



The Role of Perceived Social Support on Parenting Stress and Paternal Responsive Parenting for Stay-at-Home Father

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Abstract. The stay-at-home father (SAHF) phenomenon has become worldwide, including in Indonesia. It is known that SAHF faces several challenges that can affect their parenting stress. Although high levels of parenting stress are known to be associated with lower paternal responsive behavior, there are other factors that could potentially moderate this relationship, such as perceived social support. This research aims to study the relationship between parenting stress and paternal responsive parenting, and whether perceived social support can moderate the relationship in SAHF. Parenting stress measured by PSS, perceived social support measured by MPSS, and paternal responsive parenting measured by PSDQ. The data collected from 94 participants that filled an online questionnaire. The results demonstrated that (1) parenting stress is associated negatively with paternal responsive parenting (-0,676) and (2) perceived social support was a significant moderator in the relationship between parenting stress and paternal responsive parenting (0,1417). Another findings are that (3) most of the SAHFs experience moderate levels of parenting stress, (4) there are three paternal responsive parenting behaviors shown by the SAHFs in the context of school activity, and (5) perceived social support experienced by SAHFs in this study are primarily from their closest relation, particularly their wives.

Keywords: Parenting Stress, Paternal Responsive Parenting, Perceived Social Support.

1 Introduction

The stay-at-home father (SAHF) phenomenon has become a worldwide occurrence, including in Indonesia. Although the exact number of them is unknown, many studies have started to cover this discussion, such as the studies of Pramanada and Dinardinata (2018), Widhiastuti and Nugraha (2013), Ismoyo and Pranasari (2019), as well as Pallikadavath et al. (2016). SAHFs are the fathers that have become the primary caregiver for their children (Doucet, 2018, Holmes, et al., 2020). The fathers may not work at all, work part-time, or have a job with flexible hours (freelance; Doucet, 2018; Ismoyo & Pranasari, 2019). A SAHF is also a father who stays at home because he has a job that can be done from home (Work from Home or WFH; Doucet, 2018). In addition, the wife in a SAHF family typically has a full-time job outside the home (Doucet, 2018; Holmes et al., 2020; Pramanada & Dinardinata, 2018).

The reasons why fathers become SAHFs are based on several factors, including chronic illnesses, situations where the wife earns more, job loss, and men's

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exhaustion from being the breadwinner (Allen, 2021; Crider, 2020; Doucet, 2018; Pallikadavath et al., 2016; Pramanada & Dinardinata, 2018; Riggs, 2019). But, the most common reason is the fathers' willingness to contribute more to caring for their families and playing an active role in parenting (Doucet, 2018).

However, society has not fully accepted the role of SAHFs as they are still facing negative stigmas (Crider, 2020; Holmes et al., 2020). SAHFs also experience social exclusion from other parents (Holmes et al., 2020), which leads to isolation and depression (Crider, 2020; Riggs, 2019). Fathers who have obtained higher education also experience lower meaning of life and happiness in their role as a parent (Nelson, 2014). Having more children in the family also results in higher responsibilities and stress levels for parents (Nelson, 2014). Hodkinson and Brooks (2022) also shows significant issues were found among fathers with school-age children. During this phase, fathers also experience challenges in contributing more to school parties, socializing with other parents who were mostly mothers, and handling behavioral problems that are related to studying (Hodkinson & Brooks, 2022; Nelson et al., 2014). As a result, parenting could be seen as something that makes fathers feel trapped at home, with children being perceived as a source of disruption to their activities, leading to stress (Doucet, 2018; Pramanada & Dinardinata, 2018).

Stress that occurs in parenting, better known as parenting stress, refers to difficulties that parents experience when interacting with their children (Abidin, 1990). Research shows that parenting stress can affect the parent-child relationship and parenting behaviors (Farisah et al., 2024; Guajardo et al., 2009, in Sanner, 2017; Jayanto et al., 2021). Parents who experience high parenting stress during their productive years, especially if the SAHF role is taken on unwillingly, are more likely to focus on family conflicts and neglect responsive parenting (Chung et al., 2020; Pramanada & Dinardinata, 2018). Responsive parenting is the ability of parents to engage with their children, to understand and respond to their children's needs (Laundry et al., 2008, in Morris et al., 2023). Low level of responsive parenting occurs when parents perceive their children's problems as unimportant, show little affection, or enforce discipline that is either too strict or too lenient (Rich, 2017).

