Supporting Working Parents: The Effects of Work-Family Policies on Job Performance

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Abstract

Work-family policies are critical for meeting employee needs and ensuring a diverse and equitable workforce, however theory and research has yet to fully explain how employees reciprocate with job performance throughout the employee life cycle. Specifically, I extend social exchange theory by examining the importance of work-family policy availability and use during the job search process for organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) (study 1) and after the birth of a child for cumulative productivity trends (study 2). In study 1, I examine how the attractiveness of work-family policies during the job search process may relate to the individual's OCBs and CWBs after accepting a job. First, I will construct and evaluate a measure of attractiveness of family supportive organizations using two samples (N_1 = 407 students; N_2 = 350 job seekers with children, which I define as an individual's positive attitude towards applying to organizations that support family responsibilities. Using moderated mediation on the second sample, I will assess a social exchange theory model of organizations providing work-family policies to meet the individual's attraction to family supportive organizations relates to the employee's OCBs and CWBs once employed. In study 2, I will use two samples of academic parents (N_1 = 129 parents, n_1 = 1,527 observations; N_2 = 386 parents, n_2 = 6,945 observations) to examine how the availability and use of childcare benefits and parental leave impact their cumulative research productivity trends after the birth of a child. The current study strengthens the theoretical and practical implications for work-family policies improving OCBs, CWBs, and cumulative productivity trends.

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The birth of a child represents a major life event accompanied by a multitude of changes and challenges with added family demands continuing throughout the child's life. Parents adjust to these changes and difficulties with consequences for the work domain. The availability and use of work-family policies, such as parental leave or childcare benefits, can support employees in meeting their family responsibilities. Consequently, employees may reciprocate with improved job performance, such as OCBs, CWBs, or productivity. Job performance is defined as individual job performance should be defined as "things that people actually do, actions they take, that contribute to the organization's goals" (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015, p. 48). OCBs are actions not in an employee's job description that improve the functioning of the organization, such as giving more effort than needed. CWBs represent actions that hurt the organization's goals with undesirable outcomes for the organization. Productivity is an objective indicator of job performance (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015).

An examination of the effects of work-family policies on OCBs, CWBs, and productivity following the birth of a child represents a crucial research direction for multiple reasons. There is an abundance of support that work-family issues affect work outcomes (Amstad et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2018) and that bundles of work-family policies positively relate to work attitudes (e.g., Butts et al., 2013). However, it is essential to determine the most important single work-family policies, and where in the employee life cycle they are most effective. Prior research demonstrates that not all work-family policies relate to job performance in similar ways (e.g., Begall et al., 2020; Gullekson et al., 2014; Lee & Hong, 2011). Additionally, the effects of policies must be delineated between policy availability and

policy use as they operate through different mechanisms to influence individual-level work outcomes (e.g., Allen et al., 2013; Butts et al., 2013). Research and practice on work-family policies would benefit from a more detailed evaluation of the availability and use of each policy and its effects on different dimensions of job performance, such as OCBs, CWBs, and productivity. Researchers would be able to focus on the most important policies and organizations would benefit from enacting the most effective policies.

The current study contributes to theoretically and practically relevant research gaps around work-family policies and job performance (i.e., OCBs, CWBs, and productivity). First, I extend social exchange theory by examining when the availability and use of work-family policies affect OCBs, CWBs, and productivity. Social exchange theory states that an organization providing benefits and resources may occur through a norm of reciprocity, such that the employee will feel obligated to increase their effort and performance (Eisenberger et al., 2020). The first study identifies if organizations providing the resources that the job seeker wants has an effect on OCBs and CWBs, and the second study examines if the availability and use of work-family policies impact cumulative productivity trends after the employee has a child.

Second, I expand the literature on job performance. In the first study, I extend the literature on OCBs and CWBs by examining the importance of work-family policy availability during the job search process. Work-family policies, such as flexible work arrangements, have been shown to be important for recruitment outcomes during the job search process (Onken-Menke et al., 2018; Uggerslev et al., 2012). However, the effects of work-family policy availability may only have an effect on subsequent OCBs and CWBs if the job seeker wants them. If the job seeker is attracted to organizations with strong work-

family policies and the organization provides strong work-family policies, the individual may work harder and engage in fewer behaviors that harm the organization.

In the second study, I add to the growing literature on within-person job performance, specifically the examination of the situation as an antecedent of long-term, within-person productivity. Three primary determinants of job performance have been acknowledged: ability, motivation, and the opportunity to perform (Blumberg & Pringle, 1982; Dalal et al., 2020). Even though Blumberg and Pringle (1982) pointed out opportunity to perform as a missing dimension of job performance, research on within-person job performance has primarily focused on ability and motivation with less research dedicated to investigating the impact of the opportunity to perform (Dalal et al., 2020). An employee's opportunity to perform reflects their situation, such as their working conditions or organizational practices. Even though short-term, within-person job performance research has increased exponentially in the past decade (Podsakoff et al., 2019), much less research has examined long-term within-person job performance or how events affect long-term job performance (Alessandri, Truxillo, et al., 2020). The current studies address these gaps in theory and empirical research by investigating the importance of work-family policies for OCBs and CWBs throughout the job search process (study 1) and cumulative productivity trends after the birth of a child (study 2).

Human Resource Management and Job Performance

Human resource management has long been acknowledged as an important antecedent of organizational outcomes (Becker & Huselid, 1998; Combs et al., 2006; Jiang et al., 2012; Saridakis et al., 2017; Subramony, 2009). However, considerably less research has focused on the effects of organization-level HR practices on individual-level job performance

(e.g., Aryee et al., 2012; Guest et al., 2020; Snape & Redman, 2010). The effects of organization-level HR practices should be extended to include individual-level OCBs and CWBs, and within-person job performance trends (i.e., slopes) as critical performance criterion. Study 1 expands the performance criterion to examine OCBs and CWBs. OCBs and CWBs represent distinct constructs, not opposite ends of a continuum (Dalal, 2005). Both are critical for employee and organizational outcomes. OCBs are related to task performance, absenteeism, and turnover (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Similarly, CWBs are related to job attitudes, absenteeism, and turnover (Carpenter & Berry, 2017).

Study 2 focuses on within-person job performance, specifically objective productivity trends. Objective job performance provides related, but added information beyond subjective job performance (Bommer et al., 1995). In summation, the current studies examine the understudied effects of work-family policies on cumulative productivity rends. Effective work-family policies can help individuals achieve higher job performance, which may be less than the cost of turnover and replacing poor performers with individuals that may or may not have improved performance (Hancock et al., 2017).

Work-Family Policy Availability and Use

Theory and research must incorporate the availability and use of individual policies as their theoretical mechanisms and effectiveness differ. The effects of work-family policy on work outcomes have been primarily theorized through the mechanisms of availability and use with social exchange theory providing a theoretical foundation for both. Based on social exchange theory, employees with work-family policies available will view the organization as supportive of their needs. This may occur through a norm of reciprocity that the employee feels obligated to repay the organization by working harder. The use of a work-family policy

may indicate that the employee needed the support and may view the organization as caring even more about their employees.

Work-family policy use provides additional utility beyond work-family policy availability for work attitudes, which presents evidence that both availability and use matter (Butts et al., 2013). Work-family policy availability has exhibited stronger indirect and direct effects on individual-level work outcomes than work-family policy use, although policy use still had small, additive effects (Butts et al., 2013). These results provide an impetus to better understand if a policy needs to only be available for organizations to benefit or if the organization needs to ensure employees use the policy. Organizations would further gain from ensuring their single work-family policies improve employee outcomes as examining bundles of policies cannot identify the most effective policies. The current studies extend theoretical evidence for the importance of availability and use of work-family policies for OCBs, CWBs, and cumulative productivity trends. Given the dearth of empirical research on single work-family policies (Butts et al., 2013) and the cost of enacting family-friendly policies (International Finance Corporation, 2017), it is essential to determine the most important work-family policies for OCBs, CWBs, and cumulative productivity trends. Study 1 investigates the interaction between a job seeker's attraction to family supportive organizations and subsequent availability of work-family policies for OCBs and CWBs. Study 2 examines the availability and use of childcare benefits and parental leave for within-person productivity.

Study 1

Work-family policies play a critical role in the recruitment process. Recruitment is an integral part of the overall human resource system that can improve organizational outcomes

(Jiang et al., 2012), recruit a diverse workforce (Roberson, 2019), and create more equitable career outcomes for women (Kossek et al., 2017). However, previous research on work-family policies during recruitment has remained narrow with a focus on flexible work arrangements for applicant attraction, anticipated organizational support, and job attitudes once on the job (Onken-Menke et al., 2018; Uggerslev et al., 2012). Work-family policies may be generally important for signaling that organizations support employees' work and family responsibilities. Applicants may use this information to decide if they want to work for the organization. Furthermore, this information may influence the applicants' work behaviors as an employee.

I create a new construct, the attractiveness of family supportive organizations, which I define as the individual's positive attitude towards applying to organizations that support their family responsibilities. I draw on social exchange theory to explain the importance of this construct. If the organization provides work-family policies that meets the individual's attraction to family supportive organizations, they may be motivated to reciprocate by working harder at work. To test this idea, a measure of the attractiveness of family supportive organizations must first be constructed and evaluated. Study 1 fills two research and practice gaps. First, I construct and evaluate a measure of attraction to family supportive organizations. Both research and practice would benefit from identifying individuals interested in organizations able to meet the work and family responsibilities of potential applicants. Second, I evaluate the link between attraction to family supportive organizations, and OCBs and CWBs using a social exchange theory model (Figure 1). Individuals would be expected to reciprocate the family support that organizations provide with their work

behaviors. Organizations would benefit from identifying recruitment strategies that benefit employee job performance after the applicants take a job.

Construct Validity

The attractiveness of family supportive organizations fills a clear gap in the nomological network of related constructs. I examine their relationship with related constructs to demonstrate construct validity, which is an important part of developing scales (Clark & Watson, 1996). The construct can be differentiated from related constructs, such as anticipated work-family conflict, work-family conflict (WFC), and family centrality. Anticipated WFC can be separated into two directional dimensions: anticipated WFC and anticipated family-work conflict (FWC). Anticipated WFC represents the belief that their future work roles will interfere with their future family roles, whereas anticipated FWC is the belief that future family roles will interfere with their future work roles (Westring & Ryan, 2011). Anticipated WFC and FWC represent an individual's beliefs about how they will meet their work demands and family demands, whereas attractiveness of family supportive organizations is an individual's attraction towards an organization that can help them meet their family demands. Relatedly, WFC and FWC represent how individuals meet their work demands and family demands when they are employed. Second, family centrality represents an individual's belief in how important family should be in life. Family centrality indicates the importance of family for an individual's identity, whereas attractiveness of family supportive organizations represents the importance of an organization supporting their family demands. The attractiveness of family-supportive organizations should be related to, but distinct from constructs in its nomological network.

Hypothesis 1. *Attractiveness of family-supportive organizations will be related to anticipated WFC, anticipated FWC, family centrality, WFC, and FWC.*

Link to OCBs and CWBs

The attractiveness of family supportive organizations may benefit organizations if they follow through with being family supportive by providing work-family policies. Social exchange theory states that an organization providing benefits and resources may elicit a norm of reciprocity, such that the employee will feel obligated to increase their effort and performance. The social exchange occurs through the construct of perceived organizational support (POS), which represents an employee's perception of how much their employer cares about employee well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Individuals attracted to family supportive organizations will likely expect their organizations to help them meet their family responsibilities, such as by providing work-family policies.

The current study focuses on dependent care assistance policies, including dependent care and paid family leave, given their importance for caregiving and being common in organizations (Masterson et al., 2022). If the organization has work-family policies available, the individual will then view their organization as valuing employee well-being (i.e., POS). If the individual is not attracted to family supportive organizations, then the availability of work-family policies will not affect their POS. Figure 2 depicts the predicted interaction of attractiveness of family supportive organizations and work-family policy availability for POS. Essentially, I hypothesize that POS will be lowest when expectations are high and resources are low, and POS will be highest when expectations are high and resources are high.

Hypothesis 2. *Work-family policy availability will moderate the relationship between attractiveness of family supportive organizations and POS, such that the relationship between attractiveness of family supportive organizations and POS will be more strongly positive when policies are available.*

high on attractiveness with policies unavailable will have the lowest POS.

Ultimately, the attractiveness of family supportive organizations may indirectly improve the work behaviors of employees, specifically their OCBs and CWBs. When organizations provide work-family policies to individuals attracted to family supportive organizations, those employees will view the organization as more concerned about employee well-being and will reciprocate with more positive behaviors. A previous meta-analysis on social exchange theory shows that POS is positively related to OCBs and negatively related to CWBs (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Employees engage in more effort and reduce negative work behaviors to reciprocate the organization providing the resources that the employee wants. As a result, I expect the indirect relationship from employee attraction to family supportive organizations through POS will depend on work-family policy availability.

Hypothesis 3. *The indirect effect of attractiveness of family supportive organizations on OCBs and CWBs through POS will be moderated by work-family policy availability, such that the indirect effect will be stronger for those with work-family policies available.*

Study 1 Method

To examine my hypotheses and develop the AFSO scale, I use two samples. Sample 1 provides initial evidence for the AFSO scale's reliability and validity using a student sample. Sample 2 is used to provide additional evidence for a shortened version of the AFSO scale,

including reliability and validity, using a sample of adults. Additionally, sample 2 is used to test H2 and H3 to provide further evidence of the importance of AFSO for organizationally relevant outcomes.

