Parental Leave Use by Male Employees:
Corporate Culture, Managerial Attitudes & Employees’ Perceptions

by

Rachael Noelle Pettigrew

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Department of Family Social Sciences
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg

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ABSTRACT

In Canada, new parents have access to maternity and parental leave following the birth or adoption of a child. Parental leave, which follows maternity leave, entitles new parents to 35 weeks of leave. Although both parents have access to parental leave, only a small percentage of fathers utilize it, despite the benefits for both fathers and their children. This gendered usage perpetuates the belief that family responsibilities are mothers’ responsibilities. This multi-level research study explored the organizational, manager, and employee characteristics that influence support for and use of parental leave by male employees. In 2012, seven large, Manitoba employers were recruited for participation and the sample included 550 male employees and 354 female and male managers. Data were collected using a structured interview at the organizational level and two self-administered questionnaires for managers and male employees. The hypotheses were tested using OLS regression and hierarchical logistic regression. Results indicated strong managerial support for parental leave use by men, although female managers were significantly more supportive than male managers. The strongest influence on support for parental leave use for both employees and managers was the personal use of parental leave. Male employees who perceived organizational family support and the view that men could take leave without negative career impact reported higher levels of perceived supervisory family support. Twenty-five percent of the sample had used parental leave, but those who had access to an Employment Insurance top up from their employer reported the highest leave use and the longest leave duration. Parental leave was extended from 10 to 35 weeks in 2000; the results indicate that fathers who had access to 10 weeks of parental leave were 80 percent less likely to report leave use, compared to those with access to 35 weeks of leave. Therefore, to increase fathers’ use of parental leave, organizations are encouraged to increase awareness and explicit support for parental leave, as well as offer a top up. To increase fathers’ leave use, future parental leave policy development should focus on both increasing wage replacement and the addition of a non-transferable leave for fathers, similar to that offered in Quebec.
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DEDICATION

For my wonderful husband Gordon
and
our two amazing girls, Alison (5) and Megan (3).

“Two roads diverged in a wood, and I-
I took the one less traveled by,
And that has made all the difference.”
Robert Frost, 1920
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedication</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table of Contents</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Tables</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Figures</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Appendices</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter I: Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical perspective</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role theory</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social identity theory</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The work-family interface</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical context</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The stalled revolution</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childcare</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housework</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father involvement</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family-friendly policies</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of family-friendly policies</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizations and industries offering family-friendly polices</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation for offering family-friendly policies</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family-friendly policy utilization</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Leave</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of parental leave</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian parental leave policy background</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International context</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People’s Republic of China</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Leave Usage by Male Employees</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influences on parental leave usage</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of income</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual and partner preference</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breastfeeding</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of repercussions</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational culture</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Organizational norms.                                                     | 45   |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factors that influence support for parental leave</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factors that influence employees’ perception of managerial Family support</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers’ and employees perception of organizational Family support</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male employees’ perception of managerial support</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factors that influence parental leave use by male employees</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The role of policy</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implications</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future research</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 1. Response Rates of Managers and Employees by Organization</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Demographic Variables</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3. Counts and Frequencies for Categorical Model Variables, Managers and Employees</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Variables in Analyses, Managers and Employees</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5. Crosstabulation of Managerial Parental Leave Support by Gender</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 6. Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analysis of Predictors of Managers’ Support for Parental Leave Use By Male Employees</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 7. Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analysis of Predictors of Employees’ Support for Parental Leave Use By Male Employees</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 8. Univariate Descriptive Statistics for the Perceived Supervisory Family Support Scale for Employees</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 9. Family Supportive Organizational Perception (FSOP) Scale Means for Employees and Managers</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 10. Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictors of Employees’ Perceived Supervisory Family Support</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 11. Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analysis of Predictors of Male Employees’ Leave Use</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 1. Levels of Analysis</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF APPENDICES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appendix</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appendix A. Organizational Structured Interview/questionnaire</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix B. Manager Survey</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix C. Employee Survey</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix D. Incentive Draw Form</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix E. University of Manitoba: Joint-faculty Research Ethics Approval</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix F. Company Consent Form</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix G. Manager Consent Form</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix H. Employee Consent Form</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix I. Hypotheses, Variables, and Analyses</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I

Introduction

Work and family are the two main spheres of significant investment in life for most individuals (Brotheridge & Lee, 2005). These two spheres can also be thought of as the domains of earning and caring, which refer to the demands and the purpose of each sphere (Beaujot, 2000). Each sphere or domain comes with its own set of responsibilities, expectations, requirements, duties, commitments, and roles, which can compete for available time and energy (Goldscheider, Benhardt, & Lappegard, 2014; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996).

The relationship between work and family is bi-directional. In other words, family can have an impact on work – family-work conflict– and work can impact family – work-family conflict. The work-family literature often refers to these two spheres as conflicting (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Breaugh & Frye, 2008; Lapierre et al., 2008; Minotte, Minotte, & Pedersen, 2013; Minotte, Minotte, Pedersen, Mannon, & Kiger, 2010; Netemeyer et al., 1996); for example, a father’s business trip causes him to miss his daughter’s school play. However, there is an emerging body of literature that is exploring the ways in which these two spheres reinforce or benefit one another, referred to as work-family facilitation, enrichment, balance, or fit; for example, a mother’s self-esteem gained in her work role translates to greater confidence in her parental or marital role (Demerouti, Bakker, & Voydanoff, 2010; Lee, Zvonkovic, & Crawford, 2014; Tement & Korunka, 2013; Voydanoff, 2005). This research project will use work-family conflict as the conceptual approach.

Role theory holds that the responsibilities and expectations that come with each role often conflict, and it can be a daily struggle to attempt to balance the needs and expectations associated with both work and family roles. When balance is not achieved between these two
primary spheres conflict occurs, though a perfect balance is likely unattainable. Work-family conflict occurs when the requirements of one role interfere with the demands of another role and is a form of interrole conflict (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Winslow, 2005). Research shows that there are three key sources of work-family conflict and family-work conflict: overall demands, time allocated, and the strain or stress resulting from a given role (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

When individuals experience conflict between work and family responsibilities, there are serious implications for both their families and their employers. The impact of work-family conflict can be linked to marital problems, reduced family and life satisfaction (Minotte et al., 2010), an increase in stress, anxiety, burnout and depression, sleep disturbances, increased dependency on cigarettes and alcohol, an increase in costs for medical consultations and prescription drugs (Lero, Richardson, & Korabik, 2009), and perceived lower quality of life (Baines, 2011; Thompson, Beauvais, & Allen, 2006). In the workplace, employees’ experience of work-family conflict is linked to diminished productivity, an increase in tardiness, absenteeism, turnover, job dissatisfaction, psychological distress (Hsieh, Pearson, & Kline, 2008; Winslow, 2005), poor job performance, lower commitment, and lower moral (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Lero et al., 2009). Absenteeism has serious ramifications for both the employer and the Canadian economy through the loss of productivity. In 2001, the direct costs of absenteeism resulting from work-life conflict had been calculated to be as high as $3 to $5 billion annually (Duxbury & Higgins, 2003). However, by 2011 this figure had more than tripled to $16.6 billion dollars with an average absentee rate of 9.3 days per each full-time employee in Canada (Stewart, 2013).
Women have historically carried the brunt of the work-family juggling act (Sallee, 2013), which minimizes the efforts of women seeking equal social status. Women have reported higher levels of work-family conflict; however, as men increase their involvement in childcare and household tasks their report of work-family conflict has also increased. A recent U.S. nationally representative study of 1,298 people found that fathers in dual-income families actually reported higher levels of work-family conflict (60 percent) than employed mothers (47 percent) (Aumann, Galinsky, & Matos, 2011). Given the possible repercussions of conflict, it is expected that families, employers, and governments are motivated to minimize the experience of this conflict at all levels.

Families, employers and governments make varying attempts to accommodate the needs of both work and family life. Accommodation takes a variety of forms at the family level. For example, one parent, usually the mother, may consider dropping to part-time employment or leaving the workforce all together in order to achieve better balance between work and family responsibilities (Anderson, Vinnicombe, & Singh, 2010; Baines, 2011; Hill, Martinson, & Ferris, 2004). At the employer level, companies sometimes offer employees family-friendly benefits in order to maximize their employees’ performance and minimize the negative impacts to the business. Family-friendly benefits are also attractive to new recruits (Beauregard & Henry, 2009) and come in a variety of forms, such as onsite childcare, teleworking, flextime, and parental leave top-ups and extensions. Benefits such as these are intended to help employees juggle the demands of work and family, and research shows that working in a supportive workplace culture reduces levels of both work-family conflict and family-work conflict (Allard, Haas, & Hwang, 2011; de Janasz, Behnson, Jonsen, & Lankau, 2013). For example, Duncan and Pettigrew (2012) found that access to a flexible schedule increases
reports of balance, especially for women. However, in addition to being helpful for employees’ stress levels, these policies also foster loyalty to the company (de Janasz et al., 2013; Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, Wright, & Steen, 2006). Finally, federal and provincial governments offer a variety of policies that are also intended to help families. A few different types of policies offered by the provincial and federal governments are compassionate care leave, bereavement leave, child-care subsidies, and maternity and parental leave, as well as tax measures such as the Child Care Expense Deduction.

The birth or adoption of a child marks an enormous transition for both the individual parents and the couple as a whole, and the creation or extension of this parental role can increase the experience of conflict between work and family life. Having an infant in the house means sleepless nights, midnight feedings, and long days, all of which takes a toll on parents. The national maternity and parental leave policy helps parents manage this transition with greater ease and allows for the involvement of both the mother and father with the infant (Meil, 2013). Maternity leave is for new birth mothers only. Under Canadian policy, adoptive parents receive parental leave, but do not receive maternity leave, since maternity leave is intended to help a mother recover physically from delivery. Maternity leave is seventeen weeks long (fifteen weeks paid), but parental leave can be shared by both parents in two-parent families or can be taken in full by either parent. Parental leave is thirty-five weeks long and the parent is paid 55 percent of their salary to a maximum of $514 a week by Employment Insurance (EI) (Service Canada, 2014), which means the maximum annual insurable earnings are currently $48,600 for parents (Service Canada, 2014).

In the workplace both men and women face potential penalties when a work interruption, such as parental leave, occurs. However, unlike women, taking parental leave is
seen as a choice for men and therefore often judged differently by their organizations, managers, and coworkers (Daly, Ashbourne, & Hawkins, 2008). Men wanting to use parental leave can be dissuaded from doing so by an unsupportive corporate culture or disapproving boss (Wells & Sarkadi, 2012). Men have the legal right to use parental leave as long as they meet the qualifications, which are having worked 600 hours in the last twelve months or six months continuous employment with the same company; however, there are sometimes implicit barriers within the organization that discourage men from utilizing leave (Service Canada, 2014). A manager’s explicit or implicit disapproval can discourage leave use notwithstanding the existence of the law and presence of a family-friendly corporate culture.

There is a critical need for studies that investigate leave-taking decisions by fathers (McKay, Marshall, & Doucet, 2012; Seward, Yeatts, Zottarelli, & Fletcher, 2006), especially in Canada. Even though there has been a boom in the literature investigating fatherhood in the past twenty years, we still know very little about men’s experience with the work-family interface and their ability to manage the multiple roles of employee, father, and husband/partner (Winslow, 2005), as the bulk of the literature investigating the impact of work-life initiatives and their use has focused on women (Ball & Daly, 2012; Daly et al., 2008). In addition, due to limitations in the surveys conducted by Statistics Canada and other national studies we know less about parental leave use by fathers than we do by mothers (Ball & Daly, 2012). Few Canadian studies were found that explored men’s leave taking choices, and due to the small qualitative sample, its authors recommended larger studies explore fathers’ leave use by sector of employment (public vs. private), firm size, occupation, industry, unionization, and job tenure (McKay & Doucet, 2010).
This study aims to better understand the potential workplace barriers that male employees face when deciding to take parental leave in Canada. A multilevel approach investigates the role of organizational culture, managerial attitudes, and employees’ perceptions of both the culture and managers as they relate to leave use by male employees. This multi-level approach is a contribution to the literature, because it provides a multi-dimensional view of the issue. Just one study conducted in Europe was found to use this approach to investigate parental leave (Allard et al., 2011).

Employees’ perceptions of managerial approval or disapproval of fathers’ leave taking and employees’ perceptions of managers’ attitudes regarding leave use have received limited attention in the literature. The impact of managerial support has been investigated extensively, but there has been very little investigation of how the support of supervisors contributes to a family-friendly organizational culture (Haar & Roche, 2008), and little focus on specific policies, such as parental leave. Of the limited literature on the use of parental leave by male employees, studies have been almost exclusively conducted in the U.S. and Europe. Therefore, this research project is making a significant and unique contribution to the Canadian literature.

Investigating managers’ attitudes alone would provide only one side of the story. In addition, managers’ attitudes could be at odds with the actual policies of the organization or the corporate culture. Therefore, it is essential to also investigate how male employees perceive their managers’ attitudes toward the use of parental leave. In an effort to understand if managers’ attitudes are representative of the employers’ policies, this study also assesses the parental leave related programs offered by employers, such as parental leave top-ups and leave extensions.
In order to explore corporate culture, managers’ attitudes, and employees’ perceptions as they relate to the leave use by male employees, data were collected at three levels. This study employed a questionnaire at the organizational level and two self-administered questionnaires, one for managers and one for employees. The sample frame for this study was large companies (250 employees or more) in the Winnipeg area and included both female and male managers and only male employees.

This study was driven by the following key research questions, which were developed after completion of the review of literature, identifying gaps in the literature, and with consideration of role theory and social identity theory.

- How supportive are managers of male employees using parental leave?
- What are the characteristics of managers who approve and disapprove of the use of parental leave by male employees?
- Do a manager’s personal characteristics impact his or her perception of the use of leave by male employees?
- Do managers’ attitudes reflect both the corporate culture and the policies offered by their employers?
- Do male employees perceive managers as supportive of parental leave use by male employees?
- Are male employees’ perceptions of managers’ attitudes accurate?
- Do a male employee’s personal characteristics (e.g., parental status, marital status or personal use of leave) impact his perception of his manager’s attitudes?
- How do the perceived managerial attitudes impact the use of parental leave by male employees?

Using these questions as a guide, corporate culture, managerial attitudes, and employee perceptions of the use of parental leave by male employees were explored. A review of the
literature relating to work-family conflict, parental leave policy in Canada and internationally, and the influences on parental leave use follows.
CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Theoretical Perspectives

In order to explore the influence of corporate culture, managerial attitudes, and employees’ perceptions on the use of parental leave use two theoretical frameworks were used. I used role theory and social identity theory as lenses to explore the relationships between the three levels of analysis in this research. Each theory provides a unique view of this multi-level relationship and also aided in the interpretation of the results.

Role theory.

The first theoretical framework this research utilized is role theory, which “suggests that individual behaviour is scripted by the social norms and expectations inherent in specific roles” (Secret, 2000, p.218). The theory identifies the fact that individuals have multiple roles, such as employee, partner, and father, and each role comes with its own set of expectations, responsibilities, commitments, and duties (Netemeyer et al., 1996; Ritzer, 2005). Interrole conflict can occur whenever the responsibilities of one role make it challenging to meet the responsibilities of another role (Winslow, 2005). Work-family or family-work conflict are types of interrole conflict (Barnett & Gareis, 2006). In addition to the assumption that roles conflict is the assumption that human energy is finite or in limited supply, which is known as the scarcity hypothesis (Barnett & Gareis, 2006). In other words, individuals play multiple roles, but have a fixed amount of energy and time to meet the demands required by these roles.

Role theory posits that interaction between individuals is “governed by the role expectations of actors’ respective statuses” (Ritzer, 2005, p. 651). For example, people working in groups take on roles or scripts, which are created by the social structures, expectations, and
feedback from other group members. As these expectations are formalized, they can be considered norms or social standards and the majority of people want to conform to these social norms (Michener, 2004). These expectations are then internalized by the actors or group members and are a way of ensuring conformity (Ritzer, 2005). A manager’s approval or disapproval of leave taking by male employees may be based on the gender role expectations that have been created by the social structure (the company) through feedback from the group (other managers and organizational culture) and individual socialization. Given that an individual’s gender role ideology may have been developed in early childhood, it may not be possible to explain using role theory (Michener, 2004), which is a limitation of this theory. However, it should be noted that for the purpose of this study, why managers have certain attitudes or beliefs is not in question. Instead the focus is on understanding the influence of characteristics of managers, given their attitudes.

Since individuals hold more than one role (Michener, 2004), a manager with family responsibilities may be able to identify with an employee who is in a similar role. A manager who has a very traditional gender role ideology may be more likely to disapprove when an employee’s behaviour falls outside of that ideology; for example, as when a male employee requests parental leave. Similarly, a female manager who has never had children may be less sympathetic to the responsibilities associated with the role of a parent, and therefore, disapprove of parental leave use by employees.

Finally, role theory posits that feedback from both social structures and the surrounding groups help develop the norms for that group. Conformity to the norms or social standards is then rewarded, but there are also penalties for not doing so. This tenet would suggest that managers in less traditional industries, in companies with more supportive cultures, and with
high levels of exposure to parental leave use may be working within a very different set of norms and be generally more approving of parental leave use than those in less family-friendly, progressive industries. Role theory would suggest that employees who take leave in a less family-friendly organization may face possible penalties, such as peer rejection or being passed over for promotion.

**Social identity theory.**

The second theoretical framework used in this research is social identity theory. The basic concept of social identity theory is that one’s self-concept and behaviours are often driven by one’s salient group membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). One’s social identity or self-concept is affected by not only individual characteristics, but also group memberships. Groups can vary from large to small and integral to somewhat trivial; for example, groups can be a nation, an ethnic group, one classroom of students, a division of an organization, a recreational club, or a group of people waiting for the same flight in an airport. Tajfel and Turner (1979) suggest that individual behaviour exists on a continuum influenced by individual characteristics on one end and intergroup behaviour on the other; however, it is nearly impossible to be solely motivated by a single end of the continuum, because behaviour is usually driven by a combination of both ends of the continuum.

There are a few key concepts in social identity theory. First, is the postulate that individuals are eager to maintain or realize a positive self-concept or positive distinctiveness (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), which means people generally want to feel good about themselves. Second is that individuals are also driven to maintain a positive social identity (Turner & Reynolds, 2010), which means they are invested in others viewing them positively, especially their group mates. Third, in-group favoritism or bias explains the tendency to extend greater
preference to those in your group rather than outside of your group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), which is exemplified by the “us vs. them” view that groups sometimes hold.

In social identity theory the boundaries of groups can range from permeable to rigid. For example, an ethnic group would be an example of a group with a rigid boundary. In contrast, a group of passengers waiting for a delayed flight dissolves once the plane reaches its destination (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), making this a very transient group. The theory suggests that the more permeable the group boundary, the more one relies on one’s individual characteristics to drive behaviour (Turner & Reynolds, 2010) because the consequences of rejection or disapproval are minimal. In contrast, in groups with rigid boundaries, more emphasis is placed on in-group conformity, resulting in more group-focused behaviour over individual behaviour, and members tend to support the needs of the group even if it means personal self-sacrifice (Turner & Reynolds, 2010).

When social identity theory is applied to organizations it is apparent that part of any employee’s or manager’s social identity is derived from their organizational group membership. The employee can identify with the organization as a whole, their specific business unit, or both. Ashforth and Mael (1989) suggest that, upon joining the organization, employees are eager to establish a positive social definition of themselves by internalizing and aligning themselves with the social identity of the organization. “The more salient, stable, and internally consistent the character of an organization (or in organizational terms, the stronger the culture), the greater this internalization” (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p.27). In essence, this is the organizational socialization process.

Within an organization, where one is likely invested in maintaining one’s employment, the group would likely be considered somewhat rigid, and people may set aside their own needs
in order to maintain their positive social definition. This may indicate that in organizations where use of parental leave is not supported, employees will be hesitant to use it since doing so may tarnish their positive social definition, especially where the organizational boundary is rigid. Social identity theory may also suggest that managers may strongly identify with the organization, even more so than employees, and may be more likely to speak of their employer positively, in order to maintain their organization’s positive social distinction, which, in turn, makes them feel good for being a representative of such a strong organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

The Work-Family Interface

In this section the historical context of the work-family interface is reviewed in order to provide a foundation for how the relationship between gender roles, employment, childcare, and household labour has evolved over the last half century. In addition to a description of the current participation rates for men and women in childcare and housework, the stalled revolution will be discussed. Finally, the rise in father involvement with their children will also be discussed.

Historical context.

Families in the early to mid twentieth century were more traditional in their division of earning and caring responsibilities than they are today. Though there were dual-income families, the social norms of the day prescribed that women were primarily in the home managing childcare and domestic tasks and men in the workforce, providing a paycheck to support the family. These complimentary roles depict a scenario of specialization where one partner supports the other, but with very little overlap in responsibilities (Beaujot, 2000; Beaujot & Liu, 2005). Complimentary roles offer some advantages, for example, maximizing
efficiencies of tasks and potential relational stability (Beaujot & Liu, 2005), but come with disadvantages including heightened risk exposure if the breadwinner loses his job, greater financial risk for women if the relationship dissolves, and loss of wages, retirement savings, and pensions for non-employed women, just to name a few. In contrast, companionship roles emerged in the mid to late twentieth century, partly out of necessity, and painted a more egalitarian picture (Beaujot, 2000). In this scenario, both members of the partnership contribute to both earning and caring responsibilities and neither is exclusively responsible for one sphere (Beaujot & Liu, 2005). However, both partners being employed in the workforce does not guarantee an equal division of household labour, childcare, or paid work.

Several demographic and social changes contributed to women’s entrance into the workforce en masse in the late twentieth century that lead to the rise of the dual-earner family as the most common work-family scenario. First, a key contributor to the increase in women’s labour force participation was the erosion or loss of the living wage in the mid to late twentieth century. The living wage refers to a single, usually the man’s, salary that can provide for the needs of the entire family (Beaujot, 2000; Thompson & Chapman, 2006), keeping the household out of poverty (Economic Policy Institute, 2002). In the 1950s, the average middle-class male head of the household’s salary could cover the expenses of a family comfortably, however as the century moved onward the average man’s salary did not keep up with rising inflation and this meant that his pay cheque did not stretch as far as it once did. The loss of the living wage, in part, contributed to the entrance of many women into the workforce in order to supplement their partners’ incomes to help financially support their families.

The growth of the service sector, the increase in women’s pursuit of post secondary education, and access to improved contraception also contributed to the growth of women’s
participation in paid work outside the home starting in the 1960s and 1970s (Beaujot, 2000; Campbell, 2006). In 1976, only 39 percent of all mothers with children sixteen or younger worked outside the home, but in 2009 this number had risen to almost 73 percent (Statistics Canada, 2011a). The increase in women’s pursuit of post-secondary education has been steady and, in 2009, women outnumbered men in both university attendance and in university degrees earned. However, men, 15 years and over, still have a higher labour force participation rate (71.1 percent) than women (62.1 percent) in 2013 (Statistics Canada, 2014a). As a result of these trends, the proportion of dual-earner families has increased from 47 percent in 1976 (Statistics Canada, 2011a) to 63 percent in 2011 (Statistics Canada, 2014b).

**The stalled revolution.**

Despite women’s increasing involvement in the paid labour force they are still doing significantly more housework than men (Daly et al., 2008). When the self-reports of men and women of time spent in housework are compared, women complete 5.5 hours more per week than men (Statistics Canada, 2011a). Hochschild (1997) calls this phenomenon the *stalled revolution* and explains that true gender equality will not be achieved until women’s contributions to paid work and men’s contributions to unpaid work are more balanced. The current imbalance leaves women with what is referred to as the *second shift*, which implies putting in a full day at work and then coming home to more unpaid work in the evening (Hochschild, 1989), where “there is no more time in the day then there was when wives did not work outside the home; however, there is twice as much to do” (Winslow, 2005, p. 729).

**Childcare.**

Though women have dramatically increased their participation in the paid workforce in the last 50 years, they continue to contribute significantly more time in childcare and
housework than men (Bond, Hyman, Summers, & Wise 2002; Gazso, 2007; Statistics Canada, 2011a; Winslow, 2005). Data from the 2010 General Social Survey show that women reported substantially more unpaid childcare in the home than men (Statistics Canada, 2011a). Overall, women reported an average of 50 hours per week on unpaid childcare, which was more than double the average hours reported by men (24) (Statistics Canada, 2011a). However, parents in dual-earner relationships, where both are employed full-time, report that mothers perform 49.8 hours per week of childcare, compared to fathers’ reported 27.2 hours per week (Statistics Canada, 2011a). In contrast, men who were employed full time and were the sole earner in the couple reported 25.5 hours of childcare, which suggests that, for men, having a partner who works full time only increases their participation in childcare by roughly two hours a week (Statistics Canada, 2011a). Therefore, employment outside the home only minimally impacts the hours spent in childcare for women, because women employed either part-time or full-time also report little change in their hours of childcare (Statistics Canada, 2011a). Thus, mothers’ and fathers’ hours of involvement in unpaid childcare are barely affected by maternal employment status, which indicates that women, no matter what their employment, are still carrying the primary load of childcare. This discrepancy in time use is evidence that, despite some strides, the lives of men and women are still unequal.

**Housework.**

However, though women still do more household labour, men have increased their daily contributions to household labour in the last twenty-five years (Ravanera & Hoffman, 2012). In 1986, women reported doing 2.2 hours of housework per day or 15.4 per week more than their male counterparts, which then dropped to 1.3 hours more per day or 9.1 hours per week in 2005 (Marshall, 2006), which translates to 15.4 hours more a week for women. Data from the
2010 General Social Survey revealed that, on average, women completed 2.0 hours of housework per day and men completed 1.2 hours per day, which translates in to 13.8 hours for women and 8.3 hours for men per week (Statistics Canada, 2011a); therefore, women report doing almost one-and-a-half times more housework than men. These figures indicate that the gender gap in household labour has narrowed even further since 1986, with women doing just under an hour per day more than men in 2010 (Statistics Canada, 2011a). This narrowing gap can be attributed to the fact that married and common-law men with children have increased their involvement in domestic tasks and women have slightly decreased their involvement in these activities (Marshall, 2006).

**Father involvement.**

In recent years, there has also been a noticeable increase in the involvement of fathers with their children (Ball & Daly, 2012; Doucet, 2006). Both fathers’ involvement and the research on this trend have grown and evolved over the last thirty years (Allen & Daly, 2002; Ball & Daly, 2012). Research also suggests that this increase in fathers’ involvement may reflect fathers’ desire to be more involved with their children than their own fathers were with them (Coltrane, 1996; Pratt, Lawford, & Allen, 2012). However, it may also be that women are pushing for greater involvement from their partners for a number of reasons. One potential source of maternal encouragement for increased father-child engagement could be the increase in the percentage of mothers becoming the higher earner in the family. In 1976, 12 percent of mothers in dual-earner marriages out earned their partners, and this rate climbed to 29 percent in 2008 (Statistics Canada, 2011a). For women, either out earning their partners or significantly contributing to the family’s economic stability means an increase in relational power, which
possibly increases the chances of fathers involvement in housework (Davis & Greenstein, 2013) and childcare from a practical or financial perspective.

Both fathers and their children benefit from greater father involvement. Research clearly shows that children with positive and engaged fathers show significant advantages on developmental, emotional, and social outcomes (Allen, Daly, & Ball, 2012). Benefits to children are wide ranging including higher school grades and academic achievement, higher likelihood of positive self-esteem and stress tolerance, and more positive, stable childhood friendships, and adult relationships (Allen et al., 2012). Moreover, involved fathers tend to be more self-confident and effective in their parental role, are more satisfied with their parenting experience, feel as though they play an important role for their child, and in turn feel motivated to be increasingly involved (Allen & Daly, 2002). In addition, men who have dependent children in the home have more social capital or “personal relationships and social networks that enhance the health, well-being, and productivity of individuals” (Ravanera & Hoffman, 2012). Despite the short-term costs, such as conflict and work interruptions, men who are involved fathers tend to be higher earning and more trusting (Ravanera & Hoffman, 2012), and there are clear rewards for fathers’ own generativity, their children, and for society (Pratt et al., 2012).

Whatever the reason for increased paternal involvement, fathers are more involved with family (Ball & Daly, 2012) and are “increasingly active participants in family life, suggesting that managing work and family commitments is a salient issue for all parents, regardless of sex” (Winslow, 2005, p. 728). As men increase their involvement in the caring sphere it may improve gender equality between partners (Meil, 2013), and potentially minimize the second shift for women. Men’s perceived work-family conflict may increase and women’s may
decrease as men become more involved in childcare and housework; therefore, as a result of this shift, the work-family burden may be more evenly distributed between the genders. It is important to understand not only ways in which father involvement can be encouraged, but also ways that greater father involvement can be supported in the workplace.

**Family-Friendly Policies**

Family-friendly policies offered by employers, often as a result of union collective agreement negotiations (Bond et al., 2002), can provide employees with the flexibility they need to help integrate their work and family roles, and this integration can benefit both the employee and the employer. In addition to federal and provincial governmental policies such as maternity and parental leave, family leave days, bereavement leave, compassionate care leave, and critically ill child leaves, companies may offer a variety of family-friendly work policies; for example, on-site day care, top-ups for government leaves, sabbaticals, and non-traditional work arrangements that include flextime, compressed workweeks, and telecommuting.

**Benefits of family-friendly policies.**

Offering family-friendly policies can help employees minimize the conflict between the demands of work and family life. For example, Allard, Haas and Hwang (2011) found that schedule flexibility reduced the experience of work-family conflict for male employees. These policies can benefit not only the employees, but also the employers because minimizing this conflict can yield stronger employee loyalty (Allard et al., 2011), improved productivity, and lower levels of employee stress (Noe et al., 2006).

However, simply offering family-friendly policies alone is not sufficient; policies must be promoted and supported explicitly by management (Sallee, 2013; Warren & Johnson, 1995; Wells & Sarkadi, 2012). For example, Duxbury, Higgins, and Coghill (2003) found that
employees cited the availability of a flexible work schedule, a supportive work environment, and the explicit support for work-life balance as key organizational behaviours that were most helpful in their attempts to find balance, which is discussed in greater detail in the subsequent section. In addition, a supportive culture is also linked to lower levels of reported work-family conflict and family-work conflict (Allard et al., 2011).

**Organizations and industries offering family-friendly policies.**

Organizations that are more likely to offer family-friendly policies demonstrate a variety of qualities. Companies likely to offer family-friendly policies are large, in a family-related industry (e.g., health care), unionized, in a highly competitive market, with women and/or young employees in the majority (Anderson, Morgan, & Wilson, 2002), non-profits, have fewer hourly employees, and finally, have more women and racial/ethnic minorities in top management positions (Galinisky, Bond, Sakai, Kim, & Guinotli, 2008). Since mothers are still considered by society’s social norms to be the main providers of care for children, when women are present in large numbers, organizations have had to adapt to the needs of their female employees and develop policies that help mothers to better manage both their work and family roles (Beaujot, 2000; Mauno, 2008). For example, in 2009, 67 percent of people employed in teaching, nursing, related health occupations, administration, and sales and service positions were women (Statistics Canada, 2011a), which means that these industries are far more likely to have implemented or at least have experience with work-family friendly policies and procedures (Mauno, 2008).

In contrast, industries such as engineering have historically had a lower saturation of women, and therefore, businesses in this field are less likely to have family-friendly policies in place. The number of women in the field has simply not justified the costs associated with the
development of family-friendly policies, nor has the field been faced with great demand (Beaujot, 2000; Lappegard, 2012; Mauno, 2008). However, there are also low expectations for the availability of such policies in male-dominated organizations, which means that even when family-friendly policies are not present it is unlikely that the employees would experience a psychological contract violation (Mauno, Kinnunen, & Feldt, 2012). A psychological contract is the employees’ expectations regarding what they owe the company and what the company owes them (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). In short, if employees do not expect access to family-friendly policies, they are not disappointed when those policies are not offered.

However, male-dominated organizations can be a challenging place to manage work and family roles for both mothers and fathers. Female employees working in male-dominated organizations are likely to face more resistance to using leave than when employed in female-dominated organizations (Bygren & Duvander, 2006). In fact, Lappegard (2012) found that parental leave usage dropped for both men and women who were employed in male-dominated organizations. For women, this translated into sharing a larger portion of parental leave with their husbands in order to mitigate the potential repercussions of leave use (Lappegard, 2012). Therefore, it would be expected that men taking parental leave would face a harder time in such workplaces, if even women face organizational push back.

**Motivations for offering family-friendly policies.**

Not all organizations offer family-friendly policies or have family-friendly cultures, and those that do have differing motivations for doing so. Some organizations are reluctant to offer family-friendly policies (Fudge, 2011), because there is an expense associated with doing so. Offering family-friendly policies is only advantageous to the organization if it is difficult to replace their current skilled employees and if having access to these policies is important to
their employees (Fudge, 2011). In many cases organizations do not voluntarily offer family-friendly programs and only do so as a result of worker activism and union negotiations (Bond et al., 2002).

Some companies know that the development of such policies may give them a competitive advantage in a tight market for talented recruits (Koster, 2009). In addition to attracting and keeping high caliber talent, offering family-friendly policies can also improve employees’ overall morale (Allen, 2001) and serve “as the driving force behind helping workers feel refreshed and able to exert themselves fully in their work and personal lives” (Koster, 2009, p. 60). There is strong evidence that availability of family-friendly policies makes companies more appealing to job hunters and facilitates recruitment (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Casper & Buffardi, 2004). The benefits of offering such policies are clear, since perceived organizational support has been positively related to employee behaviours, commitment, diligence, innovation (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Noe et al., 2006), job satisfaction, positive mood, and lessened withdrawal behavior (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

However, Jack Welch, the former CEO of General Electric and writer of management self-help books, suggests, “bosses know that the work-life policies in the company brochure are mainly for recruiting purposes” (Welch & Welch, 2005, p. 327) and recommends the only employees who should be rewarded with the use of such policies are those who have earned it through hard work and proven performance. This position may suggest that in some companies, the policies are on the books, but are not necessarily available to all employees, which may leave some employees feeling as though they have fallen for the classic bait and switch. In other words, employees who accept a position with an organization with an expectation of
family-friendliness may actually experience a violation of their psychological contract with the organization when they realize that the policies are not necessarily available.

