

Supporting information for

Gender Gap in Parental Leave Intentions: Evidence from 37 Countries

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Deviations from the Preregistration

The hypotheses and analytical strategy were preregistered on the Open Science Framework (OSF, https://osf.io/7psh5/?view_only=a6ef288322884140b788042819d926c9) at the end of data collection but prior to analyses. Below, we outline how and why we deviated from the preregistration. These deviations did not have a substantial impact on the planned analyses nor the conclusions we made.

Statistical Power and Participants

We preregistered several inclusion criteria at the country and individual level. Here we detail the justification for a few slight deviations from these inclusion criteria.

Sample Size at the Country Level. First, we planned to include in our analyses countries that had sampled a minimum of 50 participants from each gender, providing 80% power to detect a medium sized ($d = .50$) gender difference, given $\alpha = .05$ (G*Power; Faul et al., 2007). However, to maximize country-level degrees of freedom, we made one exception to this rule as we included Denmark (that had sampled 39 men after all other exclusions) in the analyses.

Sample Size at the Site Level. Second, during data preparation, we noticed that the survey had sometimes been accessed by individuals who were not affiliated with the university where the data was collected. In order to nest participants' responses within universities, we decided (prior to data analysis) to apply an additional exclusion criterion to exclude participants who either failed to indicate which university they attended, or who attended a university with < 6 responses (0.75%).

Sexual Orientation. Third, in order to sample individuals who expected to be in a straight relationship in the future (and thus more likely to anticipate a gender-traditional division of roles; Fulcher et al., 2008), we preregistered that we would exclude participants who self-identified as *bisexual*, *asexual*, or *other* from the analyses. However, we

reconsidered these exclusion criteria when we observed a significant loss in N in some countries. Feedback from collaborators pointed to a potential misunderstanding of the term *asexuality* in some countries as not being sexually active. Given our goal to achieve a sample of > 50 of each gender in each country and that identifying with any of the stated categories does not preclude currently being in, or imagining oneself being in, a straight relationship, we decided (prior to hypothesis testing) to deviate from our inclusion criteria in order to include participants who self-identified as bisexual, asexual, or other into the main analyses.

Analytical Strategy

We also made some minor changes to the preregistered analytical strategy.

Adding Father-Exclusive Leave. First, during data analysis, we realized that it may be of interest to readers to also see the effect of *father-exclusive leave*. Thus, we added father-exclusive leave as a country-level predictor in Model 1 and formulated H1. This hypothesis was not preregistered but was in line with the reasoning outlined in the preregistration. Contrary to our prediction, however, we found no evidence suggesting that the gender gap in intended leave varied across countries that offer more or less exclusive leave to fathers, $b = 0.13$, $SE = 0.10$, $p = .187$, 95% CI [-0.06, 0.32].

Adding Career Ambitions. Second, in order to relate leave intentions to career planning, we reported individual-level correlations between women's and men's leave intentions and *career ambitions*. Career ambitions were measured as part of this data collection but initially not planned to be part of this report.

Excluding Women's Relative Labor Force Participation as a Key Predictor. Third, we reconsidered the meaning of *women's relative labor force participation* (WEF, 2017). We had preregistered the hypothesis that women's relative labor force participation would be associated with a smaller gender gap in intended leave uptake, as both women and men would be more inclined to share childcare if they both expected to be active in the labor

force, and therefore report less and more leave intentions, respectively. However, we recognized that it is of course also reasonable to assume that in countries where women are relatively more represented in the labor market, women may expect to be in paid work and therefore indicate higher intentions to take a leave from work than women in countries where women are relatively less represented in the labor force. Due to the dubious meaning of women's relative representation in the labor market, we excluded it from hypothesis testing and instead explored it as a potential control variable. There was, however, no evidence suggesting that women's relative labor force participation, $b = -7.04$, $SE = 21.29$, $p = .741$, 95% CI [-48.70, 34.59], related to the gender gap in intended uptake. Thus, to avoid unnecessary complexity, we did not control for women's relative labor force participation in the analyses.

Excluding Mastery Value Orientation and Egalitarian Value Orientation as Key Predictors. Fourth, there were two additional preregistered hypotheses examining the role of mastery and egalitarian value orientation on the gender gap in leave intentions. These hypotheses were initially planned to be assessed in a separate hierarchical linear model (Model 3). However, the cultural value orientation data were imputed in 7 out of 37 countries due to missing values and should therefore be interpreted with caution. The results of Model 3 are thus not included in the main manuscript but fully reported below under additional analyses with country-level variables.

Re-Computing Available Leave Length. Fifth, we replaced the variable 'total length of available *paternal* leave' (i.e., total amount of parental leave that both women and men have equal access to + total amount of leave that only men have access to) with 'total length of available *parental* leave' (i.e., total amount of parental leave that both men and women have equal access to). The overall effects in Model 1 remain comparable regardless of

whether we predict gender differences in intended uptake from total length of available *paternal* or *parental* leave, but the latter has a stronger effect on women's leave uptake.

Re-Computing Gender Role Attitudes. Sixth, we planned to control for *gender role attitudes* (using a shortened version of a scale by Larsen & Long, 1988). However, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with multigroup comparisons indicated unacceptable fit for the 4-item scale, $X^2(74) = 1278, p < .001, CFI = .96, TLI = .87, RMSEA = .21, SRMR = .04$. Two items referred to gender role attitudes toward leadership (“In groups that have both male and female members, it is more appropriate that leadership positions be held by males”; “Men make better leaders”), whereas two items referred to gender role attitudes in the home (“A woman's place is in the home”; “Some equality in marriage is good, but by and large the husband ought to have the main say-so in family matters). The response scales ran from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Higher scores indicate more traditional attitudes. Correlational statistics indicated that the two former items ($r = -.77, p < .001$) correlated more strongly with each other across countries than the two latter items ($r = -.60, p < .001$). We therefore did not form a scale of these four items to include as a control variable in the final model. Instead, we formed a scale with the first two items ($r = .14$ to $.89$ across countries) and ran exploratory analyses with this scale (reported below under additional analyses with individual-level variables).

Data Collection in Different Countries

Data Collection

To ensure relatively comparable samples across countries, collaborators recruited university students from either psychology alone or some combination of HEED (i.e., health, education, clinical psychology) and STEM (i.e., natural sciences, technology, engineering, and mathematics) degrees (see Table S11 for distribution of study major per gender in each country).

Ethical Approval

Collaborators were instructed to obtain formal ethics clearance from their respective university (if required by the ethics standard in their country).

Translation of Materials

The survey was originally constructed in English. Each collaborating team was provided with the survey in English to translate to the official language of the country where they would collect data (unless a translation was already available in their language that could be adapted to their national context). Collaborators who translated the survey from English to another language were required to have the translation checked by another collaborator. Each collaborating team completed a site survey after data collection, in which they could report how confident they were in the accuracy of their translation/the translated file they received on a scale that ranged from 1 (*not confident at all*) to 7 (*very confident*). Confidence in translation ranged from 6 to 7 ($M = 6.41$) across the total sample.