Research on the relationships between parenting stress and paternal responsive parenting has been conducted by Guajardo et al. (2009) and Chung et al. (2020). Both studies show that higher levels of parenting stress leads to less responsive parenting behavior. Furthermore, Chung et al. (2020) show that these relationships particularly occur on parents that spend more time at home. Another factor might be involved when we talk about parenting stress and responsive behavior is social support (Chung et al., 2020). Moreover, perceived social support or "emotional support" is a person's belief that they have social partners who care for them and are present, and it is strongly associated with mental health and well-being (Turner & Brown, 2010, in Taylor et al., 2015). Previous research has conducted to shade the light on the relationship between parenting stress and paternal responsive parenting is related to perceived social support (McConnell et al., 2011; Pramanada & Dinardinata, 2018; Widyawati et al., 2021).

McConnell et al. (2011) aimed to test the family stress model by considering the effect of social support as a moderator. This research shows that although parenting stress occurs in parents, that does not mean the parent-child relationships worsen because of perceived social support. In these relationships, the perceived social support acted as a buffer to lessen the effect of parenting stress. In Indonesia, Pramanada dan

Dinardinata (2018) conducted research to dig deeper into fathers' experience as a SAHF. This study showed that when parenting stress happens to an individual, fathers tend to look for social support from their closest ones such as their wife, family, and community that are close to them. Resulting that SAHFs still develop responsive parenting towards their children, such as taking care of their children without the help of other people present, communicating openly while considering the child's input, and being consistent in parenting, whether through praise or discipline.

However, Widyawati et al. (2021) showed a contradictive perspective. This research was conducted to test whether positive parenting mediates the relationship between parental resilience and the quality of life of Indonesian children with developmental disabilities. Perceived social support in this study is one of the dimensions of parental resilience. The results showed that perceived social support was not related to positive parenting. This occurred because parents had limitations in the sources of perceived social support.

Based on the previous explanations, it is evident that research on parenting stress, paternal responsive parenting, and perceived social support has not been widely conducted in Indonesia, especially within the SAHF population. Previous studies have mostly focused on these three variables in the general family population or in clinical contexts (McConnell et al., 2011; Widyawati et al., 2021). Furthermore, studies by McConnell et al. (2011), Pramanada and Dinardinata (2018), and Widyawati et al. (2021) have shown inconsistent results, so further research is needed to confirm the findings regarding parenting stress, paternal responsive parenting, and perceived social support. This research aimed to explore (1) the relationship between parenting stress and paternal responsive parenting, and (2) the role of perceived social support as a moderating factor in the relationship between parenting stress and paternal responsive parenting in SAHFs in Indonesia.

2 RESEARCH METHOD

2.1 Participants

Participants were stay-at-home fathers (SAHFs) who served as the primary caregiver in their household. These fathers may be unemployed, having part-time or freelance jobs, or working from home (WFH). The fathers have wives who work full-time outside the home during the course of the study. Full-time work is defined as a job that requires at least 40 hours per week (based on Indonesian Law No. 11 of 2020). The SAHFs are married and live with their wives in an urban area in Indonesia. Participants have been in the role of SAHF for at least 6 months prior to the study. The SAHFs in this study are fathers who became stay-at-home due to circumstances such as being affected by layoffs, long-term illnesses preventing them from working, and other similar reasons. The age of the SAHFs ranges from 30 to 49 years. The SAHFs have at least 2 children, with at least one child aged 3-12 years, and are currently attending formal education, either kindergarten or elementary school. The children of the SAHFs do not have any diagnosed developmental or psychological disorders. The participants' highest level of education is at least a bachelor's degree or higher.

