

THE OUTCOMES OF PERCEIVED WORK-BASED SUPPORT FOR MOTHERS: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL *

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With the increase in the proportion of women holding leadership positions work-based support has been identified as an important issue in female workers' job performance and their decisions to have children and to return to work after giving birth. Nonetheless, we need to better understand how mothers develop these perceptions about support at the workplace and how these perceptions in turn affect their decisions and behavior. Job performance (both task and contextual), work attitudes, and retention of female workers with children are influenced by the psychological contract expectations reflected in the perceived level of support provided by organizational, supervisor, and peer sources. Based on an integrative literature review, we propose a comprehensive model linking perceived multi-dimensional work-based support for motherhood with different work-related outcomes in order to more fully explain the decisions and behaviors of working mothers and how organizations might better accommodate the specific needs of this important contingent of the workforce.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The aging of the population and a potential lack of future labor supply are key human capital issues in developed countries across Europe. Governments have responded by instituting pension reforms and migration policies along with policies to support mothers, especially working mothers who comprise an ever-greater share of the workforce. However, these government initiatives alone may not be fully effective unless they are augmented by work-based support from employers (Adsera, 2011). Work-based support for motherhood has been identified as an important issue in young female workers' decisions to have children and to return to work after giving birth (Brown, 2010; Leschyshyn & Minnotte, 2014). Furthermore, based on Glazer's (2006) findings, we assume that mothers' decisions and workplace conduct are affected by their perceptions of support rather than the actual practices of their employers. Hence, more research is needed to understand how mothers develop their perceptions about support at the workplace and how these perceptions in turn affect their decisions and behavior. These findings are important from a business competitiveness perspective because women constitute a large portion of the workforce and organizational talent pools. Furthermore, women are also in greater numbers holding key positions and thus have increasing impact on organizational performance and competitiveness. While many studies focus on family support at the workplace, very few specifically address expecting and young mothers whose needs may differ from general family-related needs. Thus, specific research focusing on motherhood support for expecting and young mothers is needed.

Research shows that job performance and retention of mothers with young children are influenced by three types of support - organizational, supervisor, and peer support factors (Leschyshyn & Minnotte, 2014). Employees evaluate organizational support through the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). For example, offering family-friendly benefits to help employees manage work and family responsibilities may be perceived as organizational support. While overall organizational practices and policies establish a general philosophy and culture towards mothers, it is the immediate supervisor's and peers' actions that signal positive or negative support for mothers to utilize those policies and benefits related to giving birth and subsequently caring for children. For example, supervisors or coworkers may

make mothers in general, and young mothers in particular, feel undervalued and even undermined at work (Gatrell, 2013) and may discriminate against them when it comes to career advancement. Decisions by top leaders regarding their own parenting experience send a strong signal to the rest of the organization. For example, Yahoo!'s CEO took a brief leave of absence after giving birth in contrast to the CEO of Facebook who took two months of paternity leave upon the birth of his first child (Peck, 2015). Workers at Yahoo! would be less inclined to take advantage of leave policies than those at Facebook because leaders' actions speak louder than written policies.

Another important issue is that the actual organizational practices and policies matter less than mothers' perceptions of the level of support provided (Glazer, 2006; Jahn, Thompson, & Kopelman, 2003). Most previous studies focus on either a single source of support or a combination of two (organization and supervisor or supervisor and coworker) sources of support. However, we believe it is important to study the combined effect of perceived support from all three sources (the organization, supervisors and peers), which we label perceived work-based support for motherhood (hereafter PWSM). In turn, this perceived support can influence mothers' organizational commitment, job satisfaction, task performance, and extra-role behaviors. Understanding how mothers evaluate and respond to PWSM or the lack of it is critical to understanding their career decisions and conduct and may contribute to the development of more effective policies and practices.

We further extend the current research paradigm with respect to outcome variables. Most previous studies have dealt exclusively with either positive or negative work conduct. The purpose of this paper is to develop a conceptual model incorporating PWSM from all three sources (organization, supervisors and peers) on both positive and negative work conduct and attitudes. We build on psychological contract theory and speculate on how fulfillment or breach of mothers' expectations regarding PWSM will impact these outcomes. By including psychological contracts, the model expands on the contribution of Botsford Morgan and King (2012) and builds on their findings with respect to psychological contract breach and turnover intentions. The logic of adopting a psychological contract perspective is that the levels of PWSM are not the primary driver of mothers' responses, but rather how well mothers' expectations regarding PWSM are met. By adopting a psychological construct perspective, we implicitly incorporate the notions of justice and fair treatment which are underlying concepts of psychological contract theory (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). We thus set the stage for empirical work that can help employers to better implement policies and practices related to support for motherhood.

2. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES UNDERLYING THE LINK BETWEEN WORK-BASED SUPPORT FOR MOTHERHOOD AND WORKPLACE CONDUCT/PERFORMANCE

We adopt a theoretical perspective embedded in reciprocity, exchange, and justice to explain mothers' decisions and conduct related to the perceived support at work. Three interrelated theories are relevant to this perspective – the norm of reciprocity, social exchange theory, and psychological contract theory. Organizational justice is subsumed under these exchange concepts.

