despite the many gender-role changes in our society (need to be more specific). The authors concluded their study with practical recommendations. They suggested the use of a gender-specific passport as a voluntary document for the human resources departments and line managers to make fathers visible with respect to their family role; there was a need to avoid the assumption that the family role is only applicable to women workers. This study makes important contributions to the literature by comprehensively examining working men's experiences in the context of their fatherhood. The primary limitation of this study, however, is that they did not consider men's sense of masculinity when they discussed gender roles. They briefly mentioned working men's frustration with the traditional "breadwinner" model, but there was no deeper examination of the context of their masculinity.

Bjornholt (2011) conducted a follow-up study on fourteen work-sharing couples in the early 1970s in Norway to examine work, family, and gender equality within families. In their follow-up study 30 years later, they discovered that men played a critical role in initiating and implementing the work-sharing arrangements within the family. Participants in this study who actively participated in a family role endorsed the ideals of a modern masculinity and pro-feminism that included an active stance on gender equality in the family and support for women to fulfill their career potentials. Although this study shed light on gender equality from working men's perspectives, the nature of a qualitative study based on such a small sample calls for

caution in generalizing the results.

Duckworth and Buzzanell (2009) examined how men construct work-family balance and their fatherhood from interviews with eighteen fathers. The main theme of the interview was with respect to how the participants consciously prioritized "family first" and if they viewed fatherhood as a "web of responsibilities;" how they conceptualized and accomplished their priorities differed. Some had flexibility in their work-family enactments, and thus their "family first" priority was relatively easy to accomplish. Others viewed it as a series of constant conflicts and struggles that required considerable time management and decision making (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009). Based on the research findings, the authors argued that the framework for fatherhood and masculinity is being constantly (re)constructed in society: today's fathers are negotiating the roles that exist among the traditional ideologies of manhood (such as breadwinner and the masculine role model) and modern masculine norms (such as involved parent and nurturing caregiver). They also pointed out that, because of the dynamic nature of fatherhood in the current era, past research that portrays men as career foci might not hold true in our present societies; they call for a more contextualized understanding of the work and family interface. Aside from the limitations that arise from the nature of qualitative studies, there are a few more limitations to this research. The study included only one family member's viewpoint, and resulted in a biased view in terms of how much the participants were actually involved in work and family. Second, there was a lack of diversity in the sample in terms of children, occupation, and age. Most of them were upper-middle class, married, white male workers.

The studies on working men's perspectives on work-family interface are largely qualitative in the nature. Additionally, the studies tend to be exploratory; and, as such, there is a lack of theoretical consideration. There is no doubt that this handful of studies sheds important

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light on the literature, but theory-driven quantitative studies could fill an important gap in the literature.

Organizational support for the work-family interface

Workers today are facing more difficulties than ever in managing work and family life. Reflecting on this and other social transformations in the workforce, research on the work-family interface has received increasing attention over the past three decades (Gurbuz, Turunc, & Celik, 2012). Organizational support theory or OST (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995) posits that employees form a general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being in order to meet socioemotional needs and to assess the benefits of increased work effort. While many studies have been conducted in the interface of work and family, relatively limited empirical research is available in terms of the role of organizational support; although, among scholars (e.g., Casper et al., 2002; Dixon and Sagas, 2007; Gurbuz, Turunc, & Celik, 2012), perceived organizational support is found to have a positive effect on the work-family conflict.

Thompson, Jahn, Kopelman, and Prottas (2004) used a multilevel, longitudinal research design to investigate relationships among reports of family-friendly practices, perceived organizational and supervisory family support, and several outcome variables (affective commitment, work-family conflict, and job search behavior) in 310 full-time employees with organizational tenure numbers of at least one year. The results indicate that perceptions of intangible organizational support (e.g., emotional support) were significantly related to affective commitment and work-to-family conflicts at the individual level, while perceptions of tangible organizational support (e.g., instrumental and informational support) were not related to any

outcome variable in the analysis (Thompson, Jahn, Kopelman, & Prottas, 2004).

This study makes important contributions and indicates that the work-life balance is not achieved simply by implementing tangible organizational support, but that addressing intangible support is critical to a worker's well-being. Problems with this study include the authors' failure to hypothesize any moderators such as gender and that they generalized the findings to a broader population. Furthermore, the participants in this study were all middle-class, and thus this study might be difficult to apply to blue-collar workers. All in all, most studies in this area are not gender specific, and when they are, they tend to focus on working women's support rather than working men.

Gender perspective on career development

The study of male career development contains a certain amount of irony. On one hand, it has long been assumed that career development research is always about men. Leona Tyler (1977) argued that much of what we know about career development is "the vocational development of Middle Class Males" (Heppner & Heppner, 2014). Additionally, the framework of career development has viewed men as "universal representatives of all humans," (Heppner & Heppner, p. 71); yet there is a dearth of research that addresses the unique experiences of men and their needs with respect to their work life in the context of their sense of masculinity. This irony within male career development studies has become more visible since the publishing of a critical article in the 1980's by Fitzgerald and Crites that called for the study of women's career development (Fouad, Whiston, & Feldwisch, 2014). Vocational psychologists began to question the appropriateness of their current understanding of career development for women, with the assumption that factors that influence people's range of career-related decisions and attitudes differ for men and women. It was at this time that more extensive research into women's career

development began. Considerable research has been conducted to understand women's work-related variables, from identifying factors that may restrict or facilitate their career choice, to how personality and background/contextual factors affect women's career options and work life (e.g., Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). The study of women's career development has blossomed as more women have started to enter gender-nontraditional careers while limited research is available on men's career development in the context of masculinity.

Men and Work

Researchers have just begun to examine the effect of gender role traditionality in men in the last two decades, but the investigation of masculinity in the context of the workplace has primarily been conducted in the context of the examination of the experience of men in nontraditional careers; specifically, men in nursing, elementary education, and homemaking.

Stay-at-home fathers

Until recently, stay-at-home fathers (SAHFs) have been invisible both in society and in the literature. Over the last fifteen years or so, however, we have seen increasing attention being given to SAHFs. As Heppner and Heppner (2014) noted, one of the most nontraditional careers for men is being a SAHF. The U.S. Census defines "at-home dad" as a father not in the labor force for the past 52 weeks and whose wife *was* in the labor force for the past 52 weeks (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). The number of SAHFs continues to increase as demonstrated by the U.S Census Bureau. In 2013, there were ~~are~~ 214,000 SAHFs - up from 98,000 in 2003 - a 118 percent increase. Research into SAHFs, however, has not kept pace with the rapid increase in the numbers of SAHFs.

Although studies are available that are related to the subject of families with a SAHF, the majority are related to gender roles and the division of labor (e.g., Lamb, Pleck, & Lavine,

1987), most focus on the issue of the role strain on mothers (e.g., Wentworth & Chell, 2001).

With respect to support-related literature for SAHFs, earlier researchers discovered that many

SAHFs report their friends and neighbors to be consistently unsupportive (Lamb, Pleck, &

Lavine) and respond negatively to both men and women when men are SAHFs (Prentice &

Carranza, 2002). This phenomenon, unfortunately, has not changed in recent years. Zimmerman

(2008) found that SAHFs reported encountering pressure to "have a real job" (p. 345) and

Rochlen and his colleagues also found mixed findings regarding support systems (Rochlen,

Suizzo, McKelley, & Scaringi, 2008). Recently, studies that investigate the societal acceptance

and/or stigma associated with the nontraditional choices of SAHFs have also been conducted

(e.g., Rochlen, McKelley & Whittaker, 2010); however, there is only one study that examined

the specific relationship between SAHFs, their sense of masculinity, and the psychological

consequences of their choice (e.g., Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008). Rochlen and

his colleagues (2008) addressed how SAHFs evaluated their own psychological adjustments to

their roles and focused on the constructs of psychological well-being, life satisfaction, and

relationship satisfaction; and how these are predicted by conformity to masculine norms, parental

self-agency, parental self-efficacy, and social support. Their results indicate that SAHFs have

similar or higher levels of relationship satisfaction, psychological well-being, and life

satisfaction than those of the majority of compared samples (non-SAHF samples). Although the

SAHFs in their study reported a similar level of support from their partner, it is notable that they

indicated considerably lower levels of social support from friends when compared with college

student data. Although this research has shed light on the complex aspects of the SAHF choice in

the context of masculinity and well-being, one notable limitation is related to their use of

comparison groups that are from other published norms and not available in their research paper;

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such are simply referred to as a "college sample." The use of college students as a comparison group with SAHFs makes this research difficult to apply in a broad manner.

Men in nontraditional careers

Jome and Tokar (1998) were some of the first researchers to investigate male career development in the context of masculinity. They investigated fifty college students pursuing majors which were female-dominated (non-traditional) and fifty college students pursuing male-dominated (traditional) majors to compare the relationship between male gender roles and the traditionality of men's career choices. They hypothesized that career-traditional men, compared to career-nontraditional men, would endorse a higher level of traditional masculine values and behaviors, and would report more homophobic attitudes and greater gender-role conflicts (Jome & Tokar, 1998). Their results support the link between men's adherence to traditional masculine gender roles and their decision to pursue male-dominated careers. This study provides empirical support for the relationship between male gender norms and the likelihood of choosing a male-dominated career. One of the main limitations of this study is that it is not based on any theoretical background in career development or vocational psychology; thus, the lack of ties between existing career theories or other theoretical frameworks makes it difficult to discover how these research findings might translate into interventions. In addition, their study was based on undergraduate and graduate students' major and career choice traditionality, which may not have corresponded to their actual career choices upon graduation.

Furthermore, their four separate preliminary t-tests that examined the significant group differences were performed at an alpha level of .05 to control for Type II errors. Although it is unlikely that researchers can maintain both Type I and II errors at an adequate rate, the liberal standard for Type I errors might have resulted in a significant difference among the group

differences for age, year in college, and parents' educational level. If this were the case, it would be difficult to generalize the findings; especially, when both undergraduate and graduate students are combined in the sample. Building on the study above, Tokar and Jome (1998) tested the theoretical links between gender roles, interests, and the traditionality of career choice using structural equation modeling to examine the factors influencing men's decisions to pursue careers of various levels of male domination. Tokar and Jome's study is an extension of their previous work, as they included career interest as a mediator between male gender norm variables and career choice traditionality. They tested two models, where one model included the indirect effect of career interest between masculine gender roles and career choice traditionality, and another model that included the direct effects of masculine gender roles on career choice traditionality. Their results supported the first model that included career interest as a mediator, and did not support the direct relationship between masculinity and career choice. This finding, although using a different theoretical framework, might indicate that male gender norms could be important distal contextual factors in career decision making.

Responding to the general limitations of previous research that primarily studied college men's career choices, Dodson and Borders (2006) compared the relationship between career compromise choices (sex type vs. prestige), adherence to masculinity ideology, gender role conflict, and job satisfaction among 100 mechanical engineers and 100 elementary school counselors. They found that the men in traditional male careers endorsed higher difficulties with restrictive emotionality and restrictive affectionate behavior than men in nontraditional careers. Their result also indicated that engineers reported higher anti-femininity and toughness scores compared with men in nontraditional careers. As for job satisfaction, relatively more consistency was found between gender role variables and job satisfaction for men in both traditional and non-

traditional careers. Regardless of the traditionality of career, the men who reported more conflict between work and family were found to have less job satisfaction. This finding indicates the importance of examining the relationship between the domains of work-family, men's sense of masculinity, and job satisfaction.

Their findings regarding traditionality of career and its relationship with a wish for higher status/prestige, however, show that the male engineers reported a higher value on sex type than on prestige, while male elementary school counselors showed a clear preference for prestige-type occupations. The authors then concluded that men in non-traditional careers tend to focus on status as an expression of their effort to rise above the SES level in which they grew up. This linkage appears to be somewhat questionable because the position of an elementary school counselor is not typically associated with higher status or prestige. The conclusion from this study, therefore, needs more consideration.

Lease (2003) tested a model of men's nontraditional occupational choices using Chusmir's (1990) model with a longitudinal sample of college-age men in both gender traditional and nontraditional occupations. The study result supports the personal and societal influence components of Chusmir's (1990) model; the degree aspirations, social attitudes, SES, ability, and career prestige were predictive of the traditionality of career. This study is one of the first that looks at various kinds of non-traditional occupations; it is unlike previous studies that investigated more traditional occupations (e.g., elementary school education, nursing). It also tested an existing model that examined non-traditional career choices. There are, however, two important characteristics that limit the generalizability of this research. First, the criteria she developed: a female dominated occupation was defined as comprising 52 percent or more women in the career. This criterion is significantly different from the criterion to define a male-

dominated occupation: defined as comprising 72 percent or more men. How traditionality was defined in her study is therefore questionable. Thus, the study samples were not limited to typically considered, gender atypical occupations such as nursing, elementary education, or child care work.

<center>Present Investigation</center>

Working men's experiences in the context of their masculinity is a shared gap in various disciples. Within vocational psychology, despite the powerful role of work in men's life, the psychology of working men has long been unaddressed. In work-family literature, much of the focus has been directed toward women's experiences. Scholars of Men and Masculinity have often neglected the context of work in their inquiry. This study, therefore, coincides with recent calls in the field of vocational psychology to investigate men's experiences with and at work as well as in the field of masculinity, and to examine the psychology of working men in the context of jobs. The purpose of this study was to investigate how men's sense of masculinity affects their multiple role self-efficacies, and how they in turn affect their well-being at work (job satisfaction) family satisfaction and overall. A core goal in this study, therefore, was to examine whether working men's job, family satisfaction and well-being can be explained by their sense of masculinity and multiple role self-efficacy. Specifically, this study sought to investigate whether SCCT can explain the psychology of working men in the context of masculinity.

<center>45</center>

Chapter 3. Method

The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors involved in male workers' job satisfaction, family satisfaction and well-being. Specifically, it was to examine the relationship between working men's conformity to masculinity, paternal role model, traditionality of career, multiple role self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and subjective well-being.

Participants

The sample for this study consisted of 658 working male adults in the U.S. Given the available information, it was not possible to calculate a response rate. Multiple mailing lists as well as personal e-mail snowball samples were used which makes it impossible to calculate how many received the survey. Participants were recruited nationally using online resources such as professional electronic mailing lists, Google groups, Yahoo groups and organizational listservs as well as snowball sampling including sharing the study link through personal connections and via professional listservs and webpages. The sample represents a subset of 731 participants who began the survey. Of those beginning the survey, 57 were removed from data analyses due to having completed less than half of the total survey and an additional 16 who answered all items with the same response (e.g., the number 3), were also dropped resulting in a sample for the analyses of 658 persons.

Of this group, ages ranged from 18 to 72 years with an average age of 35.40 (SD= 10.20) years. Additionally, 507 of the participants were White (77.05%), 66 were African American (10%), 36 were Hispanic (5.47), 6 were American Indian/Alaska Native (0.91%) 36 were Asian (5.47%) and 7 were multiracial (1.06%). In terms of relationship status, 122 (15.5%) men identified as single, 95 (12.1%) as married with no children, 311 (39.5%) as married with children, 57(7.2%) as being with partner and no children, 37 (4.7%) as being with partner with

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children, 23 (2.9%) as divorced. Further, 181 (23%) reported having elderly family to take of, 464 (59%) did not report obligation of elderly care and 18% did not answer this question. As for sexual orientation, 608 (76.6%) identified as straight, 23(2.9%) as gay, 13(1.7%) as bisexual, and 6 (.8%) as transsexual or queer. Additionally, the majority of the men in the sample identified as low to middle class or middle class. Specifically, 29 (3.7%) of the men identified as low class, 171 (21.7%) identified as lower middle class, 308 (39.1%) identified as middle class, 90 (11.4%) identified as upper middle class, and 47 (6%) men identified as upper class. In terms of their Traditionality of Career, the mean of participants' measured Traditionality of Career was 58% (SD: 23.78, Min: 4.7%, Max: 100%).

Procedures

The survey was completed online. The participants were provided with a website URL linking them to an informed consent page highlighting the purpose of the study. Upon accessing the survey website, the participants were directed to the first page of the survey which contained an informed consent form briefly explaining the nature of the study and reiterating the issues related to confidentiality and participation. If the participant accepted the consent form, he was directed to a subsequent page containing a series of instruments, including a demographic form and measures assessing work satisfaction, well-being, and each of the independent variables. Each of the instruments included directions on how to respond to the items. As incentives for participation, participants were compensated with a $1 Amazon gift card. An additional link was included at the end of the survey whereby participants were able to enter their email address if they wanted compensation. Reminders were not sent for the study. After a three week period the survey website was closed and the data was extracted for analysis.