Study 1 Sample 1 Method

Study 1 Sample 1 Participants and Procedure

407 undergraduate students were recruited from seven universities in the United States during the Fall 2021 semester. Participants were compensated with extra credit for their courses. The participants were primarily female (61.3%), 21.6 years old on average (SD = 2.5), 57.7% were working, 5.7% were parents, and most were upperclassmen (Freshman = 1.6% Sophomore = 7.2%, Junior = 34.9%, Senior = 56.3%). All measures used a response scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*).

Study 1 Sample 1 Measures

Attractiveness of Family Supportive Organizations

Nine items reflecting the attractiveness of family supportive organizations were generated by the author. Respondents were given the following instructions, "Think about when you are looking for a job after you graduate from college." An example item is, "When applying for a job after graduating, I will evaluate whether the organization can accommodate my family responsibilities." The nine items are included in Appendix A.

Family Centrality

Five items were adapted from Kanungo's (1982) work centrality scale to represent how important they view family for their identity (Cronbach's alpha = .89). An example item is "The most important things that happen to me involve my family." The five items are included in Appendix A.

Anticipated Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict

Five items on anticipated work-family conflict were adapted from Netemeyer et al's (1996) work-family conflict scale to represent the work-family conflict that students anticipate having after graduating and working in their career (Cronbach's alpha = .76). An example item is, "Things I want to do at home will not get done because of the demands my job puts on me."

Similarly, five items on anticipated work-family conflict were adapted from Netemeyer et al's (1996) family-work conflict scale to represent the family-work conflict that students anticipate having after graduating and working in their career (Cronbach's alpha = .92). An example anticipated family-work conflict item is, "I will have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home." The full items for anticipated work-family conflict and anticipated family-work conflict can be found in Appendix A.

Study 1 Sample 1 Analytic Strategy

Study 1 sample 1 is focused on ensuring the internal consistency (i.e., reliability) and validity of the attractiveness of family supportive organizations measure in students. Cronbach's alpha, item correlations, and item-total correlations will be computed to assess the internal consistency of the scale. Initial construct validity described in H1 is assessed using correlations in SPSS between attractiveness of family supportive organizations anticipated work-family conflict, anticipated family-work conflict, and family centrality.

Study 1 Sample 1 Results

First, item-level descriptives and correlations were computed and can be found in Table 1. The item-level means ranged from a low of 3.47 to a high of 4.38, indicating that, on average, respondents responded to items leaning towards the agreeing side of responses. The

item-level correlations are fairly high with most items above *r* = .30. Item 8 has the two overall lowest correlations, (item 5 and 8, *r* = .30; item 6 and 8, *r* = .34), however these are still fairly high correlations. These high item-level correlations provide initial evidence that the items are internally consistent.

The Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = .89$) for the scale was high, providing evidence that the scale exhibited internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha does not appreciably improve with the deletion of any one item. The corrected item-total correlations can be used to identify how related a single item is to the rest of the items in the scale. Item 1 and Item 4 (item-total *r* = .71) are the most related to the rest of the items, whereas item 8 (item-total *r* = .53) is the least related to the other items. Given the above results, all of the nine items were retained for the rest of the analyses.

Construct Validation

To provide evidence that the scale does not overlap with other constructs, I inspected the construct validity of the attractiveness of family supportive organization scale by examining the correlation with anticipated work-family conflict, anticipated family-work conflict, and family centrality. As shown in Table 2, the attractiveness of family supportive organizations was not significantly related to anticipated work-family conflict (*r* = -.01, *p* = .85), anticipated family-work conflict (*r* = .07, *p* = .19), but significantly related to family centrality (*r* = .39, *p* < .001). These results provide evidence that the attractiveness of family supportive organizations is related to family identity, but does not substantially overlap.

Study 1 Sample 1 Discussion

The current study's measure allows researchers to test the link between an individual's attraction toward family supportive organizations, and working for family

supportive organizations. Individuals benefit from identifying if the family supportiveness of organizations is important to them, and family supportive organizations benefit by identifying individuals that may want to work for them. I developed and validated a nine-item scale of attractiveness of family supportive organizations. The nine items provided high reliability and internal consistency using traditional reliability methods. I used correlations to assess the construct validity of the attractiveness of family supportive organizations measure. The measure was only moderately, but not highly related to family centrality. Students who want family supportive organizations when job searching may anticipate that they will have difficulties meeting their work and family responsibilities. Similarly, students who have family as central to their identity may also prioritize organizations with work-family policies when they search for jobs. The measure does not overlap considerably with these three constructs. In sum, the current measure was reliable, had good item-level statistics, and exhibited construct validity.

The current study has some limitations. First, the study sample was primarily female and contained few parents. Future research should recruit a more representative population, which I achieve in the subsequent sample. Related constructs, such as family identity, do not show differences by gender or parental status (Bagger et al., 2008), providing initial evidence that I would not find significant differences in the attractiveness of family supportive organizations either. Second, the length of the survey could have created fatigue for participants. I address this issue in Study 1 Sample 2 by shortening the scale to reduce respondent's burden and allow applied researchers to include the scale in their work.

Study 1 Sample 2 Introduction

Study 1 Sample 2 helps identify individuals interested in family supportive organizations by extending Study 1 Sample 1. In Study 1 Sample 1, I provided initial internal consistency and validity for the 9-item AFSO scale that can identify individuals attracted to family supportive organizations. Study 1 Sample 1 had some limitations that Study 1 Sample 2 addresses. Study 1 Sample 1 used undergraduate students, who may have less knowledge about working and the job search process, although half of the sample were currently working. Study 1 Sample 2 addresses this limitation by using a sample of adult job seekers to ensure generalizability. I also shortened the AFSO scale to 5 items to reduce respondent burden and survey length.

In addition, Study 1 Sample 2 contributes to organizational science by investigating if AFSO is useful for organizations wanting to improve employees' work behaviors. Study 1 Sample 2 extends Study 1 Sample 1 by looking at related work outcomes that I could not measure in the student sample, specifically OCBs and CWBs. OCBs are a major component of job performance and represent discretionary work behaviors that go above and beyond the job description (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). Organizations value OCBs as they want their employees to cooperate with other employees and put extra effort into their job. CWBs are negative work behaviors that impede the organization's goals, such as stealing or bullying (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). Organizations do not want their employees engaging in CWBs as they are costly and can affect other employees' job performance. In sum, Study 1 Sample 2 uses a work sample to further validate a shortened AFSO scale and demonstrate its importance for outcomes relevant for organizations.

Study 1 Sample 2 Method

Study 1 Sample 2 Participants and Procedure

Participants were recruited using Prolific, an online research recruitment platform. Platforms similar to Prolific (i.e., Amazon Mturk) have been shown to be more attentive than college students (Hauser & Schwarz, 2016), such as by paying more attention to instructions and passing more attention checks. Online research platforms have been shown to be a viable source of data for organizational science research (J. S. Michel et al., 2018). Prolific participants provide the highest quality data among online platforms for survey research (e.g., Amazon Mturk, Cloud Research, Qualtrics panels, and Dynata panels), such that Prolific participants were more attentive, more careful, and more honest (Peer et al., 2017; 2021). In other words, Prolific has better data quality than college samples and samples from other online platforms.

I used three surveys (Time 1 screener, Time 1 survey, Time 2 survey) to screen participants and collect data. In Prolific, I specified that I wanted participants to have children, be in the United States, and that the overall sample would be balanced by gender. My Time 1 screener (N = 1,016) on January 25, 2022 included demographics and questions on if they were actively looking for a job. I restricted the sample to participants actively looking for a job, who were not retired, and had a child under 18 years old (N = 389). My time 1 survey on January 26, 2022 had a high response rate (N = 373; 96%). The Time 2 survey on June 13, 2022 contained outcome measures and had an adequate response rate (N = 192; 51%). The final sample size was 350 for the AFSO item-level statistics (H1) and 177-178 for the moderation mediation results (H2 and H3). The sample was balanced on gender (52% female), each participant had about two children (M = 1.94), most had a partner (85%),

most had an employed partner (71%), their youngest child was fairly young (M = 6.9, SD = 5.1), and worked a full time job on average (M = 40.6 hours per week, SD = 9.8).

Multiple types of attention checks were used to ensure high quality responses. I used open-ended questions with unusual comments being indicative of bots and/or inattention (e.g., Chmielewski & Kucker, 2019). I also used traditional attention check items (e.g., select "agree" for this item). I used an instructional manipulation check (i.e., trick question) as well to ensure participants were reading instructions (Hauser & Schwarz, 2016).

For attention checks, I used two open-ended questions on the Time 1 screener. Nobody failed one of them and 4 failed the other one. I used one open-ended question and one instructional manipulation check (four failed) in the Time 1 survey. Only 366 responded to the open-ended question, which all passed that responded to the question. In the Time 2 survey, I included one open-ended question and three traditional attention check items (attention check 1: 2 failed, attention check 2: 2 failed, attention check 3: 7 failed). Nobody failed the open-ended attention check. All items can be found in Appendix A with five-point scales used (1 = *Strongly disagree*, 5 = *Strongly agree*), unless otherwise specified.

Study 1 Sample 2 Measures

Attractiveness of Family Supportive Organizations (Sample 2: T1)

Five items from the Study 1 Sample 1 were used to construct a shortened scale of the attractiveness of family supportive organizations. Shortening scales is important for many practical reasons, including reducing respondents' burden and survey length (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). I used recommendations from Heggestad et al. (2019) and Classical Test Theory to determine the items for the shortened scale, specifically by choosing the items with the best item-total correlations and item content considerations.

I selected items with high item-total correlations and that best captured the construct. Item 1 (“When applying for a job after graduating, I will evaluate whether the organization can accommodate my family responsibilities.”) was omitted from Study 1 Sample 2. This item had language specific to a student sample, whereas Sample 2 was for adult job seekers. I then chose the next five items with the highest item-total correlations from Sample 1 (ITC; item 4 ITC = .71, item 3 ITC = .68, item 2 ITC = .67, item 7 ITC = .66, item 6 ITC = .62). I omitted the three lowest item-total correlations from Sample 1 (item 9 ITC = .62, item 5 ITC = .54, item 8 ITC = .53). I chose item 6 (“I want to work for an organization that shows concern for my current and future family responsibilities”) as the item wording differs more from the other chosen items. I did not also include item 9 (“I am attracted to organizations that support their employee’s current and future family demands”) as item 6 and item 9 shared similar wording.

The five items are: “Work-family supports are one of my top priorities when looking for a job,” “I plan to primarily apply to organizations that help me meet my current and future family responsibilities,” “When applying for jobs, I will consider the family support that an organization will provide,” “I want to work for an organization that shows concern for my current and future family responsibilities,” and “When applying to jobs, I will narrow my choices based on the family supportiveness of the organization.”

Family Centrality (Sample 2: T1)

The same five items from Study 1 sample were used (Cronbach’s alpha = .87).

Anticipated Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict (Sample 2: T1)

The same five items on anticipated work-family conflict (Cronbach's alpha = .95) and five items on anticipated family-work conflict (Cronbach's alpha = .94) from Study 1 Sample 1 were used.

Employment Status (Sample 2: T1 and T2)

At each time point, respondents were asked, "What is your current work status?" The response options were *currently working, unemployed looking for work, unemployed not looking for work,* and *retired*. For time 1, only participants answering *unemployed looking for work* were included in analyses. For time 2, only participants answering *currently working* were included in analyses.

Work-Family Policy Availability (Sample 2: T2)

Participants provided the work-family policies available from their employer. Participants were asked, "To your knowledge, does your organization offer the following benefits?" I included three binary categories of policies given some had low individual sample sizes. I also focused on policies most relevant to caregiving. Specifically, I included dependent care availability (1 = availability of onsite childcare, childcare subsidy, backup childcare, childcare information, or eldercare policies) and paid family leave (1 = availability of paid maternity leave, paid paternity leave, or paid sick leave). These are common work-family policies (Masterson et al., 2022).

Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict (Sample 2: T2)

The same five items from anticipated work-family conflict (Cronbach's alpha = .96) and five items from family-work conflict (Cronbach's alpha = .94) were used in Time 1 with Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) original wording. All ten items can be found in Appendix A.

Perceived Organizational Support (Sample 2: T2)

Four items on perceived organizational support were used to measure the extent to which an employee views their organization as caring about them (Rhoades et al., 2001). An example item is, "My organization really cares about my well-being." All four items can be found in Appendix A (Cronbach's alpha = .95).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (Sample 2: T2)

Ten items on organizational citizenship behaviors were used to assess how frequently employees engaged in actions that benefit organizations that are not in their job description (Spector et al., 2010). Respondents are instructed, "How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?" with responses from 1 (Never) to 5 (Every day). All ten items can be found in Appendix A (Cronbach's alpha = .89).

Counterproductive Work Behaviors (Sample 2: T2)

Ten items on counterproductive work behaviors were used to capture the frequency of employee actions that harm organizations (Spector et al., 2010). Instructions and response scale is the same as the OCB scale. An example item is, "Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't." The ten items are included in Appendix A (Cronbach's alpha = .85).

