

HOW LONG IS ENOUGH? EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF THE PROPORTION OF PAID  
PARENTAL LEAVE TAKEN AND INFORMAL SUPPORT ON EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

by

LAUREN MARIE RICE

(Under the Direction of Malissa Clark)

ABSTRACT

In recent years, there has been a rise in the number of organizations implementing formal family-friendly benefits and policies, with the goal of assisting employees effectively balance their work and nonwork lives (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Although paid parental leave is one of the policies growing in adoption among large organizations, no empirical research has examined the relationships between employees' post-paid parental leave experiences, informal support, and employee outcomes. The present study sought to examine the relationships between employees' proportion of paid parental leave taken and key employee outcomes (i.e., job performance, career advancement, voluntary turnover). Additionally, several forms of informal support (i.e., supervisor support, coworker support, family-supportive organizational perceptions) were examined as moderators in the relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and employee outcomes. Utilizing a sample of 650 employees, results of the hierarchical moderated regression analyses indicated no significant relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and job performance and career advancement. However, the proportion of paid parental leave taken was negatively related to the likelihood of voluntary turnover. Furthermore, family-supportive organizational perceptions moderated the relationship between

the proportion of paid parental leave taken and career advancement. Implications and future research are discussed.

INDEX WORDS:     parental leave, family-supportive supervisor support, maternity leave,  
                         paternity leave, family supportive organization

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LAUREN MARIE RICE

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LAUREN MARIE RICE

Major Professor:	Malissa A. Clark
Committee:	Lillian T. Eby
	Gary Lautenschlager

Electronic Version Approved:

Suzanne Barbour  
Dean of the Graduate School  
The University of Georgia  
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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

Substantial changes have occurred over the past several decades in the composition of families and the workforce. Evidence of these changes includes increases in dual-earner couples, working mothers with young children, single parents, and workers with multiple family care responsibilities (e.g., childcare, eldercare; Bond, Galinsky, & Swanberg, 1998; Kossek & Lambert, 2005; Neal & Hammer, 2007). In response to these labor market shifts, growing numbers of organizations have implemented formal work-life policies designed to assist employees with the integration of paid work with other important life roles such as family, education, or leisure (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). More commonly known as “family-friendly” policies or benefits, they include flextime (i.e., flexible work arrangement in which employees have control to vary the times they arrive and leave work), job sharing (i.e., flexible work arrangement where two employees share one job), part-time work (i.e., work schedule in which employees work fewer than 35 hours per week), telework (i.e., flexible work arrangement that involves employees working from a location outside of their physical organizational setting), and parental leave (Kossek & Michel, 2011).

For organizations, family-friendly benefits and policies are adopted to maintain a competitive advantage, attract and retain top talent, and boost job satisfaction (Bloom, Kretschmer, & VanReenen, 2011). For employees, these benefits and policies are utilized to assist in the fulfillment of work and family responsibilities and have been linked to increased retention, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, well-being, and decreased

work-family conflict (Albrecht, 2003; Allen, 2001, Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2003; Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001; Thompson & Ganster, 1995, Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999).

One work-family policy receiving considerable attention in the popular press, yet little attention in academic literature, is organizations' paid parental leave policy. Large organizations such as Netflix, Twitter, Ernst & Young, and Microsoft, now provide their employees with over 16 weeks of paid parental leave (Adams, 2015; Bernard, 2016). Aside from the popular press's focus on the increased adoption of paid parental leave policies among large U.S. firms, no scholarly research has examined employees' post-paid parental leave experience and the potential impact that paid parental leave may have on key employee outcomes (e.g., job performance, career advancement, voluntary turnover). With more organizations offering paid parental leave (Rossin-Slater, Ruhm, & Waldfogel, 2013), it is key to understand employees' experience returning to work after taking paid parental leave.

Although a couple studies have linked unpaid parental leave and other leaves of absence (e.g., sick leave) to fewer promotions, smaller salary increases, and lower job performance (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999), paid parental leave merits its own study, due to its uniqueness from other family-friendly benefits, unpaid parental leave, and other types of leaves of absence. This uniqueness will be discussed in more detail in the following sections. While the majority of family-friendly benefits and policies provide flexibility continuously over weeks, months, or years (e.g., flextime, telecommuting), paid parental leave is typically a single occurrence, in which employees are absent from work for a set period of time, upon the arrival of a child. This distinguishes paid parental leave from other benefits and policies, because employees on leave

are not present in the workplace for several weeks or months at a time, while employees utilizing flextime or telecommuting policies still have “facetime” with colleagues in the workplace.

Although a key aim of family-friendly benefits and policies is to enable employees to better manage their work and family commitments, employees utilizing flexibility or leave policies may be perceived as less committed and motivated in organizations that value facetime (Rogier & Padgett, 2004). Employees out on paid parental leave for several weeks or months may experience unique outcomes, compared to those utilizing other benefits and policies, due to the extended time out of the workplace. More specifically, employees utilizing paid parental leave may experience the flexibility stigma (i.e., the stigma regarding employees’ use of family-friendly benefits that is typically based on traditional gender stereotypes; Bornstein, 2013) or negative perceptions for not being present in the workplace (Rogier & Padgett, 2004), which may have a different impact on employee outcomes (e.g., job performance, career advancement, voluntary turnover), compared to other benefits and policies.

Compared to unpaid parental leave, the continued provision of compensation while on parental leave is another source of uniqueness for paid parental leave. Research examining unpaid parental leave found that the need for money was a top reason why women returned to work sooner than they may have needed to when on unpaid parental leave (Hyde, Essex, Clark, Klein, & Byrd, 1996), suggesting that financial concerns may be more prevalent among employees utilizing unpaid parental leave than those using paid parental leave. In addition to expediting an employee’s return to work from unpaid parental leave, financial concerns may also be an additional source of stress that employees on unpaid leave experience in addition to the challenges of caring for a newborn. Therefore, employees on unpaid parental leave may have different leave and return-to-work experiences compared to those on paid parental leave, due to

presence of financial concerns. In addition to financial concerns, employees on paid parental leave may feel more indebted to the organization, due to being financially compensated while on leave, compared to those on unpaid leave. In fact, past research found that employees with more access to family-friendly benefits displayed greater organizational commitment and lower intentions to leave the organization (Grover & Crooker, 1995). Thus, employees returning from paid parental leave with feelings of indebtedness towards the organization may feel more pressure to perform and remain with the organization upon returning to work from leave. The presence financial concerns and feelings of indebtedness towards the organization both support the need to examine paid parental leave separate from unpaid parental leave.

Paid parental leave also deserves distinction from other types of leave (e.g., sick leave, caring for a sick child or parent), because empirical evidence indicates that employees are perceived differently based on the type of leave taken. In particular, Wayne and Cordeiro (2003) found that men were viewed more negatively (i.e., less likely to help coworkers, work overtime) when they took leave to care for a new child, while they were not penalized when they took leave to care for a sick child. Conversely, women were not perceived negatively on helping behaviors when they took leave for any reason compared to when they did not take leave. Thus, bias against men may be present in the context of leave for a new child, while it is absent when leave is taken for a sick child. Although both types of leave involve child caregiving, the researchers suggest that greater bias may be present when caring for a newborn child compared to a sick child, because employees may think that men do not need to physically recover from childbirth and therefore they could be working, while both men and women are equally likely to care for a sick child. These differences in perceptions based on leave type further support the

need to examine paid parental leave separately, as different types of leave may impact employee outcomes differently.

The limited research examining the impact of family-friendly benefits and policies on employee outcomes has shown mixed evidence of whether benefits and policies are positively or negatively related to employee outcomes (Kelly et al., 2008). Therefore, an additional aim of this paper is to provide more clarity to the family-friendly benefit/policy – employee outcome relationship, by examining the outcomes of paid parental leave utilization. With more large employers offering paid parental leave to employees to attract, develop, and retain high-performing talent (Matos & Galinsky, 2014), it is important to examine if and to what extent paid parental leave policies provide both positive benefits (e.g., higher performance, lower voluntary turnover) and possible unintended consequences (e.g., lower performance) to organizations.

Although early work-family research emphasized how employees' access to and use of formal family-friendly benefits and policies can reduce work-family conflict (e.g., Kossek & Nichol, 1992), in the last two decades, attention has been placed on the importance of informal support for these benefits, such as supervisor (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009) and coworker support (e.g., McManus, Korabik, Rosin, & Kelloway, 2002) or a positive work-family organizational climate (Allen, 2001). These studies suggest that even as the number of large organizations adopting work-life policies rises (Matos & Galinsky, 2014), it is clear that the sole existence of a policy does not guarantee employee satisfaction, attraction, or retention (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Notably, the implementation of family-friendly benefits and policies may not have the intended effect, if employees do not perceive the environment of the organization to be supportive of their efforts to achieve balance between their work and nonwork lives (Allen, 2001).



In fact, research examining the collective impact of both formal policies and informal support (e.g., supportive work-family culture, supportive supervisor, supportive coworkers) on employee outcomes (e.g., work-family conflict, organizational attachment) found that informal support is related to employee outcomes above and beyond the availability and use of work-life policies (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999; Thompson & Prottas, 2005). Although there is a consensus that both formal (e.g., flextime, leaves of absence) and informal (e.g., supportive work-family culture) work-life supports are necessary to achieve desired employee outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, retention), no research to date has considered the role of informal support *after* employees use family-friendly benefits and policies. It is well established that informal support can contribute to a supportive environment in which employees feel encouraged to utilize benefits and policies (Allen, 2001; Lobel & Kossek, 1996), yet the impact of informal support on employee outcomes (e.g., performance, voluntary turnover, career advancement) once benefits and policies have been used is unknown. For example, an employee returning to work from leave may be tasked with learning a new software program that was implemented during his leave. The support provided by his supervisor and coworkers, in the form of training and/or tips on learning the software, may help him quickly learn the software and get up to speed on his work objectives and tasks. Without the vital support from his supervisor and coworker, it may have taken him much more time to learn the software, resulting in him not completing his work tasks on time. Thus, the final goal of this paper is to examine the impact of informal support (supportive supervisor, supportive coworkers, supportive work-family culture) on the proportion of paid parental leave taken – employee outcome relationships.

As increasing numbers of organizations adopt paid parental leave to attain, develop, and retain top talent, more research is needed to examine the impact of this policy on employee

performance, voluntary turnover, and career advancement. More specifically, it is key to understand how the length of employees' paid parental leave relates to their return-to-work experience, as more large organizations are offering longer paid parental leave policies (Adams, 2015; Bernard, 2016), yet greater time away from work may result in gender role biases, greater skill and knowledge deterioration, and potentially negative employee outcomes. Additionally, this is the first study to examine the impact of various types of informal support (i.e., supervisor support, coworker support, family supportive organizational perceptions) on the proportion of paid parental leave taken – employee outcome (i.e., performance, voluntary turnover, career advancement) relationship. This paper makes a timely contribution to the work-family literature, because it examines how both the use of a unique and increasing popular formal organizational policy and the informal organizational context impacts key employee outcomes. Empirically, it seeks to provide clarity to the inconsistent findings in the family-friendly benefit – employee outcome relationship, while practically, it aims to provide organizations with a better understanding of the efficacy of paid parental leave use on organizational outcomes.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

Although the focus of the present study is on organizations' paid parental leave policy, the paper will first provide an overview of the broader work-family policy and benefit literature before specifically reviewing parental leave research. Summarizing the types, availability, awareness, use, and outcomes of other policies and benefits provides context for the use and impact of paid parental leave.

#### **Types of Family-Friendly Benefits and Policies**

Family-friendly benefits and policies refer to services offered by the organization that enable employees to better manage the interface between work and family (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Beyond the 1993 Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA), which requires employers with 50 or more employees to provide up to 12 weeks of unpaid leave to employees in order for them to manage a family or medical issue, as long as the employee has worked at the organization for a minimum of 1250 hours (United States Department of Labor, 2013), the amount and types of family-friendly benefits and policies varies across organizations. However, these benefits and policies typically include flexible work arrangements (FWAs) and/or dependent care support (Sprung, Toumbeva, Matthews, 2015). Although there are several forms of FWAs, they share the common purpose of allowing employees to have discretion over when and where they complete their work (Kossek & Michel, 2011). Frequently offered FWAs include telecommuting, flextime, a compressed work week, part-time schedules, and job sharing. While FWAs provide enhanced control over work scheduling, dependent care support programs

provide instrumental and/or instrumental assistance (e.g., on-site childcare, caregiving referrals, paid leave) to employees for their childcare or eldercare responsibilities (Major & Germano, 2006).

*Flexible work arrangements.* Forms of FWAs can be organized into for major categories: 1) flexibility in *when* one works, such as the timing of work; 2) flexibility in *where* one work, such as the location; 3) flexibility in *how much* one works, such as the workload; and 4) flexibility in the *continuity* of work, such as short- and long-term breaks in work and time off (Kossek & Michel, 2011). Under flextime, employees have control to vary the times they arrive and leave work, within management parameters, to meet their work and family needs. Similarly, a compressed work week allows employees to work a full-time schedule in fewer than five days (e.g., 4 10-hour days). Not as common as flextime or a compressed work week, shift work is another form of flexible work that involves varying work shifts (e.g., 6 AM to 2 PM, 11 PM to 7 AM), which can allow employees to complete other personal pursuits during the day, such as education.

Another popular form of FWAs refers to the location or place that the work is completed, which includes telework or flexplace. Employees utilizing a telework or flexplace arrangement work from a location outside of their physical organizational setting. While telecommuters typically work from home on a regular basis, employees at satellite and neighborhood work offices work outside the home and organization (Kossek & Michel, 2011). Part-time work is another form of FWA, which involves employees working fewer than 35 hours per week (USBLS, 2004). There are two main subtypes of part-time work, which include job sharing where two people share a job and reduced-load where an employee's workload is reduced in return for less pay or hours (Kossek & Michel, 2011).

*Dependent care support programs.* Unlike FWAs that allow employees flexibility in *when, where, how much, or the continuity* of work, dependent care support programs assist employees financially or instrumentally in fulfilling their childcare or eldercare responsibilities. On-site child care centers, subsidized local child care, child care information/referral services, and elder care assistance are the most common dependent care support programs offered by organizations. Although FWAs and dependent care support programs provide different types of assistance to employees, they both share the purpose of assisting employees in balancing their work and family lives. Furthermore, these discretionary benefits signal the organization's commitment towards creating a family-friendly workplace (Grzywacz & Butler, 2008).

### **Availability of Benefits and Policies**

Results from a recent study conducted by the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) found that the number of organizations offering flexible work arrangements is on the rise compared to 2005 (SHRM, 2012). More specifically, 77% of organizations offer flex time, 63% offer telecommuting, 93% offer choices in managing time, and 87% offer daily time off when important needs arise. In addition to flexible work arrangements, organizations providing dependent care support programs have also been on the rise. According to research by SHRM and the Families and Work Institute (FWI), 61% of employers offer dependent care assistance plans (DCAPs) that help employees pay for child care (up from 46% in 2005), 37% provide child care referral services, 53% provide DCAPs for elder care, and 64% provide elder care referral services (Matos & Galinsky, 2014; SHRM, 2012). Although family-friendly benefits have become increasingly common within U.S. organizations, the actual utilization of these benefits have trailed behind their availability (Galinsky, Bond, & Sakai, 2008).

## Utilization of Benefits and Policies

Despite increasing numbers of organizations offering family-friendly benefits to alleviate employees' conflict between work and family and improve their ability to attract and retain talent (Allen, 2001), simply offering these benefits does not automatically result in their utilization. Supporting that point, results from a study by the FWI found that only 11% of employees who had access to short-notice schedule flexibility used it frequently (Matos & Galinsky, 2011). Among the broader array of family-friendly benefits, many researchers have found low overall usage rate, amidst their increasing availability (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Hammer, Neal, Newsom, Brockwood, & Colton, 2005; Matos & Galinsky, 2014). Viewing the utilization family-friendly benefits separately, Hammer and colleagues (2005) found family health insurance, personal time off/paid leave, flexible work hours, and unpaid were utilized most frequently, while least utilized benefits were on-site childcare, resource and referral for child care and elder care, pretax dollars for elder care, and on-site support groups.

Although the overall utilization of family-friendly benefits is rather low, findings from several studies suggest that men use flexible schedules, telecommuting, part-time work and childcare referrals less than women (e.g., Hammer et al., 2005, Hill, Hawkins, Mårtinson, & Ferris, 2003; Tang & Wadsworth, 2010). This evidence may seem to fit with the popular perception that women use family-friendly benefits more than men, however other findings suggest that there may be no difference between men and women's use of family-friendly benefits. More specifically, the proportions of men and women using flexible schedules over the last 20 years have been very close to equal (McMenamin, 2007). Collectively, these findings suggest that gender differences in the utilization of family-friendly benefits may reside in the type of benefit they prefer (Sprung et al., 2015).