The experience of psychological contract violation negatively impacts employees’ faith in their employers, job satisfaction, organizational commitment (Morrison & Robinson, 1997), turnover intentions, and mood at work (Stoner & Gallagher, 2010). However, if organizations offer policies to employees differentially based on sex, family status, or other characteristics then this is employment discrimination. Federal labour laws protect employees from such discrimination and cover working conditions, including benefits and other human resources policies and practices. Other than federally regulated industries, employers are subject to the human rights laws in their province or territory. Employers who break these provincial human rights laws expose themselves to a Human Rights Commission investigation and the possibility of being held accountable for any damages suffered by employees (Commission for Labor Cooperation, n.d.). Therefore, organizations hoping to use family-friendly policies as a recruitment tool, but without the intention of supporting their use may not necessarily be helping themselves retain the key talent they recruit and may be exposing the organization to liability.

Family-friendly policy utilization.

In attempting to understand family-friendly policy utilization, researchers suggest that both employee and employer attitudes and values regarding the use of family-friendly policies actually develop into an organizational culture around these policies (Secret, 2000). Allen (2001) suggests that there are two key components of family-friendly workplaces: family-friendly policies and work-family friendly supervisors. The values and attitudes of a workplaces’ management contribute to the development of a corporate culture, and this culture
influences employees’ decision making (Secret, 2000). Moreover, supportive cultures are associated with higher levels of family-friendly policy offerings and utilization (Findlay & Kohen, 2012; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999), lower levels of work-family conflict, increased job satisfaction, and job commitment (de Janasz et al., 2013). In addition, employees may approve of the use of parental leave, but may perceive it as inappropriate in their workplace if their jobs require high levels of employee interdependence (Haas, Allard & Hwang, 2002; Parker & Allen, 2001).

“Few policies target men, because companies underestimate men’s feelings of work-family conflict and their desire to enjoy better integration between work and the rest of their lives” (Haas & Hwang, 2007, p. 53). Not surprisingly, women are more frequent users of family-friendly policies (Wells & Sarkadi, 2012). The types of policies used differ by the sex of employee; men are more likely to use flexible work arrangements, such as flextime, and women are more likely to use family leaves, such as maternity or parental leave (Anderson et al., 2002; Findlay & Kohen, 2012). However, these differences may actually be a byproduct of the types of roles that men and women tend to hold, with men more likely to hold management positions that offer more flexibility (Duncan & Pettigrew, 2012). In any case, role theory would suggest that men, and especially women, entering male-dominated fields may experience a harder time balancing work and family roles, because there are neither family-friendly policies in place nor has the organization been exposed to frequent policy usage by employees. Therefore, the social norms of the organization are not constructed to support family-friendly policy usage, which will be explained in greater detail.
Parental leave

Purpose of parental leave.

The main purpose of Canada’s Parental Benefits Program (PBP) is to increase gender equity (Marshall, 2008). Parental leave promotes gender equity by facilitating the maintenance of a maternal connection to employment during the childbearing years and by encouraging paternal involvement in childcare (Lappegard, 2012; Meil, 2013). Parental leave offers mothers, as well as fathers, time off work to care for their children and encourages parents to more equally share the responsibilities of parenting (Beaujot, 2000; Wells & Sarkadi, 2012). Parental leave, in turn, leads to greater involvement of fathers with their young children (Lappegard, 2012; Meil, 2013; Rehel, 2013; Seward, Yeatts, & Zottarelli, 2002; Wells & Sarkadi, 2012). Meil (2013) conducted a large analysis on the use of parental leave by European fathers and their subsequent participation in childcare and household labour. Fathers who took leave of any length were subsequently not only more involved in the daily lives or their children, but also increased the frequency of their involvement in household labour (Meil, 2013). Though directionality is in question here because men who are apt to be more involved in childcare and housework may simply be more likely to take parental leave, it may be reassuring support for parental leave nonetheless (Meil, 2013).

In addition to the benefits of parental leave for both fathers and their children, greater involvement in childcare and housework by men who have used leave can only serve to ease the burden on women in the household (Meil, 2013; Rehel, 2013). Fathers, who fully engage in parenting in their child’s infancy, develop their parenting skills and “shift from a manager-helper dynamic to that of a coparenting” dynamic (Rehel, 2013), which may serve to lessen the demands on mothers’ time. It is believed that a partnership in which care responsibilities are
more equally divided actually enhances the stability of the relationship (Sniegon, 2004), and father involvement is positively correlated with marital stability and satisfaction as well (Allen & Daly, 2002), both of which would also provide a more stable environment for children and increase the well-being of children (Allen & Daly, 2002; Allen et al., 2012; Marshall, 2008).

However, the underlying intention of Canada’s PBP is to promote gender equality, through shared leave use between parents. An increased rate of parental leave utilization by fathers may begin to diminish the stubborn gender stereotypes, which over time has the potential to improve gender equity (Marshall, 2008). When only mothers use parental leave, it can have a two-pronged effect. First, it can minimize the attractiveness of hiring female employees because they are seen as more likely to experience work interruptions (Ray, Gornick, & Schmitt, 2009). Second, it continues to make it harder for fathers to utilize these benefits if leaves are seen as women’s benefits and, therefore, not appropriate for men to use (Daly et al., 2008; McKay et al., 2012; Marshall, 2008). In this light, managing the work-family interface continues to be viewed as primarily a mother’s job (Smithson & Stokoe, 2005); therefore, mothers are still more likely to be the parents to take parental leave (Ray et al., 2009). These persistent traditional gender role ideologies and practices are what make it crucial to better understand the barriers fathers face when considering taking parental leave because it is only with a greater understanding of these barriers that work can begin to remove them.

**Canadian parental leave policy background.**

In Canada, the length of both maternity and parental leave is determined by provincial employment standards, and therefore, eligibility criteria and length vary by province (McKay & Doucet, 2010). However, reimbursement for loss of income while on leave is federally

Maternity leave legislation, which was introduced in 1971, entitled mothers to fifteen weeks of leave when they gave birth to a child and met the hourly qualifications with a single employer (Marshall, 2008; Service Canada, 2009). Fathers’ access to parental leave benefits began in 1990 when the Parental Benefits Program added ten weeks of parental leave that both mother and father could share (Marshall, 2008). Parental leave, which follows maternity leave, is available to new parents by birth or adoption, and can be taken in its entirety by one parent or divided between two parents. In December 2000 significant changes were announced to the EIA national parental leave benefits, which afforded new parents greater flexibility when adopting or having children (Campbell, 2006; Human Resources and Skills Development Canada [HRSDC], 2007). The EIA changes, which came into effect on January 1, 2001, extended parental leave from ten to 35 weeks in addition to maternity leave and again could be shared by parents (Marshall, 2008). Whether leave is three days or 35 weeks long, parents are guaranteed either their previous job or a comparable one upon their return to work (Manitoba Employment Standards, 2014).

Employees who have worked a minimum of 600 insurable hours with a single employer in the previous year qualify for parental leave EI benefits. Currently EI benefits pay 55 percent of a parent’s weekly salary to a maximum of $514 per week, which works out to $25,700 for a fifty-week leave (Service Canada, 2014). However, EI payments are taxable income, which means taxes are deducted from the weekly rate. At first glance this extended, 50-week leave appears to be much more generous than the original entitlement; however, when the EI payments are examined more closely, it is evident that that today’s EI payments are actually 20
percent lower than they were 30 years ago (Campbell, 2006). The original EI wage replacement amounted to 67 percent of recipients’ pre-leave income, which was reduced to the current rate of 55 percent in 1996 (Campbell, 2006; McKay & Doucet, 2010). This replacement rate is lower than that of most European countries, which have income replacement rates ranging between 70 to 100 percent (Ray et al., 2009).

Not all parents qualify for maternity or parental leave benefits. Those who do not pay into EI, such as independent contractors; the self-employed – who do not independently pay into EI; unregulated workers: or those working fewer than the required 600 hours in the previous year, may not qualify for either maternity or parental leave or EI benefits (Campbell, 2006). For example, those employed part-time or on a casual basis may have banked hours in the months prior to the child’s arrival, but fail to qualify for the subsidized leave because they have worked less than the minimum 600 hours in the previous 52 weeks (Campbell, 2006). In 2012, 77.9 percent of all Canadian mothers with children under a year old had insurable earnings that qualified them for EI payments (Statistics Canada, 2013a). Figures regarding the percentage of fathers who did not qualify for leave were not reported by Statistics Canada.

The one exception to the national Parental Benefits Program in Canada is Quebec, which offers a significantly different and more generous parental leave program than the rest of Canada (Beaujot, Du, & Ravanera, 2013; Marshall, 2008). In 2006, after a court challenge, Quebec gained approval from the federal government to establish its own parental leave program called the Quebec Parental Insurance Policy (QPIP) and is the only province or territory to do so (McKay & Doucet, 2010). The QPIP, which was effective as of January 2006, includes a five-week, non-transferable paternity leave for use by fathers that is only offered in Quebec (Emploi et Solidarité sociale Québec, 2013). In addition, while on leave, parents are
paid 70 percent of their earnings. Compared to EI in the rest of Canada, the QPIP also covers those who are self-employed, does not restrict access to maternity/parental leave based on hours worked, offers higher wage replacement for those in lower income categories, and offers higher reimbursement for those on maternity and parental leave, than that offered in the rest of Canada (Beaujot et al., 2013; Emploi et Solidarité sociale Québec, 2103; McKay & Doucet, 2010).

**International context.**

Although the present study focused on Manitoba, Canada it is important to understand Canada’s parental leave legislation within the broader global context. Different national, regional, and cultural values certainly influence not only a country’s approach to family policy (Beaujot, 2000), but also the types of policies offered by organizations within such countries. Countries differ in their views regarding the division of earning and caring responsibilities and each country’s perspective influences its model of family policy. Some countries’ policies implicitly encourage complementary roles of men and women, which view earning and caring as separate spheres. Other countries’ view is based on the equivalent roles model, which presumes that both parents are simultaneously engaged in the labour market and with childcare responsibilities (Baker, 2014; Beaujot, 2000). For example, family policies offered in Sweden and Denmark promote a more equivalent model, while policies in the United States of America represent a more complementary gender roles model, because they offer minimal support for employed parents and limited parental leave options. However, Canadian family policy represents elements of both the complementary and the egalitarian models (Beaujot, 2000).

Though Canada’s policy, even with the exception of Quebec, is considered progressive compared to the United States and the United Kingdom, it pales in comparison to the generous benefits offered in Europe, specifically, in Nordic countries (Evans, 2007). This section will
contextualize Canada’s parental leave policy by providing a brief summary of the government legislated parental leave policies offered by the U.S., Australia, Japan, People Republic of China, the United Kingdom, Sweden, Norway, and Finland. It should be noted that in these countries individual employers might offer supplemental parental leave policies that extend or supplement the legislated policies.

**United States of America.**

The policy in the United States is very different from Canada. American parents have no legislated paid maternity or parental leave. However, the 1993 Family Medical Leave Act (FMLA) provides access to 12 weeks of unpaid parental leave, which can be used by either parent during the first year following a child’s birth or adoption (Ray et al., 2009; Seward et al., 2002). Unfortunately, 40 percent of employees in the U.S. cannot access the FMLA because they fail to qualify for the program (Ray et al., 2009). American employees must meet the following criteria to qualify: work for a company with more than 50 employees within a 75-mile radius, have worked a minimum of 1,250 hours with their employer in the previous 12 months, and are not deemed a key employee (Ray et al., 2009). The U.S. legislation requires employees to work more than double the work hours that Canada does to qualify for leave.

The Family Medical Leave Act permits individual states to set standards that supplement the federal law (Mejeur, 2013). Twelve states have done so and most have either extended the length of leave or broadened who qualifies for leave; however, only California, New Jersey, and Rhode Island have legislated a paid leave. In these three states the paid leave is funded through payroll taxes and implemented by existing disability benefits programs. For example, New Jersey pays for a 6-week parental leave and offers a replacement wage that is two-thirds of pre-leave income, with a maximum of $524 per week, but requires that all other
unpaid leaves are exhausted before qualifying. Rhode Island’s replacement wage is higher at a maximum of $752 per week, but its length of paid leave is shorter, at only four weeks (Mejeur, 2013).

**Australia.**

Australia once offered a modest program similar to that currently offered by the U.S., which was a 12-month, unpaid parental leave (Whitehouse, 2005). However, in January 2011, Australia introduced a paid parental leave program. The new Australian program offers 18 weeks of leave paying roughly 53 percent of the national average weekly earnings or minimum wage, which is roughly $540 AD/week or roughly $550 CAD/week (Broomhill & Sharp, 2012). The following year, in 2012, a non-transferable, two-week paternity leave was introduced. This “dad” or “partner” pay, can only be taken by the father or other parent, and is lost if the leave is not taken (Ray et al., 2009). This new paternity leave is paid at the same rate as the existing parental leave program (Broomhill & Sharp, 2012).

**Japan**

Japan offers a 14-week paid maternity leave program. Six of the 14 weeks are obligatory, and six of the 14 weeks are to be taken before birth of the child, and eight weeks following birth. There is no statutory paternity leave for fathers, but Japan does offer a 12-month parental leave, which is extended to 14 months if shared by both mother and father (Moss, 2013). Parents qualify for maternity or parental leave if they work for the same employer for a year, work three or more days a week, and pay into the National Health Insurance System, which excludes the self-employed, part-time or casual work. Wage replacement for maternity and parental leaves is two-thirds of earnings to a maximum of 215,100 JPY per year, which is roughly $2,316 CAD per year (Moss, 2013). In 2010, 87.8
percent of mothers who had children in the previous 12 months started or applied for leave; however, only 2.6 percent of employed fathers took leave, and of those that did, 81.3 percent took less than one month of leave (Moss, 2013).

Ninety percent of Japanese organizations offer a called a leave for childbearing of spouse that ranges between 1 to 5 days in length. Of the companies that offer this supplemental leave 82.8 percent pay employees while on leave, but only 55 percent of men working for companies that offer leave report taking advantage of the policy (Moss, 2013).

**People’s Republic of China.**

In the People’s Republic of China, maternity leave is 98 days long, recently increased from 90 days, and mothers receive 100 percent of their salary during this period (Liang, 2012). Applications for longer leaves are available in cases of multiples (i.e., twins or triplets), complicated deliveries, and for women over 23 years of age, who are considered older mothers. There are currently no parental or paternity leaves, but China’s welfare minister recently discussed proposed legislation for mandatory paternity leave, which would ensure fathers receive three days off work at 80 percent of their normal pay (Zhao, 2014).

**United Kingdom.**

The United Kingdom offers 52 weeks of paid maternity leave; however, if a mother returns to work after the child is 20 weeks old, the father can utilize Additional Paternity Leave (APL) or the remainder of her leave (Moss, 2013). APL allows fathers to take between two to twenty-six weeks of parental leave, but cannot exceed the 52-week period of the mothers’ maternity leave (Moss, 2013). Fathers in the United Kingdom also have access to a paid, two-week paternity leave. Qualifying parents using any of the above leaves are paid “a flat rate of £136.78 (€160) or 90 percent of average gross weekly earnings, whichever is lowest” (Moss,
This rate translates to roughly $250 CAD per week, which is less than the average reimbursement in Canada and Australia.

**Sweden.**

In stark contrast to North American, the Nordic countries have been trailblazers in providing state-supported generous maternity and parental leave policies (Haas & Rostgaard, 2011). For example, in order to qualify for maternity and parental benefits, Swedes must have continuous employment for the preceding six months or at least twelve months of the previous two years (Seward et al., 2002; Wells & Sarkadi, 2012). In Sweden, parental leave users receive 480 days off work and receive 80 percent of their pre-leave pay for the first 390 days of leave up to a maximum of $54,208 USD per year (Haas & Rostgaard, 2011; Wells & Sarkadi, 2012). The remaining leave is reimbursed at a lower daily rate (Haas & Rostgaard, 2011). The leave can be taken full-time or part-time and the parent has until the child is eight years of age to use the leave in its entirety (Seward et al., 2002). Mothers and fathers each get two months of non-transferable parental leave and can share the rest of the parental leave at their discretion (Haas & Rostgaard 2011; Meil, 2013; Wells & Sarkadi, 2012). In addition, parents are both given the first ten days off work following the birth of their child to help care for the newborn and family (Wells & Sarkadi, 2012).

Initially in the 1970s, a two-week, non-transferable leave was offered solely to fathers to be taken in the first two months following a child’s birth (Seward et al., 2002). This “daddy leave” increased to one month in 1995 (Wells & Sarkadi, 2012), and to two months in 2002 (Haas & Rostgaard, 2011). This period is referred to as “daddy days” or the daddy quota, and is similar to the paternity leave now offered by Quebec. Some researchers dislike this term because they feel the term “daddy quota” insinuates that parental leave is intended for mothers.
(Haas & Rostgaard, 2011); however, the term will be used here to simplify the explanation. The Swedish government increased the length of the daddy quota and made daddy days non-transferable, because many fathers were simply giving their parental leave days to their partners to use (Haas & Rostgaard, 2011; Wells & Sarkadi, 2012), which defeated the intended purpose of the daddy quota. Though the Swedish parental leave policy is generous, and uptake of parental leave by Swedish fathers is high, there is still a gendered usage of parental leave. Ninety percent of fathers in Sweden utilize parental leave; however, they only take 22 percent of the available parental leave (Wells & Sarkadi, 2012).

**Norway.**

Several other European countries offer maternity/parental leave benefits similar to Sweden. Norway, for example, offers fifty-two weeks of parental leave, of which nine weeks must be taken by the mother, and the remainder can be shared between parents (Evans, 2007; Lappegard, 2012). There is a ten-week, non-transferable “daddy days” policy as well (Haas & Rostgaard, 2011; Lappegard, 2012; Moss, 2013), which is called *pappapermisjon* in Norwegian (Moss, 2013). Norway, like Sweden, offers a high compensation rate to leave-takers of 80 percent, up to a maximum of $65,297 USD per year (Haas & Rostgaard, 2011; Lammi-Taskula, 2008), which may explain why almost 80 percent of Norwegian fathers take parental leave (Marshall, 2003). However, this figure represents the usage of the daddy days, because only 15 percent of Norwegian fathers use more leave than the just the daddy quota. Research has indicated this low take-up rate is due to a variety of factors relating to gender roles and both maternal and paternal employment characteristics (Lappegard, 2012).
In contrast, Finland does not have a daddy quota, but instead offers bonus weeks of leave to fathers. Fathers who take the last two weeks of shared parental leave are given a four-week bonus of extended leave (Haas & Rostgaard, 2011). This program began as a two-week bonus and was implemented in 2003, in order to increase fathers’ usage of parental leave (Lammi-Taskula, 2008) and then extended to four weeks (Haas & Rostgaard, 2011). Interestingly, this bonus program increased the usage of parental leave by fathers from 4 to almost 10 percent, which was not as dramatic an increase as expected. This modest increase may, in part, be explained by the fact that the leave compensation rate in Finland is lower (69.5 percent) than other Nordic countries (80 to 100 percent) (Haas & Rostgaard, 2011; Lammi-Taskula, 2008).

Countries with non-transferable leaves and higher wage replacement rates for lost income have higher usage of parental leave programs by fathers (Nielsen, 2009; Wells & Sarkadi, 2012). Though it is not surprising that countries with non-transferable paternity leave programs have the highest rates of father leave participation, it is clear that the availability of the programs is not a panacea for father usage or involvement (Marshall, 2008; Wells & Sarkadi, 2012). Perhaps the Canadian Parental Benefits Program could follow the lead of the QPIP and legislate a paternity leave, which has proven to be effective in increasing leave usage by fathers. In addition, higher wage replacement also helps increase fathers’ leave usage. Perhaps if Canada’s EI benefits were more generous, fathers would increase their uptake of parental leave, because increasing the level of possible reimbursement would help minimize the role the gender gap plays in the choice of who takes leave. Even in countries with extremely progressive parental leave policies, uptake can still be lower than one would expect; therefore,
there are likely more contributing factors to the decision to take leave than simply availability, which will be discussed in the following section.

**Parental Leave Usage by Male Employees**

Despite the availability of parental leave for Canadian fathers, only a small percentage of those living outside Quebec have taken advantage of this policy. The use of paid parental leave rose considerably between 2000 and 2012. In 2000, only 3 percent of eligible fathers used paid parental leave (McKay et al., 2012) compared to 25.4 percent in 2012 (Statistics Canada, 2013a). However, these national figures for leave usage and leave length are misleading because the sharp jump in paternal usage can be mainly explained by the spike in Quebec fathers taking advantage of the new and generous paternity leave policy put into effect in January 2006. The rate of Canadian fathers taking a leave increased from 3 to 10 percent in 2001 when the length of parental leave changed from 10 to 35 weeks. This 10 percent figure represents parental leave use rates before Quebec implemented changes to the QPIP; therefore, the Quebec daddy quota usage rates are not inflating the reported figure (Marshall, 2008). The 2012 participation rates for fathers outside Quebec who claimed or intended to claim parental leave was 9.4 percent, down from 11 percent in 2011 (Statistics Canada, 2013a).

QPIP has been extremely effective at increasing fathers’ use of parental leave in Quebec (Statistics Canada, 2013a). In 2005, before the addition of the paternity leave, almost 28 percent of Quebec fathers used parental leave (Statistics Canada, 2013a), which increased to 76 percent by 2010 (Findlay & Kohen, 2012), and 80.1 percent in 2012 (Statistics Canada, 2013a). Therefore, implementation of the paternity leave has increased the rate of Quebec fathers’ leave use by roughly two and a half times. Given these usage rates, a substantially higher proportion of fathers in Quebec use parental leave, compared to the rest of Canada.
On average, Canadian mothers take forty-four weeks of leave after the arrival of a child (Findlay & Kohen, 2012). In contrast, fathers’ average leave is much shorter, and fathers outside Quebec take an average of just 2.4 weeks of leave (Findlay & Kohen, 2012). However, there is some indication that a short leave is better than no leave at all. Even short leaves have been associated with positive father-child outcomes and an increase in long-term paternal involvement (Marshall, 2008; Meil, 2013). Researchers have found that leave-taking fathers subsequently spend more time with their children and also more time on housework, with longer leaves only minimally increasing time spent with children (Meil 2013; Nepomnyaschy & Waldfogel, 2007), which suggests that those fathers who start off being more involved may tend to stay more involved. Interestingly, fathers who took longer leaves (e.g., six to nine months) often had partners who did not meet eligibility criteria for parental leave (Marshall, 2008; McKay & Doucet, 2010).

Although not all men use paid parental leave, many men take time off work when they become fathers, but it is often informal in nature. Beaupre and Cloutier (2007) found that 55 percent of new fathers took time away from work after their children were born, but often for short periods. In fact, men were more likely to take paid sick, vacation, or personal days than a formal parental leave (Seward et al., 2006). Men may prefer informal leaves because these allow men to take a short leave, usually with pay, which does not require formal application or approval (Thompson et al., 2006).

Therefore, the 2001 extension of the length of leave simply elongated the period of time women are absent from the workforce, because men’s use of parental leave has only minimally increased and women tend to take all available leave (Evans, 2006). Therefore, the use of informal leave by fathers can reinforce the perception that parental leave is a maternal benefit,
potentially lead to greater discrimination against women in the workforce, and simultaneously make it harder for men to take leave, because this “feminization” of parental leave reinforces the stereotype that family issues are women’s issues and that women are the primary caregivers (Malin, 2003; McKay et al., 2012; Thompson et al., 2006). Over time, the continued feminization of parental leave may actually increase the gender gap, which was not the original intention of the policy.

**Influences on parental leave usage.**

Why are more men not taking parental leave? There is no simple answer, but rather a list of potential concerns or perceived barriers for men such as loss of income, individual and partner preference, breastfeeding, fear of repercussions, organizational culture, managerial support, and employees’ perceptions of both managers and organizational culture. Many of these possible barriers can be explained by the desire to fulfill the expectations of one’s gender role ideology highlighted in role theory, but also the drive to maintain both a positive self-concept and be viewed positively by one’s group as per social identity theory.

**Loss of income.**

Loss of income has been cited as a very real limitation for fathers who want to take parental leave because, on average, men are often still earning more than their partners and, therefore, are still often considered the primary breadwinner in the union (Almqvist, 2008; Campbell, 2006; Lappegard, 2012; McKay et al., 2012). Despite the fact that the proportion of Canadian women (29 percent) who have a higher personal salary than their husbands is growing, full-time employed women on average still earn 75% of what a full-time employed man earns (Statistics Canada, 2011b). This gap is smaller for younger age groups, with those in their early twenties have a gap of closer to 10 percent (Statistics Canada, 2011b). The low wage
replacement rate of 55 percent for parental leave can be a major deterrent for men’s leave use (McKay et al., 2012; Prentice & Pankratz, 2003), especially in cases where men earn a larger proportion of the family income. This earnings gap between the sexes continues to make it more likely that the mother will be the parent who will most likely utilize parental leave (Prentice & Pankratz, 2003). For example, if a father brings home 70 percent of the family’s income, his use of parental leave would have a greater financial impact on the family’s financial situation than the mother’s use of the leave.

In fact, research has shown that when a man becomes a father, his commitment and attachment to work strengthens because of his new added responsibility of providing for a child (Beaujot, 2000; Eggebeen & Knoester, 2001; Evans, 2006), a phenomenon referred to as the fatherhood benefit in the literature (Berdahl & Moon, 2013). According to social identity theory, fathers’ increased engagement in work after the arrival of a child may also be rooted in an eagerness to fulfill the expectations of the family breadwinner role, which might foster both a positive self-concept and ensure others view them positively as a new father. However, the father’s increased engagement in his work role may potentially be due to the need to supplement the loss of his partner’s income. In a study conducted in the United States, 39 percent of the respondents cited loss of income as main reason why fathers did not take parental leave (Seward et al., 2006), which is understandable given that the United States does not offer paid leave.

In Canada, 35 percent of eligible fathers not claiming parental leave benefits cited finances as the main reason for not doing so according to Statistics Canada’s Employment Insurance Coverage Survey (McKay et al., 2012). Other reasons given by male employees for not taking leave were that it was a family choice or maternal preference (48 percent), that it
would be impossible to take the time off work (18 percent), unaware of the program (8 percent), other (5 percent), and not interested (4 percent) (McKay et al., 2012).

**Individual and partner preference.**

It should be noted that not all fathers want to share parenting responsibilities, and not all mothers want them to share either (Daly & Ball, 2012; Erman, 2005). There is evidence that men vary both in their gender role ideologies and in the degree to which they want to engage in childcare (Barclay & Lupton, 1999). From the perspective of role theory, gender roles place a stronger emphasis on the fulfillment of the breadwinner role, rather than the caregiving role, for fathers. Though fathers’ desires can vary, mothers can often be the gatekeepers to fathers’ involvement in parenting (Daly et al., 2008; McKay & Doucet, 2010; McKay et al., 2012):

Many women are ambivalent about greater father involvement for a variety of reasons including concerns about their husbands’ competence as a caregiver, feared loss of control over a domain in which they exercise significant power, and an unwillingness to change their standards for housework and child care (Allen & Daly, 2002, p. 6).

Therefore, in some families the mother’s desire to use the full parental leave trumps the father’s leave usage (McKay & Doucet, 2010; McKay et al., 2012), which might be linked to the fact that women are often not the primary breadwinners of the family.

In a qualitative study of twenty-five families, decisions regarding parental leave were “mother-led,” with men deferring to the leave preferences of the mother (McKay & Doucet, 2010, p. 307). Fathers utilized as much leave as they were able, but were careful not to minimize mothers’ ideal leave length (McKay et al., 2012). This result may indicate that fathers who want to play a more significant role in caring for their infants may need to negotiate for that time with their partners first and then their employers (Bygren & Duvander, 2006; Daly &
Ball, 2012; Daly et al., 2008; McKay & Doucet, 2010; McKay et al., 2012). Thus, while interested fathers need to push for more space in the caring sphere, mothers also need to let go of the primary responsibility for this sphere to enable interested fathers room for more involvement in caring responsibilities (Daly & Ball, 2012). This transition may be challenging for mothers. Social identity theory suggests that mothers are eager to maintain a positive self-concept as a mother and also have others view them positively in their role as a mother. For mothers, letting go of some level of responsibility or control over caring duties may challenge their self-concept as a good mother. However, “both women and men stand to benefit from embracing a standard of care for children that is devoid of unwelcome and destructive gender stereotypes, free from unnecessary gendered territorial boundaries, and open to the fulsome possibilities of committed shared parenting” (Daly & Ball, 2012, p. 233).

Couples’ gender role ideology plays a key role in fathers’ leave-taking. How the couple defines the roles of mother, father, or parent is a fundamental part of their gender role ideology. In fact, egalitarian gender role attitudes, men who were highly committed to family have been found to be strong predictors of leave taking (Seward et al., 2002). Fathers were also found to be more likely to take leave when their partners felt that women could be equally invested in work inside and outside the home and children and did not feel that the breadwinner role should be carried solely by men (Seward et al., 2006). A mother’s gender role expectations, in addition to the father’s own personal beliefs, can be strongly influential factors in a father’s choice to take leave. The influence of gender role ideology on leave use may be confirmation that gendered usage of parental leave is also influenced partially by societal norms rather than exclusively by organizational norms (Sallee, 2013).
**Breastfeeding.**

A mother’s ability to breastfeed and the importance of breastfeeding has emerged as a limitation for fathers’ parental leave use (McKay et al., 2012). Research has shown that both mothers and fathers express a strong preference that their infants be breastfed, especially in light of the benefits of breastfeeding for infant development and the recommendations from the World Health Organization that children be breastfed for six months or more (McKay et al., 2012). Therefore, breastfeeding can influence the timing, duration, and usage of parental leave by fathers. McKay and Doucet (2010) found that 18 out of the 25 couples in their study acknowledged that breastfeeding played a role in their decisions around parental leave.

**Fear of repercussions.**

Male employees may fear that the decision to take parental leave will have a negative impact on their careers. If an organization does not view fathers as primary caregivers, then a father’s desire or need to take time off work to meet family responsibilities will not be respected by the organization. In many cases, leave is technically available, but fathers perceive its use is only intended for female employees in their organization (Rudman & Mescher, 2013). In this situation, a father’s time away from work may be interpreted as an enjoyable holiday or break from work, but not crucial or necessary (Daly et al., 2008). Therefore, men may be concerned that they may be viewed as unmotivated, lacking professional integrity, unmasculine and irresponsible if they take parental leave and this concern may significantly influence the use of leave (Campbell, 2006, p. 187). McKay et al. (2012) found that “particular workplace cultures also influenced fathers’ perceptions of how their leave taking would be received by their employer, and this, in turn, influenced their decision” (p. 219).
Evidence shows that concerns regarding the negative impact that leave taking can have on both men’s and women’s careers are, in fact, well founded. Berdahl and Moon (2013) found that men who were more involved in their caregiving role faced more workplace harassment than fathers who were less involved, which insinuates there can be penalties for those who break culturally expected roles within the workplace. Research has also shown that men who take leave from work to meet childcare responsibilities are less likely to be promoted compared to men who did not take leaves (Lero et al., 2009). One father out of the 25 fathers in McKay and colleagues’ (2012) qualitative study was fired upon his return from a 9-week parental leave and felt the firing was directly connected to his use of leave. Leave takers tend to receive significantly lower performance evaluations following leave use, earn lower salaries, and receive fewer promotions when compared to employees who did not take leave (Malin, 2003).

There is a perception that men using leave face greater career consequences on than do women (Berdahl & Moon, 2013; Daly et al., 2008), since parental leave involves an “interruption in job trajectory and development and often results in missed income, promotion, benefits, and the possibility of downgrading upon return” (Campbell, 2006, p. 189), not to mention the impact on earning potential over one’s lifetime (Baker, 2011). Employers are obligated to offer employees returning from leave their old job or an equivalent one; however, this policy is not respected by all employers (Campbell, 2006; McKay & Doucet, 2010). Therefore, despite a slight narrowing of some of the inequities between mothers and fathers (Drolet, 2011; Statistics Canada, 2011a), sharing parental leave in an equal way is still fairly rare (Seward et al., 2002, p. 397). Though not all men want to take parental leave, those who do may face barriers both at home and in the workplace.
**Organizational culture.**

Corporate culture is defined as “a system of shared values defining what is important, and norms defining appropriate attitudes and behaviours, that guide members’ attitudes and behaviours” (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1996, p. 166). Role theory would suggest that corporate culture is the product of feedback from both social structures and the surrounding groups, which establish the norms and expectations of the organization (Michener, 2004). A corporate culture can fall somewhere on a spectrum between a climate of complete family-friendliness to complete corporate competitiveness or not family-friendly (Sallee, 2013). Again, Welch gives an example of the latter: “Your boss’s top priority is competitiveness. Of course he wants you to be happy, but only inasmuch as it helps the company win. In fact, if he is doing his job right, he is making your job so exciting that your personal life becomes the less compelling draw” (Welch & Welch, 2005, p. 320). This quote clearly exemplifies the General Electric corporate culture, and it would appear to be not so family-friendly.