Control Variables (Sample 2)

Control variables were chosen based on their importance in previous research (Spector, 2020). The number of children and age of youngest child were included at time 1 given their common use and importance for the work-family interface (Lapierre et al., 2018; Michel et al., 2011). Relationship status was included as a binary category at time 1 given the low sample sizes for most categories (1 = married, separated, engaged, in a committed relationship, 0 = widowed, divorced, dating or single). Partner employment status was

included as a binary category at time 1 (1 = employed looking for work, employed not looking for work, 0 = no partner, unemployed looking for work, unemployed not looking for work, retired). Relationship status and partner employment status has been shown to be important for the work-family interface (Lapierre et al., 2018; Michel et al., 2011).

At time 2, I also included their job tenure in months given job tenure affects OCBs and CWBs (Ng & Feldman, 2013) and weekly work hours as employees working fewer hours may not need policies to meet their work and family responsibilities (Michel et al., 2011). Given the importance of distinguishing between work-family policy availability and use (e.g., Butts et al., 2013), I included the use of dependent care policies and paid family leave at time 2. I do not include use in the model as policy availability has much stronger relationships with organizational perceptions than use (Butts et al., 2013). Job search behaviors were assessed at the time 1 screener (1 = no time at all to 5 = very much time" using an 11 item index (see Appendix A) from van Hooft et al. (2004) as individuals engaging in more search behaviors may be unhappy at their current organization or may be looking for organizations that better support their work and family demands.

The importance of work-family policy availability may depend on gender, which I measured at the time 1 screener. Women have more caregiving and household responsibilities (e.g., Daminger, 2019; Lachance-Grzela & Bouchard, 2010; Yavorsky et al., 2015). Butts et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis provides evidence that work-family policy availability has weaker effects on job attitudes in samples with more women.

Study 1 Sample 2 Analytical Strategy

The analyses were separated into two sections. The first part is ensuring the internal consistency (i.e., reliability) and construct validity of the five item attractiveness of family

supportive organizations measure in job seekers in a similar manner as Study 1 Sample 1. Second, I tested H2 and H3 using regression analyses on Sample 2. Specifically, I tested the indirect effect of the attractiveness of family supportive organizations on OCBs and CWBs through perceived organizational support, along with the moderating effect of each work-family policy availability between attractiveness of family supportive organizations and POS. I used model 9 of the Process macro in SPSS (Hayes, 2017) to test the model specified in Figure 1. Specifically, I ran the analysis twice; once with OCBs as the outcome and once with CWBs as the outcome.

Study 1 Sample 2 Results

Item-level descriptives were calculated and can be found in Table 3. The item-level statistics had a sample size of 350 participants. The item-level means were all appropriately high with the lowest at 4.00 (*SD* = 1.02) and the highest at 4.56 (*SD* = .69), which means that, on average, respondents responded to items with highly agree. The item-level correlations were high with a mean of *r* = .56 with a low of *r* = .45 (item 1 and item 4) and a high of *r* = .75 (item 1 and item 5). These correlations provide evidence that the items are internally consistent.

The five item AFSO scale has adequate internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .87). Cronbach's alpha does not improve if any one item is deleted. When looking at the corrected item-total correlations, item 2 (item-total *r* = .60) and item 4 (item-total *r* = .57) are noticeably lower than the other items (item 1-total *r* = .76, item 3-total *r* = .74, item 5-total *r* = .78).

Study 1 Sample 2 Construct Validity

The correlation table can be found in Table 4. The attractiveness of family supportive organizations was only significantly related to family centrality (r = .16, p = .004), but not significantly related to anticipated work-family conflict, anticipated family-work conflict, work-family conflict, or family-work conflict. The correlations align with study 1 sample 1. These results also show that AFSO likely has limited to no overlap with commonly used variables in the work-family literature. These results do not provide enough evidence to support hypothesis 1 in a work sample.

Although not hypothesized, I examined the correlations between AFSO and the other study variables. AFSO was not significantly related to work-family policy availability, work-family policy use, perceived organizational support, OCBs, CWBs, number of children, age of youngest child, partner, employment status of partner, job tenure, work hours, job search behaviors, or gender.

Study 1 Sample 2 Mediation

For H2, I hypothesized that work-family policy availability would moderate the relationship between AFSO and POS. However, as Table 5 shows, I do not find a significant interaction effect for dependent care availability (B = .55, p = .14) or paid family leave availability (B = -.19, p = .54). H3 hypothesized a moderated mediation effect for AFSO to job performance via POS with work-family policy availability as the moderator. As neither of the interaction effects are significant, I do not find support for H2 or H3.

After adding the control variables, only age of the youngest child is significantly related to POS (B = .04, p = .03) and paid family leave availability is not significantly related to POS (B = .38, p = 12). For OCB, work hours (B = .03, p < .001), job search behaviors (B = .13, p = .04), and female (B = .26, p = .04) are significant. For CWB, POS (B = -.11, p <

.001) and dependent care use (B = .31, p = .002) are significant. In sum, the original findings were robust to adding control variables.

Study 1 Sample 2 Discussion

Study 1 Sample 2 had two goals: provide evidence for a shortened AFSO scale and demonstrate the importance of AFSO for work behaviors. In support of the first goal, I identified a five item AFSO scale that had adequate reliability. However, the scale had low evidence of construct validity given the non-significant correlations with some common work-family constructs. Secondly, I did not find support for my hypotheses that work-family policy availability moderates the relationship between AFSO and POS, or the indirect relationship between AFSO and job performance via POS. AFSO may not be important for POS, OCBs, or CWBs. The AFSO scale may be able to identify if individuals value organizations that support their family demands, but AFSO may not affect work behaviors once on the job. Future research is needed to identify if AFSO affects other aspects of the recruitment process or other work outcomes. In sum, I created a shortened scale of AFSO with future research needed to determine its utility for other outcomes.

Study 1 Discussion

Recruitment is an important part of the human resource system with some evidence that work-family policies are importance during recruitment (e.g., Onken-Menke et al., 2018; Uggerslev et al., 2012). To further this foundation of research, I created a measure of AFSO, which represents the extent that job seekers incorporate work-family policies into their job search. In Study 1 Sample 1, I created a nine-item AFSO scale and administered it to a student sample. The nine-item scale had good reliability. For construct validity, AFSO was positively related to family centrality, but not anticipated WFC or anticipated FWC. When

family is important to a student's identity, they may want an organization that signals they care about their employee's families by providing work-family policies.

Study 2 Sample 2 provides evidence for a five item AFSO scale in a sample of adults and provides adequate reliability. The five-item scale had low construct validity with little overlap with other work-family constructs. Instead, AFSO may be a more unique construct that captures a specific part of individual's job search preferences. Most of the work-family literature focuses on employee's experiences while they are on the job. Additionally, I used social exchange theory to hypothesize that individuals valuing work-family policies during their job search would perceive the organization to care more about employee well-being if they had work-family policies available. I did not find support for this interaction effect or the indirect effect on OCBs or CWBs.

Theoretical Implications

The current study has theoretical implications for social exchange theory. The AFSO scale allows research to better understand the effects of work-family policies during the job search process and subsequent job performance. I expected that an organization meeting the family needs of their employees would relate to improvements in POS and indirectly to job performance. Unfortunately, I did not find support for this theoretical assertion. Even when the organization provided a resource that the individual valued, the individual did not have higher OCBs and lower CWBs. Instead, work-family policies may only have effects on job performance if the individual needs them after a major life event, such as after the birth of a child. I recommend future theoretical research on AFSO include other mediators, such as psychological contract breach, to better understand how AFSO, work-family policy availability, and job performance are related. When individuals value work-family policies

and the organization does not provide them, the individual may feel like the organization did not fulfill their psychological contract as an employer.

Study 1 Practical Implications

The current study has practical implications for job seekers and career counselors. Although I did not find a significant relationship between AFSO and work outcomes, the AFSO scale can still have utility for job seekers and career counselors. Job seekers can use the scale to identify how important work-family policies and a family supportive work environment is to them. With that information, job seekers can tailor their job search to organizations that provide work-family policies that they desire. Job seekers can look online for this information, or they can ask during the interview process. Similarly, career counselors in colleges and private practices can administer the AFSO and use this information to help their clients find jobs that best suit their needs.

Limitations and Future Directions

The current study has several limitations that provide additional opportunities for future research. First, I did not obtain data from participants during their job search and once they got a new job. Sample 2 was initially going to measure AFSO during the job search and the outcomes after they started a new job. However, very few started a new job during the 5 months between time 1 and time 2. Considering my data collection was during the Great Resignation of 2021-2022, I would have expected higher levels of turnover. A possible explanation is that those continuing to use Prolific may be those who did not start a new job, whereas those that stopped using Prolific may have found a new job. Future research should examine AFSO during the job search and after participants start a new job. If using current employees, the data collection process may need to occur over a much longer time period

(e.g., 12 months) to ensure a large enough sample of employees start a new job. Alternatively, future research could collect AFSO in undergraduate or graduate student samples and collect outcome data after they graduate and start a new job. Another option would be to partner with employment agencies to access people that are actively searching for jobs.

Second, AFSO was not significantly related to the organizational outcomes and work-family policy availability did not significantly strengthen the relationship between AFSO and POS. The AFSO means were also very high and AFSO was not significantly correlated with demographic variables, indicating most individuals valued a family supportive organization during their job search. An explanation may be that individuals may have limited options in choosing an employer. In other words, an individual may choose an organization with more work-family policies if they had a choice, but they may not have a choice. Future research could use a qualitative approach to better understand AFSO, how individuals incorporate AFSO into their job search, and how AFSO may ultimately affect organizational outcomes.

Third, AFSO may not have a significant direct or indirect relationship with employee job performance. Instead, the actual availability and use of work-family policies may matter more. Although not hypothesized, the availability and use of work-family policies was positively related to OCBs and CWBs. Work-family policies may impact an individual's job performance, regardless of if the employee values them during the job search. Future research should examine how work-family policies relate to job performance.

Study 2

The importance of work-family policies extends beyond the job search process. Once in a job, work-family policies play a critical role in ensuring employees can meet their work

and family responsibilities. Work-family policies reduce work-family conflict and turnover intentions, and increase organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Butts et al., 2013). However, their effectiveness for job performance, particularly cumulative productivity trends, is not fully understood. A large amount of variance in job performance exists at the within-person level that should not be ignored (Dalal et al., 2020; Podsakoff et al., 2019). A better understanding of within-person cumulative productivity trends can improve performance management. For example, performance trends are even more important for promotion decisions than a person's average performance or recent performance (Alessandri, Cortina, et al., 2020). Furthermore, performance trends can be impacted by event-driven changes from the work or life domain, such as promotions or the birth of a child, with a large amount of within-person performance trends being explained by event-driven changes (Alessandri, Truxillo, et al., 2020). An examination of more specific event-driven changes in long-term cumulative productivity trends and how HR practices can impact those changes also provide insights into understanding and improving job performance in their employees.

I extend social exchange theory by examining if employees reciprocate the availability and use of work-family policies during the critical period after the birth of a child, along with the lasting effects of this organizational support. Even though children are regularly included in work-family research (Eby et al., 2005) and represent one of the biggest turning points in an adults' life (Rönkä et al., 2003), there has been no standard approach to studying the effects of children on work and family outcomes in the organizational science literature. For example, empirical evidence shows that the number of children increases family-work conflict (J. Michel et al., 2011), having children decreases work hours (Ng & Feldman, 2008), and longitudinal evidence that the birth of a child can decrease job

satisfaction up to five years later (Georgellis et al., 2012). Most research uses a count of the number of children present in a family system or the age of the children, which may not provide a nuanced understanding of how, when, and why the presence of children in an employee's life contributes to work-related outcomes. I propose work-family policies as positively impacting cumulative productivity trends (i.e., slope) following the birth of a child as shown in Figure 3. In the following sections, I discuss the availability and use of childcare benefits and parental leave as two critical work-family policies with potential for improving cumulative productivity trends.

Childcare Benefits Availability

Childcare benefits are defined as the, "practices designed to mitigate the financial, temporal, or emotional demands associated with being a child caregiver" (Piszczek, 2020, p. 471). For example, onsite childcare represents a dependent care benefit providing employees with access to childcare at their work location. Childcare benefits have the potential for employees to more easily meet their family responsibilities, while simultaneously allowing them to spend more time at work. Social exchange theory provides the underlying mechanism for availability of childcare benefits. Employees may more likely view their organization as family supportive and reciprocate by increasing cumulative productivity. Childcare benefits, especially onsite childcare, is more common at large organizations than small organizations, likely due to the cost as a barrier to organizations (Matos et al., 2017). Childcare benefits availability has positive effects for collective turnover and collective performance (Lee & Hong, 2011; Piszczek, 2020). Given the strong empirical and theoretical evidence, I hypothesize that childcare benefits availability may increase individual-level cumulative productivity trends.

Hypothesis 1a. *Relative to before childbirth, faculty with childcare benefits available have higher research productivity trends after their children's birth compared to those without childcare benefits.*

Childcare Benefits Use

Childcare benefits reduce family responsibilities and increase the amount of time employees can be at work. Employees can better maximize their ability and motivation to improve productivity if they are given more opportunities and, as social exchange theory contends, productivity increases from using a policy are likely due to the employee feeling that the organization is providing even more support. However, the empirical evidence for onsite childcare has mixed evidence for work attitudes (Gullekson et al., 2014; Ratnasingam et al., 2012), and nonsignificant effects for individual-level subjective job performance (Gullekson et al., 2014; Kossek & Nichol, 1992). The amount of evidence for childcare benefits is small and they do not examine objective or within-person cumulative productivity. Previous research effects for subjective job performance may be confounded by other factors, including work-family backlash (Perrigino et al., 2018), that may affect performance ratings. Objective cumulative productivity trends may provide a better test of social exchange theory for childcare benefits use as work-family backlash will not directly contaminate the criterion. Considering a number of large organizations have adopted expensive childcare benefits (Matos et al., 2017), research is also necessary to gauge their utility and return on investment. In summation, social exchange theory suggests that individuals using childcare benefits may be motivated to reciprocate by working harder and being more productive.