When employees consider utilizing FWAs, a key consideration is flexibility versus face time, which refers to the availability and use of flexible work arrangements that permit face time within the workplace (i.e., flexible arrival and departure times). Empirical evidence suggests that men and women report using flex time to the same extent, which is a flexible work arrangement that does not adversely impact face time in the workplace. However, these findings also revealed that women were significantly more likely than men to telecommute (Beninger & Carter, 2013). Thus, women may be more likely to use family-friendly benefits that hinder their face time, while men are less willing to do so. These findings align with traditional gender role expectations regarding work and family duties, in which women are expected to be primarily devoted to their families and men devoted to their work and financially providing for their families (Bernard, 1981). However, for women, using some family-friendly benefits may unintentionally contribute to career penalties, including less access to influential networks, senior-level sponsors, and advancement opportunities (Beninger & Carter, 2013; Sprung et al., 2015).

### **Awareness and Knowledge of Benefits and Policies**

Although the availability of family-friendly benefits represents a proximal barrier to employee utilization of benefits, empirical evidence also suggests that employees' limited awareness and/or knowledge of available family-friendly benefits are also potential impediments (Prottas, Thompson, Kopelman, & Jahn, 2007). In particular, only 66.2% of employees had heard of the FMLA in 2012, which is only up from 59.1% in 2000 and 56% in 1995 (Klerman, Daley, & Pozniak, 2013). Awareness of discretionary family-friendly benefits is quite low and varying (Prottas et al., 2007; Villablanca, Beckett, Nettiksimmons, & Howell, 2011), with one study showing that knowledge of benefits ranged from 12% for family care referral to 71% for tuition assistance (Haar & Spell, 2004). Without awareness of and knowledge about the benefits

available, employees are unable to take advantage of them and organizations fail to obtain the potential benefits of increased organizational commitment, increased organizational attractiveness to job applicants, and lower levels of work-family conflict (Grover & Crooker, 1995; Hammer, Allen, Grigsby, 1997).

Turning to gender differences in benefit and policy awareness, research indicates that men are less aware than women of the benefits and policies available to them (e.g., Martenengo, Jacob, & Hill, 2010; Prottas et al., 2007; Villablanca et al., 2011). Furthermore, empirical evidence revealed that women have greater knowledge on specific details and how to use family-friendly benefits, compared to men (Martenengo et al., 2010; Prottas et al., 2007). Women's greater benefit awareness and knowledge may be due to individual salience of the benefits. More specifically, women may be more aware of family-friendly benefits because they are often more responsible for managing their children's schedules (e.g., doctor appointments, sick days) and for caring for elderly relatives (Bond et al., 2003), compared to men. Consequently, this salience contributes to them seeking out more information on these benefits to assist with their family-related responsibilities.

In addition to gender differences, knowledge of family-friendly benefits has also been found to differ by employees' number of dependents and organizational tenure (Prottas et al., 2007). Research findings show that employees with more dependents and those with longer organizational tenure had greater knowledge of family-friendly benefits (Prottas et al., 2007). This is likely due to the more dependents employees have increasing their likelihood of seeking information on family supportive benefits and longer tenure increasing opportunities to acquire information on benefits. Collectively, employees' limited awareness and knowledge of family-



friendly benefits may be a key contributor to the low benefit utilization rate, despite the increasing availability of benefits.

### **Benefit and Policy Use Intentions**

Although increasing men's awareness and knowledge of family-friendly benefits may seem like the obvious solution to increasing their benefit utilization, findings from several studies suggest this may not be an easy solution. Butler and colleagues (2004) found that even when men report that they have positive work expectancies related to family-friendly benefits, their intentions towards using the benefits does not increase. In contrast, women's anticipated positive work expectancies were related to stronger benefit use intentions. Similarly, Vandello and colleagues (2013) found in a sample of undergraduates that men and women equally valued work flexibility and work-life balance, however men were significantly less likely than women to report intentions to actually seek out such flexibility when entering the workforce, mostly due to gender stereotypes. Men who believed that others would perceive them as lacking in ideal masculinity were least likely to report intentions to seek out flexible work arrangements, while women intended to seek work flexibility to the extent that others would perceive them as more feminine. These findings indicate that benefit awareness and knowledge are not the sole factors to consider in the gap between benefit availability and utilization, but rather the consideration of other factors (e.g., gender norms) are of key importance.

### **Outcomes of Family-Friendly Benefits and Policies**

Research has found inconsistent relationships between family-friendly benefits and employee outcomes (Kelly et al., 2008). While some studies have found that family-friendly benefits and policies are linked to lower work-family conflict (Thompson et al., 1999), intentions to stay (Thompson & Prottas, 2006), and higher organizational commitment (Grover & Crooker,

1995), other studies have failed to find significant relationships with work-family conflict (Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990), intentions to stay (Glass & Riley, 1998), job satisfaction (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), and absenteeism (Goff et al., 1990).

One likely explanation for these inconsistent findings may be in how family-friendly benefits and policies are assessed. As noted earlier, many researchers have failed to distinguish between the measurement of benefit and policy availability and use, with some studies assessing availability, others measuring use, and some assessing both. Availability and use of benefits and policies are distinct constructs and their separate measurement may reveal differential relationships with employee outcomes. Moreover, consistency is also needed in the specific measurement of benefit availability and use. While some studies assess availability or use of one benefit or policy, other studies will explore a bundle of benefits and/or policies (Kelly et al., 2008). It is important to distinguish between single or multiple benefits and policies, because more benefits and policies may lead to better or different outcomes (Butts, Casper, Yang, 2013; Casper & Buffardi, 2004). With the availability and use distinction in mind, the subsequent review of benefit and policy outcomes will distinguish between outcomes of availability and use.

In terms of benefit and policy availability, favorable outcomes include increased affective commitment (e.g., Butts et al., 2013), intentions to stay (e.g., Butts et al., 2013; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010), job satisfaction (e.g., Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999) employee productivity (e.g., Baltes et al., 1999), decreased work-family conflict (e.g., Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013; Anderson et al., 2002; Butts et al., 2013) and lower absenteeism (e.g., Baltes et al., 1999). Similar to availability, benefit and policy use has been shown to be associated with increased affective commitment (e.g., Butts et al., 2013), job satisfaction (e.g., Hammer et al., 2005), intentions to stay (e.g., Butts et al., 2013),

and work-family conflict (e.g., Butts et al., 2013). Unique to benefit and policy use, Lambert (2000) found three measures of organizational citizenship behaviors (“individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization”, Organ, 1988, p.4) were positively related to work-life benefit usefulness. Furthermore, the use of family-friendly benefits has also demonstrated inconsistent relationships with performance. Several scholars have found benefit and policy use increases performance (e.g., Dunham, Pierce, & Castaneda, 1987; Pierce & Newstrom, 1982; Pierce & Newstrom, 1983), while others have failed to find associations with performance (e.g., Kossek & Nichol, 1992).

## CHAPTER 3

### PRESENT STUDY & HYPOTHESES

#### **FMLA and Parental Leave**

As previously noted, most family-friendly benefits and policies are offered at the discretion of employers, while the FMLA is only policy that is provided in accordance with US federal law. Aside from the FMLA, which only pertains to unpaid leave, the U.S. is only industrialized country that does not require organizations to provide new parents with paid parental leave following the birth of a child. In 2015, 21% of large U.S. corporations offered paid parental leave, which is the highest it has ever been (Addady, 2016).

Although the FMLA has existed for over two decades, a recent study by Klerman and colleagues (2013) found that only about one in six worksites meet the eligibility requirement of 50 employees and are covered by the FMLA (17%). Among employees, slightly over half of all employees reported meeting all three of the following conditions to be eligible for protections of the FMLA: (i) work for a firm with 50 employees within 75 miles of the employee's worksite; (ii) have 12 months tenure with this firm; and (iii) have 1,250 hours of service in the past year (about 24 hours per week).

Those employees eligible for protections of the FMLA may take up to 12 weeks of unpaid leave per year for FMLA-qualifying reasons, which include (i) serious health condition of self, spouse, parent, child; (ii) new child (birth, adoption, foster); and (iii) deployment of the employee's parent, spouse, or child to be covered active duty as a member of the regular Armed Forces or reserves. Of the employees that Klerman and colleagues (2013) surveyed, only thirteen

percent took leave for a qualifying FMLA reason during the previous year. The majority of the leave was taken for the employee's own illness (55%), while leave for pregnancy for a new child (21%) and illness for a relative (18%) was less common.

Under the provisions of the FMLA, employees are guaranteed the right to return to their pre-leave position or to an equivalent position. However, the FMLA does not include a requirement that employers pay employees while they are utilizing the leave. Yet, findings from Klerman and colleagues' (2013) study indicate that most employees do receive some compensation while on family or sick leave (e.g., sick leave, parental leave, caring for a sick child), with 48% of employees reporting they receive full pay and another 17% receive partial pay. Although these findings indicate a large proportion of employees receive full or partial pay while on family or sick leave, employees do still report that the inability to afford leave is one common reason for returning to work (40%; Klerman et al., 2013).

**Parental leave usage.** Turning to the utilization of the FMLA specifically for caring for a new child (birth, adoption, foster), Klerman and colleagues' (2013) findings indicate that paid parental leave is not common for both men and women. Although paid parental leave is rare for both genders, there is still a large gender disparity with only 9% of organizations offering paid paternity leave, while 21.6% of organizations offer paid maternity leave (Klerman et al., 2013). Similar trends are found for leave taking and length of leave, with women being more likely to use maternity leave and take longer leaves, compared to men (Armenia & Gerstel, 2006; Klerman et al., 2013). More specifically, in Klerman and colleagues' (2013) research, 70% of men took only 0-10 days of paternity leave, while 23% of women took 0-10 days of leave with the majority of women taking 41 days or more (56%). Additional research suggests that on average, men take one day of unpaid or paid leave for every month a woman takes (Harrington,

Van Deusen, & Humberd, 2011). Gender differences are also found in pay for parental leave, with females being almost twice as likely as males to receive pay for parental leave (21% vs. 13%).

Research examining parental leave more broadly (paid and unpaid leave), has also found that women are more likely to take parental leave compared to men, as well as take longer parental leave than men (Armenia & Gerstel, 2006). In regards to leave length, Hyde and colleagues (1996) found that women took an average of 9 weeks for leave, which is 3 weeks less than the leave length provided by the FMLA. Notably, they found that the top reason women returned to work sooner than they may have needed to was the need for money (Hyde et al., 1996). A study examining parental leave usage following the passage of the FMLA found that the legislation did not have a significant impact on men's leaving taking. Their findings did reveal increases in leave taking and leave length for women; however, the effects were not significant after controlling for working hours and state of residence (Han & Waldfogel, 2003).

**Factors affecting parental leave.** Despite the FMLA providing 12 weeks of unpaid leave for the birth or adoption of a new child, as well as many large US organizations offering several weeks of paid parental leave, employees do not always take the full leave they are allotted. Research suggests that family resources, life stage, and workplace characteristics are factors likely impacting employees' parental leave utilization and leave length (Armenia & Gerstel, 2006). More specifically, lower income women are more likely to perceive the need for leave (Gerstel & McGonagle, 1999), however they tend to take shorter leave following the birth of a child than higher income women (e.g., Bond, Galinsky, Lord, Staines, & Brown, 1991; Glass & Camarigg, 1992). Employees' life stage has also been found to impact leave taking, with Gerstel and McGonagle (1999) finding that the presence of children increases the likelihood of

taking leave. Similarly, the presence of a spouse or partner increases both men's and women's leave utilization (Gerstel & McGonagle, 1999).

In addition to employee characteristics impacting leave taking and leave length, empirical evidence suggests that characteristics of the workplace may also impact leave utilization. In particular, several scholars note that privileged employees (e.g., those working in large organizations with salaried rather than waged jobs) are better positioned to negotiate with supervisors for parental leave (e.g., Deitch & Huffman, 2001; Goodstein, 1994). Organizational size also has an impact on leave utilization, however the findings are mixed. Several researchers have found that larger organizations are more likely to offer leave, which may be due to cost effectiveness or more social pressure as a larger organization (Deitch & Huffman, 2001; Osterman, 1995). Conversely, other research comparing leave utilization prior to the FMLA and after the FMLA finds an increase in leave utilization among mothers who worked in medium-sized organizations (100-499 employees) (Waldfogel, 1999).

Gender composition of an organization has also been identified as a factor influencing leave utilization. More specifically, Bygren and Duvander (2006) found in a sample of Swedish fathers that fathers working in the private sector, at small organizations, and in male-dominated organizations were less likely to use parental leave. Further, men working at organizations where other fathers had not previously utilized the leave were also less likely to use the leave. The authors conclude that fathers may limit use of parental leave if they believe leave usage is associated with high costs for their careers (Bygren & Duvander, 2006). The findings also suggest that fathers considering parental leave are strongly influenced by their colleagues and work environment.

**Gender differences in parental leave length.** As previously noted, men tend to take shorter parental leaves compared to women, which researchers have speculated is in part due to the physical recovery from childbirth that women experience, as well as newborn care (Armenia & Gerstel, 2006). In particular, research indicates that parental leaves taken by women are more than twice as long as leaves taken by men (Armenia & Gerstel, 2006). Furthermore, one study found that among different types of family leaves (e.g., newborn, sick child, sick parent, sick spouse) men's shortest leaves were for newborns (Armenia & Gerstel, 2006). Although both men and women may not use the full parental leave due to stigmatization or limited awareness or knowledge of the parental leave policy, it is hypothesized that women will take greater proportions of full leave than men. A primary reason for women's longer leave length is likely due to the needed physical recovery time from the birth and the infant's dependence on the mother (e.g., breastfeeding). However, women's longer parental leave is likely also influenced by cultural norms and traditional gender role expectations.

Women face unique struggles as they strive to balance their desires to be involved in work, while also conforming to traditional gender role expectations that women should be intensely committed to their families. Eagly's (1987) social role theory of sex differences asserts that individuals tend to engage in activities that align with their traditional gender roles, due to the external social pressures and individual internalized cultural gender expectations that influence them to enact behaviors that are congruent with traditional gender roles. With the birth of a child, women's family devotion schema is activated, which elicits the need to care for the child, rather than quickly return to work (Ridgeway, 2011). External pressures from friends and family members who are likely to hold traditional gender norms views may also influence women's decision to take longer parental leave than men (Ridgeway, 2011). While men are



prescribed to care for the family by working (i.e., breadwinner role), women are expected to be devoted to the family by managing the home and caring for the children (Blair-Loy, 2001).

Women may be subjected to negative outcomes in multiple different forms, including personal pressure and guilt, societal pressures, and external pressures from friends and family. Due to the possibility of these negative outcomes for taking shorter paid parental leave, it is hypothesized that women will take a greater proportion of paid parental leave to comply with traditional gender role expectations and physically recover from the birth.

*H1) Women's proportion of paid parental leave taken will be greater than men's proportion of parental leave taken.*

## **Parental Leave Outcomes**

**Parental outcomes.** Although few researchers have studied the outcomes solely of parental leave, the limited research indicates that parental leave can impact both the employee and the newborn child (e.g., Allen & Russell, 1999; Feldman, Sussman, & Zigler, 2004; Galtry & Callister, 2005). Turning first to the parent's health, McGovern and colleagues (1997) found that longer maternity leaves were associated with improved health after childbirth, in which women taking leaves of 12, 15, and 20 weeks reported greater vitality, better mental health, and fewer limitations to their daily roles. Similarly, Feldman, Sussman, and Zigler (2004) found that shorter maternity leave was associated with higher maternal depression, lower parental preoccupation with the infant development (i.e., the heightened involvement in the infant's well-being and growth, Winnicott, 1956), and stronger negative impact of the birth on their self-esteem and marriage. For fathers, longer parental leaves were related to higher parental preoccupation with the infant, more marital support, and higher family salience (Feldman et al.,

2004). These findings suggest that longer parental leaves that allow for longer recovery time and transition into caring for a newborn result in more positive parental and health outcomes.

**Infant outcomes.** In addition to parental outcomes, substantial research has also focused on the impact of leave-taking and leave length on infants. Winegarden and Bracy's (1995) study of 17 industrial countries revealed that the provision of paid maternity leave was linked to a decreased in infant mortality, as well as an increase in women's participation in the workforce during childbearing years, and an increase in birth rates. Additionally, research examining the influence of maternity leave on infant health outcomes following the implementation of the FMLA found that leave led to small increases in birth weight, decreases in the likelihood of premature birth, and decreases in infant mortality for children of college-educated and married mothers (Rossin, 2011). Furthermore, Brooks-Gunn, Han, and Waldfogel (2002) revealed that mother's return to employment any time between birth and nine months after the birth resulted in children's negative cognitive outcomes and lower school readiness scores at 3 years of age. Notably, good-quality care at home and good-quality child care buffers the negative effects of maternal employment on children's cognitive outcomes.