The norm of reciprocity is the foundation on which both social exchange theory and psychological contract theory are built. Gouldner's (1960) seminal work in the social science tradition presented reciprocity as a universal moral duty such that individuals can legitimately expect fair, equitable reward in exchange for beneficial acts they bestow on others. This philosophy has emerged as a central theme in justice, revenge, organizational support, leader-member exchange, and countless other research streams. In its simplicity, it codifies an expectation that good deeds will in fact be returned to the giver (Zagenczyk, Restubog, Kiewitz, Kiazad, & Tang, 2014).

Social exchange theory posits that individuals act with some expectation of reciprocity when dealing with others (Blau, 1964). The concept has earned a prominent place in organizational psychology literature streams and has been connected with other important ideas such as justice, organizational citizenship, deviant workplace behavior, and employment relationships (Colquitt, Baer, Long, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2014). The extant theoretical grounding rests on the notion that when an individual voluntarily behaves in a helpful manner there is an inherent expectation of receiving similar benefits in exchange (Blau, 1964). The quality of the relationship between the exchange partners is therefore influenced by how each partner perceives the equivalence of benefits proffered and received. Blau identified two distinct kinds of exchange relationships. Long-term, open-ended relationships built on an obligatory exchange were called social exchanges while economic exchanges were defined as more transactional and short-term in nature (Colquitt et al., 2014).

Closely tied to social exchange theory, psychological contract theory developed to explain the expectations for exchange in an employment relationship. Individual perceptions of what workers expect to give to their employer and what they expect to receive form the basis of the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989). The psychological contract is a subjective, personal assessment of what each employee believes is "owed" by each partner in the

employment relationship. Similar to the two types of social exchange relationships, psychological contracts may be of two types – transactional and relational (Shih & Chen, 2011; Zagenczyk et al., 2014). Transactional psychological contract expectations focus on discrete, well-identified economic exchanges in a quid pro quo approach. An employee expects to receive sufficient compensation and job security as a reward for fulfilling obligatory work requirements. Conversely, relational psychological contracts entail longer-term, more amorphous expectations of organizational support and concern for the employee's wellbeing and career progress in exchange for a less strict interpretation of employee work obligations (Zagenczyk et al., 2014). Managers and supervisors play an integral role in the establishment and fulfillment of an employee's work-based psychological contract (Botsford Morgan & King, 2012; McDermott, Conway, Rousseau, & Flood, 2013). As the primary representative of the organization, an employee's direct supervisor interprets and enacts explicit and implicit organizational exchanges thereby serving as the exchange partner to the employee.

Working mothers form transactional psychological contract expectations regarding "traditional" aspects of the work relationship such as pay, opportunities for advancement, and job security similar to other employees. However, Botsford Morgan and King (2012) found that mothers also have specific concerns related to family that create an additional layer of psychological contract expectations consistent with relational contract expectations. Support for dependent care, flexibility, and coworker support for family are some of the elements that constitute consideration for family included in mothers' unique psychological contract expectations. Psychological contract related to family is a distinct force over and above the core psychological contract that impacts mothers' approach to employment (Botsford Morgan & King, 2012).

Employees assess whether or not expectations developed as a part of the psychological contract are met and then they reciprocate in kind (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). When the psychological contract is fulfilled, employees continue to contribute their efforts and energies to the organization, in essence, holding up their end of the bargain. However, when expectations are not met and the psychological contract is unfulfilled, a breach occurs and the employee no longer feels obliged to provide benefits to the organization. Unfortunately, withdrawal is often not the only response to breach as employees may seek revenge, commit destructive or deviant acts, decrease their commitment and job performance, and otherwise attempt to pay back the organization's failure to provide expected benefits (Bal, Chiaburu, & Jansen, 2010; Bordia, Restubog, &

Tang, 2008; Jafri, 2011; Jensen, Opland, & Ryan, 2010). Breach of the psychological contract can thus have serious consequences to the organization.

3. PERCEIVED WORK-BASED SUPPORT FOR MOTHERHOOD

The two most commonly used theories regarding support at the workplace are organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and social support theory (Shumaker & Brownell, 1984). Most scholars adopt one of these two theories as their starting point, thus failing to consider important elements of work-based support. Since organizational support theory assumes that “based on the norm of reciprocity, employees strive to repay the organization for a high level of support by increasing their efforts to help the organization reach its goals” (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003), no consideration is given to support provided by peers. Conversely, social support theory posits that individuals believe that help would be provided by other people in difficult situations (Cobb, 1976), ignoring support provided by the organization. Prior research therefore provides an incomplete assessment of work-based support for motherhood.

3.1. Perceived organizational support

Perceived organizational support (POS) is the central construct of organizational support theory and is usually defined as “global beliefs concerning the extent to which employees perceive that their contributions are valued by their organization and that the firm cares about their well-being” (Eisenberger et al., 1986). A meta-analysis of POS studies by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) shows that perceptions of fairness, rewards, job conditions, and supervisory behaviors are the most frequent signals through which employees assess the extent to which they are cared for and appreciated by the organization.