Hypothesis 2a. *Relative to before childbirth, individuals using childcare benefits have higher productivity trends after their children's birth compared to those that do not use childcare benefits.*

Parental Leave Availability

Parental leave is common in organizations (Matos et al., 2017), but has not been widely studied for job performance. Initial evidence shows that employers' productivity and job performance may not be negatively impacted by parental leave policies (Appelbaum & Milkman, 2015) and may be indirectly related to OCBs (Begall et al., 2020). However, the effects of parental leave for objective productivity have not been studied, so I base my expectations on social exchange theory. As social exchange theory explicates, parental leave availability signals to employees that the organization cares about their family responsibilities. The employee may be more motivated to improve their productivity to compensate for the organization's support. Based on social exchange theory, I hypothesize that parental leave availability may positively relate to cumulative productivity trends.

Hypothesis 1b. *Relative to before childbirth, faculty with parental leave available have higher research productivity trends after their children's birth compared to those without parental leave available.*

Parental Leave Use

Social exchange theory explains the use of parental leave as employees who receive more personal benefit from a policy may view the organization as more caring about their employees and reciprocate with long term positive effects on productivity. Previous evidence shows individuals taking leaves of absence may experience more negative subjective performance evaluations (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999), however little to no research has

examined parental leave or productivity specifically. Social exchange theory suggests parental leave use may increase within-person cumulative productivity trends.

Even though parental leave may be short, research shows their effects have been long lasting. For example, fathers taking longer leaves (i.e., 2+ weeks) participate in more childcare activities nine months later (Nepomnyaschy & Waldfogel, 2007), and mothers taking longer leaves report lower high school dropout rates and increased their wages at 30 years old for their child (Carneiro et al., 2015). Using even a shorter paid parental leave may allow parents to build the long-term resources needed to contribute to their research projects. I hypothesize that individuals using paid parental leave will have increased productivity trends after the birth of their child.

Hypothesis 2b. *Relative to before childbirth, individuals using parental leave have higher productivity trends after their children's birth compared to those who do not use parental leave.*

Study 2 Method

I use two samples of tenure-track professors to test the above hypotheses. Study 2 Sample 1 uses a sample of STEM professors, whereas Study 2 Sample 2 uses a sample of business school professors. Study 2 Sample 2 has methodological improvements that address some of the issues in Study 2 Sample 1 as I discuss in detail below.

Study 2 Sample 1 Participants and Procedure

I invited 2,000 tenure-track professors in 25 public research-intensive universities via publicly available emails, with 401 participants starting the survey. 129 participants had a child 18 years or younger, completed the survey, and were at the same university since their first child. The response rate is in line with recent faculty surveys (Dykema et al., 2013;

Morgan et al., 2021). Other populations with high time constraints (e.g., executives, physicians) are similarly hard to reach (Anseel et al., 2010; Cook et al., 2016). The data were nested at three levels with yearly cumulative productivity as level 1 (n = 1,527), individuals as level 2, and 17 STEM fields as level 3. 43% had one child, 48% had two children, and 9% had three or more children.

In addition to survey data, I leveraged web-scraping to collect each participant's cumulative yearly productivity. Specifically, I created a web scraper to obtain publicly available information on Google Scholar, which is a reliable source of productivity information for researchers, with Google Scholar metrics correlating highly with Web of Science and Scopus (Martín-Martín et al., 2018). I manually curated Google Scholar URLs for identification, and the web scraper acquired publication-level data over time, including citation history. I manually inspected publications for accuracy and removed anomalies (e.g., publications not from that author). I aggregated citation counts to produce a yearly *h*-index for each scholar for every year from their start as an assistant professor to when they took the survey. I used the web scraper to obtain highly nuanced cumulative productivity indicators over time that would be unattainable through manual coding, accounting for a scholar's cumulative research productivity trajectory instead of a cross-sectional view at a particular individual's career stage.

Study 2 Sample 1 Measures

Cumulative Productivity. I measured cumulative productivity with *h*-index, which integrates the quantity of knowledge creation (e.g., publications), and knowledge transfer and adoption (e.g., citations), which are the primary goals for professional knowledge workers (Seibert et al., 2017). The *h*-index represents an author's cumulative productivity and citation

impact measured by the number of papers with at least *h* citation number (Hirsch, 2005, p. 16569). For example, a researcher with an *h*-index of 50 would have 50 articles with at least 50 citations each. *h*-index is a better predictor than other objective cumulative productivity indicators (e.g., number of papers) for future scientific achievement (Hirsch, 2007) with variants of *h*-index not providing substantial added value (Bornmann et al., 2011). *h*-index is also related to peer evaluations of research productivity (Bornmann et al., 2008; Norris & Oppenheim, 2010), indicating convergent validity with other measures.

Publications and citations are essential for faculty recruitment, tenure, and promotion (Aguinis et al., 2020) and determining faculty pay (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1992; Kraimer et al., 2019). In addition, publications are used to rank departments (e.g., UTD Top 100 and TAMUGA rankings for business schools) and universities (Robinson-Garcia et al., 2019; Vernon et al., 2018). Universities receive national recognition if they are research-intensive (Association of American Universities, Carnegie Classifications). In sum, publications and citations influence individual, department, and university outcomes.

Work-family policy availability and use. The parental leave policy examined was particular to the academic profession and operationalized as teaching relief, which provides professors with partial or full relief from teaching demands after the birth or adoption of a child. Teaching relief was measured with one item on availability of the policy, "Does your University have formal policies for full/partial relief of teaching duties when caring for a newborn, or a newly adopted child?," and one item on the use of the policy, "Have you made use of your University's formal policies for full/partial relief of teaching duties when you are/were caring for a newborn, or a newly adopted child?" I operationalized the childcare benefits policy as onsite childcare with one item for availability, "Does your University have

an on-campus childcare center?" and one item for use, "Have you made use of your University's on-campus childcare center?" The availability questions had three responses, "yes," "no," and "not sure." These responses were coded into a binary variable to indicate if they knew a policy was available (yes = 1) or not (no or not sure = 0). Employees can only view policies as signals if they know they exist. The questions on use had two responses, "yes" and "no."

Childbirth year. Respondents reported the birth year for each child, which the analytic strategy detailed below used to test slopes before and after childbirth.

Gender. Gender was self-reported, man (0) or woman (1), and included to account for prior research. After their first child, Morgan et al. (2021) found that only mothers have lower short-term research productivity. Krapf, Ursprung, and Zimmermann (2017) did not find that a mother's research productivity significantly decreases after the first child. The number of non-binary responses was too small for inclusion in analyses. I include gender as an interaction effect with time to test if the differences for cumulative productivity trends significantly differ before or after children. If I ran the analyses separately for men and women, I would not be able to test if they are significantly different.

Field. Previous research shows that the *h*-index varies considerably by field. For example, research has found that computer science researchers have a mean of 30.84, and chemistry researchers have a mean of 81.52 (Malesios & Psarakis, 2014). Due to these differences, I matched each participant's current academic field based on the Classification of Instructional Programs (CIP) codes (National Center for Education Statistics, 2021). I account for these field-level differences in the *h*-index using a level 3 grouping variable in the multilevel models (Alonso et al., 2009).

Study 2 Sample 1 Analytic Strategy

Our use of Google Scholar data provides us with a unique way of examining continuous waves of cumulative productivity data (i.e., *h*-index) from an individual's start as an assistant professor, including time points before and after each child. I use discontinuous growth curve models (DGCMs), given their specificity for testing the hypotheses (Bliese & Lang, 2016; Singer & Willett, 2003). DGCMs provide the advantage of assessing changes in the trends (i.e., slopes) after events. I focus on the relative changes in slope. I test if the post-birth slope is significantly different from the pre-birth slope, with the parameter representing the relative difference in slope from pre-birth to post-birth. I run the DGCMs using the *nlme* package (Pinheiro et al., 2020) in *R* with maximum likelihood estimation.

Our analyses also integrate nesting, random effects, autocorrelation structure, and time coding to account for the data structure. First, intra-class coefficients, ICC(1), were calculated to estimate the percent of variance residing at each level. Given a large portion of variance was accounted for by the individual level (ICC(1) = .54) and field level (ICC(1) = .24), I account for the nested nature of the data using the individual as level 2 and field as level 3. Second, I include random intercepts and random slope as omitting them can lead to anti-conservative parameter estimates (Bell et al., 2019; Heisig & Schaeffer, 2019). In addition, model comparisons between the models with and without random effects were all significantly different ($p < .001$), providing additional evidence for using models with random intercepts and random slopes (Bliese & Lang, 2016). These random effects assume differences for all individuals and fields in initial productivity, cumulative productivity trends, the relative change in trend after the first child, and the relative change in trend after the second child.

Third, I follow Jebb and Tay's (2017) recommendation and include a lag-1 autocorrelation structure that accounts for the correlation between each time point; this reduces bias and is essential for proper significance testing. The lag-1 correlation was high (r_{t-1} = .85), suggesting that current productivity is strongly and positively related to productivity from the previous year. Lastly, I use standard DGCM coding techniques and analyses (Bliese & Lang, 2016; McFarland et al., 2020). In my DGCMs, I use two discontinuous events, the birth of child 1 and the birth of child 2. I provide the coding of time, child 1 time, and child 2 time in Table 6. Changes in slope represent changes in cumulative productivity (i.e., *h*-index) relative to the slope before the event. A significant value for the slope of child 1 time indicates the slope post-birth is significantly different from the slope pre-birth with a significant value for the slope of child 2 time indicating a significant difference from child 1 time. I properly model the data structure to obtain conservative parameter estimates.

I tested five sets of models. Model 1 included time and gender, the birth of child 1 (i.e., child 1 time), and the birth of child 2 (i.e., child 2 time) to depict the relative change in *h*-index trends after their births. Child 1 time is interpreted as how much the cumulative productivity trend changed after the first child's birth compared to the pre-birth cumulative productivity slope. Child 2 time represents the relative change in cumulative productivity trends relative to child 1 time. In Model 2, I added parental leave and childcare benefits availability to Model 1. In Model 3, I added parental leave use and childcare benefits use to model 1 to depict the change in cumulative productivity trends for those who used a policy at any time compared to those who never used the policy. I did not include policy availability

and use in the same model as those who used a policy had to have the policy available, so I tested them separately to disentangle their effects.

Study 2 Sample 1 Results

Most individuals had teaching relief available (59%) or onsite childcare available (60%), with much fewer having both available (37%). Of those with a policy available, teaching relief use was higher (51%) than onsite childcare use (24%). Among individuals with access to both, only a small fraction used both (15%). On average, individuals started their job as an assistant professor with an *h*-index of 6.80 that increased 1.33 each year, as Model 1 shows in Table 7. Childbirth and gender did not significantly affect cumulative research productivity trends.

Work-Family Policy Availability (H1)

Hypothesis 1 is that cumulative productivity trends will increase after first and second childbirth for individuals with teaching relief available (H1a), onsite childcare available (H1b), or both available (H1c). Hypothesis 1a was not supported as teaching relief availability significantly decreased cumulative productivity trends following child 1 (B = -.34, SE = .16, p = .03), but not after child 2 (B = .02, SE = .20, p = .92). Hypothesis 1b was not supported as onsite childcare availability did not significantly increase cumulative productivity trends after child 1 (B = -.03, SE = .16 p = .85) or child 2 (B = .05, SE = .20, p = .80). As Table 8 shows, the model fit was not improved by adding policy availability ($\chi^2(8)$ = 6.05, p = .64). The availability of work-family policies was not significantly, positively related to cumulative productivity trends after childbirth with potential drawbacks for teaching relief availability.

Work-Family Policy Use (H2)

For hypothesis 2, I hypothesized that teaching relief use (H2a), onsite childcare use (H2b), and using both (H2c) would increase cumulative productivity trends following the birth of the first and second child. Relative to pre-birth, teaching relief use significantly decreased cumulative productivity slope following the first child (B = -.45, SE = .13, $p <$ .001), but not following the second child (B = .17, SE = .20, p = .40). I did not find support for H2a with significant effects in the opposite direction. H2b was partially supported, such that onsite childcare use significantly increased the *h*-index slope after the birth of the second child relative to before their birth (B = .72, SE = .24, p = .003), but not after the first child (B = -.14, SE = .16, p = .39). Compared to the time and gender model, adding policy use improved model fit as shown in Table 8 ($\chi^2(6)$ = 19.78, p = .003). These results indicate that the benefits of using a work-family policy may differ based on the policy's characteristics and may depend on the child's birth order.

Supplemental Analyses

To ensure the results are robust, I conducted supplemental analyses by testing the linearity of time, gender differences for policy availability and use, and tenure as an additional discontinuity. Given the known gender differences in family and childcare responsibilities on average compared to men after the birth of a child (e.g., Lachance-Grzela & Bouchard, 2010), the effects of work-family policy availability and use on within-person productivity may be differentially effective for men and women. However, very few studies directly examine these gender moderation effects (e.g., Casper & Harris, 2008) with few gender differences and little to none on job performance. I test the moderation effects of gender on the relationship between policy availability and policy use, and job performance.