**Employee outcomes.** In terms of employee outcomes, Galtry and Callister (2005) note numerous costs that mothers may face in relation to taking parental leave, which include loss of income while on leave, loss of on-the-job training opportunities, and depreciation of skills and experiences. Allen and Russell's (1999) experiment on parental leaves of absence revealed that employees who used parental leave were perceived as having lower levels of organizational commitment, which was thought to affect the subsequent allocation of organizational rewards, including advancement opportunities and salary increases. Furthermore, men who utilized the parental leave were perceived as less committed to the organization and were less likely to be

recommended for rewards than were women or men who had not taken a parental leave of absence (Allen & Russell, 1999).

***Job performance.*** Defined by Motowidlo (2003), job performance refers to “the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time” (p. 39). To-date, no known studies have examined the impact of paid parental leave length on job performance; thus, this is the first to examine this relationship. Research on the broader leave of absence policies has examined the leave of absence – job performance relationship, finding that employees who took leave received lower performance ratings compared to those who did not take leave, only if the leave had been taken during the year of the performance evaluation (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999). They also found that leaves of absence, regardless of the reason (family responsibilities or illness) or gender of the supervisor, were associated with fewer promotions and smaller salary increases. Similarly, Allen and Russell (1999) found in a lab study that men in the parental leave condition were less likely to be recommended for rewards than women and both men and women in the parental leave condition were perceived as less committed to their work.

Although no empirical studies have examined the effect of paid parental leave length on performance ratings, human capital theory (Becker, 1964; Mincer, 1962) suggests that longer parental leave will result in negative performance ratings for both men and women. More specifically, human capital theory posits that gaps in employment results in decremented human capital, which refers to job knowledge and skills. Research by Light and Ureta (1995) found that even with work experience controlled for, individuals with employment gaps have less human capital than individuals with continuous employment. Scholars also contend that employment gaps cause employees’ skills, knowledge, and social networks to decline or become outdated

(e.g., Blau, Ferber, & Winkler, 1998; Mincer & Ofek, 1982), resulting in human capital deterioration. Thus, as employees take a greater proportion of paid parental leave, they also will experience greater depreciation of their human capital during the time away from work. In addition to the deterioration of human capital, longer parental leaves also prevent the accumulation of human capital, as the longer employees are away from work, the more trainings and other opportunities they miss to develop their job knowledge and skills (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999).

Traditional gender norms and stereotypes may be another theoretical explanation for the hypothesized negative relationship between paid parental leave length and performance. More specifically, both men's and women's parental leave usage contradicts the ideal worker image, which prescribes employees to be fully committed to work (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004; Williams, Blair-Loy, & Berdahl, 2013). When women take a greater proportion of paid parental leave, gender stereotypes would suggest that they are perceived as embodying the mother image, in which they are viewed as lower status, less valued, and less competent employees (Correll, Benard, & Paik, 2007). Similarly, men taking greater proportions of paid parental leave are viewed as less masculine, are respected less, and experience more negative career outcomes (e.g., Funk & Werhun, 2011; Heilman & Wallen, 2010). This suggests that both men's and women's greater proportion of paid parental leave will result in lower performance ratings, due to perception that they are not prescribing to the ideal employee image, who is a high performer and fully committed to work. Whether taking the human capital perspective, which posits that human capital deterioration from paid parental leave results in lower performance ratings, or the traditional gender norm perspective that suggests a greater proportion of paid parental leave contradicts the ideal employee image, both suggest that greater proportions of paid parental leave

taken will result in lower performance ratings. More specifically, proportion of paid parental leave taken refers to the actual length of leave taken by the employee relative to the full amount of leave allotted to the employee by the organization's paid parental leave policy. For example, an employee taking 14 weeks of leave out of the 16 weeks allotted to them would represent a greater proportion of paid parental leave taken, compared to an employee taking 6 weeks of the 16 weeks.

*H2) The proportion of paid parental leave taken will be negatively related to job performance.*

**Career advancement.** While performance and turnover intentions are frequently studied outcomes in the work-family interface, the criterion of career advancement has received far less empirical attention. Much of the research on career outcomes has focused on career satisfaction (e.g., Amstad et al., 2011), career interruptions (e.g., Kirchmeyer, 1998), compensation (e.g., Kirchmeyer, 1998), and perceived advancement (e.g., King, Botsford, & Huffman, 2009), with no research to-date examining actual career advancement as an outcome of paid parental leave usage. Career advancement is defined as promotions to jobs at higher levels in the management hierarchy or to jobs that have a larger scope of responsibilities (Hall, 2002). The career literature notes the importance of considering career advancement as a critical employee outcome, as empirical findings indicate that advancing within an organization is a key career concern and desire among employees (Hall, 2002).

Many employees strive to attain successful careers within their organizations while balancing personal and family demands. Therefore, it is likely that an employee's advancement in an organization is a critical outcome affected by the work-family interface and the usage of parental leave. King and colleagues (2009) demonstrated that both positive and negative

spillover from an individual's home life to work life can impact perceived advancement (i.e., the degree to which employees feel they have a chance to advance in their organization). More specifically, positive home-to-work spillover (i.e., the "transfer of positive experiences from role to the other role", Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73) was positively related to perceived advancement, while negative home-to-work spillover (i.e., the extent to which the demands of home interfere with the needs of work; King et al., 2009) was negatively related to perceived advancement. Similarly, Lyness and Judiesch (2008) found that managers who were rated higher in work-life balance (based on self, peer, and supervisor ratings) were also rated higher in career advancement potential than managers who rated lower in work-life balance. These findings along with Ng and colleagues' (2005) meta-analytic findings that work centrality was positively related to promotions suggests that employees with fewer competing work and family demands are more likely to advance in their careers.

Turning to parental leave usage, Judiesch and Lyness (1999) found that family leaves of absence were associated with significantly fewer promotions. Although they did not examine paid parental leave specifically or the length of the leave, human capital theory (Becker, 1964; Mincer, 1962) suggests that greater proportions of paid parental leave taken may result in fewer promotions. Similar to the previous section on job performance, this theory posits that time away from work during parental leave results in the decline of employees' human capital, as they are not employing their job knowledge and skills while on leave. Thus, the greater proportion of paid parental leave taken, the more depreciation of human capital and the potential for outdated job knowledge and skills (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999). Consequently, managers of employees on paid parental leave may question the value of the employees' human capital and readiness for promotion after their return to work, as they are aware of the unemployment of their skills and

knowledge. Furthermore, managers may be less like to promote employees who have taken a greater proportion of paid parental leave, because those employees taking longer leaves missed more training opportunities to enhance their human capital, while employees taking a smaller proportion of paid parental leave or no leave at all may have taken advantage of those opportunities and have accumulated human capital that makes them attractive for promotion. Therefore, it is hypothesized that greater proportions of parental leave taken will result in fewer promotions.

*H3) The proportion of paid parental leave taken will be negatively related to career advancement.*

**Voluntary turnover.** Within the work-family literature, much of the focus has been on turnover intentions (e.g., Anderson et al., 2002; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999), while empirical investigations examining links to actual voluntary turnover have been rare (e.g., Carr, Boyar, & Gregory, 2008; Lyness & Judiesch, 2001). Regarding turnover intentions, empirical studies (e.g., Anderson et al., 2002; Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, & Parasuraman, 1997) and meta-analytic investigations (Allen et al., 2000; Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011) have found that those higher in work-family conflict also have greater turnover intentions. Importantly, Amstad and colleagues (2011) found both WFC and FWC were positively associated with turnover intentions.

Given that organizations are keenly interested in voluntary turnover, due to the high cost of acquiring and training new talent (Knights & Kennedy, 2005), it is important to understand the impact that the proportion of full paid parental leave taken has on employees' departure. The limited research examining the leave – voluntary turnover relationship found that managers who had taken family leaves had higher voluntary turnover rates than managers who had not taken

leave (Lyness & Judiesch, 2001). Interestingly, managers with graduate degrees who had taken family leave were less likely to resign, compared to managers with less education who had also taken leave (Lyness & Judiesch, 2001). Additional research indicates that women with paid or unpaid maternity leave benefits were more likely to return to work after childbirth than women without those benefits (Waldfoegel, 1997, 1998), which aligns with other research finding that women are more likely than men to resign from their organizations because of family responsibilities (Keith & McWilliams, 1995; Sicherman, 1996).

Although limited guidance is provided by empirical research about the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) can be employed to better understand this relationship. According to social exchange theory, when favorable treatment is perceived by an individual, the individual feels obligated to reciprocate (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In the context of the paid parental leave – voluntary turnover relationship, when employees perceive that their organizations are helping them manage their work and family demands, the norm of reciprocity elicits the return of favorable treatment, which may be in the form of favorable attitudes toward the job and organization (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006). Furthermore, the availability of paid parental leave may signal to employees that the organization cares about the well-being of its employees (Grover & Crooker, 1995), which also engenders feelings of goodwill and positive affect towards the organization (Scholl, 1981).

Collectively, this suggests that the sense of well-being and feelings of goodwill from utilizing the organization's paid parental leave policy will result in the desire to return the favorable treatment through loyalty and commitment to the organization (Wayne et al., 2006). In fact, Grover and Crooker (1995) found that employees with access to more family-friendly



benefits and policies showed greater organizational commitment and lower intention to leave. Employees taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave may feel a greater sense of goodwill and need to reciprocate the favorable treatment, compared to employees taking a lower proportion of paid parental leave, due to the longer length of time away from the organization to care for the newborn child. Therefore, it is hypothesized that the proportion of paid parental leave taken will be negatively related to voluntary turnover, due to the norm of reciprocity compelling employees to return the favorable treatment in the form of staying with the organization.

*H4) The proportion of paid parental leave taken will be negatively related to voluntary turnover.*

### **Moderating Relationships**

**Informal support.** Although the growing availability of family-friendly benefits and policies have received significant attention from academia and the popular press, work-life scholars note the importance of moving beyond the pure implementation of these benefits and policies toward a change in organizational culture (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002). It is clear that the sole existence of a family-friendly benefit or policy does not guarantee the desired outcomes of employee recruitment, satisfaction, or retention (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Therefore, this paper adopts Kossek, Lewis, and Hammer's (2010) work-life initiative framework, which considers both structural and cultural work-life supports. More specifically, structural supports alter policies, practices, and job structures to enhance work flexibility to increase employee control over the location, place or amount of work, or to provide additional resources such as information or services to enable employees to combine employment with caregiving or other important nonwork responsibilities. Examples of structural support include family-friendly

benefits reviewed in the prior section, such as flexible work arrangements and dependent care benefits (Kossek et al., 2010).

Cultural support can be described as informal workplace social and relational support, such as support from supervisors and coworkers together with organizational cultural norms that increase employee's perceptions that employees who are involved in work and family roles are valued by the organization. This informal support exists at two levels: the work group level, where employees receive support from managers and coworkers; and the organizational level, where resources and organizational values and norms are enacted. An example of cultural support may include training managers to be more supportive of employees' nonwork responsibilities (Kossek et al., 2010). Informal supports have frequently been examined prior to employees' expected or actual use of family-friendly benefits and policies, as they contribute to an environment in which employees feel encouraged to use the benefits and policies without fear of negative consequences (Allen, 2001). In fact, support from supervisors, coworkers, and the broader organizational culture have been positively linked to family-friendly benefit and policy utilization (Allen, 2001; Breugh & Frye, 2008; Lambert, Marler, & Gruetal, 2008).

Because informal supports are well-established antecedents of benefit and policy usage, this paper considers the interactive influence that the proportion of paid parental leave taken and informal support have on employee outcomes after employees have utilized benefits and policies. Although informal support is known to influence employees' initial use of benefits and policies, the question regarding the impact of the proportion of paid parental leave taken and the amount of support after employees have used benefits and policies remains. Thus, the following section will discuss the influence of supervisor support, coworker support, and family supportive

organizational perceptions on employee outcomes (i.e., job performance, career advancement, voluntary turnover).

Drawing from the theoretical tenets social support (Cohen & Wills, 1985) and perceived organizational support (POS; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986) literatures, it is hypothesized that informal supports (i.e., supervisor support, coworker support, and family supportive organizational perceptions) will buffer the negative effects of the proportion of paid parental leave taken on employee outcomes. When employees take a greater proportion of paid parental leave, their knowledge and skills are deteriorated to a greater extent than employees who take a lower proportion of paid parental leave. This skill and knowledge deterioration can become an additional demand and source of stress for employees returning to work from a greater proportion of paid parental leave, as they already are experiencing the demands of a new child and now also have the demands of updating their work-related skills and knowledge. Thus, the social support given by supervisors, coworkers, and the boarder organization provides employees with personal resources (e.g., time, energy, attention) to devote to the new work and family demands they face upon returning from leave (Cohen & Wills, 1985), which is particularly important for employees returning from a greater proportion of paid parental leave who have greater demands and fewer resources than those returning from a smaller proportion of paid parental leave. Moreover, employees perceiving greater support after returning from a greater proportion of paid parental leave, where many resources were depleted, will have the needed resources to devote to work and family demands, resulting in the completion of work objectives and higher performance. Conversely, employees returning from a shorter leave likely experience less skill and knowledge deterioration, due to being away from work for a shorter

time. Therefore, they may not be as depleted of resource and support may not be as needed or impactful, as they do not have the additional demands of updating their skills and knowledge.

***Family supportive supervisor behaviors.*** Given that supervisors are typically viewed as stewards of organizational practices with their ability to enact formal and informal practices, the study of supervisor support for work and family is critical to understanding the effective implementation and efficacy of family-friendly benefits in organizations (Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007). Since supervisors have the latitude to approve employees' use of certain family-friendly benefits and policies, their role can be viewed as the bridge between the availability of benefits and use of those benefits. When supervisors interpret and enact family-friendly benefits and policies this is known as family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB), which are formally defined as behaviors exhibited by supervisors that are supportive of employees' family roles (Hammer et al., 2009).

Hammer and colleagues have demonstrated that there are four dimensions of FSSB, which include emotional support, role modeling behaviors, instrumental support, and creative work-family management (e.g., Hammer et al., 2007, 2009). Generally, emotional support focuses on perceptions that a person is being cared for, that one's feelings are being considered, and that individuals feel comfortable communicating with the individual providing support when needed. From a supervisor perspective, emotional support may be exemplified in talking to employees and being aware of their family and personal demands. Furthermore, it involves supervisors making employees feel comfortable discussing family-related issues, expressing concerns for the way that work demands affect family, and showing respect, understanding, and sensitivity regarding family issues (Hammer et al., 2009).

Supervisors' role modeling behaviors involve supervisors demonstrating how to integrate work and family by modeling those behaviors at work. For example, supervisors may share ideas or advice about strategies that have helped them successfully balance their work and family demands (Hammer et al., 2009). Scholars have noted that cultural change only occurs when supervisors and senior leaders reinforce work-life values and policies through what they say and do (Regan, 1994). Therefore, supervisors modeling the integration of work and family to employees is critical. While role modeling behaviors are proactive, instrumental support is more reactive and involves supervisors' response to employees' work and family needs on a day-to-day basis. It includes the provision of day-to-day resources or services to help employees balance their work and family demands, such as reacting to scheduling requests of flexibility or managing work schedules to ensure daily tasks are completed (Hammer et al., 2009).

The fourth dimension of FSSB, creative work-family management, is defined as managerial-initiated actions to restructure work to facilitate employee effectiveness on and off the job. An example includes thinking about work-family demands from a total work group perspective in order to provide structural group interventions, such as cross-training between and within work groups. It may also be thought of as a "win-win" action, in which supervisors initiate innovative ways to restructure the work that are sensitive to the employee and organizational needs (Hammer et al., 2007).

Drawing from the general social support literature (Cohen & Wills, 1985), supervisors are in a unique and important position to facilitate employees' management of work and family demands through the provision of support, especially given that the sole presence of family-friendly benefits and policies is not sufficient to reduce work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Kossek, 2005). Social support is an interpersonal transaction that may include emotional

expression of concern, instrumental assistance, or information (House, 1981), which provides employees with additional psychological resources that provide a stress buffer to strain. Support provided by supervisors plays a critical role in employees return to work after a leave of absence, because they can provide an employee with a phased return to work, which may be particularly important for employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave. This may include providing lighter tasks, encouraging coworkers to assist employee in return to work, listening to employees return-to-work concerns, which are related to greater job performance, greater psychological well-being, lower psychological distress, and greater job satisfaction. Furthermore, unsupportive supervisors who do not assist employees in their return to work from paid parental leave may contribute to lower job performance and well-being among employees (Munir, Yarker, Hicks, & Donaldson-Feilder, 2012).