**Organizational norms.**

Role theory suggests that organizational social norms are created by any kind of feedback, either formal or informal, and translate into expectations of the social structure, which individuals tend to conform to rather than defy. Norms become the cultural organizer and tend to represent widely held and firmly protected beliefs that are a pervasive part of the organizational behavioural structure (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1996). Strong norms form the foundation for both organizational culture and control, which play an important role in shaping the behaviour and decision-making of employees. Organizational norms are often part of the organizational subconscious, and despite the fact that not all employees in the organization agree with the norms, deep-rooted norms still significantly guide behaviour, promoting some
behaviours and discouraging others (Haas & Hwang, 2007; Murgia & Poggio, 2013). “When members agree and care about common values, violations of norms that represent these values may be sanctioned by any member, regardless of his or her formal authority or position in the hierarchy” (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1996, p. 167).

Employees acting counter to the organization’s cultural norms face huge obstacles and substantial risk of retribution from both managers and peers (Berdahl & Moon, 2013; Murgia & Poggio, 2013; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1996), which can only dissuade employees from breaking the given norms (McKay et al., 2012). Those who violate the well-established norms may be considered disloyal, be excluded from organizational networks, suffer maltreatment (Berdahl & Moon, 2013), or in some cases be considered of lower worth and not deserving of responsibility or promotion within the organization (Murgia & Poggio, 2013).

*Informal norms.*

Formal rules are usually in writing in the employee manual and the informal rules are created and learned through feedback of peers and superiors (Mauno et al., 2012; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1996). Informal cultural norms sometimes run counter to the formal ideology of the company and do not always represent the goals of the company or its executive leadership (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1996). In fact, informal forms of socialization or influence may actually be a more powerful influence on employee behaviour and decision-making than the formal forms of socialization (Dellinger, 2002; VanMaanen & Schein, 1979). Such circumstances may represent a gap between the formal rules and informal norms.

In situations where informal rules trump formal rules, employees are likely to benchmark what is and what is not acceptable behaviour in the organization by observing the behaviours of their coworkers and the reaction to those behaviours from management.
Observing the key players in their organizational environment will informally help employees determine which behaviours and attitudes the organization thinks are important and which behaviours are rewarded or penalized (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1996). The organization can also use informal socialization and informal norms to promote behaviours they deem as desirable, despite the existence of a formal policy. For example, one father who used parental leave reported that “the employer supported the existence of a right for employees, but at the same time tried to keep the lid on it, to avoid rumours, so that it remained an extraordinary event rather than a routine practice” (Murgia & Poggio, 2013, p. 421). In this example, the organization intentionally worked to limit the impact of the employee’s parental leave use on the corporate culture and informal norms, in an effort to minimize the creation of a new informal precedent.

**Masculine culture.**

Corporate culture, such as described by Welch (Welch & Welch, 2005), is built on the traditional masculine norm, which is not actually based on masculinity in general, but a specific stereotypical type of masculinity that reveres male dominance and the subordination of things considered feminine, such as childcare (Murgia & Poggio, 2013). There can be strong resistance to change and stiff penalties for breaking the norms within an organization that is built on this dominant model of gender (Murgia & Poggio, 2013).

Men seeking to use parental leave may be seen as falling outside the organization’s cultural norms in many organizations (McKay et al., 2012), especially those that are male-dominated and built on traditionally masculine norms (Murgia & Poggio, 2013). Men in organizations dominated by women may experience a more family supportive environment. In fact, Findlay and Kohen (2012) found that men in fields dominated by women, such as
teaching, health, social services, or the public sector, were more likely to use parental leave than those in male-dominated fields.

Organizational norms surrounding parenthood and involvement in childcare responsibilities can vary greatly (Sallee, 2013) and can often be strongly related to gender role expectations and the perception of masculinity. The concept of a “mommy penalty” and “fatherhood benefit” has been discussed extensively in the literature (Berdahl & Moon, 2013). The “mommy penalty” is defined as the perception that mothers are less valuable employees in the workplace due to their childcare responsibilities, while the “fatherhood benefit” is defined as the perception fathers are viewed as more stable employees, because of their breadwinning responsibilities. However, Berdahl and Moon (2013) found that employed women who were also highly involved mothers received the least amount of negative feedback from co-workers. Employed men who were highly involved in childcare activities were seen as insufficiently masculine and reported the highest levels of harassment and co-worker backlash at work (Berdahl & Moon, 2013). These involved fathers were treated in a derogatory manner precisely because they were breaking gender role norms and were accused of not being “man enough” (Berdahl & Moon, 2013). One would think that female employees with high levels of childcare engagement would have also reported high levels of negative feedback, however Berdahl and Moon (2013) suggest they did not because they are fulfilling the socially expected gender roles. Berdahl and Moon (2013) suggest these results indicate a new fatherhood penalty, which involves repercussions in the workplace for fathers who are highly engaged in childcare.

_Fatherhood in the organization._

Organizations still tend to see family and work as distinct spheres for men in the workplace (Allard et al., 2011). “While male workers may feel valued as employees, they often
feel invisible at work in their paternal role” (Burnett, Gatrell, Cooper, & Sparrow, 2012). However, organizational support for leave use by male employees has gradually improved, which might in part be due to the slow increase in the number of women in the upper levels of management. However, the vast majority of companies, especially in the United States, remain unsupportive of fathers’ leave use (Haas & Hwang, 2009). Organizational research clearly shows that the gender role stereotype of men fulfilling the breadwinner role, with more investment in their earning and providing role, is still the prominent expectation in the workplace (McKay et al., 2012). This expectation perpetuates the assumption that men who are dedicated to their organization show their dedication by working long hours and putting in face time (Allard et al., 2011), which means men who take time away from work for family reasons may be considered disloyal (Murgia & Poggio, 2013; Seward et al., 2006).

Organizational influence on policy usage.

Male and female employees’ leave-taking may have similar impacts on their co-workers and their employers; however, employers have more room to influence the leave use of fathers since their leaves are seen as more negotiable than mothers’ leaves. This difference is due to the fact that women usually only answer one question regarding leave use with their employer: How long will you be gone? In contrast, fathers answer two questions, will you be taking leave or not, and if so, for how long? It is not assumed that the father will necessarily take leave (Bygren & Duvander, 2006). Complicating the issue is that maternity leave is often used as a misnomer for parental leave, which perpetuates the workplace perception that parental leave is intended for use by mothers only (McKay et al., 2012).

Since leave-taking is not usually expected of male employees in an organization, men must explicitly declare their right to utilize this policy (Daly et al., 2008). Both parenting and
parental leave use are seen as women’s obligation by the organization’s social norms and are; therefore, not open to the same kind of scrutiny as fathers’ parenting responsibilities or leave use (Daly et al., 2008; McKay et al., 2012). McKay and Doucet (2010) found that, “with rare exceptions, employers did not expect or encourage fathers to take some or any leave” (McKay & Doucet, 2010). In addition, because a male employee’s use of parental leave can be seen as a choice (Berdahl & Moon, 2013), it may indicate competing commitments to the employer and, in turn, may have a negative impact on the employee’s career trajectory.

Male employees would be far more likely to use family-friendly policies, such as parental leave, if it were not for the real or perceived limitations of doing so in their workplaces (Haas & Hwang, 2009). Men may be backing away from the opportunity to take leave because they have observed the negative effects caring responsibilities have had on women’s careers (Baker, 2011) or they perceive their managers would not approve (McKay et al., 2012; Yeandle, Phillips, Scheibl, Wigfield, & Wise, 2003). Even in countries, such as Sweden, with extremely progressive work-family policies, corporate culture has been cited as a deterrent for men interested in taking advantage of such benefits (Allard et al., 2011; Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000). However, in Norway, fathers employed in the public sector in a non male-dominated, larger organization were more likely to use parental leave than fathers in other sectors and organization types (Lappegard, 2012). This result highlights the need for a workplace culture that is supportive of leaves, for both mothers and fathers, to aid in the increased utilization of leave (Whitehouse, Romaniuk, Lucas, & Nicholson, 2012).

Clearly, the mere existence of a parental leave policy is not enough to facilitate utilization (Kramer, 2008; Rehel, 2013; Thompson, Jahn, Kopelman, & Prottas, 2004; Wells & Sarkadi, 2012). Organizations must create a culture of support for these programs. Moreover,
family-friendly policy uptake requires that the policy is clear and easy to understand by employees, which highlights the need for explicit and informed support at both the organization and management levels (Swody & Powell, 2007). Therefore, companies that want to support their employees must explicitly promote leave use (Whitehouse et al., 2012), because fathers who perceive their organizations as supportive of leave taking are more likely to take parental leave (Haas & Hwang, 2009; McKay et al., 2012; Smeaton, 2006; Whitehouse et al., 2012).

Taking it one step further, ideally organizations should not only promote parental leave use, but also create a culture that promotes and supports father involvement in their family responsibilities (Wells & Sarkadi, 2012).

Fried (1998), in an American study investigating how one employer’s workplace culture affected leave use, found that fathers of newborns were actually more likely to take two or three weeks of vacation time rather than formal parental leave. Men might choose informal options, because, as per role theory, it is a way for male employees to take time off without violating the social norms within the organization, while also maintaining maximum earnings. Malin (1994) discovered that men wanted to spend more time with their young children, but cited employer hostility as the main reason for not taking leave. Of the managers Malin (1994) interviewed, two-thirds considered it inappropriate for male employees to take parental leave and one-fifth thought an acceptable leave for their male employees to be two weeks or less.

In conclusion, workplace culture can be extremely influential on a male employee’s decision to take advantage of parental leave. In fact, researchers suggest that work-family conflict will only be reduced when the broader work environment is changed, and that in many ways these changes are more crucial than changes to policies and benefits offered in the workplace (Kelly et al., 2008). However, workplace culture is not the only influence,
Managerial attitudes can be extremely influential on a male employee’s decision to take leave or not. Explicit and regular managerial support is crucial because the norms and social standards relayed by the feedback of a supportive manager contribute to the creation of the social norm of parental leave acceptance within the organization (Thompson et al., 1999).

**Managerial influence.**

Allen (2001) suggested that there are two key components of family-friendly workplaces: the presence of work-family benefits themselves and work-family-friendly supervisors. Managerial support can help minimize work-related stress and strain for employees (Allard et al., 2011; Brotheridge & Lee, 2005). Top-level management support of family-friendly policies is helpful, but it is the middle and line managers that actually play the most crucial role. Superiors must explicitly and openly discuss the need for work-family balance and policy utilization to help develop a culture of support in the workplace (Sallee, 2013). These managerial behaviours would, as per role theory, help develop organizational social norms that support the work-family lives of their employees. Therefore, organizations that want to support their employees must not only promote leave use (Whitehouse et al., 2012), but also encourage supervisors to explicitly support the policies (Allen, 2001; Sallee, 2013; Swody & Powell, 2007). Unless an employee’s direct manager is explicitly and verbally in support of benefit utilization, then employees may fear that requesting leave will have negative repercussions on their careers (Allen, 2001). With this in mind, it is important that managers are made aware of and well informed about a policy itself, so they can appropriately support its utilization (Su & Bozeman, 2013).
Characteristics of supportive managers.

Allen (2001) defines a family supportive supervisor as someone who understands that his or her employees want to better balance work and family demands and who actively works to aid employees in their attempt to accommodate these two spheres. Although it has been recognized that managers play a critical role in benefit and policy utilization, there has been limited investigation of the characteristics that are associated with manager support of utilization of available programs (Casper, Fox, Sitzmann, & Landy, 2004). In fact, reporting to a family-friendly supervisor was positively related to use of family leave, other family-friendly policies (Breaugh & Frye, 2008), and overall job satisfaction (Ko, Hur, & Smith-Walter, 2013). The literature has identified some characteristics of managers who tend to be more family-friendly than others.

Perez, Sanchez, and Carnicer (2003) investigated managerial support for teleworking as a work-family program and found several managerial characteristics that lead to higher levels of program support such as younger managers who had been with the company for a significant period, managers with less need for hierarchal structure or control, and managers who appreciate the benefit of leave use to both the employee and the organization. Older managers may be less eager to adapt to new initiatives, especially if they vary greatly from their own experiences or imply dramatic organizational change (Perez et al., 2003). In addition, older managers often hold more traditional views of the division of work and family roles and/or may actually resent permitting employees to use a benefit that was not available when they might have needed it years earlier (Thompson et al., 2006).

Parker and Allen (2001) found that managers who were female and/or parents view work-family benefits more positively than other managers. Female managers also seemed to be
better informed on the policies themselves (Su & Bozeman, 2013) and provided more vocal support for the need to accommodate the demands of work and family (Casper, et al., 2004). Finally, managers who had personally used family-friendly policies were also more likely to view them as positive and fair practices (Parker & Allen, 2001).

**Position of power.**

Employees are often confronted with the strong and undeniable influence of both managers’ attitudes and an organizational culture surrounding employees’ use of leaves (Gornick & Myers, 2003; Murgia & Poggio, 2013). Managers hold a position of power in the organization and can utilize this power to influence others in the organization, such as employees (Vredenburgh & Brender, 1998). Power is most commonly exerted, implicitly or explicitly, through a top-down approach, and therefore managers find themselves in positions of significant power and influence (Vredenburgh & Brender, 1998). Employees are in a less powerful position and are relatively dependent on their managers for promotions and other rewards. This dependency creates a dynamic that makes managers’ actions and attitudes strongly persuasive and highly influential in employees’ decision making (Vredenburgh & Brender, 1998).

Managerial power can be a strong influence in organizational members’ conformity to the dominant culture, and in some cases, managers can use their power inappropriately to penalize employees who do not conform to the organizational culture (Murgia & Poggio, 2013). In cases where managers abuse their power, it may force employees to act counter to their values and beliefs in order to appease the manager (Vredenburgh & Brender, 1998), such as not using parental leave when it would be an inconvenience to the business. This demonstration of
power can be viewed as unethical and in some situations considered abusive behaviour (Vredenburgh & Brender, 1998).

**Managerial attitudes and actions.**

Managers may disapprove of or be resistant to granting permission for use of leaves and other family-friendly policies, because they are an inconvenience to the business, represent an increase in administrative workloads (Thompson et al., 2006), and/or make their jobs more complex by having to juggle workloads, work schedules, and hiring a term replacement, depending on leave length (Malin, 2003). In Canada, if an employee qualifies to use a family leave, a manager is required by law to accept the leave regardless of his or her feelings toward leave use, but that does not ensure managerial support. However, managers’ attitudes and behaviours are not necessarily always in agreement (Casper et al., 2004) and there is often notable disagreement between the existing policy and what is actually happening at the manager/employee level (Collinson, 1999).

Managers both implicitly and explicitly manage procedure and policy implementation, influence policy usage, and reward employee behaviours that are in line with their belief systems (Allen, 2001). The employees then interpret the types of behaviours that are seen as valuable to the manager and organization by assessing which behaviours are rewarded or approved of by the manager and which are not (Allen, 2001).

In subtle and not-so-subtle ways, immediate supervisors often communicated the ‘real’ outcomes of taking part in WLB [work-life balance] programs, particularly when participation was inconsistent with deeply held cultural beliefs of the organization (Nord, Fox, Phoenix, & Viano, 2002, p. 229).
Managers’ attitudes can directly affect their managerial practices, and managers may be less willing to grant men and non-parents use of family-friendly policies if they disapprove (Barham, Gottlieb, & Kelloway, 2001; Secret, 2000). That said, managers’ attitudes are not fixed. Managers’ support and responsiveness to their employees’ family needs may change over time as their own family situation and responsibilities evolve (Swody & Powell, 2007).

Carson, Carson, and Pence (2002) found a manager’s behaviours were key in his or her employees’ perception of support within the workplace and benefit utilization. Managerial influence and behaviour can either encourage or discourage the usage of work-family programs and policies (Allard et al., 2011; Casper et al., 2004). In fact, both family-friendly policy utilization and effectiveness have been directly linked to supervisor actions (Casper et al., 2004; Parker & Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999). For example, employees are more likely to take advantage of parental leave and other benefits if they observe their superiors doing so; therefore, managers tend to lead by example (Fried, 1998). If a manager utilizes a benefit, it sends a clear message to his or her employees that utilizing such a benefit is acceptable and available for use (Thompson et al., 2006).

Managerial attitudes are seen as a very important dimension of corporate culture and organizational social norms. However, research has found that the managerial point of view is a more influential factor in understanding the adoption and use of family-friendly policies than the organizational culture within which both the manager and employee work (Perez et al., 2003). Even in the most truly family-friendly organizations, a disapproving manager can be all that stands in the way of the utilization of family-friendly policies (Mauno et al., 2012).
Employees’ perceptions.

Employees’ perceptions of their organization, manager, and coworkers can play a key role in fathers’ benefit utilization. Allen (2001) investigated employees’ perceptions of their employer’s family-friendliness and found that employees who felt their organization was unsupportive were less likely to take advantage of family-friendly benefits and programs. This is not surprising because role theory states that social norms guide individuals’ perception of what is acceptable behaviour. In addition, the perception of supervisor support was directly associated with utilization of these benefits (Allen, 2001; McKay et al., 2012; Secret, 2000). Thompson, Vinter, and Young (2005) found that men in the United Kingdom not only took leave, but also took longer leaves, when they perceived their supervisors as very supportive. In contrast, when employees perceived that “supervisors are sending the message that benefit usage is not supported, employees may be fearful of using the benefits, despite their availability” (Allen, 2001, p. 430), because doing so would break established organizational norms.

Employees recognize the relative position of power that managers hold and can also recognize when this power is being used in a legitimate or an illegitimate manner. How employees interpret the manager’s intentions and behaviors is crucial in their own decision-making (Vredenburgh & Brender, 1998). For example, if an employee approaches a manager regarding taking parental leave and the manager strongly suggests he or she reconsider the decision because of the ramifications to his or her career, then the employee could perceive this as a kind, protective manager watching out for the employee’s best interest or as an unethical, threatening act. In either case the manager’s feedback exerts a strong influence over the employee’s decision-making, because it contributes to the definition of what behaviours are
expected from employees. Just like managers’ attitudes, employees’ perceptions of their managers with regard to family support might change over time as their family roles and responsibilities change. For example, an employee may presume his manager is supportive of family needs until he actually has children and requests the use of family-friendly policies (Swody & Powell, 2007); therefore, his perception becomes more informed.

The perspectives of the organizations and the managers are not always in alignment and employees can perceive this discrepancy. Mauno, Kinnunen, and Feldt (2012) found that supervisor support is a key contributor to the perception of a family-friendly organization and vice versa; however, employees do not always see managers and employers as united fronts. Employees clearly differentiate between the attitudes of the organization and those of their manager (Thompson et al., 1999), as feedback that employees receive regarding social norms may differ between the two. Research has shown that employees are able to distinguish between the attitudes presented by the workplace culture and the manager (Thompson et al., 1999). Some would suggest that the behaviours and practices of supervisors are actually more influential than upper level managers or corporate policy; in fact, the perceptions employees have of the organization as a whole are often formed by the practices of the direct manager (Neal & Griffin, 2006). However, this does not necessarily suggest that managers’ behaviours and practices always represent the organizational policies or mission.

Employees understand if there are discrepancies between these attitudes, but sometimes the discrepancy is between how managers perceive themselves and how employees perceive managers. Kleinman (2004) found that manager self reports on leadership style were often inflated or more positive than their own employees perceived their leadership style to be, which meant there was a significant disconnect between managers’ behaviours and employee
perceptions. Similarly, managers presented more positive perceptions of corporate culture and company productivity than employees (Patterson, Warr, & West, 2004). Schwarzwald, Koslowsky, and Ochanan-Levin (2004) found that in regards to managerial style, supervisors reported using predominantly softer tactics and employees reported less use of soft and more frequent use of hard tactics by managers, which is another example of how managers’ and employees’ perceptions of one another in the same company can differ wildly.

Finally, fathers’ perceptions or observations of their co-workers behaviour can also be a strong influence on leave-taking. McKay and colleagues (2012) conducted a small Canadian, qualitative study on fathers’ leave use and found men were more comfortable requesting parental leave when there had been “a precedent of at least one other father taking leave” (p. 218). Sallee (2013) also found that men’s usage of parental leave increased when other men in their workplace had blazed a trail before them, indicating that it was safe to do so. Therefore, fathers’ leave use can be directly affected by the behaviours they observe of other fathers at work (Bygren & Duvander, 2006).

Finally, employees may approve of the use of parental leave, but perceive leave use as inappropriate in their workplace and, therefore, be less likely to utilize leave (Haas & Hwang, 2002; Parker & Allen, 2001). Unsupportive organizational norms are perceived as barriers that may dissuade employees from taking leave or limit the length of time they take (McKay et al., 2012).

**Effects of gendered parental leave usage.**

The continued use of long parental leaves by women puts women at an economic disadvantage in the long run (Baker, 2011) because their work interruptions and less overall time spent in the paid labour force can mean less experience, lower earning power, lower wage
growth (Baker, 2011; Evans, 2007), and lower pensions. The decision for women to take parental leave because they make less money than their partners can be justified from a financial perspective (Lappegard, 2012); however, leave-taking mothers “experience a future wage penalty. The penalty manifests as lower wage growth” (Baker, 2011, p. 82). An Australian study calculated that mothers returning to work after a one-year leave suffered a 7 percent wage penalty, which grew to 12 percent three years after taking leave (Baker, 2011). In Canada, the average earnings of a Canadian full-time employed woman in 2011 was $47,300 compared to $65,700 for men; therefore, women make 72 percent of what their male full-time employed counterparts do (Statistics Canada, 2013b). Lappegard (2008) found that in Norway the more mothers earned and the more equal the partners’ salaries, the higher the likelihood of fathers use of leave. Similarly, Brandth and Kvande (2001) found that the higher the father’s income and position status, the less likely he was to utilize parental leave, even the paternity leave. Similarly, Lappegard (2012) found that fathers’ leave use increased when both parents were high earning. Parental leave may only be more equally shared between parents when pay equity between the sexes is realized (Campbell, 2006) or when EI wage replacement rates are increased to minimize the disincentive for men.

In Canada, the implementation of the parental leave extension in 2001 from ten to thirty-five weeks has also had an unanticipated result on leave use. The extended leave has actually created a larger disparity between the length of leaves taken by mothers and fathers (Evans, 2006). This trend means that Canadian women tend to incur the bulk of the penalty of work interruptions due to child care responsibilities, which is in conflict with the gender equity intent of the parental leave policy. “So in many cases we see an exacerbation of the traditional, gendered division of family responsibilities, with women taking leave more often, and for
longer periods of time than men” (Campbell, 2006, p. 176) and, therefore, bearing the brunt of
the sacrifice of having children by sacrificing their own workforce involvement (Baker, 2011).
This is especially the case for women with employment requiring lower human capital, which is
employment with less upward mobility or lower earning potential. For example, the parental
leave usage of Norwegian fathers dropped if their partners were employed in an organization or
industry where there would be little impact on the mothers’ long-term career (Lappegard,
2012), which contributes to a broadening of the gap between partners’ earning potential.

Conclusion

In conclusion, over the past last 50 years women’s educational levels and labour force
participation have increased dramatically, as more women combine paid work and unpaid
work. However, women are still primarily responsible for managing the responsibilities of
domestic life, such as childcare and housework, despite greater involvement in the workforce
(Baker, 2011). Thus, the line between work and family, which was once quite distinct, has been
blurred, which has resulted in the experience of work-family conflict by parents (Barnett &
Gareis, 2006). In an effort to promote gender role equality, through encouraging mother’s
connection to the workforce and father’s engagement with their children (Meil, 2013), Canada
offers a parental leave policy that allows qualifying parents to share 35 weeks of leave
following the arrival of a child (Service Canada, 2014). However, mothers are still the
predominant users of the policy (Statistics Canada, 2013a), but why?

There are many barriers to men’s use of parental leave in both the home (McKay &
Doucet, 2010; Daly & Ball, 2012) and the workplace (Rudman & Mescher, 2013; Berdahl &
Moon, 2013; Murgia & Poggio, 2013), but research to date has focused on the organizational
barriers fathers face when considering leave. Therefore, using insight from role theory and
social identity theory, the influence of corporate culture, managerial attitudes, and employees’ perceptions on the parental leave use of Canadian male employees is explored. The role of personal, employment, and organizational characteristics in the attitudes of managers and employees is also explored. This much needed research fills a gap in the literature by offering a Canadian multi-level study specifically focused on parental leave use by male employees.

**Hypotheses**

The hypotheses explored in this research are listed below. These hypotheses are informed by role theory, social identity theory, and the literature that has been reviewed and seek to illuminate the organizational, managerial, and personal characteristics that influence men’s decision surrounding leave use and support for leave use.

**Hypothesis #1.a.:** Female managers will be more supportive than male managers of the use of parental leave by male employees.

**Hypothesis #1.b.:** Managers’ personal characteristics, employment experiences, and organizational context will significantly influence their support of parental leave by male employees.

**Hypothesis #1.c.:** Male employees’ personal characteristics, employment experiences, and organizational context will significantly influence their attitudes regarding leave use by male employees.

**Hypothesis #2.a.:** Male employees will perceive their managers as supportive of parental leave use.

**Hypothesis #2.b.:** Male employees will perceive their managers’ attitudes regarding family support as matching the family supportiveness of the organizational culture.
Hypothesis #2.c.: Managers’ perception of their organizations family-supportiveness will be more positive than employees’ perception of their organizations.

Hypothesis #3: A male employee’s personal, employment, and organizational context characteristics will have a significant impact on his perception of his manager’s supportiveness.

Hypothesis #4: Male employees’ personal characteristics, employment experiences, and organizational context will significantly impact leave use by male employees.

Details on data collection, the measures used, and how each hypothesis was tested are discussed further in the method chapter, followed by the results in Chapter 4, and discussion of results in Chapter 5.
CHAPTER III

Method

In this section, I will discuss the sampling frame, the recruitment process, and the data collection procedure utilized for this research. In addition to addressing the ethical considerations, both the total sample and the individual organizations in the sample will be described. I will review the dependent and independent variables included in the surveys and utilized for hypothesis testing. This chapter will conclude with a review of the data analyses employed in this research.

Sampling Frame

In order to explore the views of fathers and managers regarding the use of parental leave by male employees, I sought to obtain a diverse sample. To facilitate data collection and increase the potential for a sizable sample, I chose to sample from Manitoba’s larger employers. I sought a diverse sample that included a range of public and private sector enterprises and varied in both industry type and proportion of men and women. I utilized a convenience sample of corporations that employed 200 or more employees and were based in Manitoba. This is a multi-level study and there were inclusion criteria at each level of analysis. Managers could be either male or female, but all had to have managerial responsibilities for employees, such as hire, fire, or performance evaluation responsibilities. At the employee level, only male employees were included in the sample. Employees who had worked for their employers for longer than six months were recruited and this ensured that they had enough time with the employer to understand both the organization and their manager.
Recruitment

Recruitment of large Manitoba employers occurred in a variety of ways. Between November of 2011 to October of 2012, I was in contact with 60 organizations and gained agreement to participate in the study from seven of these organizations. I contacted potential large Manitoba employer participants directly utilizing information gathered from online directories or research. The initial contact was usually made with the most senior human resources manager and then, if necessary, I was in many cases referred to a more appropriate contact. Consistent follow-up emails and voicemails were required to speak to the organizational decision-maker in many cases. I made follow-up calls or reminder emails roughly ten days to two weeks following the original message. The corporate representative was informed that data would be collected at three levels, and that participation included an organizational interview and questionnaires for the managers and male employees. I also informed the representative that the organization would receive a copy of the final research project once complete.

In cases when the representative was receptive after the project was described, I would provide more detailed information about the research via email. To encourage organizational participation I emailed electronic copies of the summary of the project, the consent forms, and the surveys for the organizational representatives’ review. A follow-up conversation addressed any questions or concerns held by the organization and clarification was provided if necessary to achieve a decision regarding participation. In most situations, the person making the decision regarding participation was the vice president of human resources or regional human resources manager, or their equivalents. I repeated this process, with slight variations, with each of the 60 organizations, which took in some cases as little as a week and in others as long as several
months. In one case, I was required to complete a background check and the project was vetted by security at the organization’s headquarters before a decision to participate could be made.

To increase exposure to organizational decision makers, I advertised recruitment information with several Manitoba business associations and networks. First, the Manitoba Quality Network (QNET), which is a non-profit training and continuing education provider for managers, advertised recruitment information in its electronic monthly flier to both individual and organizational members. I also gained agreement from The Associates, an association comprised of local business leaders and executives who have partnered with the University of Manitoba’s Asper School of Business to promote excellence in business education, to email recruitment information to its members. I contacted the Winnipeg Chamber of Commerce and initiated two consultation meetings to help identify opportunities for organizational involvement. Finally, I also contacted the Human Resource Management Association of Manitoba (HRMAM). All of these points of contact resulted in the successful recruitment of one organization through The Associates. I succeeded in recruiting the remaining organizations as a result of cold calling, with the exception of one organization that was a network referral.

**Data Collection Procedure**

Once companies agreed to participate, I collected data at three levels. At the organizational level, all policies, programs, or benefits offered by the company, in addition to the provincial and federal government’s parental leave benefit, such as top-ups and leave extensions, were identified through structured interviews with the HR manager and/or investigating the company’s published materials. Other company information I collected from the human resource manager included size of company, type of industry, union or non-union
status of the participants, male to female ratio of both employees and managers, and parental leave use rates (Appendix A).

Once the company had signed the consent form, the data collection process began. I distributed two consent forms and two self-administered questionnaires to managers and employees. The managerial questionnaire assessed the manager’s self-reported rating on the supervisor family support scale, exposure to parental leave, managerial attitudes toward the use of parental leaves, overall support for parental leave, perception of their organization’s family supportiveness, personal use of parental leave, coworkers’ use of parental leave, perception of their company’s attitudes about leave use, work-family and family-work conflict, and demographic information (e.g., sex, age, income, and marital status) (Appendix B).

Male employees completed the other self-administered questionnaire, which assessed their perception of their manager’s and organization’s family supportiveness, personal use of parental leave, overall support for the use of parental leave, coworkers’ use of leave, perception of their company’s attitudes regarding use of parental leave, work-family and family-work conflict and demographic information (Appendix C). I piloted both the consent forms and questionnaires with a group of 15 managers and 15 employees at a Manitoba employer who was not included in the final sample. Piloting the surveys was necessary to assess the effectiveness of the surveys, identify any possible misunderstandings of skip patterns or question wording, and determine how long it would take participants to complete the questionnaires. With this information, I was better able to explain to organizational contacts what kind of time commitment was necessary for participation in the research. Both surveys took roughly 15 minutes to complete.
There was a concern here at all three levels of analysis that participants were tempted to answer in a socially desirable way, especially on the attitudinal or support questions. For example, even if a manager is not particularly supportive of family needs of employees at work, he or she may be tempted to respond in a way that will make him or her appear more family-friendly to the researcher. A limitation to any survey research project is that researchers are left with whatever information the participant is willing to give them and rely heavily on the assumption that responses are honest and accurate (Fowler, 2002). That said, several steps were taken to ensure participants felt comfortable enough to be truthful with their responses. The social desirability effect is minimized when the follow criteria are met: the wording of both the questionnaire and introduction letter avoids judgment and emphasizes the need for accuracy, the researcher uses a self-administered format, and participants are repeatedly reassured of their anonymity and that their answers are confidential (Fowler, 2002). Each of these recommendations was employed in the consent forms and surveys utilized in this research. Although these steps help minimize the possibility of the social desirability effect, it cannot eliminate its possibility.

The seven organizations involved varied in organizational structure, employee type, and building or plant size and type (i.e., all employees in one site or spread out over 25 Manitoba locations). Therefore, each organization had its own unique needs regarding participation. I made accommodations to facilitate organizational involvement, which meant that the method of survey delivery and return varied by organization. I offered surveys in both paper and online survey formats and surveys could be returned electronically, via mail, or drop box. When paper surveys were required, the packet for distribution included an envelope with a survey, two consent forms, and stamped, self-addressed return envelope. In the electronic survey format, the
consent form was the first page of the survey, and the participants were required to complete it before they could begin the survey. Thirty-three percent (299) of the surveys were completed in paper format and 67 percent (605) were completed electronically.

In addition, I offered every organization the opportunity to include an incentive with their survey. The incentive was a draw for a gift card for $250 to a local mall and was distributed with the survey in an attempt to improve the response rates of their managers and employees (Appendix D). However, only two of the seven organizations chose to include the incentive. Some organizations felt that the incentive was unnecessary or inappropriate for their staff. For example, employees of crown corporations cannot receive payment or gifts for performing tasks in their work role that are completed at the request of their employer; therefore, the incentive was declined by those organizations.

Sampling

The seven organizations in this sample represent a diverse cross-section of the Manitoba business community and include both local business and multi-national corporations. The overall sample for this study includes seven employers, 354 managers, and 550 male employees. Three of the organizations are in the public sector and four are in the private sector.

A Winnipeg post-secondary educational institution was the first organization to participate. This educational institution is in the public sector and employs roughly 1,700 people. The Human Resources department supplied the addresses for a sample of 50 managers and 160 employees who were randomly selected from their employee database to receive the paper survey packets. Materials, including the paper survey, incentive draw form, and consent forms, were distributed through the organization’s internal mail system and returned via self-addressed stamped envelopes to the researcher’s University of Manitoba locked mailbox. Two
weeks after the initial packet distribution, a reminder post card was sent to the recipients of the first mailing. Eighteen managers and 57 employees returned surveys, a response rate of 35.7 percent for managers and employees combined (Table 1).