Table SI1*Study Major by Gender and Country*

| | HEED | | STEM | | Social Sciences | | Business | | Other | |
|------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men |
| Country | <i>n</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>n</i> |
| Albania | 34 | 10 | 38 | 35 | 4 | 8 | 5 | 7 | 4 | 3 |
| Australia | 158 | 84 | 46 | 44 | 12 | 2 | 14 | 12 | 21 | 9 |
| Belgium | 251 | 69 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Canada | 378 | 193 | 174 | 164 | 37 | 19 | 38 | 46 | 87 | 53 |
| Chile | 161 | 89 | 40 | 31 | 13 | 8 | 2 | 3 | 15 | 3 |
| Colombia | 85 | 26 | 32 | 44 | 6 | 3 | 46 | 49 | 9 | 8 |
| Croatia | 88 | 23 | 50 | 170 | 31 | 14 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 0 |
| Czech Rep. | 87 | 28 | 21 | 35 | 9 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 7 | 1 |
| Denmark | 103 | 25 | 0 | 5 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 3 | 2 |
| Ecuador | 68 | 60 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 |
| Estonia | 31 | 7 | 51 | 45 | 33 | 18 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Ethiopia | 70 | 56 | 34 | 34 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| France | 174 | 95 | 50 | 39 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| Germany | 282 | 117 | 47 | 36 | 36 | 15 | 44 | 19 | 22 | 4 |
| Indonesia | 132 | 62 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 17 | 9 |
| Ireland | 117 | 29 | 35 | 81 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 3 | 11 | 2 |
| Italy | 167 | 84 | 9 | 3 | 3 | 17 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| Japan | 95 | 53 | 100 | 93 | 35 | 18 | 9 | 8 | 32 | 20 |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Kazakhstan | 36 | 9 | 19 | 31 | 4 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 2 |
| South Korea | 29 | 21 | 22 | 51 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| Lithuania | 68 | 11 | 31 | 60 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Macedonia | 49 | 20 | 19 | 35 | 4 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 5 |
| Netherlands | 376 | 122 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| New Zealand | 90 | 66 | 10 | 16 | 8 | 2 | 7 | 6 | 8 | 9 |
| Norway | 118 | 58 | 35 | 33 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 6 | 9 | 4 |
| Poland | 196 | 28 | 86 | 55 | 20 | 5 | 16 | 9 | 19 | 5 |
| Romania | 108 | 58 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 0 | 6 | 3 | 14 | 10 |
| Russia | 83 | 41 | 3 | 7 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 0 | 5 |
| Serbia | 368 | 76 | 113 | 78 | 69 | 27 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 1 |
| Singapore | 41 | 30 | 31 | 38 | 15 | 8 | 15 | 8 | 3 | 0 |
| Slovakia | 107 | 21 | 24 | 62 | 1 | 2 | 18 | 12 | 1 | 5 |
| Spain | 93 | 63 | 45 | 43 | 2 | 3 | 31 | 27 | 15 | 5 |
| Sweden | 44 | 40 | 32 | 28 | 7 | 5 | 2 | 9 | 0 | 2 |
| Tanzania | 24 | 24 | 20 | 21 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Ukraine | 106 | 68 | 1 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 11 | 13 | 17 | 14 |
| U.K. | 209 | 44 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 0 |
| U.S.A. | 1129 | 340 | 400 | 298 | 78 | 32 | 227 | 266 | 172 | 107 |
| Total | 5755 | 2250 | 1628 | 1735 | 453 | 238 | 527 | 537 | 517 | 302 |
| Percentage | 41.27% | 16.13% | 11.67% | 12.44% | 3.25% | 1.70% | 3.78% | 3.85% | 3.70% | 2.16% |

Note. HEED = majors in fields associated with health care, early childhood education, and domestic roles: Psychology (General); Psychology to be a clinical practitioner; Medicine to become a doctor; Other Health Care/Social Work professions; Education/Teaching). STEM = majors in Science (Chemistry, Biology, etc.); Technology (e.g., Computer Science), Engineering, and Mathematics/Statistics. The remaining clusters included Social Sciences majors (History, Sociology, etc.); Business majors; and Other majors (Law; Sport Sciences; Fine Arts; Theology/Religious Studies).

Control Variables

Study Major

One item assessed participants' *study major*. Participants were asked: "What field most closely describes your major or aspired major? If you have not decided yet, please select what is most likely out of the choices." Participants indicated which of the following options applied best: *Science (Chemistry, Biology, etc.)*, *Mathematics/Statistics*, *Computer Science*, *Engineering* (coded as STEM); *Psychology (General)*, *Psychology with the goal to be a clinical practitioner*, *Medicine with the goal to become a doctor*, *Other Health Care/Social Work professions*, *Education/Teaching* (coded as HEED); *Other Social Sciences (History, Sociology, etc.)* (coded as Social Sciences); *Business* (coded as Business); *Law, Sport Sciences, Fine Arts (Music, Painting, Literature)*, *Theology/Religious Studies* (coded as Other).

Subjective Socioeconomic Status (SES)

Participants were asked to indicate their *subjective SES* along a ten-point ladder (using the MacArthur Subjective Status Scale; Adler et al., 2000): "Please think about where your family stands in comparison to others in [country]. This ladder conceptually represents society, where those with the highest socioeconomic status (Rung 10; i.e., those with the most money, highest education, and best jobs) are at the top and those with the lowest socioeconomic status (Rung 1; i.e., those with the least money, least education, and worst jobs) are at the bottom. Please choose the number that best represents where your family is on this ladder compared to others in [country]." The scale ranged from 1 (*low SES*) to 10 (*high SES*)¹. See Table SI2 for subjective SES by gender and country.

¹ In Belgium and the Netherlands, the scale ran from 0 to 10. To make the scale comparable across sites, 0 was recoded as 1 (affecting a total of 3 responses).

Age

Participants were asked: “How old are you?” and recorded their age in an open-ended response box. See Table SI2 for age by gender and country.

Table SI2*Age and Subjective SES by Gender and Country*

| Country | Age | | Subjective SES | |
|-------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| | Women | Men | Women | Men |
| | <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>M (SD)</i> |
| Albania | 20.39 (1.51) | 20.75 (1.62) | 6.05 (1.64) | 6.18 (1.68) |
| Australia | 19.76 (2.33) | 20.57 (2.46) | 6.49 (1.49) | 6.49 (1.59) |
| Belgium | 18.34 (0.86) | 18.92 (1.30) | 6.52 (1.43) | 6.58 (1.84) |
| Canada | 19.58 (1.83) | 19.93 (2.03) | 6.16 (1.50) | 6.27 (1.52) |
| Chile | 20.77 (2.01) | 20.79 (2.14) | 6.23 (1.62) | 6.23 (1.75) |
| Colombia | 20.20 (1.74) | 20.51 (1.94) | 6.48 (1.68) | 7.02 (1.68) |
| Croatia | 21.07 (1.87) | 22.38 (1.43) | 6.09 (1.31) | 6.09 (1.53) |
| Czech Rep. | 22.25 (2.03) | 22.20 (2.04) | 6.09 (1.41) | 6.20 (1.46) |
| Denmark | 21.18 (1.62) | 22.74 (2.86) | 6.66 (1.58) | 6.33 (1.51) |
| Ecuador | 21.50 (2.44) | 21.80 (2.77) | 5.81 (1.07) | 5.95 (1.09) |
| Estonia | 20.45 (2.34) | 21.07 (2.66) | 6.14 (1.67) | 5.83 (1.70) |
| Ethiopia | 20.87 (1.24) | 21.72 (2.16) | 5.75 (1.91) | 4.88 (2.11) |
| France | 19.43 (1.42) | 20.42 (2.43) | 5.55 (1.38) | 5.4 (1.64) |
| Germany | 21.57 (2.71) | 22.47 (2.88) | 6.53 (1.44) | 6.43 (1.53) |
| Indonesia | 19.51 (1.32) | 21.40 (2.80) | 5.86 (1.40) | 5.74 (1.57) |
| Ireland | 19.84 (1.63) | 20.09 (1.28) | 5.85 (1.51) | 6.06 (1.61) |
| Italy | 20.71 (1.93) | 21.98 (2.78) | 5.57 (1.34) | 5.69 (1.62) |
| Japan | 19.57 (1.29) | 19.91 (1.59) | 6.43 (1.39) | 6.03 (1.59) |
| Kazakhstan | 19.42 (1.42) | 20.06 (2.28) | 6.94 (1.46) | 6.31 (1.70) |
| South Korea | 25.18 (2.41) | 25.02 (2.08) | 5.85 (1.67) | 5.95 (1.73) |
| Lithuania | 21.14 (1.74) | 20.13 (1.47) | 6.43 (1.44) | 6.32 (1.64) |
| Macedonia | 19.56 (1.46) | 20.40 (1.94) | 6.19 (1.71) | 6.36 (2.06) |
| Netherlands | 19.75 (1.75) | 21.19 (2.17) | 6.64 (1.61) | 6.60 (1.55) |
| New Zealand | 18.61 (1.01) | 18.92 (1.31) | 6.37 (1.57) | 6.52 (1.56) |
| Norway | 22.16 (2.29) | 23.24 (3.01) | 6.57 (1.17) | 6.15 (1.63) |
| Poland | 22.12 (2.21) | 22.26 (2.17) | 5.70 (1.54) | 5.56 (1.64) |
| Romania | 20.63 (1.92) | 21.51 (2.48) | 5.93 (1.45) | 6.03 (1.57) |
| Russia | 19.57 (1.80) | 21.12 (3.07) | 6.09 (1.64) | 6.17 (1.40) |
| Serbia | 21.19 (2.53) | 20.74 (2.38) | 5.60 (1.42) | 5.87 (1.49) |
| Singapore | 21.00 (1.78) | 23.11 (1.38) | 5.65 (1.55) | 5.39 (1.59) |