Drawing from the boomerang employment literature (boomerangs are individuals who have previously worked for an organization, and after a period of time, returned to work for the same organization; Shipp, Frust-Holloway, Harris, & Rosen, 2014), employees returning to work from leave can face disruptions, which are discontinuities in work situations that are driven by internal or environment changes (Gersick, 1991). These disruptions can render employees' knowledge out-of-date, which may require employees to recall, relearn, adapt, or update knowledge, expertise, or routines to complete job tasks (Swider, Liu, Harris, & Gardner, 2017). As employees seek to relearn skills and knowledge, supervisors may be an important provider of support to help employees quickly and efficiently relearn work tasks and knowledge. For example, a procurement employee may return to work to find that the software and process to complete a purchase order has changed, resulting in the supervisor teaching the employee how to use the new software and process.

Along with the demands of updating job knowledge and reinvigorating social networks with colleagues, employees returning from leave are also balancing the new family demands associated with a newborn. Amidst the post-leave work and family demands, support provided by supervisors may play a key role in the proportion of paid parental leave taken – employee outcome relationship, because they can provide employees with the resources (e.g., tools, training) and support needed to “get up to speed” in their work tasks (Babin & Boles, 1996). This is especially critical for employees returning from a greater proportion of paid parental leave taken, as their skills and knowledge may be deteriorated to a greater extent, resulting in a greater need for support and resources from their supervisors than employees who have taken a shorter proportion of paid parental leave. Furthermore, supervisors exhibiting FSSB tend to be perceived as more accommodating of employees’ family and personal responsibilities than supervisors who do not show these behaviors. By exhibiting family-supportive behaviors, such as role-modeling the use of family-friendly benefits and policies or providing emotional concern for employees’ work and family demands, employees feel supported and encouraged fulfill both their work and family demands. For example, employees with a supportive supervisor may feel encouraged to leave work two hours early to attend their child’s doctor’s appointment or ask the supervisor for assistance learning a new software that was introduced during his/her leave.

*Job performance and career advancement.* Empirical evidence indicates that supervisor support is related to higher job performance (Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayan, & Schwartz; Blau, 1981), which likely stems from the supervisor’s provision of instrumental and/or emotional support facilitating the employee’s fulfilment of work responsibilities. Drawing from both the social support and work-family support literatures, it is hypothesized that FSSB will buffer the negative effect of the proportion of paid parental leave taken on both job performance

and career advancement. As previously discussed, when employees take greater proportions of paid parental leave, they experience greater depreciation of their human capital during the time away from work (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999), which is hypothesized to result in lower performance ratings and lower likelihood of promotion. In addition to revitalizing their human capital upon returning to work, employees also face the challenge of balancing these work demands with the family demands associated with a newborn. With the onset of both new work and family demands for employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave, supervisor's family-specific support provides employees with additional personal resources (e.g., attention, time, energy) needed to fulfill their demands. For example, a supervisor may provide an employee with the opportunity to telecommute one day a week upon returning to work after leave, to help the employee ease back into work while balancing the demands of a new child. This may be especially beneficial for an employee returning from a greater proportion of paid parental leave who has greater work and family demands, as it helps to meet the family demand of caring for his/her child. Conversely, employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave with unsupportive supervisors will not have the needed resources to devote to work and family demands, resulting in the unfulfillment of work responsibilities and lower job performance ratings. Therefore, employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave with supportive supervisors will have greater resources for coping with the stressors of work and family (Jex, 1998), resulting in the fulfillment of work tasks and higher job performance ratings. Among employees returning after taking a shorter proportion of leave, supervisor support may not be as impactful, because employees' skills and knowledge did not depreciate as much as employees taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave. Thus, there is less need for additional support and resources from supervisors.



Moreover, employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave with more supportive supervisors may also have a greater likelihood of being promoted, compared to employees with less supportive supervisors. Meta-analytic findings indicate a positive, yet weak, relationships between supervisor support and promotions (Ng, Eby, Sorenson, & Feldman, 2005). In particular, employees with more supportive supervisors who have returned after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave may have greater support and access to training and skill development opportunities, which enhances their knowledge and skills and subsequently, their promotability (Ng et al., 2005). In other words, support provided by supervisors may buffer the negative impact of the proportion of paid parental leave on promotions, due to the supervisor's support enhancing their skills and likelihood of promotion. For example, a supervisor may nominate an employee who's recently returned after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave with outdated skills to attend a multi-day manager capability workshop, which should strengthen the employee's knowledge and skills and ultimately contribute to their promotability. Conversely, employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave with unsupportive supervisors may not have the support or opportunity to take advantage of training and development opportunities, resulting in their knowledge and skills remaining idle and a lower likelihood of promotion.

*H5) The relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and: a) job performance and b) career advancement will be moderated by family-supportive supervisor behaviors, such that the negative relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and these outcomes will be weaker for individuals reporting higher family-supportive supervisor behaviors than for individuals reporting lower family-supportive supervisor behaviors.*

*Voluntary turnover.* Although much of the voluntary turnover research has focused on work attitudes as antecedents of voluntary turnover, empirical evidence also indicates that supervisors can play a key role in employees' voluntary turnover decisions (e.g., Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007; Payne & Huffman, 2005). In particular, support provided by supervisors can foster employees' attachment with supervisors, which have been found to be negatively related to turnover cognitions (Maertz et al., 2007). Furthermore, assistance with work tasks, advice, or emotional concern from supervisors aligns with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which posits that employees who perceive favorable treatment from their organization will feel an obligation to repay the organization through positive attitudes and behaviors, including lower turnover intentions and actual voluntary turnover.

Beyond the broad perception of support from the organization, employees also develop specific perceptions concerning the degree to which their supervisor values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Supervisor support among employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave, who are balancing the new demands of returning to work and caring for a newborn, should evoke positive affect and a feeling of obligation to repay the support by remaining with the organization. For example, an employee returning to work after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave may receive support from their supervisor to schedule the child's upcoming doctor's appointments while at work. As a result of the supervisor's support for her work and family demands and the ability to take a greater proportion of paid parental leave, the employee may feel an obligation to repay the favorable treatment by staying at work, rather than leave the organization to care for her child.

Among unsupportive supervisors, the lack of support for employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave may arise from the flexibility stigma aimed at returning employees (Bornstein, 2013). Employees taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave may suffer greater stigmatization than those taking a lower proportion of paid parental leave, as a greater proportion of paid parental leave may be perceived as diverting from the ideal worker image (Williams et al., 2013). As previously discussed, both men and women suffer the negative consequences of the flexibility stigma, albeit for different reasons (Williams et al., 2013). While women's embodiment of the "mother" image can result women being perceived as lower status, less valued, and less competent employees (Correll et al., 2007), men diverging from the ideal worker image experience greater family conflict (Butler & Skattebo, 2004), negative reactions from others (Allen & Russell, 1999), and harassment (Berdahl & Moon, 2013). Moreover, stigmatization has been related to fewer opportunities for development and advancement (Cox, 1993), reduced job attitudes (Stephan & Stephan, 1985), greater turnover intentions (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014), and lower performance (Stephan & Stephan, 1985).

In the context of paid parental leave, employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave may perceive a greater sense of stigma from unsupportive supervisors, due to the longer time away from work. Due to the lack of support, employees may experience increased stress (Link & Phelan, 2006) and lower self-esteem and self-efficacy (Warner, Taylor, Powers, & Hyman, 1989), resulting in decreased motivation to complete work tasks and remain with the organization (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014). Turning to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), employees after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave with unsupportive supervisors will not possess the obligation to remain with the organization, as reciprocation is not justified when they do not receive support from their supervisors and

potentially feel stigmatized. Collectively, lower levels of supervisor support are posited to weaken the negative influence of proportion of paid parental leave taken on voluntary turnover, while higher levels of supervisor support are posited to strengthen the relationship.

*H5c) The relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover will be moderated by family-supportive supervisor behaviors, such that the negative relationship between the paid proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover will be weaker for individuals reporting lower family-supportive supervisor behaviors than for individuals reporting higher family-supportive supervisor behaviors.*

**Coworker support.** Another important form of informal work-family support that may have an interactive influence with the proportion of paid parental leave taken on the efficacy of family-friendly benefits and policies is coworker support (Thompson & Prottas, 2005). Deriving from the broader construct of social support, coworker support refers to the amount of instrumental aid, emotional concern, informational, and/or appraisal functions from peers or coworkers (Michel et al., 2010). Research has shown that coworkers can provide informational and emotional support to fellow employees that can result in decreased burnout (i.e., a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) and increased job satisfaction, personal, and organizational commitment (Warner, Slan-Jerusalim, & Korabik, 2009).

As described by Pfeffer (1982), “for most people working in organizations, the most potent and relevant contextual effect is that of the group with which they work” (p. 103). This is likely due to most employees spending much of their workdays interacting with their coworkers (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Korabik & Warner, 2012). Thus, it is unsurprising that studies have

found that coworkers have a greater impact on employees' attitudes and behaviors than supervisors (e.g., Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). In addition to spending considerable time together, coworkers and employees also interact through the completion of complex and interdependent tasks (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Some researchers have also noted that a coworker is more proximal to employees, which may contribute to him/her being more influential than support from family and friends outside of work, which is more distal (Ouchi & Johnson, 1978, as cited in Erera, 1992).

Research indicates coworker support can influence an employee's ability to fulfill work and family demands, however in past research it is difficult to isolate supervisor from coworker support due to the items being combined into one measure (e.g., Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Scholars examining coworker support as a single construct found it was negatively related to work-to-family conflict (WFC; Thompson & Prottas, 2005), family-to-work conflict (FWC; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997), stress, and intentions to quit and positively related to job, family, and life satisfaction, and positive spillover between job and home (Thompson & Prottas, 2005). Furthermore, meta-analytic evidence also indicates that coworker support is negatively related to WFC and FWC (Michel et al., 2010).

In addition to impacting work-family conflict, research has also shown that coworkers' behavior and reactions may also impact employees' utilization of family-friendly benefits and policies. For example, Lambert and colleagues (2008) found that coworkers' use of family-friendly policies and benefits was positively related to employees' use of the policies and benefits. Similarly, Hyde and colleagues' (1993) study found that fathers' perceptions of their coworkers' reactions had a significant impact on their decisions about the length of their paternity leave.

Similar to FSSB, which details the support that supervisors provide to employees' family roles (Hammer et al., 2009), coworker support in this paper focuses on specific support for employees' work and family roles. Rather than focus on broad instrumental and emotional support provided by coworkers, the aim is to assess the impact that work-family support from coworkers has on the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and employee outcomes. Drawing again from the social support (Cohen & Wills, 1985) and boomerang literatures (Shipp et al., 2014), work-family support provided by coworkers, such as role-modeling the use of family-friendly benefits and policies or providing emotional concern for employees' family role, provides employees returning from leave with the resources (e.g., time, energy) to work (e.g., updating job knowledge and skills) and family (e.g., newborn care) demands. As with FSSB, this support is particularly important for employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave who have greater work and family demands and are in greater need of support and resources from their coworkers. Support and resources given by coworkers will not only satisfy work and family demands, but may also contribute to the fulfillment of work tasks, which may subsequently impact their performance and promotion potential.

*Job performance and career advancement.* In addition to supervisor support, meta-analytic evidence indicates that coworker support is also positively related to task performance (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). More specifically, coworkers can provide task information that reduces role ambiguity (i.e., the relative unpredictability of outcomes of individual behavior and the lack of clarity of behavioral requirements, Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964), contribute information resources to lower uncertainty and unpredictability in the employee's role, and engage in high-quality interpersonal interactions with the employee that can diminish

role conflict (i.e., the simultaneous occurrence of two [or more] sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other, Kahn et al., 1964). Coworkers can also help reduce role overload (i.e., situations in which employees feel that excessive activities are expected of them given their abilities, time, and organization constraints, Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970) by helping employee prioritize multiple tasks (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008).

In the context of paid parental leave, coworkers may provide support to employees returning from leave in the form of giving key information about new or updated job-related processes (Kogler Hill, Bahniuk, & Dobos, 1989), directly assisting employees complete their work tasks and goals (Ensher, Thomas, & Murphy, 2001), and/or by facilitating interpersonal interactions with coworkers (Deckop, Cirka, & Andersson, 2003), which may result in higher performance. Employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave with more outdated job knowledge and skills may especially benefit from this support, as it will help them fulfill the work demands of relearning job tasks and processes. Furthermore, affective support from coworkers that include displays of positive emotion and empathy (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) may help employees cope with the heightened family demands of a newborn child, such as empathizing with the employee who is experiencing separation anxiety while their child is at a childcare center. Conversely, employees returning after taking a lower proportion of paid parental leave who have fewer work demands of updating skills, may not benefit as much from coworker support, as they may have less need for support. Collectively, coworker support buffers the negative impact of the proportion of paid parental leave taken on performance, by providing employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave with

greater resources to fulfill work and family responsibilities, resulting in the completion of work tasks and increased performance.

Additionally, the support and resources garnered through interpersonal coworker relationships can influence employees' career advancement (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). Coworkers' provision of information, assistance with work tasks, and/or emotional concern are contextual factors that can empower employees, resulting in increased performance and motivation to develop skills and abilities (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Since the appraisal of job performance often plays a key role in the assessment of an employee's promotability (Mobley, 1982; Stumpf & London, 1981), enhanced skill development and improved job performance should enhance the likelihood of an employee's promotability. More specifically, greater support from coworkers, in the form of job-specific information or emotional concern, provides employees after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave with both the motivation and additional resources (e.g., time, energy) to fulfill work and family needs, which should result in improved performance and likelihood of promotion. Conversely, employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave who are in great need of support who receive little support from coworkers will not have the additional motivation or resources needed to fulfill work and family demands, resulting in decreased performance and likelihood of promotion.

*H6) The relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and: a) job performance and b) career advancement will be moderated by coworker support, such that the negative relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and these outcomes will be weaker for individuals reporting higher coworker support than for individuals reporting lower coworker support.*



*Voluntary turnover.* Coworker support is also posited to have an impact on the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover. Similar to supervisor support, limited support from coworkers may also influence employees' withdrawal. More specifically, coworkers can impact voluntary turnover by reducing communication, emotional concern, resources, or by bad-mouthing the organization and leaving the organization themselves (Krackhardt & Porter, 1986). In fact, Chiaburu & Harrison's (2008) meta-analytic findings indicate that coworker antagonism (i.e., the degree of opposition, resentment, animosity or annoyance that workers perceive from coworkers, Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008) is positively related to several forms of employee withdrawal, including absenteeism, intentions to quit, and voluntary turnover. Consistent with supervisor support, the lack of coworker support towards employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave may derive from the flexibility stigma (Bornstein, 2013).

Coworkers of employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave may perceive employees as embodying the mother or father image, rather than the ideal worker image. Because the presence of a stigma can influence the way that others think, feel, and behave towards the stigmatized individual (Miller & Major, 2000), coworkers may withhold support and resources from the stigmatized employee. As a result of the stigmatization and lack of support, employees may experience decreased self-esteem and self-efficacy (Warner et al., 1989), contributing to diminished motivation to perform at work and greater intentions to quit (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014). Thus, it is hypothesized that the lack of coworker support will weaken the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover.

*H6c) The relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover will be moderated by coworker support, such that the negative*

*relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover will be weaker for individuals reporting lower coworker support than for individuals reporting higher coworker support.*

***Family-supportive organizational perceptions.*** As noted by Lobel and Kossek (1996), offering family-friendly benefits is not enough to address employees concerns unless the offering of benefits is complemented with organizational norms and values that support the balance between work and family. What is needed, according to a growing number of scholars, is a family-supportive organization culture or work environment that acknowledges employees' family and personal needs by providing flexibility and support for family demands and obligations (e.g., Allen, 2001; Lobel & Kossek, 1996). Drawing on signaling theory (Spence, 1973), only offering benefits without supportive culture may signal to employees that the organization encourages them to devote themselves to their work at the expense of their other family and personal needs. Thus, the implementation of family-friendly benefits may not have the desired impact if employees do not perceive the organizational culture to be supportive of their efforts to balance their work and family (Allen, 2001; Lobel & Kossek, 1996).

Originally operationalized by Thomas and Ganster (1995), work-family culture refers to “the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees’ work and family lives” (p. 392). Albeit the first measure of the family-supportive work environment, it combined supervisor support and global perceptions of the organization’s work environment. Therefore, in an effort to distinguish the two constructs, Allen (2001) developed a measure of family-supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP) that only examined the global perceptions that employees form regarding the extent to which the organization is family supportive. Drawing from the perceived organizational

support (POS) literature, which defines POS as employees' "global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501), FSOP concerns employees' specific attitudinal response to the organization, which is the family-supportiveness of the work environment.