Table 1
Response Rates for Managers and Employees by Organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Managers n = 354</th>
<th>Employees n = 550</th>
<th>Total n =904</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational institution</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crown corporation-retail</td>
<td>64.5</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grocer</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media outlet</td>
<td>68.6</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banking institution</td>
<td>68.2</td>
<td>59.0</td>
<td>63.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law enforcement organization</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home improvement retailer</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second organization I recruited is a public, crown corporation that is part of the retail sector. The human resources manager selected a sample of 110 managers who received the electronic survey and 408 employees who received the paper survey, which was due to the fact that employees did not have Internet access at work. Employees’ paper survey packets, which included surveys and consent forms, but not the incentive, were distributed to retail locations across Manitoba through the organization’s internal mail system. The paper survey materials were then returned directly to the researcher using the self-addressed, stamped, return envelope. Two weeks following the electronic survey distribution, the HR manager sent a reminder email to managers that encouraged survey completion. In total, 71 managers and 83 male employees responded, for an overall organizational response rate of 29.7 percent (Table 1). A much higher percentage of managers (64.5 percent) responded to the surveys than did
employees (20.3 percent), which was likely due to the fact that managers completed the survey electronically and employees completed the paper survey and were responsible for mailing the self-addressed stamped envelope back. In addition, the vice president of human resources sent an electronic reminder to managers a week after original distribution, which was a measure that was not possible for employees.

The third organization is a retail grocery chain with stores across North America. This private sector company employs 4,500 people at many locations across Manitoba. The grocer distributed surveys to a small sample of managers and employees, which were chosen by the human resource manager, across locations in Winnipeg. Electronic surveys were distributed to 51 managers; however, floor staff received paper survey packets due to the fact that employees do not have access to the Internet at work. Paper survey packets, including surveys and consent forms, were distributed to 80 employees and returned via self-addressed stamped envelopes. The grocer declined the inclusion of the incentive. After two email reminders from the human resources manager, 24 managers and 26 employees responded. The overall response rate for the retail grocer was 38.2 percent (Table 1).

The fourth organization I recruited is a news media outlet. This organization is in the private sector, employs roughly 500 and distributes news provincially. Electronic surveys, without incentive, were distributed via internal email to 35 managers and 130 employees, chosen by the human resources manager, from across the organization. Twenty-four managers and 24 employees responded to the online survey, which gave an overall organizational response rate of 29.1 percent (Table 1). Unlike the crown corporation, both managers and employees received electronic format surveys, but the proportion of managers who responded (68.6 percent) was substantially higher than employees (18.5 percent). The reason for the
markedly different response rate is not known; perhaps managers felt more compelled than employees to complete a survey circulated from the human resources manager.

The fifth organization I recruited is a Manitoba-based banking institution in the private sector with 557 employees within the province. Electronic surveys were distributed through the organization’s email system to 107 managers and 105 employees of the human resources manager’s choice. The incentive was not utilized by this organization. One email reminder was emailed two weeks after initial survey distribution. Seventy-three managers and 62 employees responded to the survey for an organizational response rate of 63.7 percent (Table 1).

The sixth organization recruited is a law enforcement organization that employs 1,676 people in the province of Manitoba. Electronic surveys, without the incentive, were distributed to 367 managers and 561 employees who were selected by the human resources manager. Ninety-seven managers and 234 employees responded for an overall organization response rate of 35.3 percent (Table 1).

Finally, the seventh organization is a large home improvement retail chain with stores in both Canada and the United States. This retailer employs roughly 1,200 people in the province of Manitoba and distributed surveys to 72 managers and 363 employees of their choosing spread evenly over their Manitoba store locations. Both managers and employees received paper survey packets, including the incentive, which were distributed by the human resources manager. Due to the nature of the business, employees’ lack of Internet access at work, and the organization’s preference, surveys were returned via a locked box located in each location’s staff lounge or lunchroom. The completed surveys, consent forms, and incentive draw forms were sealed in an envelope provided by the researcher and dropped in the lock box by the participant. I retrieved the completed surveys from the locked boxes at each location. A total of
47 managers and 64 employees responded to the survey, which gives an overall organization response rate of 25.5 percent (Table 1). Both managers and employees received paper format surveys, but the proportion of managers who responded (65.3 percent) was substantially higher than that of employees (17.6 percent). The explanation for the higher response rate for managers compared to employees is not known.

**Total Sample**

During the recruitment process it became evident that organizations that were generally more family-friendly, often award winning (i.e., Employers of Choice awardees), and/or that were already highly invested in understanding their employees’ needs were far more interested in participation than organizations that were not. The 53 organizations that declined participation cited a number of different reasons, but several themes emerged. First, several organizations cited a lack of resources in today’s competitive economic climate as the reason for declining involvement. Though management felt the results would be of interest, they stated that their staff were already running at maximum capacity and precious resources could not be allocated to the administration of this project.

Second, many organizations viewed the use of parental leave by male employees as a controversial topic and expressed concern about raising the issue with not only their employee base, but also their unions. These organizations felt that they were not currently aware of any paternal work-family balance concerns and, therefore, did not want to “poke a sleeping bear” or “rattle the bee hive” as several contacts stated. Management feared creating a problem where it did not feel one already existed or feared bringing this topic to the attention of a union that could leverage the issue at a later date.
Finally, a smaller group of organizations were simply not interested in the concept of the research and did not see the information this research could provide them as valuable or relevant for their organization. Several managers from this group of organizations expressed confusion, stating for example, “work-family balance and men? I’m not sure I see the relevance.” It should be noted that these organizations tended to be male dominated, in the manufacturing industry, tended not to be concerned about work-family balance of their employees, and were not award winners or renowned as “Employers of Choice.” However, there were award-winning organizations that declined participation in this research as well.

Due to the challenge of recruiting organizations for participation, I used a convenience sample at the organizational level for this research; therefore, this is a non-probability sample. A non-probability sample is a sample in which the participants were not chosen randomly and implies that some Manitoba employers were more likely to be selected than others (Bryman & Bell, 2003). Though a convenience sample was used out of necessity, it does limit the generalizability of the findings. As a result, the findings of this research need to be understood in the context of the organizations sampled. There is a bias in the sample, because employee-friendly organizations were more likely to see value in participation and, therefore, were more inclined to participate. The results of this research will mostly reveal the views of family-friendly organizations, their managers and employees.

In addition, within each organization survey recipients were chosen by the organization, most often due to concerns surrounding employee privacy. Organizations were very concerned about the time, effort, and expense (i.e., utilization of organization manpower) of participation, and often the sampling method chosen was one that limited these costs. The fact that participants were chosen by the organization introduces a concern for the potential of selection
bias. Selection bias, arising from non-probability sampling, is the chance that personal choice or selection of recipients may influence who participates in the research, which in turn negatively impacts external validity (Bryman & Bell, 2003). If samples are not truly random, there is always an opportunity for personal feelings or preferences to influence sample selection and might affect how representative the selected group is of each company’s employee base (Babbie & Benaquisto, 2002).

For example, in the law enforcement organization selection bias was less of a concern because the human resources manager chose to distribute the survey to all male employees and all managers, which virtually eliminates the possibility of selection bias. In contrast, the grocer agreed to distribute only to a very small sample of 131 people, despite employing 4,500 people in Manitoba, and the human resources manager distributed the paper and electronic survey to participants he selected for inclusion. This scenario introduces greater concern for selection bias, because, though not intentionally, more positive and agreeable managers and employees could have been chosen for participation. Hypothetically, the result could be that the sample from the grocer, for example, might not be representative of the full range of attitudes and feelings about the use of parental leave in that organization. There were several organizations that did make a concerted effort to limit bias; however, the use of within organization non-probability sampling is a limitation of this research.

Finally, I originally intended to collect data in such a way that managers could be linked with their employees. The ability to compare managers’ attitudes to their own employees’ perceptions and parental leave use would have been very informative. In addition, the linked data would have enabled the use of more sophisticated analytic techniques, such as hierarchal linear modeling. However, linking the managers with their employees would have required
substantially more effort from the participating organizations during the survey distribution phase, effort that the organizations were not prepared to commit to. In several cases where electronic surveys were used, linking managers and employees would have meant asking employees to identify the name of their manager, which organizations felt could be a violation of managers’ privacy. In the paper survey format, linking managers and employees would have required an elaborate coding system on the surveys and then the careful distribution of specific surveys to specific managers and employees; again, the organizations found this method of distribution too time consuming.

**Ethical Considerations**

Before data collection began I obtained approval from the University of Manitoba Joint-Faculty Research Ethics Board (Appendix E). Both managers and employees who participated in this study were assured of the confidentiality of their responses. I provided all organizations and participants with a consent form that described the purpose of the study and explicitly confirmed the confidentiality of their involvement and responses. Organizations were assured that all information would be reported in aggregate form and companies would not be identified by name at any point in the final project. Organizations (Appendix F), managers (Appendix G), and employees (Appendix H) who participated in the study signed the consent form prior to involvement or completing the survey. I kept all materials collected in paper or electronic format, including consent forms and surveys, in either a secure locked location for hard copies and under password protection on the computer for electronic surveys.

In cases where surveys were returned via a drop box at the workplace, extra precautions were taken to maintain participant confidentiality. Surveys were completed, sealed in a
provided envelope, placed in the drop box by the participant, and remained in that location until I picked them up. At no time did management have access to the completed surveys.

Participants completed both paper and electronic formats of the surveys. As noted earlier, paper surveys were returned, via self-addressed stamped envelopes, to a locked mailbox at the University of Manitoba. I used the FluidSurveys survey tool to ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of responses from participants completing the electronic survey. FluidSurveys stores all data collected securely on servers within Canadian borders and does not sell or release this information. I compared data to see if there were differences between responses collected via the different survey methods and none were found.

**Measures**

The different levels of analysis in this study and the scales and variables that were collected at each level are shown in Figure 1. This section begins with a brief description of the demographic variables collected at the organizational level, then identifies the three dependent variables used in the hypotheses, and finally lists the variables used to assess the participants’ personal characteristics, employment characteristics and organizational context variables.

**Organizational Demographics**

During the organizational interview a variety of organizational information was collected, which helped paint a picture of the organization’s demographics. Information collected related to organizational policies, characteristics of management, and description of their workforce. A full list of variables is provided in Figure 1.

The organization’s industry type was assessed using Human Resources and Skills Development Canada’s North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) Canada 2012, which consists of 20 industry sectors and is broadly used by Statistics Canada (Statistics
Canada, 2012b). The 20 sectors can be broken down further into 120 subsectors, but for the purpose of this study the twenty broad sector categories were used. The twenty industry sectors are: (1) agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting, (2) mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction, (3) utilities, (4) construction, (5) manufacturing, (6) wholesale trade, (7) retail trade, (8) transportation and warehousing, (9) information and cultural industries, (10) finance and insurance, (11) real estate and rental and leasing, (12) professional, scientific and technical services, (13) management of companies and enterprises, (14) administrative and support, waste management and remediation services, (15) educational services, (16) health care and social assistance, (17) arts, entertainment and recreation, (18) accommodation and food services, (19) other services (except public administration), and (20) public administration (Statistics Canada, 2012b).

In addition, whether or not the organization was public or private was assessed. Organizations were placed in two categories with the following question: “Is the organization a public or private organization?” Responses were coded with possible answers of ‘public’ (2) and ‘private’ (1). Another variable was created to identify organizations that tracked the parental leave use of male employees, with possible answers of ‘yes’ (2), and ‘no’ (1).

**Dependent variables**

**Overall parental leave support.**

Managers and employees were both asked several questions specifically relating to their overall attitude towards parental leave use. The managers were asked about their general attitudes towards leave use with two questions, “What is your general attitude about female employees taking parental leave?” and “What is your general attitude about male employees taking parental leave?” and managers chose ‘in favour’ (2) or ‘not in favour’ (1) as possible responses.
**Organizational Interview**
- Company Demographics
  - Company size
  - Ratio of male/female employees
  - Ratio of male/female in management
  - Union status
  - Supplemental maternity/parental leave programs offered
  - Parental leave use
  - Industry type

**Manager Survey**
- Dependent Variable
  - Managers’ attitudes regarding leave use
- Independent Variables
  - Exposure to parental leave
  - Supervisor family support scale
  - Management level

**Employee Survey**
- Dependent Variables
  - Employees’ attitudes regarding leave use
  - Perceived supervisory family support scale
  - Parental leave use
- Independent variable
  - Coworkers parental leave use

**Independent Variables**
- Personal characteristics
  - Sex
  - Age
  - Partner status
  - Partner employment status
  - Parental status
  - Number of children
  - Dependent children present
  - Cultural identity
  - Educational attainment
  - Income (personal and household)
  - Access to parental leave
  - Time off work after child
  - Informal leave
  - Reason for not using parental leave
  - Work-family conflict & family-work conflict scale

- Employment characteristics
  - Level (manager or employee)
  - Weekly work hours
  - Length of employment

- Organizational context variables
  - Perceived organizational attitudes regarding leave use (for women and men)
  - Family supportive organizational perception scale
  - Union status

*Figure 1. Levels of analysis and measures.*
Although this study examined use of parental leave by male employees, these questions helped clarify if the manager sees parental leave as a women’s issue or if he or she is equally positive or negative regarding leave use by either sex. The two variables were labeled ‘overall parental leave support for men’ and ‘overall parental leave support for women.’

**Perceived supervisory family support.**

The dependent variable, ‘employees’ perceived managerial support,’ was measured by using the Perceived Supervisory Family Support (PSFS) index (Thompson et al., 2004). The index asks participants to place their responses to 6 statements on a 7-point Likert scale. Possible scores for this scale range from 6 to 42 and the higher the score, the more supportive the manager is perceived to be. Examples of two statements used in the index are “If one of my supervisor’s subordinates missed work due to a sick dependent, my supervisor would understand,” and “My supervisor supports any company policy that helps employees with families” (Thompson et al., 2004, p. 552). Jahn, Thompson and Kopelman (2003) have also used this scale (Cronbach’s alpha = .90). The Chronbach’s alpha for the PSFS scale in this sample was .92.

**Personal use of parental leave.**

Managers and employees were each asked several questions regarding their personal use of parental leave; however, only employee responses were used as a dependent variable. First, employees were asked ‘Have you ever used parental leave benefits?’ with responses of ‘yes’ (2) or ‘no’ (1). Those answering yes were asked to identify the length of their leave in months and/or weeks. Those answering no were then asked: “What is the main reason that you did not apply for parental leave benefits?” (Statistics Canada, 2009, p. 28). To explain their reasons for not taking parental leave, respondents were asked to choose one of the following options:
“not eligible (insufficient hours or length of employment, self-employed),”
“impossible to take time off work, money-related reasons,”
“mother wants to stay home (e.g., personal preference),”
“mother stayed home because it was more practical (e.g., nursing),”
“you did not want to stay home,” or
“did not know you could claim benefits, and other” (Haas, Allard, & Hwang, 2002; Statistics Canada, 2009, p. 84).

However, I made two modifications to the response options offered by Statistics Canada (2009). First, the option, “negative attitudes from my boss,” was added per the suggestion of Haas et al. (2002). Secondly, the original response offered by Statistics Canada (2009) “mother wants to stay home (by choice, more practical, or nursing)” (p. 84) was broken into two responses to help with interpretation of the results, since the original question is actually asking several questions at once and limits the interpretation of the answer (Fowler, 1995). For example, the mother could have wanted to stay home, but this decision was not related to nursing or the mother could have wanted to return to work, but it was simply more practical for her to stay home because of nursing. Given that this response was chosen by 48 percent of respondents in previous research (Marshall, 2008; McKay et al., 2012), it was important to break the question in two in order to better understand the role of each dimension of maternal choice (Fowler, 1995). The two new responses were as follows: “mother/I wanted to stay home (e.g., personal preference)” and “mother stayed home because it was more practical (e.g., nursing).” (Appendices B & C). However, after I had collected and analyzed the data it was clear that the original Statistics Canada selection should have been broken down into three choices, instead of two, each assessing an individual concept: maternal choice, practicality,
breastfeeding. The modified question is still double barreled as it asks about practicality of the mother using leave and breastfeeding, which makes it challenging to interpret the results on this question. Those who felt it was more practical for the mother to take leave, may not have been influenced by the role of breastfeeding and vice versa. Finally, those choosing ‘other’ were provided with space to explain their response. One final question assessed the use of informal leave. Participants who did not use parental leave were asked if they used paid vacation, sick days, unpaid leave or another option, and if they did so, for how long, which allowed for a description of participants’ use of informal leave options in lieu of taking parental leave.

Independent variables

Personal characteristic variables.

Sex.

Both managers and employees were asked their sex: ‘male’ was coded 1 and ‘female’ was coded 2. As mentioned earlier, managers included in the study were either female or male, but employees were only included if they were male. However, this question was included on both surveys and provided confirmation that only men had participated and were included in the employee sample.

Age.

All managers and employees were asked their age in years. This variable was used in the continuous format.

Partner status.

Both employees and managers were asked their current marital status. Respondents chose from six possible answers regularly used by Statistics Canada: ‘married,’ ‘living in common-law relationship,’ ‘widowed,’ ‘separated,’ ‘divorced,’ or ‘single/never married.’ This
variable was subsequently recoded into partner status, which indicated if the participant was currently married or living common-law. Those who reported being ‘married or living common-law’ were coded in one category (2) and those not reporting being ‘in a relationship’ (i.e., single, widowed, separated, and divorced) were coded in the other category (1).

**Partner’s employment status.**

Both managers and employees who indicated they were married or living common-law were asked about their partner’s employment status. There were three possible categories: ‘not employed,’ ‘employed part-time,’ and ‘employed full-time.’ The ‘not employed’ category may include partners who are looking for employment, because participants were not asked to distinguish if their partners were currently looking for work or not. The three choices were then used to create three dummy variables: spouse not employed, spouse works part-time, and spouse works full-time. Each dummy variable was coded 2 for ‘yes’ and 1 for ‘no.’

**Parental status.**

Both employees and managers were asked four questions regarding their parental status. They were first asked, “Do you have children?” with possible responses being ‘yes’ (2) or ‘no’ (1). If the participant reported having children then they were asked the following question: “How many children do you have under your care?” (Breaugh & Frye, 2008, p. 348), which was followed by a question that requested respondents list the ages for each of their children. This open-ended question regarding children’s ages was used to create or calculate several variables. First, a variable calculating the respondent’s total number of children was created.

The list of child’s ages was also used to calculate the child’s year of birth, which was done by subtracting the children’s ages from the year the data were collected, 2012. Since there have been significant changes to parental leave policy in the last 30 years, this variable was
necessary to determine if the respondent had access to 35 weeks of leave (i.e., youngest child born in 2001 or later), to 10 weeks of leave (i.e., youngest child born between 1990 and 2000), or did not have access to parental leave at all (i.e., youngest child born before 1990). These three categories were then used to create three parental leave access dummy variables: ‘no access to parental leave,’ ‘access to 10 weeks,’ and ‘access to 35 weeks’. All three were coded ‘yes’ (2) and ‘no’ (1).

Participants who did not have children were then asked if they expected to have children in the future or not, a question adapted from Casper and Buffardi (2004) and which had a ‘yes’ (2) or ‘no’ response (1). This question helped identify those non-parents who may be faced with the choice of using parental leave in the future.

**Cultural identity.**

To understand the cultural diversity of the manager and employee samples, all respondents were asked a question regarding their cultural identity. Respondents were asked, “People in Canada come from many racial or cultural groups. You may belong to more than one group on the following list. Are you:” (Statistics Canada, 2007a, p. 371). The respondents then chose one or more of the following thirteen options: “White, Chinese, Aboriginal (e.g., North American Indian, Metis or Inuit), South Asian (e.g., East Indian, Pakistani, Sri Lankan), Black, Filipino, Latin American, Southeast Asian (e.g., Cambodian, Indonesian, Laotian, Vietnamese), Arab, West Asian (e.g., Afghan, Iranian), Japanese, Korean, or another group” (Statistics Canada, 2007a, p. 371). Space was provided for those who chose “another group” to specify the group or explain. Respondents were also provided with an option to “choose not to answer” and also a “Don’t know” option (Statistics Canada, 2007a, p. 371). This question was adapted from Statistics Canada’s population group question in the General Social Survey, by
adding “Aboriginal (i.e., North American Indian, Metis or Inuit)” to the list of options (Statistics Canada, 2007a, p. 370). In the original questionnaire, Aboriginal status was asked as a separate question (Statistics Canada, 2007a), because the Canadian government’s official definition of members of visible minorities does not include Aboriginal people. As per the Employment Equity Act “a person in a visible minority group is someone (other than an Aboriginal person) who is non-white, in colour/race, regardless of place of birth” (Service Canada, 2013). The cultural identity question above was coded into a dichotomous variable, “Does respondent self-identify as member of a visible minority group?” with a ‘yes’ (2) or ‘no’ answer (1).

**Educational attainment.**

Both managers and employees were asked about their educational attainment. Respondents were asked, “What was the highest level of schooling you have completed?” This question had six possible answers and they were ‘less than high school;’ ‘high school graduate;’ ‘some university, college or technical institute;’ ‘university, college or technical institute graduate;’ ‘advanced degree;’ and ‘don’t know.’ From this question four dummy variables were created to assess the participants’ highest level of education: ‘high school or less;’ ‘some post secondary’ (i.e., some university, college or technical degree); ‘certificate, diploma or bachelors degree;’ and ‘advanced degree.’ Each had a ‘yes’ (2) or ‘no’ (1) answer.

**Personal & household income.**

Both managers and employees were asked both their personal and their household incomes. For personal income the respondents were asked, “What is your best estimate of your total personal income, before deductions, from all sources during the past 12 months?” (Statistics Canada, 2007a, p. 396). And for household income respondents were asked, “What is
your best estimate of the total income, before deductions, of all household members from all
sources during the past 12 months?” (Statistics Canada, 2007a, p. 397). For both variables, the
respondents chose one of the following responses: (1) no income, (2) less than $20,000, (3)
$20,000 to $39,999, (4) $40,000 to $59,999, (5) $60,000 to $79,999, (6) $80,000 to $99,999,
and (7) $100,000 to $119,999, (8) $120,000 to $139,999, or (9) $140,000 or more.

For both the personal and the household income variables the ranges were coded into
midpoints to create income midpoint variables for potential inclusion in the analyses. For both
variables the new midpoints were: ‘$.00,’ ‘$9,999.50,’ ‘$29,999.50,’ ‘$49,999.50,’
‘$69,999.50,’ ‘$89,999.40,’ ‘$109,999.50,’ ‘$129,999.50,’ and ‘$149,999.50’. Though this
variable was not used in the models because of multi-colinearity with age, weekly work hours,
and length of employment, it was used to create the average personal and household income
figures reported in the bivariate results in Chapter 4.

Work-family conflict and family-work conflict.

The work-family conflict scale and the family-work conflict scale, developed by
Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996), were used to assess employees’ and managers’
work-family and family-work conflict. These are two independent scales as they investigate
independent constructs.

Each scale has five questions. A sample question from the work-family conflict scale is
“The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities”
(Netemeyer et al., 1996, p. 410). A sample question from the family-work conflict scale is “My
home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time,
accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime” (Netemeyer et al., 1996, p. 410). The
Cronbach’s alpha for the work-family conflict scale is .88 and .86 for the family-work conflict
scale. These scales, especially the work-family conflict scale, have been widely used with similar Cronbach’s alphas (e.g., Breaugh & Frye, 2008; Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Kelly et al., 2008). In this sample, Chronbach’s alphas continued to show strong internal consistency with .94 for the work-family conflict scale and .90 for the family-work conflict scale. Participants placed their responses to each question on a 7-point Likert scale, from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree.’ Possible scores for each scale range from 5 to 35 and the higher the score; the more conflict is being reported.

**Employment characteristic variables.**

**Level.**

A variable called level was created to identify employees and managers. Managers were coded (2) and employees (1). This variable was included in many of the bivariate analyses that compared managers and employers, and it also allowed for splitting the data file.

**Weekly work hours.**

Both managers and employees were asked, “On average, how many hours do you work per week?” (Beaugh & Frye, 2008, p. 348). This variable was used in both a continuous and categorical format. The coded categories were: ‘1 to 10 hours/week’ (1), ‘11 to 20 hours/week’ (2), ‘21 to 30 hours/week’ (3), ‘31 to 40 hours/week’ (4), ‘41 to 50 hours/week’ (5), ‘51 to 60 hours/week’ (6), ‘61 to 70 hours/week’ (7), ‘71 hours/week or more’ (8).

**Length of employment.**

Both managers and employees were asked how long they have been employed with their current company. Respondents were asked to list both the years and months of their employment. The answers were converted into months and treated as a continuous variable.

**Coworkers’ use of parental leave.**
Employees were asked if any of their male coworkers have used parental leave and responses were coded as either ‘yes’ (2) or ‘no’ (1).

**Managerial Exposure to Parental Leave.**

Managers were asked two questions that assessed their experience with employee parental leave use. First, managers were asked “How often have you had employees, under your supervision, take parental leave?” with possible responses of ‘frequently’, ‘occasionally’, or ‘never.’ Then managers were asked, “Of those employees who have taken leave, while under your supervision, were any fathers?” with possible responses of ‘yes’ (2) or ‘no’ (1).

**Supervisor family support.**

Supervisor family support was a variable for managers only. In order to assess managers’ general family-friendliness attitudes, the Perceived Supervisory Family Support index developed by Thompson et al. (2004) was adapted to measure managers’ self-report of supervisor family support (Cronbach’s alpha = .90). The original Perceived Supervisory Family Support Index is a six-item index that is completed by employees to assess their managers’ own support, but for the purposes of this study the items were reworded to reflect the managers’ own attitudes. For example, a statement used in the original index is “My supervisor is very understanding if someone has to leave early or come in late due to a family emergency” and this was reworded to “I am very understanding if an employee has to leave early or come in late” (Thompson et al., 2004, p. 552). Participants placed their responses to these statements on a 7-point Likert scale, from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree.’ Possible scores in this scale range from 6 to 42 and the higher the score the more supportive the manager. This adapted index was named supervisor family support and the Chronbach’s alpha was .84, which indicates a high level of internal consistency for this scale with this sample.
**Level of management.**

Using two questions from the managerial survey, a variable was created to split managers into three groups: ‘top manager or executive’ (3), ‘middle manager’ (2), and ‘entry-level manager’ (1), which were used to determine if leave use and support varied between levels of management. The following two questions were used to code this variable: “What is your job title?” and “In the space provided below, please provide a brief description of your job. In other words, describe what you do.” The top or upper manager category was comprised of those who reported being a board executive, president, vice president, or CEO. Managers were included in the middle manager category if there were a general manager, branch, department, or store manager. Managers who reported being supervisors or section leads were placed in the entry-level management group. In general, entry-level managers were in charge of basic supervision, whereas middle managers were responsible for organizational or division functions and systems (Pavett & Lau, 1983).

**Additional managerial attitudes regarding employee parental leave use.**

Finally, in addition to the variable that identified managers’ overall attitude regarding parental leave use by male employees, a series of attitudinal statements, unique to this research, were posed to the respondents. Participants placed their responses to these statements on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree and were provided with an option to respond not applicable. The statements were as follows:

- Balancing work and family responsibilities is a concern for working fathers.
- A father’s involvement in caring for a newborn is important.
- Taking parental leave can have a negative impact on an employee’s career.
- Fathers who take parental leave are just as committed to their jobs as fathers who do not take leave.
• I am more likely to promote a male employee who has not taken parental leave than one who has.
• If a new father wants to take time off work his best option is to use vacation days (not parental leave).
• I encourage my male employees to take some time off work after the arrival of a child.
• The use of parental leave by male employees is disruptive to my business.

From the above list of questions a 6-item index was creating by performing a factor analysis. Items that were worded negatively were reverse coded so that the higher response is indicative of greater support. This measure assesses managerial support for parental leave use by male employees from a variety of dimensions. This 6-item index included the following questions, which factor loaded onto the same singular concept:

• Fathers who take parental leave are just as committed to their jobs as fathers who do not take leave.
• If a new father wants to take time off work his best option is to use vacation days (not parental leave).
• I am more likely to promote a male employee who has not taken parental leave than one who has.
• A father’s involvement in caring for a newborn is important.
• The use of parental leave by male employees is disruptive to my business.
• Taking parental leave can have a negative impact on an employee’s career.

This index was used as an index total score, with possible scores ranging from 6 to 30. The higher the managers’ score, the more positive responses they reported on the 6 questions in the index. This new index was named Managerial Leave Use Attitudes Index and the Chronbach’s alpha was .70, which indicates a high level of internal consistency for this scale in this sample. This variable was not used in hypothesis testing because the dichotomous
dependent variable assessing overall managerial support for parental leave use performed better in the analyses.

**Organizational context variables.**

**Perceived organizational impact of leave use.**

Both managers and employees were asked the following questions regarding leave use: “Are women who work for your employer able to take time off to recuperate from childbirth without endangering their jobs?” and “Are men who work for your employer able to take time off work when they become fathers without endangering their jobs?” (Voydanoff, 2004, p. 405). Responses were coded ‘yes’ (2) or ‘no’ (1) to both questions. As mentioned earlier, although this study examined the use of parental leave by male employees, these questions helped clarify if the organizational culture saw parental leave as a women’s issue or if the culture was equally positive or negative regarding leave use by either sex.

**Family supportive organizational perception scale.**

The Family Supportive Organizational Perception (FSOP) variable is a 14-item index, and measures employees’ perceptions of organizational support. The internal consistency of this measure is strong (Cronbach’s alpha = .91) (Lapierre et al., 2008). The Chronbach’s alpha for the FSOP scale in this sample was .89. The measure is lead by the following statement, “To what extent do you agree that each of the following statements represents the philosophy or beliefs of your organization? (Remember these are not your personal beliefs- but pertain to what you believe is the philosophy of your organization)” (Lapierre et al., 2008, p. 98). The FSOP scale includes questions such as “Work should be the primary priority in one’s life,” and “It is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life” (Allen, 2001, p. 423). Many items are worded negatively, so these items were
reverse coded so that a higher score reflected the employee’s perception of a more family-friendly organization (Haar & Roche, 2009). For each question, participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale from ‘strongly disagree’ (1) to ‘strongly agree’ (5); therefore, possible scale scores ranged from 14 to 70 and the higher the score, the more supportive the organization.

**Union status.**

Both managers and employees were asked, in your current job, are “you a union member or covered by a union collective agreement?” (Statistics Canada, 2009, p. 9). This question was adapted from the 2008 Employment Insurance Coverage Survey questionnaire and has a dichotomous, ‘yes’ (2) or ‘no’ (1), answer. Though the presence of a union in the organization was identified during the organizational interview, asking this question helped to clarify which employees in unionized environments are covered by a collective agreement. Though organizations are often identified as unionized or not, there were some instances in this sample where some employees in an organization were unionized and some were not; therefore, the personal response, rather than the organizational response, was used in the analyses.

**Preparation for analysis**

In preparation for the analyses, I checked all independent variables for normal distribution by running skewness and kurtosis statistics and multicollinearity was checked by running correlation coefficients and variance inflation factors. Multicollinearity was a concern between several variables: the family supportive organizational perception scale and the work-family conflict scale; weekly work hours and work-family conflict scale; and income with weekly work hours, employment length and age. In cases of multicollinearity I included the variable that was more justified for inclusion based on previous literature or that better explained the variance in the model. For all variables included in the models, tests for
multicollinearity indicated that a very low level of multicollinearity was present for the variables.

It should also be noted that the ratio of observations per variable was in an acceptable range for each model. Though 550 employees and 354 managers participated in this study, the numbers of observations in the OLS and hierarchical logistic regression models were lower than this level due to the variables included in the models. The main reason for the drop in observations was the inclusion of the personal use of parental leave variable, which was only asked of people who had children; therefore, only parents are included in the models. For example, Hypothesis 1.c. explored the influence of personal, employment, and organizational characteristics on employees’ attitudes about parental leave use by male employees and the sample size for this model was 282 out of the 550 possible employee observations. However, this still provides 20.1 cases per variable included in the model, which is acceptable. Due to the fact that more managers had children, the loss was less pronounced in the analysis for Hypothesis 1.b., which explored the influence of managerial characteristics on managers’ attitudes about parental leave use: the sample dropped from a possible 354 to 263 observations, which left a variable to observation ratio of 21.9. Similar observation-to-variable ratios were found for Hypothesis 4 (25.7). However, due to the fact that it includes fewer variables, the model for Hypothesis 3 has the highest variable to observation ratio (91.6) of all the models. The results of the hypotheses testing, using the methods and measures discussed here, follow in Chapter 4.
CHAPTER IV

Results

In this chapter the results of the analysis are presented. I utilized a multi-level design to explore the parental leave use of male employees. The data were collected from seven organizations using three different questionnaires. My goal is to illuminate the interrelationships between corporate culture, managerial attitudes, and employees’ perceptions as they relate to leave use by male employees. In this chapter, the findings are presented in two sections: a description of the sample and hypothesis testing. The intent of this chapter is to provide the results and build the foundation for discussion of the findings in Chapter 5.

Description of Sample

This chapter begins with the description of the organizations, managers and employees in this sample in order to provide the context to allow for a more meaningful interpretation of the results of the hypotheses. The description of the sample was completed using descriptive and bivariate statistics. I conducted significance tests on some bivariate comparisons in order to determine the relationship between key variables or when distributions were similar.

Organizational demographics.

The sample is comprised of a variety of organizations that ranged in size from 511 to 4,500 with an average size of 1,327 employees (Table 2). Using the NAICS Canada (Statistics Canada, 2012), the following industry sectors are represented in the sample: ‘retail’ (3), ‘educational services’ (1), ‘finance and insurance’ (1), ‘public administration’ (1), and ‘informational and cultural services’ (1).