Gender does not moderate either policy availability or policy use on within-person productivity and does not significantly improve model fit for policy availability ($\chi^2(8)$ = 3.57, p = .90) or policy use ($\chi^2(6)$ = 7.31, p = .29). These results provide evidence that the original results are robust with no significant gender differences found.

Tenure has been associated with drops in research productivity (Krapf et al., 2017), indicating that professors may be less productive after they obtain tenure. However, little to no research has examined if tenure moderates the effectiveness of work-family policies for improving productivity. I add a dichotomous within-person variable to models 4 (policy availability) and 5 (model use) to indicate if the person has reached tenure for each time point (0 = assistant professor, 1 = tenured). I include tenure as a moderator of the relationship between time and policies. When comparing models with the promotion variable and those without, the models with the promotion variable did not fit better for policy availability ($\chi^2(12)$ = 17.59, p = .13) or policy use ($\chi^2(10)$ = 20.37, p = .03). Tenure significantly moderates the relationship between teaching relief availability and cumulative productivity trends after child 2 (B = .43, SE = .17, p = .01. For policy use, tenure moderates the impact of onsite childcare use for child 2 (B = -.63, SE = .29, p = .03). These supplemental analyses show the robustness of the original results and the potential importance of investigating the influence of promotion for work-family policy affecting work outcomes.

Given the cumulative nature of *h*-index and previous job performance research (e.g., Vancouver et al., 2016), longitudinal productivity may not be linear. I test the effects of time^2 and time^3. Compared to the unconditional growth model without time^2, the model with time^2 did not fit significantly better, according to likelihood ratio tests ($\chi^2(1)$ = .07, p = .80) and time^2 was not significant. Adding time^3 to the models did not significantly improve model fit

compared to the unconditional growth model ($\chi^2(2) = 3.54$, $p = .17$) and was not significant. In summation, the supplemental analyses detailed above provide evidence of the robustness of the original results.

Study 2 Sample 1 Discussion

The primary goal of Study 2 Sample 1 was to extend social exchange theory by identifying if work-family policies relate positively to long-term cumulative productivity trends. Although childcare benefits use related positively to cumulative productivity trends, I find limited support for parental leave availability, childcare benefits availability, and parental leave use. These results counter Butts et al.'s (2013) finding that work-family policy availability had more substantial effects on work attitudes than use. Work-family policy availability may be enough for better work attitudes, whereas policy use may be necessary to achieve long-term reciprocations and increased cumulative productivity. As social exchange theory suggests, employees using childcare benefits may indicate that the organization meets some of their needs, improving their social exchange relationship. In addition, this study focuses on teaching relief and onsite childcare, which may account for the findings. A more general paid parental leave policy that allows employees to take time off from all job tasks may have more positive effects. Alternatively, employees may reduce their cumulative research productivity during teaching relief even though the policy may not stipulate that they should. Conversely, onsite childcare represents a stronger work-family policy as employees gain childcare close to their workplace. However, onsite childcare is the most resource-intensive childcare benefit. A physical space can cost over $1 million U.S. dollars and hundreds of thousands of U.S. dollars in yearly operating costs (International Finance Corporation, 2017). Other childcare benefits (e.g., subsidies) may provide similar results at a

lower cost.

Study 1 has several strengths and limitations. I use multi-source data, integrating survey data with a novel source of longitudinal cumulative productivity data obtained through web scraping Google Scholar. Further, the sample includes faculty from 17 STEM fields and over 1,500 level 1 observations of publication-level data translated into *h*-index. Using yearly *h*-index provides several strengths, including a publicly available, objective, and longitudinal indicator of cumulative productivity that has stronger relationships with future scientific achievement than other indicators (Hirsch, 2007). The web scraper collected publication-level data that is unattainable via manual coding. However, using the *h*-index as the only indicator of job performance has limitations. Researchers argue that job performance is behavioral and not outcome based (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015), with the *h*-index representing an outcome of job performance. Others focus less on this difference (Austin & Villanova, 1992).

Another limitation is that the policy availability questions used in Study 1 did not ask if the employee had the policy available for specific children. The policy use questions also did not ask if they used the policy for specific children. The current study demonstrates that cumulative productivity trends differ between those who used a work-family policy and those who never used the policy, such that those who do use them demonstrate higher research productivity than those who do not. In conclusion, Study 2 Sample 1 contributes initial evidence for onsite childcare use improving cumulative research productivity trends with several methodological issues impeding interpretation for theory and practice. Specifically, improving measurement would advance the theoretical understanding of when work-family policies after childbirth impact long-term employee reciprocation.

Study 2 Sample 2

Study 2 Sample 2 extends Study 2 Sample 1 by addressing methodological limitations. I replicate and extend the general hypotheses on the availability of paid parental leave (H1a), availability of childcare benefits (H1b), paid parental leave use (H2a), and childcare benefits use (H1b) increasing cumulative productivity trends. First, Study 2 Sample 2 specifically asks about the availability and use for each child, which provides a better test of the extended social exchange theory by examining the major life event of having a first, second, or third child. I also add top publications as a cumulative research productivity outcome to more broadly capture productivity, given publications in top journals are highly relevant determinants of career outcomes (e.g., Aguinis et al., 2020; Dyer et al., 2021).

The operationalization of work-family policies limited the generalizability of results from Study 1. Teaching relief and onsite childcare may omit related supports. Study 2 Sample 2 investigates childcare benefits more broadly by including onsite childcare, childcare subsidies, and any other direct childcare benefits. Parents may receive similar support from an employer providing any of these benefits (Piszczek, 2020). Study 2 Sample 2 also examines paid parental leave to better capture support that parents may find helpful as teaching relief does not provide time off from all job duties. Paid parental leave is a more comprehensive policy that allows parents paid time off from all job duties after childbirth. The sample is also much larger, providing stronger statistical power to test the proposed hypotheses. In sum, Study 2 Sample 2 addresses the methodological limitations of Study 2 Sample 1, thereby providing a more precise and generalizable test of social exchange theory.

Study 2 Sample 2 Method

Study 2 Sample 2 Participants and Procedure

I partnered with a computer scientist who collected survey data from all tenure-track Business professors in Ph.D. granting institutions in the United States and Canada using their publicly available emails (Morgan et al., 2021). The sample is parents (N = 386) from 108 universities and 6,945 yearly observations of top publications and *h*-index. The sample was 32% female and started as an assistant professor an average of 18 years ago (SD = 12.7). 22% had one child, 53% had two children, and 25% had three or more children.

Morgan et al. (2021) focused on the effects of gender and the first child on publications. The study is a unique use and extension of Morgan et al.'s (2021) data as they did not examine *h*-index, top publications, multiple children, or the effect of work-family policies on productivity. Morgan et al.'s (2021) supplementary material has more information on data collection. Following Study 2 Sample 1, I scraped Google Scholar cumulative productivity data for each survey respondent. I calculate the yearly *h*-index using publication-level data, and I use a similar process for yearly top publications. I pre-registered Study 2 Sample 2's hypotheses, data, and analyses on the Open Science Framework (OSF), available at https://osf.io/hdaj8/?view_only=2a7e1438c09646269d09205dc5b228f7.[1]

Study 2 Sample 2 Measures

Cumulative Productivity. As in Study 2 Sample 1, I measure cumulative productivity with yearly *h*-index, which integrates the number of publications and their impact on the field

[1] I deviate from the pre-registration by not including the results of the Computer Science sample from Morgan et al. (2021) given the gender imbalance in computer science faculty and an emphasis on peer-reviewed, full length conference papers over journal articles, which renders the productivity indicators less meaningful. I did not run analyses for the Age & Generations study or the Generations of Talent study as the two datasets collected cross-sectional self-report job performance data, whereas the current study focuses on long-term objective productivity.

(i.e., citations). I obtained an *h*-index for every year from when the participant started as assistant professors to when they took the survey. I also measure the cumulative number of top publications. Top publications are a common and widely accepted productivity criterion in Business schools (Aguinis et al., 2020). I created the journal list by combining the Financial Times 50 list (2016) and journals with 4* or 4 in the Academic Journal Guide (Chartered Association of Business Schools, 2021). I include the journal list in the OSF pre-registration.

Work-family policy availability and use. Parental leave for each child was measured with one item on availability, "For each of your children, were you eligible to take any paid parental leave when they were born or adopted?" and one item on use, "For the children for which you were eligible to take parental leave: did you take the leave?" Information on paid parental leave policies at these universities is available in Morgan et al.'s (2021) supplementary material. For the childcare benefits availability and use for each child, participants responded to, "For each of your children: Did your employer provide subsidies, facilities, or other direct benefits for childcare? If so, did you use it?" I code availability and use as binary variables.

Time spent working during parental leave. Participants reported if they took paid parental leave and how much they worked during that time. I coded responses with working less during leave as higher (1 = I spent at least 2/3 of that time on work-related activities, 2 = I spent about half of that time on work-related activities, 3 = I spent about 1/3 of that time on work-related activities, 4 = I did not do anything work-related during that time). I treated this predictor as a continuous variable as the difference between each response option is similar.

Childbirth year. Respondents reported childbirth years. I used this information in the analytic strategy detailed below to test productivity slopes before and after childbirth.

Gender. Participants reported their gender as either man (0) or woman (1).

Study 2 Sample 2 Analytic Strategy

The analytic strategy from Study 2 Sample 1 was used, including the nesting, random effects, autocorrelation structure, and coding of time. I use DGCMs with the individual as level 2 and the university as level 3. Intra-class coefficients, ICC(1), were calculated to estimate the percent of variance residing at each level with a large amount of variance resided at the level 2 individual (top publications: ICC(1) = .44, *h*-index: ICC(1) = .30) and level 3 university (top publications: ICC(1) = .17, *h*-index: ICC(1) = .12). The ICC(1) demonstrates enough variance exists at each level, so I include their random intercepts and random slopes (e.g., Bell et al., 2019; Heisig & Schaeffer, 2019). The lag-1 correlation was high for top publications (r_{t-1} = .93) and *h*-index (r_{t-1} = .90), so I use a lag-1 autocorrelation structure (Jebb & Tay, 2017).

I test four models for both *h*-index and top publications. Model 1 includes the variables for time since starting as an assistant professor (Time), time since the birth of the first child (Time.Child 1), time since second childbirth (Time.Child 2), time since third childbirth (Time.Child 3), and gender. Model 2 adds policy availability. In Model 3, I add policy use to the time and gender variables (i.e., Model 1). Model 4 adds the amount of time participants worked during parental leave to Model 3. I put the *R* syntax for all analyses on the OSF page.

Study 2 Sample 2 Results

Descriptive statistics for work-family policy availability and use by child is presented in Table 9. Model 1 in Table 10 shows that participants started as an assistant professor with an average *h*-index of 1.01 (SE = .28, $p < .001$) that increases over time at a rate of .72 (SE = .05, $p < .001$) per year. The first child increases the *h*-index trend by .19 (SE = .04, $p < .001$), the second child by .13 (SE = .05, $p < .001$), and third child by .18 (SE = .06, $p = .003$). For top publications, participants start as assistant professors with an average of .91 cumulative top publications (SE = .21, $p < .001$) and increases by .74 (SE = .05, $p < .001$) each year. This rate of change does not significantly differ after the first child (B = -.02, SE = .04, $p = .63$) or second child (B = -.03, SE = .05, $p = .58$), but significantly increases after the birth of the third child (B = .13, SE = .06, $p = .04$). Gender and childbirth do not significantly affect top publications trends or *h*-index trends.[2]

Hypothesis 1: Work-Family Policy Availability

I hypothesized (H1a) that individuals with parental leave available would have higher productivity trends after childbirth. As shown in Table 10, I find partial support for this hypothesis as parental leave availability after the first child is significant and positive for top publications (B = .21, SE = .07, $p = .002$). For Hypothesis 1b, I expected productivity trends to increase if the individual had childcare benefits available for that child. For *h*-index, I find a significant effect after the birth of child 1 (B = .24, SE = .07, $p < .001$) and after the birth of

[2] Our gender and childbirth model results differ from Morgan et al's (2021) finding that the first child significantly decreased short-term productivity for mothers, but not fathers. The substantial differences in manuscript 2 and our use of their survey data are described in the transparency and openness section, which likely explain the differences in results. Further, Morgan et al. (2021) used a comparative interruptive time series for analyzing gender differences in publications, whereas Iused discontinuous growth curve models to combine the work-family policy data with previously unused top publication and *h*-index trends. In sum, the difference in this result likely stems from using a different analysis technique, different productivity indicators, and us including multiple children.

child 3 (B = .62, SE = .13, $p < .001$). For top publications, there is only a significant effect of childcare benefits after child 3 (B = .72, SE = .14, $p < .001$). These effects partially support H1b, showing that childcare benefits increase productivity trends. Model comparisons in Table 12 provide the support that the policy availability model better fits the data than the time and gender model for top publications (Likelihood Ratio Test = 58.29, $p < .001$) and *h*-index (Likelihood Ratio Test = 61.64, $p < .001$). In sum, work-family policy availability increased productivity trends after the first and third child.