As evidenced in Allen's (2001) study, employees working in an environment perceived as more family-friendly reported less WFC, even after controlling for benefit availability and FSSB. More recently, scholars have found that employees working in family-supportive work environments experience lower levels of work-family conflict across all forms of WFC and FWC (Lapierre et al., 2008). Furthermore, Allen (2001) found that FSOP were positively correlated with employees' benefit usage, which supports the notion that family-supportive work environments may reduce the stigma that using benefits to meet family needs could be detrimental to one's career.

*Job performance, career advancement, and voluntary turnover.* According to signaling theory (Spence, 1973), individuals interpret an organization's observable actions as signals of organizational features that are not as observable. In addition to discerning how outsiders perceive an organization, signaling theory can be utilized to better understand how organizational actions impact employees' attitudes and behaviors. In the context of family-friendly policies, scholars have drawn from signaling theory to posit that the availability of policies and benefits signals to employees that the organization cares for their well-being (Grover & Crooker, 1995). Furthermore, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) posits that the relationship between an employee and the organization may be based on nonmaterial exchanges (e.g., perceived support). This relationship characteristic suggests that when employees perceive that the organization cares about them and their family's well-being, they may feel obligated to

reciprocate that favorable treatment through more positive work attitudes and behaviors (Butts et al., 2013).

Broadly, scholars have leveraged social exchange theory to examine the impact of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) on employee outcomes, finding that when POS is higher, employees are more likely to engage in OCB (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997), higher job performance (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001), reduced absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986), and reduced voluntary turnover (Maertz et al., 2007). Employees who feel they have been well supported by the organization tend to reciprocate by performing better and remaining with the organization, compared to those with lower levels of POS (Wayne et al., 1997).

Within the work-family literature, recent meta-analytic work indicates that FSOP plays a role in the relationship between work-family policy availability and work attitudes (job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay). Drawing from both signaling (Spence, 1973) and social exchange (Blau, 1964) theories, we hypothesize that lower levels of FSOP strengthens the hypothesized negative impact of the proportion of paid parental leave taken on job performance and career advancement, thus resulting in lower performance and probability of promotion. Furthermore, we hypothesize that lower levels of FSOP will weaken the negative impact of the proportion of paid parental leave on voluntary turnover, resulting in greater voluntary turnover. More specifically, when employees return from leave and feel uncomfortable discussing family issues (e.g., their newborn child) or utilizing flexible work arrangements, employees may interpret the unsupportive environment as a signal that the organization is also not supportive of their ability to balance their work and family responsibilities (Spence, 1973). Due to this interpretation of little concern for family well-being,

employees may not feel valued by the organization or motivated to perform better, seek out more development opportunities to enhance their skills, and/or remain with the organization.

Employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave may be in greater need of knowledge and skill enhancement to strengthen their performance and promotability evaluations, due to their longer time out of the workforce. However, due to lack of support from the organization, they will not be motivated to enhance their skills and knowledge and they will not feel a strong obligation remain with the organization. Therefore, we expect FSOP will moderate the relationship between proportion of paid parental leave taken and employee outcomes such that those perceiving lower FSOP will be lower performers and less likely to be promoted and remain with the organization.

*H7) The relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and: a) job performance, b) career advancement will be moderated by family supportive organizational perceptions, such that the negative relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and these outcomes will be weaker for individuals reporting lower family supportive organizational perceptions than for individuals reporting higher family supportive organizational perceptions.*

*H7c) The relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover will be moderated by family supportive organizational perceptions, such that the negative relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover will be weaker for individuals reporting lower family supportive organizational perceptions than for individuals reporting higher family supportive organizational perceptions.*

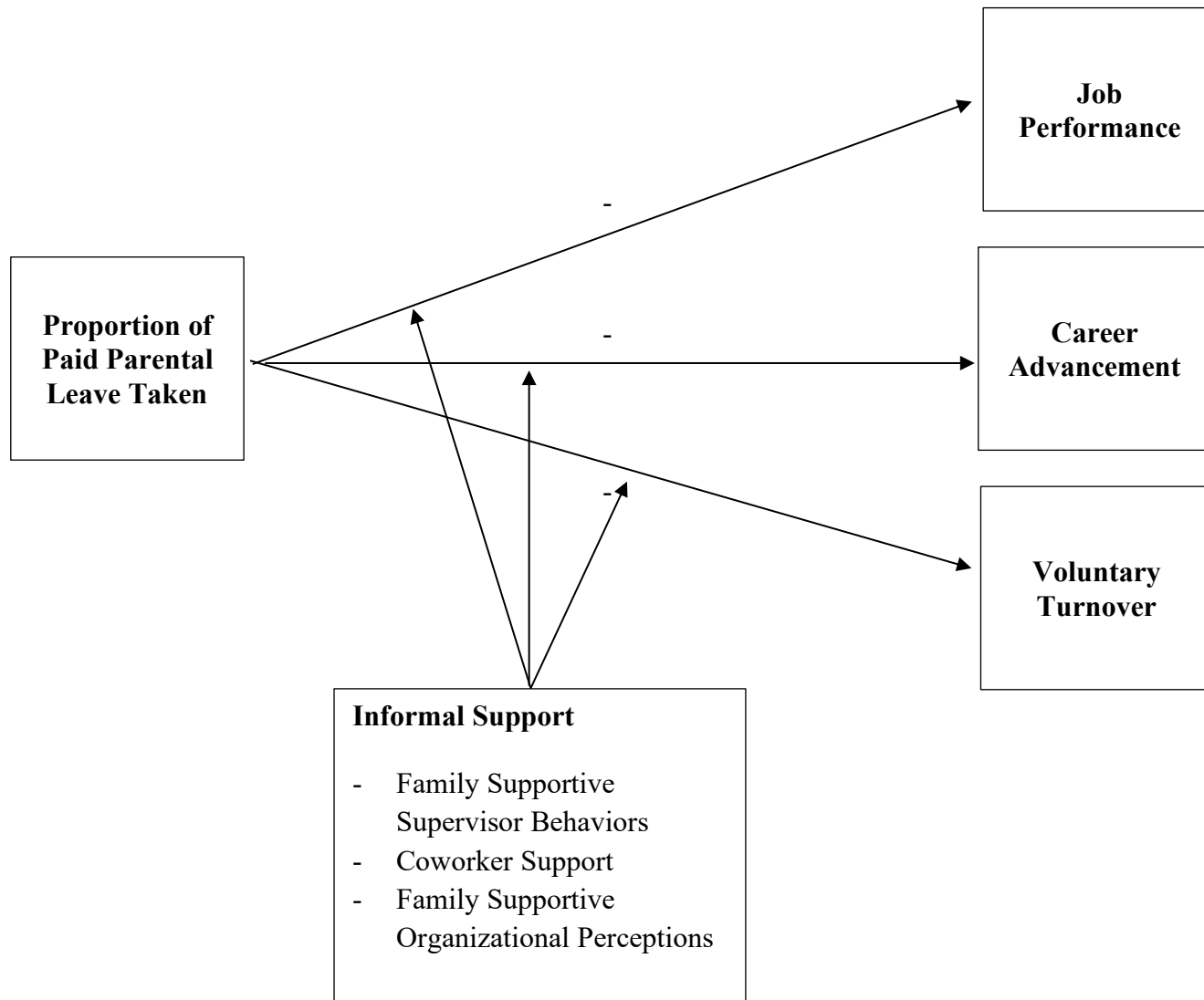


Figure 1. Proposed model

## CHAPTER 4

### METHOD

#### **Participants and Procedure**

Data were collected from 650 U.S. full-time employees at a large multinational corporation operating in the health care product industry. The first wave of data came from an employee survey examining the efficacy of the organization's paid parental leave policy, which was administered electronically during August 2016 to U.S. employees who had utilized the organization's paid parental leave policy between May 1, 2015 and December 31, 2015. Employees meeting the criteria were sent an email from a senior human resources (HR) leader containing a link to Qualtrics, an online survey program. The survey assessed employees' paid parental leave length, family supportive supervisor behaviors, coworker support, and family supportive organizational perceptions. Employees' demographic information was obtained, including age, organizational tenure, number of children, spouse/partner status and employment, and employee gender, from both the survey and the organization's human resource information system (HRIS). To separate the measurement of the predictor variables from the outcome variables, the employee outcome measures (i.e., job performance, career advancement, voluntary turnover) were obtained from the organization's HRIS as of December 2017.

Employee's average age was 35.5 ( $SD = 3.9$ ); 57% were women, and a majority of the sample were married or in an exclusive relationship (97%) and had two or more children (58%). Most of the participants were Caucasian (72%), followed by Asian (15%), Hispanic (7%), African-American (4%), and other (2%). Employees had a relatively short organizational tenure,

with 47.2% of employees being with the organization less than 5 years. An additional 29.8% of employees had been with the organization 6-10 years, followed by 19.8% at 11-15 years, 3.2% at over 16 years. The majority employees (87.7%) worked in white collar functions (e.g., Research & Development, Sales, Quality, Marketing, Finance). In regard to job level, most employees worked in an individual contributor role (63.9%), while an additional 31.4% were in a manager role, followed by 4.6% in a director role, and .2% in a vice president role. Employees took an average of 11.3 weeks of paid parental leave.

## **Measures**

**Family supportive supervisor behaviors.** Family supportive supervisor behaviors were measured using Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, and Crain's (2013) Family Supportive Supervisor Behavior-Short Form (FSSB-SF) scale. Items were measured on a scale ranging from *1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree*, with higher scores reflecting greater family supportive supervisor behaviors. The four items assessed all four dimensions underlying FSSB, which include emotional support (e.g., "Your supervisor makes you feel comfortable talking to him/her about your conflicts between work and non-work"), instrumental support (i.e., "Your supervisor works effectively with employees to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work"), role modeling (i.e., "Your supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues"), and creative work-family management (i.e., "Your supervisor organizes the work in your department or unit to jointly benefit employees and the company"). Internal consistency for the scale was .93. All scales can be found in Appendix A.

**Coworker support.** Coworker support was measured using items from the 2002 National Study of the Changing Workforce (NSCW), a telephone survey conducted by Harris Interactive, Inc. for the Families and Work Institute (see J.T. Bond et al., 2003). Participants responded to the



items using the following scales, *1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree*, therefore higher scores are associated with greater support from coworkers. The scale consists of three items which assess participants' perceived support from their coworkers (e.g., "I have the coworker support I need to manage my work and family life"). Internal consistency for the scale was .92.

**Family supportive organizational perceptions.** Family supportive organizational perceptions were measured using a shortened version of Allen's (2001) family supportive organizational perceptions scale. The scale was shortened from its original form to adhere to the organization's desire to not use negatively-worded items, therefore only positively worded items were retained. Items were measured on a scale ranging from *1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree*, with higher scores reflecting a perception of the organization as being more family supportive. Three items were used to assess the extent to which participant felt the organization was supportive of employee efforts to balance work and family life (e.g., "Employees are given ample opportunity to perform both their job and their personal responsibilities well"). The internal consistency for the scale was .84.

**Proportion of paid parental leave taken.** The proportion of paid parental leave taken was calculated by dividing the number of weeks employees took off when utilizing the paid parental leave policy by the maximum number of weeks allotted to men and women (the organization's paid parental leave policy provides men with up to 8 weeks of paid leave and women with up to 17 weeks of paid leave). The number of weeks employees were on leave was obtained from the organization's HRIS. A shorter leave resulted in a smaller proportion (e.g.,  $3/8 = 0.375$ ), while a longer leave equated to a larger proportion (e.g.,  $17/17 = 1$ ). Employees' average proportion of paid parental leave taken was .84 ( $SD = .24$ ).

**Job performance.** Job performance was measured using the organization's annual performance ratings for 2017. The organization's 2-item job performance measure assessed employees' goal attainment (i.e., "Based on the employee's performance against goals and your judgment, which rating definition best describes performance on Results?") and leadership behaviors (i.e., "Based on the employee's demonstrated leadership and your judgment, which rating definition best describes performance on Leadership?"). Ratings were measured on a four-point scale corresponding to standard rating definitions (i.e., *1 = does not meet*, *2 = partially meets*, *3 = fully meets*, *4 = exceeds*). Due to the low correlation between the goal attainment and leadership behavior dimensions ( $r = .13$ ), only the goal attainment dimension was retained as the job performance measure for the primary analyses. The goal attainment dimension aligns more closely with task performance than the leadership behaviors dimension, thus the goal attainment dimension was used for all job performance analyses. All analyses were repeated using the leadership behaviors dimension and the results were consistent with the goal attainment results.

**Career advancement.** Career advancement was defined as a move to the next hierarchical level in the organization. To determine whether an employee was promoted, employees' job level from May 1, 2015 was compared to their job level on December 31, 2017. In line with previous research (e.g., Lyness & Judiesch, 2001), career advancement was analyzed as a dichotomous variable (0 = no career advancement; 1 = one or more career advancement moves) rather than a continuous variable. During the study's time period (May 1, 2015 to December 31, 2017), 44.8% of employees were promoted.

**Voluntary turnover.** Voluntary turnover was defined as an employees' voluntary exit from the organization. Voluntary turnover data was collected from the organization's HRIS and was analyzed as a dichotomous variable (0 = active employee, 1 = exited employee). From

May 1, 2015 to December 31, 2017, only 8.9% of the employees voluntarily left the organization.

**Demographics.** Various demographics were measured for use as potential control variables, which included age, race/ethnicity, organizational tenure (i.e., years at organization), job level, number of children, spouse/partner status, and employee gender, and time lags (in months) between employees' paid parental leave end date (May 1, 2015 and December 31, 2015) and online survey completion (August 2016) and the employee outcomes (December 2017), as theory and empirical findings indicate that these demographic variables covary with job performance, career advancement, and voluntary turnover (e.g., Carr et al., 2008; Cox & Blake, 1991; Griffeth, Hom, Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Ng et al., 2005; Waldman & Avolio, 1986).

### **Outlier Removal and Variable Transformation**

Prior to hypothesis testing, all study variables were screened to assess outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, and singularity. Several cases of univariate and multivariate were identified. Additionally, the proportion of paid parental leave taken, FSSB, and coworker support variables were found to have moderate negative skewness. In line with Tabachnick and Fidell's (2018) recommendations, several iterative steps were taken to minimize the impact of the outliers and skewness on the primary analyses. The specific steps and associated results will be detailed in a later section.

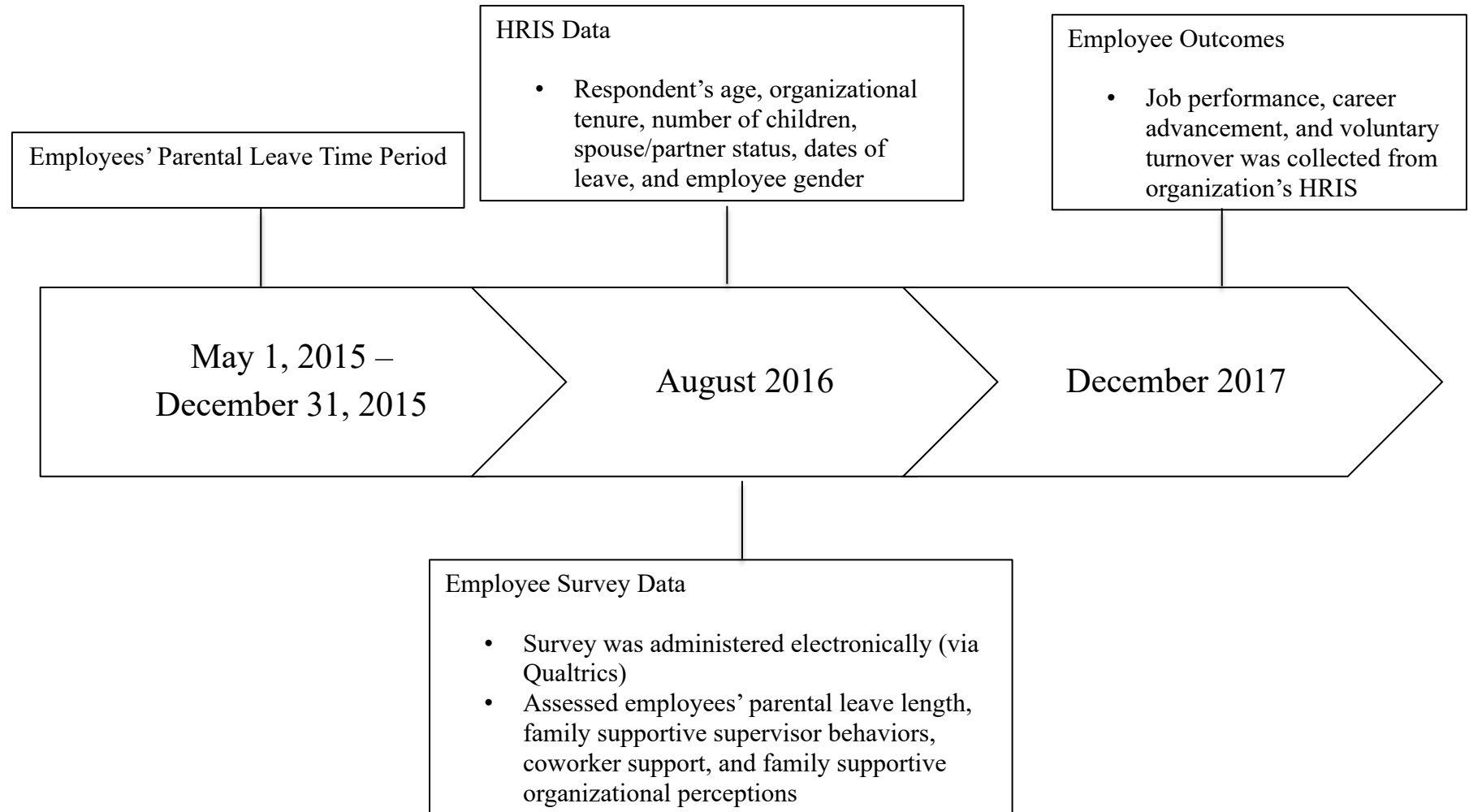


Figure 2. Study measures and timeline

## CHAPTER 5

### ANALYSES & RESULTS

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics including variable means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and coefficient alphas for the primary study variables were calculated in IBM SPSS Statistics software version 19.0 (IBM Corps, 2010) and are displayed in Table 1. Utilizing recommendations from Carlson and Wu (2012) and Neter and Wasserman (1990), all potential control variables were correlated with the outcome variables, job performance, career advancement, and voluntary turnover. Of the proposed control variables, age and job level were found to be significantly correlated with career advancement, while organizational tenure and job level were significantly correlated with voluntary turnover. Thus, age, job level, and organizational tenure were retained as control variables in subsequent hypothesis testing analyses. No demographic variables were significantly correlated with job performance; thus, no control variables were used in the job performance analyses.