| | | | | |
|----------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|
| Slovakia | 22.30 (1.70) | 22.08 (1.52) | 5.99 (1.30) | 6.11 (1.30) |
| Spain | 20.56 (2.13) | 21.26 (2.33) | 6.22 (1.38) | 6.44 (1.26) |
| Sweden | 23.03 (2.81) | 23.76 (3.25) | 5.72 (1.84) | 5.99 (1.85) |
| Tanzania | 22.05 (1.78) | 22.33 (1.85) | 6.50 (1.53) | 5.69 (2.23) |
| Ukraine | 19.06 (1.56) | 20.06 (2.07) | 5.68 (1.70) | 5.39 (1.57) |
| U.K. | 18.72 (0.92) | 18.90 (1.08) | 6.31 (1.51) | 6.22 (1.92) |
| U.S.A. | 19.27 (1.63) | 19.36 (1.68) | 6.12 (1.58) | 6.43 (1.66) |
| Total | 20.19 (2.19) | 20.77 (2.48) | 6.13 (1.54) | 6.17 (1.66) |

Data Preparation

Exclusion Criteria

As part of data preparation, we applied some general exclusions to the data set (exclusion criteria were preregistered on OSF: https://osf.io/4g9su/?view_only=ec9e68da044b4ff78e43063103419a35). Specifically, participants were excluded from the dataset for failing one or both attention checks (e.g., “If you are reading this, please select three”, 15.17%) or completing the questionnaire in less than 10 minutes (1.08%). In addition, we excluded participants who had not been socialized in the respective cultural context during their formative years (i.e., prior to 15 years of age, 6.18%) or not falling in the specified age range of 17-30 (2.44%).

Selection of Predictor Variables

We applied a data-driven approach to selecting the variables to be included in the hypothesis testing. Prior to data analysis, we ran correlational statistics to determine which indicator of women’s relative representation in power positions (politics vs. management), care values (Harmony vs. Egalitarianism), and success values (Hierarchy vs. Mastery) to include as a predictor in Models 2 and 3, respectively. We preregistered that we would include in our models the indicators that were most strongly correlated with the gender gap in intended uptake of parental leave. With respect to women’s relative representation in power, correlational analyses showed that the gender gap in intentions was more highly correlated with women’s relative representation in politics ($r = .44, p = .006$) than women’s relative representation in management ($r = .07, p = .669$). With respect to care values, correlational analyses showed that the gender gap was more highly correlated with egalitarian values ($r = -.50, p = .002$) than with harmony values ($r = .10, p = .568$). With respect to success values, correlational analyses showed that the gender gap was more highly correlated with mastery

values ($r = -.13, p = .462$) than with hierarchy values ($r = .06, p = .708$). See Table SI3 for correlations between the gender gap in intended leave uptake and country-level variables.

Table SI3*Correlations between the Gender Gap in the Intended Uptake of Parental Leave and Country-**Level Variables*

| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|--|--------|------|--------|
| 1. Women's intended uptake | – | – | – |
| 2. Men's intended uptake | .54** | – | – |
| 3. Gender gap in intended uptake | .89*** | .10 | – |
| Parental leave policies (ILO, 2014) | | | |
| Father-exclusive leave | -.04 | .27 | -.20 |
| Gender imbalance in exclusive leave | .20 | -.09 | .28 |
| Available leave length | .62*** | .32 | .55*** |
| Financially generous leave | .48** | .42* | .34* |
| Gender inequality (WEF, 2017) | | | |
| Global index score of gender equality | -.11 | .22 | -.25 |
| Women's relative labor force participation | .10 | .11 | .06 |
| Women's relative income | .02 | .26 | -.12 |
| Women's relative representation in politics | -.29 | .20 | -.44** |
| Women's relative representation in management | .09 | .06 | .07 |
| Cultural value orientation (Schwartz, 2008) | | | |
| Egalitarian value orientation | -.43* | -.01 | -.50** |
| Harmony value orientation | .18 | .21 | .10 |
| Mastery value orientation | -.04 | .16 | -.13 |
| Hierarchy value orientation | .01 | -.10 | .06 |

Note. Correlations computed using Pearson-method with pairwise-deletion. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$, two-tailed. These correlations were run on each of 10 imputed datasets of country-level variables and then averaged across these imputed datasets. Scores for 'women's intended uptake' and 'men's intended uptake' are country-level estimates extracted from multilevel models adjusting for demographic variables. The score for 'gender gap in intended uptake' is based on 'women's intended uptake' - 'men's intended uptake'.

Additional Descriptive Analyses

Future Child-Rearing Intentions among Lesbian and Gay Participants

The majority of our young sample reported that they would like to have children. Notably, however, the proportion of participants who indicated that they *definitely* or *most likely want a child/children* was lower (50%) among participants who identified as (mostly) lesbian and gay ($N = 432$) than among participants who identified as bisexual (63%) or (mostly) heterosexual (80%), which could be partly attributed to restricted access to artificial insemination and adoption for lesbian and gay couples.

Intended Leave Uptake among Lesbian and Gay Participants

Parenting expectations seem to be more degendered in gay than straight relationships. The gender gap was more pronounced between straight women ($M = 40.29$, $SD = 26.42$) and men ($M = 21.65$, $SD = 21.03$), $t(11247) = 41.87$, $p < .001$, than between lesbian women ($M = 36.59$, $SD = 27.69$) and gay men ($M = 28.77$, $SD = 21.72$), $t(114.97) = 2.01$, $p = .047$. Gay men intended to take significantly longer leave than straight men, $t(184.51) = -4.78$, $p < .001$. Lesbian women intended to take shorter leave than straight women, albeit this difference was only marginally significant $t(72.23) = 1.74$, $p = .085$ (see Figure SI1).