2.2 Measurements

Parenting stress was measured using 18 items from the Parental Stress Scale (PSS), developed by Berry and Jones (1995). Fathers were asked to indicate responses ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree, to statements such as "My child(ren) is an important source of affection for me," and others. PSS assesses the level of stress experienced by parents while also examining both positive and negative aspects of parenting. The scores range from 18-90, with the assessment calculated by adding the responses from each item, except for items number 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 17, and 18, which are reverse-coded. A higher final score indicates a higher level of stress, which is associated with lower levels of parental sensitivity towards their children. In this study, items 3 and 4 were eliminated due to the poor psychometric performance, resulting in a Cronbach's alpha of 0.916. Based on Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), the results showed $p < 0.001$, with Std. Est. ranging from 0.397 to 0.791 (> 0.3), indicating that the instrument is valid for use.

Perceived Social Support was measured using the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MPSS), developed by Zimet et al. (1988). MPSS has been translated into Indonesian by Winahyu et al. (2015). Fathers were asked to indicate responses ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree. MPSS consists of 12 questions, divided into 3 dimensions: family support, friend support, and other support. One of the questions is "There is a special person who is around when I am in need". MPSS assesses the subjective perception of social support from family, friends, and other significant people in the participants' lives, separately. The scores range from 12-84, with the responses from each item being added and then divided by 12. There is no reverse-coded scoring. A higher score indicates a stronger belief in having high social support. At the end of the questionnaire, the following question was added: "The questionnaire uses the term 'special person', please explain who you mean by 'special person'". The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is 0.88. In this study, no items were eliminated, and Cronbach's alpha is 0.954. Based on CFA, the results showed $p < 0.001$, with Std. Est. ranging from 0.732 to 0.826 (> 0.3), indicating that the instrument is valid for use.

Paternal Responsive Parenting was measured using The Parenting Style and Dimensions Questionnaire-Short Version (PSDQ), developed by Robinson et al. (2001). PSDQ measures 3 parenting styles: authoritative (15 items), authoritarian (12 items), and permissive (5 items). Fathers were asked to indicate responses ranging from 1 = never to 5 = always. One example of a question is: "I explain to my child how I feel about their good and bad behaviors." The final score for each subscale is obtained by calculating the average score of each item. The subscale with the highest average score indicates the parenting style adopted by the participant. However, this instrument also measures continuous scale values, which are used to assess the specific parenting style adopted by the father. The measurement of paternal responsive parenting focuses on the criteria of children who are in school, either kindergarten or elementary school. Therefore, the parenting conditions are focused on those related to the child's school. Fathers are asked to assess their parenting behavior, including when preparing the child for school, the school pick-up routine, teaching the child, helping the child study or do assignments, attending school activities, and others (Hodkinson & Brooks, 2022). Data will be processed only from the authoritative parenting dimension that indicates

paternal responsive parenting. In this study, items 22, 18, 14, and 9 were discarded due to poor psychometric performance, resulting in a Cronbach's alpha of 0.873. Based on CFA, the results showed $p < 0.001$, with Std. Est. ranging from 0.417 to 0.673 (> 0.3), indicating that the instrument is valid for use.

PSS and PSDQ are translated from English to Indonesian. Translation process conducted by the researcher under the supervision of Tarumanagara University's lecturers, which are Dr. Monty P. Satiadarma, MS/AT, MCP/MFCC, DCH, Psi. and Dr. Riana Sahrani, Psi..

2.3 Procedure

The researcher recruited participants from May to September 2024, by distributing online questionnaires on social media (Instagram, Whatsapp), communities, referrals, and online survey parties. This is to ensure we reach as many participants as possible.

Participants were given a Google form that consisted of an informed consent form, personal data questionnaire, and the three instruments. When filling out the informed consent form, participants have the right to decline or continue their participation by clicking out a question on the Google form. If the participants decide to decline, then they will be directed to a message that says thank you. But if they decide to participate, they will be directed to fill in the personal data questionnaire, the three instruments, the submission part, and then a message that says thank you.