Kossek et al. (2011) extended organizational support theory and defined perceived organizational family support (POFS) in terms of an employee’s perception that the organization “(a) cares about an employee’s ability to jointly effectively perform work and family duties and (b) facilitates a helpful social environment by providing direct and indirect work–family resources”. Another perspective on defining POFS comes from social support theory that conceptualizes it as a four-facet construct encompassing instrumental, informational, emotional, and appraisal support (House, 1981). Instrumental support includes family-related leave programs, childcare assistance, and flexible work arrangements; informational support includes communication

about family supportive policies and programs as well as referral programs. Emotional support includes acceptance and responsiveness to family-related needs and appraisal support provides constructive feedback. Jahn et al. (2003) found that POS can be distinguished between tangible support (consisting of instrumental and informational practices) and intangible support (consisting of emotionally supportive practices). If we follow their line of thinking, organizations should stretch their family supportive efforts beyond simple policy or practice solutions to also provide emotionally supportive practices. Similar conclusions can be drawn from a study by Allen (2001), since POFs depended on the number of family-friendly benefits offered by the organization, benefit usage, and perceived family support from supervisors.

Yet another perspective can be found in the work of Aryee et al. (2013), who emphasize the importance of distinguishing between formal and informal family supportive practices. While the former entails policies, services, and benefits, the latter focuses on a supportive work environment defined by a supportive organizational culture and supportive supervisor. Although research has shown that formal family-supportive practices may reduce the negative consequences of work–family conflict, some of these practices are rather costly and there might be career penalties associated with their use which makes them less attractive to employees (Allen, 2001; Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). As a result, researchers increasingly look at informal practices (Aryee et al., 2013; Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009; Kossek et al., 2011) to explain employees' work-related decisions and behaviors.

With respect to formal programs, the research suggests that some family-friendly benefits may have a stronger impact on POFs than others. For example, benefits associated with flexible work arrangements have a stronger impact than do dependent care benefits (Allen, 2001; Rodgers, 1992). Similarly, Thomas and Ganster (1995) also found that among a number of family-supportive policies, only flexible scheduling had significant effects. Consequently, we may understand POFs as “a work environment in which the culture allows employees to feel that integrating work and family roles is an acceptable part of the work experience and in which the ideal employee is not one who devotes his or her entire waking hours to the work role” (Aryee et al., 2013).

POS can therefore be categorized into tangible benefits and returns stemming from the employment relationship, as well as organizational culture, policies, procedures and practices that aim to provide emotional support.

Viewed through the lens of support for family or more precisely, motherhood, we identify benefits for mothers and policies and programs that offer emotional support for either expecting or returning mothers after childbirth.

3.2. Perceived supervisor support

Similar to how employees form global perceptions about how they are valued by the organization, they also evaluate perceived supervisor support (PSS) (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Consistent with the logic regarding POS, PSS can be defined as employees' general views about the degree to which their supervisors value their contribution and care about their well-being (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). The distinction between POS and PSS is somewhat blurred because employees see supervisors as agents of the organization. Because supervisors are directly responsible for managing and evaluating employee performance and even conveying their decisions to upper management, employees often see their supervisor's attitude and behavior (be it favorable or unfavorable) as indicative of the organization's support (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Studies confirm that POS may be strongly affected by PSS and the strength of this relationship depends on the degree to which employees identify the supervisor with the organization, as opposed to viewing the supervisor's actions as idiosyncratic (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

Moving from the general construct of PSS to the more narrow construct of family supportive supervisor (FSS), we use Thomas and Ganster's (1995) definition of FSS as "supervisors who empathize with the employee's desire to seek balance between work and family responsibilities". Kossek et al. (2011) defined perceived supervisor's family support (PSFS) as an employee's perception that their supervisor cares about his or her work-life well-being.

Four dimensions of PSFS affect the balance between work and family roles: (1) emotional support pertains to how much a supervisor cares about an employee's feelings and listens to them; (2) instrumental support focuses on the supervisor's ability to administer organizational policies such as flexible work schedules and other work accommodations; (3) role model behaviors of supervisors regarding their own usage of family supportive policies; and (4) creative work-family management as the supervisor's ability to implement and shape work practices to accommodate the interests of both the organization and employees' work-family roles in order to create a win-win situation for all (Hammer et al., 2009).

Research by Valcour and Batt (2003) suggests that it is important to consider all four dimensions of PSFS because they all relate to both employee and organizational outcomes. For example, if an employee perceives that her supervisor does not support her work-life balance, then she will probably not use the existing work-life balance programs in order to not be perceived in a negative way by the supervisor. Even if an organization offers many family-friendly policies and programs, it is the supervisor who effectively implements these policies. The role of a supervisor is even more critical when organizations do not have many formal policies and then the use of informal policies and practices lies almost solely in supervisor's hands (Bagger & Li, 2014).