Study Hypotheses, Research Questions and Methods

The following is the re-statement of hypotheses and research questions.

Hypothesis 1: Conformity to the masculine norm will be negatively associated with:

  a) Multiple role self-efficacy

  b) Multiple role outcome expectations

Hypothesis 2: Job satisfaction will be positively associated with life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2a) Family Satisfaction will be positively associated with life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: Work Family Positive Spillover (PSO) will be positively associated with:

  a) Job satisfaction

  b) Family Satisfaction

  And negatively associated with:

  c) Conformity to Masculine norms

Hypothesis 4: Working conditions represented by family friendly supervisor support (FSSB),

will be positively associated with:

  a) Work Family Positive Spillover (PSO)

Hypothesis 5: Multiple Role Self-efficacy will have an indirect effect on the relationship

between Conformity to Masculine Norms and Work Family Positive Spillover

Hypothesis 6: Multiple Role Outcome Expectation will have an indirect effect on the relationship

between Conformity to Masculine Norms and Work Family Positive Spillover

Hypothesis 7: The proposed model of work satisfaction will produce a good overall fit to the

data.

Hypothesis 8: The proposed model of family satisfaction will produce a good overall fit to the

data.

Research Question 1: Does an alternative, simplified model better fit the data than the proposed

model?

Research Question 2: Are there any differences in working men's job, family, and life

satisfaction with regard to the level of father's involvement in family, conformity to masculinity,

traditionality of career and multiple role self-efficacy?

Hypotheses 1-8 as well as research question 1 were examined with the path coefficients

from structural models. Research question 2 was investigated with vignette experiments with 16

separate participant pools (participants were randomly assigned into 16 different vignettes).

Vignette experiments are helpful in addressing the weakness of traditional self-report

survey methodology (Stolte, 1994). The vignette portion of the study addressed how four core

variables; high and low levels of-father's involvement in family, conformity to masculinity,

traditionality of career and multiple role self-efficacy, affect an individual's job satisfaction,

family satisfaction and life satisfaction. One of 16 different vignettes was randomly assigned to

each of 658 participants. Four aspects ("factors") of the scenarios were experimentally varied

using random assignment and a factorial survey design was employed. Each participant was

randomly given one of the sixteen possible scenarios an example of which is given next:

Joe has been working (as an engineer/as a nurse) for 5 years. When he was growing

up, his father spent (a lot of/little) time with him. Mr. A's father taught him what it was

like to be a man. He believes that it (is/is not) acceptable for men to express emotion

publicly. Now that he is a new father, he feels (confident in/incapable of) managing

both work and family.

After they finished answering the self-report survey including conformity to masculine

norms, multiple role self-efficacy, and multiple outcome expectation job satisfaction, family

satisfaction and life satisfaction, each participant received a vignette and then completed another set of dependent variables (job, family and life satisfaction) based on their perception of *Joe*'s job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction. In other words, the participant first answered on self-report dependent variables and then answered another set of dependent variables based on their perception of Joe, not their own experience.

The results from the vignette experiments and sample surveys were compared and are presented in Chapter 4.

Measures

Demographic Questionnaire. The participants completed a questionnaire on demographic variables that provided age, socioeconomic status, relationship status, sexual orientation, and the type of job they have.

Traditionality of Career. Traditionality of Career was measured by evaluating the percentage of men working within the participant's occupation. The principal investigator coded the occupation based on its traditional or non-traditional nature according to the U.S Department of Labor (DoL). A "Non-traditional career" is defined by the U.S. Department of Labor, DOL, as one in which either men or women make up less than 25 percent of the occupation. In other words, a traditional occupation for men is one in which at least 75% of workers in the occupation identify as men.

Job Satisfaction. A five-item version of the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) Index of Job Satisfaction was used to measure job satisfaction (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). Participants were asked to respond to each of five items on a 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Sample items will include: "I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job," and "Most days, I am satisfied with my work." The original study using this five-

item version was distributed to 222 university employees, and produced a reliability estimate of .88 (Judge et al., 1998). A number of studies have used this measure and reported adequate reliability coefficients ranging from .82 to .95 (Ilies & Judge, 2003; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Locke, 2002). In addition, this scale has been found to correlate strongly with the Job Descriptive Index ($r=.89$), the observer ratings of job satisfaction ($r=.59$), and life satisfaction ($r=.68$) (Judge et al., 1998). In this study, Cronbach's alpha was .78.

Family Satisfaction. The 6-item short version of the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) job satisfaction scale was used to measure family satisfaction by substituting job with family. Response options ranged from (1) "strongly disagree" to (5) "strongly agree." Sample items are "Most days, I am enthusiastic about my family" and "I feel fairly well satisfied with my family life." This scale has been found to moderately correlate with life satisfaction ($r=.42$) (Aryee, 1999) . Cronbach's alpha in this study was .85.

Conformity to Masculine Norms. The Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory 22 Item Short Form (CMNI-22; Hamilton & Mahalik, 2009) measured participants' behaviors, attitudes, and conformity to an assortment of dominant masculine norms in the United States. The CMNI-22 was created using the two highest-loading items for each of the 11 subscales found in the original CMNI-94 item validation study. The CMNI-22 yields a total masculinity score and correlates with the original CMNI-94 item scale at .92. The CMNI-22 is scored on a 4-point Likert Scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Scores on this scale were transformed into mean scores and range from 1 to 5, with higher scores indicating higher levels of adherence to masculine norms. CMNI scores have been found to be associated with social dominance, desire to be more muscular, negative attitudes toward help seeking, psychological distress, and aggression (Mahalik et al., 2003). Internal consistency for the CMNI in previous

studies has ranged from .75 to .91 for the 11 masculinity norms, with an alpha of .94 for the total score (Hamilton & Mahalik, 2009). The CMNI-22 correlates at .92 with the CMNI total for the 94-item scale (Hamilton & Mahalik, 2009) Cronbach's alpha for the CMNI-22 was .70 in a sample of men with prostate cancer (Burns & Mahalik, 2008) and .73 in a sample of 315 gay men (Hamilton & Mahalik, 2009). With respect to reliability, the developer encourages researchers to consider using theta, a special case of reliability for instruments with multidimensionality, instead of alpha, because the 22 item scale is derived from the two highest loading items on 11 distinct factors. The theta for the scale in this study was 0.86.

Multiple Role Self-Efficacy (MRSE). MRSE assesses the participants' experiences in managing their work and non-work roles when these roles interface with one another. Fouad and colleagues created the scale based on Netemeyer, Boles, & McNurrian (1996). Sample items include: "I am confident that 1) I can effectively combine my multiple work and non-work life roles; 2) I can have a lifelong career in addition to fulfilling my various non-work obligations; 3) I can fulfill all my non-work responsibilities despite having a demanding job/career." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .75 in a previous study (Fouad et al.), and was positively related to job satisfaction (r=.22).

Multiple Role Outcome Expectation (MROE). Multiple Role Outcome Expectation measures the participants' expectations regarding the management of multiple roles. Cronbach's alpha was .75 in a previous study (Fouad et al.in progress). It is associated with family support of the organization at .13. Sample items include: "If I can manage my multiple life roles, I will feel good about myself," and "If I do not manage my time well between my multiple life roles, I will feel anxious."

Subjective Well-Being (SWB). The Satisfaction with Life Scale or SWLS (Diener et al., 1985; Diener, 2000) consists of five items assessing the degree of global life satisfaction on a five-point scale (the scale ranges from 1 to 5, "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree"). Diener and colleagues suggest that the scale is "designed around the idea that one must ask subjects for an overall judgment of their life in order to measure the concept of life satisfaction" (Diener et al., 1985, pp. 71-72). Two examples of the SWLS are: "In most ways my life is close to my ideal," and "The conditions of my life are excellent." Higher scores indicate high life satisfaction. Criterion validity was examined by comparing the ratings between the self-reports of the sample (average age of 75) and the average rating of two raters who interviewed each participant about their life. The correlation between the self-reports and the rater evaluations was .46, meaning that the criterion validity was moderate. The SWLS has been reported to have high reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha of .87 (Diener et al., 1985). In this study, Cronbach's alpha was .85.

Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviors. To measure supervisory support of family, the scale developed by Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, and Hanson (2008) was used. This 14 item Likert scale assessed perceptions of supervisor supportive behaviors specific to work and family interactions in the dimensions of emotional support, role model, instrumental support, and proactive integration (thinking about how work-life can be integrated with organizational and HR systems). Sample items include "My supervisor is willing to listen to my problems juggling work and nonwork life." In this study, Cronbach's alpha was .96. FSSB were correlated positively and significantly with measure of general supervisor support and measure of supervisor support behaviors. (i.e., $r = .74$ and $r = .68$, respectively), providing evidence of convergent validity (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009).

Chapter 4: Results

Data Analysis

Missing Data

The sample for this study consisted of 658 working male adults in the U.S. This sample represents a subset of 731 participants who began the survey, 57 of whom were removed from data analysis due to having incomplete data (completed less than half of the total survey) and 16 of whom who answered questions with single number.

Data Screening

Data were screened using SPSS (23.0) to assess normality, linearity, and to determine if outliers were present within the dataset. It is recommended to use graphical methods rather than significance tests when examining normality within a dataset that has more than an N=200 sample size (Tabachnick and Fidel, 2007 in Kirby 2014), graphical methods were used to determine normality for data. Results indicated no large deviations from normality as well as no outliers present in the dataset. Histograms, normal probability plots, and residual plots were created and assessed. Histograms were plotted on a near normal curve and indicated near normal distribution. Normal probability plots illustrated that values lined up along the diagonal, which suggested linearity.

Descriptive statistics were computed for each of the variables measured in the current study with SPSS (23.0). The mean, standard deviation, and correlations of all the individual items used in the current study are presented in Table 1. Examination of the univariate skewness and kurtosis found that most of the items were within normal limits. Three items (MRSE, MORE and PSO) were slightly skewed. Because WLSMV estimation in Mplus is "asymptotically

unbiased, consistent and efficient parameter estimates and correct goodness of fit indices for

variables that have a non-normal distribution"(van Dierendonck, Díaz, Rodríguez-Carvajal,

Blanco, & Moreno-Jiménez, 2008), analysis was not dependent on strict normality of the

data. Therefore, transformation of the data was not conducted.

Table 1: M, SD, Reliability and Correlations among Independent and Dependent Variables

	M	SD	α / θ (CM)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.Conformity to Masculinity	2.95	0.36	0.86									
2. Family Satisfaction	3.55	0.68	.85	-.13**								
3. Job Satisfaction	3.37	0.68	.78	-0.07	.29**							
4. Life Satisfaction	3.39	0.86	.86	0.08	.49**	.46**						
5. Multiple Role Self-Efficacy	3.94	0.69	.80	0.01	.23**	.28**	.23**					
6. Multiple Role Outcome Expectation	3.71	0.51	.73	0.01	.23**	.08	.17*	.23**				
7. Perceived Supervisory Support for the Family	3.40	0.82	.96	0.08	.14**	.15**	.28**	.38**	.11**			
8. Positive Spillover	3.74	0.57	.94	0.02	.25**	.20**	.18**	.39**	.50**	.45**		
9. Men Percentage in Job	58.41	23.86		0.04	-.03	-.04	.03	-.04	-.07	-.02	-.06	

Results from Survey

Analysis of the Measurement Model

Prior to assessing the hypothesized model, analyses were completed within MPlus (7.1) software to verify the measurement model. Estimation was conducted using the Weighted Least Squares Mean and Variance adjusted (WLSMV) procedure in Mplus because all of dependent variables were ordinally scaled. Specifically, analyses evaluated the relationship between individual indicators and the latent constructs they were expected to represent. This measurement model analysis served two main purposes in the current study. First, it tested the composition and structure of the latent constructs. Assuming that the hypothesized factor structures are confirmed, the resulting latent factors can be used to examine the structural relations among constructs in the full SEM, which are the focus of hypotheses 1-4. Second, the formation of these latent constructs allows one to test the structural paths among the constructs, which is the focus of hypothesis 5, and in turn, it leads one to answer hypothesis 6, overall fit to the data.

The measurement model included four indicators representing the multiple role outcome expectations, three indicators representing multiple role self-efficacy, and three, four, three, four, four, three indicators, respectively, for six Work Family Positive Spillover (PSO) subscales. For each factor, one observed variable loading was fixed to 1 and the other loadings were freely estimated. Results indicated that all indicators significantly loaded on the latent constructs they were expected to represent (See measurement model results in Appendix page142).

An eight factor CFA was conducted according to the hypothesized model (See Figure 1). The CFA was modeled with correlations among each of the six factors and tested with WLSMV estimation.

Analysis of the measurement model indicated all four multiple role outcome expectancy (MROE) indicators significantly loaded on the MROE latent construct. All three indicators of the multiple role self-efficacy construct were significant within the measurement model. Similarly, all indicators of the PSO significantly loaded on the construct.

All structural equation modeling analyses in this study (i.e., the measurement model and the structural model tests) were tested according to the following fit indices: χ^2, comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and Tucker Lewis index (TLI). While a non-significant χ^2 suggests that the model fits the data adequately (which also refers to a "badness of fit"), researchers often asserts that χ^2 is likely (or some argue, almost always) significant with larger the sample size and needs to be used with other indices of model fit (e.g., Fassinger, 1987; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998; Iacobucci, 2010),with some even argue χ^2 can be disregarded because of its sensitivity to the sample size and large number of items (Thompson & Prottas, 2006). As a result of this controversy, some suggestions have been made, including use of a chi-square/df ratio (Kline, 2010). It is suggested that less than 2 suggests good fit while a chi-square/df ratio between 2 and 5 suggests reasonable fit (Bentler &Chou,1987; Chou & Kim, 2009).

The following standards were used to reflect the most stringent rule-of-thumb for optimal fit: comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker Lewis index (TLI) values of .95 or higher, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .06 or lower(e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999; MacCallum & Austin, 2000). For classifying results as "acceptable fit" the following values were used: between .90 and .95 for the CFI and TLI, the RMSEA between .06 and .08 (Bentler, 1990; Bollen, 1989; Willliams, Vandenberg, & Edwards, 2009).

In the current study, the entire model results including all parameters, standard errors, and fit indices were reported following a recommendation that there should be no ambiguity or arbitrary omission in reporting results (McDonald & Ho, 2002). While chi-square value was not disregarded, it was not a sole indicator of model fit. Other fit indices, such as CFI, TLI, and RMSEA were used to determine the model fit.

The chi-squared/df ratio for the data was 4.80, indicating that the data suggested borderline reasonable fit. The TLI and CFI can be considered with respect to perfect fit, excellent fit, adequate fit, and poor fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Both CFI and TLI measure fit of a target model against the fit of the baseline model (Geiser, 2013). Values of 1.00 for these fit indices reflect perfect fit while values of .95 or greater reflect excellent fit. Adequate fit is determined by values between .90 and .94, and poor fit is demonstrated by values equal to or less than .90. (Hair et al., 1998).

The model produced a significant chi-square statistic (1546.182, df=322, p<.001) and satisfactory value of CFI (.95) and TLI (.94) and moderate-poor value of RMSEA (.075), while chi-square statistics suggest the model is a poor fit, considering other fit indices together, results suggest adequate fit of the measurement model to the data. Given these results, the hypothesized structural model was run to assess fit with the data.

Structural Model Tests

Based on the measurement model, the primary and alternative structural models, specifying different relations among the predictors of job, family and life satisfaction were tested. As before, the models were tested using WLSMV estimator in MPlus. Criteria for determining model fit were the same as those previously described for the measurement model analyses. The structural models allow us to examine the degree to which each of the latent

variable as well as observed variables predict unique variance in job, family and life satisfaction; the degree to which the relation of particular independent variables to these three satisfactions are mediated by other variables; and the degree to which the primary and alternative models fit the data. Alternative models were examined following recommendations from methodological experts asserting that alternative models need to be tested when the hypothesized model is complex (e.g., Weston,2006),

An alternative model was chosen to assess an indirect effect from contextual factors onto work family positive spillover. This model was based on previous literature that examined both direct and indirect paths between distal variables and target outcome behaviors (Dahling & Thompson, 2010). Researchers in prior studies have reported that partially mediated models tend to produce better fit to the data compared with direct-effects model in the social cognitive theory (e.g., Lent, Brown, Brenner, et al., 2001), but there is minimal empirical support for other distal factors when career interest was not the main focus of the model.