Hypothesis 2: Work-Family Policy Use

I hypothesized that using parental leave (H2a) would positively affect their productivity trends following childbirth. As shown in Table 11, I find support for H2a given that parental leave was positively related to productivity trends after child 3 for *h*-index (B = .39, SE = .19, $p = .04$) and only for child 1 for top publications (B = .18, SE = .08, $p = .02$). Ihypothesized that childcare benefits use would increase *h*-index trends in Hypothesis 2b. Ifind support for this hypothesis with childcare benefits use increasing productivity trends after the birth of child 1 (B = .27, SE = .08, $p < .001$) and child 3 (B = 1.29, SE = .20, $p < .001$). With top publications as the outcome, childcare benefits use increased productivity trends after the birth of child 3 (B = 1.81, SE = .21, $p < .001$. Model comparisons in Table 12 show that the policy use model provides a better fit for the data than the time and gender model for top publications (Likelihood Ratio Test = 112.85, $p < .001$) and *h*-index (Likelihood Ratio Test = 90.72, $p < .001$). Work-family policy use generally supports childcare benefits offering more consistent increases in productivity trends. However, the results did not support parental leave use in the anticipated direction.

Supplemental Analyses

Similar to Study 2 Sample 1, I examined the robustness of the findings by looking at the linearity of time and gender differences in policy availability and use. Tenure was not available in the dataset, so I did not examine tenure as a robustness check. I first look at the inclusion of gender moderating the relationship between childcare benefits availability and childbirth for top publications. Gender moderated the relationship between childcare benefits availability and child 1 (B = .36, SE = .16, p = .03), such that the availability of childcare benefits is higher for female participants after the birth of their first child. A similar relationship is found for childcare benefits availability and child 3 (B = .80, SE = .39, p = .04). Gender also moderated the relationship between parental leave availability and child 3 (B = 1.17, SE = .32, p < .001). Log likelihood model comparisons show that the model with gender moderation has a better fit ($\chi^2(8)$ = 28.44, p = .005), however the BIC is lower without gender moderation.

I also look at the effects of gender moderation for *h*-index. Gender moderates the relationship between parental leave availability and child (B = 1.09, SE = .29, p < .001). Similar to top publications, log likelihood model comparisons show that the model with gender moderation has a better fit ($\chi^2(8)$ = 22.35, p = .03), however the AIC and BIC are lower with no gender moderation. I do not find gender to moderate the relationship between policy use and childbirth ($\chi^2(8)$ = 16.45, p = .17) for top publications. However, gender does moderate the relationship between parental leave use and child 3 (B = -1.39, SE = .41, p < .001). The log likelihood comparisons indicate better model fit for the inclusion of gender as a moderator ($\chi^2(8)$ = 23.77, p = .02), although the AIC and BIC are lower without gender as

a moderator. In sum, gender may be important for understanding when policies are important for productivity trends.

I also examined how the outcomes change over time by looking at the time^2 and time^3. For top publications, time^2 was not significant when added to time and the model fit was not significantly better ($\chi^2(1) = 1.28$, $p = .26$). When adding time^3 for top publications, time was significant (B = .62, SE = .04, $p < .001$), time^2 was significant (B = .008, SE = .002, $p < .001$), and time^3 was significant (B = -.0001, SE = .000003, $p < .001$). When comparing to only the inclusion of time, adding time^2 and time^3 improved log likelihood ($\chi^2(2) = 17.95$, $p < .001$), but not BIC. For *h*-index, the inclusion of time^2 was significant (B = .01, SE = .0006, $p < .001$) and time was still significant (B = .73, SE = .03, $p < .001$). The model fit was improved for log likelihood comparisons ($\chi^2(1) = 362.33$, $p < .001$). When adding time^3, time was still significant (B = .65, SE = .04, $p < .001$), time^2 was significant (B = .02, SE = .002, $p < .001$), and time^3 was significant (B = -.0002, SE = .00003, $p < .001$). The model comparisons indicate the inclusion of time^2 and time^3 improve model fit compared to only time ($\chi^2(2) = 388.35$, $p < .001$. I focused on only time to reduce model complexity and make interpretation easier. Finally, I looked at if working during paid parental leave improved long-term productivity trends and I did not find a significant effect.

Study 2 Sample 2 Discussion

I extend social exchange theory by replicating and extending Study 2 Sample 1 using a sample of Business professors. Study 2 Sample 2 addressed measurement and sample limitations from Study 2 Sample 1. These improvements provide a more rigorous test of the extended social exchange theory on when work-family policies affect long-term reciprocation. Study 2 Sample 2's findings replicate Study 2 Sample 1's findings that

childcare benefits use positively affected cumulative productivity trends. Study 2 Sample 2 found more support for work-family policy availability than Study 2 Sample 1, and paid parental leave was more consistent in improving cumulative productivity trends. These results align with Butts et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis that both work-family policy availability and use affect work attitudes. In addition, I do not find evidence that the amount of time worked during paid parental leave significantly relates to long-term cumulative productivity. The results suggest that social exchange theory needs to account for specific major life events as childbirth order matters with more consistent effects after child 1 and child 3, and only non-significant results for child 2.

Study 2 Discussion

Work-family policies (parental leave, childcare benefits) constitute key resources for employers to support parents. The studies fill critical theoretical and empirical gaps around work-family policies. I demonstrate that social exchange processes, such as providing family-supportive benefits after major life events (e.g., childbirth), can potentially be linked to long-term cumulative productivity trends with nuanced results by childbirth order and policy characteristics. The current study has two substantial implications for extending social exchange theory: 1) benefits of work-family policies for cumulative productivity trends and 2) long-term reciprocation after a major life event.

First, I extend social exchange theory by suggesting that reciprocation processes may occur over a long time (Flynn, 2005; Hom et al., 2009). I incorporate long-term reciprocation into social exchange theory by examining how the initiating action of providing work-family policies leads employees to reciprocate with increased cumulative productivity trends. Employees using an organization's resources may demonstrate that they needed the support

and developed a stronger social exchange relationship, resulting in reciprocation. Using objective long-term cumulative productivity is necessary as subjective performance ratings are affected by manager's biases (e.g., Viswesvaran et al., 2005) and may be limited in capturing employee reciprocation. Work-family policy use was more consistently linked to improving cumulative productivity trends than policy availability. These results are consistent with Butts et al.'s (2013), such that both availability and use are essential.

More specifically, parental leave availability had mixed findings for cumulative productivity trends. Teaching relief is negatively related to cumulative productivity trends in Study 1, and paid parental leave is positively associated with cumulative productivity trends in Study 2. Teaching relief likely presents too weak an initiating action for employees to experience sufficiently supportive initiating actions to result in long-term reciprocation. In contrast, paid parental leave, a more substantial support for new parents, was more positively linked to long-term cumulative productivity trends. Parental leave use was inconsistent with some support for paid parental leave use improving cumulative productivity trends in Study 2 Sample 2, whereas teaching relief use decreased productivity in Study 2 Sample 1. Teaching relief use only provides partial relief from work duties, which employees may perceive as unsupportive.

Childcare benefits were more consistently related to cumulative productivity trends than parental leave. As Study 2 Sample 1 indicates, the provision of onsite childcare may not be enough for long-term productivity. In contrast, Study 2 Sample 2 found that broader childcare benefits availability was more likely to increase cumulative productivity trends. Childcare benefits use was the most consistently positive initiating action with employees reciprocating with increased cumulative productivity trends in both samples. The childcare

benefits findings are consistent with social exchange theory and Butts et al. (2013) but inconsistent with previous cross-sectional research using subjective job performance (e.g., Gullekson et al., 2014). The discrepancies between the study and prior research can likely be accounted for by the differences between subjective job performance and objective productivity trends. I argue that long-term cumulative productivity trends are less prone to bias than subjective ratings of parents' job performance (Li et al., 2017). The study demonstrates the value of childcare benefits for long-term productivity, which adds to the known benefits for recruitment (e.g., Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Morgan et al., 2021) and turnover (e.g., Piszczek, 2020). Future social exchange theory work should integrate employee perceptions of the availability and use of work-family policies to understand better what policy characteristics indicate positive initiating actions and may lead to long-term reciprocation.

Second, I extend social exchange theory by suggesting that organizations supporting employees after a major life event may create a robust and long-term obligation for employees to reciprocate. Major life events differ in terms of their long-term impact on individual well-being (Kettlewell et al., 2020), as well as childbirth order (e.g., child 1, child 2) differentially relating to relationship quality (Volling et al., 2015) and labor market exit (Doren, 2019). The results substantiate this theoretical assertion as the findings were inconsistent for each child, with work-family policies being most supportive for child 1 and child 3 in Study 2 Sample 2. After their first child, a parent does not have experience and requires extensive support to adapt to new demands (Yavorsky et al., 2015). I provide preliminary evidence that birth order may need to be accounted for as less research exists on transitions to a second or third child. After their second child, a parent may be acclimated to

the added family demands, whereas a third child may add disproportionate, incremental family demands. As a result, employees may perceive work-family policies as more supportive after the first and third child. The findings suggest that social exchange theory should integrate major life events and their perceived characteristics (Luhmann et al., 2020). Employees may only reciprocate after organizations support them during major life events.

Study 2 Practical Implications

To support the practical implications of our study, Icalculated the return on investment of work-family policies for productivity trends (i.e., top publications and *h*-index). Icalculated the cumulative benefit of work-family policy availability and use for a parent with one child after 20 years using Study 2's results. For availability, parental leave would increase top publications by 4.1, and childcare benefits would increase *h*-index by 5.7. For use, parental leave would increase top publications by 3.4, and childcare benefits would increase the *h*-index by 6.4. Considering increasing pressure on research output and business school rankings, Idemonstrate the viability of work-family policies to contribute to productivity trends.

Based on the current study's findings, I make two practical recommendations. First, I recommend organizations adopt childcare benefits and paid parental leave even though effects were inconsistent across childbirth order. Across the two studies, childcare benefits produced more utility, with paid parental leave being generally effective, whereas teaching relief was not supportive. Organizations should identify childcare benefits that work best based on employee demand, employer goals and resources, and the community context (International Finance Corporation, 2017). Second, organizations should also emphasize implementing policies and creating a supportive environment for using policies. Leader

training has effectively increased the use of workplace resources (Dimoff & Kelloway, 2019), so future research should examine if leader training can similarly increase the use of work-family policies.

Limitations and Future Directions

The current study has several strengths for extending social exchange theory and potential limitations for theory testing and generalizability. Most studies on work-family policy and job performance are cross-sectional and use subjective ratings, and the study addresses these previous limitations. One main strength of the studies is using objective productivity to capture better employee reciprocation, given the potential for supervisor bias contaminating subjective ratings. Another strength is using a second study to replicate and extend study 1 with almost 7,000 yearly productivity observations in Study 2 Sample 2. Web scraped data captured cumulative productivity trends as a novel test of long-term social exchange. These academic samples uniquely address longstanding issues in the work-family literature, especially given the difficulties in collecting long-term performance. A potential concern is that author order may be important with metrics based on *h*-index accounting for some author characteristics (e.g., Abambres & Arab, 2016; Hirsch, 2019). However, these adapted metrics are fraught with concern as expectations and norms differ by field, department, and research team. Morgan et al. (2021) also found no significant gender differences in the number of authors per publication for Business professors. Further, research productivity constitutes one part of a professor's job performance, so adding other indicators of long-term job performance (e.g., teaching) may be of interest in future research.

Ileverage the results of meta-analyses to support the social exchange theory hypotheses, however I do not directly test the proposed long-term social exchange

reciprocation processes. Work-family policy availability and use are positively related to affective commitment (Butts et al., 2013), such that employees reciprocate these initiating actions with a strong emotional attachment for the organization. Given affective commitment is an indicator of social exchange relationships (Cropanzano et al., 2017), employees likely perceive the availability of work-family policies as indicative of a social exchange relationship and not an economic exchange relationship. I expect similar theoretical processes for cumulative productivity trends. Conversely, the findings may also support resource theories (e.g., job demands-resources theory, Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Work-family policies may provide employees with resources (e.g., time and money) that employees can use to reduce job demands and focus on productivity. Testing longitudinal relationships in studies spanning about 20 years, the length of the studies, will allow for more definitive tests of the theoretical mechanisms. Further, future extensions of social exchange theory should identify and measure the mechanisms involved in long-term social exchange processes to answer the research question: *what leads to long-term reciprocation?*

Our results align with social exchange theory. However, I should consider how they generalize to other jobs. Universities can be compared to professional service firms (PSFs), such as healthcare, accounting, law, and management consultants, as they emphasize human capital as a critical resource (e.g., Dyer et al., 2021; von Nordenflycht, 2010). Specifically, academia shares the following characteristics with other PSFs: 1) non-managerial workers are human capital intensive, 2) workers have explicit professional standards and accepted performance measures (e.g., percentage of cases won), and 3) high autonomy in skill development and using resources for job performance (von Nordenflycht, 2010). Although academia and PSFs share similarities, other faculty characteristics could limit the

generalizability of the theory and findings, including job flexibility and industry norms on work-family policy availability.

Academic jobs contain a high level of inherent job flexibility, particularly true for research tasks that many faculty can complete anytime and anywhere. Although other PSFs can have similar levels of flexibility (e.g., lawyers in independent practice), the high level of inherent flexibility may limit generalizability. Individuals in highly flexible jobs may meet some family demands with that flexibility and not need work-family policies. However, the current study shows that formal work-family policies are helpful to parents in a highly flexible job. Other occupations in PSFs may not have the same flexibility, which means more formal work-family policies may provide more substantial support. Future research is necessary to ensure generalizability to jobs with less flexibility and workers outside of PSFs.