3.3. Perceived coworker support

Although much less studied, coworker support may play a similar role to supervisor support due to increased interdependence among employees engaging in teamwork and collective tasks (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). The scant literature on general coworker support defines it as "coworkers assisting one another in their tasks when needed by sharing knowledge and expertise as well as providing encouragement and support" (Zhou & George, 2001). Coworker support can also be defined as the extent to which individuals view other workers at their organization as being helpful and supportive of them (Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2004). This type of support can include caring for fellow coworkers, giving them tangible aid, and/or providing them with useful information (Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Parris, 2003).

Even though most studies on family support deal with either organizational or supervisor support, researchers have recently begun to explore the potential role coworkers may play in the work-family interface (Mesmer-Magnus, Murase, DeChurch, & Jimenez, 2010; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2009). Since coworkers work together closely they may recognize family demands on their peers and respond by assisting one another. Coworkers are important because they define the social environment at work and thus directly affect the handling of work-family conflict (Cook & Minnotte, 2008; Mesmer-Magnus & Glew, 2012). For example, a coworker can help an employee to cope with competing demands by taking over some tasks to allow the coworker to leave early or by assisting the employee in finding solutions for family issues or by simply listening to a coworker's family-related problems. Of course, the fact that coworkers have the opportunity to assist with resolving work-family conflict for their peers is no guarantee that they will engage in such behaviors. Discretionary effort to engage in family supportive behavior by coworkers is affected by interpersonal relationships as well as by the supervisor's support

and behavior as a role model (Dupre & Day, 2007) along with organizational culture (Mesmer-Magnus & Glew, 2012).

Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2010) identified six forms of instrumental coworker family support: (1) offering child care assistance, (2) facilitating telework, (3) offering continuing work modifications, (4) offering short-term work modifications, (5) engaging in helping behavior, and (6) engaging in deviating behavior to cover up for coworker's misconduct due to work-family conflict. They also posit that instrumental support may be crucial for balancing work and family demands, although, emotional and instrumental forms of support have the best potential to resolve work-family conflict.

3.4. Perceived work-based support for motherhood as a multi-dimensional construct

We define perceived work-based support for motherhood (PWSM) as *the degree to which mothers perceive the employing organization, immediate supervisors, and coworkers as caring about their ability to experience positive work-motherhood relationships during and post-pregnancy, which is reflected in daily interactions exhibiting prosocial and helpful behavior as well as in organizational culture and policies*. Similar to Jahn et al.'s (2003) conceptualization of organizational family support, we understand work-based support for motherhood as a global construct consisting of three dimensions: organizational, supervisor's and coworker support. From the organizational perspective, we observe tangible (e.g. benefits and practices related to motherhood) and intangible support (e.g. culture and emotional support by organization members other than supervisors or coworkers, like HR managers and professionals, higher level managers, etc.). From the supervisor's perspective, Hammer et al.'s (2009) four dimensions of PSFS can be modified for the motherhood context: (1) emotional support pertains to how much a supervisor cares about mothers' feelings and listens to them; (2) instrumental support focuses on supervisor's ability to administer organizational policies responding to mothers' needs, (3) role model behaviors of supervisors regarding their own usage of motherhood supportive policies (mostly applicable only if a supervisor is or was a mother with young children or an expecting mother), and (4) creative work-motherhood management as the supervisor's ability to implement and shape work practices to accommodate interests of both the organization and mothers. From the coworker perspective, the same six elements of instrumental family support, described by Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2010) can be easily applied to coworkers, of course adding the emotional support dimension.

Although we explained each of the sources of support for motherhood separately, distinctions between them may not always be clear because there is a lot of interaction between individual facets of different sources. Research shows many linkages between these concepts. For example, supervisors influence workgroup culture and interpersonal relationships as well as help set workgroup norms regarding motherhood support and the use of benefits related to motherhood (Dupre & Day, 2007). It is well known that subordinates have a tendency to imitate their supervisor's behavior (Manz & Sims, 1981). Therefore, supervisors serve not only as role models for mothers but also as role models for coworkers in their behavior towards mothers. Similarly, organizations can serve as role models for both supervisors and coworkers (Allen, 2001).

4. WORK OUTCOMES: MOTHERS' PERFORMANCE AND CONDUCT

PWSM and psychological contract fulfillment are expected to impact mothers' career decisions and behaviors in a number of ways. Work performance, work attitudes, and intentions to return to work are all outcomes of interest to organization leaders since they represent potential costs and benefits of providing a supportive working environment for mothers. Botsford Morgan and King's (2012) study of mothers' response to psychological contract breach used turnover intentions as the sole outcome variable. While turnover is a critical measure of organizational health related to human resources, a number of additional variables are of interest to scholars and managers alike. Organizational success depends upon employee work performance and work attitudes. Work performance is comprised of two distinct domains; task performance and contextual performance (Bergman, Donovan, Drasgow, Overton, & Henning, 2008; Jawahar & Ferris, 2011; Jawahar, Meurs, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2008; Motowidlo & van Scotter, 1994). Task performance is the fulfillment of non-discretionary or required tasks as called out by the job description. Contextual performance, on the other hand, represents discretionary behavior by the employee, essentially performing extra-role tasks beyond the stated job description. Contextual performance can be seen in both positive (organizational citizenship behaviors – OCB) and negative employee conduct (counterproductive work behaviors – CWB) (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). Extra-role behaviors have been characterized as purposeful, voluntary actions that employees engage in (Spector & Fox, 2010). We extend the previous empirical research on work-based support for mothers by including the additional outcomes of task-based work performance, prosocial and antisocial

behavior, work attitudes, and commitment to continued employment in the conceptual model.