Although item parceling is considered an acceptable aggregation strategy and well-practiced within counseling psychology literature (e.g., Duffy & Lent, 2009; Lent, Taveira, Sheu, & Singley, 2009), there are significant concerns over parceling (e.g., Bandalo & Finney, 2001; Marsh, Lüdtke, Nagengast, Morin, & Von Davier, 2013). It is suggested that a parceling approach can "camouflage method effects, cross-loadings, and other sources of misspecification at the item level" in the analysis and use of item parcels is only justifiable "when there is good support for the unidimensionality of all the constructs (Marsh, Lüdtke, Nagengast, Morin, & Von Davier, 2013)." As such, in order to avoid misspecification and biased interpretations of parameter estimates, item parceling was not used in the analysis following methodological experts' recommendation.

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The primary job-life satisfaction model was found to yield a Chi-square statistic of 1509.703 (df=437, p<.001), a CFI of .93, and an RMSEA of .066, and a TLI of .92, suggesting acceptable fit to the data. Taken together, independent variables were found to account for 5% of job satisfaction and 20% of life satisfaction. As such, there is partial support for Hypothesis 7, which predicted that the proposed model of work satisfaction would produce a good overall fit to the data.

The primary family-life satisfaction model was found to yield chi-square statistic of 1558.936 (df=437, p<.001), a CFI of .93, and an RMSEA of .067, and a TLI of .91 suggesting a acceptable fit to the data. Taken together, independent variables were found to account for 9% of family satisfaction and 16% of life satisfaction. As such, there is partial support for Hypothesis 8, which was predicted that the proposed model of family satisfaction would produce a good overall fit to the data.

Research Question 1: Does an alternative simplified model better fit the data than the proposed model?

To answer research Question 1, two alternative structural models were examined for each job-life satisfaction and family-life satisfaction model. The alternative structural models tested the possibility that paternal contextual variables would only yield an indirect path to job and life satisfaction). Alternative Job satisfaction model produced an χ^2 statistic of 1676.81 (df = 449, p <.001), a CFI of .92, a TLI of .91 and an RMSEA of .07. These values indicated moderate to poor fit. In addition, direct comparison of the two structural models through chi-square test for different testing indicated that the target model offered significantly better fit to the data (χ^2 = 174.239, df=12 p < .001). Note that Chi-square difference cannot be directly calculated when using WLSMV estimator in Mplus. Therefore, both primary and alternative models were run and

Mplus calculated the estimates for "Chi-Square Test for Difference Testing" in order to compare the two models.

The alternative family satisfaction model produced an χ^2 statistic of 1724.50 (df = 449, p <.001), a CFI of .92, a TLI of .90 and an RMSEA of .71. These values indicated less adequate model fit, according to Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria. In addition, direct comparison of the two structural models through chi-square test for different testing indicated that the target model offered significantly better fit to the data (χ^2 = 174.465, df=12 p < .001).

Results of Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1 through 4 were investigated through path coefficients among the constructs. Regarding Hypothesis 1: Conformity to the masculine norm (CM) will be negatively associated with a) Multiple role self-efficacy (MRSE) b) Multiple role outcome expectations (MROE). This was investigated through the path coefficient among the constructs. Results indicate that there is minimal association between CM and MRSE at -.006 (p>.05), and with MORE at -.0009 (p>.05). This indicates there is minimal negative associations. As such, the hypothesis that CM will be negatively associated with MRSE and MORE was not supported. (See Figure 4 on page 126)

Hypothesis 2, that job satisfaction would be positively associated with life satisfaction, was investigated through the path coefficient among the constructs. Results indicate that Job satisfaction is positively related with life satisfaction at .45 (p<.01). This indicates that for each change of one unit in job satisfaction, the average change in the mean of life satisfaction is about 0.45 units. Hypothesis 2 a), that Family satisfaction would be predictive of life satisfaction, was investigated through the path coefficient among the constructs. Results indicate that Family satisfaction is positively associated with life satisfaction at .40 (p<.01). This indicates that for

each change of one unit in job satisfaction, the average change in the mean of life satisfaction is about 0.40 units. As such, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

It was predicted in Hypothesis 3 that Work Family Positive Spillover (PSO) would be positively associated with a) Job satisfaction (JS) b) Family Satisfaction (FS) and would be negatively associated with c) Conformity to Masculine norms. Results indicated that there is a significant positive association between PSO and JS at .22, p<.01, and significant positive association between PSO and FS at .29, p<.01. Therefore Hypotheses 3 a) and b) were supported. There is a minimal positive relationship between PSO and CM at .041, p>.05, as such Hypothesis 3-c) was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 was that family friendly supervisor support (FSSB) would be positively associated with PSO. Result indicated that there is a moderate positive relationship between FSSB and PSO at .34 (p<.01). As such Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Indirect effect Hypotheses

Hypothesis 5 and 6 stated that MRSE and MORE would have indirect effect on the prediction of PSO from CM. To investigate within the context of the full model, the pattern of path coefficients in the primary model was examined. As seen in Figure 4 on page 126, there was not a significant path from CM to MRSE, nor from MRSE to PSO, suggesting a lack of support for Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 6 stated that Multiple Role Outcome expectation would will have an indirect effect on the relationship between CM and PSO. Support was found for this hypothesis: as seen in Figure 4 on page 126, there is a significant indirect effect of MROE between CM and PSO as there is a significant indirect effect from CM to PSO via MORE (*p*<.05).

In sum, the results from the structural model and mediator analyses reveal mixed support for the hypotheses. The Lent and Brown (2013) proposed structural model was found to be a moderate fit to the data, supporting Hypotheses 7 and 8. It was found to be a better fit than an alternative model, answering Research Question 1. Additionally, multiple role self-efficacy was not found to have indirect effect on the conformity to masculine norms-positive spillover relation, therefore Hypothesis 5 was not supported. On the other hand, multiple role outcome expectation was found to have indirect effect on the conformity to masculine norms-positive spillover relation, providing support for Hypothesis 6. In addition, Hypothesis 1 was not supported as there was weak association between conformity to masculine norm and multiple role self-efficacy. Hypothesis 2 and 2a were supported as there are significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction as well as between family satisfaction and life satisfaction. In addition, Hypothesis 3 was supported because work family positive spillover (PSO) had significant positive association with: job satisfaction and family satisfaction, and PSO was negatively associated with conformity to masculine norms. Hypothesis 4 was supported because family friendly supervisor support (FSSB) was positively associated with work family positive spillover (PSO).

Results from the Vignette Study

Research Question 2: Are there any differences in working men's job, family, and life satisfaction with regard to the level of father's involvement in family, conformity to masculinity, traditionality of career and multiple role self-efficacy?

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed with four core variables (levels of father's involvement in family, conformity to masculinity, traditionality of career and multiple role self-efficacy) as the independent variable and job satisfaction, family satisfaction

and life satisfaction as the four dependent variables. MANOVA was employed to test whether there were statistically significant differences among four core variables on job, family, and life satisfaction.

Because it was exploratory a .05 type I error rate was used per comparison. Using an alpha level of .05, there was a statistically significant difference in working men's job, family, and life satisfaction based on 1) traditionally of career , $F (3, 590) = 9.183$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.955$ 2) level of father's involvement in the family, $F (3, 590) = 7.91$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.961$,3) level of multiple role self-efficacy $F (3, 590) = 25.03$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = .887$, 4) interaction of traditionality of career and conformity to masculine norms $F (3, 590) = 2.70$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = .986$ 5) interaction of level of father's involvement in the family and multiple role self-efficacy $F (3, 590) = 2.92$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = .99$, 6) Interaction of traditionally of career, conformity to masculine norms, and multiple role self-efficacy $F (3, 590) = 4.17$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = .887$.

More specifically, there was a statistically significant difference in working men's family satisfaction based on 1) traditionality of career $F (1, 590) = 5.10$, $p < .05$) conformity to masculine norms $F (1, 590) = 22.21$, $p < .0001$) multiple role self-efficacy $F (1, 590) = 13.67$, $p < .0001$). There was a statistically significant difference in working men's job satisfaction based on 1) traditionality of career $F (1, 590) = 20.05$, $p < .0001$) conformity to masculine norms $F (1, 590) = 5.64$, $p < .05$) multiple role self-efficacy $F (1, 590) = 65.08$, $p < .05$) interaction of level of father's involvement, conformity to masculine norms, multiple role self-efficacy $F (1, 590) = 4.31$, $p < .05$). There was a statistically significant difference in working men's life satisfaction based on 1) conformity to masculine norms $F (1, 590) = 7.13$, $p < .0001$), 2) multiple role self-efficacy $F (1, 590) = 39.56$, $p < .0001$, 3) interaction of level of father's involvement , multiple

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role self-efficacy F $(1, 590) = 6.67$, $p < .05$), 4) interaction of traditionality of career, conformity to masculine norms, multiple role self-efficacy F $(1, 590) = 4.98$, $p < .05$).

To further identify how the subgroups of the four core variables differed among the three well-being variables, elucidating the directionality of the associations, discriminant function analyses were applied to identify the dimensions along which the relevant subgroups differed most distinctly.

Differences of Well-beings by traditionality of career (IV1)

The discriminant function analysis (Table 2) revealed that participants with different traditionality of career mainly varied on family and job satisfaction. Comparing the group centroids, the discriminant function clearly separated participants with high male traditional career and low male traditional career. Generally, participants believed that men with low male traditional career (e.g., nurse) would have higher family and job satisfaction than that of men with high male traditional career (e.g., engineer).

Table 2. Discriminant Analysis on Well-beings by Traditionality of Career

Predictor	Standardized Function Coefficient	Structure Coefficient
Family Satisfaction	0.4008	0.4279
Job Satisfaction	1.0851	0.8960
Life Satisfaction	-0.5363	0.1516

Functions at Group Centroids:

Male Traditional Career	5.18
Male Non-Traditional Career	5.57

Differences of Well-beings by levels of conformity to masculine norms (IV3)

The discriminant function analysis (Table 3) revealed that participants with different levels of conformity to masculine norms varied on all levels of satisfaction, but mainly varied on family satisfaction. Comparing the group centroids, the discriminant function clearly separated participants with high conformity to masculine norms and low conformity to masculine norms. Generally, participants believed that men with low conformity to masculine norms (e.g., someone believes that it is acceptable for men to express emotion publicly) would have higher family, job, and life satisfaction than that of men with low conformity to masculine norms (e.g., someone believes that it is not acceptable for men to express emotion publicly). Among three different types of satisfaction, family satisfaction was differentiated the most by levels of conformity to masculine norms.

Table 3. Discriminant Analysis on Well-beings by conformity to masculine norms

Predictor	Standardized Function Coefficient	Structure Coefficient
Family Satisfaction	1.0114	0.9917
Job Satisfaction	0.1481	0.4080
Life Satisfaction	-0.024	0.5079

Functions at Group Centroids:

Low conformity to Masculine Norm	6.177
High conformity to Masculine Norm	5.695

Differences of Well-beings by Levels of Multiple Role Self-Efficacy (IV4)

The discriminant function analysis (Table 4) revealed that participants with different

levels of Multiple Role Self-Efficacy on all levels of well-being: job, family, and life satisfaction

but mainly on job satisfaction. Comparing the group centroids, the discriminant function clearly

separated participants with high level of Multiple Role Self-Efficacy and low level of Multiple

Role Self-Efficacy. Generally, participants believed that men with high level of Multiple Role

Self-Efficacy (e.g., someone who feels capable of managing both work and family) would have

higher job, family, and life satisfaction than that of men with low level of Multiple Role Self-

Efficacy (e.g., someone who feels incapable of managing both work and family). Among the

three different measures of satisfaction, job satisfaction was differentiated the most by levels of

multiple role self-efficacy.

Table 4. Discriminant Analysis on Well-beings by Multiple Role Self-Efficacy

Predictor	Standardized Function Coefficient	Structure Coefficient
Family Satisfaction	0.052	0.444
Job Satisfaction	0.813	0.937
Life Satisfaction	0.399	0.742

Functions at Group Centroids:

Low conformity to Masculine Norm	6.213
High conformity to Masculine Norm	5.484

Differences of Well-beings by levels of interaction of traditionality of career (IV1) and conformity to masculine norms (IV3)

The discriminant function analysis (Table X) revealed that participants with different levels of traditionality of career (IV1) and conformity to masculine norms (IV3) varied mainly on family satisfaction. Comparing the group centroids, the discriminant function clearly separated participants with high conformity to masculine norms with male traditional/non traditional career and participants with low conformity to masculine norms with male traditional/non traditional career. Generally, participants believed that men with male traditional career (e.g., engineer) with low level of conformity to masculine norms (e.g., someone believes that it is acceptable for men to express emotion publicly) would have higher family satisfaction.

Table 5. Discriminant Analysis on Well-beings by levels of interaction of traditionality of career (IV1) and conformity to masculine norms

Predictor	Standardized Function Coefficient	Structure Coefficient
Family Satisfaction	0.6101	0.5780
Job Satisfaction	-0.9421	-0.5052
Life Satisfaction	0.5304	0.3376

Functions at Group Centroids:

Non male traditional career*Low Conformity to Masculine	0.475
Non male traditional career*High Conformity to Masculine	0.530
Male traditional career*Low Conformity to Masculine	0.930
Male traditional career*High Conformity to Masculine	0.469

Differences of Well-beings by Levels of Interaction of Father Involvement (IV2),

Conformity to Masculine Norms (IV3), Level of Multiple Role Self-efficacy (IV4)

The discriminant function (Table 5) revealed that participants with different level of

father involvement (IV2), conformity to masculine norms (IV3), level of multiple role self-

efficacy (IV4) varied mainly on job satisfaction. Comparing the group centroids, the discriminant

function separated eight different participant pools (2*2*2), but the extent to which it separated

was relatively subtle. Generally, participants believed that men with low level of father

involvement (IV2), low level of conformity to masculine norms (IV3) and high level of multiple

role self-efficacy (IV4) would have higher job satisfaction.

Table 6. Discriminant Analysis on Well-beings by levels of interaction of level of father

involvement (IV2), conformity to masculine norms (IV3), level of multiple role self-efficacy

(IV4)

Predictor	Standardized Function Coefficient	Structure Coefficient
Family Satisfaction	-0.113	0.0492
Job Satisfaction	1.188	0.9319
Life Satisfaction	-0.368	0.1217

Chapter 5

Summery and Discussion

Re-statement of the Problem

As the percentage of dual-earner families in the United States has increased significantly in the last 35 years (Boushey & O'Leary, 2009), one of the corresponding changes in family structure has been a drastic decrease in the binary view of breadwinner-housewife framework, which currently makes up just over 20% of the workforce in the U.S. (U.S Department of Labor, 2011). With the rapid increase of dual earner families, more scholars are examining different aspects of the work-family interface, for instance the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of gains and strains associated with participating in both work and family roles (Corwyn & Bradley, 2005). While the breadwinner-homemaker framework of work-family balance is no longer pervasive in real life, the majority of discussion in the work-family interface continues to focus on women's challenges in balancing work and family needs, likely due to traditional gender role stereotyping. This has led to criticism of work-family researchers' almost exclusive emphasis on women and mothers over the last few decades (Kirby et al., 2003), with calls to conduct more research on men and fathers.

More fathers in dual-earner couples are reported to feel significantly greater work-life issues (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008). However, little is known about the psychological processes that influence working men's multiple role management. Often times, studies examining the gender differences in work family interface for men and women failed to look at the work-family interface from men's perspectives while taking masculinity into consideration. This is problematic because

work-family issues are a shared concern for both men and women. The current study examined the relationship between working men's conformity to masculinity, multiple role self-efficacy, multiple role outcome expectation, job satisfaction, family satisfaction and subjective well-being (life satisfaction).