Industry norms on work-family policy availability may further affect the generalizability of some findings. Both paid parental leave and childcare benefits were not standard (30% and 20%, respectively) across the 108 universities in Study 2 Sample 2. PSFs commonly provide paid parental leave and childcare benefits, but onsite childcare is less common (e.g., Consulting.us, 2018; Lu et al., 2021; Morris, 2017). Employees in these PSFs may attribute the work-family policies to the industry and not the organization (Piszczek & Berg, 2020). As a result, employees may not reciprocate as positively to the provision of these policies as they expect the organization to provide them. Future research is needed to understand better how work-family policy attributions and industry norms may affect the relationship between availability, use, and productivity.

General Discussion

Parenthood represents a critical turning point in an individual's life as family responsibilities increase overnight. Work-family policies represent an important resource for organizations to support family demands with benefits for organizations, employees, and families. The utility of work-family policies has been underexamined during the attraction and job performance parts of the employee life cycle. Study 1 develops a scale of attractiveness of family supportive organizations and finds that job seekers generally value work-family policies and family supportive organizations when they are looking for jobs. However, AFSO is not related to common work-family constructs, OCBs, or CWBs. Work-family policies may be important to individuals during the attraction phase of the employee lifecycle, but may be unrelated to on-the-job behaviors with future research needed to better understand this relationship. Study 2 examines how work-family policies, specifically parental leave and childcare benefits, can improve job performance trends. Igenerally find support that work-family policies are important for long-term job performance trends.

Theoretical Implications

From a theoretical standpoint, the current studies shed light on when individuals may reciprocate work-family policies with improvements in job performance. Specifically, Study 1 finds that an individual's attraction to family supportive organizations may not be an important factor for job seekers reciprocating the organization's provision of work-family policies. All individuals may view the provision of work-family policies similarly. For example, paid family leave availability was positively related to perceived organizational support, indicating that employees thought that providing the policy indicated the organization cared about employee well-being. Instead, the employee may not have much

control over where they apply and ultimately choose to work. Their qualifications may mean that they can only work in certain occupations and industries. Industries and occupations differ in providing work-family policies as blue-collar, education, health services, hospitality, and part time workers may have lower access to work-family policies (e.g., Elser et al., 2022). As a result, employees in different occupations and industries may have different expectations about if organizations should provide work-family policies. Future empirical research should test these post-hoc theoretical explanations.

Study 2 has substantial theoretical implications as well. Work-family policies may prompt long-term social exchange processes after employees have a child. This major life event may make the availability and use of parental leave and childcare benefits more salient and make the organization seem even more supportive of employee well-being. In sum, the current studies show that employees may reciprocate work-family policies if they are useful to them, whereas their preferences during the job search may not be enough to encourage employee reciprocation.

Practical Implications

In combining the two studies, I have several practical recommendations for organizations. I recommend organizations adopt work-family policies and encourage their employees use them. Organizations benefit from improved long-term job performance trends. In addition, organizations may not need to promote their work-family policies to attract job seekers. Instead, organizations may want to focus on providing information to employees once they are hired. They should ensure that employees know about the benefits that will be useful to them. For example, soon-to-be parents should know if their organization provides paid parental leave or childcare benefits. Once employees disclose they will be having

children, supervisors and organizations should then encourage these employees to use the policies. Our studies show that these employees may provide the best benefit for organizations, whereas job seekers valuing work-family policies may provide much less benefit.

Limitations and Future Directions

The current studies have several limitations that provide future directions for research on work-family policies throughout the employee life cycle. Study 1 provided a first step for research investigating attraction to family supportive organizations. Future research could examine how work-family policy preferences determine where employees want to work. For example, are individuals attracted to states or countries that provide paid parental leave or childcare subsidies? Study 2 provided evidence for when work-family policies may affect job performance. Future research should extend this work to other work-family policies, such as eldercare support. Work-family policies may also improve other job performance dimensions, such as organizational citizenship behaviors and counterproductive work behaviors. Future research should examine long term trends in these dimensions following the birth of a child.

The current studies examined the attraction and job performance aspects of the employee life cycle. I recommend that future research investigate the importance of work-family policies during the rest of the employee life cycle, including recruitment, onboarding, learning and development, and retention. For example, onboarding is an understudied parts of the employee life cycle where work-family policies may be critical. During onboarding, new employees may be told about available work-family policies. If the employee does not know a policy is available, they cannot use the policy. The employer can ensure work-family

policy availability is communicated during onboarding, as well as encouraging new employees to use the policy. Onboarding represents one of the first opportunities for new employees to learn about policies and current employees' perceptions of who can use them.

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Table 1. ***Attractiveness of Family Supportive Organizations Item-level Means, SD, and Correlations Study 1 Sample 1***

	AFSO_1	AFSO_2	AFSO_3	AFSO_4	AFSO_5	AFSO_6	AFSO_7	AFSO_8
AFSO_2	.53							
AFSO_3	.57	.53						
AFSO_4	.62	.61	.54					
AFSO_5	.43	.34	.40	.39				
AFSO_6	.47	.40	.50	.46	.54			
AFSO_7	.54	.60	.50	.55	.39	.41		
AFSO_8	.44	.41	.42	.39	.30	.34	.43	
AFSO_9	.45	.41	.48	.53	.46	.56	.37	.40
Mean	3.91	3.47	3.85	3.99	4.26	4.38	3.48	3.67
SD	1.01	1.09	1.04	1.01	0.92	0.80	1.08	1.06
ITC	.71	.67	.68	.71	.54	.62	.66	.53

Note. All correlations significant at p < .001. *N* = 404. ITC = Corrected item-total correlation

Table 2. ***Construct Validity Correlations Sample 1 Study 1***

	Attractiveness of Family Supportive Organizations	**Anticipated Work-Family Conflict**	**Anticipated Family-Work Conflict**
Anticipated Work-Family Conflict	-.01		
Anticipated Family-Work Conflict	.07	.51***	
Family Centrality	.39***	.11*	.17***

Notes: * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ ***$p < .001$

Table 3. ***Attractiveness of Family Supportive Organizations Item-level Means, SD, and Correlations Study 1 Sample 2***

	AFSO_1_t1	AFSO_2_t1	AFSO_3_t1	AFSO_4_t1	AFSO_5_t1
AFSO_2_t1	.52				
AFSO_3_t1	.68	.48			
AFSO_4_t1	.45	.48	.53		
AFSO_5_t1	.75	.56	.69	.48	
M	4.12	4.38	4.27	4.56	4.00
SD	.97	.78	.84	.69	1.02

Note. All correlations significant at p < .001

	AFSO	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
2.Family Centrality	.16**																				
3.AWFC	.04	-.01																			
4.AFWC	.10	-.04	.58***																		
5.Care Av	.01	.04	-.12	.04																	
6.Leave Av	.07	.00	-.27***	-.16*	.24**																
7.Care Use	.07	.04	-.05	-.07	.35***	.15*															
8. Leave Use	-.03	.04	-.24**	-.12	.07	.47***	.12														
9.WFC	.02	-.02	.50***	.36***	-.03	-.21**	-.01	-.18*													
10.FWC	.09	-.12	.34***	.40***	.08	-.14	-.03	-.09	.53***												
11.POS	.05	.07	-.20**	-.11	.13	.17*	.15*	.09	-.35***	-.23**											
12.OCB	.10	.13	.07	.06	.18*	.15*	.14	.19*	.05	-.07	.14										
13.CWB	.00	-.08	.26***	.31***	.09	-.08	.18*	.01	.41***	.53***	-.28***	.05									
14.# Children	.01	.06	.04	.06	.02	.02	.06	.19*	.02	.02	.06	.18*	-.03								
15.Young Age	-.12*	-.02	-.09	-.20***	-.11	.02	.00	.03	-.24**	-.17*	.14	-.04	-.09	-.07							
16.Partner	-.03	.14**	.00	.06	.20**	.02	.02	.07	.10	.11	-.01	.20**	.05	.04	-.21***						
17.Partner Em	.03	.07	.03	.02	.01	-.02	-.06	-.04	.02	.11	-.03	.11	.07	.04	-.15**	.60**					
18.Job Tenure	-.02	-.23**	-.08	-.11	-.12	.04	-.05	.13	-.05	.09	-.09	.00	.00	.03	.26***	.09	.10				
19.Work Hours	.00	.06	-.10	-.06	.14	.33***	-.02	.21**	.19*	-.04	.04	.33***	.04	.06	-.03	.05	-.06	.13			
20.Search Behaviors	-.02	.02	-.04	-.10	.151*	-.01	.13	-.05	.05	-.16*	.02	.37***	.03	-.01	.06	.01	.02	.03	.16*		
21.Female	.08	-.02	.19***	.03	-.13	-.34***	-.04	-.29***	.03	-.02	-.11	-.04	-.07	.04	-.07	-.12*	-.05	.00	-.42***	.00	
Mean	4.27	4.47	3.10	2.37	.23	.74	.16	.62	2.93	2.27	3.32	3.04	1.42	1.94	6.87	.85	.71	75.78	40.64	2.76	.52
SD	.70	.61	1.14	1.07	.42	.44	.37	.49	1.25	1.13	1.25	.77	.48	1.10	5.10	.35	.45	99.17	9.80	.78	.50
N	350	350	350	349	178	178	178	178	178	178	178	177	178	350	348	350	350	189	187	350	346

Table 4. ***Correlations for Study 1 Sample 2***

Note. ** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed). Pairwise correlation N = 176-350

AWFC = Anticipated work-family conflict, AFWC = Anticipated family-work conflict, Care = Dependent care benefits, Leave = Paid family leave benefits, Av = Availability, POS = Perceived organizational support, OCB = Organizational citizenship behavior, CWB = Counterproductive work behavior, Young Age = age of youngest child, Em = employed

Table 5. Mediation Analyses for Study 1 Sample 2

	POS			OCB			CWB	
	B	*SE*	*p*	B	*SE*	*p*	B	*SE*	*p*
intercept	2.94	.18	<.001	2.76	.16	<.001	1.77	.10	<.001
AFSO	.12	.26	.65	.10	.08	.23	.01	.05	.89
Care Av	.26	.23	.25						
Leave Av	.44	.37	.046						
AFSO x Care Av	.55	.22	.14						
AFSO x Leave Av	-.19	.31	.54						
POS				.08	.05	.07	-.11	.03	<.001
F	1.90		.10	2.51		.08	7.23		.00
R2	.05		.03				.08		
Sample Size	177			177			178		

Notes. AFSO = attractiveness of family supportive organizations. Av =availability. Care = dependent care benefits. Leave = Paid family leave.

Table 6. ***Coding of Relative Time Variables in Study 2 Multilevel Discontinuous Growth Models***

Time	Child 1 Time	Child 2 Time	Cumulative *h*-index
0	0	0	5
1	0	0	6
2	0	0	7
3	1	0	9
4	2	0	13
5	3	0	16
6	4	1	19
7	5	2	24
8	6	3	28

Table 7 ***Study 2 Sample 1 Discontinuous Growth Curve Models of Cumulative*** **h-*index***

Fixed effects	Time & Gender	Policy Availability	Policy Use
Intercept	6.80***	6.27***	6.70***
Time	1.33***	1.15***	1.32***
Time.Child 1	.06	.30	.21
Time.Child 2	.15	.12	.06
Woman	-1.59	-1.52	-1.31
Time X Woman	-.22	-.19	-.15
Time.Child 1 X Woman	.06	.04	.11
Time.Child 2 X Woman	-.37	-.38	-.60**
Teaching Relief Availability		-.03	
Time X Teaching Relief Availability		.20	
Time.Child 1 X Teaching Relief Availability		-.34*	
Time.Child 2 X Teaching Relief Availability		.02	
Onsite Childcare Availability		.78	
Time X Onsite Childcare Availability		.07	
Time.Child 1 X Onsite Childcare Availability		-.03	
Time.Child 2 X Onsite Childcare Availability		.05	
Teaching Relief Use			-.96
Time.Child 1 X Teaching Relief Use			-.45***
Time.Child 2 X Teaching Relief Use			.17
Onsite Childcare Use			1.57
Time.Child 1 X Onsite Childcare Use			-.14
Time.Child 2 X Onsite Childcare Use			.72**
Level-1 R^2	.38	.39	.40
-2LL	4822.12	4816.07	4802.34
AIC	4882.12	4892.07	4874.34
BIC	5042.05	5094.66	5066.26

Table 8. Study 2 Sample 1 Model Comparisons of Discontinuous Growth Curve Models

Baseline Model	Comparison Model	LL Ratio
Time & Gender	Policy Availability	6.05
Time & Gender	Policy Use	19.78**

Note: Level-1 N = 1527. Level-2 N = 129. Level-3 N = 17.
$^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$

Table 9. ***Study 2 Sample 2 Work-Family Policy Availability and Use Descriptives by Birth Order***

	Child 1	Child 2	Child 3
Work-Family Policy Availability			
Parental leave	30%	29%	28%
Childcare benefits	21%	19%	19%
Work-Family Policy Use			
Parental leave	73%	74%	57%
Childcare benefits	71%	60%	40%

Note. Descriptives for child 2 and child 3 represent the percentage of individuals with a second or third child, respectively, who had a policy available for that child. Descriptives for use are for those who had the policy available and used the policy.