In the personal data section, the researcher asked the participants to provide their initials, phone numbers, and email addresses to minimize repetitive participants. The personal data section also consisted of questions to assess the father's age, religion, ethnicity, highest education level, domicile, SAHF type, reason they became a SAHF, duration of being a SAHF, how many children they have, children's education, how many hours they spent in parenting, is there any help outside of their wives, and how many hours other people spent in parenting. In addition, fathers were also asked to explain the activity of what they and the helper did to take care of the children. The PSS, MPSS, and PSDQ were divided into 3 parts that have their instructions separately. Participants were asked to fill in the questionnaire truthfully. The usual time for submission is 30 minutes. Google forms can be accessed by several devices such as laptops, handphones, and so on.

2.4 Analysis

Assumption testing was conducted to verify the normality of the data. PSS was found to be normal based on the Monte Carlo test ($0.093 > 0.05$) and Exact test ($0.093 > 0.05$). MPSS was also found to be normal based on the Monte Carlo residual test ($0.067 > 0.05$) and Exact test ($0.065 > 0.05$). PSDQ Authoritative was found to be normal based on the Asymptotic test ($0.114 > 0.05$). Demographic data analyses included descriptive statistics and ANOVA tests. The analysis technique used in this study was Pearson correlation. Moderated Regression Analysis (MRA) model 1 (simple regression model) conducted by PROCESS Hayes version 4.2 was used.

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

There were originally 116 SAHFs as participants. However, 12 people were eliminated because they only had 1 child, 2 people were eliminated because their highest educational level was less than a bachelor's degree, 4 people were eliminated because their wives were not working outside of the home, 1 person was eliminated because father not forced to be a SAHF by circumstances, and 3 people were eliminated because one of their children had a developmental or psychological disorder. As a result, 94 participants were collected. The fathers's ages ranged with the youngest being 30 years old and the oldest being 48 years old ($M=38.21$, $SD=4.178$).

Table A1 (attachment) shows that the majority of SAHFs in this study were living in West Java and DKI Jakarta. Most of the fathers are Moeslim, Javanese, and have a bachelor's degree. The majority of the fathers are full-time employees working from home (WFH) while taking care of their children and unemployed fathers that are committed to child-rearing. The reasons behind their decisions of becoming SAHFs are because of the job demands to do WFH or having to leave their job because of child-rearing. Most of the SAHFs in this study have been in their role for 1-3 years. They have 2 children who are in elementary school. More than half of the SAHFs do not have any other parties involved in childcare except themselves and their wives. Therefore, it is evident that SAHFs spend more time caring for their children, even when other parties, aside from their wives, assist with childcare.

Table 1 shows that the majority of the participants have moderate levels of parenting stress.

Table 1. Levels of Parenting Stress.

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<i>Parenting Stress</i>	Low	26	27.7	27.7	27.7
	Moderate	49	52.1	52.1	79.8
	High	19	20.2	20.2	100
	Total	94	100	100	

Table 2 shows that the majority of the participants have high levels of perceived social support. In this study, most of the SAHFs rely on perceived social support from a special person, family, and friends all at once ($N=25$). But the special person alone is also considered a source of perceived social support by the majority of the participants ($N=21$). Other parties that considered a source of perceived social support were family ($N=16$), friends ($N=9$), special person and family ($N=9$), special person and friends ($N=6$), and family and friends ($N=10$).

Table 2. Participants's Perceived Social Support.

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
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<i>Perceived social support</i>	Low	3	3.2	3.2	3.2
	Moderate	23	24.5	24.5	27.7
	High	68	72.3	72.3	100
	Total	94	100	100	

The term “special person” in this study was asked on the questionnaire with a simple question “The questionnaire uses the term 'special person', please explain who you mean by 'special person'". Since this is an open-ended question, participants are free to write down who the special person is and how many special people they mean. The special persons listed are those whose MPSS categorization of the participants is highest in the categories of special person, special person & family, special person & friends, or all. The results were that wives are the primary source of perceived social support for most SAHFs (21 answers). Family members, including their own family (14 answers), parents (13 answers), and other relatives (11 answers), also serve as the primary source of perceived social support for the majority of SAHFs. Surprisingly best friends (7 answers) and in-laws (1 answers) also serve the social support SAHFs perceived.