#### **Confirmatory Factor Analyses**

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Lance & Vandenberg, 2002) were used to examine the latent factor structures of the informal support variables. CFA differs from exploratory factor analyses (EFA), because the models are determined a priori with guidance from theory (Lance & Vandenberg, 2002; Little, Lindenberger, & Nesselrode, 1999; James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982). All CFAs were conducted in R statistical software (R Core Team, 2013).

Scholars recommend the use of several types of fit indices to evaluate model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Lance & Vandenberg, 2002; Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988; Tanaka, 1993); therefore the following indices were used to assess the model fit: the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) goodness of fit statistic, the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI; Tucker & Lewis, 1973), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR; Bentler, 1995). For a model to indicate adequate fit, the CFI and TLI values should be greater than .90, the RMSEA value should be less than .08, and the SRMR value should be less than .10. For a model to demonstrate good fit, the CFI and TLI values should be greater than or equal to .95, the RMSEA value should be .06 or lower, and the SRMR value should be .08 or lower (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

CFAs were conducted on all informal support variables, which included FSSB, coworker support, and FSOP. Since each of these variables are all forms of informal support, the measurement model was tested along with additional alternative models (Vandenberg & Grelle, 2009) to confirm the distinctiveness of these constructs. First, a one-factor model was estimated ( $\chi^2 (35) = 1582.805, p < .001$ ; CFI = .70, TLI = .63, RMSEA = .26, SRMR = .12), in which the four item-level indicators of FSSB, three item-level indicators of coworker support, and three item-level indicators of FSOP were set to load onto a general informal support factor. Next, a three-factor model was estimated ( $\chi^2 (32) = 115.497, p < .001$ ; CFI = .98, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .03) that specified separate FSSB, coworker support, and FSOP factors. Upon examining fit indices according to Hu and Bentler's (1999) recommendations, the three-factor model provided a better fit to the data than the one-factor model, which is further supported by the statistically significant difference between the two models ( $\Delta\chi^2(3) = 1467.3, p < .001$ ). The

estimates of the fit indices for each of the models can be found in Table 2. These results provide support for FSSB, coworker support, and FSOP as three distinct constructs.

### **Hypothesis Testing**

Hypotheses were tested via IBM SPSS statistical software (IBM Corps, 2012) and R statistical software (R Core Team, 2013). Hypothesis 1 predicted that women's proportion of paid parental leave taken would be greater than men's proportion of paid parental leave taken. As predicted, results from an independent samples *t* test indicated that women's proportion of paid parental leave taken ( $M = .89$ ,  $SD = .20$ ,  $N = 369$ ) was significantly greater than men's proportion of paid parental leave taken ( $M = .78$ ,  $SD = .27$ ,  $N = 281$ ),  $t(648) = -5.95$ ,  $p < .001$ ; thus Hypothesis 1 is supported.

To examine Hypotheses 2-7, several hierarchical moderated regressions were employed to examine the main effect of the proportion of paid parental leave taken on the employee outcomes and the interactive effects of the proportion of paid parental leave taken and the types of informal support (i.e., FSSB, coworker support, FSOP) on the three employee outcomes (see Tables 3 & 4). Separate hierarchical moderated regression analyses were performed for each employee outcome (i.e., job performance, career advancement, voluntary turnover). Additionally, logistic regression was used to examine the impact of the main and interactive effects on career advancement and voluntary turnover, due their dichotomous nature.

Before conducting the hierarchical moderated regression analyses, the predictor and moderator variables (i.e., proportion of paid parental leave taken, FSSB, coworker support, FSOP) were mean-centered to minimize the influence of multicollinearity among the interactions and main effects (Aiken & West, 1991). After mean-centering the variables, the interaction terms were created by multiplying the newly created mean-centered variables together to create a

cross-product term. Control variables were entered in the first step of the hierarchical moderated regression model. Age and job level were included as control variables for career advancement, while organizational tenure and job level were included as control variables for voluntary turnover, because of their theoretical relevance and significant relationships with career advancement (Ng, et al., 2005; Tharenou, Latimer, & Conroy, 1994) and voluntary turnover (Bal, Cooman, & Mol, 2013; Cole & Bruch, 2006). More specifically, previous research and theory note that age positively predicts career advancement as extrinsic outcomes accrue over time (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988), while promotions are less likely at higher organizational levels, due to there being fewer positions to rise to at higher levels in the organization (Konrad & Cannings, 1997). Regarding the control variables for voluntary turnover, past research and theory posit that organizational level is negatively related to turnover as greater commitment among employees in higher level positions decrease interest in seeking other employment (Cole & Bruch, 2006), while turnover is less likely for more highly tenured employees due to the strong loyalty and commitment that they have developed for the organization over the years (Bal et al., 2013).

At step two, the main effect of the predictor variable—the proportion of paid parental leave taken—was entered. Results of the first hierarchical moderated regression indicated that the proportion of paid parental leave taken did not account for a significant proportion of variance in job performance ( $R^2 = .00$ ,  $F(1, 586) = .141$ , *ns*); thus Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Contrary to Hypothesis 3, the proportion of paid parental leave taken was not significantly related to career advancement ( $b = -.09$ ; Nagelkerke  $R^2 = .06$ ; Wald = .06  $p = .81$ ); thus Hypothesis 3 is not supported. Consistent with Hypothesis 4, the proportion of paid parental leave taken was significantly negatively related to voluntary turnover ( $b = -1.11$ ; Nagelkerke  $R^2$



= .05; Wald = 4.71  $p < .05$ ). To provide a more meaningful interpretation of the effect of the proportion of paid parental leave taken on voluntary turnover, the analysis was performed again with the proportion of paid parental leave taken as a percentage. This variable was created by multiplying the original proportion of paid parental leave variable by 100, which results in a percentage. As shown in Table 5, the odds ratio indicated that for every one unit increase in the proportion of paid parental leave taken (as a percentage), the odds of leaving the organization decreased significantly by .99 times, supporting Hypothesis 4.

At step three, the main effects of the moderator variables—FSSB, coworker support, FSOP—were entered. In the final step, the cross-product terms were entered, which included a set of three interactions. Results from the hierarchical moderated regression analyses indicated that both the interactions between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and FSSB and the proportion of paid parental leave taken and coworker support were not significantly related to job performance, career advancement, or voluntary turnover, therefore Hypotheses 5 and 6 were not supported. Additional results indicated that the interaction between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and FSOP was not related to job performance or voluntary turnover, thus Hypotheses 7a and 7c were not supported. However, the interaction between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and FSOP was significantly related to career advancement ( $b = 1.16, p < .05$ ), providing preliminary support for Hypothesis 7b.

In accordance with Aiken and West (1991), the significant interaction (the proportion of the paid parental leave taken X FSOP) was graphed to examine the form of the relationship. Figure 3 presents the plot of the proportion of paid parental leave taken X FSOP interaction term for career advancement. Simple effects coefficients were calculated at two levels of FSOP, 1 *SD* below the mean and 1 *SD* above the mean. At lower levels of FSOP, the proportion of paid

parental leave taken was negatively related to the odds of career advancement; however, this relationship was nonsignificant ( $b = -.763$ ,  $SE = .49$ ,  $OR = .466$ ,  $ns$ ). At higher levels of FSOP, the proportion of parental leave taken was positively to the odds of career advancement ( $b = 1.04$ ,  $SE = .54$ ,  $OR = 2.83$ ,  $p = .055$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 7b was not supported, because the relationship moderation was in the opposite direction than was hypothesized.

### **Outlier Removal and Variable Transformation Results**

As noted previously, several steps were taken to minimize the impact of the outliers and skewness. The first option involved removing 13 cases with univariate outliers on the coworker support and FSOP variables. After the univariate outlier cases were removed, all hypothesis testing analyses were performed, as noted in the previous section. Results were mostly consistent with the previously discussed main findings. The only additional finding was that coworker support was also found to be a significant moderator of the proportion of paid parental leave – career advancement relationship ( $b = -1.53$ ,  $p < .05$ ), in addition to FSOP ( $b = 1.69$ ,  $p < .05$ ). To address the non-normality of several variables, square root transformations were performed on the FSSB and coworker support variables. Due to the proportional nature of the proportion of paid parental leave taken variable, the arcsine transformation was used for this variable. After completing the variable transformations, all hypothesis testing analyses were performed with the transformed variables. The results were mostly consistent with the primary findings; however, the proportion of paid parental leave taken was not significantly related to voluntary turnover, as found in the primary findings. The third and final option involved both outlier removal and variable transformations. More specifically, the transformations previously mentioned were once again applied to the proportion of parental leave taken, FSSB, and coworker support variables. After the creating the transformed variables, univariate and multivariate outliers were assessed.

Three cases of multivariate outliers were identified, which were removed. After the multivariate outlier removal, all hypothesis testing analyses were performed with the transformed variables. Once again, results that were mostly in line with the primary findings were found. Deviations from the primary findings included the proportion of paid parental leave taken not being significantly related to voluntary turnover and coworker support being identified as a significant moderator in the proportion of leave taken – career advancement relationship ( $b = -2.59, p < .05$ ), in addition to FSOP ( $b = 1.13, p < .05$ ).

### **Post-Hoc Analyses and Results**

In addition to examining FSSB, coworker support, and FSOP as separate moderators in the relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and job performance, career advancement, and voluntary turnover, it is crucial to also understand whether the three informal support variables have a synergistic impact on the employee outcomes. It may be that the relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and the employee outcomes (i.e., job performance, career advancement, voluntary turnover) are dependent upon a combination of two or three of the informal support variables (e.g., high FSSB, low coworker support, high FSOP). Therefore, three-way and four-way interactions were tested to examine whether FSSB, coworker support, and FSOP have synergistic effects on the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and employee outcomes.

To test the synergistic impacts of FSSB, coworker support, and FSOP on the proportion of paid parental leave taken– employee outcomes relationships, hierarchical moderated regression analyses that included multiple two-way, three-way, and four-way interactions were performed for job performance, career advancement, and voluntary turnover. Results of the hierarchical moderated regression analyses indicated that the three-way and four-way

interactions did not account for a significant proportion of variance in job performance or voluntary turnover. However, the interactions between the proportion of the paid parental leave taken, FSSB, and FSOP ( $b = -2.02, p < .05$ ) and the proportion of paid parental leave taken, coworker support, and FSOP ( $b = 2.44, p < .05$ ) interactions were significantly related to career advancement (see Table 6).

To further examine the synergistic effects of FSSB, coworker support, and FSOP on career advancement, the proportion of the paid parental leave taken X FSSB X FSOP and proportion of paid parental leave taken X coworker support X FSOP interactions were graphed (Figures 4 & 5). Similar to the hypothesis testing analyses, simple effects coefficients were calculated at two levels of FSSB, coworker support, and FSOP, 1 *SD* below the mean and 1 *SD* above the mean. Regarding the interaction between the proportion of the paid parental leave taken, FSSB, and FSOP, only at lower levels of both FSSB and FSOP, the proportion of paid parental leave taken was significantly negatively related to the odds of career advancement ( $b = -1.57, SE = .71, OR = .21, p < .05$ ) (see Figure 4). Turning to the interaction between the proportion of paid parental leave taken, coworker support, and FSOP, only at higher levels of coworker support and lower levels of FSOP was the proportion of paid parental leave taken significantly negatively related to career advancement ( $b = -2.53, SE = 1.09, OR = .08, p < .05$ ) (see Figure 5). All other combinations of FSSB, coworker support, and FSOP were nonsignificant in the proportion of paid parental leave – career advancement relationship.

## CHAPTER 6

### DISCUSSION

As noted at the beginning, there has been a rise in the number of organizations implementing formal family-friendly benefits and policies, with the goal of assisting employees effectively balance their work and nonwork lives (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Although paid parental leave is one of the policies growing in adoption among large organizations, no empirical research has examined the relationship between employees' post-paid parental leave experiences and key employee outcomes (e.g., job performance, career advancement, voluntary turnover). As more large organizations implement paid parental leave policies (Rossin-Slater et al., 2013), it is critical to understand if this policy is indeed resulting in the positive employee and organizational benefits that organizations' desire. With that in mind, the current study made two primary theoretical contributions to the work-family literature. First, by examining the relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and employee outcomes, the current study is the first to explore how the length of employees' paid parental leave is related to employees' job performance, career advancement, and voluntary turnover several years after taking leave. Second, by examining three forms of informal support (i.e., supervisor support, coworker support, family supportive organizational perceptions) as moderators of the relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and employee outcomes, it provides new insights into how informal support plays a role *after* paid parental leave is used. Discussion of empirical results follows, along with the associated theoretical and practical implications, as well as study limitations and considerations for future research.

## Main Findings

Consistent with prior research and theory (Eagly, 1987), the current study's results indicate that women's proportion of paid parental leave taken was greater than men's proportion of paid parental leave taken. Thus, women took more weeks of leave relative to the total number of weeks they were allotted, while men took fewer weeks of leave compared to their maximum number of weeks. These results suggest that women tend to take greater proportions of paid parental leave compared to men. This could be due to several reasons. Perhaps women use more of their allotted leave due to the need to physically recover from the birth. It is also possible that cultural norms, gender role expectations, and fear of stigma (Armenia & Gerstel, 2006; Eagly, 1987) influenced women's decision to stay home for a longer period of time after childbirth than men. Future research should examine the specific reasons an employee may not use his or her full amount of paid parental leave.

Drawing from human capital theory (Becker, 1964; Mincer, 1962), the current study proposed negative relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and job performance and career advancement, based on the notion that time away from work results in a depreciation of human capital, which subsequently results in lower performance and promotability. However, at the bivariate level, the proportion of paid parental leave taken was not related to job performance ( $r = -.02$ , *ns*) or career advancement ( $r = .01$ , *ns*). Since the average length of paid parental leave was only 11.3 weeks, employees' human capital may not have depreciated substantially during that time. Therefore, it may be beneficial for future research to draw from traditional gender norms and stereotypes literature (e.g., Eagly, 1987) when hypothesizing the relationships between paid parental leave and employee outcomes, rather than human capital theory.

The lack of a significant relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and job performance is consistent with Judiesch and Lyness's (1999) finding that leaves of absence were only negatively related to performance ratings if the leave had been taken during the year of the performance evaluation. From the current study's results and past research (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999), it seems that the negative effect of paid parental leave on job performance (if it does exist) may be temporary rather than permanent. The current study's two-year gap between the paid parental leave time period (May 1, 2015 to December 31, 2017) and job performance measure (December 2017) may have been a long enough time period for employees to update their knowledge and skills following the leave, to not result in a significant decrement in performance. Thus, these results are encouraging, as they indicate that the proportion of paid parental leave taken may not be negatively related to job performance in the years following the leave time period.