Figure SI1

Intended Uptake of Parental Leave by Gender and Sexual Orientation

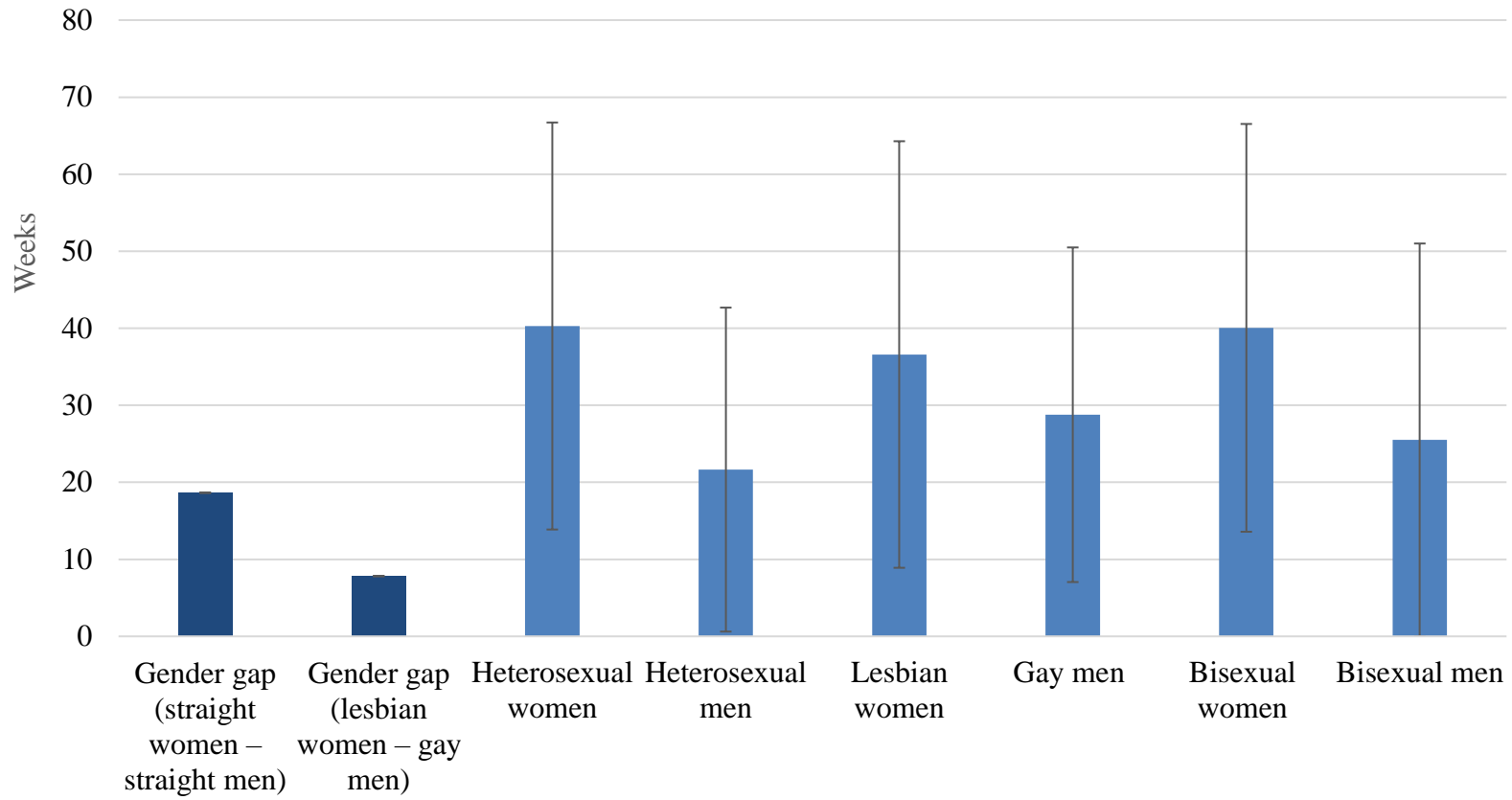


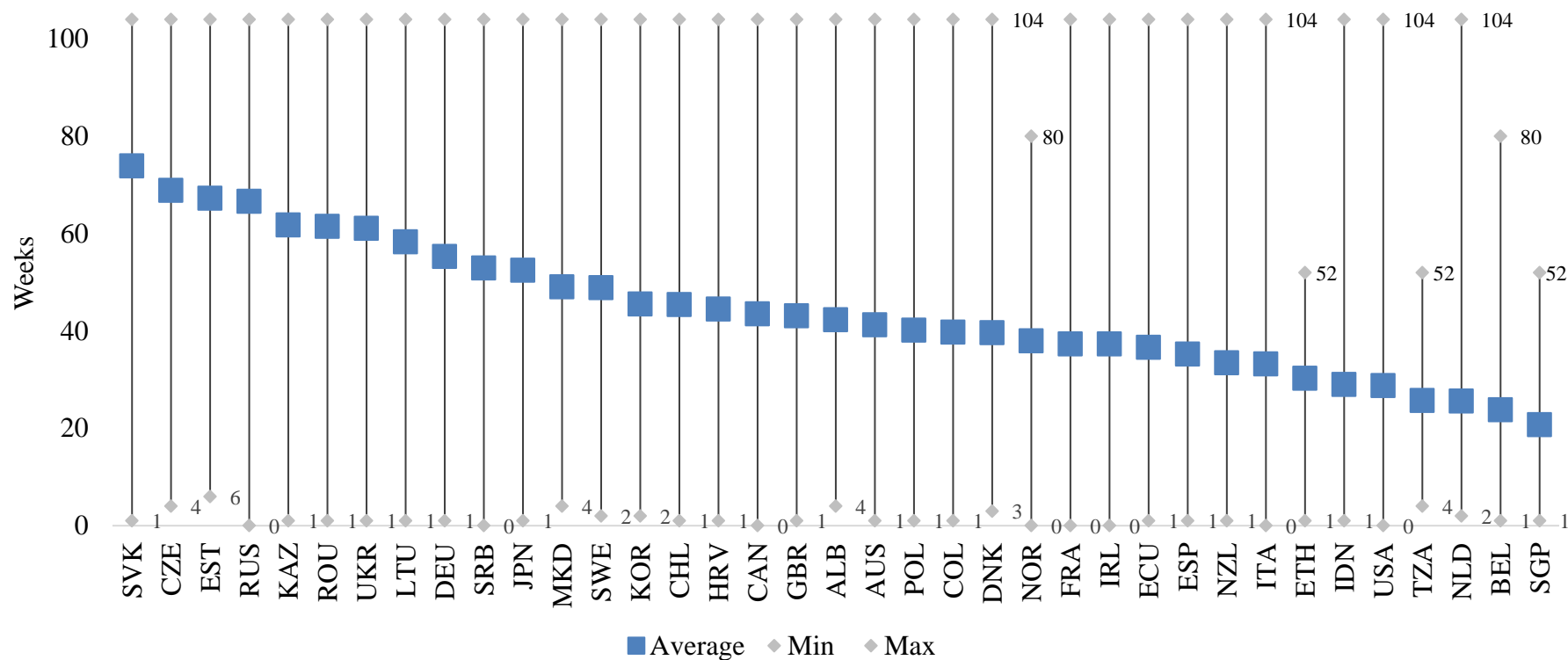
Table SI4*Intended Uptake of Parental Leave by Gender and Country*

| | Women | Men | | Women | Men |
|---------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Country | <i>EM (ESE)</i> | <i>EM (ESE)</i> | Country | <i>EM (ESE)</i> | <i>EM (ESE)</i> |
| Albania ^{***} | 41.60 (2.51) | 23.02 (3.02) | South Korea ^{**} | 43.73 (3.45) | 31.25 (2.97) |
| Australia ^{***} | 42.04 (1.49) | 21.73 (1.86) | Lithuania ^{***} | 58.39 (2.30) | 19.55 (2.76) |
| Belgium | 23.62 (1.63) | 19.85 (2.81) | Macedonia ^{***} | 48.94 (2.53) | 28.04 (2.83) |
| Canada ^{***} | 43.05 (0.91) | 21.59 (1.08) | Netherlands ^{***} | 26.04 (1.30) | 18.08 (2.05) |
| Chile ^{***} | 44.61 (1.52) | 26.34 (1.96) | New Zealand ^{***} | 33.51 (2.15) | 21.5 (2.36) |
| Colombia ^{***} | 41.55 (1.77) | 31.42 (2.08) | Norway ^{***} | 38.21 (2.00) | 26.04 (2.43) |
| Croatia ^{***} | 43.81 (1.78) | 21.71 (1.69) | Poland ^{***} | 37.08 (1.37) | 18.79 (2.30) |
| Czech Rep. ^{***} | 67.70 (2.11) | 23.09 (2.83) | Romania ^{***} | 59.31 (1.97) | 31.67 (2.56) |
| Denmark ^{***} | 40.04 (2.34) | 22.92 (3.7) | Russia ^{***} | 65.04 (2.39) | 19.25 (2.89) |
| Ecuador ^{**} | 33.51 (2.79) | 20.85 (2.97) | Serbia ^{***} | 49.63 (1.06) | 23.94 (1.72) |
| Estonia ^{***} | 66.60 (2.14) | 25.36 (2.67) | Singapore [*] | 17.76 (2.26) | 10.51 (2.51) |
| Ethiopia ^{**} | 25.72 (2.29) | 16.75 (2.45) | Slovakia ^{***} | 72.19 (1.99) | 27.53 (2.34) |
| France ^{***} | 32.98 (1.70) | 20.95 (2.04) | Spain ^{***} | 35.65 (1.73) | 22.26 (1.96) |
| Germany ^{***} | 56.19 (1.33) | 39.44 (1.78) | Sweden [*] | 46.69 (2.64) | 38.16 (2.67) |
| Indonesia ^{***} | 26.18 (1.83) | 7.15 (2.62) | Tanzania | 24.99 (3.43) | 24.2 (3.40) |
| Ireland ^{***} | 34.90 (1.84) | 21.86 (2.2) | Ukraine ^{***} | 57.16 (2.12) | 26.54 (2.37) |
| Italy ^{***} | 28.98 (1.86) | 17.63 (2.35) | U.K. ^{***} | 41.91 (1.69) | 18.07 (3.27) |
| Japan ^{***} | 52.52 (1.45) | 24.14 (1.65) | U.S.A. ^{***} | 28.23 (0.69) | 15.52 (0.83) |
| Kazakhstan ^{***} | 63.78 (3.19) | 27.62 (3.22) | Total ^{***} | 40.54 (0.36) | 22.39 (0.41) |

Note. *EM* = Estimated Means; *ESE* = Estimated Standard Errors (i.e., country-level estimates of the gender effect extracted from multilevel models adjusting for demographic variables). The significance of gender differences in each country is indicated by * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$.