It is found that all participants have an authoritative parenting style, which refers to paternal responsive parenting. However, this study focuses more on parenting behaviors related to school activities. The parenting behaviors were narrowed down to only three behaviors that appeared when participants elaborated on their answers to the open-ended question about the parenting they practice. Since this is an open-ended question, participants were free to write down any parenting behaviors they meant and as many parenting behaviors as they identified. The results show that the most common parenting behavior from fathers is accompanying their children while studying or engaging in other learning-related activities (35 answers). Fathers are also actively involved in picking up and dropping off their children to school (27 answers) and preparing school necessities (13 answers). Meanwhile, the parenting behaviors from other parties are limited to only dropping off and picking up the children from school (2 answers) and preparing school necessities (1 answer). Both of these parenting activities from other parties appear in far fewer families compared to the parenting activities carried out by SAHFs.

Table 3 shows that parenting stress has a significant negative correlation with paternal responsive parenting $r(94) = .262, p < .01$. Therefore, this result indicates that the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected, meaning that parenting stress is related to paternal responsive parenting in SAHFs.

Table 3. Correlation of Parenting Stress and Paternal Responsive Parenting.

No	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2
1	<i>Parenting Stress</i>	1.8903	0.66490	1	-.676**
2	<i>Paternal Responsive Parenting</i>	4.3017	0.60246	-.676**	1

Note: **p < 0,01 (2-tailed)

Table 4 shows the moderating factor of perceived social support on the relationships between parenting stress and paternal responsive parenting ($p < 0,05$). This moderating factor was found to be significant with positive value.

Table 4. Moderating Analysis using PROCESS.

Variable	Coeff	SE	t	P	BootLLCI	BootULCI
<i>Parenting Stress</i>	-1,3065	0,3299	-3,9607	0,0001	-1,9618	-0,6512
<i>Perceived Social Support</i>	-0,0978	0,118	-0,8750	0,3839	-0,3200	-0,6512
<i>Parenting Stress*Paternal Responsive Parenting</i>	0,1417	0,698	2,3692	0,0200	0,0229	0,2605

The first finding is that parenting stress is negatively related to paternal responsive parenting in SAHF. The negative relationship means that the higher parenting stress is experienced by the father, the less paternal responsive parenting was shown by the father towards his children. Parents with higher parenting stress could not respond to their children’s needs, enforce their will, and do not show warmth during interactions with their children. On the other hand, parents with lower levels of parenting stress showed affection and responded to their children’s needs well. This is aligned with previous studies by Guajardo et al. (2009) and Chung et al. (2020).

The second finding showed that perceived social support moderates the relationship between parenting stress and paternal responsive parenting in SAHF. Parents with higher perceived social support significantly buffer the negative effect of parenting stress, allowing them to express higher chances of paternal responsive parenting. Whether the source of perceived social support is from a special person, family, or friends, it is easier for SAHFs to manage parenting stress while continuing to provide the children with warmth and responsible acts of caregiving. These results are aligned with McConnell et al. (2011), Pramanada and Dinardinata (2018), but contrary with Widyawati et al. (2021). SAHFs in this study find themselves still taking care of the children with positive behavior despite the different levels of stress.

The third finding is that most of the SAHFs experience moderate and low levels of parenting stress. SAHFs in this study are fathers who became SAHFs out of unwillingness and have factors that contribute to their stress levels, but SAHFs still view child-rearing as a positive and meaningful activity. The moderate levels of parenting stress may be due to the adaptation phase fathers have gone through (Cherer et al., 2018; Jayanto et al., 2021), having engaged in parenting for at least 6 months. Thus, even though most SAHFs parent for at least 7 hours per week and some for more than 40 hours per week, they are able to manage their parenting stress levels. The low and moderate levels of parenting stress in SAHFs may also be due to the absence of

problems related to parenting school-aged children. The fathers did not appear to engage in any behavioral issues with their children, did not experience learning difficulties, and did not show parenting activities that involved socializing at their child's school, which would have caused them stress (Hodkinson & Brooks, 2022; Nelson et al., 2014; Doucet, 2018). These SAHFs were actively involved in parenting, but their focus was more on what could be done at home rather than monitoring their child's education at school.