Similar to job performance, the several years between employees' paid parental leave and the measure of career advancement may have provided employees with sufficient time to update their knowledge and skills enough to not suffer promotion penalties. Therefore, regardless of whether an employee took a larger or smaller proportion of paid parental leave, the substantial time back at work may have provided them with ample time to "get up to speed" and address any knowledge or skill deterioration. For example, an employee who has been working for several years following a longer paid parental leave may have had the opportunity to attend multiple workshops and trainings to enhance their knowledge and skills, as well as their promotability. Collectively, these nonsignificant findings indicate that the proportion of paid parental leave taken may not have a significant effect on performance and career advancement when they are assessed multiple years after leave was taken, due to the time gap providing employees with

sufficient time to update their skills and avoid any performance or promotion penalties. Therefore, as employees consider taking a greater proportion of their paid parental leave, negative impacts on their performance and career advancement may not need to be substantial concerns for them.

In addition to examining the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave and job performance and career advancement, the current study also examined the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover. Consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the current study's results show a small, but significant negative relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover. Thus, as employees take a greater proportion of paid parental leave, they are less likely to leave the organization. Although past research on the relationship between parental leave and voluntary turnover has resulted in inconsistent findings, the current study's results align with social exchange theory's (Blau, 1964) proposition that employees taking a longer paid parental leave to care for their newborn child may feel a greater sense of goodwill and need to reciprocate the favorable treatment by staying with the organization. Contrary to the nonsignificant job performance and career advancement relationships, this finding indicates that the proportion of paid parental leave taken results in significantly lower odds of voluntary turnover, even several years after leave was taken. Thus, organizations do reap the positive benefit of lower voluntary turnover when employees return to work after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave.

When considering the differential effects of the proportion of paid parental leave taken on important employee outcomes, it may be critical to consider the specific nature of outcome. More specifically, the non-significant outcomes – job performance and career advancement – are strongly influenced by the supervisor who is completing the annual performance rating and



determining the employee's promotability, while voluntary turnover, the only significant outcome, is more at the discretion of the employee. This trend of findings suggests that the relationship between the proportion of leave taken and performance and career advancement may diminish over the years following leave, as employees have had time to update their knowledge and skills. With their updated knowledge and skills, supervisors may not notice any decrement in performance or promotability years after leave, resulting in the non-significant relationships between the proportion of leave taken and performance and career advancement. However, the proportion of leave taken may still influence employees' decision to voluntarily leave the organization, which is evidenced by the reduced likelihood of voluntary turnover several years after the leave. Thus, it may be that the proportion of paid parental leave taken has a stronger relationship with outcomes that are more at the discretion of the employee, such as voluntary turnover, compared to outcomes at the discretion of others (e.g., supervisors), such as performance and career advancement.

As noted at the outset, it is not sufficient to only examine the relationship between family-friendly benefits and policies and employee outcomes, as informal support also plays a critical role (Thompson et al., 1999). Accordingly, the current study examined FSSB, coworker support, and FSOP as moderators in the relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and employee outcomes (i.e., job performance, career advancement, voluntary turnover). Turning first to FSSB and coworker support, the current study proposed that higher levels of FSSB and coworker support would weaken the negative relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave and job performance and career advancement, based on the theoretical grounding that support from supervisors and coworkers would provide much needed resources to employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave who are

coping with new work and family demands. In contrast to these predictions, the findings indicate that FSSB and coworker support were not significant moderators in the relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and job performance and career advancement. Similar to the previous section, one possible explanation may be the multi-year gap between employees' return to work after leave and the measurement of job performance and career advancement. Whether employees return after taking a larger or smaller proportion of paid parental leave, support provided by supervisors and coworkers may have an immediate impact the fulfillment of work demands and tasks, but may no longer have significant relationships with performance and promotability several years after leave, when employees have already updated their knowledge and skills.

Furthermore, both FSSB and coworker support were hypothesized to moderate the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover. More specifically, it was posited that the interaction between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and lower levels of FSSB and coworker support would result in higher voluntary turnover. However, the current study's findings indicate that FSSB and coworker support also did not play significant moderating roles in the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover. Similar to job performance and career advancement, FSSB and coworker support may not provide any substantial benefits to employees' decision to voluntarily leave the organization several years after returning to work after leave. Although employees returning after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave with unsupportive coworkers and supervisor may not feel a strong obligation to repay the organization by remaining with the organization and may even considering leaving the organization, this effect may only exist shortly after the employees return to work after leave when support is needed most and not

provided. Several years after the leave, employees may not feel any dissatisfaction with the organization from the lack of supervisor and coworker support, because they likely do not as have as great of a need of support as when they first returned to work after leave.

Family supportive organizational perceptions was the final form of informal support posited to moderate the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and employee outcomes. Drawing from signaling (Spence, 1973) and social exchange (Blau, 1964) theories, we hypothesized that lower levels of FSOP strengthens the negative relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and job performance and career advancement, while also weakening the negative relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover. Contrary to these predictions, FSOP did not significantly moderate the relationships between the proportion of leave taken and job performance and voluntary turnover. In regard to job performance, it may be that lower levels of FSOP did not provide any substantial decrement to the already nonsignificant relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and job performance. Furthermore, FSOP may not have moderated the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and voluntary turnover because lower levels of FSOP does not further impact the likelihood of voluntary turnover above and beyond the proportion of paid parental leave taken. FSOP did significantly moderate the relationship between the proportion of leave taken and career advancement, yet the relationship was in the opposite direction than hypothesized. In particular, the findings indicate a stronger positive relationship between the proportion of leave taken and the likelihood of career advancement for employees reporting higher levels of FSOP. In other words, when employees return to work after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave and feel very supported by the organization, they are more likely to be promoted than employees

who return after taking a smaller proportion of leave. It should be pointed out that when employees reported lower levels of FSOP, there was a nonsignificant negative relationship between the proportion of leave taken and the likelihood of career advancement.

Although these relationships differ from the hypothesized relationships, Hochwarter and colleagues' (2006) research on perceived organizational support offers some theoretical support for a stronger positive relationship between the proportion of leave taken and career advancement for employees with higher FSOP. In particular, they suggest that FSOP can be considered in terms of motivation and resource allocation. Resources (e.g., time, attention, energy) provided by greater FSOP may motivate and enable employees to expend their resources and effort to complete their work tasks. Therefore, an employee reporting higher FSOP may perceive that management will provide them with sufficient resources needed to effectively complete work tasks (Hochwarter et al., 2006). In the context of the current study, employees returning to work after taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave are in greater need of resources due to their greater knowledge and skill deterioration. As a result, those perceiving higher FSOP may be more proactive and likely to lean into the organization's provision of support, compared to those returning after taking a smaller proportion of paid parental leave with little skill deterioration, by garnering more resources so they can get back up to speed and meet their work and family demands. Moreover, as employees demonstrate the motivation and willingness to enhance their knowledge and skills, it may also enhance their probability of promotion. Meta-analytic evidence indicates that proactivity is a significant predictor of promotion (Ng et al., 2005), therefore employees' motivation and proactivity to enhance their knowledge and skills may influence their promotability. For employees perceiving higher FSOP, yet returning after taking a smaller proportion of paid parental leave, there is not as great of a

need to garner resources, because they may have less skill deterioration. Thus, their likelihood of career advancement may be slightly lower, due to the lower motivation and need to gather and expend resources on knowledge and skill enhancement.

### **Theoretical and Practical Implications**

Collectively, these findings have several theoretical and practical implications for both scholars and practitioners. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first empirical study to examine the relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken, informal support, and key employee outcomes. Previous research has focused on the outcomes of various types of family leaves (Allen & Russell, 1999; Judiesch & Lyness, 1999; Wayne & Cordeiro, 2003), but not paid parental leave specifically. Thus, the theoretical implications are large and significant, given that growing numbers of large organizations are offering paid parental leave to their employees (Adams, 2015; Bernard, 2016). For the first time, the proportion of paid parental leave taken was linked to job performance, career advancement, and voluntary turnover several years after the leave was taken. Contrary to human capital theory (Becker, 1964; Mincer, 1962) and past research (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999), the results indicate that taking a greater proportion of paid parental leave may not result in performance and promotion penalties following leave. Because the present study used a time-separated design, the time between the leave and outcomes may have provided employees with sufficient time to enhance any outdated knowledge and skills to avoid any negative job performance or career advancement outcomes. These results contribute to the present work-family literature by suggesting that the time period between the paid parental leave and employee outcomes is critical, as the current study's findings indicate that paid parental leave does not result in negative employee outcomes in the long-term. More

research is needed to better understand the relationships between leave and employee outcomes in the short-term.

In particular, the current study also contributes to the literature regarding the interactive relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken, informal support, and employee outcomes. Results indicated that neither FSSB or coworker support were significantly related to employee outcomes. However, FSOP moderated the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and career advancement, indicating that employees returning after taking a greater proportion of parental leave who perceive greater FSOP are more likely to be promoted than employees returning after taking a smaller proportion of leave. Due to only one form of informal support (i.e., FSOP) moderating the relationship between the proportion of leave taken and career advancement, these findings suggest that informal support may not play as significant of a role *following* employees paid parental leave than they play prior to the use of such benefits (e.g., increasing employees' utilization of family-friendly benefits and policies; Allen, 2001; Lobel & Kossek, 1996).

Practically speaking, the results from the current study also have several important implications for both employees and organizations. In particular, these findings highlight the importance of managers and organizations supporting employees who are returning from paid parental leave. Although the current study failed to find significant relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and job performance and career advancement, past research examining the short-term influences of parental leave indicates that parental leave can result in performance, promotion, and reward penalties (Allen & Russell, 1999; Judiesch & Lyness, 1999). Furthermore, the significant moderation effect of FSOP in the relationship between the proportion of leave taken and career advancement suggests that creating and

maintaining a family-supportive organizational culture for employees returning from leave is key. Collectively, these findings suggest that organizations should offer training programs and initiatives focusing on support for the entire paid parental leave experience, which should include teaching both employees and managers how to effectively plan for the leave (e.g., delegating projects to other employees) and how to effectively support employees' return to work experience (e.g., managers providing project updates or assisting employees in updating their knowledge and skills). Organizational programs targeting support for employees' paid parental leave experience will not only help employees feel supported to get back up to speed at work, but they may also increase all employees' perceptions of family organizational support, which has been shown to promote future use of family-friendly benefit usage (Allen, 2001). Organizations may also find value in implementing short employee satisfaction surveys throughout employees' paid parental leave experience to better understand employees' satisfaction with their manager, coworker, and organizational support throughout the leave process, so that organizations can proactively prevent any subsequent negative employee outcomes from the leave experience.

### **Limitations and Future Research**

Although this study has several strengths including longitudinal multisource data, there are limitations to consider as well as strengths. Because the sample was comprised entirely of employees from only one organization, the extent to which results may generalize to other organizations is unknown. However, the limitations that typically apply to single organization studies were reduced by the fact that employees in our sample were from a variety of functional areas (e.g., Research & Development, Sales, Quality, Marketing, Finance) throughout the United States. Although the sample included employees from a multitude of different functions and locations, future research should consider including employees from different organizations and

industries. Furthermore, it is important to note that the “family-friendliness” of this organization is quite high, as indicated by the higher means on all of the informal support variables and the many organizational family-friendly policies (e.g., flexible work arrangements, paid parental leave, adoption, fertility, & surrogacy benefits) that are in place. Due to this high level of family-related support, it is unknown whether these results would generalize to organizations with less support. Thus, future research should examine the extent to which these findings exist in less family-supportive organizations.

In the current study, job performance was assessed using the organization’s annual performance ratings, which only included supervisor ratings on the employee’s goal attainment.

Due to the low correlation and unreliability between the two separate job performance dimensions (i.e., goal attainment and leadership behaviors), only the goal attainment dimension was retained for the analyses. By only retaining one dimension of the job performance measure,

the full construct of overall job performance may not have been adequately assessed. More specifically, scholars have generally agreed that overall job performance consists of two facets: task performance (i.e., “the proficiency with which incumbents perform activities that are formally recognized as part of their jobs”; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p. 73) and citizenship or contextual performance (i.e., individual behavior that is discretionary/extra-role, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that promotes the effective function of the organization; Organ, 1988), however neither facet is explicitly assessed in the current study’s job performance measure. Furthermore, the current study’s job performance ratings are based on the different goals and objectives set by each employee at the beginning of the year. Thus, each employee is rated against different goal criteria, which brings the construct validity of the measure into question, because employees are not all rated on standard job performance items or



ratings. Future research may benefit from a measure of job performance that assesses both task and contextual performance using standardized items or ratings, as it may provide a better measure of the job performance with greater construct validity.

Another limitation of the current study involves the data analysis approach. Due to the inclusion of both continuous (i.e., job performance) and dichotomous (i.e., career advancement, voluntary turnover) outcome variables, separate linear and logistic regressions were performed for each of the outcome variables. This approach did not allow for the studied relationships to be examined simultaneously in one model, thus the simultaneous relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and employee outcomes is unknown. Ideally, a more sophisticated statistical analysis approach, such as structural equation modeling (SEM) could have been used, which can test models with multiple dependent variables, models containing both latent and manifest variables, simultaneously estimate multiple path equations, estimate the full model fit in addition to individual parameters, and account for measurement error (LeBreton, Wu, & Bing, 2009). Future research should employ more sophisticated statistical analysis, such as SEM, when possible, as it would allow for the relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken, informal support, and employee outcomes to be examined simultaneously and more conclusively.

One final limitation of the current study is the inability to account for the change in employees' supervisors and coworkers throughout the course of the study. As mentioned previously, employees paid parental leave occurred between May 2015 and December 2015, while informal support was assessed during August 2016 and the employee outcomes (i.e., job performance, career advancement, voluntary turnover) were as of December 2017. Therefore, employees may have had a change in supervisors or coworkers while on leave or in the years

following leave. Therefore, the perceptions of informal support from their current supervisors and coworkers may not be the same supervisors and coworkers that they had while on leave. Additionally, the supervisor providing job performance ratings and making promotion decisions may be different the supervisor they had while on leave or the supervisor they assessed on informal support. Due to role changes occurring infrequently in this organization during the two-year time period, it is unlikely these changes occurred for many employees. However, future longitudinal research should consider and account for any changes in supervisors or coworkers.

Additional recommendations for future research would be to examine how work-family conflict and other family domain variables influence the relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and employee outcomes. As previously noted, work-family conflict has been found to mediate the relationship between family-friendly benefit and policy utilization and employee outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, turnover intentions; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Thus, future research may benefit from exploring work-family conflict as a potential mediator in the paid parental leave taken – employee outcomes relationships. More specifically, the new demands of updating knowledge and skills upon returning to work after leave may contribute to work-to-family conflict, while the new demands of caring for a newborn child may also contribute to family-to-work conflict, which may collectively influence employee work outcomes. Furthermore, meta-analytic evidence indicates that family and spousal support is related to lower work-to-family and family-to-work conflict (Michel et al., 2010). Thus, there may be value in expanding the examination of informal support to include support from the family domain (e.g., family or spousal support) in the relationships between paid parental leave taken and employee outcomes. Similar to supervisor and coworker support, it would be important to investigate whether family or spousal support may buffer any short-term negative

effects of the proportion of paid parental leave taken on employee outcomes (e.g., job performance, career advancement).

## **Conclusion**

The current study examined the relationships between the proportion of paid parental leave taken on key employee outcomes (i.e., job performance, career advancement, voluntary turnover) and provided support for longer paid parental leave resulting in a lower likelihood of voluntary turnover. Furthermore, the current study identified FSOP as a moderator in the relationship between the proportion of paid parental leave taken and career advancement, which informs science and practice on the influence that organizations' supportive work-family culture may have on employee outcomes in context of paid parental leave usage. Though the proposed direct effect of the proportion of paid parental leave on job performance and career advancement, as well as the moderation effects of FSSB and coworker support, were not supported, future research should examine both the short-term influence of paid parental leave length on employee outcomes and the role of family support, to further understand how employees' use of paid parental leave influences their future work outcomes.