Table 10. Study 2 Sample 2 Policy Availability Discontinuous Growth Curve Models

	Cumulative Top Publications		Cumulative *h*-index	
Fixed effects	Time & Gender	Policy Availability	Time & Gender	Policy Availability
Intercept	.91***	.94***	1.01***	.75*
Time	.74***	.74***	.72***	.72***
Time.Child1	-.02	-.06	.19***	.14**
Time.Child2	-.03	-.03	.13**	.14**
Time.Child3	.13*	.02	.18**	.06
Woman	-.16	-.11	.08	-.19
Time X Woman	-.15	-.20*	.04	.00
Time.Child 1 X Woman	.13	.09	-.04	-.07
Time.Child 2 X Woman	-.05	-.04	.04	.04
Time.Child 3 X Woman	-.01	.08	-.05	-.02
Parental Leave Availability Child 1		-.13		.32
Childcare Benefits Availability Child 1		-.09		.89
Time.Child 1 X Parental Leave Availability Child 1		.21*		.11
Time.Child 1 X Childcare Benefits Availability Child 1		.07		.24***
Parental Leave Availability Child 2		.16		1.00
Childcare Benefits Availability Child 2		.50		-.41
Time.Child 2 X Parental Leave Availability Child 2		.04		.07
Time.Child 2 X Childcare Benefits Availability Child 2		.02		-.11
Parental Leave Availability Child 3		.04		.09
Childcare Benefits Availability Child 3		-1.05		-.69
Time.Child 3 X Parental Leave Availability Child 3		-.20		-.07
Time.Child 3 X Childcare Benefits Availability Child 3		.72***		.62***
Level-1 R^2	.32	.35	.51	.54
-2LL	21157.52	21099.24	19750.53	19688.89
AIC	21193.53	21159.23	19786.53	19748.89
BIC	21316.75	21364.61	19909.75	19954.27

Table 11. ***Study 2 Sample 2 Policy Use Discontinuous Growth Curve Models for Policy Use***

Fixed effects	Cumulative Top Publications	Cumulative *h*-index
Intercept	86***	.80**
Time	.76***	.73***
Time.Child 1	-.05	.16***
Time.Child 2	-.05	.13**
Time.Child 3	.03	.10
Woman	-.01	.00
Time X Woman	-.20*	-.07
Time.Child 1 X Woman	.10	-.07
Time.Child 2 X Woman	-.03	.04
Time.Child 3 X Woman	-.41*	-.48**
Parental Leave Use Child 1	-.16	.47
Childcare Benefits Use Child 1	.60	.98
Time.Child 1 X Parental Leave Use Child 1	.18*	.08
Time.Child 1 X Childcare Benefits Use Child 1	.06	.27**
Parental Leave Use Child 2	.37	1.23
Childcare Benefits Use Child 2	-.88	-1.23
Time.Child 2 X Parental Leave Use Child 2	.05	.04
Time.Child 2 X Childcare Benefits Use Child 2	-.04	-.06
Parental Leave Use Child 3	.23	.40
Childcare Benefits Use Child 3	-2.63	-2.39
Time.Child 3 X Parental Leave Use Child 3	.28	.39*
Time.Child 3 X Childcare Benefits Use Child 3	1.81***	1.29***
Level-1 R^2	.34	.52
-2LL	21044.68	19659.81
AIC	21104.68	19719.81
BIC	21310.05	19925.18

Table 12. ***Study 2 Sample 2 Model Comparisons of Discontinuous Growth Curve Models***

Baseline Model	Comparison Model	LL Ratio
Cumulative Top publications		
Time & Gender	Policy Availability	58.29***
Time & Gender	Policy Use	112.85***
Cumulative *h*-index		
Time & Gender	Policy Availability	61.64***
Time & Gender	Policy Use	90.72***

Figure 1. ***Study 1 Conceptual Model of Attractiveness of Family Supportive Organizations and Job Performance***

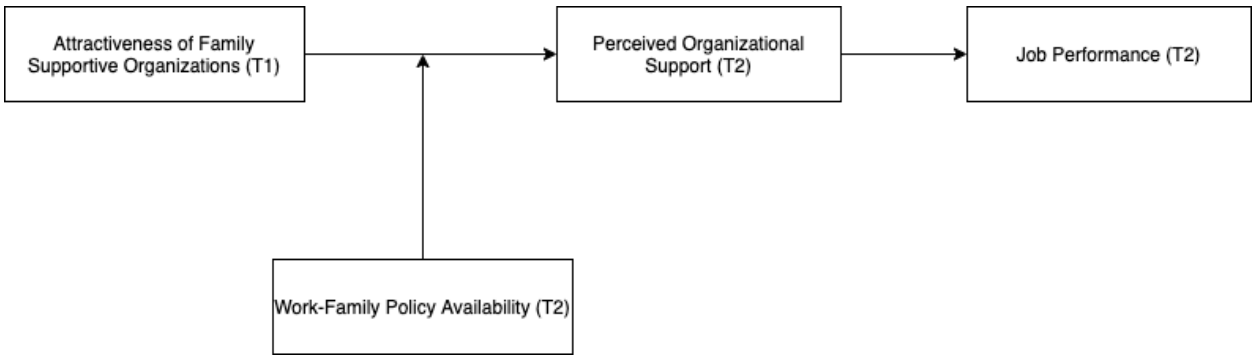


Figure 2. ***Study 1 Interaction Prediction of Attractiveness of Family Supportive Organizations and Perceived Organizational Support***

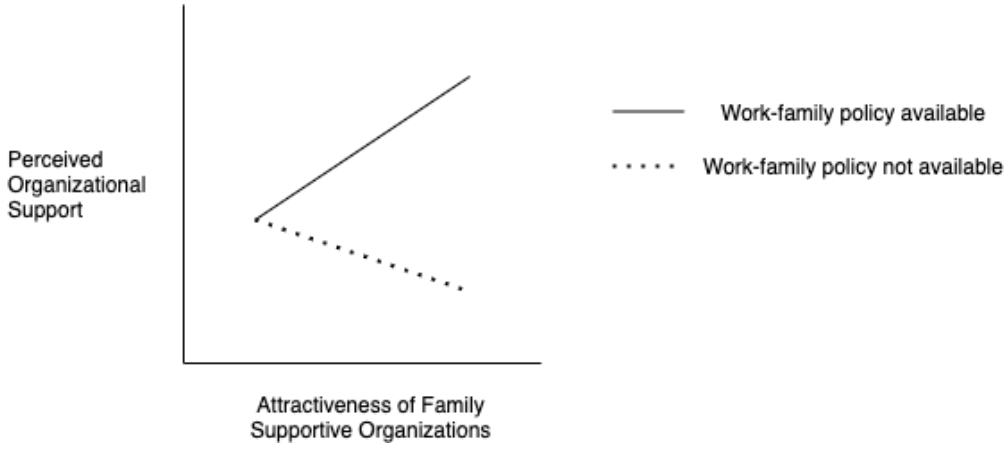
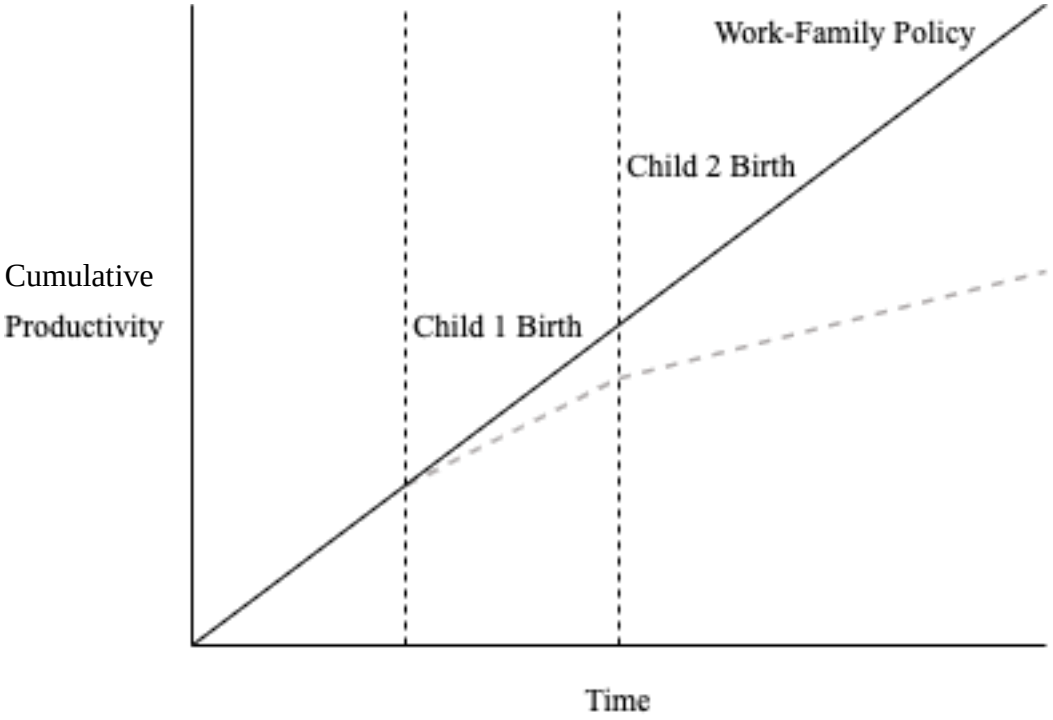


Figure 3. ***Study 2 Conceptual Model of Work-Family Policy on Cumulative Within-Person Productivity***



Notes. The effects of work-family policy availability or use on productivity trends is in black.

Appendix A

Attractiveness of Family Supportive Organizations (Study 1 Sample 1)

1. When applying for a job after graduating, I will evaluate whether the organization can accommodate my family responsibilities.
2. Work-family supports are one of my top priorities when looking for a job.
3. I plan to primarily apply to organizations that help me meet my current and future family responsibilities.
4. When applying for jobs, I will consider the family support that an organization will provide.
5. I am more likely to apply to an organization with strong work-family policies like flexible start and stop times, dependent care support, and remote work options.
6. I want to work for an organization that shows concern for my current and future family responsibilities.
7. When applying to jobs, I will narrow my choices based on the family supportiveness of the organization.
8. During my job search, I will avoid organizations with poor work-family supports.
9. I am attracted to organizations that support their employee's current and future family demands.

Attractiveness of Family Supportive Organizations (Study 1 Sample 2)

1. Work-family supports are one of my top priorities when looking for a job.
2. I plan to primarily apply to organizations that help me meet my current and future family responsibilities.

3. When applying for jobs, I will consider the family support that an organization will provide.
4. I want to work for an organization that shows concern for my current and future family responsibilities.
5. When applying to jobs, I will narrow my choices based on the family supportiveness of the organization.

Anticipated Work-Family Conflict (Adapted from Netemeyer et al., 1996)

1. The demands of my work will interfere with my home and family life.
2. The amount of time my job takes up will make it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.
3. Things I want to do at home will not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.
4. My job will produce strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.
5. Due to work-related duties, I will have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

Anticipated Family-Work Conflict (Adapted from Netemeyer et al., 1996)

1. The demands of my family or spouse/partner will interfere with work-related activities.
2. I will have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.
3. Things I want to do at work won't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.
4. My home life will interfere with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.

5. Family-related strain will interfere with my ability to perform job-related duties.

Family Centrality (Adapted from Kanungo, 1982)

1. In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be family oriented.
2. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my family.
3. The most important things that happen to me involve my family.
4. Family should be considered central to life.
5. Overall, I consider family to be central to my existence.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (Spector et al., 2010)

1. Took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker.
2. Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge.
3. Helped new employees get oriented to the job.
4. Lent a compassionate ear when someone at work had a work problem.
5. Offered suggestions to improve how work is done.
6. Helped a co-worker who had too much to do.
7. Volunteered for extra work assignments.
8. Worked weekends or other days off to complete a project or task.
9. Volunteered to attend meetings or work on committees on own time.
10. Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors (Spector et al., 2010)

1. Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies
2. Complained about insignificant things at work
3. Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for
4. Came to work late without permission

5. Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't
6. Insulted someone about their job performance
7. Made fun of someone's personal life
8. Ignored someone at work
9. Started an argument with someone at work
10. Insulted or made fun of someone at work

Perceived Organizational Support (Rhoades et al., 2001)

1. My organization really cares about my well-being.
2. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.
3. My organization cares about my opinions.
4. My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor.

Job Search Behaviors (van Hooft et al., 2004)

1. Made inquiries/read about getting a job
2. prepared/revised resume
3. read classified/help wanted advertisements
4. talked with friends or relatives about possible job leads
5. spoke with previous employers or business acquaintances about possible job leads
6. visited job fairs
7. contacted employment agencies
8. looked for jobs on the internet
9. made inquiries to prospective employers
10. sent out application letters/filled out job applications
11. gone on a job interview.

Attention Checks (Chmielewski and Kucker, 2019; Hauser & Schwarz, 2015)

1. What are your current family responsibilities? Please write at least 2-3 sentences.
2. What family responsibilities do you expect in the future? When do you expect those family responsibilities to occur? Please write at least 2-3 sentences.
3. When applying for jobs, how do you assess the family supportiveness of an organization? Please write 2-3 sentences.
4. Individual preferences and knowledge, along with situational variables can greatly impact the decision process. Specifically, we are interested in whether you actually take the time to read the directions. So, in order to demonstrate that you have read the instructions, please ignore the sports items below. Instead, select the box marked "other" and type “I read the instructions” (no quotes) in the text box, then click continue. Which of these activities do you engage in regularly?
5. Please select "somewhat agree" to show you are paying attention.
6. Thank you for your continued attention. Please select "somewhat disagree."
7. We appreciate your continued attention. Please choose "every day."
8. What does your employer do or not do that you think is a sign of whether they support workers' needs to take care of their families?