Figure SI2

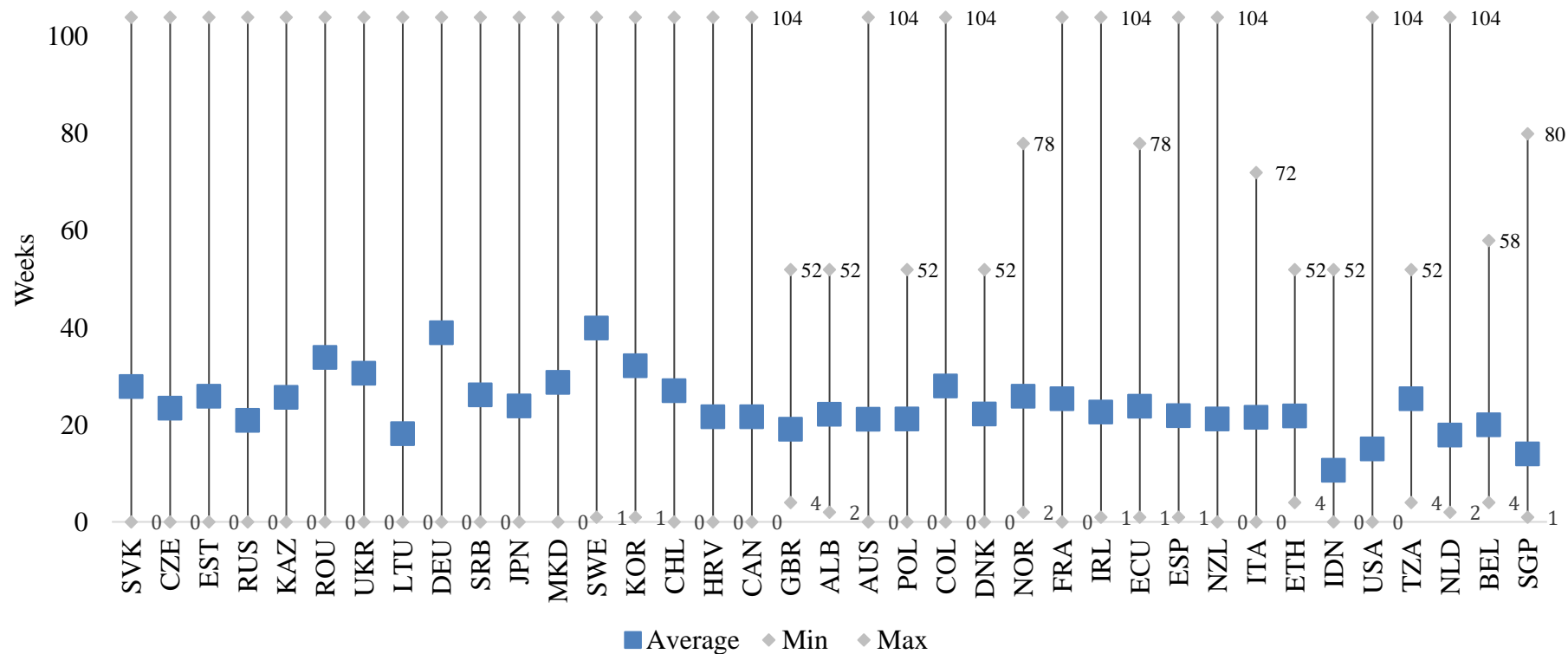
Women's Intended Uptake of Parental Leave Across Countries



Note. ALB = Albania; AUS = Australia; BEL = Belgium; CAN = Canada; CHL = Chile; COL = Colombia; CZE = Czech Republic; DEU = Germany; DNK = Denmark; ECU = Ecuador; ESP = Spain; EST = Estonia; ETH = Ethiopia; FRA = France; GBR = U.K.; HRV = Croatia; IDN = Indonesia; IRL = Ireland; ITA = Italy; JPN = Japan; KAZ = Kazakhstan; KOR = South Korea; LTU = Lithuania; MKD = Macedonia; NLD = Netherlands; NOR = Norway; NZL = New Zealand; POL = Poland; ROU = Romania; RUS = Russia; SGP = Singapore; SRB = Serbia; SVK = Slovakia; SWE = Sweden; TZA = Tanzania; UKR = Ukraine; USA = U.S.A.

Figure SI3

Men's Intended Uptake of Parental Leave Across Countries



Note. ALB = Albania; AUS = Australia; BEL = Belgium; CAN = Canada; CHL = Chile; COL = Colombia; CZE = Czech Republic; DEU = Germany; DNK = Denmark; ECU = Ecuador; ESP = Spain; EST = Estonia; ETH = Ethiopia; FRA = France; GBR = U.K.; HRV = Croatia; IDN = Indonesia; IRL = Ireland; ITA = Italy; JPN = Japan; KAZ = Kazakhstan; KOR = South Korea; LTU = Lithuania; MKD = Macedonia; NLD = Netherlands; NOR = Norway; NZL = New Zealand; POL = Poland; ROU = Romania; RUS = Russia; SGP = Singapore; SRB = Serbia; SVK = Slovakia; SWE = Sweden; TZA = Tanzania; UKR = Ukraine; USA = U.S.A.

Table SI5*Career Ambition by Gender and Country*

| Country | Career ambition | | Country | Career ambition | |
|------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------|
| | Women | Men | | Women | Men |
| | <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>M (SD)</i> | | <i>M (SD)</i> | <i>M (SD)</i> |
| Albania | 5.96 (0.94) | 6.06 (1.07) | South Korea | 5.17 (1.17) | 5.04 (1.45) |
| Australia | 5.55 (1.25) | 5.45 (1.40) | Lithuania | 5.47 (1.32) | 5.09 (1.66) |
| Belgium* | 4.99 (1.12) | 4.59 (1.25) | Macedonia | 6.14 (1.22) | 5.92 (1.04) |
| Canada | 5.66 (1.18) | 5.60 (1.29) | Netherlands | 5.27 (1.10) | 5.23 (1.32) |
| Chile** | 5.85 (1.12) | 5.40 (1.35) | New Zealand*** | 5.76 (1.19) | 5.18 (1.22) |
| Colombia | 6.14 (1.15) | 6.23 (0.97) | Norway** | 5.43 (1.09) | 4.95 (1.39) |
| Croatia | 5.25 (1.35) | 5.11 (1.33) | Poland | 5.56 (1.16) | 5.39 (1.51) |
| Czech Rep. | 4.62 (1.66) | 4.96 (1.51) | Romania | 5.82 (1.19) | 5.60 (1.24) |
| Denmark | 5.12 (1.39) | 5.40 (1.10) | Russia | 5.18 (1.38) | 5.56 (1.44) |
| Ecuador | 6.25 (1.04) | 6.12 (1.11) | Serbia | 5.57 (1.29) | 5.64 (1.38) |
| Estonia | 5.76 (1.02) | 5.56 (1.29) | Singapore | 4.91 (1.26) | 4.89 (1.32) |
| Ethiopia | 6.62 (0.80) | 6.59 (0.69) | Slovakia | 4.81 (1.46) | 4.92 (1.63) |
| France | 5.07 (1.42) | 4.85 (1.47) | Spain** | 5.49 (1.35) | 5.00 (1.59) |
| Germany* | 4.76 (1.27) | 5.03 (1.48) | Sweden | 5.35 (1.26) | 5.63 (1.25) |
| Indonesia | 5.30 (1.26) | 5.15 (1.23) | Tanzania | 6.01 (1.30) | 6.26 (1.06) |
| Ireland | 5.75 (1.20) | 5.71 (1.07) | Ukraine | 5.61 (1.35) | 5.73 (1.18) |
| Italy | 5.71 (1.16) | 5.50 (1.17) | U.K. | 5.33 (1.27) | 5.28 (1.13) |
| Japan | 4.16 (1.42) | 4.30 (1.35) | U.S.A.* | 5.95 (1.11) | 5.84 (1.22) |
| Kazakhstan | 5.57 (1.31) | 5.42 (1.55) | Total** | 5.53 (1.29) | 5.45 (1.37) |

Note. The significance of gender differences in each country is indicated by * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$.