The aim of this study was to test Social Cognitive Career Management Theory (SCCT) in the context of coping with multiple role management by examining the antecedents, processes, and outcomes of multiple role management among working men. Contextual factors, both distal and proximal were examined. Distal contextual factors included the participant's own paternal multiple role management role model, conformity to masculine norms, and traditionality of career. Proximal contextual factors included family friendly supervisor support. By incorporating these background variables, this study provided a more comprehensive assessment of what influences the likelihood of successful multiple role management, and how this can impact job and family satisfaction, and well-being.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study empirically investigated two research questions. First, the structural model of multiple role career management for working men was examined. Based on previous research, the contextual influences with respect to career choice behaviors or job satisfaction - such as support and barriers - have been identified within the model and were found to interact with cognitive mechanisms to influence career development (e.g., Duffy & Lent, 2009; Kim, Ahn, & Fouad, 2015; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2000). Within the first research question, eight hypotheses were tested using SCCT career management model (Lent & Brown, 2013). The model examined whether conformity to masculine norms would be negatively associated with multiple role self-efficacy and outcome expectations, whether job satisfaction would be

positively associated with life satisfaction, whether family satisfaction would be positively associated with life satisfaction, and whether work family positive spillover (PSO) would be positively associated with job satisfaction and family satisfaction, and also be negatively associated with conformity to masculine norms. It was also hypothesized that working conditions represented by family friendly supervisor support (FSSB), would be positively associated with work family positive spillover (PSO). In addition, the model examined whether multiple role self-efficacy and outcome expectation would have any indirect effect on the relationship between conformity to masculine norms and work family positive spillover. Finally, it was expected that the proposed model of job/family satisfaction would produce a good overall fit to the data.

The second research question examined the differences in working men's job, family, and life satisfaction with regard to the level of their father's involvement in family, conformity to masculinity, traditionality of career and multiple role self-efficacy using vignette experimental method. Since this was an exploratory approach, no specific hypotheses were made.

Review of Methodology

Study hypotheses were investigated using both sample survey methods and vignette experiments with 16 separate participant pools (the 16 groups for experimental study where comprised of participants randomly assigned into 16 different vignettes and one group for sample survey). Several instruments were used to measure social cognitive variables of working men's multiple role management. Traditionality of Career was measured by requesting the participant's occupation. The principal investigator then coded the occupation based on its traditional or non-traditional nature according to the U.S Department of Labor (DoL). Job satisfaction (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998) was measured to assess the degree to which participants are satisfied with their job. The 6-item short version of the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) job satisfaction scale

was used to measure family satisfaction by substituting job with family. In addition, The Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory 22 Item Short Form (CMNI-22; Hamilton & Mahalik, 2009) was used to measure the participants' behaviors, attitudes, and conformity to an assortment of dominant masculine norms in the United States. Multiple Role Self-Efficacy (MRSE) assessed the participants' experiences in managing their work and non-work roles when these roles interface with one another. Fouad and colleagues created the scale based on Netemeyer, Boles, & McNurrian (1996). Multiple Role Outcome Expectation (MROE) measures the participants' expectations regarding the management of multiple roles (Fouad et al.in progress). The Satisfaction with Life Scale or SWLS (Diener et al., 1985; Diener, 2000) assessed the degree of global life satisfaction on a five-point scale. Finally, to measure supervisory support of family, the scale developed by Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, and Hanson (2008) was used.

Participants were mainly recruited via using online resources such as professional electronic mailing lists (e.g., APA Div 17, LinkedIn), Google groups, Yahoo groups as well as snowball sampling including sharing the study link through personal connection and via professional listservs or webpage. The sample for this study consisted of 658 working male adults in the U.S. Given available information, response rate was not available. Multiple mailing list as well as personal e-mail snowball samples were used which makes it impossible to know how many received the survey. This sample represents a subset of 731 participants who began the survey. Of those beginning the survey, 57 were removed from data analyses due to having completed less than half of the total survey and an additional 16 who answered all items with the same response (e.g., the number 3), were also dropped resulting in a sample for the analyses of 658 persons. Of this group, ages ranged from 18 to 72 with an average of 35.40 (SD= 10.20). Additionally, 407 of the participants were White (61.85%), 66 were African American (10%), 36

were Hispanic (5.47), 6 were American Indian/Alaska Native (0.91%) 36 were Asian (5.47%) and 7 were multiracial (1.06%). In terms of relationship status, 122(15.5%) of men identified as single, 95 (12.1%) as married with no children, 311 (39.5%) as married with children, 57(7.2%) as being with partner with no children, 37 (4.7%) as being with partner with children, 23 (2.9%) as divorced. Further, 181 (23%) reported having elderly family to take of and 464 (59%) did not report elderly care, and 18% did not answer this question. As for sexual orientation, 608 (76.6%) identified as straight, 23(2.9%) as gay, 13(1.7%) as bisexual, and 6 (.8%) as transsexual or queer. Additionally, majority of the mean in the sample identified as low to middle class or middle class. Specifically, 29 (3.7%) of the men identified as low class, 171 (21.7%) identified as lower middle class, 308 (39.1%) identified as middle class, 90 (11.4%) identified as upper middle class, and 47 (6%) men identified as upper class. Participation was completed online. As incentives for participation, participants were compensated with $1 Amazon gift card.

Structural Equation Modeling analysis was conducted to examine the fit of the proposed model for Research Questions 1. For Research Question 2, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed with four core variables (levels of father's involvement in family, conformity to masculinity, traditionality of career and multiple role self-efficacy) as the independent variable and job satisfaction, family satisfaction and life satisfaction as the four dependent variables. To further identify how the subgroups of the four core variables differed among the three well-being variables, discriminant analyses were applied to identify the dimensions along which the relevant subgroups differed most conspicuously.

Review of Results

Results from data analysis revealed interesting findings related to the multiple role management of working men. With regard to the first research question, two alternative

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structural models were examined for each job-life satisfaction and family-life satisfaction model. The alternative structural models tested the possibility that paternal contextual variables would only yield an indirect path to work family positive spillover. Alternative Job satisfaction model produced an χ^2 statistic of 1517.341 (df = 448, p <.001), a CFI of .93, and an RMSEA of .65. These values indicated less adequate model fit, according to Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria. In addition, direct comparison of the two structural models through chi-square test for different testing indicated that the target model offered significantly better fit to the data (χ^2 = 174.239, df=12 p < .001).

Alternative family satisfaction model produced an χ^2 statistic of 1724.50 (df = 449, p <.001), a CFI of .92, and an RMSEA of .71. These values indicated less adequate model fit, according to Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria. In addition, direct comparison of the two structural models through chi-square test for different testing indicated that the target model offered significantly better fit to the data (χ^2 = 174.465, df=12 p < .001). The primary job-life satisfaction model was found to yield a chi-square statistic of 1509.703 (df=437, p<.001), a CFI of .93, an RMSEA of .066, a TLI of .92, and WRMR of 1.55, suggesting moderate fit to the data. Taken together, independent variables were found to account for 5% of job satisfaction and 20% of life satisfaction. As such, there is partial support for Hypothesis 7, which was predicted that the proposed model of work satisfaction would produce a good overall fit to the data.

Hypotheses 1 through 4 concerned intercorrelations among variables in the primary model. Results indicate that CM has minimal association with MRSE at -.006 (p>.05), and with MORE at -.0009 (p>.05). As such, there is a lack of support for Hypothesis 1. In addition, results indicate that job satisfaction was positively associated with life satisfaction at .45 (p<.01), suggesting there is a moderate to strong relationship between job satisfaction and life

satisfaction. Also it was found family satisfaction was positively associated with life satisfaction at .40 (p<.01). This indicates there is a moderate relationship between family satisfaction and life satisfaction. As such, Hypothesis 2 was supported. Results indicated that there is significant positive correlation between work family positive spillover and job satisfaction at .22, p<.01, and significant positive correlation between work family spillover and family satisfaction at .29, p<.01. Therefore Hypotheses 3 a) and b) were supported. There is a minimal positive relationship between work family positive spillover and conformity to masculinity at .041, p>.05, as such hypothesis 3-c) was not supported. Finally, there is a moderate positive relationship between FSSB and PSO at .34 (p<.01). As such hypothesis 4 was supported.

The role of indirect effect was examined through Hypotheses 5 and 6. Results of the data analyses found no mediation effects of MRSE between CM and PSO while there is a significant mediating effect of MROE between CM and PSO.

From MANOVA and Discriminant Analysis, as a whole, these analyses found there was a statistically significant difference in working men's job, family, and life satisfaction based on 1) traditionally of career , $F (3, 590) = 9.183$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.955$, 2) level of father's involvement in the family, $F (3, 590) = 7.91$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.961$, and 3) level of multiple role self-efficacy $F (3, 590) = 25.03$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = .887$, 4) interaction of traditionality of career and conformity to masculine norms $F (3, 590) = 2.70$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = .986$ 5) interaction of level of father's involvement in the family and multiple role self-efficacy $F (3, 590) = 2.92$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = .99$, 6) Interaction of traditionally of career, conformity to masculine norms, and multiple role self-efficacy $F (3, 590) = 4.17$, $p < .0001$; Wilk's $\Lambda = .887$.

To further identify how the subgroups of the four core variables differed among the three well-being variables, elucidating the directionality of the associations, discriminant function analyses were applied to identify the dimensions along which the relevant subgroups differed most distinctly. From Discriminant Analysis, results suggest that participants believed men with different traditionality of career, level of father involvement, conformity to masculinity and multiple role self-efficacy were contributing to the discrimination among job, family, and life satisfaction of working men. More specifically, following five conclusions were made in terms of directionality of the results. 1) Participants believed that men with low male traditional career (e.g., nurse) would have higher family and job satisfaction than that of men with high male traditional career (e.g., engineer). 2) Participants believed that men with low conformity to masculine norms (e.g., someone believes that it is acceptable for men to express emotion publicly) would have higher family, job, and life satisfaction than that of men with low conformity to masculine norms (e.g., someone believes that it is not acceptable for men to express emotion publicly).3) Participants believed that men with high level of Multiple Role Self-Efficacy (e.g., someone who feels capable of managing both work and family) would have higher job, family, and life satisfaction than that of men with low level of Multiple Role Self-Efficacy (e.g., someone who feels incapable of managing both work and family). 4) Participants believed that men with male traditional career (e.g., engineer) with low level of conformity to masculine norms (e.g., someone believes that it is acceptable for men to express emotion publicly) would have higher family satisfaction. 5) Participants believed that men with low level of father involvement (IV2), low level of conformity to masculine norms (IV3) and high level of multiple role self-efficacy (IV4) would have higher job satisfaction.

Discussion

The structural model, which consisted of the 10 hypothesized variables in the Lent and Brown (2013) model, was used to examine the direct and indirect effects of conformity to masculine norms, paternal role model, traditionality of career, multiple role self-efficacy, multiple role outcome expectation, work family positive spillover, job/family satisfaction and life satisfaction. The hypothesis stated that data would demonstrate adequate fit with the SCCT career management theory in the context of working men's coping with multiple role management considering paternal and masculine norms as distal contextual factor. After conducting measurement model analysis, which indicated an acceptable model fit, structural equation modeling analyses were run to assess fit between data and the proposed model. The results of structural equation modeling analyses partially supported the data. A possible explanation for this finding is that the results indicate limited reliability and validity of instruments. One of most important things when conducting structural equation modeling is to have psychometrically solid scales (Kline, 2010). Some of the scales that were used in the current study were not validated with male population (e.g., multiple role self-efficacy, multiple role outcome expectation). This can compromise the reliability and validity of this measure. In addition, the work family positive spillover instrument's item level intercorrelation was relatively high. This indicates that there might not be six factors as the item developer asserted and might have resulted in low factor loadings in the measurement model. In sum, it is important to note that findings of the measurement model may be a function of how variables were measured in the study and the specific instruments that were used to measure the constructs. Given empirical evidence of measurement concerns for several constructs in the current study, It is possible that the relatively poor model fit might have been a function of measurement

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concerns and a mis-specified model rather than an absence or lack of relationship among constructs,

Conformity to masculine norms, paternal role model and traditionality of career were not found to add unique variance in the prediction of work family positive spillover after accounting for other variables in the model. Each of these variables produced weak bivariate relations with work family positive spillover. It may be that these paternal/masculine contextual factors are too distal to have direct effect on target behavior of work family spillover.

Another possible explanation for this finding reflects the nature of the paternal multiple role model construct. Because this construct was dichotomous item, the construct may not have fully represented the paternal multiple role model construct. In addition, while researchers advocate for the importance of early family experience such as paternal role model in later multiple role management (e.g., Allen, 1997), these arguments are often made from theoretical or conceptual perspective and lack empirical evidence. Although paternal multiple role model construct did not have strong relation with work family positive spillover, this study at least examined the direct relationship between the two. Further empirical investigation including possible mediators or moderators are warranted in order to illuminate the relationship between paternal role model and men's work family interface.

Interestingly, this non-significant finding is actually in line with past research. There is a consensus in the literature that distal contextual factors, compared to proximal contextual factors, are not readily modifiable when it comes to effecting target behavior (e.g., Lent 2004). This also explains the fact that distal contextual factors tends to have weak relation with target outcome variable. It may be that the influence of gender norms are so pervasive and ingrained in men's lives early on that they are difficult to modify later in life. This non-significant direct relation, in

a way, calls for further research examining male gender norms and work-family interface among working men. Although there is emerging empirical literature examining role of masculine norms in understanding male in non-traditional occupations, such as stay-at-home fathers (Rochlen, Good, & Carver, 2009; Rochlen, Suizzo, McKelley, & Scaringi, 2008), these studies tend to focus on males who have non-traditional occupations, rather than examining the entirety of male workers in their studies. The current study provided some empirical evidence among male gender norm and paternal variable and working men, in traditional occupations and non-traditional occupations, work family interface as well as their well-being. Furthermore, the current research extended current multiple role literature by examining gender identity, especially male gender norms given none of SCCT research focused on male gender norms as opposed to women's self-efficacy or feminist attitudes (e.g., Flores & O'Brien, 2002).

While the data did not fully support the paternal and masculine distal contextual variable within SCCT career management theory, the paths extending from multiple role self-efficacy and outcome expectation to work family positive spillover, and work family positive spillover to job, family, and life satisfaction were significant. These significant findings suggest that some relationships among constructs were present. This finding has the following four implications.

First, the moderate relationship between job and life satisfaction in the findings are consistent with existing research, asserting that job satisfaction is strongly associated with life satisfaction. Several meta-analysis examining the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction indicate a significant, moderate association between job satisfaction and subjective well-being (e.g., Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010; Tait et al., 1989).

Second, the finding of a significant relationship between work family positive spillover and job and family satisfaction is in line with previous research (e.g., Allis & O'Driscoll, 2008).

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Allis and O'Driscoll found that spillover from "non-work" to work contributed to an individual's well-being and the engagement in non-work activities yields positive psychological and work well-being. Their finding supports current results that engaging and coping with multiple roles have a positive effect on an individual's job satisfaction and subjective well-being.

Third, while there was a lack of support in the relationship between multiple role self-efficacy and work family positive spillover, a strong relationship was found between multiple role outcome expectation and work family positive spillover. This finding supports two lines of theoretical backgrounds and existing research: 1) According to role enhancement perspective, increased numbers of roles enhance individual's well-being as well as emotional gratification (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974; Thoits, 1983 in Ahrens & Ryff, 2006). Current research findings also suggest that when people hold a stronger belief that engaging in multiple roles would yield positive outcome, there is stronger spillover from work/family to family/work. In short, the positive relationship between multiple role outcome expectation and work family positive spillover in current research soundly supports the existing research in the area of multiple role enhancement (2) One of core assumptions of social cognitive theory is that people are more likely to engage in goal directed behavior or activity when they believe the effort will produce positive consequences (Lent & Brown, 2013). In addition, because the outcome expectation variable is viewed as a modifiable variable (e.g., Lent, 2004), specific intervention that targets multiple role outcome expectation could yield greater job, family, and life satisfaction in working men. The importance of outcome expectation to target behavior or positive outcome has been soundly established in prior studies (e.g., Dunn & O'Brien, 2013; Lent, Brown, Nota, & Soresi, 2003) and current findings provide important empirical support in the context of multiple role management. This is especially meaningful as very few studies of SCCT have specifically

examined outcome expectation, and much of the existing multiple role research tended to focus on self-efficacy (Kirby, 2014). As such, the examination of both multiple role self-efficacy and multiple role outcome expectation provided an important empirical support in SCCT career management theory, specifically in the context of male worker's masculine norms.

Fourth, the significant relationship between family supportive supervisor behavior and work family positive spillover are in line with two lines of past research: 1) Many SCCT researchers examined the importance of support in target outcome behavior and found significant relationship between the two (e.g., Leong, 1997 Lent et al., 1994; Singh et al., 2013). The current study provides additional empirical evidence on the importance of family supportive supervisor as contextual support in target behavior of multiple role management. 2) The significant relationship between family supportive supervisor behavior and work family positive spillover has been soundly established in prior organizational research (e.g., Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The current finding is in line with prior research and provides additional support in context of male worker's work family positive spillover. In conclusion, while the model did not yield excellent fit, there is some empirical support for the hypothesized relationship within the structural model, specifically among multiple role outcome expectation, work family positive spillover and job/family satisfaction.