4.1. Task performance

Task performance is a key outcome variable within the HRM and Industrial/Organizational Psychology literatures (Dalal, 2005). Important career and reward decisions are frequently based on task performance making it a critical organizational and individual measure in workplace studies. Organizations that provide employee supportive practices benefit from better employee and organizational performance (Muse, Harris, Giles, & Feild, 2008; Odle-Dusseau, Greene-Shortridge, & Britt, 2012). Within the framework of psychological contract theory, task performance would be expected to improve under conditions where mothers perceive that the psychological contract has been fulfilled (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; McDermott et al., 2013) and to decline when a breach is perceived (Bal et al., 2010).

A recent meta-analysis showed that women in general tend to receive higher performance ratings than men but men are more often promoted (Roth, Purvis, & Bobko, 2012). There is a dearth of empirical research on the task performance of working mothers or women working during pregnancy. In the only study we could locate, the task performance of female professional golfers declined after motherhood compared to pre-motherhood (Kalist, 2008). Attributions regarding working mothers' performance must be investigated across more diverse job classifications and industries before any true relationship can be determined.

Studies further indicate that pregnant women receive lower performance appraisals from supervisors, whereby negative stereotyping is particularly strong among men (Halpert, Wilson, & Hickman, 1993). They are also given negative evaluations in decisions about promotions. In a recent study of both pregnant women and those who have given birth in the last year, interviewees reported that they felt the need to exhibit exceptional performance to maintain an adequate professional image. They worked harder than before pregnancy in order to appear committed to their jobs in front of colleagues and supervisors (Little, Major, Hinojosa, & Nelson, 2015).

4.2. Contextual job performance

Contextual job performance encompasses both prosocial and antisocial employee behaviors that extend beyond the formal job description. Recent

research has demonstrated that helpful behaviors (OCB) and harmful behaviors (CWB) are not two opposites of a single construct, but rather employees may engage in both forms of behavior in response to various individual and organizational stimuli (Dalal, 2005; Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, & Kessler, 2012; Spector & Fox, 2010). Contextual job performance has been linked to the psychological contract employees form which encompasses their beliefs about the exchange relationships between themselves and their employer (Zagenczyk et al., 2014). These exchange relationships are particularly salient for the present study as we propose that mothers weigh the costs and benefits associated with employment with the increased demands on them as they take on the duties of motherhood. The informal expectations (psychological contract) employees hold regarding their employer are an important determinant of commitment and retention.

Organizational, supervisor, or coworker responses to mothers' work needs may prompt both positive and negative employee conduct as supported by the norm of reciprocity. For example, a mother's request for a modified work schedule that is denied with no apparent justification may lead to harmful conduct such as the employee taking extended breaks or working slower than the norm. Alternatively, when appropriate rationale and assistance are provided to a mother who requests specific modifications, she may respond positively by helping coworkers or saying positive things about the employer to others. Both OCBs and CWBs have been associated with job satisfaction and perceptions of justice such that employees engage in helpful behaviors when they feel fairly treated and are satisfied with their jobs and, conversely, engage in harmful behaviors when the opposite is true (Dalal, 2005). Fulfillment of mothers' psychological contract should result in greater performance of OCBs and breach should result in greater performance of CWB.

OCBs are commonly defined as voluntary, extra-role employee actions that help the organization or important stakeholders (management, coworkers, clients, or customers) (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Examples of OCBs include helping a coworker, orienting a new colleague, and not complaining about trivial matters (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Organizations function more effectively when employees perform OCBs on an ongoing basis and group performance is positively related to OCB conduct (Nielsen, Hrivnak, & Shaw, 2009). Employees are more likely to engage in OCBs when they perceive that they are supported by their supervisor and organization (Ehrhart, 2004; Kim, Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Johnson, 2013; Lemoine, Parsons, & Kansara, 2015; Peng & Chiu, 2010) and when they perceive fulfillment of the psychological contract (Shih & Chen, 2011). As

suggested by Chiu and Ng (2001), family-friendly organization policies and supportive supervisory actions may lead mothers to reciprocate by going above and beyond stated job requirements to advance the goals of the work unit.

CWBs can result in negative outcomes for organizations such as increased turnover, lower productivity, and higher employee absenteeism and medical expenses (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012). CWBs have traditionally been categorized based upon the target of the behavior. Some CWB actions are focused on causing harm to the organization (institutional deviance) while other CWB actions are focused on causing harm to other employees (interpersonal deviance). Institutional deviance manifests in wasteful or destructive actions such as damaging equipment or work products, purposely making mistakes, or stealing from the company. Institutional deviance is often the result of perceived injustice by the organization as well as job dissatisfaction (Berry et al., 2012). Interpersonal deviance can manifest in myriad behaviors such as verbally or physically abusing a coworker or customer, spreading rumors about a coworker, or socially isolating/ignoring a coworker. Acts of interpersonal deviance may be committed due to personality traits or in response to interpersonal conflict within the work unit (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Ho, 2012; O'Boyle, Forsyth, & O'Boyle, 2011). Psychological contract breaches lead to various forms of CWB (Bordia et al., 2008) which are not mitigated by organizational policies prohibiting CWB (Jensen et al., 2010).