The fourth finding is that there are three paternal responsive parenting behaviors shown by the SAHFs in the context of school activity. Paternal responsive parenting in this study is related to childcare particularly in school aspects, whether the children are in kindergarten or elementary school. The majority of the SAHFs demonstrated activities such as accompanying the children in studying or any other activities related to studying. This result is aligned with Doucet (2018), which shows that SAHFs played an active role in supporting their children directly in education. Other than that, parenting also performed in SAHFs picking up and dropping off. This activity is aligned with studies conducted by Hodkinson and Brooks (2022), and Doucet (2018). Additionally, there is another activity that SAHFs did but was not really mentioned in the previous studies, which was preparing school necessities such as lunch. Although other parties may be involved in childcare, these parties are usually not a substitute for the father's role in teaching their children. SAHFs in this study showed responsibility towards the children's education even when other parties, besides their wives, were involved.

In this study, it was found that SAHF with low, moderate, and high levels of parenting stress still express paternal responsive parenting. Even at the highest level of parenting stress, such as fathers who had been a SAHF for more than 5 years, fathers who worked full-time from home while caring for their children and family, and fathers who became a SAHF because their jobs required them to be at home, paternal responsive parenting still emerged. This finding was observed in SAHFs who parented with or without the help of others aside from their wives. However, it was noted that fathers who worked full-time from home while caring for children and family had the highest levels of parenting stress, which resulted in the lowest chances to engage in paternal responsive parenting.

The fifth finding is perceived social support experienced by SAHFs in this study are primarily from their closest relation. The majority of SAHFs perceived the support from their wives, family, and friends all at once in the same level to help them manage their parenting stress and provide their child with responsive parenting. Fathers that experienced perceived social support felt a sense of safety and assistance in their role. However, it is known that wives are the most frequent support mentioned by the SAHFs to assist them in daily parenthood. This result aligned with a study conducted by Pramanada and Dinardinata (2018).

Further exploration shows that although parenting stress experienced by SAHFs in this study is divided into low, moderate, and high levels, all of the participants still express paternal responsive parenting. Among fathers who had been SAHFs for more than 5 years, worked full-time from home while caring for their children and families, and fathers who became SAHFs because their job required them to be at home, it was found that there was also a high level of perceived social support, which helped them in coping with higher levels of parenting stress. In addition to the

previous statement, fathers who became SAHFs because their children needed them to be at home and had been SAHF for a period of 1-3 years, also reported very high perceived social support, which supported them in providing paternal responsive parenting. Thus, regardless of the stress, SAHFs in this study were able to effectively support their children in school-related matters.

This research not only contributes to the limited body of literature on Indonesian SAHFs but also provides empirical insight into how perceived emotional support interacts with parenting stress to shape paternal responsiveness—a dynamic that may be uniquely influenced by Indonesia's cultural norms and expectations around masculinity and caregiving. In modern families in Java, there has been a shift in the concept of family, which allows the burden of caregiving to shift from the mother to the father (Ismoyo & Pranasari, 2019). This shift in parenting views in Javanese families helps explain why the majority of participants in this study were SAHFs who have Javanese ethnicity and live in areas around Java (DKI Jakarta and West Java). From a religious perspective, there is now a more flexible understanding of household duties within religions, including Islam. The exchange of parenting roles between husband and wife reflects an adaptation to dynamic social and economic situations and supports gender equality (Adib et al., 2024). Therefore, the demographic data in this study also indicates the phenomenon of SAHF across various religions in Indonesia, with the majority of SAHF adhering to Islam.

4 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This study showed that higher levels of parenting stress are related to lower levels of paternal responsive parenting in SAHF. Perceived social support moderates the relationships between parenting stress and paternal responsive parenting in SAHFs. The majority of SAHFs experienced moderate levels of parenting stress. Paternal responsive parenting performed by SAHFs in school activities is shown both directly and indirectly. Most SAHFs experienced perceived support from their wives.