The findings from the vignette experiment can shed additional light on these distal contextual factors and multiple role management and well-being outcomes. While paternal and masculine norms did not have significant effect on work family positive spillover and other outcome variables within the SCCT model, there was a statistically significant difference in working men's job, family, and life satisfaction based on paternal/masculine contextual factors, such as traditionality of career, level of paternal involvement and conformity to masculine

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norms. The experimental portion of the study provided empirical support that these distal contextual factors do indeed affect working men's job, family, and life satisfaction.

Participants in the vignette experiments believed that men with low male traditional career (e.g., nurse) would have higher job satisfaction than that of men with high male traditional career (e.g., engineer). This finding suggests that traditionality of career has an impact on working men's job satisfaction. Prior research demonstrated support for this finding. Dodson and Borders compared male school counselors' and male engineers' job satisfaction in the context of their gender role attitudes. They found that despite a wide discrepancy in salaries, school counselors reported significantly more job satisfaction than did the engineers. They indicated while their finding contrasted with previous studies that men in nontraditional careers are more dissatisfied (e.g., Haring-Hidore & Beyard-Tyler, 1984 in Dodson & Border, 2006), men today are likely able to enjoy their work better in nontraditional occupations. It is possible that because high conformity in male gender norms are associated with lower level of job or life satisfaction, men in low male traditional careers, who likely have low conformity to male gender role, are more likely have higher well-being in their lives.

Participants with different levels of conformity to masculine norms varied on all levels of satisfaction, but mainly varied on family satisfaction. Generally, participants believed that men with low conformity to masculine norms (e.g., someone believes that it is acceptable for men to express emotion publicly) would have higher family, job, and life satisfaction than that of men with high conformity to masculine norms (e.g., someone believes that it is not acceptable for men to express emotion publicly). Among the three different types of satisfaction examined, family satisfaction was differentiated the most by levels of conformity to masculine norms. This finding supports existing research that examined masculine norms and well-being. For example,

men's conformity to traditional masculine norms was found to be negatively associated with relationship satisfaction of men and their female romantic partners (Burn & Ward, 2005). This finding can be related to higher family satisfaction with low conformity to masculine norms in the current study. Another study that examined the stay at home father's well-being in the context of conformity to masculine norms found that conformity to masculine norms was negatively related to life satisfaction (Rochlen, McKelley, Suizzo, & Scaringi, 2008). While the sample only consisted of stay at home fathers, the similar relation between conformity to masculine norm and job satisfaction was found in the current research with a broader sample of working men.

Participants with different levels of multiple role self-efficacy varied on all levels of well-being: job, family, and life satisfaction, but mainly on job satisfaction. Generally, participants believed that men with a high level of Multiple Role Self-Efficacy (e.g., someone who feels capable of managing both work and family) would have higher job, family, and life satisfaction than that of men with low level of multiple role self-efficacy (e.g., someone who feels incapable of managing both work and family). Among the three different measures of satisfaction, job satisfaction was differentiated the most by levels of multiple role self-efficacy. This finding is in line with previous research that examined the relationship among multiple role balance, job satisfaction and life satisfaction in women school counselors (Bryant & Constantine, 2006). Findings indicate that multiple role balance and job satisfaction were each positively predictive of overall life satisfaction. Although this study only included women, given the paucity of multiple role management research with male participants only, the finding is still relevant in examining the relationship among multiple role management and well-being constructs.

The vignette experiment results further illuminate the relationship between distal contextual factors and outcome variables in the SCCT portion of study. The results from MANOVA and DFA supplements the results from SEM. Because participants were asked directly to evaluate someone's job, family, and life satisfaction from three distal contextual factors (traditionality of career, level of paternal involvement, and conformity to masculine norms) and multiple role self-efficacy, the vignette approach allowed one to examine the role of these contextual factors on working men's various well-being outcomes. In addition, because there were two extreme scenarios in each core variable in the vignette approach, it allowed one to make more direct interpretation of the result, unlike in SEM where there were range of differences in responses. In sum, result from the vignette experiment provides additional information between distal contextual factors and dependent variables that were not apparent in SEM examination.

Taking all analyses into consideration-both the test of SCCT and vignette experiment analysis-there are some empirical supports for the hypothesized relationships within the social cognitive career management theory. In the structural model, masculine and paternal contextual factors did not have strong association with work family positive spillover or job, family satisfaction. It may be that these factors are rather personal attributes which are hard to modify within psychological means and are difficult to change later in life. It also reflects the lack of identifying a possible mediator or moderator among the constructs. Despite the weak relationship between distal contextual factors and outcome variables, there was strong association among multiple role outcome expectation, work family positive spillover and job/family satisfaction. These findings are in line with prior SCCT and work family research that outcome expectation is a good predictor of positive goal oriented activity/outcome variable (e.g., Lent, 2004) as well as

work family positive spillover being an important predictor of job/family satisfaction (e.g., McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2009).

All things considered, the results of this study suggest that gaining a solid understanding of working men's job, family, and life satisfaction can best be achieved by assessing their multiple role self-efficacy and outcome expectation, work conditions (such as family friendly supervisor support) and paternal and masculine contextual factors (such as traditionality of career, paternal role model in multiple life role management, and conformity to masculine norms). Men who have low conformity to masculine norms, low traditionality of career, and high level of self-efficacy espouse strong work family positive spillover and high levels of job, family, and life satisfaction. The results of the present study provide partial support for Lent and Brown (2013) social cognitive career management model in the context of coping with managing multiple roles in men's life evidenced by 1) significant path among multiple role outcome expectation, work family positive spillover and job/family/life satisfaction 2) discriminant function of three contextual factor (traditionality of career, level of paternal involvement and conformity to masculine norms) and multiple role self-efficacy in men's job/family/life satisfaction.

Theoretical Implications

One of the theoretical aims of this study was to apply Social Cognitive Career Management theory in multiple role management among working men. Previous research has suggested that self-efficacy and outcome expectation might be important components of work family positive spillover and job satisfaction (e.g., Kirby 2014; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2009), but no study, to date, examined multiple role management from men's perspectives, taking masculine norms into consideration. Currently, the theoretical and empirical SCCT

literature has failed to consider the role of masculine norms in any area of inquiry. This contrasts with other SCCT studies that did incorporate female gender norms, such as feminist attitudes, in women's career development (e.g., Flores &O'Brien, 2002; Kirby, 2014). This study, therefore, provides some evidence that contextual variables such as conformity to masculine norms and paternal role model are critical to the multiple role management of working men. Relatedly, it is also notable that most SCCT studies focused on career decision making or entry into college or the workforce rather than coping with challenges while at work. In sum, this study extends the current literature and theoretical conceptualization of SCCT by incorporating multiple management coping and masculine gender norms.

Methodological Implications

This study has methodological implications for counseling psychology research. The use of the vignette experiment allowed for the examination of the association among distal contextual factors in SCCT and outcome variables more directly. This reiterates the need for multiple research methods in examining SCCT constructs, especially when one wants to examine distal contextual factors. While the use of third-person vignette-in which participants projected themselves into another person's situation is different from manipulating participants' own behavior, research on vignette experiments methods asserts clear advantages when compared with direct questioning about one's own behavior (Alexander, Becker, & Becker, 2014).

Alexander and his colleagues assert that use of third-person vignette allow the respondent to be less consciously biased in his report in the direction of impression-management. Additionally, they argue that "because most people are not particularly insightful about the factors that enter their own judgement-making process," vignette approach can help researchers elucidate the relationships among certain factors, especially "when the factors are highly

correlated in the real world such as, employee's age and length of service." Lastly, they assert

that "the systematic variation of characteristics in the vignette allows for a rather precise estimate

of the effects of changes in combinations of variables as well as individual variables on

corresponding changes in respondent attitude or judgment." Therefore, one needs to keep in

mind both the advantages and limitations of this use of third-person experiment approach in

making causal relationships among constructs as the theory originally asserted. While the

vignette approach has limitations (e.g., use of third-person approach, lack of variability in one

factor), because most of SCCT research only used self-report survey, use of vignette method can

allow researchers to examine the theory from experimental approach.

Lastly, the inclusion of variables that were not previously examined in the area of

research allowed for the expansion of the conceptualization of the relations among masculine

contextual factors and well-being constructs in the context of multiple role management. By

considering this new contextual factor (e.g. masculinity), theory can be better understood and the

validity of the SCCT models can be improved with consideration of male gender norms.

Clinical Implications

Results of the present study may also have implications for counselors and psychologists

working with male individuals who are managing multiple life roles as well as those who are

interested in developing intervention or policy that targets job, family, and life satisfaction of

male workers. The influence of contextual factors within SCCT provides critical emphasis on

areas of working individuals' various well-being (job, family, and life satisfaction). Significant

variance in the prediction of job and family satisfaction was contributed by the work family

positive spillover. If a career counselor or psychologist only looks at an individual's career

values, interests and abilities in addressing their job satisfaction, for example, the importance of

managing multiple life roles may be overlooked at addressing employed men's job satisfaction. In addition, there was a significant effect of masculine norms and paternal involvement on working men's job, family, and life satisfaction. These findings point to the importance of professionals developing an intervention to address male workers' well-being to consider contextual factors such as their masculine norms and other paternal involvement history.

 At an individual level, although it is possibly a less discussed topic, consideration of a given man's masculine identity may be an important topic to incorporate within career counseling or therapy in general to inform men's sense of multiple role management. It is also notable that men's sense of conformity to masculine norms had more effect on their female partners' relationship satisfaction than their own relationship satisfaction (Burn & Ward, 2005). Career counselors and psychologists, therefore, should take care to become aware of the male clients' gender identity as well as their own to explore their possible effect on multiple role management as well as the various consequences to the well-being of the individual and their partners also. Efforts should be made to help men in making informed career and life decisions that counts for their sense of masculine norms and self-efficacy as well as their ability, interest and other life circumstances.

The present study also informs possible intervention and policy making for organizations and employers. The significant paths from multiple role outcome expectation to work family positive spillover and to job satisfaction may have implications for their practice and policy making. It is worth noting because job satisfaction inevitably affects organizational level productivity, individual's organizational commitment and subsequent turnover intentions (Singh et al., 2013). In the realm of addressing employee well-being for both the individual and for organization, it is recommended that organizations attempt to consider male workers' multiple

life roles and create a work environment that is considerate of their non-life roles as there is a spillover effect between work and family. In addition, given outcome expectation is considered a modifiable variable (Lent, 2004), if the organization is aware of the importance of multiple role management and attempt to create an environment, intervention or policy that aims to increase male workers' multiple role outcome expectation, it is likely that their job satisfaction will be increased.

Limitations

Present findings should be considered in light of a number of limitations. First, while some significant paths exist in the measurement model, overall model fit between data and the model was not excellent and it is partly a function of measurement concerns. The possible reasons for measurement issues are following 1) the level of father involvement construct is a dichotomous variable and it is unlikely that it adequately represents the constructs with limited variance. Because the paternal role model construct within the present study may not have fully assessed the construct, it is reasonable that there is an absence of empirical support of paternal role model in multiple role management as a predictor of self-efficacy, outcome expectation and work family spillover 2) it seemed that 6 factor structure of work family spillover was not well identified within the data and as such it likely contributed to the misspecified model fit 3) validity of multiple role self-efficacy and outcome expectation instruments are questionable as these scales were developed with women in the original studies and the current study only examined male participants. Thus, the multiple role self-efficacy and outcome expectation constructs may be better represented by an alternative instrument that was developed with men and also more closely assess male workers' multiple role management. In short, because of these

measurement concerns, it is possible that findings for this sample lack stability and might not replicate in another sample of working men.

Second, the current study tested a specific model of social cognitive career management theory in a parsimonious manner, thus leaving out many important variables that concern job, family, and life satisfaction. This explains that most of the variance in the job and family satisfaction of this particular sample was accounted for by 20 percent and there still remains 80 percent of variance unaccounted for. Examples of other variables that might account for the rest of variance might include personality traits, partner support and job conditions (e.g., autonomy).

Third, the sample used in the current study limits generalizability in several ways. While attempts were made to recruit working men with diverse sociocultural backgrounds, the majority of the participants represented heterosexual, middle class, Caucasian men; as such these results may not generalize to other groups of working men such as ethnic minorities or men with a different sexual orientation or identity. In addition, the mean age of all participants was 35.41 (SD=10.21). This indicates that this study cannot be generalized to mid-life and elderly male population. It is also of note that when the snowball sampling procedure was conducted, because the personal contacts of the principal investigator were likely college educated and beyond, this might have limited the generalizability of the results.

Within the vignette experiment approach, it is apparent that the vignette that was developed lacked substantive information and it contained very limited information about the third person, Joe. While it was conducted to reduce the confounding error, a more elaborate vignette that represented a real-life scenario might have improved the interpretation of the results. In addition, the vignette would be improved if it had more specific work-nonwork scenario rather than having broad content relating to conformity to masculinity. For example,

asking participants how they experience spending time in the kitchen for their family could capture more specific non-work/family aspects of their lives.

Implications for Future Research

Findings from the current study offer a number of future directions. The results extend prior multiple role management research by focusing on the male perspective, which is understudied, and thus provides initial and tentative empirical support for the relationships among conformity to masculine norms, paternal involvement, traditionality of career and their sense of multiple role management and other well-being indications.

Because there were several paths that were not significant in the hypothesized structural model, it is recommended that future research explore alternative models to investigate whether a modified model better explains the multiple role management among working men. While demonstrating poor fit with the data, the hypothesized model also suggests several significant relationships among these constructs that are identified within the context of social career cognitive theory. Because there are several measurement concerns, replication of these relationships in future research is critical. As such, future research that replicates these findings would be improved by strengthening the psychometric property of core instruments that are used, such as multiple role self-efficacy, multiple role outcome expectation and work family positive spillover.

In order to better understand the role of masculine norms in working men's life, future research needs to examine the various ways these gender norms may influence numerous dimensions of working men's life. For example, future research should consider examining whether conformity to masculine norms influence their sense of salience as a worker and possible effect on work-family conflict. In addition, examining men's sense of masculine identity

can help identify their values and interests during career transition as well as retirement planning. Furthermore, considering that the gender norms may be often already formed at a younger age, future research needs to examine how these gender norms are formed and influence male K-12 students' sense of career decision self-efficacy. In addition to examining male gender norms at an early age, it is recommended to create an intervention that targets modifying various self-efficacy and outcome expectations that have to do with gender norms.

With respect to the study sample, since this study only included working men, additional studies that examine the validity of the Lent and Brown (2013)'s model with working women are recommended. It would be interesting to investigate whether the model explains working women's multiple role coping, possibly combined with their sense of feminine attitudes, and also whether there are any differences among men and women. Relatedly, further studies are recommended to recruit more ethnic minority men in their sample. This way, the intersection of ethnicity and gender norms in male worker's multiple role management can be examined.

Future researchers are also encouraged to use the Lent and Brown (2013) career management model studying other aspects of coping in working men. For example, it would be interesting to investigate how men's sense of gender identity influence their coping efficacy in job loss, career transition, and retirement. Given that this population (working males from masculine perspective) is rarely studied, this program of research would forward the knowledge in vocational psychology as well as men and masculinity.

Finally, it may be fruitful for future researchers to examine how variables in the current hypothesized model affect other outcome variables such as relationship satisfaction, quality of life, and sex role egalitarianism. The findings from the current study indicate that masculine contextual factors influence male workers various well-being constructs, but there is a lack of

evidence from structural model analysis that there are significant paths between masculine gender norms and multiple role self-efficacy. There is consensus among men and masculinity researchers that there is little research that has examined how male gender norms relate to men's career development (e.g., O'Neil, 2008). Therefore, further examination of different ways in which masculine constructs predict different career-related constructs and outcome variables would contribute better understanding of working men.

Concluding Remarks

The current study is the first empirical test of Lent and Brown (2013)'s social cognitive career management theory with working men. Results from this study provide support for the model when results from structural model analysis and vignette experiments are combined. It is evident from the results of this study that the relationship between masculine contextual factors and various outcome variables were weak from cross-sectional study but vignette experiment results provided stronger evidence for the relationship among the constructs. Future researchers are encouraged to use experimental method when examining distal contextual factor in SCCT.

The results indicate that the predicting variables accounted for 20% of job and family satisfaction. This encourages future researchers to incorporate other variables such as personality, partner support, and affect within the model. For practitioners, these findings point to different interventions that can assist male clients' multiple role management as well as job, family, and life satisfaction.