4.3. Work attitudes

Two recent meta-analyses showed that employee attitudes towards work can impact the task performance of employees along with organizational performance such that satisfied, committed employees tend to perform better than employees who are less satisfied and committed (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Rayton, 2006; Riketta, 2008). While the relationship between attitudes and performance is complex and likely bi-directional, there is some evidence that attitudes can influence the level of job performance by employees. Two primary work attitudes studied are job satisfaction and organizational commitment both of which are interrelated.

Job satisfaction reflects a worker's beliefs about the adequacy of job-related benefits such as pay, promotion opportunities, challenging tasks, and quality supervision and coworkers (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002). Supportive supervision and opportunities for career advancement have been shown to improve workers' job satisfaction (Rayton, 2006). Work performance and employee retention increase when employees are

satisfied (Hausknecht, Rodda, & Howard, 2009; Whitman, Van Rooy, & Viswesvaran, 2010). Work status (full versus part time) does not appear to influence job satisfaction or organizational commitment (Thorsteinson, 2003). However, work-family support policies influence these work attitudes along with intentions to remain with an employer (Butts, Casper, & Tae Seok, 2013; Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009). Limited research with working mothers in the U.S. shows that job satisfaction declines after pregnancy and is closely related to organizational maternity policies (Brown, Ferrara, & Schley, 2002; Holtzman & Glass, 1999). The work attitudes of mothers, therefore, may be influenced by how well supported they feel in the work environment which in turn may impact their performance and conduct on the job.

Organizational commitment is a second extensively-researched construct in organizational literatures. Organizational commitment represents the psychological attachment a worker has towards the organization (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). It is essentially a mindset that binds an individual to an organization. The considerable body of research regarding commitment has unfortunately not resulted in a unified definition or dimension structure. For the purposes of the present study, we adopt a holistic definition that reflects mothers' *individual identification with and involvement in a particular organization* (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). While organizational commitment is often presented as comprising three dimensions – affective, normative, and continuance - we focus primarily on affective commitment as it represents the emotional attachment to the organization that we believe results from employees' psychological contract with the employer. Breach of the psychological contract lowers the level of organizational commitment (Jafri, 2011). In the only study we could locate regarding motherhood and organizational commitment, motherhood did not reduce the level of commitment by employees (Korabik & Rosin, 1995).

4.4. Commitment to continued employment

Employee retention is an important outcome for organizations as turnover is costly from a financial as well as operating perspective (Flint, Haley, & McNally, 2013; Kacmar, Andrews, Van Rooy, Steilberg, & Cerrone, 2006). The loss of valued employees results in lowered productivity and high replacement costs and constitutes a drain on managerial resources. Work attitudes, particularly job satisfaction and organizational commitment, are negatively related to turnover (Cohen, 2000). Employees stay with their current employer when they are satisfied, committed to the organization and its members, and receive appropriate rewards (Hausknecht et al., 2009) Employees conceptualize

a social exchange relationship with their employer and offer continued service to reciprocate for fair, just treatment (Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, Chen, & Tetrick, 2009). Psychological contract fulfillment by a company may engender greater employee loyalty and retention because employees perceive that their efforts and dedication are rewarded (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Flint et al., 2013).

Early investigation of mothers' return to work decisions showed that family supportive organizational policies (limited overtime demand, generous leave of absence, etc.) improve retention of women after childbirth (Glass & Riley, 1998; Kaplan & Granrose, 1993). Further research on family supportive policies and practices supports the notion that commitment to continued employment is positively affected by supportive practices, especially when enacted by one's supervisor (Butts et al., 2013; Ng & Sorensen, 2008). Botsford Morgan and King (2012) found that psychological breach related to family dimensions predicted mothers' intention to leave the organization.

5. A CONCEPTUAL MODEL LINKING WORK-BASED SUPPORT FOR MOTHERHOOD WITH WORK OUTCOMES

Although issues related to work-based family support in general, and more specifically, support for motherhood are gaining interest among researchers, most studies focus on either a single or at best two sources of support and a few outcomes and control variables. Among limitations in their studies, researchers often mention that not all the sources of support were covered (Lapierre & Allen, 2006) nor were the elements of individual differences sufficiently taken into account (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Many thus express the need for analyzing constructs related to work-based support and work outcomes within a broader conceptual model (Allen, 2001; Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2012; Kossek et al., 2011; Mills, Matthews, Henning, & Woo, 2014; Straub, 2012). We answer these gaps in the literature with a comprehensive model linking multi-dimensional work-based support for motherhood with multiple work outcomes.