The companies in this sample report having, on average, 40.5 percent female employees and 37.75 percent female management in their organizations (Table 2).
Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Demographic Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Organizations (N =7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational size</td>
<td>1327.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of female employees</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of female managers</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of male employees using parental leave use</td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of female employees using Parental leave use</td>
<td>114.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offer top up for maternity leave</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offer top up for parental leave</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>North American Industry Code</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Retail</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational services</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance and insurance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public administration</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informational and cultural services</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The law enforcement organization is the only organization that is male dominated, reporting that just 15 percent of its employees and 8 percent of its management are women. In contrast, the banking institution is the only female-dominated organization in the sample, though not to the same degree, reporting that 75 percent of its employees and 62 percent of management are women. The rest of the organizations report that between 40 to 51 percent of their employees are female. With the exception of the retail crown corporation, all organizations drop in female representation from employee to management levels.
**Leave usage reported by organizations.**

Organizations were asked to report the number of employees and managers, both male and female, who have used leave over the last year. Those organizations that tracked this information report an average of 38.2 male employees and 114.6 female employees used leave in the past year (Table 2). Two of the organizations, the home hardware retailer and the law enforcement organization, did not track the usage of parental leave by male employees, but did so for female employees. However, male respondents for both these organizations report having used parental leave. Fifty-three male employee respondents (37 percent) at the law enforcement agency and six of the male employee respondents (16.7 percent) at the home hardware retailer report using parental leave. The fact that this administrative information is not tracked or readily available may be indicative of the lack of perceived importance of this information within the organization, especially in light of the fact that women’s usage is tracked. I performed a Chi-square test to compare the relationship between organizations that tracked men’s leave use or not and the leave use by participants, however the relationship was not significant.

It should be noted that organizations were asked to report on the parental leave usage of the previous year, while survey respondents were asked if they had ever used parental leave. This difference explains the fact that the five organizations’ self-reports of leave use are low in comparison to the higher figures provided by respondents. That said, two organizations report no male leave takers in the previous year, and the remaining organizations report male usage of parental leave figures of five, two and one male employee. Women use leave more often than men in every organization. Only two organizations report a manager using maternity or parental
leave, and both of these managers are women, therefore, no male managers in this study used parental leave in the previous year.

**Supplemental policies offered.**

In this sample, three of the seven organizations top up Employment Insurance (EI) payments to 93 percent of the employee’s normal annual salary for 15 weeks of maternity leave (Table 2). Maternity leave is only for mothers’ use and parental leave can shared by either parent, which means fathers only have access to parental leave. Two of these three organizations offering an EI top up are unionized; however, the third organization offering a top up is not unionized and is in the public sector. The public sector tends to be more likely to offer supplemental policies than organizations in the private sector. Interestingly, the non-unionized law enforcement organization is the only organization in the sample to offer a top-up during parental leave. This organization tops up EI payments to 93 percent of their employees’ salary for 52 weeks. Only one employer offers an addition program called family-related leave, but no other additional programs, such as extended leave, were offered by the organizations in this sample.

**Personal characteristic variables.**

**Sex.**

Unlike employee respondents, who are all men, managers in this research are both men or women. Of the managers participating in this study 41.2 percent are women and 58.8 percent are men (Table 3). The ratio of male and female manager participants reflects the percentage of male and female managers in each organization; that is, more male managers participated in the male-dominated organization and more female managers participated in the female-dominated
### Table 3

**Counts and Frequencies for Categorical Model Variables, Managers and Employees**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Characteristics Variables</th>
<th>Managers (n = 354)</th>
<th>Employees (n = 550)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Partner status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>86.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Children</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>81.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependent child</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>51.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>49.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future children</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>87.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultural Identity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>91.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school or less</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some post-secondary</td>
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<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced degree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parental leave support for men</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parental leave support for women</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>347</td>
<td>98.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Access to parental leave</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No access (pre-1990)</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 weeks (1990-2000)</td>
<td>100</td>
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<tr>
<td>35 weeks (2001-present)</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>40.5</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Used Parental leave</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>74.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3 Continues</td>
<td>Managers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal leave</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid vacation</td>
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<td>51.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sick leave</td>
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<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without pay</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason for not taking leave</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not eligible</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impossible</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother Preference</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother- nursing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal preference</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative boss</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Didn’t know</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy didn’t exist</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time off work after children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No time off work</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 week</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 3 weeks</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 to 6 weeks</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 to 10 weeks</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>11 to 20 weeks</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 to 30 weeks</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 to 35 weeks</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment characteristics variables</td>
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<tr>
<td>Management level</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>46.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managed parental leave</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>60.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managed parental leave use by father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>68.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coworker PL use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational context variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career impact of parental leave for men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>92.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
organization. The five other organizations show male managers participating slightly more than female managers with between 50 to 58.3 percent of male managers completing the survey.

**Age, partner, and parental status.**

Eighty-one percent of the managers in this study are parents, 86.1 percent are in a partnership, either married or common-law (Table 3), and their average age is 47.7 years (Table 4). Managers reported having an average of 1.6 children of any age, with an average of 1.2 children who were dependent and living at home (Table 4). Given the average age of the managers and the presence of children, not surprisingly only 13.0 percent of managers report planning to have children in the future (Table 3). The rate for those planning to have children in the future dropped, and in several cases was 0, in organizations where the average age of managers is older.

As expected, employees participating in this study are on average, younger, not as likely to have a partner, have younger children, and expect to have more children in the future than their managerial counterparts. On average, employees are 41.3 years old (Table 4), 72.8 percent had partners, and 58.1 percent report being parents (Table 3). Employees report having an average of 1.2 children and an average of .9 dependent children still living at home (Table 4). As for having children in the future, employees were almost four times as likely to be planning future children than managers, with 40.1 percent stating this intention (Table 3). In Canada, the average age of first time mothers is 28.1 years old (Milan, 2011) and 29.1 years for first time fathers; however, a growing proportion of new fathers are in their mid to late thirties or early forties (Beaupre, Dryburgh, & Wendt, 2010). Since the average age of employees participating in this research is 41 (i.e., six years younger than managers), it makes sense that they would have a higher rate, than managers, of planning to have children in the future (Table 4).
Table 4

Descriptive statistics for continuous variables in analyses, managers and employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Managers ($n = 354$)</th>
<th>Employees ($n = 550$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>47.68</td>
<td>13.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of dependent children</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal income</td>
<td>92,102.60</td>
<td>35,488.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household income</td>
<td>118,192.27</td>
<td>33,888.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managerial leave use attitudes</td>
<td>24.83</td>
<td>4.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>index</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-family conflict</td>
<td>20.65</td>
<td>8.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly work hours</td>
<td>45.61</td>
<td>7.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment length (years)</td>
<td>15.42</td>
<td>10.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived supervisory family</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>support index</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor family support</td>
<td>39.39</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family supportive</td>
<td>51.64</td>
<td>9.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>organization scale</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Cultural identity.**

Twenty-eight managers, but no top-level managers, report being a member of a visible minority group, which represents 8.7 percent of the manager sample (Table 3). The rate for employees reporting being a member of a visible minority group is 16.1 percent, or 83 employees, which is almost twice the percentage for managers. In 2011, 19.1 percent of all Canadians (Statistics Canada, 2013c) and 12.3 percent of Manitobans (Statistics Canada, 2014c) reported being a member of a visible minority group, which indicates that this sample roughly reflects the distribution found in the Canadian population.

The majority of the respondents identify as Caucasian; however, the largest groups of participants selected the following three categories Aboriginal (i.e., North American Indian, Metis & Inuit) (5.8 percent), Filipino (4.2 percent), and Black (1.3 percent). Other ethnicities
and cultures are represented, but not in large numbers. Twenty of the 28 managers (71.4 percent) who did not choose Caucasian chose Aboriginal, which is the largest subgroup in this sample for employees as well. Of the 83 employees who did not choose Caucasian, 29 employees chose Aboriginal (35 percent).

**Education.**

Average level of education varies between managers and employees. Moreover, levels of education also vary by organization, with higher levels of education reported by participants at the post-secondary educational organization and lower levels being reported by the grocery and retail participants. Variations also emerge regarding the educational levels of managers and employees. A higher proportion of managers (13.2 percent), than employees (10.5 percent), report holding a high school degree or less education (Table 3). Forty-eight percent of managers report holding a diploma, certificate, or bachelors degree, which is significantly higher than the 37.9 percent of employees reporting the same level of education ($X^2 = 9.092, df = 1; p > .05$). However, the report of advanced degrees as the highest level of education is the category with the greatest disparity. Thirty-three percent of employees hold advanced degrees compared to only 8.5 percent of managers (Table 3). Putting this in context, the percentage of Canadians pursuing higher levels of education has steadily increased over the last 20 years (HRSDC, 2014). This trend of increasing educational attainment might explain the differential in education between older managers and younger employees seen in this research.

This discrepancy in educational attainment is more apparent in several organizations. For example, in the law enforcement organization 87.9 percent of employee participants report holding a bachelor’s degree or higher while only 55.3 percent of the managers do. In contrast, 12.8 percent of the law enforcement managers hold a high school diploma or less education,
while there are no employees in this group. The same trend emerges in the banking organization, where 47.1 percent of managers and 83.3 percent of employees report holding a bachelors degree or higher level of education. Similarly, at the banking institution, 18.6 percent of the managers and 0 percent of the employees hold a high school degree or less education.

**Personal and household income.**

The participants in this research tend to be in middle to upper income categories. The participating employees’ average annual personal income is $70,075, and their average annual household income is $89,449. As expected, the managers report annual personal and household incomes that are higher than those of employees. Managers’ average annual personal income is $92,101, and their annual household income averages $118,192 (Table 4). These figures are slightly higher than the Canadian averages. In 2011, the average annual salary for Canadian, full-time employed men was $65,700 (Statistics Canada, 2013b). In addition, female managers earn, on average, $62,900 per year and male managers $86,300 per year (Statistics Canada, 2012a). In this sample, female managers report earning an average annual income of $82,089, while their male manager counterparts report an average annual income of $98,843, which are both higher figures than reported Canadian national averages (Statistics Canada, 2013b).

**Support for parental leave.**

Both managers and employees were asked if they supported the use of parental leave by male employees. Eighty-three percent of the managers participating in this study express support for male employees choosing to take leave (Table 3). This level of support is both unexpected and encouraging. I anticipated that older managers who did not have access to parental leave when they had children might be less supportive of parental leave use than those who had access to parental leave. A Chi-square test was performed comparing managers’
support of parental leave to managers’ access or not to parental leave for managers. No significant difference was found in managerial support between those managers who had access and those who did not ($X^2 = .057, \text{df} = 1; p > .05$).

As mentioned earlier, two organizations, the law enforcement and home hardware retail, did not track the parental leave use of male employees, but did so for women. I did not find a significant relationship between an organization’s leave use tracking behaviour and actual leave use, but is there a relationship between tracking behaviour and support? To answer this question I performed a Chi-square test to compare the relationship between organizations that tracked men’s leave use or not and participants’ support for parental leave use by male employees. There is a significant difference in participants’ support for men’s parental leave use between organizations that tracked and did not track leave use ($X^2 = 22.390, \text{df} = 1; p > .000$), with organizations that track reporting more support.

Of the seven organizations in this sample, three are public and four are private. I ran a Chi-square test with the organizations’ public or private status and support for parental leave to further explore this relationship. There is a significant relationship between public and private status and support for parental leave use for male employees ($X^2 = 12.917, \text{df} = 1; p > .000$), with public organizations reporting more support. Interestingly, there was not a significant relationship between public or private status and actual use of parental leave.

The managers from the law enforcement organization are the least supportive of parental leave use by male employees and only 59.4 percent of the law enforcement managers express support for leave use by male employees. It is not surprising that the law enforcement organization also reports the lowest managerial usage of parental leave. This lower level of managerial support in the law enforcement organization could be an indication that male-
dominated organizations tend to be less supportive or that exposure to parental leave use influences support. The managers in the law enforcement organization did report the highest exposure to male employees’ use of parental leave. This could be an indication that experience with, and exposure to, leave use might negatively influence support. Perhaps the law enforcement managers have a more informed opinion regarding the implications of leave use. For example, managers report the inconvenience of leave use to the business, the administrative struggle, and the increased workload that results when organizations choose not to back fill a position while an employee is on leave. It should also be noted that the law enforcement organization is the only male-dominated organization in this study, and this lack of support for use of parental leave may also be a byproduct of the masculine culture in law enforcement work, a culture that might be less likely to support those behaviours that are deemed “women’s work.” In contrast, managers with minimal experience managing leave use by male employees may feel more positively about leave use because they are indicating their opinions hypothetically and not from experience.

Interestingly, employees are slightly less supportive than managers of the leave use by male employees. Seventy-nine percent of employees support leave use by male employees, compared to 83.3 percent of managers (Table 3). However, these rates of reported support are not significantly different for managers and employees ($X^2 = 2.084$, df = 1; $p > .05$). As was the case with managers, the participating employees from the law enforcement organization report the highest personal usage of, and exposure to, coworkers’ usage of parental leave, but also express the lowest level of support for the use of parental leave by male employees (75.2 percent) across all organizations in the sample.
Managers and male employees report much higher levels of support for women’s use of parental leave as compared to men’s. Ninety-eight percent of managers and 98.7 percent of employees supported maternal leave use (Table 3). This response was much more positive than the support for fathers’ parental leave use, it was almost unanimous and there is a significant difference found between levels of support for male and female employees for the sample ($X^2 = 60.355, df = 1; p > .000$). In fact, of the 172 participants who did not support parental leave use by men, 69 (39 percent) did support women’s use of parental leave. This may be an indication that women are expected to use leave and that women are still viewed by society as the primary caregivers of children. Rightly or wrongly, men are still viewed as having discretion over this decision. That said, it is somewhat shocking that 14 participants (7 managers and 7 employees) did not support the use of parental leave by female employees. Despite the availability of the policy, these participants do not support women’s use of leave.

A brief review of the open-ended questions in the surveys was conducted and examples of responses representing different views regarding the use of parental leave by male employees follows. A formal qualitative analysis was not conducted; however, the intention is to explain participants’ feelings and give voice to the different themes of support or non-support of leave use that emerged in the data. One hundred and twenty-seven participants (14 percent) added a negative comment about parental leave use and 263 (29 percent) provided a positive comment. The remainder of participants (514 or 57 percent) chose not to explain their response to the support question with an open-ended comment. Managers accounted for 33 percent of those making negative comments. Moreover, managers and employees seem to like the idea of fathers spending time with their newborns and indicated the importance of bonding with one’s
newborn and the importance of both parents being present to provide care early in a child’s life. For example, one employee says,

I have just completed seven months (approximately) of parental leave. I am a father and a full supporter of the system. It’s very important for an infant to bond with both parents in their earliest months. Regardless of any unexpected consequences of my decision I never regret taking it and will indeed take it again.

Many participants made a statement similar to the following, “it is a wonderful opportunity to bond with your child during their first year of life.”

Those participants who do not support leave use have a variety of explanations for their feelings; however, several common themes emerge: a traditional division of childcare, negative repercussions/experiences with parental leave, and the misuse of parental leave. A traditional view of the roles of mothers and fathers in caregiving was a frequently cited explanation for non-support. For example, one manager says, “Women need to nurture the child. Men shouldn’t have to unless the woman is the one who supports the family.” Another participant stated, “I prefer 35 weeks off for the woman. It is well known that there is a strong relationship between the baby and the mum along the first year of life.” Similarly, “I think only women can support a new born child.” Some state their explicit support for the traditional division of household labour, for example, “I was brought up with the female looking after the house and the male working outside of the home and earning a living for the family.” Some statements diminish men’s ability to parent by stating, “men are generally useless at home” or “men can’t breastfeed.” Finally, one manager says “this is a leftist/socialist scheme, like many leftist/socialist ideas, let other people pay while they sit on their ass. I would love to sit home, finger paint or swan dance and get paid for it.”
Negative experiences with leave use also seem to have a negative impact on support. In some cases, participants express either witnessing or experiencing the negative, professional repercussions of leave use and this has changed their view of leave use overall. For example, “I assume that most men are afraid to affect their careers by taking parental leave. The environment I work in would likely not be as accepting and encouraging to men in taking leave.” One employee speaks from direct experience: “In my experience, my direct supervisor frowned upon my requests. I was told that since her ex-husband did not take time off that I really shouldn’t either.” Punishment upon return is also identified as a possible result of parental leave use; for example, “a male manager working in a nice store in the suburbs, took parental leave, and when he returned was sent to a store in the downtown ‘core’ for no good reason.” An employee from the law enforcement organization also provides an example of this: “One of my male co-workers was denied a promotion because management found out he was going to be taking parental leave.” And another employee states, “I feel taking parental leave myself, I was looked down upon on my return. Some fellow employees and managers felt that it was simply extended time off and only for women.” A final example:

I have observed in two provinces, an attitude where management favours the concept of women taking leave, but male employees who exercise the same right to leave are often subject to punitive, bullying measures. This may be through the denial of courses, promotions, or other opportunities. I have heard “off the record” conversations where a member’s taking parental leave was reason for denying a promotion.

In other cases, employees or managers indicate having witnessed, in their opinion, the misuse of leave and suggest that this has tarnished their view of leave. However, misuse is defined, by some, as a new father taking time off if his wife is at home full-time, which
indicates a bias toward the traditional division of household labour and dismisses the needs of the new mother for support. For example one father writes, “I only believe that a father should be entitled if the other parent works full time. If the mother is a stay-at-home mom then the father should continue working.” However, other reports of misuse seem legitimate, because the reports indicate that some fathers might not be using their parental leave to spend time with their children or perform household tasks. For example, “if the male is going to participate in the child rearing I agree that they should be entitled to the leave, if they are just taking time off as a 9-month paid vacation, as recently observed, with little involvement with the child rearing then it is just an abuse of the benefit.” Or “I know male coworkers who have taken parental leave and spent it fishing, golfing etc. while the spouse stayed home and looked after the children.” Another manager states:

In my opinion, parental leave was started to allow husbands to take some time off work to assist with the newborn, but it is my experience that 95 percent of the males view parental leave as a paid holiday as they typically request the leave over the summer months, which leaves us shorthanded.

It should be noted that the majority of the concerns regarding the misuse of leave are reports by the managers and employees from the law enforcement agency. Several factors may influence the strong feelings regarding the use and misuse of leave within this organization. The usage rates may be higher in the law enforcement organization because the organization tops up the employees’ salaries to 93 percent during parental leave and because the employees face significant risk in their day-to-day work. Secondly, participants from the law enforcement organization could feel more strongly about their coworkers’ or employees’ usage of leave because the organization does not consistently back fill the positions of those on leave, which
has a clear and negative impact on the workload of employees not on leave and the manager in charge. A participant who works for this organization says,

In favour of both woman and men taking leave, but it does put a lot of stress on the remaining employees . . . as the positions are not backfilled. This leaves the remaining employees to take on more work. This can create animosity especially towards men who take the leave.

Understandably, employees are less supportive of leave when its use negatively impacts their workload or work hours. In addition, being shorthanded or understaffed when the nature of the work involves the potential for personal harm, might also heighten feelings of resentment and frustration when absences are prolonged or perceived as ill intended. However, given that just 14% of the sample made negative comments and 29% made positive comments about the use of parental leave by male employees, these comments represent a small proportion of the sample.

**Additional managerial attitudes regarding employee parental leave use.**

A list of statements probing more deeply into the idea of managerial support for leave was created for this research. These questions, which were only asked of managers, also revealed that there is strong managerial support for leave use by male employees in this study. An index called the Managerial Leave Use Attitudes Index was created and the average score on this index for managers was 24.83 out of a possible 30, which indicates strong managerial support for leave use by male employees in this sample (Table 4). Responses to individual questions on the list and in the index follow.

Ninety percent of managers believe that balancing work and family is a concern for working fathers and even more managers agreed that father’s involvement in caring for a newborn is important (95.9 percent). Seventy-nine percent of managers agree and 9.9 percent
disagree that fathers who took leave were just as committed to their jobs as fathers who do not take leave. Of the 34 managers who disagree with the previous commitment statement, 23 are from the law enforcement organization. Six percent (20) of the managers state that they would be more likely to promote a male employee who had not taken leave than one who has, and roughly 80 percent disagree with this statement (the remainder were neutral). A small percentage (6.3) of managers agree with the statement that they encourage employees to take parental leave and 10 percent feel that a new father was better off taking vacation time than using parental leave. Though 79 percent of the managers report that their organization supported leave use by male employees, almost 35 percent (118) of the managers agree with the statement that the use of parental leave is disruptive to my business. Of the 118 managers who perceive parental leave as disruptive, 60 or half are from the law enforcement organization, and the rest are spread relatively evenly across the other six organizations. These results show that there are many managers that support parental leave, despite the fact that they feel it is inconvenient for the business.

**Personal use of parental leave.**

The averages of personal parental leave use for all organizations involved are 23.5 percent for employees and 25.7 percent for managers (Table 3). Managers’ use of parental leave would be expected to be higher than that of employees for two possible reasons. Firstly, managers in this research are both men and women, and women are more frequent users of parental leave. Secondly, managers tend to be older and are more likely to have had children in comparison to employees. Strong managerial gender differences emerge with regard to leave use. Fifty-seven out of 110 female managers (51.8 percent) compared to 16 out of 173 male
Managers (9.2 percent) participating in this study have used parental leave, a statistically significant difference ($X^2 = 63.662, \text{df} = 1; p < .000$).

Managers from the home hardware retailer report the highest average usage of parental leave (41.9 percent), followed by managers from the banking institution (37.1 percent), and the post-secondary institution (33.3 percent). The law enforcement organization has the lowest average parental leave use by managers (12 percent), but also has the highest reported leave use by employees (37.6 percent). When removing the law enforcement employees’ leave use from analysis, the average employee leave use drops to 11.4 percent for the remaining six organizations. This figure is in line with the national average of parental leave usage by fathers outside Quebec, which was 11 percent in 2011 and 9.4 percent in 2012 (Statistics Canada, 2013a).

Personal experience or access to parental leave has been influenced by changes in parental leave legislation over the years. Those without access in this sample are those who report having children before 1990, and 23.0 percent of managers, but only 11.8 percent of employees, fall into this category (Table 3). Comparable proportions of managers had access to ten weeks of leave (36.5 percent) and to thirty-five weeks of leave (40.5 percent); whereas, a higher proportion of employees had access to 35 weeks (63.2 percent), compared to ten weeks (25 percent), which is expected given the employees’ comparative youth.

*Informal leave.*

There were managers and employees who did not use parental leave, but instead took time off after the arrival of their children. These participants report using vacation days, sick leave, time without pay, and other types of policies to spend time with their children. Participants may have chosen to take sick leave or vacation days because they are paid in full
and may not carry the same stigma as parental leave. Fifty-one percent of the managers and 62.3 percent of male employees who did not use parental leave, but still took time off, report using vacation days (Table 3), a finding also made in Beaupre and Cloutier’s (2007) analysis of Canadian data. Not a single manager in this sample reports using sick leave as a means of taking time off; however, 4.9 percent of employees report using this option. Managers report using time off without pay almost twice as often as employees (27 percent and 14.8 percent respectively). On average, managers have higher personal incomes, and perhaps they can more easily manage the loss of income, compared to their male employee counterparts.

In lieu of available vacation time, using unpaid days may be a less controversial choice than filing for parental leave, especially in the case of short leaves. The “other” category is reported more often by managers (21.6 percent) than by employees (17.9 percent) and a variety of situations are reported (Table 3). Some examples of informal leave options utilized are family emergency leave, banked overtime, and allotted family leave. The educational institution is the only organization in this sample to offer family-related leave, which gives their employees five days of paid leave a year to provide care for a family member. Employees are only eligible for the leave if they have completed their professional accreditation and development courses and employees must submit an application to take family-related leave.

Most of the employees in this sample report similar informal leave use options, except the employees from the banking institution, who are dramatically more likely to use vacation as an informal leave option. Ninety percent of the banking employees who took time off, but did not use parental leave report doing so. This result may reflect a cultural norm of using vacation time, instead of parental leave, within the banking organization.
How did informal leave options vary for those with different levels of access to parental leave? Those who had children before 1990 did not have access to parental leave. The majority of these respondents report using paid vacation (48.6 percent), followed by time off without pay (25.7 percent) and other (25.7 percent). The distribution of informal time off is similar for those who had access (either 10 or 35 weeks), but chose to not take parental leave, and respondents reported using vacation time (63.5 percent), then sick leave (3.8 percent), time off without pay (15.4 percent), and finally other (17.3 percent).

**Reasons for not taking parental leave.**

Similar to previous findings (Marshall, 2008; McKay & Doucet, 2010), maternal preference or maternal practicality are the most cited reasons for not taking parental leave for both managers and employees. Twenty-one percent of employees and 26.2 percent of managers report that they did not take leave because their wives wanted to stay home. Over 16 percent of employees and 9.5 percent of managers report it was more practical for the mother to stay home, which is the option that included breastfeeding (Table 3). In other words, the total impact of women’s attitudes and/or preferences on men’s choice not to take parental leave is 37.8 percent for employees and 35.7 percent for managers. Therefore, the mothers’ preference and the attitudes toward the maternal role play a key role in impacting fathers’ leave use, which supports McKay and Doucet’s (2010) findings.

A variety of other reasons are given for not utilizing parental leave. Second to maternal issues, parental leave legislation played a key role in uptake for employees and managers. Almost 30 percent of employees and almost half of the managers (47.6 percent) report the main reason they did not take parental leave was simply because the policy did not exist when they had children (Table 3). It is not surprising that the rate for managers is higher than for
employees, because the managers tend to be older than the employees and were, therefore, more likely to have had children before 1990. Money-related reasons, such as loss of income, are more of an issue for employees (8.3 percent) compared to managers (2.4 percent), which may be partially due to the fact that managers may have more disposable income than employees. Similarly, employees (6.1 percent) are more likely to feel that it was impossible to take time off work, which is reported less than half as often for managers (2.4 percent). Finally, only three employees (1.3 percent), and no managers, claim that they chose not to take leave because of negative attitudes from their boss, but these employees work for three different organizations (Table 3). The relatively small proportion of those who report negative attitudes of their boss as their reason for not using leave may be a reflection of the family-friendly organizations included in this sample.

**Time off work after children.**

Sixteen percent of managers and 32.7 percent of employees report taking no time off after the arrival of their child. Managers’ responses for length of time off were divergent, with roughly 40 percent taking three weeks or less off and 20 percent taking the full 52 weeks off (Table 3). Smaller proportions of managers took a length of time off that fell between those two ends of the spectrum. Female managers represent 97 percent of the managers who used the full year of leave.

The time off taken after the arrival of children is very different for the male employees. Almost 50 percent of the male employees took three weeks or less off, and just 4.9 percent took the full parental leave available (Table 3). One hundred percent and 97.6 percent of male employees from news media outlet and the educational institution, respectively, report taking three weeks or less off after the arrival of their children. Excluding the law enforcement
organization, 90 percent or more of the male employees from the remaining organizations report taking three weeks or less off. In contrast, 11.6 percent of the law enforcement employees report taking between 21 and 35 weeks off after the arrival of their children. Not one male employee from any other organization reports taking 31 to 35 weeks off. Interestingly, managers from every organization report taking 31-35 weeks off (Table 3). However, although this figure includes those who took leave and those who used vacation or time off without pay, roughly 75 percent of participants reporting longer lengths of time off work were on parental leave and receiving EI. The minority who report long lengths of time off work, but did not use parental leave, often report leaving employment all together during that period.

**Work-family conflict and family-work conflict.**

Managers and employees report similarly low average scores of work-family conflict and low scores of family-work conflict. The range of possible scores on both the work-family and family-work conflict scales are from 3 to 35. The average score on the work-family conflict scale for managers is 20.6 and for employees 20.3, which indicates that both managers and employees report relatively low levels of work-family conflict in this sample. The average scores on the family-work conflict scales are much lower and but again similar between managers and employees (11.9 and 12.19, respectively) (Table 4).

**Employment characteristic variables.**

**Weekly work hours and length of employment.**

Managers work an average of 45.6 hours per week and employees work a comparable schedule, reporting 43.8 hours per week (Table 4). Though these averages are closer than expected, the almost 2 hour difference could be attributed to the fact that managers are more likely to be working on salary, while employment hours are often more closely monitored for
employees, especially those who are paid hourly. Male managers’ average weekly work hours (46.9) were slightly higher, and female managers’ average weekly work hours (43.9) were slightly lower the average work hours reported for all managers. In this sample, male managers work, on average, three hours more each week than their female counterparts. In addition, average length of employment for managers across all organizations is 15.4 years. Employees report less than half that figure, with an average of 8.5 years, but this is expected since a time investment with an organization is often necessary to earn a promotion (Table 4).

Management level.

There are three levels of management: top or executive, middle managers and entry level or lower management. Given the smaller proportion of executive or top managers in any given organization, it is expected that fewer top managers than middle and entry level managers would complete the survey. Only 4.6 percent (or 16) of the managers in the sample are top managers, while 49.1 percent are middle managers and 46.3 percent are lower or entry-level managers (Table 3). Women are disproportionately represented in lower or entry-level management, as 59.2 percent of lower managers are women compared to 38.6 percent men. A higher proportion of male managers (55.9 percent) are in middle management than female managers (37.3 percent). A slightly larger percentage of men (5.4 percent) compared to women (3.5 percent) report being a top-level manager.

Just two of the sixteen top managers had utilized parental leave; whereas, almost 21 percent of middle managers and almost 32 percent of entry-level managers had used parental leave. The decreased use parental leave associated with greater seniority could be explained by the age of the top managers and the availability of the benefit when they had children. Executive or top managers are more likely to be older and have older children. As previously
mentioned, changes to parental leave legislation in 2001 lengthened leave, while also providing access to fathers. Therefore, fathers who had children before 2001 did not have the same access that fathers do today. In other words, it less likely for older parents or managers in this sample to have utilized leave, compared to younger, entry-level managers who may have had children more recently.

**Workplace experience with parental leave.**

In general, both managers and employees can be familiar with parental leave in the workplace, by either managing employees taking parental leave or observing coworkers doing so or not. Managers were asked if they had ever managed an employee who took leave and, if so, what percentage of those leave-taking employees were fathers. Sixty percent of managers report having an employee of either sex take parental leave (Table 3). Of those managers who have managed employees’ leave taking, 31.3 percent have managed a male employee who took parental leave (Table 3). However, the proportion of managers managing male employees taking parental leave was highest, 68 percent, in the law enforcement organization and the proportion for the remaining six organizations falls to 21.2 percent when the law enforcement organization is excluded from analysis. The banking institution has the lowest proportion of managers who have managed a male employee taking leave (8.2 percent).

**Coworkers’ use of parental leave.**

Employees were asked if they were aware of any coworker who had taken parental leave, and 53.1 percent of the employee sample report having seen a coworker do so (Table 3). Again, the law enforcement organization rate for observed coworker usage (at 86.8 percent) inflates the average, which drops to 29.1 percent when the law enforcement organization is
excluded. These rates represent a sample of relatively family-friendly organizations and the results may be much lower in less family-friendly organizations.

**Perceived supervisory family support.**

Male employees in this sample report a very positive perception of their managers’ family supportiveness. The average score for male employees on the perceived supervisory family support scale was 35, which is out of a score range from 6 to 42 (Table 4). This finding is likely a result of the relatively family-friendly organizations in this sample.

**Supervisor family support.**

Managers in this sample self-reported their support for their employees’ family needs and the managers reported high levels of support. The average score for managers on the supervisor family support scale was 39, which is out of a score range from 6 to 42 (Table 4). Managers’ average self-report of their family support for their employees was higher than the employees’ average score for perceived family support from their managers. In addition, no statistically significant difference was found between the reported family support of male and female managers.

**Organizational context variables.**

**Career impact of parental leave for men.**

Managers and employees were both asked if a father in their organization could take parental leave without negatively impacting his career. Managers’ answers reflect a greater level of optimism with 92.0 percent saying that men can take leave without fear of negative repercussions (Table 3). However, male employees, though still positive, are less positive than managers, and 82.4 percent report men in their organization can take parental leave without negatively impacting their careers. A Chi-square test is conducted and the difference between
managers’ and employees’ perceptions of the career impact of parental leave use was significant ($X^2 = 16.426, df = 1; p > .000$). In other words, managers are significantly more optimistic about the career impacts of parental leave use.

**Union status.**

Union membership is reported at the individual level, as some organizations are not unionized overall, but had some staff who are represented by a collective agreement. Of the total of 550 employees in this sample, 175 (31.8 percent) report being a union member or being covered by a collective agreement (Table 3). The post-secondary institution and the retail crown corporation are both unionized, and 50 percent and 88 percent, respectively, of respondents employed with these organizations report being covered by a collective agreement.

**Family supportive organizational perception.**

Managers and employees both completed the family supportive organizational perception scale. Managers and employees score their organizations as moderate to highly supportive, though managers’ perceptions of their organizations are slightly more positive than employees’. In this sample, the average scores for managers and employees are 51.64 and 45.78 respectively, out of a possible score ranging from 14 to 70 (Table 4).

**Hypothesis Testing**

Data were entered, coded, and analyzed in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. In order to answer the eight hypotheses in this study, descriptive statistics, several forms of bivariate analysis, a multiple (OLS) regression and three hierarchical logistic regression analyses were conducted. Once the data were entered and cleaned, the data were assessed to ensure they met the assumptions for correlation, multiple and logistic regression analyses.
The assumptions for regression are that the data contain no outliers, no multicollinearity in the independent variables, and that there will be univariate and multivariate normality, linearity and homoscedasticity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Logistic regression analysis also assumes that there will be no outliers and that multicollinearity has been addressed. Missing data were not replaced or estimated for this analysis, given that missing responses were less than 5 percent on any single variable. However, logistic regression analysis does not assume homoscedasticity or a linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables, but does assume linearity between the independent variables and the log odds of the dependent variable (Miles & Shevlin, 2006).