When working with working males, vocational psychologists and career counselors can be more effective if they are aware of the influence of gender norms in the clients' career decisions and behaviors. Furthermore, organizations are encouraged to consider the influence of multiple role management on male employee's job satisfaction. By incorporating male workers'

multiple roles in policy or intervention at work, it is likely that the organization will create an

environment that helps employees have higher job, family and life satisfaction.

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Appendix A

Demographics

What is your age? _____
What is your occupation? _____
What is your race/ethnicity?

      African American/Black
      Latino/Hispanic
      American Indian/Alaska Native
      Asian
      Caucasian/White
      Biracial/Biethnic
      Multiracial/Multiethnic
      Other (please specify) _____

How would you describe your socioeconomic status?

      Low Class
      Low to Middle Class
      Middle Class
      Middle to Upper Class
      Upper Class

What is your relationship status?

      Single
      Married, no children
      Married, with a child/children
      With partner (unmarried), no children
      With partner (unmarried), with a child/children

What is your living situation?

      Living alone
      Living with partner (unmarried), no children
      Living with partner (unmarried), a child/children
      Living with a spouse, no children
      Living with a spouse, a child/children
      Living with elderly member(s)

What is your sexual orientation?

      Straight
      Gay
      Bisexual
      Other (please explain) _____

Do you live with a partner/spouse?

      Yes
      No

Do you have a child/children to take care of?

      Yes
      No

Do you have elderly to take care of?

　　Yes

　　No

What is your education history?

　　Some high school

　　Graduated from high school

　　Some college

　　Graduated from college

　　Working on advanced degree

　　Graduated from advanced degree (masters, doctorate, etc)

Do you or did you consider any of the following people role models? (check all that apply)

　　Mother

　　Father

　　Other female family member/guardian

　　Other male family member/guardian

　　Friends

　　Neighbors

　　Teachers

　　Organizational Leader (please explain)

　　Other (please explain) _____

　　None-I don't feel I have/had any role models in life

Did any of people above serve as a role model in these areas?

	Role model in your WORK	Role model in your FAMILY	Role model for balancing WORK AND FAMILY
	Answer 1	Answer 1	Answer 1
Mother	❑	❑	❑
Father	❑	❑	❑
Other female family member	❑	❑	❑
Other male family member	❑	❑	❑
Friends	❑	❑	❑
Neighbors	❑	❑	❑
Teachers	❑	❑	❑
Organizational Leader	❑	❑	❑
Other	❑	❑	❑
None	❑	❑	❑

Appendix B

<u>Job Satisfaction</u>

Unless otherwise specified, using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

7 - Strongly agree
6 - Agree
5 - Slightly agree
4 - Neither agree nor disagree
3 - Slightly disagree
2 - Disagree
1 - Strongly disagree

1. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.
2. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
3. Each day of work seems like it will never end (R)
4. I find real enjoyment in my work
5. I consider my job rather unpleasant (R)

Appendix C

Multiple Role Self-Efficacy

Unless otherwise specified, using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

7 - Strongly agree
6 - Agree
5 - Slightly agree
4 - Neither agree nor disagree
3 - Slightly disagree
2 - Disagree
1 - Strongly disagree

I am confident that I can

1. Effectively combine my multiple work and non-work life roles
2. Have a lifelong career in addition to fulfilling my various non-work obligations
3. Fulfill all my non-work responsibilities despite having a demanding job/career.

Appendix D

Multiple Role Outcome Expectation

Unless otherwise specified, using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

7 - Strongly agree
6 - Agree
5 - Slightly agree
4 - Neither agree nor disagree
3 - Slightly disagree
2 - Disagree
1 - Strongly disagree

1. If I can manage my multiple life roles, then I will feel good about myself.
2. If I do not manage my time well between my multiple life roles, then I will feel anxious.
3. If I spend too much time working and not enough time in my non-work roles, then I will feel guilty.
4. If I am able to invest my time in my different work and non-work roles in a personally meaningful way, then I will be satisfied with my life.
5. If I spend more time fulfilling my non-work obligations and less time at work, then my co-workers and supervisors will be disappointed in me.
6. If I cannot effectively manage my work and non-work roles, my family will be disappointed.
7. I expect that being able to successfully combine my multiple life roles will be rewarding to me.

Satisfaction With Life Scale

Unless otherwise specified, using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

7 - Strongly agree
6 - Agree
5 - Slightly agree
4 - Neither agree nor disagree
3 - Slightly disagree
2 - Disagree
1 - Strongly disagree

1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.
3. I am satisfied with my life.
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Appendix F

Conformity to Masculine Norm Inventory (CMNI – 22)

The following items contain a series of statements about how men might think, feel or behave.
The statements are designed to measure attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors associated with both
traditional and non-traditional masculine gender roles.

Thinking about your own actions, feelings and beliefs, please indicate how much you personally
agree or disagree with each statement by circling SD for "Strongly Disagree", D for "Disagree",
A for "Agree", or SA for "Strongly agree" to the right of the statement. There are no correct or
wrong answers to the items. You should give the responses that most accurately describe your
personal actions, feelings and beliefs. It is best if you respond with your first impression when
answering.

1.	My work is the most important part of my life	SD	D	A	SA
2.	I make sure people do as I say	SD	D	A	SA
3.	In general, I do not like risky situations	SD	D	A	SA
4.	It would be awful if someone thought I was gay	SD	D	A	SA
5.	I love it when men are in charge of women	SD	D	A	SA
6.	I like to talk about my feelings	SD	D	A	SA
7.	I would feel good if I had many sexual partners	SD	D	A	SA
8.	It is important to me that people think I am heterosexual	SD	D	A	SA
9.	I believe that violence is never justified	SD	D	A	SA
10.	I tend to share my feelings	SD	D	A	SA
11.	I should be in charge	SD	D	A	SA
12.	I would hate to be important	SD	D	A	SA
13.	Sometimes violent action is necessary	SD	D	A	SA
14.	I don't like giving all my attention to work	SD	D	A	SA
15.	More often than not, losing does not bother me	SD	D	A	SA
16.	If I could, I would frequently change sexual partners	SD	D	A	SA
17.	I never do things to be an important person	SD	D	A	SA
18.	I never ask for help	SD	D	A	SA
19.	I enjoy taking risks	SD	D	A	SA
20.	Men and women should respect each other as equals	SD	D	A	SA
21.	Winning isn't everything, it's the only thing	SD	D	A	SA
22.	It bothers me when I have to ask for help	SD	D	A	SA

Family Satisfaction Scale

Unless otherwise specified, using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

7 - Strongly agree
6 - Agree
5 - Slightly agree
4 - Neither agree nor disagree
3 - Slightly disagree
2 - Disagree
1 - Strongly disagree

1. In most ways my family is close to my ideal.
2. The conditions of my family are excellent.
3. I am satisfied with my family.
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in family.
5. If I could live my family over, I would change almost nothing.

Appendix H

Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviors

Unless otherwise specified, using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

7 - Strongly agree
6 - Agree
5 - Slightly agree
4 - Neither agree nor disagree
3 - Slightly disagree
2 - Disagree
1- Strongly disagree

1. My supervisor is willing to listen to my problems in juggling work and nonwork life
2. My supervisor takes the time to learn about my personal needs.
3. My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him or her about my conflicts between work and nonwork.
4. My supervisor and I can talk effectively to solve conflicts between work and nonwork issues.
5. I can depend on my supervisor to help me with scheduling conflicts if I need it.
6. I can rely on my supervisor to make sure my work responsibilities are handled when I have unanticipated nonwork demands.
7. My supervisor works effectively with workers to creatively solve conflicts between work and nonwork.
8. My supervisor is a good role model for work and nonwork balance.
9. My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and nonwork balance.
10. My supervisor demonstrates how a person can jointly be successful on and off the job.
11. My supervisor thinks about how the work in my department can be organized to jointly benefit employees and the company.
12. My supervisor asks for suggestions to make it easier for employees to balance work and nonwork demands.

13. My supervisor is creative in reallocating job duties to help my department work better as a team.
14. My supervisor is able to manage the department as a whole team to enable everyone's needs to be met.

Work Family Positive Spillover

Unless otherwise specified, using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

7 - Strongly agree
6 - Agree
5 - Slightly agree
4 - Neither agree nor disagree
3 - Slightly disagree
2 - Disagree
1- Strongly disagree

1. When things are going well at work, my outlook regarding my family life is improved
2. Being in a positive mood at work helps me to be in a positive mood at home.
3. Being happy at work improves my spirits at home.
4. Having a good day at work allows me to be optimistic with my family.
5. Skills developed at work help me in my family life.
6. Successfully performing tasks at work helps me to more effectively accomplish family tasks.
7. Behaviors required by my job lead to behaviors that assist me in my family life.
8. Carrying out my family responsibilities is made easier by using behaviors performed at work.
9. Values developed at work make me a better family member.
10. I apply the principles my workplace values in family situations.
11. Values that I learn throughout my work experiences assist me in fulfilling my family responsibilities.
12. When things are going well in my family life, my outlook regarding my job is improved.
13. Being in a positive mood at home helps me to be in a positive mood at work.
14. Being happy at home improves my spirits at work.
15. Having a good day with my family allows me to be optimistic at work.
16. Skills developed in my family life help me in my job.
17. Successfully performing tasks in my family life helps me to more effectively accomplish tasks at work.
18. Behaviors required in my family life lead to behaviors that assist me at work.
19. Carrying out my work responsibilities is made easier by using behaviors performed as part of my family life.
20. Values developed in my family make me a better employee.
21. I apply the principles my family values in work situations.

22. Values that I learn through my family experiences assist me in fulfilling my work responsibilities.

Appendix J. Participants Occupation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	70	8.9	8.9	8.9
Manager	1	.1	.1	9.0
Academic Advisor	1	.1	.1	9.1
accountant	3	.4	.4	9.5
Accountant	2	.3	.3	9.8
Accounting	10	1.3	1.3	11.1
Accounting Manager	1	.1	.1	11.2
Adjunct faculty	1	.1	.1	11.3
Admin	1	.1	.1	11.4
Administration	1	.1	.1	11.6
Administrative assistant	1	.1	.1	11.7
Administrative Support	1	.1	.1	11.8
Administrator	1	.1	.1	11.9
Advertising	1	.1	.1	12.1
Advertising Sales	1	.1	.1	12.2
Agricultural worker	1	.1	.1	12.3
airline employee	1	.1	.1	12.5
Analyst	6	.8	.8	13.2
app developer	1	.1	.1	13.3
Application Engineer	1	.1	.1	13.5
architect	1	.1	.1	13.6
architectural technician	1	.1	.1	13.7
Architecture	1	.1	.1	13.9
Area sales manager	1	.1	.1	14.0

artisan	2	.3	.3	14.2
Artist	2	.3	.3	14.5
Asset management	1	.1	.1	14.6
Assisstant	1	.1	.1	14.7
assistant manager	1	.1	.1	14.9
at-home parent	1	.1	.1	15.0
Athletic Trainer	1	.1	.1	15.1
Attorney	1	.1	.1	15.2
Audio Engineers	1	.1	.1	15.4
automotive repair technician	1	.1	.1	15.5
automotive technician	1	.1	.1	15.6
Aviation Mechanic	1	.1	.1	15.8
banker	2	.3	.3	16.0
Banker - Financial Services	1	.1	.1	16.1
banking	1	.1	.1	16.3
Banking	1	.1	.1	16.4
Banking - Loss Mitigation	1	.1	.1	16.5
Bartender	1	.1	.1	16.6
Beauty	1	.1	.1	16.8
behavioral therapy	1	.1	.1	16.9
Bond Analyst	1	.1	.1	17.0
Branch Manager	1	.1	.1	17.2
Broadcast Media	1	.1	.1	17.3
broker	1	.1	.1	17.4
Building maintenance	1	.1	.1	17.5
Business Analyst	2	.3	.3	17.8
Business Development	1	.1	.1	17.9

business owner	2	.3	.3	18.2
Business Owner - Software	1	.1	.1	18.3
Buyer	1	.1	.1	18.4
Buying	1	.1	.1	18.6
Call Center Coach/Trainer/QA	1	.1	.1	18.7
Caregiver	1	.1	.1	18.8
carpenter	2	.3	.3	19.1
cashier	1	.1	.1	19.2
CEO	2	.3	.3	19.4
cfo	2	.3	.3	19.7
CFO	11	1.4	1.4	21.1
chef	1	.1	.1	21.2
Chef	2	.3	.3	21.5
Civil Engineer	2	.3	.3	21.7
Civil Engineering	1	.1	.1	21.9
Clekr	1	.1	.1	22.0
clerk	1	.1	.1	22.1
Clerk	1	.1	.1	22.2
CNA	1	.1	.1	22.4
COMMERCIAL PROPERTY DEVELOPMENT	1	.1	.1	22.5
Commercial Real Estate Analyst	1	.1	.1	22.6
Computer Consultant	1	.1	.1	22.7
Computer Forensics	1	.1	.1	22.9
Computer Repair Technician	1	.1	.1	23.0
Computer software	1	.1	.1	23.1

Computer Support	1	.1	.1	23.3
Computer Technician	1	.1	.1	23.4
construction	1	.1	.1	23.5
Construction	3	.4	.4	23.9
construction manager	1	.1	.1	24.0
construction worker	1	.1	.1	24.1
consultant	1	.1	.1	24.3
Consultant	2	.3	.3	24.5
Consulting	2	.3	.3	24.8
Contract Labor	1	.1	.1	24.9
contractor	2	.3	.3	25.2
Contruction Worker	1	.1	.1	25.3
coo	2	.3	.3	25.5
Coo	1	.1	.1	25.7
COO	13	1.7	1.7	27.3
cook	1	.1	.1	27.4
counselor	2	.3	.3	27.7
cpa	1	.1	.1	27.8
creative	1	.1	.1	28.0
Credit Analyst	1	.1	.1	28.1
current undergraduate student	1	.1	.1	28.2
Customer Representative	1	.1	.1	28.3
customer service	1	.1	.1	28.5
Customer service	1	.1	.1	28.6
Customer Service	3	.4	.4	29.0
Customer Service Rep.	1	.1	.1	29.1

Customer Service Representative	1	.1	.1	29.2
customer severice	1	.1	.1	29.4
Dance teacher	1	.1	.1	29.5
Data Center Operator	1	.1	.1	29.6
data clerk	1	.1	.1	29.7
data manager	1	.1	.1	29.9
database management	1	.1	.1	30.0
dds	1	.1	.1	30.1
Design	1	.1	.1	30.2
designer	1	.1	.1	30.4
Developer	1	.1	.1	30.5
Developmental Engineer	1	.1	.1	30.6
DEVOPS	1	.1	.1	30.7
df	1	.1	.1	30.9
Diesel Technician	1	.1	.1	31.0
direct service	2	.3	.3	31.3
director	1	.1	.1	31.4
Director of creative affairs	1	.1	.1	31.5
Director of Education	1	.1	.1	31.6
Director of Operations	1	.1	.1	31.8
Director of Sales	1	.1	.1	31.9
Director of Technology	1	.1	.1	32.0
disabled	1	.1	.1	32.1
dispatcher	1	.1	.1	32.3
Distribution	2	.3	.3	32.5

Dock Administrator	1	.1	.1	32.7
Doctor	3	.4	.4	33.0
drafter	1	.1	.1	33.2
drect support worker	1	.1	.1	33.3
driver	1	.1	.1	33.4
driving	1	.1	.1	33.5
E-Sales Agent	1	.1	.1	33.7
Economist	1	.1	.1	33.8
editor	1	.1	.1	33.9
Education	3	.4	.4	34.3
Educational administrator	1	.1	.1	34.4
educator	2	.3	.3	34.7
Educator	1	.1	.1	34.8
electrician	1	.1	.1	34.9
engineer	7	.9	.9	35.8
Engineer	4	.5	.5	36.3
Engineering	2	.3	.3	36.6
Engineering Management	1	.1	.1	36.7
Entertainment	1	.1	.1	36.8
entrepreneur	1	.1	.1	37.0
Factory Worker	1	.1	.1	37.1
farmer	1	.1	.1	37.2
fe	1	.1	.1	37.4
finance	1	.1	.1	37.5
Finance	1	.1	.1	37.6
Finance Director	1	.1	.1	37.7
finance officer	1	.1	.1	37.9
financial advisor	2	.3	.3	38.1
Financial Counselor	1	.1	.1	38.2