The central construct in our model is PWSM which entails three sources of support: organizational, supervisors and coworkers. Because the moderating effect of psychological contract breach related to support for motherhood on turnover has already been confirmed by Botsford Morgan and King (2012), we argue that breach of psychological contract should be at the core of mothers' assessment of work-based support for motherhood. In other words, we believe that the overall level of support is less salient than the psychological link and perception of mothers regarding how well their expectations about work-based support for motherhood are met. Accordingly, we may expect that even a little

support when expectations are low may lead to similar outcomes as a lot of support when expectations are high. Support for this approach can be found on a more general level, whereby it is a breach of the psychological contract rather than what is actually offered to the employee in the exchange relationship with the employer which influences work-related outcomes (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007).

When considering a breach of psychological contract as a measure of PWSM we also take into account Thompson, Beauvais and Lyness's (1999) argument that unless employees view existing policies and practices as useful, they may not contribute to creating a family-supportive work environment. According to James, Hater, Gent, & Bruni (1978), it is the employee's individual perception of the supportive environment and not the environment itself that mediates attitudinal and behavioral responses. Other studies have also highlighted the importance of moderating effects when studying links between support and outcomes. For example, van Knippenberg, van Prooijen & Sleebos (2015) found collectivism as a moderating factor in the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior, mainly because collectivism leads individuals to see their relationship with the organization less in social exchange terms. Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch (1998) found important moderating effects of socio-emotional needs. In both cases, perceptions of family support played an important role confirming that the psychological contract perspective may be a useful one.

Breach of psychological contract related to work-based support for motherhood as a measure of PWSM also makes sense because a meta-analysis of over 70 studies by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) showed that fairness had the strongest positive relationship with POS. Fairness is embedded in the psychological contract concept since a feeling of unfair treatment leads to reporting a breach of psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Thus, by using this measure we also incorporate the notion of fairness.

In Figure 1, we present our conceptual model taking into account the multi-dimensional nature of PWSM. The core of the model depicts the relationships between PWSM and selected outcomes. More specifically, we expect that lower PWSM will be reflected in poorer performance, fewer acts of citizenship behavior, more frequent instances of deviant behavior, poorer attitudes towards work and organization and lowered commitment to continued employment.

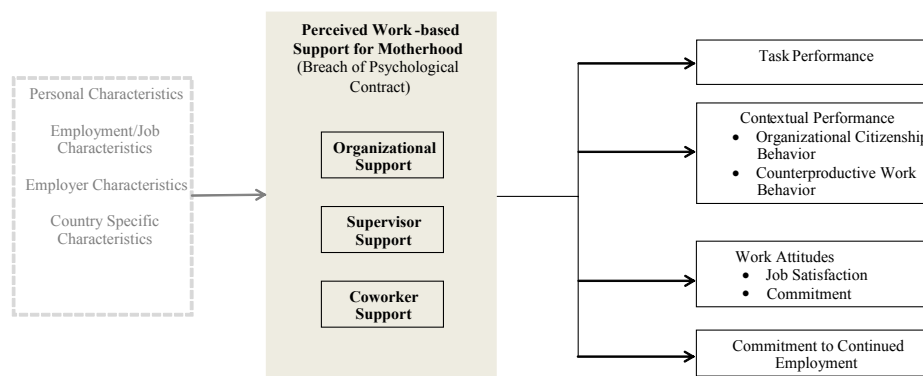


Figure 1. The conceptual model linking work-based support for motherhood with outcomes

In their review of work-family research, Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, and Brinley (2005) identified a need to include more individual difference variables. Therefore, we suggest potential controls/antecedents pertaining to personal characteristics (e.g. gender, age, education, marital status, shared family responsibilities, family values, family support), job and employment characteristics (e.g. job characteristics, job insecurity, working hours, workload and other job characteristics, career centrality, industry, size and ownership of the company, downsizing patterns), and country-specific context considerations (cultural values, growth indicators, gender equality indicators, governmental provisions). Country-specific characteristics are included in order to apply the model to cross-cultural studies because of different legislative and infrastructure arrangements for benefits and support for motherhood. These variables are beyond the scope of the current model but are included in the recognition of their potential impact on the core concepts of PWSM and breach of psychological contract.

The main propositions based on our model deal with how breach of psychological contract related to PWSM affects work outcomes for mothers.

Proposition 1: Breach of psychological contract related to PWSM will coincide with lower organizational, supervisor and coworker support, thereby decreasing a mother's performance, organizational citizenship behavior, work attitudes and commitment to continued employment.

Proposition 2: Breach of psychological contract related to PWSM will increase a mother's counterproductive behavior.

For each proposition we can derive a set of sub-propositions pertaining to the three different sources of work-based support. To our best knowledge, there has been no study yet which uses a psychological contract framework to analyze the effects of individual sources of work-based support (i.e. organizational, supervisors, and coworkers) and the combined effect of all three sources on various work outcomes for mothers. Empirical studies employing the proposed model would be able to discern the effects of each source of support and their impact on specific work outcomes as well as the combined effect, taking into account relationships between constructs which were described before.