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## Appendix A

*Family Supportive Supervisor Behavior Scale Short-Form (FSSB-SF)* (Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, & Crain, 2009)

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1. Your supervisor makes you feel comfortable talking to him/her about your conflicts between work and non-work.
  2. Your supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues.
  3. Your supervisor works effectively with employees to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work.
  4. Your supervisor organizes the work in your department or unit to jointly benefit employees and the company
- 

*Coworker Support* (J.T. Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2003)

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1. I have the coworker support I need to manage work and family life.
  2. I feel I am really part of the group of people I work with.
  3. I have the support from coworkers that I need to do a good job.
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*Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions* (Allen, 2001)

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1. In my organization, expressing involvement and interest in nonwork matters is viewed as healthy.
  2. In my organization, employees are given ample opportunity perform both their job and personal responsibilities well.
  3. In my organization, offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business.
-

Table 1. *Variable Means, Standard Deviations, Intercorrelations, and Reliabilities*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Job level	6.64	1.91	-									
2. Age	35.54	3.99	.21**	-								
3. Organizational tenure	6.97	4.23	.32**	.18**	-							
4. Proportion of parental leave taken	.84	.24	-.04	-.09*	.02	-						
5. FSSB	4.02	.94	-.03	-.01	-.03	.03	(.93)					
6. Coworker support	4.14	.85	.03	-.04	.03	.12*	.56*	(.92)				
7. FSOP	3.83	.83	.05	-.07	.002	.06	.60**	.54**	(.84)			
8. Job performance (Goal attainment)	3.19	.51	.04	-.05	.07	.01	.03	.03	.05	-		
9. Career advancement <sup>a</sup>	.45	.50	-.09*	-.20**	-.03	.01	.11*	.08	.09*	.01	-	
10. Turnover <sup>b</sup>	.09	.29	-.08*	.01	-.11**	-.09*	-.10*	-.08	-.11**	-.05	-.05	-

Note: *N* = 576–650. Reliability coefficients appear in parentheses on the diagonal. Job Level: employees' positions spanned 10 hierarchical levels and were coded 1 (low) to 10 (high). FSSB = Family Supportive Supervisor Behavior. FSOP = Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions.

<sup>a</sup>0 = *not promoted*, 1 = *promoted*.

<sup>b</sup>0 = *stay*, 1 = *leave*.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$

Table 2. *Estimate of Fit Indices and Difference Tests for Confirmatory Factor Models*

Model	$\chi^2$	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	90% C.I. for RMSEA	SRMR
1.One-factor model <sup>a</sup>	1582.81*	35	.70	.62	.26	[0.25; 0.27]	.12
2.Three-factor model <sup>b</sup>	115.497*	32	.98	.98	.06	[0.051; 0.076]	.03

Model Comparison	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta df$
Model 1 vs Model 2	1467.3*	3

*Note.* CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = Standardized root mean square residual.

\*  $p < .001$

$N=650$

<sup>a</sup> informal support.

<sup>b</sup> FSSB, coworker support, FSOP.

Table 3. Results of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis

Predictor Variable	Job Performance – Goal Attainment		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Step 1: Main effect of predictor			
Proportion of leave taken	.03	.03	.03
Step 2: Main effects of moderators			
FSSB		-.003	-.003
Coworker support		-.001	.01
FSOP		.03	.03
Step 3: Interactions			
Proportion of parental leave taken X FSSB			.29*
Proportion of parental leave taken X Coworker Support			-.16
Proportion of parental leave taken X FSOP			-.28*
$\Delta R^2$		-.002	.008
Total adjusted $R^2$	-.002	-.004	.004
$F$	.10	.38	1.37

Note.  $N = 587$ .

\*  $p < .05$

\*\*  $p < .01$

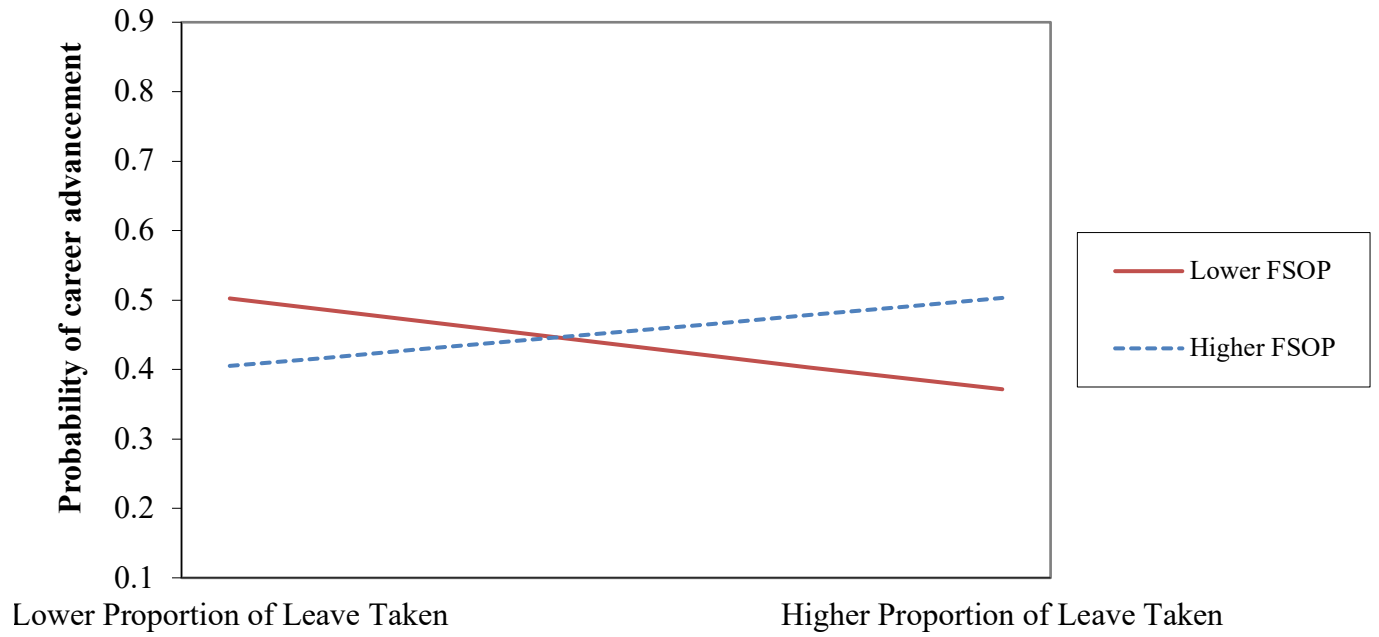
\*\*\*  $p < .001$

Table 4. Results of Hierarchical Moderated Logistic Regression Analyses

Variable	Career Advancement <sup>a</sup>				
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald Statistic	Exp ( <i>B</i> )	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables					.06***
Job level	-.05	.05	1.16	.95	
Age	-.10***	.02	19.25	.91	
Step 2: Main effect of predictor					.00
Proportion of parental leave taken	-.09	.36	.06	.92	
Step 3: Main effect of moderators					.01*
FSSB	.24	.12	3.76	1.27	
Coworker Support	.03	.13	.06	1.03	
FSOP	.02	.14	.01	1.02	
Step 4: Interactions					.02*
Proportion of parental leave taken X FSSB	.54	.58	.85	1.71	
Proportion of parental leave taken X Coworker Support	-1.06	.59	3.19	.35	
Proportion of parental leave taken X FSOP	1.16*	.57	4.10	3.18	
$\chi^2$	41.63***				
<i>df</i>	9				
Pseudo $R^2$	.09***				
Variable	Voluntary Turnover <sup>b</sup>				
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald Statistic	Exp ( <i>B</i> )	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables					.03**
Job level	-.09	.08	1.52	.91	
Organizational tenure	-.09*	.04	4.90	.92	
Step 2: Main effect of predictor					.02*
Proportion of parental leave taken	-1.11*	.51	4.71	.33	
Step 3: Main effect of moderators					.02
FSSB	-.22	.18	1.40	.81	
Coworker Support	.07	.19	.12	1.07	
FSOP	-.29	.20	1.95	.75	
Step 4: Interactions					.01
Proportion of parental leave taken X FSSB	-.27	.70	.15	.76	
Proportion of parental leave taken X Coworker Support	.48	.64	.56	1.62	
Proportion of parental leave taken X FSOP	.73	.67	1.18	2.07	
$\chi^2$	23.78**				
<i>df</i>	9				
Pseudo $R^2$	.08**				

Note. *N* (Career Advancement) = 592; *N* (Turnover) = 637. <sup>a</sup>0 = not promoted, 1 = promoted. <sup>b</sup>0 = stay, 1 = leave.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$



*Figure 3.* Interaction of FSOP Moderator in the Proportion of Paid Parental Leave Taken – Career Advancement Relationship

Table 5. Results of Hierarchical Moderated Logistic Regression Analyses – Proportion of Paid Parental Leave Taken as Percentage

Variable	Voluntary Turnover				
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald Statistic	Exp ( <i>B</i> )	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables					.03**
Job level	-.09	.08	1.52	.91	
Organizational tenure	-.09*	.04	4.90	.92	
Step 2: Main effect of predictor					.02*
Proportion of parental leave taken	-.01*	.01	4.71	.99	
$\chi^2$	13.98**				
<i>df</i>	3				
Pseudo $R^2$	.05**				

Note.  $N = 637$ . <sup>b</sup>0 = stay, 1 = leave.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$



Table 6. *Post-hoc Results of Hierarchical Moderated Logistic Regression Analyses with 3-way and 4-way Interactions*

Variable	Career Advancement <sup>a</sup>				
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald Statistic	Exp ( <i>B</i> )	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1: Control Variables					.05***
Job level	-.05	.05	1.16	.95	
Age	-.10***	.02	19.25	.91	
Step 2: Main effect of predictor					.01
Proportion of parental leave taken	-.09	.36	.06	.92	
Step 3: Main effect of moderators					.01*
FSSB	.24	.12	3.76	1.27	
Coworker Support	.03	.13	.06	1.03	
FSOP	.02	.14	.01	1.02	
Step 4: 2-way Interactions					.03*
Proportion of parental leave taken X FSSB	-.33	.59	.32	1.40	
Proportion of parental leave taken X Coworker Support	1.11	.60	3.41	.33	
Proportion of parental leave taken X FSOP	1.38*	.59	5.54	3.97	
FSSB X Coworker Support	.25	.12	4.05	1.28	
FSSB X FSOP	-.01	.14	.01	.99	
Coworker Support X FSOP	-.13	.17	.62	.88	
Step 5: 3-way Interactions					.03*
Proportion of parental leave taken X FSSB X Coworker Support	-.44	.45	.95	.65	
Proportion of parental leave taken X FSSB X FSOP	-2.02*	.73	7.65	.13	
Proportion of parental leave taken X Coworker Support X FSOP	2.44*	.94	6.77	11.51	
FSSB X Coworker Support X FSOP	.12	.09	1.72	1.12	
Step 6: 4-way Interaction					.00
Proportion of parental leave taken X FSSB X Coworker Support X FSOP	1.56	.88	3.16	.21	
$\chi^2$	2.52***				
<i>df</i>	17				
Pseudo $R^2$	.13***				

Note. *N* = 592. <sup>a</sup>0 = not promoted, 1 = promoted.

\* *p* < .05; \*\*\* *p* < .001

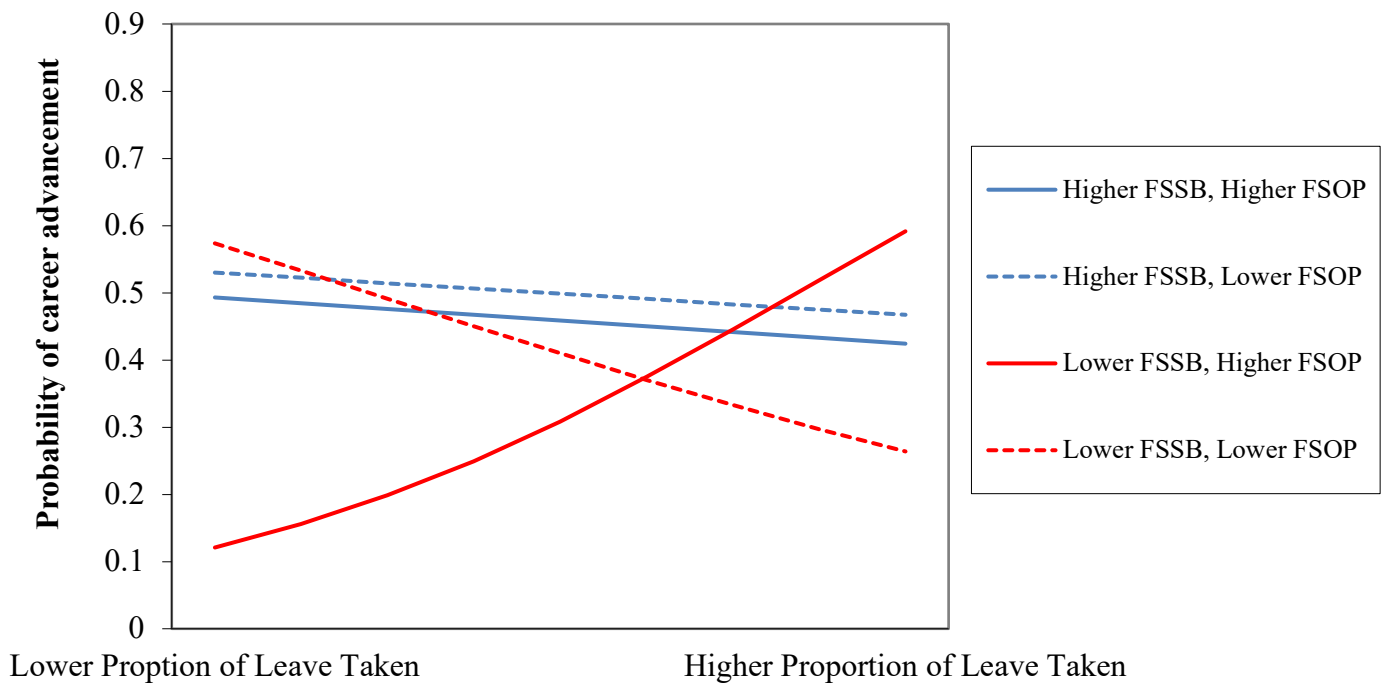
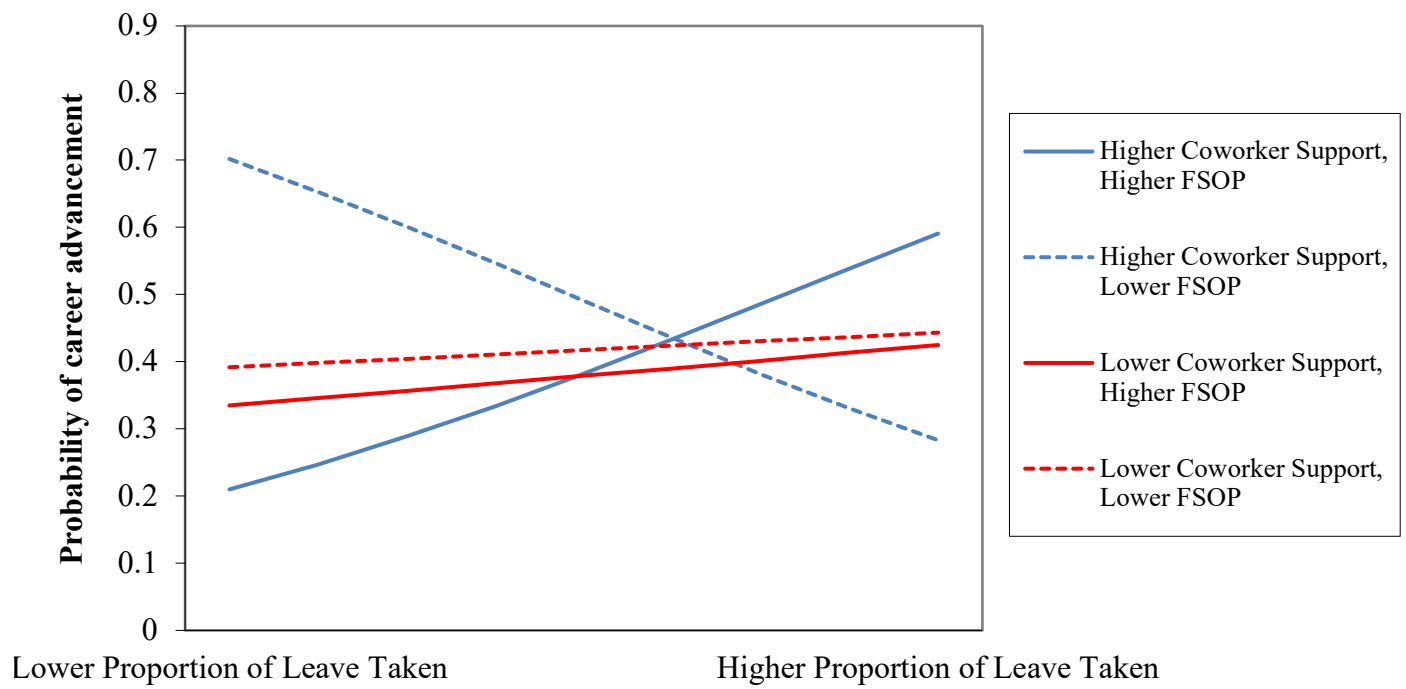


Figure 4. Post-hoc Proportion of Paid Parental Leave Taken X FSSB X FSOP Interaction on Career Advancement



*Figure 5.* Post-hoc Proportion of Paid Parental Leave Taken X Coworker Support X FSOP Interaction on Career Advancement