Financial service	1	.1	.1	38.4
firefighter	2	.3	.3	38.6
Fiscal Analyst	2	.3	.3	38.9
Fitness instructor	1	.1	.1	39.0
Floor Tech/Housekeeper	1	.1	.1	39.1
Forklift Driver	2	.3	.3	39.4
Fraud financial	1	.1	.1	39.5
Fraud Prevention	1	.1	.1	39.6
freelancer	1	.1	.1	39.8
Freelancer	2	.3	.3	40.0
Full-time caregiver, freelance artist.	1	.1	.1	40.2
Fundraiser	1	.1	.1	40.3
game designer	1	.1	.1	40.4
General administrative management,	1	.1	.1	40.5
General and administrative	1	.1	.1	40.7
General Business	1	.1	.1	40.8
GM	1	.1	.1	40.9
Golf Pro	1	.1	.1	41.0
government	1	.1	.1	41.2
Grad student/ TA	1	.1	.1	41.3
graduate assistant	1	.1	.1	41.4
Graduate school student (TA)	1	.1	.1	41.6
Graphic designer	1	.1	.1	41.7

graphics consultant	1	.1	.1	41.8
headteacher	1	.1	.1	41.9
Health Care	1	.1	.1	42.1
Health Care Professional - Assisted Living Service Worker	1	.1	.1	42.2
Health Care Provider	1	.1	.1	42.3
Healthcare consultant	1	.1	.1	42.4
healthcare IT	1	.1	.1	42.6
homemaker	1	.1	.1	42.7
homemaker (yeah, I know)	1	.1	.1	42.8
hospitality	1	.1	.1	42.9
hotel clerk	1	.1	.1	43.1
housekeeper	1	.1	.1	43.2
HR Manager	1	.1	.1	43.3
human resources	1	.1	.1	43.5
Human Resources	1	.1	.1	43.6
Human resources management	1	.1	.1	43.7
Human Services	1	.1	.1	43.8
Information Technology	2	.3	.3	44.1
insurance	1	.1	.1	44.2
Insurance	1	.1	.1	44.3
Insurance Actuary	2	.3	.3	44.6
insurance agent	1	.1	.1	44.7

Insurance Agent	1	.1	.1	44.9
Insurance Sales	1	.1	.1	45.0
interaction designer	1	.1	.1	45.1
INTERNET	1	.1	.1	45.2
inventory control	1	.1	.1	45.4
inventory control/ purchasing	1	.1	.1	45.5
it	3	.4	.4	45.9
IT	13	1.7	1.7	47.5
IT Administrator	1	.1	.1	47.6
IT Consultant	1	.1	.1	47.8
IT Manager	2	.3	.3	48.0
IT professional	1	.1	.1	48.2
IT Professional	1	.1	.1	48.3
IT security	2	.3	.3	48.5
It supervisor	1	.1	.1	48.7
IT supervisor	1	.1	.1	48.8
IT Support	1	.1	.1	48.9
it tech	1	.1	.1	49.0
IT Tech	1	.1	.1	49.2
Job Coach	1	.1	.1	49.3
journalist	1	.1	.1	49.4
judge	1	.1	.1	49.6
Lab supervisor	1	.1	.1	49.7
laborer	1	.1	.1	49.8
Laborer	1	.1	.1	49.9
Landscaper	1	.1	.1	50.1

Law Enforcement Dispatcher	1	.1	.1	50.2
lawyer	1	.1	.1	50.3
Lawyer	1	.1	.1	50.4
LAWYER	1	.1	.1	50.6
legal clerk	1	.1	.1	50.7
Legal Secretary.	1	.1	.1	50.8
Letter carrier	1	.1	.1	51.0
Librarian	1	.1	.1	51.1
Licensed Massage Therapist	1	.1	.1	51.2
logistic manager	1	.1	.1	51.3
Logistics	1	.1	.1	51.5
logistics/distribution	1	.1	.1	51.6
Machine operator (manufacturing)	1	.1	.1	51.7
machinist	1	.1	.1	51.8
maintanance	1	.1	.1	52.0
maintenance	1	.1	.1	52.1
management	1	.1	.1	52.2
Management	2	.3	.3	52.5
manager	7	.9	.9	53.4
Manager	4	.5	.5	53.9
Manager / Computer Programmer	1	.1	.1	54.0
manager/artist	1	.1	.1	54.1
Manual/Repair Inside Machinist	1	.1	.1	54.3
manufacturing	1	.1	.1	54.4
Manufacturing	2	.3	.3	54.6

manufacturing/labor	1	.1	.1	54.8
Market Researcher	1	.1	.1	54.9
Marketing	4	.5	.5	55.4
Marketing Assistant	1	.1	.1	55.5
Marketing Executive	1	.1	.1	55.7
material handler	2	.3	.3	55.9
mechanic	1	.1	.1	56.0
Mechanic	1	.1	.1	56.2
MECHANIC	1	.1	.1	56.3
Mechanical engineer	1	.1	.1	56.4
Mechanical Engineering	1	.1	.1	56.5
Medical Assistant	1	.1	.1	56.7
Medical Billing Analyst	1	.1	.1	56.8
Medical Engineer	1	.1	.1	56.9
merchant	1	.1	.1	57.1
Mgmt	1	.1	.1	57.2
military	3	.4	.4	57.6
Military	2	.3	.3	57.8
Mine management	1	.1	.1	57.9
Music teacher	1	.1	.1	58.1
musician	3	.4	.4	58.4
Musician	1	.1	.1	58.6
National Finance Director	1	.1	.1	58.7
nterpreter	1	.1	.1	58.8
Nuclear Security Officer	1	.1	.1	59.0
nurse	2	.3	.3	59.2
Nurses Aid	1	.1	.1	59.3

office services	1	.1	.1	59.5
officer	1	.1	.1	59.6
Oil and Gas	1	.1	.1	59.7
Operations	1	.1	.1	59.8
Operations Manager	4	.5	.5	60.4
Operator	1	.1	.1	60.5
order entry	2	.3	.3	60.7
Ordinary workers	1	.1	.1	60.9
Outside Sales	1	.1	.1	61.0
papermaker	1	.1	.1	61.1
Paralegal	1	.1	.1	61.2
PARALEGAL	1	.1	.1	61.4
Paramedic	1	.1	.1	61.5
Paramedic/Communications Officer	1	.1	.1	61.6
paramedic/firefighter	1	.1	.1	61.8
pastor	1	.1	.1	61.9
payroll manager	1	.1	.1	62.0
personnel	1	.1	.1	62.1
pharmacist	1	.1	.1	62.3
Pharmacy	1	.1	.1	62.4
Planning	1	.1	.1	62.5
plumber	1	.1	.1	62.6
PLUMBER	1	.1	.1	62.8
police officer	2	.3	.3	63.0
Police Officer	1	.1	.1	63.2
Police Segeant	1	.1	.1	63.3
policeman	1	.1	.1	63.4
Policy Analyst/Attorney/Project Director	1	.1	.1	63.5

postal clerk	2	.3	.3	63.8
printer	1	.1	.1	63.9
process engineer	2	.3	.3	64.2
Product Developer	1	.1	.1	64.3
production	2	.3	.3	64.5
Production	3	.4	.4	64.9
PRODUCTION ANANLYST	1	.1	.1	65.1
production laborer	1	.1	.1	65.2
professor	1	.1	.1	65.3
Professor	3	.4	.4	65.7
Progam Manager	1	.1	.1	65.8
Program Associate, NGO	1	.1	.1	65.9
program manager	1	.1	.1	66.1
Program Manager	1	.1	.1	66.2
programmer	3	.4	.4	66.6
Programmer	1	.1	.1	66.7
programmist	1	.1	.1	66.8
Project	1	.1	.1	67.0
project management	1	.1	.1	67.1
Project Management	1	.1	.1	67.2
Project manager	1	.1	.1	67.3
Project Manager	4	.5	.5	67.9
Proofreader	1	.1	.1	68.0
Psychologist	1	.1	.1	68.1
Public Relations	1	.1	.1	68.2
Public sector	1	.1	.1	68.4

Purchasing Agent	1	.1	.1	68.5
Quality Assurance	1	.1	.1	68.6
Quality Systems Manager	1	.1	.1	68.7
Real Estate	1	.1	.1	68.9
real estate investor	1	.1	.1	69.0
reasearch assistant	1	.1	.1	69.1
Recruiter	1	.1	.1	69.3
ref	1	.1	.1	69.4
Research and Data Analyst	1	.1	.1	69.5
research scientist	1	.1	.1	69.6
researcher	2	.3	.3	69.9
Researcher	1	.1	.1	70.0
resident physician	1	.1	.1	70.1
Respiratory Therapist	1	.1	.1	70.3
Restaurant	1	.1	.1	70.4
restaurant manager	1	.1	.1	70.5
retail	3	.4	.4	70.9
Retail	5	.6	.6	71.5
Retail Manager	1	.1	.1	71.7
Retail Pharmacy Manager	1	.1	.1	71.8
retail sales	1	.1	.1	71.9
Retail Supervisor	1	.1	.1	72.0
retired	3	.4	.4	72.4
Retired	3	.4	.4	72.8
RETIRED	1	.1	.1	72.9
Retired Military	1	.1	.1	73.1
Retired part time worker	1	.1	.1	73.2

Risk Management Analyst	1	.1	.1	73.3
RN	1	.1	.1	73.4
RN (US Army)	1	.1	.1	73.6
Road Maintenance	1	.1	.1	73.7
sale	2	.3	.3	74.0
saleman	1	.1	.1	74.1
sales	6	.8	.8	74.8
Sales	8	1.0	1.0	75.9
SALES	1	.1	.1	76.0
Sales analyst	1	.1	.1	76.1
Sales and Marketing	1	.1	.1	76.2
Sales Assistant	4	.5	.5	76.7
sales clerk	1	.1	.1	76.9
sales manager	3	.4	.4	77.3
Sales Manager	4	.5	.5	77.8
Sales Officer	1	.1	.1	77.9
Sales Rep	1	.1	.1	78.0
salesman	4	.5	.5	78.5
salesman/student	1	.1	.1	78.7
School Counselor	1	.1	.1	78.8
School Psychologist	1	.1	.1	78.9
Science	2	.3	.3	79.2
Scientist	2	.3	.3	79.4
Scientists	1	.1	.1	79.5
sec	1	.1	.1	79.7
secretary	1	.1	.1	79.8
security	2	.3	.3	80.1
Security	1	.1	.1	80.2
security guard	2	.3	.3	80.4
security manager	1	.1	.1	80.6

security officer	1	.1	.1	80.7
self employed	5	.6	.6	81.3
Self Employed	3	.4	.4	81.7
self employement	1	.1	.1	81.8
self-employed	1	.1	.1	82.0
self-employed (internet)	1	.1	.1	82.1
self-employed artist	1	.1	.1	82.2
Self-Employed Content Developer	1	.1	.1	82.3
self-employed.	1	.1	.1	82.5
selfmeployed	1	.1	.1	82.6
Service Manager	1	.1	.1	82.7
Service Worker	1	.1	.1	82.8
Shipper	1	.1	.1	83.0
Shipping/Receiving	1	.1	.1	83.1
Shop worker	1	.1	.1	83.2
Social service	1	.1	.1	83.4
social worker	1	.1	.1	83.5
Social Worker	1	.1	.1	83.6
software	1	.1	.1	83.7
Software Developer	3	.4	.4	84.1
software engineer	2	.3	.3	84.4
Software Engineer	1	.1	.1	84.5
Soil Scientist	1	.1	.1	84.6
statistician	1	.1	.1	84.8
Store Manager	3	.4	.4	85.1

Store Manager of an Agricultural Supply Company	1	.1	.1	85.3
Strategic communications consultant and corporate writer.	1	.1	.1	85.4
student	12	1.5	1.5	86.9
Student	12	1.5	1.5	88.4
Student - TA on the side	1	.1	.1	88.6
student/ lab tech	1	.1	.1	88.7
student/bus driver	1	.1	.1	88.8
supervisor	1	.1	.1	88.9
Supervisor	2	.3	.3	89.2
Supply Chain	1	.1	.1	89.3
System administrator	1	.1	.1	89.5
System Administrator	2	.3	.3	89.7
System Analyst	1	.1	.1	89.8
Systems Administrator (IT Professional)	1	.1	.1	90.0
Systems Programmer	1	.1	.1	90.1
Taxi Driver	1	.1	.1	90.2
teacher	6	.8	.8	91.0
Teacher	7	.9	.9	91.9
Teacher and technician	1	.1	.1	92.0
tech	1	.1	.1	92.1

Tech Training Coordinator	1	.1	.1	92.2
Tech Writer	1	.1	.1	92.4
Technical Engineer	1	.1	.1	92.5
technician	6	.8	.8	93.3
Technician	3	.4	.4	93.6
Technology	1	.1	.1	93.8
telemarketer	1	.1	.1	93.9
Telemarketing Director	1	.1	.1	94.0
telephone sales	1	.1	.1	94.2
Television promotions producer	1	.1	.1	94.3
Temporary services	1	.1	.1	94.4
The freedom of occupation	1	.1	.1	94.5
tour guide	1	.1	.1	94.7
Train Operator	1	.1	.1	94.8
Trainer at Panera Bread	1	.1	.1	94.9
Training	2	.3	.3	95.2
transcriber	1	.1	.1	95.3
transcriptionist	1	.1	.1	95.4
translator	1	.1	.1	95.6
Translator	1	.1	.1	95.7
trascriptionist	1	.1	.1	95.8
truck driver	3	.4	.4	96.2
Truck Driver	1	.1	.1	96.3
underwriter	1	.1	.1	96.4
unemployed	3	.4	.4	96.8