Additional Analyses with Country-Level Variables

Model 3: Cultural Value Orientation

Below, we outline hypotheses and analyses examining the role of mastery value orientation and egalitarian value orientation on the gender gap in leave intentions.

Hypotheses

We predicted that the gender gap in intended leave would be smaller in countries oriented toward *egalitarianism* (**H7**), as men would be expected to share the role of the caregiver in these countries and thus report longer leave intentions. On the contrary, we predicted that the gender gap in intended leave would be larger in countries oriented toward *mastery* (**H8**), as men in these countries would be expected to take on the role of the breadwinner and thus report shorter leave intentions.

Measure

The degree to which cultures are oriented toward mastery and egalitarianism is based on data from multiple samples of students and teachers collected between 1988 and 2007. These data represent the degree to which individuals in a country rate a given value “as a guiding principle in MY life” (scores aggregated at the country level; Schwartz, 2008). Sample values include *success* (mastery value orientation; range: 3.72 to 4.21) and *equality* (egalitarian value orientation; range: 4.19 to 5.27). Scale ranges from -1 (*opposed to my values*) to 7 (*very important*).

Results

In Model 3, we tested whether cultural value orientations (egalitarianism and mastery) predicted gender differences in intended leave uptake (see Table SI7). Model 3’s total explanatory power was substantial (conditional $R^2 = .30$) and the fixed effects alone explained 16% of variability (marginal R^2).

Egalitarian Value Orientation. We predicted that the gender gap in intended leave would be smaller in countries more oriented toward egalitarianism (**H7**). With mastery value orientation held constant, egalitarian value orientation significantly moderated gender differences in intended uptake, $b = 22.11$, $SE = 5.50$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [11.51, 32.70]. Specifically, the gender gap was smaller in countries that are relatively more (+1 *SD*) oriented toward egalitarianism, $b = -12.69$, $SE = 2.40$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-17.17, -8.20], than in those that are less (-1 *SD*) oriented toward egalitarianism, $b = -24.18$, $SE = 2.02$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-27.96, -20.39]. Simple slopes analyses indicated that this cross-national variation seemed to be driven by women's (not men's) leave intentions: In countries with higher egalitarian value orientation, leave intentions were lower for women, $b = -21.53$, $SE = 7.13$, $p = .006$, 95% CI [-34.90, -8.17], but not men, $b = 0.57$, $SE = 3.61$, $p = .856$, 95% CI [-6.19, 7.33].

Mastery Value Orientation. We also predicted that the gender gap would be larger in countries that are more oriented toward mastery (**H8**). However, a marginally significant interaction between gender and mastery values, $b = 25.45$, $SE = 13.88$, $p = .089$, 95% CI [-1.35, 52.13], indicated that, with egalitarian value orientation held constant, the gender gap in intended leave is not strongly associated with the degree to which a country is oriented toward mastery.

Table SI6*Correlations between Country-Level Variables*

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
|--|--------|------|-------|------|--------|-------|-------|--------|------|---------|---------|------|----|
| 1. Father-exclusive leave _a | – | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Gender imbalance in exclusive leave _a | -.39* | – | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Available leave length _a | -.02 | .04 | – | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Financially generous leave _{a,b} | .34* | -.24 | .38* | – | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Global index score of gender equality | .61*** | -.12 | -.004 | .12 | – | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Women's labor force participation _c | .40* | -.24 | .24 | .21 | .53** | – | | | | | | | |
| 7. Women's income _c | .56*** | -.21 | .20 | .33† | .52** | .59** | – | | | | | | |
| 8. Women's representation in politics | .53** | -.09 | -.14 | .04 | .89*** | .38* | .33* | – | | | | | |
| 9. Women's representation in management _c | .28 | -.19 | .12 | -.01 | .45** | .37* | .47** | .12 | – | | | | |
| 10. Egalitarian value orientation _d | .31† | -.23 | -.22 | -.08 | .58*** | .28 | .15 | .67*** | .13 | – | | | |
| 11. Harmony value orientation _d | .35* | -.12 | .20 | .31† | .20 | .26 | .15 | .32† | -.19 | .46** | – | | |
| 12. Mastery value orientation _d | -.025 | .18 | -.22 | -.07 | -.13 | -.26 | -.15 | -.17 | -.03 | -.26 | -.63*** | – | |
| 13. Hierarchy value orientation _d | -.041* | .09 | .04 | -.24 | -.50** | -.35* | -.20 | -.53** | -.05 | -.64*** | -.66*** | .38* | – |

Note. The correlations were run on each of 10 imputed datasets of country-level variables and then averaged across these imputed datasets.

Correlations computed using Pearson-method with pairwise-deletion. † $p < .07$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$, two-tailed.

_a Missing values (NAs) in the ILO (2014) report were not imputed but recoded as 0 (i.e., no leave available). Information about parental leave policies was transformed into numeric data (for an overview of transformations:

https://osf.io/ewzpc/?view_only=1a24faca3db949ad89e97a3248c65c95).

_b If the ILO report stated flat rate benefit, we computed the % of previous earnings based on OECD data on average salary in the respective country.

_c 1 imputation.

_d 7 imputations.

Table SI7*Model 3: Intended Uptake of Parental Leave Predicted by Gender and Cultural Value**Orientations*

| | <i>b</i> | <i>SE b</i> | <i>p</i> |
|------------------------------------|----------|-------------|-----------------|
| Fixed Effects | | | |
| Gender | -21.50 | 1.66 | <.001 |
| Egalitarian value orientation | -13.53 | 5.49 | .021 |
| Mastery value orientation | -8.83 | 13.87 | .543 |
| Cross-level interactions | | | |
| Gender × Egalitarian | 22.11 | 5.50 | <.001 |
| Gender × Mastery | 25.45 | 13.88 | .089 |
| Random Effects | | | |
| | <i>b</i> | <i>SD</i> | |
| Intercept variance (site-level) | 0.40 | 0.63 | |
| Intercept variance (country-level) | 91.78 | 9.58 | |
| Slope variance | 85.41 | 9.24 | |

Note. Gender (the only Level 1 variable reported above) was coded -0.36 for women and 0.64 for men. $N = 13,942$ at Level 1 (individuals), $N = 99$ at Level 2 (sites), and $N = 37$ at Level 3 (countries). Effects of individual- and site-level control variables can be found in Table 2.

Full Model. When testing the significant interaction effect (between participant gender and egalitarian value orientation) from Model 3 together with the significant interaction effects from Models 1 and 2, only the interaction between gender and length of available leave statistically predicted intended uptake of parental leave. All other hypothesized cross-level interaction effects were reduced and statistically non-significant (see Table SI8). Thus, although women intended to take less parental leave in countries that are oriented toward egalitarianism or have more women in power, longer available parental leave was still associated with the amount of shared leave that women intended to take when controlling for these effects.

Year of Parental Leave Availability. It is possible that for policies to affect attitudes of young people, they must have been in place for some time. To explore this possibility, we assessed whether the gender gap in leave intentions varied as a function of how long parental leave (i.e., leave that is available to *both* mothers and fathers, and partners choose how to distribute the leave between themselves) had been available (see Table SI9). To compute a variable for *year of parental leave available*, we coded countries with no parental leave available as 0, countries that had parental leave available since 2013 as 1, and countries that had parental leave since 1994 as 2. The gender gap in intended leave did not significantly vary as a function of how long parental leave had been available in a country, $b = -0.79$, $SE = 2.57$, $p = .760$, 95% CI [-5.99, 4.37].