Future research could expand the participant characteristics to include fathers who have been SAHF for less than 6 months, which may provide a better understanding of higher levels of parenting stress. Second, consider a more diverse range of participants' domiciles for better understanding of perceived social support in different cultures. Third, consider using other measurement tools that could explore the dimensions of these three variables while minimizing bias, such as considering reports from other sources.

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Appendix

Table. A1. Demographic Data.

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Religion	Islam	86	91.5	91.5	91.5
	Catholic	3	3.2	3.2	94.7
	Christian	1	1.1	1.1	95.7
	Hindu	1	1.1	1.1	96.8
	Confucianism	2	2.1	2.1	98.9
	Others	1	1.1	1.1	100
Ethnicity	Javanese	36	38.3	38.3	38.3
	Tionghoa	5	5.3	5.3	43.6
	Kupang	1	1.1	1.1	44.7
	Maluku	1	1.1	1.1	45.7
	West Sumatera	2	2.1	2.1	47.9
	Sunda	21	22.3	22.3	70.2
	Betawi	16	17	17	87.2
	Batak	3	3.2	3.2	90.4
	Bugis	3	3.2	3.2	93.6
	Melayu	3	3.2	3.2	96.8
	Padang	2	2.1	2.1	98.9
	Balinese	1	1.1	1.1	100
Education	Bachelor	93	98.9	98.9	98.9
	Mater	1	1.1	1.1	100
Domicile	DKI Jakarta	29	30.9	30.9	30.9
	West Java	32	34	34	64.9

	Central Java	5	5.3	5.3	70.2
	Banten	12	12.8	12.8	83
	East Java	2	2.1	2.1	85.1
	North Sumatera	8	8.5	8.5	93.6
	South Sulawesi	1	1.1	1.1	94.7
	Riau	2	2.1	2.1	96.8
	Bali	1	1.1	1.1	97.9
	East Nusa Tenggara	1	1.1	1.1	98.9
	Bengkulu	1	1.1	1.1	100
Type of SAHF	Only taking care of children and family	35	37.2	37.2	37.2
	Working full-time from home while taking care of children and family	36	38.3	38.3	75.5
	Working part-time from home while taking care of children and family	7	7.4	7.4	83
	Working freelance from home while taking care of children and family	9	9.6	9.6	92.6
	Taking care of business from home while taking care of children and family	7	7.4	7.4	100
Reasons becoming SAHF	Layoff	9	9.6	9.6	9.6
	The job requires them to be home	33	35.1	35.1	44.7
	Have to take care the children at home	33	35.1	35.1	79.8
	Not having another job that suits them yet	13	13.8	13.8	93.6
	Having businesses	6	6.4	6.4	100
Duration of being a SAHF	6 months-1 year	12	12.8	12.8	12.8
	1-3 years	51	54.3	54.3	67

	3-5 years	20	21.3	21.3	88.3
	> 5 years	11	11.7	11.7	100
Amount of children	2	77	81.9	81.9	81.9
	3	13	13.8	13.8	95.7
	> 3	4	4.3	4.3	100
Children's education	Kindergarten	8	8.5	8.5	8.5
	Elementary school	52	55.3	55.3	63.8
	Kindergarten and Elementary school	34	36.2	36.2	100
How many hours SAHFs spent in parenting per week	< 7 hours	2	2.1	2.1	2.1
	7-25 hours	42	44.7	44.7	46.8
	26-40 hours	38	40.4	40.4	87.2
	> 40 hours	12	12.8	12.8	100
Help aside from wives	None	69	73.4	73.4	73.4
	Parents	6	6.4	6.4	79.8
	In-laws	7	7.4	7.4	87.2
	Helper/nanny	8	8.5	8.5	95.7
	Relatives	3	3.2	3.2	98.9
	Others	1	1.1	1.1	100
How many hours other people spent in parenting per week	< 7 hours	10	10.6	10.6	10.6
	7-25 hours	10	10.6	10.6	21.3
	26-40 hours	4	4.3	4.3	25.5

> 40 hours	1	1.1	1.1	26.6
None	69	73.4	73.4	100

Note: N=94

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