|				
Unemployed	1	.1	.1	97.0
University Faculty	1	.1	.1	97.1
us army	1	.1	.1	97.2
Veterinarian	3	.4	.4	97.6
Veterinary Assistant/Student	1	.1	.1	97.7
Video Producer	1	.1	.1	97.8
VP of Operations	1	.1	.1	98.0
VTC Tech	1	.1	.1	98.1
Waiter	4	.5	.5	98.6
Warehouse Manager	2	.3	.3	98.9
warehouse supervisor	1	.1	.1	99.0
warehouse worker	1	.1	.1	99.1
Water Reclamation	1	.1	.1	99.2
web developer	1	.1	.1	99.4
Wedding Host	1	.1	.1	99.5
Welder	1	.1	.1	99.6
worker	1	.1	.1	99.7
Writing	1	.1	.1	99.9
xecutive	1	.1	.1	100.0
Total	787	100.0	100.0	
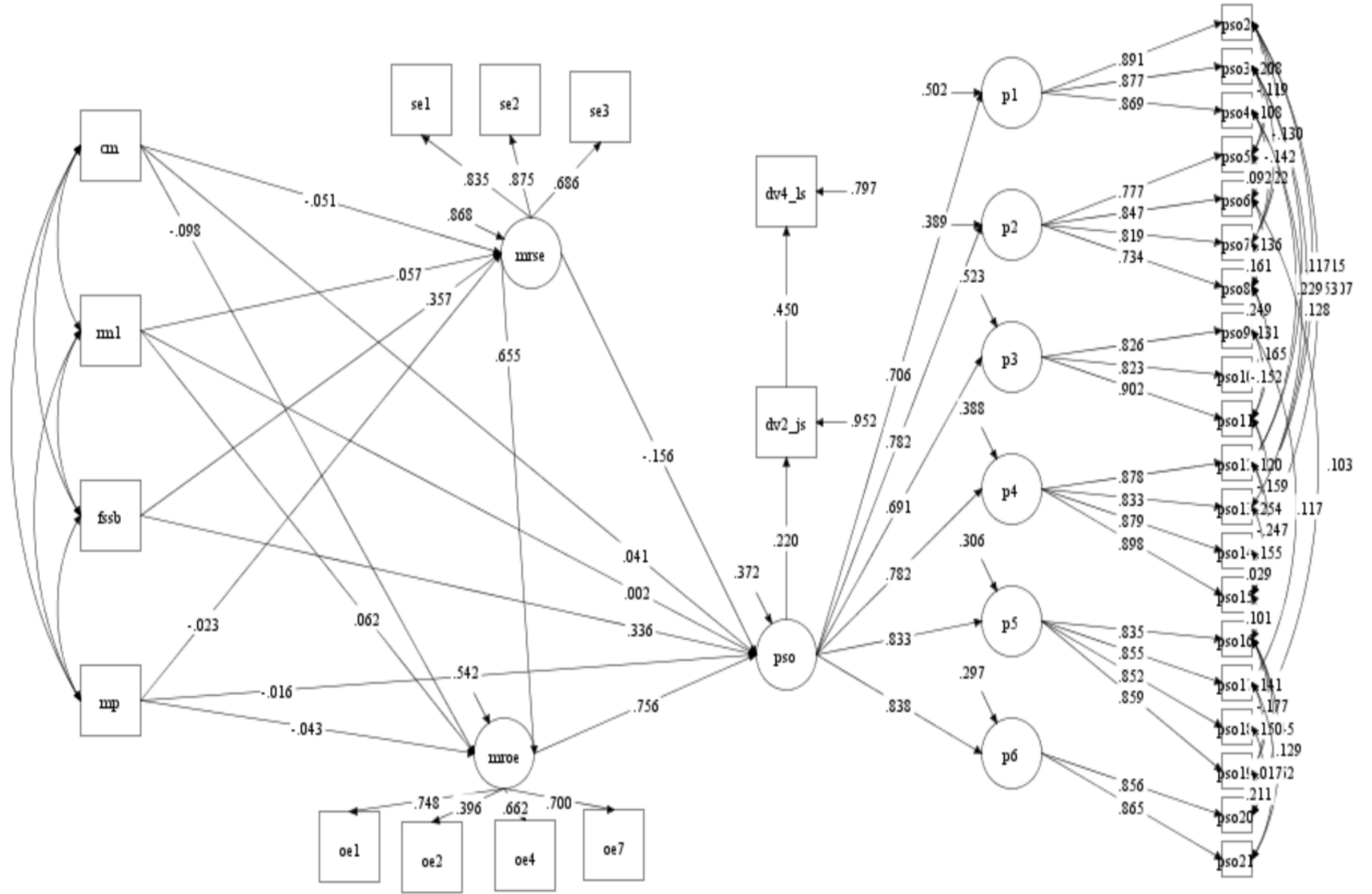
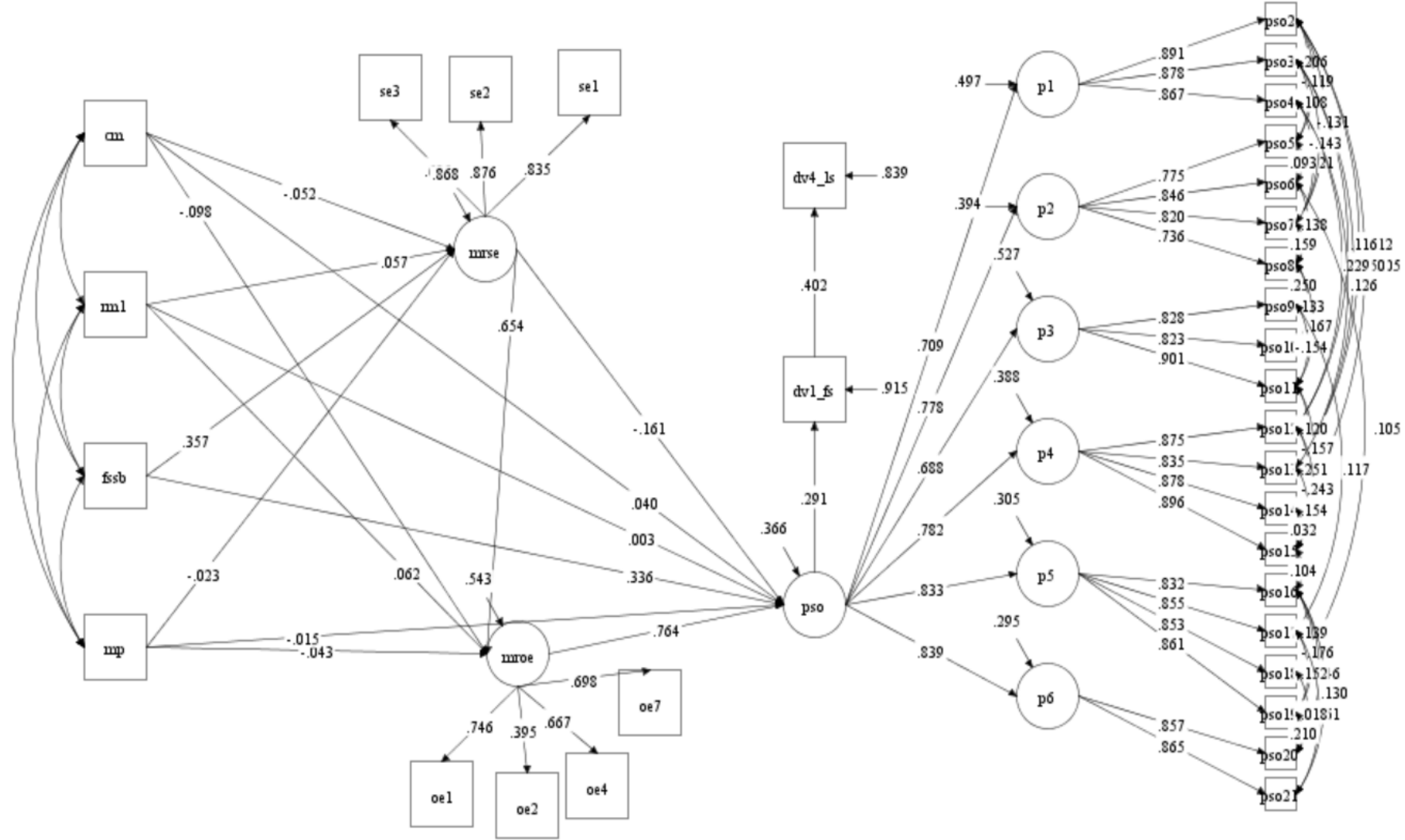Figure 3. Job-Life Satisfaction Structural Model

Figure 4. Family-Life Satisfaction Structural Model

Shin Ye Kim

Curriculum Vitae

EDUCATION

Ph.D.   Counseling Psychology, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, 2016

Minor: Psychology

Minor: Educational Statistics and Measurement

Dissertation: *The Roles of Work and Family in Men's Lives: A Test of Lent and Brown's (2013) Social Cognitive Model of Career Self-Management*

Advisor: Dr. Nadya Fouad Ph. D., ABPP

M. Ed.   Prevention Science and Practice, Harvard University, 2010

B. A.   Education, Busan National University of Education (South Korea), 2009

HONORS AND AWARDS

2015	Robert Kuehneisen Teachers for a New Era Scholarship	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
2015	Wisconsin Psychological Foundation Scholarship	Wisconsin Psychological Association
2014	Science Directorate Dissertation Research Award	American Psychological Association
2014	Travel Award: National Multicultural Summit	American Psychological Association
2014	Science Directorate Travel Award	American Psychological Association
2014	Multicultural Scholar Award	American Psychological Association
2014	Travel Award	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
2014	Research Excellence Award	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
2013	Research Presentation Travel Funds	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
2013	Student Travel Awards	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
2012	Chancellor's Graduate Student Award	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
2012	Student Travel Awards	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
2011	Chancellor's Graduate Student Award	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
2009-2010	Academic Scholarship	Harvard University
2005-2009	Academic Scholarship	Busan National University of Education

PUBLICATIONS- PEER REVIEWED JOURNALS

Kim, S., Ahn, T.Y., & Fouad, N.A. (2015). Family Influence on Korean Students' Career Decisions: A Social Cognitive Perspective. *Journal of Career Assessment.* 1-14. DOI: 10.1177/1069072715599403

Fouad, N.A., **Kim, S**., Ghosh, A., Chang,W., & Figueiredo, C. (2015) Family Influence on Career Decision Making: Validation in India and the US. *Journal of Career Assessment* doi:10.1177/1069072714565782

Ahn, T., & **Kim, S**. (2013). The structural relationship between career decision-making self-efficacy, career indecision, career preparation behavior, career satisfaction, and life satisfaction: Centering around college students in Busan. *The Journal of Vocational Education Research* 1-22, 32, 6.

BOOK CHAPTERS

Beatrice, J., Graling, K., Hall, K., **Kim, S**., Lustig, K., Moebus, P., & Plocha (2013). In S. Lamb, *Sex Ed for Caring Schools: Creating an Ethics-Based Curriculum* (chapters 5 & 6). New York: Teachers College Press

Kim, S. (2011).하버드의 빛과 그림자 (*Light and Shadow of Harvard*). In Park, 하버드는 공부벌레 원하지 않는다 (*Harvard does not Want Bookworms*) Seoul, Korea: Sisain Press.

NEWSLETTER CONTRIBUTIONS

Kim, S. (2013). Mindfulness: An asset to self-care. *Counseling Psychology Newsletter, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee.*

Kim, S. (2011). *Dark side of High Achievers*, *Mustard Seed Generation (MSG) Newsletter*

PRESENTATIONS

Xie, H., Maeda, H., & **Kim**, S. (2015, October). *Psychological Well-being in Lesbian, Gay Men, and Bisexuals: The Effect of Perceived Discrimination in the United States.* Poster accepted at the 143rd Annual Convention of the American Public Health Association. Chicago, IL.

Kim, S., Fouad, N.A., Maeda, H., & Xui, H. (2015, August). *Mid-life People's Work and Psychological Well-being: The Psychology of Working Perspective.* Poster presented at the 123rd Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

Kim, S., Maeda, H., Xui, H. (2015, August). *Paternal Involvement, men's work family spillover and psychological well-being.* Poster presented at the 123rd Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

Fouad, N.A., Chang, W., **Kim, S**., Young, G., Santana, M., (2015, August). First to second year college student retention: A research synthesis. Poster presented at the 123rd Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

Choi, A., **Kim, S**., Keum, T., & Chandni, S. Self-awareness in Research (2015, August). Students Reflect on their Ongoing Scholarly Development. Symposium conducted at the Annual Convention of the Asian American Psychological Association. Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

Kim, S.,& Royal, A. (2015, April).Psychoanalysis, Race, and Culture. Symposium presented at Wisconsin Psychoanalytic Institute.

Kim, S., Dwivedi, D., Robinson, R, & Choi, A. (2015, January*). Implicit Enactments in Multicultural Psychology Training: Four Graduate Students Revisit their Experiences with Intersectionality, Marginalization, and Privilege.* Difficult Dialogue presented at National Multicultural Summit, Atlanta, GA

Kim, S., Ladhani, S., & Gurung, R. (2014, August). *Cultural Sensitivity in Medical Setting.* Symposium presented at the 122nd Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.

Wester, S., **Kim, S**., & Gomory, A. (2014, August) *Culture and Gender: Differential Item Functioning of the Gender Role Conflict Scale.* Poster presented at the 122nd Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC..

Kim, S., Fouad, N.A., Heppner, M., Ghosh, A., Suh, H., Munoz, M. (2014, August) *Doctoral students of color: Reflections from two APA Bersoff Presidential Award Recipients.* Round Table presented at the 122nd Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.

Kim, S., Fouad, N.A. (2014, August) Midlife Psychological Well-being in the Context of Work - A Counseling Psychology Perspective. Poster presented at the 122nd Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.

Kim, S., Walsh, A. (2014, August) *Multicultural Competence Measures for Psychology Trainees: A Review of Psychometric Properties.* Poster presented at the 122nd Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.

Walsh, A**., Kim, S**., Kanter, J. (2014, August) Culture Counts in Undergraduate Psychology: *An Assessment of Students' Multicultural Competence*. Poster presented at the 122nd Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.

Kim, S. (2014, March), *Integrating Counseling and Critical Health Psychology for More Effective Stroke Recovery Research*. Poster presented at 2014 Counseling Psychology Conference. Atlanta, GA.

Kim, S., Lambrou, K (2014, March). *Cross-Cultural Validity of Family Influence Scale.* Poster presented at 2014 Counseling Psychology Conference. Atlanta, GA.

Gomory, A., **Kim, S.**, Wester, S., Danfort, L. (2013, August). *Culture and Gender: Differential Item Functioning of the Gender Role Conflict Scale.* Poster presented at the 121st Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.

Baskin, T., Hunt, J., **Kim, S.**, Ghosh, A., Lambrou, K. (2013, August). *Psychotherapy on Pain-Meta Analysis.* Poster presented at the 121st Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.

Ghosh, A., **Kim, S**., & Chang,W.(2012, August). *Culturally Competent Counseling for Asian Americans*. Symposium Presented at Asian American Psychological Association. Orlando, FL.

Kim, S. (2011, April). *What Prevents us from Seeking Professional Help? Reconsidering Korean Americans' Help-Seeking Patterns*. Symposium presented at the Holy Name Medical Center Conference, Teaneck, NJ

Kim, S. (2010, August). *What Prevents us from Seeking Professional Help? Reconsidering Korean Americans' Help-Seeking Patterns*. Symposium presented at the Mustard Seed Generation Conference, Gaithersburg, MD.

Kim, S. (2010, May). *English Fluency of Immigrant Mothers and its Associations with Experience of Discrimination and Psychological Distress.* Poster presented at the Risk and Prevention Research Symposium, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.

PROFESSIONAL SERVICE

Current Psychology (ad hoc manuscript reviewer) 2014-2015

Counseling Psychology National Conference (proposal reviewer) 2014
National Multicultural Summit (proposal reviewer) 2014
American Psychological Association Division 17, 45 (proposal reviewer) 2014

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, (Co)-Instructor
      Multicultural Counseling (2013 Spring)
      Multicultural Counseling (2013 Fall)
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Instructor
      Research Methods in Social Work (2014 Fall)
      Research Methods in Social Work (2015 Spring)

RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

2011-2016	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Supervisor: Dr. Nadya Fouad
2011-2016	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Supervisor: Thomas Baskin
20112016	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Supervisor: Dr. Stephen Wester
2011-2016	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Co-investigator: Dr. Shannon Chavez-Korell
8/2010-5/2011	Harvard University, Department of Psychology, Supervisors: Dr. Richard McNally and Dr. Manuel Sprung
9/2009-5/2010	Harvard University Graduate School of Education, Supervisor: Dr. Hirokazu Yoshikawa
1/2010-5/2011	Harvard University, Graduate School of Education, Supervisor: Dr. Josephine Kim
9/2010-5/2011	Boston College, Lynch School of Education, Supervisor: Dr. David Blustein
9/2010-5/2011	University of Massachusetts Boston, Department of Counseling and School Psychology, Supervisor: Dr. Sharon Lamb
7/2010-8/2010	Boston College, Lynch School of Education, Supervisor: Dr. Julie McEvoy
6/2010-7/2010	Boston University Graduate School of Education, Supervisor: Dr.Steven Broder
9/2009-5/2010	John. D. O'Bryant School of Science and Math, Supervisor: Dr. Patricia Beckford
2007-2011	Busan National University of Education, Supervisor: Dr. Ie Hwan Ahn

PRE-DOCTORAL CLINICAL INTERNSHIP

7/15-6/16   **NYC Health + Hospitals, Kings County,** Brooklyn, NY
          Pre-doctoral Psychology Intern (APA-Accredited)

          Neuropsychological Assessment
          Adult Inpatient Psychiatric Units
          The Comprehensive Psychiatric Emergency Program
          The Adult Outpatient Psychiatric Department
          Forensic Psychiatry Evaluation Service

ADDITIONAL CLINICAL AND SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE

09/13-4/15   **Wheaton Franciscan Healthcare/All Saints Hospital,** Racine, WI
          Advanced Practicum Trainee, Department of Psychiatry, Department of Pain Management

09/12-08/13   **University of Wisconsin Hospital and clinics,** Madison, WI
          Advanced Practicum Student in Health Psychology

08/11-07/12   **Medical College of Wisconsin,** Milwaukee, WI
          Therapy Trainee in Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Medicine

09/13-12/13   **University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee**, Milwaukee, WI
          Clinical Supervisor

10/11-06/15   **Wisconsin Psychoanalytic Institute, Participant,** Milwaukee, WI

09/09-05/10   **John D. O'Bryant School of Science and Math,** Roxbury, MA
          Adjustment Counselor

09/09-08/11   **Mustard Seed Generation (MSG), Inc.**, Cambridge, MA
          Group therapy facilitator

EMPLOYMENT

2013 – 2015   **Panther Academic Support Services**, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Academic Affairs

2011-2013   **Consulting Office for Research and Evaluation,** University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
          Project Assistant

LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCE AND PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS

2010-Present   American Psychological Association
            Division 17: Society of Counseling Psychology

Section on Vocational Psychology
International Section
Division 45: Society for the Psychological Study of Ethnic Minority Issues
Division 51: Society for the Psychological Study of Men and Masculinity
2014-2015   APA campus representative, Advocacy Coordinating Team American Psychological Association of Graduate Students (APAGS)
2011-2013   Conference Committee: Korean Psychology Network