Table SI8

Full Model: Intended Uptake of Parental Leave Predicted by Gender, Financially Generous Leave, Available Leave Length, Women's Relative Representation in Politics, and Egalitarian Value Orientation

| | <i>b</i> | <i>SE b</i> | <i>p</i> |
|---|----------|-------------|----------|
| Fixed Effects | | | |
| Level 1 | | | |
| Intercept | 33.37 | 1.62 | <.001 |
| HEED major | 1.85 | 0.38 | <.001 |
| STEM major | -0.65 | 0.44 | .139 |
| Soc Sciences major | 0.12 | 0.75 | .869 |
| Business major | -0.97 | 0.64 | .129 |
| Age | 0.25 | 0.10 | .017 |
| Subjective SES | -0.54 | 0.13 | <.001 |
| Gender role attitudes toward leadership | -0.59 | 0.19 | .002 |
| Gender role attitudes toward childcare | -0.07 | 0.14 | .606 |
| Gender | -16.64 | 1.83 | <.001 |
| Gender × attitudes toward leadership | -1.22 | 0.37 | .001 |
| Gender × attitudes toward childcare | -1.98 | 0.30 | <.001 |
| Level 2 | | | |
| Age (site average) | 0.31 | 0.34 | .374 |
| Subjective SES (site average) | -3.71 | 0.91 | <.001 |
| Level 3 | | | |
| Financially generous leave | 0.17 | 0.07 | .032 |
| Available leave length | 0.07 | 0.02 | .004 |
| Relative representation in politics | 1.56 | 13.60 | .882 |
| Egalitarian value orientation | -10.22 | 5.67 | .085 |
| Cross-level interactions | | | |
| Gender × Generous leave | -0.11 | 0.08 | .185 |
| Gender × Leave length | -0.08 | 0.03 | .004 |
| Gender × Politics | 18.91 | 15.36 | .240 |
| Gender × Egalitarian | 5.37 | 6.44 | .438 |
| Random Effects | | | |
| | <i>b</i> | <i>SD</i> | |
| Intercept variance (site-level) | 0.39 | 0.62 | |
| Intercept variance (country-level) | 55.34 | 7.44 | |
| Slope variance | 65.16 | 8.07 | |

Note. Gender was centered at the grand mean (coded -0.36 for women and 0.64 for men). $N = 13,942$ at Level 1 (individuals), $N = 99$ at Level 2 (sites), and $N = 37$ at Level 3 (countries). HEED = majors in fields associated with health care, early childhood education, and domestic roles: Psychology (General); Psychology to be a clinical practitioner; Medicine to become a doctor; Other Health Care/Social Work professions; Education/Teaching). STEM = majors in Science (Chemistry, Biology, etc.); Technology (e.g., Computer Science), Engineering, and Mathematics/Statistics. The remaining clusters included Social Sciences

majors (History, Sociology, etc.); Business majors; and Other majors (Law; Sport Sciences; Fine Arts; Theology/Religious Studies). Four variables used standard effects coding (Aiken & West, 1991) to represent five clusters of academic majors, with the named group coded 1, “Other” majors (the base group) coded -1, and remaining clusters of majors coded 0.

Table SI9*Year Parental Leave was Available by Country*

| Country | 1994 | 2013 | Country | 1994 | 2013 |
|-------------------|------|------|--------------------|------|------|
| Albania | *** | Yes | South Korea | No | Yes |
| Australia | *** | Yes | Lithuania | *** | Yes |
| Belgium | Yes | Yes | Macedonia | *** | Yes |
| Canada | Yes | Yes | Netherlands | Yes | Yes |
| Chile | No | Yes | New Zealand | No | Yes |
| Colombia | No | No | Norway | Yes | Yes |
| Croatia | *** | Yes | Poland | No | Yes |
| Czech Rep. | *** | Yes | Romania | No | Yes |
| Denmark | Yes | Yes | Russia | Yes | Yes |
| Ecuador | No | No | Serbia | *** | No |
| Estonia | *** | Yes | Singapore | *** | No |
| Ethiopia | No | No | Slovakia | *** | Yes |
| France | Yes | Yes | Spain | Yes | Yes |
| Germany | Yes | Yes | Sweden | Yes | Yes |
| Indonesia | No | No | Tanzania | No | No |
| Ireland | No | Yes | Ukraine | Yes | Yes |
| Italy | Yes | Yes | U.K. | No | Yes |
| Japan | Yes | Yes | U.S.A. | Yes | Yes |
| Kazakhstan | *** | Yes | – | – | – |

Note. *** = information is not available, could not be identified or is not applicable. The information presented in this table has been adapted from information presented in Appendix IV in the ILO (2014) report.

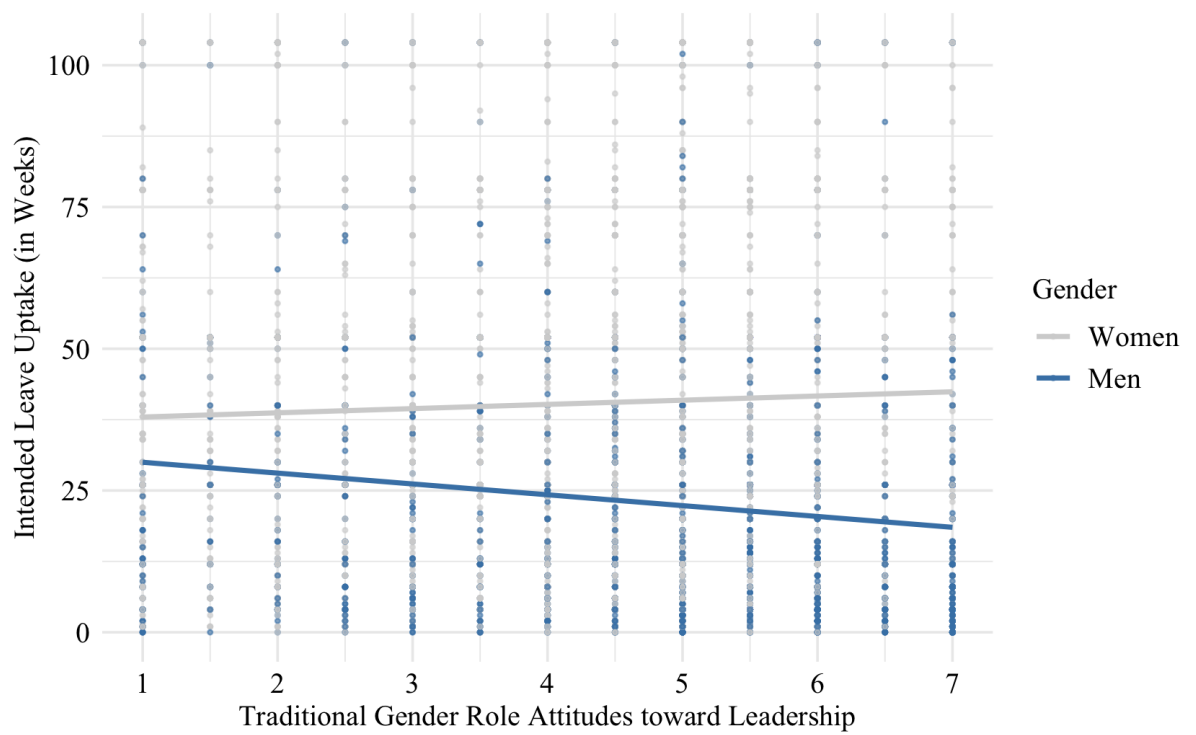
Additional Analyses with Individual-Level Variables

Gender Role Attitudes toward Leadership

We controlled for individual-level gender role attitudes toward leadership in the full model (see Table SI8). Gender role attitudes toward leadership significantly interacted with gender in predicting individual intentions to take parental leave, $b = -1.22$, $SE = 0.37$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [-1.93, -0.49]. Simple slopes analyses exploring this interaction indicated that gender role attitudes toward leadership corresponded with men's (but not women's) leave intentions: The slope was negative and significant for men, $b = -1.37$, $SE = 0.26$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-1.88, -0.87], but non-significant for women, $b = -0.15$, $SE = 0.26$, $p = .559$, 95% CI [-0.67, 0.36]. Thus, men who endorsed more traditional gender role attitudes toward leadership intended to take less leave (see Figure SI4).