Three hierarchical logistic regression models were estimated; one for each of Hypotheses 1.b., 1.c., and 4. In hierarchical logistic regression analysis variables are entered in multiple blocks in an effort to see how the variables in each block contribute to the explanatory power of the model as a whole and if that contribution is significant. The technique permits a search for the significance of individual variables and how they are affected by the addition of each subsequent block of variables. Appendix I lists the variables and analyses used for each hypothesis. Interaction terms were explored in the models, however none had a significant effect.

**Hypothesis 1.a.: Female managers will be more supportive than male manages of the use of parental leave by male employees.**

Recall that 83.3 percent of all managers, men and women, participating in this study, express support for male employees’ use of parental leave. However, does support for the use of parental leave differ between male and female managers? Hypothesis 1.a. posits that female managers will be more supportive of the use of parental leave by male employees. The data
were analyzed using a chi square goodness of fit test. Almost 79 percent of male managers (161) and 90.1 percent of female managers (128) support the use of parental leave by male employees (Table 5). Female managers are found to be significantly more supportive than male managers ($X^2 (1, N = 7.659) = p < .05$).

Table 5

*Crosstabulation of Managerial Parental Leave Support by Gender*

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<tr>
<th>Parental Leave Support</th>
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</table>

*Note. ** $p < .05.$*

**Hypothesis 1.b.: Managers’ personal characteristics, employment experiences, and organizational context will significantly influence their support of parental leave by male employees.**

The influence of personal characteristics, employment experiences, and organizational context on managers’ support of parental leave use by male employees was tested using hierarchical logistic regression analysis, and variables were entered in three groups: personal characteristics, work characteristics and experiences, and organizational context.

The dependent variable is a dichotomous variable assessing the general attitude of managers toward the use of parental leave. Independent variables included in the first block of the model are control variables: respondent’s sex, age, education, partner status, number of
Table 6
Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analysis of Predictors of Managers’ Support for Parental Leave Use by Male Employees

<table>
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<th></th>
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<td>[0.932, 1.019]</td>
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<tr>
<td>High school are less</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Some secondary</td>
<td>.595</td>
<td>.578</td>
<td>1.812</td>
<td>[0.582, 5.621]</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>.595</td>
<td>1.534</td>
<td>[0.478, 4.922]</td>
<td>.452</td>
<td>.610</td>
<td>1.571</td>
<td>[0.475, 5.195]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education</td>
<td>.340</td>
<td>.551</td>
<td>1.405</td>
<td>[0.477, 4.132]</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>.562</td>
<td>1.163</td>
<td>[0.386, 3.503]</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>.575</td>
<td>1.173</td>
<td>[0.380, 3.619]</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bachelors degree</td>
<td>1.286</td>
<td>.905</td>
<td>3.618</td>
<td>[0.614, 21.321]</td>
<td>1.324</td>
<td>.917</td>
<td>3.759</td>
<td>[0.623, 22.693]</td>
<td>1.912</td>
<td>1.058</td>
<td>6.768</td>
<td>[0.851, 53.807]</td>
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<td>.652</td>
<td>1.301</td>
<td>[0.363, 4.671]</td>
<td>.535</td>
<td>.677</td>
<td>1.708</td>
<td>[0.453, 6.440]</td>
<td>.739</td>
<td>.706</td>
<td>2.093</td>
<td>[0.524, 8.357]</td>
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<tr>
<td>Partner status</td>
<td>-.591</td>
<td>.234</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td>[0.350, 0.877]</td>
<td>-.614</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td>[0.336, 6.440]</td>
<td>-.646</td>
<td>.252</td>
<td>.524</td>
<td>[0.320, 0.859]</td>
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<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
<td>2.029</td>
<td>.789</td>
<td>7.607</td>
<td>[1.6250, 35.7310]</td>
<td>2.120</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td>8.330</td>
<td>[1.665, 41.684]</td>
<td>2.142</td>
<td>.836</td>
<td>8.516</td>
<td>[1.656, 43.805]</td>
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<td>Parental leave use</td>
<td>-.575</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>.563</td>
<td>[0.349, 0.908]</td>
<td>-.586</td>
<td>.260</td>
<td>.557</td>
<td>[0.334, 0.927]</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly work hours</td>
<td>-.714</td>
<td>.389</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>[0.228, 1.050]</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.405</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>[0.230, 1.125]</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managed parental leave</td>
<td>-.714</td>
<td>.389</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>[0.228, 1.050]</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.405</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>[0.230, 1.125]</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Family supportive organization perception scale</td>
<td>-.1893</td>
<td>.968</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>[0.023, 1.004]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>1.056</td>
<td>[1.016, 1.098]</td>
<td>-1.893</td>
<td>.968</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>[0.023, 1.004]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cox &amp; Snell R²</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td></td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>210.275</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>186.081**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2 Log likelihood ratio</td>
<td>210.275</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>186.081**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 263. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.
children, and personal use of parental leave. This block and the model were significant ($p < .000$) and the personal demographic variables explained 10.9 percent of the variance of the model (Table 6). Two variables were significant: total number of children (OR = .554, $p < .05$) and personal use of parental leave (OR = 7.607, $p < .01$) (Table 6). The odds ratios indicate that managers with fewer children are more likely to report support for parental leave use, while those reporting personally using leave are much more likely to report support for leave use.

The second block consisted of two variables relating to the managers’ work characteristics and experiences: weekly work hours and if the manager ever managed a male employee who had taken parental leave. Both the addition of the second block ($p < .01$) and the total model were significant ($p < .001$), and the explanation of variance in the model increased from 10.9 to 15.3 percent (Table 6). The only variable in the second block that was significant was weekly work hours (OR = .563, $p < .05$), which indicated that the more hours a manager reported working per week the less likely the manager was to report support for parental leave. The odds ratio for number of children remained significant, but decreased slightly from .554 to .541 ($p < .05$). The odds ratio for personal use of parental leave remained significant, but increased from 7.607 to 8.330 (OR), which indicated that those who had used parental leave were more likely to report support for parental leave (Table 6).

Finally, the third block included the organizational context variables: the family-friendly organizational perception scale and participants’ union status. The introduction of the third block increased the explanatory power of the entire model from 15.3 to 18.8 percent and both the block ($p < .01$) and the model were significant ($p < .01$) (Table 6). In the third block, participant’s total number of children (OR = .524, $p < .01$), personal use of leave (OR = 8.516, $p < .01$), and weekly work hours (OR = .557, $p < .05$) remained significant once organizational variables were added to
the model (Table 6). The family-friendly organizational perception scale (OR = 1.056, \( p < .01 \)) was significant and indicated that those who reported a positive perception of their organization were slightly more likely to report support. Union status was borderline significant (OR = .151, \( p < .05 \)), but the odds ratio demonstrates that managers in non-unionized environments were less likely to report support for parental leave. Each block added to the model was both significant and increased the explanatory power of the model.

**Hypothesis 1.c.: Male employees’ personal characteristics, employment experiences, and organizational context will significantly influence their attitudes regarding leave use by male employees.**

How personal characteristics and experiences, employment characteristics, and organization context influence male employees’ support for parental leave use by male employees was explored using hierarchical logistic regression analysis.

The same dependent variable as in Hypothesis 1.b., the general attitude toward the use of parental leave was used, which allowed for a parallel to the analysis of managers’ attitudes. Independent variables included in the first block of the model were participant’s age, education, did the respondent have a partner, number of children, cultural identity, and personal use of parental leave. This block and the model were significant (\( p = .005 \)) and the personal demographic variables explained 7.7 percent of the variance of the model. The personal use of parental leave was the only variable that was significant (OR = 4.551, \( p < .01 \)), which indicated that employees that had used parental leave are more likely to report support for leave (Table 7).

The second block included the employees’ work characteristics and experiences. The variables included were weekly work hours, length of employment, the perceived supervisor support scale, and if the respondent had ever observed a coworker take parental leave.
Table 7

Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analysis of Predictors of Employees’ Support for Parental Leave Use by Male Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE(B)</td>
<td>OR</td>
<td>95% CI</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE(B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal Variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.021</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.980</td>
<td>[0.953, 1.007]</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school or less</td>
<td>-.931</td>
<td>.594</td>
<td>.394</td>
<td>[0.123, 1.263]</td>
<td>-.690</td>
<td>.611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors degree</td>
<td>-.456</td>
<td>.568</td>
<td>.634</td>
<td>[0.208, 1.928]</td>
<td>-.188</td>
<td>.591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced degree</td>
<td>-.608</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td>[0.176, 1.689]</td>
<td>-.240</td>
<td>.607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner status</td>
<td>-.757</td>
<td>.524</td>
<td>.469</td>
<td>[0.168, 1.309]</td>
<td>-.673</td>
<td>.535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>1.094</td>
<td>[0.783, 1.529]</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>.175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Identity</td>
<td>-.021</td>
<td>.383</td>
<td>.979</td>
<td>[0.462, 2.075]</td>
<td>-.160</td>
<td>.399</td>
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<td><strong>Employment Variables</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly work hours</td>
<td>-.372</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td>.690*</td>
<td>[0.503, 0.946]</td>
<td>-.323</td>
<td>.165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment length</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>.192</td>
<td>1.205</td>
<td>[0.826, 1.756]</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>.197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coworker parental leave use</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.338</td>
<td>1.113</td>
<td>[0.574, 2.160]</td>
<td>.206</td>
<td>.348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisory family support</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>1.002</td>
<td>[0.966, 1.040]</td>
<td>-.008</td>
<td>.021</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Organizational Variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family supportive organization perception scale</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>1.016</td>
<td>[0.985, 1.049]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union status</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td>1.668</td>
<td>1.668</td>
<td>[.777, 3.581]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Constant</strong></td>
<td>4.137</td>
<td>2.552</td>
<td>62.609</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.693</td>
<td>2.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cox &amp; Snell R²</td>
<td>.077</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.098</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2 Log likelihood ratio</td>
<td>281.001 **</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>274.830*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 282. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.
While controlling for the influence of the demographic variables, the second block was not significant ($p = .187$). However, the entire model remained significant ($p < .005$) and the explanation of variance in the model increased from 7.7 to 9.8 percent. Only one variable added in the second block was significant: weekly work hours (OR = .690, $p < .05$), again this odds ratio indicated that the more weekly work hours an employee reported the less likely they were to report support for leave use (Table 7). The addition of the second block slightly decreased the odds ratio for personal use of parental leave (OR = 4.178, $p < .05$), and age became significant (OR = .970, $p < .05$) (Table 7).

Finally, the third block included organizational context variables: the family-friendly organizational perception scale and union status. The introduction of the third block increased the explanatory power of the model from 9.8 to 10.8 percent (Table 7) and, while the overall model remained significant ($p < .01$), the third block was not found to be significant ($p = .218$). Three variables were significant in the final model. Age (OR = .964, $p < .05$), personal use of leave (OR = 4.649, $p < .01$), and weekly work hours (OR = .724, $p < .05$); all had significant odds ratios.

**Hypothesis 2.a.: Male employees will perceive their managers as supportive of parental leave use.**

Since the perception that their manager is unsupportive can inhibit parental leave use by male employees, it was important to assess employees’ perceptions of their managers’ supportiveness. A frequency was run on the perceived supervisor family support scale. The variable has a possible total score ranging from 6 (i.e., choosing strongly disagree on all 6 items) to 42 (i.e., choosing strongly agree on all 6 items). Those falling at the low end (total scores 6-18) were participants who felt their manager was not supportive of their family lives, and these participants represent 5.2 percent of the sample of male employees. Those participants who agree
slightly, moderately, and strongly with all of the statements of supervisor support scored between 30 and 42, which represents 82.4 percent of the male employees in this sample (Table 8). Therefore, the majority of the male employees in this sample perceive their managers as supportive of their family needs.

Table 8

Univariate Descriptive Statistics for the Perceived Supervisory Family Support Scale for Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Skew</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PSFS Scale</td>
<td>546</td>
<td>35.09</td>
<td>7.676</td>
<td>6 - 42</td>
<td>-1.614</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Hypothesis 2.b.: Male employees will perceive their managers’ attitudes regarding family support as matching the family supportiveness of the organization.**

The research reviewed found that managers’ attitudes and the corporate culture are embedded within one another but are not always in agreement (Perez et al., 2003; Thompson et al., 1999). This hypothesis states that male employees will perceive their managers’ attitudes regarding family support as matching the family supportiveness of the organizational culture. Therefore, male employees’ perceptions of supervisory family support and family supportive organizational support was tested with a Pearson product-moment correlation. There was a strong, significant, and positive correlation between employees’ perceptions of the family supportiveness of their manager and their organization \((r = .458, n = 528, p < .001)\), indicating that increases in perceived supportiveness of one’s supervisor are correlated with increases in the perception of supportiveness of one’s organization. This finding supports the assumption that employees often view their managers as representatives of the organization as a whole.
Hypothesis 2.c.: Managers’ perception of their organizations family-supportiveness will be 
more positive than employees’ perception of their organizations.

Research has found that there can often be a significant discrepancy between managers’ 
assessments and employees’ perceptions of their organization’s family-friendliness. Did managers 
perceive their organization more positively than the employees in this sample? An independent 
samples t-test was used to determine if there is a significant difference between managers’ and 
employees’ mean scores on the family supportive organization perception scale. Since the 
standard deviations on family supportive organization perception were similar for managers and 
employees (9.5 and 11.1, respectively) the “equal variances assumed” test was used. The results 
show that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean score for managers and 
employees (t = -8.033, p < .000) (Table 9). Managers have a statistically significantly higher 
mean score (51.6) on the family supportive organization perception scale compared to employees 
(45.7); thus, managers see their employers significantly more positively than do employees when 
it comes to family friendliness.

This difference may be explained by social identity theory’s concept of common normative 
belief, which indicates that the more entrenched one is within group membership, the more 
invested one is in maintaining group status; therefore, managers may be more invested than 
employees in their organization’s image. The common normative belief would suggest that 
members of a group feel that their group is better than other groups and will highly rank their own 
group in order to maintain a positive group-level perception, which in turn elevates the 
individual’s positive personal self-image (Taggar & MacDonald, 2007).
Table 9.

*Family Supportive Organizational Perception (FSOP) Scale Means for Employees & Managers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th>Managers</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FSOP Scale</td>
<td>45.78</td>
<td>51.64</td>
<td>-8.033*</td>
<td>870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n = 529)</td>
<td>(n = 343)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means.

**Hypothesis 3:** A male employee’s personal, employment, and organizational context characteristics will have a significant influence on his perception of his manager’s family supportiveness.

The influence of male employees’ personal characteristics on their perception of their managers’ family supportiveness was tested using multiple (OLS) regression analysis. The independent variables in this model explain 24.6 percent of the variance ($R^2$ adjusted = .246, $p < .001$) (Table 10), and two independent variables are significantly associated with perceived managerial family friendliness. Perceived impact of parental leave use is significantly associated with perceived managerial support ($B = 3.315, p < .001$). This coefficient indicates that when male employees report that men in their organization can take parental leave without suffering negative impacts on their career, their report of perceived managerial family support increases. The Family Supportive Organization Perception index is also significantly associated with perceived managerial support ($B = .277, p < .001$) (Table 10). Here, as a male employee’s perception of organizational family support increases, so does his perception of his manager’s family supportiveness, holding all other independent variables constant.
Table 10

*Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictors of Employees’ Perceived Supervisory Family Support*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE (B)</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td><strong>Personal variables</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.018</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>-.030</td>
<td>-719</td>
<td>.472</td>
<td>[-0.068, 0.032]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner status</td>
<td>1.272</td>
<td>.732</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>1.738</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>[-0.166, 2.709]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>2.600</td>
<td>.0095</td>
<td>[-0.470, 2.709]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly work hours</td>
<td>-.353</td>
<td>.294</td>
<td>-.049</td>
<td>-1.200</td>
<td>.231</td>
<td>[-0.931, 0.225]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of leave use</td>
<td>3.315***</td>
<td>.823</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td>4.027</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>[1.698, 4.932]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organizational variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FSOP scale</td>
<td>.277***</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.409</td>
<td>9.601</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>[0.221, 0.334]</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>.246</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>28.447***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: N = 550. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.*

**Hypothesis 4: Male employees’ personal characteristics, employment experiences, and organizational context will significantly impact leave use by male employees.**

The influence of personal characteristics, employment characteristics – including managerial support – and organizational context on the use of parental leave by male employees was tested using hierarchical logistic regression analysis. This model includes three levels: personal characteristics, employment characteristics, and organizational context. The dependent variable is a dichotomous variable, which measured whether the male employee had ever used parental leave.

For this analysis, the sample was restricted to male employees who had access to parental leave (of any length) when their children were born; therefore, 38 fathers who had children before 1990, before parental leave legislation was implemented, were removed from the analysis. In
order to truly understand what influences the choice to use leave, it was necessary to remove people who had not used leave due to lack of access, rather than due to preference. In addition, fathers who took time off, but did not utilize parental leave were not included in this analysis, because the hypothesis is focused on identifying factors that influence the use of the policy and not simply taking time off. Therefore, the sample \( n = 283 \) for this analysis includes male employees whose children were born either between 1990-2000 (i.e., access to 10 weeks of parental leave) or born between 2001-present (i.e., access to 35 weeks of parental leave) (Table 11).

Independent variables included in the first block of the model were respondent’s age, three educational attainment dummy variables number of children, the participant’s personal attitude toward the use of parental leave, and a dummy variable for 10 weeks of parental leave access (35-week leave access as comparison group). This block and the model were significant \( (p < .001) \) and the personal characteristic variables explained 21.8 percent of the variance of the model. Four variables in the first block had significant odds ratios: age \( \text{OR} = .918, p < .001 \) ), holding an advanced degree compared to those with a high school degree or less \( \text{OR} = 7.634, p < .05) \), personal attitude about leave use \( \text{OR} = 3.064, p < .05) \), and access to a 10-week parental leave \( \text{OR} = .162, p < .05 \) (Table 11). These odds ratios indicate that younger employees were more likely to have used leave than older male employees. Those who had access to a 10-week leave, compared to a 35-week leave, were less likely to report leave use.

The second block entered consisted of two employee work characteristics: if the male employee had ever observed a coworker utilize parental leave and the perceived supervisor support scale. The second block was significant and the overall model continued to be significant \( (p < .05) \) (Table 11). With the addition of the second block of variables the explanation of variance
Table 11
Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analysis of Predictors of Male Employees’ Leave Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Variables</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE(B)</td>
<td>OR</td>
<td>95% CI</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE(B)</td>
<td>OR</td>
<td>95% CI</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE(B)</td>
<td>OR</td>
<td>95% CI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.085</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.918***</td>
<td>[0.881, 0.958]</td>
<td>-.080</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.923**</td>
<td>[0.885, 0.964]</td>
<td>-.075</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.927**</td>
<td>[0.886, 0.970]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school or less</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some secondary education</td>
<td>1.406</td>
<td>.988</td>
<td>4.078</td>
<td>[0.588, 28.297]</td>
<td>1.133</td>
<td>1.052</td>
<td>3.106</td>
<td>[0.395, 24.404]</td>
<td>1.001</td>
<td>1.065</td>
<td>2.720</td>
<td>[0.337, 21.943]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors degree</td>
<td>1.489</td>
<td>.949</td>
<td>4.435</td>
<td>[0.690, 28.490]</td>
<td>1.100</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>3.005</td>
<td>[0.413, 21.882]</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.030</td>
<td>2.718</td>
<td>[0.361, 20.484]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced degree</td>
<td>2.033</td>
<td>.937</td>
<td>7.634*</td>
<td>[1.217, 47.890]</td>
<td>1.621</td>
<td>1.008</td>
<td>5.056</td>
<td>[0.702, 36.440]</td>
<td>1.605</td>
<td>1.034</td>
<td>4.980</td>
<td>[0.656, 37.784]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
<td>.359</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>1.433</td>
<td>[0.994, 2.064]</td>
<td>.330</td>
<td>.191</td>
<td>1.392</td>
<td>[0.958, 2.022]</td>
<td>.325</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>1.384</td>
<td>[0.944, 2.031]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to 10-week leave</td>
<td>-1.822</td>
<td>.777</td>
<td>.162*</td>
<td>[0.035, 0.741]</td>
<td>-1.823</td>
<td>.778</td>
<td>.161*</td>
<td>[0.035, 0.742]</td>
<td>-1.765</td>
<td>.781</td>
<td>.171*</td>
<td>[0.037, 0.790]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Employment Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coworker Parental leave use</td>
<td>.984</td>
<td>.392</td>
<td>2.675*</td>
<td>[1.240, 5.770]</td>
<td>.816</td>
<td>.407</td>
<td>2.261*</td>
<td>[1.018, 5.021]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisory family support</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>1.023</td>
<td>[0.981, 1.066]</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>1.045</td>
<td>[0.998, 1.095]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Organizational Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FSOP scale</td>
<td>-5.009</td>
<td>3.856</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>-6.273</td>
<td>4.203</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>-5.201</td>
<td>4.388</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union status</td>
<td>- .042</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.959*</td>
<td>[0.928, .991]</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td>.514</td>
<td>1.135</td>
<td>[.415, 3.105]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-5.009</td>
<td>3.856</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>-6.273</td>
<td>4.203</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>-5.201</td>
<td>4.388</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                      | Cox & Snell R²           | .218     |          |          | .238         |          |          |          | .255                     |          |          |          |
| -2 Log likelihood ratio | 242.472***             |          |          |          | 235.163*     |          |          |          | 228.732*                 |          |          |          |

Note. N = 283. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.
in the model increased from 21.8 to 23.8 percent. In the second block, age, participant’s personal attitude toward the use of parental leave, and access to a 10-week leave continued to be significant, but holding an advanced degree was no longer significant once the employment level variables were added to the model. One work characteristic, observing a coworker use parental leave, added in the second block was significant (OR = 2.675, p < .05) and indicated that those who had seen a coworker use parental leave were more likely to use parental leave.

Finally, the third block consisted of two organizational context variables: the family-friendly organizational perception scale and union status. The introduction of the third block increased the explanatory power of the model from 23.8 to 25.5 percent. The third block and the overall model continued to be significant (p < .05) (Table 11). One variable from the third block, family supportive organizational perception, was significant. Overall, five variables were significant in the final model. First, respondent’s age (OR = .927, p < .001), which indicated that slightly younger employees were more likely to report use. Second, employees with a positive personal attitude about parental leave (OR = 3.564, p < .01) were more likely to report parental leave use. Third, those employees who only reported access to 10 weeks of leave (OR = .171, p < .05) were less likely to report leave use, compared to those employees with 35-weeks of access. Fourth, employees who had observed a coworker’s leave use (OR = 2.261, p < .05) were more likely to report leave use themselves. Finally, those employees who perceived a lack of organizational family support (OR = .959, p < .05) were slightly less likely to use parental leave (Table 11). The 11 variables included in the model explained 25.5 percent of the variance in the dependent variable of parental leave use by male employees.
Summary

In this chapter I have described the sample at the organizational, managerial, and employee level and reviewed the results for each of the eight hypotheses. Overall the sample included male and female managers and male employees from seven large Manitoba employers to explore the influence of corporate culture, managerial attitudes, and employees’ perception influenced parental leave use. Female managers are significantly more supportive than male managers. Employees in this sample report that their managers are family supportive, and employees report that their managers and their organizations are significantly correlated. Both managers and employees report that their organizations are family-supportive, but managers’ perception of support is significantly more positive than employees. Personal characteristics are more likely than employment or organizational context variables to influence male employees support for the use of parental leave by male employees. Managers’ support for parental leave use by male employees is influenced by variables at every level of analysis, such as number of children, personal use of parental leave, weekly work hours, family supportive organizational perception, and union status. Employees who report that their supervisors are family-supportive also report that their organizations are family-supportive and that there are no negative career implications for male employees who take parental leave in their organization. Finally, age, personal attitudes about parental leave, leave length, observing a coworker taking leave, and the perception of organizational family-friendliness significantly influence leave use in male employees in this sample.
CHAPTER V

Discussion and Conclusion

In this chapter, I summarize and discuss the results of this research. In order to interpret the findings, I explore the results in relation to role theory, social identity theory, and the body of related literature. I discuss the implications of the findings on policy development and make suggestions for future research. Finally, I outline both the contribution and the limitations of this research.

Summary

The goal of this study is to better understand the workplace factors that influence male employees’ decision to take parental leave in Canada. The role of organizational culture, managerial attitudes, and employees’ perceptions of the support of the use of parental leave by male employees is explored using a multilevel approach. The benefits of early father engagement for fathers, infants, and long-term gender equality are clear, and parental leave policy is in place (Allen & Daly, 2002; Ball & Daly, 2012), but why are more fathers not taking parental leave? The research was guided by the following specific questions: How supportive are managers of male employees using parental leave? What are the characteristics of managers who approve or disapprove of the use of parental leave by male employees? Do a manager’s personal characteristics impact his or her perception of the use of leave by male employees? Do managers’ attitudes reflect both the corporate culture and the policies offered by their employers? Do male employees perceive managers as supportive of parental leave use by male employees? Are male employees’ perceptions of managers’ attitudes accurate? Do a male employee’s personal characteristics impact his perception of his manager’s attitudes? How does the perception of managerial attitudes impact the use of parental leave by male employees?
Sampling and methods.

In 2012, I recruited seven large Manitoba employers for participation in this research. The total sample of 904 participants included 354 male and female managers and 550 male employees. The multi-level approach involved the completion of a questionnaire at the organizational level and two self-administered questionnaires: one for managers and one for male employees. Through the recruitment process, I learned that organizations were quite concerned about raising the issue of parental leave use by male employees with their unions or drawing attention to a potentially latent issue. Organizations were more likely to participate if they explicitly supported their employees holistically, were concerned about the work-family issues of their employees, and if they valued the feedback that the participation would provide.

The hypotheses were investigated using a variety of statistical techniques, including descriptive statistics, bivariate tests, multiple regression analysis and several hierarchical logistic regression analyses. Four key models are explored. The first two models, one for managers and one for employees, assess the influence of personal and employment characteristics and organizational context on the support for parental leave use by male employees and are tested using hierarchical logistic regression analysis. In the third model, the influence of employees’ personal and employment characteristics and organizational context on the perception of supervisor family support are explored using OLS regression analysis. Finally, the impact of employees’ personal and employment characteristics, and organizational context on their use of parental leave is tested using a hierarchical logistic regression model.

Descriptive results.

Organizations in this sample are all located in Manitoba. The organizations vary in size from 511 to 4,500 employees and represent a variety of industries. One organization in the sample
is male-dominated, another is female-dominated, and the remaining five report a fairly even distribution of gender. Three of the organizations in this sample are public and four are private and there is a significant relationship between an organization’s public/private status and reported support for parental leave use. In addition, roughly a third of the employees report either being in a union or being covered by a collective agreement. Though all of the seven organizations are considerably family-friendly, only three top up Employment Insurance (EI) payments during maternity leave and just one organization tops up EI payments for parental leave. Not surprisingly, the highest rate of parental leave use is by employees from those organizations that top up EI benefits. Other than the educational institution offering a 5-day family related leave, there are no other supplemental policies, such as extended leave, offered.

Overall, the managers and employees in the sample are well educated and high earning, reflecting the types of organizations sampled. The majority of both managers and employees are married or in common law relationships, though more managers than employees have children. In contrast, more employees than managers plan to have children in the future. Managers have been with their organizations for an average of fifteen years, which is twice as long as employees’ tenure, but both groups work roughly the same number of hours per week. Participants who identify as being a member of a visible minority group represent roughly 15 percent of the sample; the percentage is slightly higher for employees than managers.

Support for the use of parental leave by male employees.

Managers are more supportive than are employees of parental leave use by male employees and female managers are significantly more supportive than male managers. Support for leave use by male employees is lowest for both managers and employees in the male-dominated law enforcement organization, but paradoxically the law enforcement organization is
also the only organization to offer the top up for EI and which has the highest uptake of parental leave by employees. In addition, there are strong indications from the responses to the open-ended questions that the dissatisfaction with male employees’ parental leave use has a great deal to do with the organization’s tendency not to replace employees who are on leave. This practice leaves the remaining employees and managers over-burdened and exposed to more risk in their jobs, which in turn can build resentment among peers. Based on this finding it is recommended that the law enforcement organization reconsider the practice of not back filling leaves, as it appears to hurt morale and negatively impact support for parental leave use by male employees. Moreover, the fact that managers and employees in this organization have higher exposure to parental leave leads one to wonder if this exposure is influencing the level of support or if it is the masculine organizational culture that drives the lack of support for activities that might be deemed feminine and less valued (Berdahl & Moon, 2013). In addition, the law enforcement organization was one of the two organizations that did not track parental leave use by male employees, and there is a significant relationship between this information tracking behaviour and support for parental leave. This finding perhaps is another indication that parental leave use is not considered important or conscientiously managed within this organization.

Both managers and employees were asked if they support the use of leave by female employees, and the support is almost unanimous (98.0 and 98.7 percent, for managers and employees respectively) – strikingly higher than the support shown for men (83.3 percent and 79.4 percent, respectively). There is a 14.7 percentage point difference between managers’ support for women’s and men’s leave use and a 19.3 percentage point difference between employees’ support for women’s and men’s parental leave use. In fact, of the 172 participants who are not supportive of men’s leave use, almost 40 percent support women’s use of leave, which shows that these
participants feel parental leave use is acceptable for women, but not for men. This is a strong indication that for these participants, women are still generally expected to use parental leave; in contrast, support for men is more mixed, perhaps because parental leave use by fathers is neither assumed nor expected. This supports pervious findings, which indicate that parental leave is still seen as maternity leave and that women are still considered to be the primary caregivers (Malin, 2003; McKay et al., 2012; Thompson et al., 2006).

*Use of parental leave.*

In terms of parental leave use, roughly one in four managers and a similar ratio of employees report having used parental leave, with employees reporting a slightly higher leave use rate than the managers in this study. This is to be expected due to the fact that employees are younger and more likely to have had access to parental leave or have had their children since 1990 when the policy changed to allow parental leave access for fathers.

There is a significant difference between the leave use of male and female managers with 9.2 percent of male managers and 51.8 percent of female managers reporting parental leave use. Thus, there is a 42.6 percentage point difference between male and female managers’ parental leave use, which supports the general assumption that women are the most common users of parental leave (Findlay & Kohen, 2012). The highest usage of parental leave is in the male-dominated law enforcement organization, a finding counter to previous research that has found that men were less likely to use parental leave if employed in a male-dominated organization (Swody & Powell, 2007); however, this higher report of usage is presumed to be due to the availability of a top up in this organization. Access to an EI top up or wage replacement is correlated with higher rates of parental leave usage, with respondents with top up access from the law enforcement organization reporting a 25 percentage point difference in parental leave use compared to other male employees.
in the sample. This result supports previous findings that higher wage replacements increase policy usage (McKay, et al., 2012). This result shows that even in male-dominated organizations, men’s rate of leave-taking can be increased by access to an EI top up, as supplementary pay reduces the negative economic repercussions of leave use for men (McKay et al., 2012). For example, more fathers in Quebec utilized leave when wage replacements increased and a portion of leave became non-transferable (Marshall, 2008). Simply offering parental leave is not enough: supporting fathers’ usage of leave requires removing potential barriers such as income loss.

Overall, the time participants report taking off work after the arrival of a child is relatively short. Forty percent of managers report taking three weeks or less and 20 percent report 52 weeks, though female managers account for almost all the managers taking the full year. In comparison, 50 percent of the male employees took three weeks or less off work and less than 5 percent took the full parental leave available to them. Interestingly, the bulk of male employees taking the maximum time off were employees of the law enforcement organization who received EI wage replacement from their employer. This finding shows that offering wage replacement increases both uptake as well as length of leave taken by fathers. However, 16 percent of managers and 32 percent of employees report taking no time off work after the arrival of their child.

Those who took time off, but did not use parental leave, report a variety of types of informal leave. For example, time off without pay was an informal leave choice for 27 percent of the managers and 14.8 percent of the employees in this sample. However, 50 percent of managers and 60 percent of employees report using vacation days in lieu of parental leave, to take time off after the arrival of their children, which was by far the most common type of informal leave and supports previous findings (Seward et al., 2006; Thompson et al., 2006). Though vacation is subject to managerial approval, it is paid in full and reduces the loss of income associated with
parental leave use. In addition, taking vacation days is not associated with the stigma that is
associated with parental leave, especially in organizations with limited family support. Vacation
time, or unpaid leave in lieu of available vacation, may be viewed as an easier route to take time
off, especially in cases of short leaves of a day or two. Managers and employees may avoid the
stigma of taking leave by not requesting leave formally, if their intention is to only take a short
leave, because the potential benefits of a parental leave of only a few days may be outweighed by
potentially negative consequences. Managers and employees may actually associate the formal
requesting of leave as being justified only in cases of significantly longer leaves of months rather
than days. In other words, role theory would suggest that using vacation is a way to take time off,
while still adhering to the social norms within the organization and avoiding possible
repercussions. Moreover, if vacation time has been exhausted, managers may have the disposable
income to financially handle a couple of days off work without pay to stay home with a newborn,
and this option may be easier than the administrative hassle of filing paperwork, just to receive 55
percent of their pay for a couple of days.

Reasons for not taking parental leave.