6. CONTRIBUTIONS, FUTURE RESEARCH, AND IMPLICATIONS

The first contribution of this paper is the introduction of PWSM as a multi-dimensional construct comprising perceived organizational, supervisor, and coworker support. While generalized organizational support is an established construct in the literature, we believe that a specific type of organizational support, that for mothers, deserves research attention. The second contribution of this paper is the development of a conceptual model proposing links between PWSM and multiple work-related variables (work performance, attitudes, commitment to continue employment). We do so by conducting a comprehensive literature review integrating different sociological and psychological perspectives. Until empirically tested, however, our model remains purely conceptual. We hope that it will spark the interest of scholars, who will pursue empirical studies in order to test various links in the model. In conducting empirical studies, both quantitative and qualitative designs would be informative.

Quantitative studies could provide support for the proposed links and demonstrate differences in the magnitude of relationships for different outcomes as well as different samples. For example, studies segmenting mothers based on their age, stage in the career, and marital status could provide us with valuable information regarding the types of support that are more or less valuable to them. We assume that the psychological contract expectations of first-time mothers, young mothers, expectant mothers, and mature mothers could be different. In addition, family and career centrality may also explain potential differences. Focusing on support from supervisors and peers, multi-levels

studies could add to our understanding of how colleagues at work and their attitudes and behaviors shape mothers' perceptions of support and influence their work outcomes.

Qualitative studies could tap more deeply into the process of psychological contract breach, exploring how and why it occurs and how it coincides with a decrease in work-based support. Such studies could also provide further information regarding how and in what time span the increased/decreased expectations translate into particular behaviors. Conducting in-depth interviews with mothers at different stages of their motherhood journey could also uncover nuances in the expectations that they have towards the organization. Furthermore, we need to know more about the characteristics of specific types of support, what constitutes those from a mother's perspective, how they are inter-related, and which one has the strongest impact on the other two.

Finally, longitudinal studies might be conducted to discover how the extent of perceived support and the different dimensions change over time. This would also provide insight into causality of the relationships between different dimensions of support and job performance and types of workplace conduct.

In addition to contributing to theory, this paper also has practical implications. Firstly, it draws attention to a specific segment of employees, mothers, who comprise a significant portion of the workforce. Understanding their struggles and daily challenges could be beneficial for raising the morale of this segment of the workforce and could help them in delivering excellent performance during pregnancy and up until maternity leave. Secondly, the paper raises awareness of the different types of perceived support within the workplace which profoundly affect workplace behaviors critical for organizational success. Specifically, organizations can put formal programs in place and strive to create a mother-friendly organizational culture. As a part of this, HR specialists could promote prosocial behavior in the workplace and foster a culture of support among colleagues. HR policies such as offering care and assistance to mothers might represent one manifestation of such support. Third, during performance appraisal conversations, supervisors could discuss expectations regarding different types of organizational support available to mothers and could initiate conversations with mothers about workplace interactions that give expectant women a chance to "lean in and not lean out", take on projects with high responsibilities and lead to superior workplace performance.

While our paper has merits, it needs to be viewed in light of certain limitations. Firstly, the review presented herein is not exhaustive. We integrate relevant theoretical perspectives and influential empirical findings that aid us in developing the conceptual model and can help move this field forward. Also, while we contend that the relationships may be embedded in particular cultural and institutional context, we do not present specific empirical findings based on the country of origin. That being said, the main focus of the paper is to explain the consequences of PWSM in terms of job performance, prosocial and antisocial work behaviors, work attitudes, and commitment to continued employment. These outcomes are relevant because they comprise critical determinants of organizational success. Apart from these, we make reference to certain personal, organizational, and country specific variables as antecedents of PWSM and psychological contract breach. Further research may prove which of these have merit in explaining how mothers perceive work-based support for motherhood.

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REZULTATI PERCIPIRANE POTPORE MAJKAMA U RADNOM OKRUŽENJU: KONCEPTUALNI MODEL

Sažetak

S povećanjem udjela broja žena na liderskim pozicijama, potpora u radnom okruženju može se identificirati kao značajan čimbenik učinka zaposlenica i njihovih odluka za rađanjem djece te povratkom na posao nakon poroda. Međutim, potrebno je bolje razumijevanje percepcije potpore majkama u radnom okruženju, kao i djelovanje ovih percepcija na odluke i ponašanje zaposlenica. Na radni učinak (koji se odnosi na radne zadaće, ali i na kontekst), stavove prema poslu i lojalnost zaposlenica – majki djeluju očekivanja, povezana s psihološkim ugovorom. Ona se odražavaju u percipiranoj razini potpore iz organizacijskih izvora, kao i od menadžera te suradnika(ica). Na temelju integralnog pregleda literature, predlaže se složeni model, koji povezuje multi-disciplinarni konstrukt percipirane potpore u radom okruženju s različitim ishodima radnog procesa. Cilj je modeliranja potpuno objasniti odluke i ponašanje zaposlenica – majki i ukazati kako bi organizacije mogle bolje zadovoljiti specifične potrebe ovog značajnog dijela radne snage