What reasons did participants give for not taking parental leave? The findings from this
sample support the findings of previous research (McKay & Doucet, 2010; McKay et al., 2012).
One major reason participants did not use parental leave was due to maternal preference and the
fact that it was more practical for the mother to stay home (e.g., breastfeeding). Roughly 1 in 4
managers and 1 in 5 employees report maternal preference as the main reason for not taking
parental leave. Roughly 10 percent of managers and 16 percent of employees claim that it was
more practical for the mother to stay home, for reasons such as breastfeeding.
I broke this maternal preference response used by Statistics Canada (2009) into the two options of maternal preference and the practicality of mothers staying home due to breastfeeding, in hopes of extending the findings of McKay & and Doucet’s (2010) qualitative study. However, the second question was still double-barreled and interpreting the results of this selection are challenging. Did respondent select this option because it was simply more practical or because breastfeeding was a major driver of their choice not to use leave? If the respondents’ choice was based on the practicality of the mother staying home, possible explanations include wife’s career stage, her less demanding career, her possible access to a top up, her access to support, or strategically selecting the choice that would minimize income loss for the family. Practicality might be interpreted as making a more financially savvy choice for the family’s economic health by the mother taking leave, or participants might have chosen the “money issues” choice for this reason. It should be clear that none of these possible explanations specifically relate to breastfeeding, which is why interpretation of this choice is difficult. In contrast, women’s exclusive ability to breastfeed, the potential health benefits of doing so, and the commitment of many parents, both fathers and mothers, to choose this feeding option for their children may certainly play a key role in the decision making around fathers’ leave. Future research should assessing specifically the role of breastfeeding in the decision making of father’s to truly extend McKay & and Doucet’s (2010) work.

A variety of other reasons are given by participants for not using parental leave. Almost half of the managers and a third of employees did not use leave simply because parental leave was not available when they had children. The Parental Benefits Program was introduced in 1990 and offered access to parental leave to both mothers and fathers; however, fathers who had children before 1990 had no access to parental leave.
Not taking leave due to negative attitudes from their boss is an explanation that only three participants, all employees, offer to explain why they did not take a leave. In this instance, it is the relative rarity of this selection that is noteworthy. Given the family-friendliness of the organizations included in this sample, the absence of supervisor negativity is understandably more likely than it would be in a sample that included less family-friendly organizations. However, given previous work on the influence of supervisor support on policy utilization (McKay et al., 2012; Yeandle et al., 2003), one would expect it to be reported by more than 1.3 percent of the employees in this sample. I assume that in a more representative sample of organizations, there would be more variance in the supervisor negativity question, and other variables too, because in less family-friendly organizations managers may be less supportive of work-family demands.

**Hypotheses Results.**

**Factors that influence support for parental leave.**

The results of the Chi-square test of significance revealed that female managers are significantly more supportive than male managers of the use of parental leave by male employees; however, sex did not emerge as a personal characteristic that predicted support for parental leave in the hierarchical logistic regression model for managers. Managers’ personal characteristics that influence support are the number of children they have and personal use of parental leave. Managers’ weekly work hours are the only significant employment characteristic that predicts support for leave. Both organizational context variables, the family supportive organizational perception scale is a significant predictor of managers’ support for parental leave. Those who rate their organization as supportive of family are more likely to be supportive of parental leave use for men. Finally, union status was borderline significant ($p < .50$), and the odds ratio indicates that if managers did not report being unionized there was an 85 decrease in the likelihood of reporting
support for parental leave. Though this finding was not significant, the fact that the odds ratio was of borderline significance certainly warrants future research into the role unions might play in both support for and usage of parental leave.

In previous research, managerial support for the use of family-friendly policies such as parental leave has been found to be influenced by sex, personal experience of policy usage, age, parental status and personal attitudes (Barham et al., 2001; Perez et al., 2003; Secret, 2000; Thompson et al., 2006). Though sex, age, and having managed a father using leave before are not found to be significant influences of parental leave support for men in this sample, number of children and personal use of leave by the manager are significant influences on support, results which support previous literature (Parker & Allen, 2001; Perez et al. 2003).

The odds ratio indicates that for every one-unit increase in the number of children a manager has, all other variables held constant, there is a 47.3 percent decrease in the likelihood of the report of support parental leave by male employees. There are a number of possible explanations: managers with more children are older or those with larger families may hold more traditional gender role ideologies. For every one-hour increase in reported weekly work hours a manager works there is a 44.3 percent decrease in the likelihood of the report of support for parental leave use, indicating that the longer a manger’s work hours are, the less likely the manager is to support leave use by male employees. Union status is borderline significant, but indicates that those who are not unionized are 85 percent less likely to report support for parental leave by male employees. This finding suggests that in unionized environments there may be more support for leave use and, therefore, increasing opportunity for leave use for male employees. In contrast, managers who have personally used parental leave are more than eight times as likely to report support for parental leave.
The direction of the relationship between personal leave use and support for parental leave use by male employees is in question. It could be that managers who are generally supportive of the concept of parental leave are more likely to use parental leave, but it could also be that once a manager uses parental leave, he or she is more positive and supportive of the idea. Given that this research is cross-sectional, I am unable to specify the direction of this result. However, either way this large odds ratio (8.516) shows that personal experience with leave use is related to managerial support for parental leave policy use. This result strongly suggests that organizations that take a top-down approach and encourage their managers to personally use parental leave, may create a more supportive culture surrounding leave, while possibly bolstering managerial support. As per role theory, organizational norms are created by actions and attitudes, both formal and informal, from those within the organization. An employee who observes a manager utilizing parental leave will likely interpret his or her behaviour as an endorsement of parental leave use, and the employee may feel leave use is acceptable within the organization. In effect, the manager is modeling the behaviour, and the employee is learning what is acceptable through observation, which is also an example of social learning theory (Ciccarelli, White, Fritzley, & Harrigan, 2013). Organizations who are interesting in investing in the work-family balance of their employees should consider providing training or information sessions to both managers and employees that inform them of the parental leave policy and discussing examples of its successful usage. The results of this model are particularly important because most of the studies that address managerial support for work-life initiatives or family-friendly policies do not specifically investigate attitudes toward parental leave (Ball & Daly, 2012; Daly et al., 2008). This research contributes to our understanding of how these personal characteristics influence managerial support of parental leave in the Canadian context, which has been scant in the literature.
What personal and employment characteristics and organizational context variables influence support for parental leave use for employees? Age, personal use of parental leave, and weekly work hours are significantly associated with employees’ support of parental leave use by fathers. For every one-unit increase in years of age, holding all other variables constant, there is a 4 percent decrease in the report of support for the use of parental leave by male employees; therefore, older managers are somewhat less likely to report support for parental leave use. Employees who had personally used parental leave are more than four and a half times as likely to be supportive of parental leave use by male employees. Weekly work hours prove to be a significant influence on employees’ support for parental leave. For every one-unit increase in hours, holding all other variables constant, there is a 30 percent decrease in the report of support paternal parental leave use. No organizational variables and only one employment characteristic significantly influences employees’ support, a finding similar to that for managers. The main root of support seems to be emerging from the personal characteristics of participants, with the most dramatic odds ratio influencing support being personal parental leave use for both managers and employees. Personal beliefs and attitudes may be the source of support, and personal leave use is a behavioural demonstration of those beliefs.

**Factors that influence employees’ perception of managerial family support.**

What factors influence male employees’ perception of managerial family support? A strong majority of employees report perceiving their managers as supportive of their family concerns, which – since previous research has found managers to be less supportive (Thompson et al., 2006) – likely reflects the family-friendly nature of the organizations participating in this research. It is less likely that the reports of perceived managerial support would have been as high from the organizations that declined participation in this research because they did not feel work-
family balance was a salient issue for men. The lack of organizational diversity in family-friendliness in this sample is a limitation of this research; however, it does provide the opportunity to observe what issues and concerns rise to the top even within a setting of family-friendliness.

There is a significant and positive relationship between employees’ perception of their supervisors’ family supportiveness and their organizations’ family supportiveness. This result indicates the strength and interdependence of the relationship between the perception of supervisory family support and the perception of organizational family support. Though some research has suggested that employees see their managers and organizations as separate entities (Swody & Powell, 2007), this result suggests that their perception of support from one area may feed perception of support in the other. It is likely that in a more diverse sample of organizations there would be more variation in organizational perception and, therefore, potentially more reports of supportive managers within an unsupportive organization or vice versa. In this sample, however, employees’ perceptions of their managers’ and their organizations’ family-friendliness are in alignment, but are the perceptions of employees and managers regarding organizational family-friendliness also in alignment?

Managers’ and employees’ perception of organizational family support.

Swody & Powell (2007) found that the perceptions of managers and employees were often in disagreement. The results from this sample support this finding and show that managers are significantly more positive than are employees in their reports of their organization’s family-supportiveness. This finding supports previous research that found managerial positivity about the organization was higher than employees’ reports (Patterson et al., 2004) and that there can be a large discrepancy between how employees and managers view their organizations (Schwarzwald et al., 2004).
There are several explanations for this gap in perceptions. First, it may be that managers are answering the survey with more pressure to toe the party line and answer in a socially desirable way that puts their organization in the best light. Employees, by contrast, are not likely to have the same pressure as managers to act as representatives of their organizations. Social identity theory posits that managers may derive feelings of positive distinctiveness when they strongly identify with, and support the ideals of, their organization, and this positive distinctiveness is reinforced when they view themselves as organizational representatives (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 35). Second, employees may possibly have a more informed view of the informal function of the organization than managers. Employees may be more aware of repercussions suffered by fellow employees following parental leave use, or negative feedback experienced by other employees across the organization, than managers. That is, managers may be focused on the formal policies offered in the employee handbook, while employees’ views of supportiveness may be more heavily influenced by the informal norms influencing behaviour.

**Male employees’ perception of managerial family support.**

The majority of employees in this sample perceive their managers as supportive of their family needs, but are there personal and employment characteristics or organizational context variables that influence an employee’s perception of their manager’s family supportiveness? The results of the OLS regression analysis show that two variables significantly influence this perception: the career impact of parental leave use and a family supportive organizational perception.

First, male employees who report that there are no negative repercussions for using parental leave in their organization are also likely to report their manager as supportive. Though there are a range of potential ways an employee’s career may be negatively impacted following
leave use, a manager may be seen as more supportive when he or she does not penalize employees for taking parental leave. This result also demonstrates the strong role of informal norms within organizations, since sanctions for leave use are not likely to be outlined in the formal employee handbook issued by an organization. In light of this finding, managers who are interested in being perceived as supportive should be very conscientious about how they handle employees’ use of family-friendly policies, since it can influence their employees’ perceptions of managers’ overall supportiveness of family issues. In addition, organizations that are invested in employee morale and which are committed to developing a supportive work environment would be advised to provide training to managers about the rules and regulations regarding the use of parental leave and other family-friendly policies, so that managers are not explicitly or implicitly penalizing employees for leave utilization.

Second, employees who report lower levels of perceived organizational family support are less likely to report their managers as family supportive. This result demonstrates that, for male employees in this sample, the perception of supportiveness of their organization is strongly tied to their view of their manager. The direction of this result could also be questioned, given those who see their managers as supportive may also be likely to see their organizations as supportive or vice versa. In addition, it is possible that men often do not think of their managers in terms of their family-friendliness because men do not feel ownership over the work-family interface. These results shows that employees’ personal characteristics, such as age, marital status, and number of children, do not significantly influence how they view their manager, but instead employment characteristics and the organizational context influence the perception of an employee’s manager. Perhaps a male employee’s marital status or number of children does not impact his experience of
his work setting as much as it might a female employee who stereotypically holds more of the responsibility of combining those two roles.

Identifying personal and organizational characteristics, or the lack there of, that influence employees’ perceptions of managerial support is a contribution that this dissertation makes to the literature. Much of the literature has focused on the personal characteristics of managers and how these characteristics impact their support of family-friendly policies (Barham et al., 2001; Parker & Allen, 2001; Perez et al., 2003; Secret, 2000; Thompson et al., 2006) or how employees’ personal characteristics impact leave use (Almqvist, 2008; Brygen & Duvander, 2006; Campell, 2006; Seward et al., 2006). However, little research has investigated whether employees’ personal characteristics impact their perception of managerial support.

Factors that influence parental leave use by male employees.

Exploration of the factors influencing men’s personal leave use revealed several interesting results. The three personal characteristics that significantly influence men’s leave use are the participant’s age, his personal attitude about and support for parental leave use by male employees, and having had access to a 10-week leave instead of a 35-week leave. Male employees who are older are 9 percent less likely to report parental leave use, which may actually be an indication that younger men may hold less traditional gender role ideologies. Male employees who only had access to a 10-week parental leave are 83 percent less likely to report use of parental leave, compared to those who had access to a much longer leave. This result demonstrates that, for fathers, the availability of a longer leave is associated with an increase in the likelihood of taking leave. This finding confirms there is a connection between leave use and access. This is a contribution to the policy literature, supporting the notion that the extension of the Parental
Benefits Program (PBP) from 10 to 35 weeks in 2000 has increased the uptake of parental leave by male employees in this sample.

Employees’ who had positive attitudes toward parental leave use by male employees are more than three and a half times as likely to have utilized parental leave. This finding is not surprising, since a person who feels positively about a benefit will be more likely to use it than someone who does not. Cognitive dissonance theory supports this finding, since individuals often attempt to match their attitudes and their behaviours in order to reduce internal conflict (Ciccarelli et al., 2013). Future research should perhaps take a step back and explore the influence of male employees’ belief systems regarding gender roles and division of household labour on expectations of parental leave use. That is, understanding what drives male employees’ support or non-support of parental leave use and how support for parental leave use is actually developed for men would provide a foundation for future research. This exploration is important because men’s attitudes are strongly associated with leave use and support for leave use in this research, but the literature has not yet identified what constitutes this attitude.

The one employment characteristic that influences the use of parental leave by male employees is observing a coworker using leave. The power of having a coworker set a precedent for acceptable behaviour within the organization is clear. Employees in this sample who had seen a coworker take parental leave are more than two times as likely to report taking parental leave themselves, a result that supports previous work by Sallee (2013). As interpreted through role theory, this result speaks to the powerful influence of cultural norms in the workplace and their influence on employee behaviour.

One organizational context variable, the family supportive organization perception scale, significantly influenced the use of parental leave by male employees, a finding that supports
previous findings by Secret (2000). Employees who perceive their organization as unsupportive are 4 percent less likely to use parental leave than those who perceive their organization as supportive. Therefore, organizations that are investing in improving the work-family lives of their employees can start by taking steps to ensure employees are aware of the organizational supports available or increasing their explicit support of employees.

Sex and employees’ attitudes about parental leave have been identified as predictors of the use of family-friendly policies (Findlay & Kohen, 2012; McKay & Doucet, 2010). However, beyond these variables, little has been published on how personal characteristics impact the use of parental leave by male employees and only one Canadian study has specifically explored the influences on men’s parental leave use (McKay & Doucet, 2010). In addition to providing much needed insight into Canadian fathers’ leave taking, this research has extended the work of McKay and Doucet (2010) by exploring these issues with a larger sample and with the use of a multi-level approach. Finally, these results have also provided strong support for the extension of the parental leave policy in 2000 and the resulting impact on leave use by fathers.

**The role of policy.**

Policy plays a key role in this research and in the usage of parental leave. As mentioned earlier, the goal of the Canadian parental leave policy is to more evenly distribute the caring responsibilities between mothers and fathers, while also helping new mothers maintain their connection to the paid labour force (Lappegard, 2012; Marshall, 2008; Meil, 2013). Using the ages of participants’ children, I calculated three variables that enabled me to compare the different levels of access to parental leave represented in this sample: no access, 10-week, and 35-week access. With these variables, I assessed how the evolution of the parental leave policy has impacted support for leave and leave use. Half the managers in this sample reported not taking
parental leave because they had children before 1990 and, therefore, did not have access. However, the results show that there is no significant difference in managerial support between those with different levels of access to leave. In other words, managers who did not have access to parental leave were no more or less supportive than managers who had access to either a 10 or 35-week leave.

This research also makes a contribution to the literature by identifying a significant relationship between access to leave and leave use by male employees. The results show that fathers with access to a 10-week parental leave were roughly 80 percent less likely to have used leave than fathers with access to a 35-week leave. This result confirms that the extension of the length of parental leave in 2000 has increased the likelihood of fathers’ leave usage in this sample. Though mothers still take longer leaves, it is an improvement to see the increase of fathers’ use of parental leave and potential subsequent involvement with their children. Future parental leave policy development should focus on the creation of a non-transferable leave for fathers and higher wage replacement for parental leave, since both have proven successful in increasing fathers’ leave use in Quebec (Statistics Canada, 2013a) and other countries (Marshall, 2003; Nielson, 2009; Wells & Sarkadi, 2012).

Conclusion

In this research I explored the potential influences on managerial and employee support, the characteristics that may influence employee perceptions of support, and the influences on male employees’ parental leave use. The multi-level approach employed for these investigations allowed for better understanding of how variables at different levels may contribute or not to support for leave use and the utilization of leave. Several key findings emerged from these extensive analyses.
Personal use of parental leave was the strongest predictor of support for leave use for both the employee and the manager models. Social identity theory suggests that individuals are motivated to maintain a positive self-concept and are motivated to both view their choice to use parental leave positively and to have others view that choice positively (Taggar & MacDonald, 2007). Regardless of the motivation, it is clear that men who have used leave are more likely to support leave use. Similarly, employees who report having a positive attitude about leave use by male employees were much more likely to report actually taking leave than those employees who did not.

Within the family-friendly organizations in this study, the majority of male employees report perceiving both their managers and organizations as supportive of their family needs. Male employees’ perceptions of supervisory family support is influenced by the employees’ perceptions of organizational family support, and also whether or not they observe other employees suffering repercussions for parental leave use within their organizations. Male employees’ personal characteristics are less influential on their perceptions of supervisory family support. However, personal characteristics do influence employees’ leave use. A key finding in this research is that, in addition to age and organizational family support, male employees’ general attitudes about leave use significantly influence their use of parent leave, which can possibly be explained by cognitive dissonance theory. Employees are motivated to align both their beliefs and their actions to reduce perceived conflict.

Another interesting finding to emerge in this research is the fact that male employees’ reports of leave use have increased since the extension of the PBP in 2000. This finding shows that although women have been taking longer leaves as a result of the PBP extension, the frequency of men’s leave use has also increased. In other words, the extension of the PBP was
effective in promoting fathers’ involvement with their newborns and also appears to have increased the frequency of the sharing of parental leave between parents.

In summary, organizations that are striving to create a family-friendly corporate culture should explicitly support parental leave use, encourage managers to take leave themselves, perhaps setting a precedent, and handle fathers’ leave use as supportively as possible. As per role theory, male employees in this sample are keen observers of the behaviours that are rewarded and those that are penalized in order to build their informal rulebook on what is acceptable behaviour in the organization. If organizations are supportive in the handling of leave use of male employees, it will not only translate into men feeling safe to take parental leave, but also in a greater overall employee perceptions of organizational support, which has clear benefits for employee retention (Noe et al., 2006).

**Limitations**

The results of this study should be understood within the constraints of the sample of organizations that agreed to participate in this research. During recruitment it became clear that organizations that were more family-friendly were more interested in participating in the research, almost certainly because they saw the relevance in the subject matter being explored. The organizations in this study are fairly family-friendly organizations; therefore, the results from this research cannot be used to explain the leave use experiences of male employees in all types of organizations. The sample was also restricted to larger companies, which allowed for larger samples from each organization, but continues the trend of under-representation of small organizations in the literature (Kelly et al., 2008). In addition, this research, like most, relied on the self-report of male employees and managers, which can result in recall issues or social-desirability of their answers (Kelly et al., 2008).
Another limitation of this study was that each organizational sample was selected by the organization, which has the potential of introducing bias into the sample selection process. Though more of a concern in some organizations than others, it is possible that the human resources representative could have selected participants that would be more likely to report favourably on the organization and management. In addition, the sample was comprised of managers and employees from each organization; however, the employees in the sample could not be linked to a specific manager in the sample. Linking the employees with specific managers would have been ideal for analytic purposes, but required more time investment than organizations were willing to provide when distributing the surveys. Therefore, when interpreting the results and comparing managers to employees, it should be noted that group averages are being compared and not managers to their own employees.

Implications

Future research.

Future research on men’s organizational experiences with leave taking and potential barriers to leave taking would be best conducted by recruiting fathers directly, rather than recruiting companies to allow access to their employees. I struggled to find organizations willing to participate in this research, and in the end, only family-friendly organizations that saw value in the results of this project signed on. To get a broader view of fathers’ workplace experiences it will be necessary to approach men directly, or perhaps alternately through unions for those who are unionized. Contacting men directly will not only assist in gaining access to men in organizations that are not family-friendly, but will allow men to speak more freely about their experiences without concern that they are completing a survey within their workplace. In addition, if future researchers can connect managers with their own employees, they will truly be able to
compare the perceptions of managers and their employees. Being able to connect managers and employees will allow for the use of hierarchical linear modeling to assess the influences of specific managers on their employees.

In Canada, the two national representative surveys that address parental leave use by male employees are Statistics Canada’s Employment Insurance Coverage Survey (EICS) and the General Social Survey, Cycle 25 from 2011. The EICS is conducted annually, but those who are current or recent recipients of EI are the target population for the survey and one of the five groups of particular interest for inclusion in the sample are mothers with children under one year of age (Statistics Canada, 2013d). Therefore, the questions related to their own and their partners’ EI usage due to parental leave use are exclusively completed by women in the EICS. Men are not asked about their parental leave use directly in this survey; instead, women are asked to report their husbands’ leave use intentions (McKay et al., 2012). The limitation lies in both the fact that the wife does the reporting and that she is asked to predict her spouse’s leave use. Thus, mothers are reporting the father’s prospective leave use, but actual usage may differ, which makes the usefulness of these data limited. I would encourage Statistics Canada to expand the EICS to ask men directly about their leave use.

In contrast, the 2011 General Social Survey collected information directly from fathers about their leave use and their activities before and after leave. However, there are concerns about the forced choice responses in the questions relating to leave use (i.e., reasons for not taking leave and activities before and after child’s arrival). Given the complexity of this topic, I would also encourage Statistics Canada to create a more exhaustive list of responses to the parental leave related questions for parents in the General Social Survey, especially since the study is conducted annually.
Parental leave use is clearly influenced by individuals’ personal gender role ideology, and attitudes, and employees’ personal decision making with their partners. Other than lack of access, maternal preference and the practicality of the mother staying home due to breastfeeding were the most frequently cited justifications for male employees not utilizing leave. Role theory suggests that women and men are socialized to understand the clear expectations associated with the roles of being a mother and a father. Through the lens of role theory, parents internalize these expectations and behavioural norms that define a “good mother” and a “good father” and are aware that there are potential consequences for breaking these norms. These parental norms focus on mothers’ involvement in domestic and childcare responsibilities and fathers’ engagement in breadwinning activities. In order for fathers to increase their involvement in their childcare role there must be an adjustment not only for fathers of their own role expectations as fathers, but also for mothers in relinquishing or modifying their role expectations as mothers. This finding replicated McKay and Doucet’s (2010) work and extended it using a larger sample. However, future research should further explore the marital negotiation process between partners and how that influences parental leave use. Previous work indicates that mother’s preference trumps father’s wishes (McKay & Doucet, 2010). This research contributed by separating breastfeeding from maternal preference in an effort to explain the different facets of maternal influence on men’s leave taking, but it would be helpful to tease out the issues within this maternal preference explanation. In the bigger picture, mothers are still seen by society as the parent primarily responsible for childcare; in some cases, men’s involvement will not increase until women relinquish total control over this role (Daly et al., 2008; McKay & Doucet, 2010; McKay et al., 2012). Understanding how women feel about sharing parental leave may be a crucial next step in understanding the domestic barriers men face in leave taking.
In addition to better understanding women’s feelings about their childcare and parental leave sharing preferences, it is important to replicate this project, but with female employees. Strong support for women’s leave taking was found in this study, but what characteristics of female employees influence their perceptions of managerial support? What personal or employment characteristics influence women’s support for parental leave use? Do women perceive their employers as supportive of their leave use? Comparing the results of fathers’ experiences, discussed in this research, to women’s experiences would shed light on the potential differences and similarities of men’s and women’s experiences of leave use and organizational support.

Policy

In this study, men’s parental leave usage was influenced by their personal attitudes about parental leave, age, perceived organizational family support, and the leave-taking of coworkers. All of these key influences would be bolstered by the addition of a non-transferable, use it or lose it paternity leave to the Parental Benefits Program. The findings in the present study show that men in this sample have increased their leave usage since the extension of the PBP in 2000, and a similar increase may be observed if there were to be an addition of non-transferable leave for fathers. Quebec has seen a sharp increase in parental leave uptake by fathers since the addition of the non-transferable paternity leave in 2006 (McKay et al., 2012), though leaves tend to be shorter in duration than the rest of Canada (Beaujot et al., 2013). Maternal preference can trump men’s desire to take time off, and a if non-transferable leave just for men were added, this leave could not be utilized by the mother, allowing men to have access to their own dedicated leave that would not require negotiation. In addition, if such a policy were introduced and paternal leave taking increased as predicted, it would have a ripple effect based on the finding of the positive effect of
coworkers’ leave use on men’s leave use. Both fathers’ increase in parental leave use and the creation of a paternity leave policy might help minimize the stigma of leave usage within the workplace. A use it or lose it policy directed at fathers might foster a sense of permission or justification for leave use that is not present today. Such a policy removes the appearance of employee discretion and normalizes the practice of fathers using leave within the workplace, which in turn promotes increased use of parental leave.

Finally, the results of this study clearly show that men are more likely to take leave and take longer leaves when wage replacement is high and/or a top up is offered. Employees in the law enforcement organization took longer leaves and took them more often than other male employees in this study. If organizations want to create a corporate culture that supports their male and female employees equally, it is important to provide a top up to supplement EI payments while their employees are on parental leave, not just maternity leave. There are significant costs for the organization in offering a top up; however, even if organizations offered a top-up for the first fifteen weeks of parental leave it would, at least, level the playing field between male and female employees, and each would have access to the same length of paid leave. From an organizational perspective, this would at least be a starting point for creating policies that do not disadvantage one sex. In addition, if the Canadian government offered higher wage replacement rates, such as is done in Quebec, it would increase the likelihood of fathers’ leave usage (Marshall, 2008). International comparisons have also demonstrated that countries with higher wage replacement rates have higher rates of fathers using leave (Moss, 2013). If Canada is to truly promote parental leave, with the intention of creating greater gender equality in the workplace and the home (McKay et al., 2012), then increasing the wage replacement rate to supplement EI payments will be a necessary step in reducing the gendered use of parental leave. Similar to Nordic countries,
Canadian fathers’ will not take advantage of the parental leave policy to the fullest until the policy itself facilitates more equally sharing of leave between mothers and fathers (Haas & Hwang, 2008). Greater use of parental leave by fathers and the potential increase in father involvement are crucial steps in more equally distributing the responsibility of caring between parents and thus improving the experience of gender inequality.
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Appendix A
Organizational Interview
Note: This survey will be completed by the principle investigator during an interview with the Human Resource Manager or other company representative.
Section 1: The first few questions of this survey will be related to demographic information about your company. Remember this survey is anonymous and completely confidential. While your participation is voluntary, your cooperation is important to ensure that the information collected in this survey is as accurate and as complete as possible. Thank you for your participation.

Note: the whole survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

1. How many people does your company currently employ?

______________ employees

2. What is the overall percentage of female employees in your company?

______________% of employees are female

3. What percentage of managers/executives are female in this company?

______________% of managers/executives are female

4. Is your company unionized or are your employees covered by a collective agreement?

Yes ☐ No ☐

5. Which of the following industries best describes your company? (Check box)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Goods-Producing sector</th>
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<tr>
<td>2. Agriculture</td>
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<td>3. Forestry, Fishing, Mining, Oil and Gas</td>
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<td>4. Utilities</td>
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<td>5. Construction</td>
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<td>6. Manufacturing</td>
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<td>7. Services-Producing Sector</td>
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<td>8. Trade</td>
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<td>9. Transportation &amp; Warehousing</td>
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<td>10. Finance, Insurance Real Estate &amp; Leasing</td>
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<td>11. Professional, scientific, &amp; technical services</td>
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<td>12. Business, building &amp; other support services</td>
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<td>13. Educational services</td>
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<td>14. Health care and social assistance</td>
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<td>15. Information, culture &amp; recreation</td>
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Section 2: The following section will address family-friendly policies, such as parental leave, and the overall father-friendliness of the organization. Before we answer these questions I have a few definitions to review, just to clarify which policy we are discussing.

Descriptions

Maternity Leave
Women who give birth to a child and have been worked for their employer for at least 7 consecutive months can qualify for up to 17 weeks off work for maternity leave.

Parental leave
Both men and women who become parents (by birth or adoption) and have worked for the same employer for at least 7 consecutive months can qualify for up to 35 weeks of parental leave. Parental leave follows maternity leave and can be taken entirely by one parent or split between a mother and father. The total time taken by both parents for parental leave may not exceed 35 weeks. By law if an employee meets the qualifications for parental leave benefits a manager must accommodate that employee.

Please Note: This survey only addresses parental leave, which can be taken by either parent (not maternity leave).

Benefits
The employer must be given four weeks notice that an employee is planning to take parental leave. Employees on maternity/parental leave receive Employment Insurance benefits (55% of their normal weekly salary to a maximum of $457 per week).

When employees return to work after parental leave they have the right to return to their previous job or a comparable one, with the same pay and benefits as received prior to taking parental leave.

6. How many of your female employees have taken parental leave?

________________________
7. What is the average length of parental leave taken by female employees?

_________________________ (days/weeks/months)

8. How many of your male employees have taken parental leave?

___________________________

9. What is the average length of parental leave taken by male employees?

_________________________ (days/weeks/months)

10. Have any of your managers or executives taken parental leave?

___________________________

11. If so, what has the average length been for each of the following?

a. Female managers/executives_________________________ (days/weeks/months)

b. Male managers/executives_________________________ (days/weeks/months)

12. Does your company offer any programs that supplement the maternity/parental leave policy?

a. Top-up (or allowance)

   Yes ☐  No ☐

   If so, what % of pre-leave income is paid? _________________

b. Extended leave

   Yes ☐  No ☐

   If so, is extension Paid?

      Yes ☐  No ☐

   If yes, at what rate? _________________________

c. Other Supplemental Benefits relating to maternity/parental leave?

____________________________________________________________________
**A. Formal Company Policies**

13. How important is it just now for your company to facilitate fathers combining work and family?
   - Very important □
   - Rather important □
   - Not so important □

14. There has been a decision to facilitate male employees combine work and family (e.g., through taking parental leave).
   - Yes □
   - Being considered □
   - No □

15. The personnel director has received special education to help male workers combine work and family.
   - Yes □
   - No □

16. The company keeps records on how many fathers take parental leave.
   - Yes □
   - Being considered □
   - No □

**B. Formal Company Programs**

17. There is a formal flextime program for employees who are parents.
   - Company wide □
   - White collar only □
   - No workers □

18. There is a formal program for employees to encourage them to use parental leave.
   - Company wide □
   - White collar only □
   - No workers □

19. There is a specially designated person or group that has, among other things, the task of encouraging men to take parental leave.
   - Yes □
   - Being considered □
   - No □

**Note:**
On each question I will give you the possible range of answers. Again, you are not answering with your personal opinion, but instead from the company’s perspective.
20. The company provides male employees with information about how to make it easier to combine work and family.

- yes □
- being considered □
- no □

C. Informal Company Flexibility

21. How easy or hard is it for male employees with children to adjust their work times to their children’s times at school or daycare?

- very easy □
- easy □
- neither easy or hard □
- hard □
- very hard □

22. How hard or easy is it for male employees with children to refuse to work over time?

- very easy □
- easy □
- neither easy or hard □
- hard □
- very hard □

23. How hard or easy is it for male employees to stay home to care for sick children?

- very easy □
- easy □
- neither easy or hard □
- hard □
- very hard □

24. How hard or easy it for male white-collar employees with children to avoid long out-of-town trips on business?

- very easy □
- easy □
- neither easy or hard □
- hard □
- very hard □

D. Informal Company Support

25. What is the typical reaction of the nearest manager when a male employee – white collar vs. blue collar - takes parental leave?

- Very negative □
- Rather negative □
- Neutral □
- Rather positive □
- Very positive □

26. What is the typical reaction of co-workers – white collar vs. blue collar - when a male employee takes parental leave?

- Very negative □
- Rather negative □
- Neutral □
- Rather positive □
- Very positive □
27. If substantially more fathers would take parental leave, what would be the consequences for the company?
   no problems ☐  a few problems ☐  some problems ☐  big problems ☐

28. How often does a man in top management in your company taken parental leave?
   very often ☐  rather often ☐  rather seldom ☐  seldom ☐  never ☐

Would you like to explain your answers to questions 27 & 28?
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

E. Managerial support

To what extent do you think that the following statements apply to your company?
29. Managers in general are negative toward male employees’ needs to do childcare.
   completely ☐  to a large degree ☐  to some degree ☐  not at all ☐

30. Top management encourages supervisors to pay attention to fathers’ care of children.
   completely ☐  to a large degree ☐  to some degree ☐  not at all ☐

31. When conflicts of interest come up between the job and family, the company’s management is understanding if an employee prioritizes family.
   completely ☐  to a large degree ☐  to some degree ☐  not at all ☐

32. Managers inform the male employees about what happens when they are on parental leave.
   completely ☐  to a large degree ☐  to some degree ☐  not at all ☐

F. Company beliefs about gender (father-friendliness)

To what extent do you think your company supports the following statements:
33. Work ought to come before family for male workers.

completely □ to a large degree □ to some degree □ not at all □

34. Men with ambitions to advance ought to be able to work overtime when it is needed.

completely □ to a large degree □ to some degree □ not at all □

35. Men who occasionally take leave to care for children are not paying close enough attention to their jobs.

completely □ to a large degree □ to some degree □ not at all □

36. Employees who are most productive prioritize the job before the family.

completely □ to a large degree □ to some degree □ not at all □

Thank you for your time. The interview is now complete.
Appendix B
Manager Survey
Family-Friendly Initiatives & Managerial Attitudes

University of Manitoba
2012
**Family-Friendly Initiatives & Managerial Attitudes**

**Instructions:** The purpose of this survey is to explore how managers feel about family-friendly company initiatives, such as parental leave. This survey should be completed by those who are currently managers. This survey is anonymous and completely confidential and your individual responses will not be shared with your company or anyone else. Please do not write your name on the survey. While your participation is voluntary, your cooperation is important to ensure that the information collected in this survey is as accurate and as complete as possible. Thank you for your participation.

**Note:** It will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete this survey.

**Please turn to page 3 and begin the survey.**

---

**Before you begin the survey please read the descriptions below.**

**Maternity Leave**
Women who give birth to a child and have worked for their employer for at least 7 consecutive months can qualify for up to 17 weeks off work for maternity leave.

**Parental Leave**
Both men and women who become parents (by birth or adoption) and have worked for the same employer for at least 7 consecutive months can qualify for up to 35 weeks of parental leave. Parental leave follows maternity leave and can be taken entirely by one parent or split between a mother and father. The total time taken by both parents for parental leave may not exceed 35 weeks. By law if an employee meets the qualifications for parental leave benefits a manager must accommodate that employee.

**Please Note:** This survey only addresses parental leave, which can be taken by either parent (not maternity leave).

**Benefits**
While the employee is on maternity/parental leave he or she receives Employment Insurance benefits (55% of their normal weekly salary to a maximum of $457 per week).

When the employee returns to work after parental leave they have the right to return to his or her previous job or a comparable one, with the same pay and benefits as received prior to taking parental leave.

**Please turn to page 3 and begin the survey.**
Part 1: The survey will begin by asking you a question to get a better understanding of your familiarity with parental leave.

Section A: General parental leave policy. Please check box that best matches your response.

1. Have you heard of parental leave before today?  
   Yes □
   No □

Questions 2 & 3: Managers, by law, must accommodate an employee who is applying for parental leave if the employee meets the qualifications. With this in mind, the next two questions are only intended to understand your attitudes about the use of parental leave, not assess whether or not you would support an employee’s application. Please check a box.

2. What is your general attitude toward female employees taking parental leave?
   In favour □
   Not in favour □

3. What is your general attitude toward male employees taking parental leave?
   In favour □
   Not in favour □

4. If you would like to briefly explain your answers to Questions 2 and 3 please do so in the space provided below.

___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________

Section B: Your managerial experience with parental leave: Please check the box that best matches your experience.

5. Have you ever had an employee, under your supervision, take parental leave?" (Check box)
   a. Yes □
   b. No □

6. Of those employees who have taken parental leave, while under your supervision, were any fathers? (check box)
   a. Yes □
   b. No □

7. What percentage, would you say, of those who took leave under your supervision were fathers? ________% (example, 45 %)

Section C. The 3 following questions will ask you about some of your work characteristics.

8. On average, how many hours do you work per week? (fill in the blank)
   _______________ hours a week (for example: 45 hours/week)

9. How long have you worked for your current company?
   ____________ years and/or ________ months

10. In your current job, are you a union member or covered by a union collective agreement?
    Yes □
    No □

11. What is your job title, occupation or position? (List below)
    ____________________________________________________________

12. In the space provided below please provide a brief job description (in other words, describe what do you do).
    ____________________________________________________________
### Part 2: Managerial Family Support.

This section asks a number of questions related to your feelings about **male** employees’ work and family roles. Please check the box that best matches your level of agreement or disagreement with the statements provided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements:</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Moderately Agree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Moderately Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. The subordinates in my department feel free to discuss family problems that affect work with me.</td>
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<td>14. I am very understanding if an employee has to leave early or come in late due to a family emergency.</td>
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<td>15. If one of my employees needed time to attend to family business (doctor or teacher appointments, school plays, etc.) I am very flexible about working it out.</td>
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<td>16. If one of my employees missed work due to a sick dependent, I would understand.</td>
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<td>17. I support any company policy that helps employees with families.</td>
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<td>18. I measure people on their overall productivity, not simply hours spent in the office.</td>
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</table>

*Continue to the next page*
**Part 3: Managerial attitudes.** This section asks a number of questions related to your feelings about male employees’ work and family roles. Please check the box that best matches your level of agreement or disagreement with the statements provided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements:</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19. Balancing work and family responsibilities is a concern for working fathers.</td>
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<td>20. The use of parental leave is disruptive to my business.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21. A father’s involvement in caring for his newborn child is important.</td>
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<td>22. The company I work for has a culture that openly supports the use of parental leave by fathers.</td>
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<td>23. Taking parental leave can have a negative impact on an employee’s career.</td>
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<td>24. Fathers who take parental leave are just as committed to their jobs as fathers who do not take leave.</td>
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</table>
**Section A.**

25. I am more likely to promote a male employee who has not taken parental leave than one who has.

26. If a new father wants to take time off work his best option is to use vacation days (not parental leave).

27. I encourage my male employees to take some time off work after the arrival of a child.

### Part 4: Perception of the Organization

This section will ask questions about your perception of your company’s support of parental leave and general family-friendliness. Please check the box that best matches your experience.

28. Are **women** who work for your employer able to take time off to recuperate from childbirth without endangering their careers? (check box)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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<tbody>
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</table>

29. Are **men** who work for your employer able to take time off work when they become fathers without endangering their careers? (check box)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
30. If you would like to briefly explain your answers to Questions 28 and 29 please do so in the space provided below.

_________________________________________________________________________

_________________________________________________________________________

_________________________________________________________________________

_________________________________________________________________________

_________________________________________________________________________

Section B: To what extent do you agree that each of the following statements represents the philosophy or beliefs of your organization? (Remember these are not your personal beliefs, but are what you believe is the philosophy of your organization). Please check the box that best matches your level of agreement or disagreement with the statements provided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements:</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31. Work should be the primary priority in a person’s life.</td>
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<td>32. Long hours inside the office are the way to achieving advancement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>33. It is best to keep family matters separate from work.</td>
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<td>34. It is considered taboo to talk about life outside of work.</td>
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<td>35. Expressing involvement and interest in non-work matters is viewed as healthy.</td>
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<td>36. Employees who are highly committed to their personal lives cannot be highly committed to their work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statements:</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Somewhat Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Somewhat Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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<tr>
<td>37. Attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children is frowned upon.</td>
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<td>38. Employees should keep their personal problems at home.</td>
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<tr>
<td>39. The way to advance in this company is to keep non-work matters out of the workplace.</td>
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<tr>
<td>40. Individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>41. It is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life.</td>
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<tr>
<td>42. Employees are given ample opportunity to perform both their job and their personal responsibilities as well.</td>
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<td>43. Offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business.</td>
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<td>44. The ideal employee is the one who is available 24 hours a day.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Part 5: Personal use of parental leave. Managers’ behaviours can sometimes contribute to a company’s culture. This section asks questions about your family situation and how you handled the arrival of your own children, if you are a parent. This information will help us compare different experiences of managers.

Instructions: For each of the following questions please check a box.

45. Do you have children? (Check box)
   Yes □
   No □ → (if no, skip to Question 53)

46. How many children do you have under your care? (write the number in space below)
   ______________

47. Please list the ages of each of your children on the line below (e.g., 2, 5 & 11)
   __________________________________________________________

48. Approximately how long did you take off work after the birth of your child? (check box)
   a. less than a week □
   b. 1 to 3 weeks □
   c. 4 to 6 weeks □
   d. 7 to 10 weeks □
   e. 11 to 20 weeks □
   f. 21 to 30 weeks □
   g. 31 to 35 weeks □

49. Have you ever used parental leave benefits? (check box)
   Yes □ (if yes, skip to Question #54)
   No □
50. If you did take time off after the arrival of your child, but did not use parental leave, which of the following options did you use? (check all that apply)

a. paid vacation  

b. sick leave  

c. time off without pay  

d. other, please list in space provided ________________________________

51. What is the reason that you did not apply for parental leave benefits? (check box)

a. not eligible (for example, insufficient hours or length of employment)  

b. impossible to table time off work  

c. money-related reasons  

d. mother/partner wanted to stay home (personal choice)  

e. mother stayed home because it was more practical  
  (example: breast feeding)  

f. you did not want to stay home  

g. negative attitudes from my boss  

h. did not know you could claim benefits  

i. policy did not exist when I had children  

j. other  

52. If you would like to briefly explain your answer to Question 50 or 51 please do so in the space provided below.

_______________________________________________________________________________

_______________________________________________________________________________

_______________________________________________________________________________

53. Do you expect to have children in the future?

Yes  

No  

54. What is your sex? (check box)

   Male  
   Female   

55. How old are you?  ____________ years old (example: 45 years)

56. What is your marital status? (check box)

   a. married  
   b. living common-law  
   c. widowed  (skip to Question # 59)
   d. separated  (skip to Question # 59)
   e. divorced  (skip to Question # 59)
   f. single, never married  (skip to Question # 59)

57. What is your spouse’s or common-law partner’s employment status?

   a. not employed  
   b. employed full-time  
   c. employed part-time
58. What is your best estimate of your **total household income**, before taxes and deductions from all sources during the last 12 months? (Note: your income + your partner’s income = household income)

- a. no income
- b. less than $20,000
- c. $20,000 to $39,999
- d. $40,000 to $59,999
- e. $60,000 to $79,999
- f. $80,000 to $99,999
- g. $100,000 to $119,999
- h. $120,000 to $139,999
- i. $140,000 or more

59. What is your best estimate of your total **personal income**, before taxes and deductions, from all sources during the last 12 months?

- a. no income
- b. less than $20,000
- c. $20,000 to $39,999
- d. $40,000 to $59,999
- e. $60,000 to $79,999
- f. $80,000 to $99,999
- g. $100,000 to $119,999
- h. $120,000 to $139,999
- i. $140,000 or more

60. What is the highest degree, certificate or diploma you have obtained? (check box)

- a. Less than high school
- b. High school graduate
- c. Some university, college or institute
- d. University, college, or technical institute graduate
- e. Advanced degree
- f. Don’t know
61. People in Canada come from many racial or cultural groups. You may belong to more than one group on the following list; please check all the boxes that apply to you.

Are you:

a. White

b. Chinese

c. Aboriginal
   (e.g., North American Indian, Metis or Inuit)

d. South Asian
   (e.g., East Indian, Pakistani, Sri Lankan)

e. Black

f. Philippino

ɡ. Latin American

h. South Asian
   (e.g., Cambodian, Indonesian, Laotian, Vietnamese)

i. Arab

j. West Indian (e.g., Afghan, Iranian)

k. Japanese

l. Korean

m. Don’t know

n. Choose not to answer

o. Another Group ____________________________

---

Part 7: Work Background: This final section asks questions about your work background, which will give us a better understanding of how managers’ backgrounds relate to their attitudes.

Instructions: For each of the following questions please check a box or fill in the blank where appropriate.

Section A: This section will ask questions about how your work life impacts your family life and vice versa.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements:</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Moderately Agree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Moderately Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>62. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.</td>
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<td>63. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.</td>
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<td>64. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.</td>
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<tr>
<td>65. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.</td>
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<td>66. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>67. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>68. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.</td>
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<tr>
<td>69. Things I want to do at work don’t get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.</td>
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<tr>
<td>70. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.</td>
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<tr>
<td>71. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.</td>
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</table>
Thank you for your time.
The survey is complete.
Appendix C
Employee Survey
Family-Friendly Initiatives & Employee Perceptions

University of Manitoba
2012
Family-Friendly Initiatives & Employee Perceptions

**Instructions**: The purpose of this survey is to explore how employees feel about family-friendly company initiatives, such as parental leave. This survey should be completed by **male employees**. This survey is anonymous and completely confidential and your individual responses will not be shared with your company or anyone else. Please do not write your name on the survey. While your participation is voluntary, your cooperation is important to ensure that the information collected in this survey is as accurate and as complete as possible. Thank you for your participation.

**Note**: It will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete this survey.

Thank you for your time.

---

Before you begin the survey please read the descriptions below.

**Maternity Leave**

Women who give birth to a child and have worked for their employer for at least 7 consecutive months can qualify for up to 17 weeks off work for maternity leave.

**Parental Leave**

Both men and women who become parents (by birth or adoption) and have worked for the same employer for at least 7 consecutive months can qualify for up to 35 weeks of parental leave. Parental leave follows maternity leave and can be taken entirely by one parent or split between a mother and father. The total time taken by both parents for parental leave may not exceed 35 weeks. By law if an employee meets the qualifications for parental leave benefits a manager must accommodate that employee.

**Please Note**: This survey only addresses **parental leave**, which can be taken by either parent (not maternity leave).

**Benefits**

While the employee is on maternity/parental leave he or she receives Employment Insurance benefits (55% of their normal weekly salary to a maximum of $457 per week).

When the employee returns to work after parental leave they have the right to return to his or her previous job or a comparable one, with the same pay and benefits as received prior to taking parental leave.

**Please turn to page 3 and begin the survey.**
Part 1: The survey will begin by asking you a question to get a better understanding of your familiarity with parental leave.

Section A: General parental leave policy. Please check box that best matches your response.

3. Have you heard of parental leave before today?  Yes ☐
   No ☐

Questions 2 & 3: By law, a company must accommodate an employee who is applying for parental leave if the employee meets the qualifications. With this in mind, the next two questions are only intended to understand your attitudes about the use of parental leave. Please check a box.

4. What is your general attitude toward female employees taking parental leave?
   In favour ☐
   Not in favour ☐

13. What is your general attitude toward male employees taking parental leave?
   In favour ☐
   Not in favour ☐

14. If you would like to briefly explain your answers to Questions 2 and 3 please do so in the space provided below.

___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________

15. Have any of your male co-workers used parental leave? (check box)
   Yes ☐
   No ☐
Section B. The 3 following questions will ask you about some of your work characteristics.

16. On average, how many hours do you work per week? (fill in the blank)

__________________ hours a week (for example: 45 hours a week)

17. How long have you worked for your current company?

_________ years and/or _________ months

18. In your current job, are you a union member or covered by a union collective agreement?

Yes ☐
No ☐

19. What is your job title, occupation or position? (list below)

_______________________________________________________________________

20. In the space provided below please provide a brief description of your job. In other words, describe what do you do.

_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________

Part 2: Managerial Family Support. This section asks a number of questions related to your feelings about male employees’ work and family roles. Please check the box that best matches your level of agreement or disagreement with the statements provided.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements:</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Moderately Agree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Moderately Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11. The subordinates in my department feel free to discuss family problems that affect work with my supervisor.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. My supervisor is very understanding if someone has to leave early or come in late due to a family emergency.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. If I or one of my co-workers needed time to attend to family business (doctor or teacher appointments, school plays, etc.) my supervisor is very flexible about working it out.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. If one of my supervisor’s subordinates missed work due to a sick dependent, my supervisor would understand.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. My supervisor supports any company policy that helps employees with families.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. My supervisor measures people on their overall productivity, not simply hours spent in the office.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section A.

17. Are women who work for your employer able to take time off to recuperate from childbirth without endangering their careers? (check box)

Yes ☐
No ☐

18. Are men who work for your employer able to take time off work when they become fathers without endangering their careers? (check box)

Yes ☐
No ☐

19. If you would like to briefly explain your answers to Questions 17 and 18 please do so in the space provided below.

____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________

Section B: To what extent do you agree that each of the following statements represents the philosophy or beliefs of your organization? (Remember these are not your personal beliefs, but are what you believe is the philosophy of your organization). Please check the box that best matches your level of agreement or disagreement with the statements provided.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements:</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20. Work should be the primary priority in a person’s life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Long hours inside the office are the way to achieving advancement.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>22. It is best to keep family matters separate from work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>23. It is considered taboo to talk about life outside of work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>24. Expressing involvement and interest in non-work matters is viewed as healthy.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Employees who are highly committed to their personal lives cannot be highly committed to their work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>26. Attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children is frowned upon.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Employees should keep their personal problems at home.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. The way to advance in this company is to keep non-work matters out of the workplace.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statements:</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Somewhat Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Somewhat Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
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<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. It is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Employees are given ample opportunity to perform both their job and their personal responsibilities as well.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. The ideal employee is the one who is available 24 hours a day.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Part 5: Personal use of parental leave. Employee’s behaviours can sometimes reflect a company’s culture. This section asks questions about your family situation and how you handled the arrival of your own children, if you are a parent. This information will help us compare different experiences of employees.

Instructions: For each of the following questions please check a box.

34. Do you have children? (Check box)
   Yes ☐
   No ☐ → (if no, skip to Question 42)
36. How many children do you have under your care? (write the number in space below)

______________

37. Please list the ages of each of your children on the line below (e.g., 2, 5 & 11)

__________________________________________________________________

38. Approximately how long did you take off work after the birth of your child?

   a. less than a week ☐
   b. 1 to 3 weeks ☐
   c. 4 to 6 weeks ☐
   d. 7 to 10 weeks ☐
   e. 11 to 20 weeks ☐
   f. 21 to 30 weeks ☐
   g. 31 to 35 weeks ☐

39. Have you ever used parental leave benefits? (check box)

Yes ☐ ➔ (if yes, skip to Question 43)
No ☐

40. If you did take time off after the arrival of your child, but did not use parental leave, which of the following options did you use? (check all that apply)

   a. paid vacation ☐
   b. sick leave ☐
   c. time off without pay ☐
   d. other, please list in space provided ____________________________________
41. What is the reason that you did not apply for parental leave benefits? (check box)

- a. not eligible (for example, insufficient hours or length of employment)
- b. impossible to table time off work
- c. money-related reasons
- d. mother wanted to stay home (personal preference)
- e. mother stayed home because it was more practical (ex. nursing)
- f. you did not want to stay home
- g. negative attitudes from my boss
- h. did not know you could claim benefits
- i. policy did not exist when I had children
- j. other

42. If you would like to briefly explain your answer to Question 39 or 40 please do so in the space provided below.

_______________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________

43. Do you expect to have children in the future?

Yes □
No □

Continue to next page
Part 4: General Background: This section asks questions about your general background, which will give us a better understanding of how employees’ backgrounds relate to their attitudes. Please remember this is a confidential survey and the information you provide below will be used for statistical purposes only.

Instructions: For each of the following questions please check a box or fill in the blank where appropriate.

44. What is your sex? (check box)
   - Male □
   - Female □

45. How old are you? _______________ years old (example: 45 years)

46. What is your marital status? (check box)
   - a. married □
   - b. living common-law □
   - c. widowed □ → (skip to Question # 48)
   - d. separated □ → (skip to Question # 48)
   - e. divorced □ → (skip to Question # 48)
   - f. single, never married □ → (skip to Question # 48)

47. What is your spouse’s or common-law partner’s employment status?
   - a. not employed □
   - b. employed full-time □
   - c. employed part-time □
48. What is your best estimate of your total household income, before taxes and deductions from all sources during the last 12 months? (Note: your income + your partner’s income = household income)
   a. no income
   b. less than $20,000
   c. $20,000 to $39,999
   d. $40,000 to $59,999
   e. $60,000 to $79,999
   f. $80,000 to $99,999
   g. $100,000 to $119,999
   h. $120,000 to $139,999
   i. $140,000 or more

49. What is your best estimate of your total personal income, before taxes and deductions, from all sources during the last 12 months?
   a. no income
   b. less than $20,000
   c. $20,000 to $39,999
   d. $40,000 to $59,999
   e. $60,000 to $79,999
   f. $80,000 to $99,999
   g. $100,000 to $119,999
   h. $120,000 to $139,999
   i. $140,000 or more

50. What is the highest degree, certificate or diploma you have obtained? (check box)
   a. Less than high school
   b. High school graduate
   c. Some university, college or institute
   d. University, college, or technical institute graduate
   e. Advanced degree
   f. Don’t know
51. People in Canada come from many racial or cultural groups. You may belong to more than one group on the following list, please check all the boxes that apply to you. Are you:

a. White
b. Chinese
c. Aboriginal  
   (e.g., North American Indian, Metis or Inuit)
d. South Asian  
   (e.g., East Indian, Pakistani, Sri Lankan)
e. Black
f. Philippino
g. Latin American
h. South Asian  
   (e.g., Cambodian, Indonesian, Laotian, Vietnamese)
i. Arab
j. West Indian (e.g., Afghan, Iranian)
k. Japanese
l. Korean
m. Don’t know
n. Choose not to answer
o. Another Group ____________________________

Part 5: Work Background: This final section asks questions about your work background, which will give us a better understanding of how employees’ backgrounds relate to their attitudes.

Instructions: For each of the following questions please check a box or fill in the blank where appropriate.

Section A: This section will ask questions about how your work life impacts your family life and vice versa.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements:</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Moderately Agree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Moderately Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>51. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58. Things I want to do at work don’t get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Thank you for your time. The survey is complete.
Appendix D
Incentive draw form

PRIZE DRAW ENTRY FORM
ENTER TO WIN A $250 GIFT CARD TO POLO PARK MALL!!

HOW TO ENTER: complete this entry form, the consent form and the survey and return it in the stamped, addressed envelope.

DRAW: Draw will occur when data collection is complete and the winner will be contacted by phone or email.

DETAILS: Upon receipt of your package your entry form will be separated from your questionnaire and your identity will in no way be connected to your completed survey. You can be assured of your anonymity and the confidentiality of your answers.

YOUR NAME: ___________________________________________

PLEASE PROVIDE ONE OF THE FOLLOWING:

PHONE NUMBER: ________________________________

EMAIL ADDRESS: ____________________________________
Appendix E

University of Manitoba: Joint-faculty research ethics approval
March 21, 2011

TO: Rachael Pettigrew (Advisor K. Duncan)
Principal Investigator

FROM: Brian Barth, Chair
Joint-Faculty Research Ethics Board (JFREB)

Re: Protocol #J2011:020
"Parental Leave Use by Male Employees: Corporate Culture, Managerial Attitudes & Employees’ Perceptions"

Please be advised that your above-referenced protocol has received human ethics approval by the Joint-Faculty Research Ethics Board, which is organized and operates according to the Tri-Council Policy Statement. This approval is valid for one year only.

Any significant changes of the protocol and/or informed consent form should be reported to the Human Ethics Secretariat in advance of implementation of such changes.

Please note:

- If you have funds pending human ethics approval, the auditor requires that you submit a copy of this Approval Certificate to the Office of Research Services, fax 261-4325 - please include the name of the funding agency and your UM Project number. This must be faxed before your account can be accessed.

- If you have received multi-year funding for this research, responsibility lies with you to apply for and obtain Renewal Approval at the expiry of the initial one-year approval; otherwise the account will be locked.

Appendix F

Company consent form
COMPANY CONSENT FORM

Research Project: Parental Leave Use by Male Employees
Researcher: Rachael Pettigrew, PhD Candidate

Hello-
My name is Rachael Pettigrew and I am a PhD candidate at the University of Manitoba.

This consent form, a copy of which will be left with your organization for your records and reference, is only part of the process of informed consent. It should give you the basic idea of what the research is about and what your participation will involve. If you would like more detail about something mentioned here, or information not included here, you should feel free to ask. Please take the time to read this carefully and to understand any accompanying information.

The purpose of this research project is to better understand male employees’ use of family-friendly initiatives, such as parental leave. This project looks at three possible influences on benefit use: corporate culture, managers’ attitudes and employees’ attitudes and perceptions. We are seeking your permission to complete a policy analysis of your company’s family-friendly initiatives and an assessment of your corporate culture surrounding such initiatives. In addition, we seek your permission to survey managers and their employees within your company regarding the attitudes, perceptions and personal use of family-friendly initiatives.

Any information you provide us is guaranteed to be both confidential and anonymous. Once submitted, your consent forms, corporate information and employee questionnaires will be kept in a locked location and only my advisor and I will have access to this material. We will not share the information in these materials with anyone else. Consent forms will be destroyed upon the completion of data collection and questionnaires will be destroyed within one year of the publication of results. At no point will your company be named or your employees identified individually. The final report or subsequent publications will only report information in general terms. If you would like a copy of the final report please check the box at the end of this form or email me at pettigre@cc.umanitoba.ca and I will email or mail you a copy of the final project when completed.
Your signature on this form indicates that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project and agree to your company’s participation in this research project. In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the researchers, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time, and/or refrain from answering any questions you prefer to omit, without prejudice or consequence. Your continued participation should be as informed as your initial consent, so you should feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation. Do not hesitate to contact:

**Principal Investigator:**
Rachael Pettigrew  
955-4220  
pettigre@cc.umanitoba.ca

**Supervisor:**
Dr. Karen Duncan  
474-6072  
kduncan@cc.umanitoba.ca

This research has been approved by the University of Manitoba’s Joint-Faculty Research Ethics Board. If you have any concerns or complaints about this project you may contact any of the above-named persons or the Human Ethics Secretariat at 474-7122 or margaret_bowman@umanitoba.ca. A copy of this consent form has been given to you to keep for your records and reference.

Your Signature ________________________________ Date ____________

Researcher and/or Delegate’s Signature ______________________________ Date ____________

I would like a copy of the final report: yes [ ] no [ ]

If yes, please provide either an email address or mailing address below.

Email address: ______________________________________________

Or

Mailing Address: ______________________________________________

____________________________________________
Appendix G
Manager consent form
MANAGER CONSENT FORM

Research Project: Parental Leave Use by Male Employees
Researcher: Rachael Pettigrew, PhD Candidate

Hello-
My name is Rachael Pettigrew and I am a PhD candidate at the University of Manitoba.

This consent form, a copy of which will be left with you for your records and reference, is only part of the process of informed consent. It should give you the basic idea of what the research is about and what your participation will involve. If you would like more detail about something mentioned here, or information not included here, you should feel free to ask. Please take the time to read this carefully and to understand any accompanying information.

The purpose of this research project is to better understand male employees’ use of family-friendly initiatives, such as parental leave. This project looks at three possible influences on benefit use: corporate culture, managers’ attitudes, and employees’ attitudes and perceptions. We are seeking 15 minutes of your time to complete a self-administered questionnaire.

Any information you provide us is guaranteed to be both confidential and anonymous. Once submitted, your consent forms and questionnaires will be kept in a locked location and only my advisor and I will have access to this material. We will not share your individual responses with your company, supervisor, employees or anyone else. Consent forms and draw entry forms will be destroyed upon the completion of data collection and questionnaires will be destroyed within one year of the publication of results. At no point will you be identified individually and the final report and subsequent publications will only report information from the group perspective. If you would like a copy of the final report please check the box at the end of this form or email me at pettigre@cc.umanitoba.ca and I will email or mail you a copy of the final project when completed.

All participants will be entered into a draw for a $250.00 gift certificate to the Polo Park Mall. In order to be included in this draw you must complete the blue entry form and return it with your consent form and completed questionnaire. When we receive your package both the consent form and the entry form will be separated from your questionnaire and your identity will in no way be connected to your completed survey, therefore protecting your anonymity and the confidentiality of your answers. The draw will occur once data collection is complete and the winner will be contacted via email or phone.

Your signature on this form indicates that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project and agree to participate as a subject.
In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the researchers, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time, and/or refrain from answering any questions you prefer to omit, without prejudice or consequence. Your continued participation should be as informed as your initial consent, so you should feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation. Do not hesitate to contact:

**Principal Investigator:**
Rachael Pettigrew  
955-4220  
pettigre@cc.umanitoba.ca

**Supervisor:**
Dr. Karen Duncan  
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kduncan@cc.umanitoba.ca

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Your Signature ________________________________ Date ____________

Researcher and/or Delegate’s Signature ______________ Date ____________

I would like a copy of the final report: yes [ ] no [ ]

If yes, please provide either an email address or mailing address below.

Email address: ___________________________________________

Or

Mailing Address: ___________________________________________

____________________________________________
Appendix H
Employee consent form
EMPLOYEE CONSENT FORM

Research Project: Parental Leave Use by Male Employees
Researcher: Rachael Pettigrew, PhD Candidate

Hello-
My name is Rachael Pettigrew and I am a PhD candidate at the University of Manitoba.

This consent form, a copy of which will be left with you for your records and reference, is only part of the process of informed consent. It should give you the basic idea of what the research is about and what your participation will involve. If you would like more detail about something mentioned here, or information not included here, you should feel free to ask. Please take the time to read this carefully and to understand any accompanying information.

The purpose of this research project is to better understand male employees’ use of family-friendly initiatives, such as parental leave. This project looks at three possible influences on benefit use: corporate culture, managers’ attitudes, and employees’ attitudes and perceptions. We are seeking 15 minutes of your time to complete a self-administered questionnaire.

Any information you provide us is guaranteed to be both confidential and anonymous. Once submitted, your consent forms and questionnaires will be kept in a locked location and only my advisor and I will have access to this material. We will not share your individual responses with your company, manager or anyone else. Consent forms and draw entry forms will be destroyed upon the completion of data collection and questionnaires will be destroyed within one year of the publication of results. At no point will you be identified individually and the final report and any subsequent publications will only report information from the group perspective. If you would like a copy of the final report please check the box at the end of this form or email me at pettigre@cc.umanitoba.ca and I will email or mail you a copy of the final project when completed.

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Your signature on this form indicates that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project and agree to participate as a subject. In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the researchers, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time, and/or refrain from answering any questions you prefer to omit, without prejudice or consequence. Your continued participation should be as informed as your initial consent, so you should feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation. Do not hesitate to contact:

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kduncan@cc.umanitoba.ca

This research has been approved by the University of Manitoba’s Joint-Faculty Research Ethics Board. If you have any concerns or complaints about this project you may contact any of the above-named persons or the Human Ethics Secretariat at 474-7122 or margaret_bowman@umanitoba.ca. A copy of this consent form has been given to you to keep for your records and reference.

Your Signature ____________________________ Date ____________  
Researcher and/or Delegate’s Signature ______________________ Date ____________  

I would like a copy of the final report: yes [ ] no [ ]  
If yes, please provide either an email address or mailing address below.  
Email address: ____________________________________________  
Or  
Mailing Address: _________________________________________
Appendix I
Hypotheses, Variables, and Analyses
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hypothesis</strong></td>
<td><strong>Variables</strong></td>
<td><strong>Analysis</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.a. Female managers will be more supportive than male managers of the use of parental leave by male employees.</td>
<td>Sex&lt;br&gt;X&lt;br&gt;Support for men’s use of parental leave</td>
<td>Chi-square test</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.b. Managers’ personal characteristics, employment experience, and organizational context will significantly influence their support of parental leave by male employees.</td>
<td><strong>Dependent variable:</strong> Support for men’s use of parental leave&lt;br&gt;<strong>Independent variables:</strong>&lt;br&gt;<em>Model #1: Personal demographics</em>&lt;br&gt;Sex&lt;br&gt;Age&lt;br&gt;Partner status&lt;br&gt;Number of children&lt;br&gt;Cultural identity&lt;br&gt;Parental leave use&lt;br&gt;Some secondary education&lt;br&gt;Bachelors degree&lt;br&gt;Advanced degree&lt;br&gt;<em>Model #2: Managerial attitudes and experience (plus independent variables from model 1)</em>&lt;br&gt;Weekly work hours&lt;br&gt;Length of employment&lt;br&gt;Managed parental leave use by male employees&lt;br&gt;<em>Model #3: Organizational context (plus independent variables from model 1 and 2)</em>&lt;br&gt;Family supportive organizational perception&lt;br&gt;Union/non-union status</td>
<td>Hierarchical logistic regression analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.c. Male employees’ personal characteristics, employment experiences, and organizational context will significantly influence their attitudes regarding leave use by male employees.</td>
<td><strong>Dependent variable:</strong> Support for men’s use of parental leave&lt;br&gt;<strong>Independent variables:</strong>&lt;br&gt;Age&lt;br&gt;Partner status&lt;br&gt;Number of children&lt;br&gt;Cultural identity&lt;br&gt;Parental leave use&lt;br&gt;Some secondary education&lt;br&gt;Bachelors degree&lt;br&gt;Advanced degree&lt;br&gt;<em>Model #2: Employment variables and experience (plus independent variables from model 1)</em>&lt;br&gt;Weekly work hours&lt;br&gt;Length of employment&lt;br&gt;Coworkers parental leave use&lt;br&gt;Perceived supervisor family</td>
<td>Hierarchical logistic regression analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.a. Male employees will perceive their managers as supportive of parental leave use.</td>
<td>Perceived supervisory family support</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
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<td>2.b. Male employees will perceive their managers’ attitudes regarding family support as matching the family supportiveness of their organization.</td>
<td>Perceived supervisory family support scale</td>
<td>Pearson r correlation</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.c. Managers’ perception of their organizations family-supportiveness will be more positive than employees’ perception of their organizations.</td>
<td>Family supportive organizational perception scale</td>
<td>t-test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 3. A male employee’s personal, employment, and organizational context characteristics will have a significant impact on his perception of his manager’s supportiveness. | Dependent variable: Perceived supervisory family support scale  
Independent variables:  
Age  
Partner status  
Number of children  
Cultural identity  
Weekly work hours  
Length of employment  
Parental leave use  
Coworkers’ use of leave  
Union status  
Career impact of parental leave use  
Family supportive organizational perception scale  
Manager/Employee | Multiple regression analysis |
| 4. Male employees’ personal characteristics, employment experiences, and organizational context will significantly impact leave use by male employees. | Dependent variable: Leave use  
Independent variables:  
Model #1: Personal characteristics  
Age  
Partner status  
Number of children  
Cultural identity  
Support for men’s use of parental leave  
Access to 35 weeks of leave  
Some secondary education  
Bachelors degree  
Advanced degree  
Model #2: Employment characteristic (plus independent variables from model 1) | Hierarchical logistic regression analysis |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of employment</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coworker parental leave use</td>
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<tr>
<td>Family supportive organizational perception</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Model #3: Organizational context**
(plus independent variables from model 1 and 2)

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<th>Career impact of parental leave use</th>
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<tr>
<td>Family supportive organizational perception scale</td>
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<td>Union status</td>
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