Figure SI4

Intended Uptake of Parental Leave Predicted by Gender and Attitudes toward Leadership



Note. Dots represent the relationship between women’s and men’s individual intentions to take parental leave and gender role attitudes toward leadership without additional covariates.

Robustness Checks for Key Results

To assess the robustness of our reported findings, we ran a series of robustness checks.

Parental Leave Variables

First, due to the combination of our large sample and the lack of financially generous and gender egalitarian parental leave policies across the world, some parental leave policies were non-normally distributed. To check that our findings were not due to non-normality, we recoded these parental leave variables into categorical variables and replicated the analyses. We categorized available leave length into 4 categories: 0 weeks (no leave), 2-17 weeks (short leave), 26-104 weeks (moderate leave), and 156 weeks (long leave), and created 3 effect codes comparing each of the first 3 categories to the last category. In line with the findings with available leave length as a continuous predictor, the gender gap was significantly smaller in countries that offer no leave as opposed to long leave ($p = .044$). However, there was no significant difference in the gender gap between countries that offer short as opposed to long leave ($p = .265$), nor between countries that offer moderate as compared to long leave ($p = .961$). We also categorized the rate at which parental leave is compensated into 4 categories: 0% (no compensation), 13-40% (low compensation), 50-80% (moderate compensation), and 100% (completely compensated), and created 3 effect codes comparing each of the first 3 categories to the last category. Contrary to the findings with length of parental leave compensated at 100%, neither effect code significantly interacted with gender in predicting intended uptake ($ps > .283$).

Control Variables

Second, we re-ran Models 1-3 controlling for traditional gender role attitudes toward leadership and gender role attitudes toward childcare, and excluding individual- and site-level controls. Testing all models with these robustness checks generated comparable findings to

those reported (see Table SI10), with one exception. Namely, when excluding individual- and site-level control variables, we found that the (previously marginal) interaction between gender imbalance in exclusive leave and gender was significant. The gender gap in anticipated leave uptake was larger in countries with a relatively larger (+1 *SD*) gender imbalance, $b = -21.98$, $SE = 1.96$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-25.83, -18.13], than in those with a smaller (-1 *SD*) gender imbalance, $b = -15.64$, $SE = 2.25$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-20.04, -11.24]. Simple slopes analyses indicated that this cross-national variation in the gender gap seemed to be driven by women's (not men's) leave intentions: The slope of the gender imbalance in exclusive leave was non-significant for men, $b = 0.005$, $SE = 0.01$, $p = .701$, 95% CI [-0.02, 0.03], but positive and significant for women, $b = 0.05$, $SE = 0.02$, $p = .035$, 95% CI [0.005, 0.10], such that women reported longer leave intentions in countries with more leave available exclusively to mothers over fathers.

Outcome Variable

Third, with respect to our outcome variable 'intended uptake of parental leave,' one collaborating team (from Slovakia) indicated that they opted to omit 'non-medical' from the item description to facilitate comprehension. In addition, one collaborating team (from Spain) indicated that they had asked respondents to report the amount of leave they would like to take in the first three (rather than two) years of their child's life to better reflect the parental leave policy in that country². We re-ran all models excluding countries that had made changes to the description of the outcome variable. Furthermore, it is possible that some of our participants imagine having children (for example through surrogate, adoption, or sperm donation) and raising them on their own or with friends. Therefore, we also re-ran all models

² In line with preregistered procedures, any values that exceeded 104 weeks (2 years) were recoded into missing values prior to hypothesis testing.

excluding participants who indicated that they did not see themselves raising a child with a partner in the future by responding *Not Applicable* to the question: How much of the childcare (taking care of children, spending time with them and fulfilling their physical and psychological needs) do you expect you and your partner will do respectively? Testing all models with these robustness checks generated comparable findings to those reported (see Table SI11), with one exception. Namely, when excluding Slovakia and Spain (i.e., countries that had modified the item description of the outcome variable), we found that the effect of the interaction between financially generous leave and gender was reduced and statistically non-significant ($p = .095$).

Sample

Fourth, we re-ran all models adding participants who identified as *gay/lesbian* or *mostly gay/lesbian* to the sample. Testing all models with this sample generated comparable findings to those reported (see Table SI11).

Variables with Low Reliability

Fifth, we re-ran the full model, including the significant interaction effects from Models 1, 2, and 3, without two countries where items for gender role attitudes toward childcare were not highly correlated (i.e., Croatia $r = .14$ and Macedonia $r = .32$). We also re-ran this model without countries where the scale reliabilities for gender role attitudes toward childcare were below the recommended Cronbach α threshold of $.70$ (i.e., Ethiopia $\alpha = .45$ and Japan $\alpha = .68$). Testing this model with these robustness checks generated comparable findings to those reported (see Table SI12).

Table SI10*Models 1-3 with Robustness Checks*

| | Controlling for gender role attitudes | | | Excluding individual- and site-level control variables | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|--------------|---------------|--|--------------|---------------|
| | <i>b</i> | 95% CI | | <i>b</i> | 95% CI | |
| | | LL | UL | | LL | UL |
| Model 1 | | | | | | |
| Gender × Gender imbalanced leave | -0.04 | -0.08 | 0.0002 | -0.05 | -0.09 | -0.002 |
| Gender × Father-exclusive leave | 0.09 | -0.09 | 0.28 | 0.13 | -0.07 | 0.33 |
| Gender × Available leave length | -0.08 | -0.12 | -0.03 | -0.07 | -0.12 | -0.02 |
| Gender × Financially generous leave | -0.18 | -0.35 | -0.009 | -0.19 | -0.38 | -0.01 |
| Model 2 | | | | | | |
| Gender × Politics | 33.93 | 13.62 | 70.65 | 43.00 | 14.33 | 71.84 |
| Gender × Income | -6.40 | -49.80 | 38.27 | -5.52 | -50.01 | 38.82 |
| Model 3 | | | | | | |
| Gender × Egalitarian value orientation | 17.11 | 11.51 | 32.70 | 22.02 | 11.23 | 32.78 |
| Gender × Mastery value orientation | 23.02 | -1.35 | 52.13 | 23.99 | -3.28 | 51.11 |

Note. Effects of individual- and site-level control variables can be found in Table 2.

Table SI11*Models 1-3 with Robustness Checks*

| | Excluding Slovakia and Spain | | | Excluding participants who do not expect to share childcare with a partner | | | Including participants who identify as (mostly) gay/lesbian | | |
|--|------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--|--------------|--------------|---|--------------|--------------|
| | <i>b</i> | 95% CI | | <i>b</i> | 95% CI | | <i>b</i> | 95% CI | |
| | | LL | UL | | LL | UL | | LL | UL |
| Model 1 | | | | | | | | | |
| Gender × Gender imbalanced leave | -0.04 | -0.08 | 0.007 | -0.04 | -0.08 | 0.0005 | -0.04 | -0.09 | 1.14 |
| Gender × Father-exclusive leave | 0.12 | -0.08 | 0.31 | 0.13 | -0.05 | 0.32 | 0.12 | -0.08 | 3.10 |
| Gender × Available leave length | -0.08 | -0.13 | -0.02 | -0.07 | -0.11 | -0.02 | -0.07 | -0.12 | -2.37 |
| Gender × Financially generous leave | -0.16 | -0.34 | 0.03 | -0.19 | -0.36 | -0.01 | -0.18 | -0.36 | -7.13 |
| Model 2 | | | | | | | | | |
| Gender × Politics | 38.01 | 9.78 | 66.35 | 44,94 | 18.07 | 72.02 | 42.46 | 14.44 | 70,65 |
| Gender × Income | -5.34 | -48.21 | 37.39 | -15,28 | -57,73 | 27,05 | -6.67 | -50.15 | 36.69 |
| Model 3 | | | | | | | | | |
| Gender × Egalitarian value orientation | 21.35 | 10.79 | 31.90 | 22,63 | 12.7 | 32.58 | 21.99 | 11.61 | 32.36 |
| Gender × Mastery value orientation | 20.43 | -3.31 | 46.47 | 20,41 | -4,68 | 45,62 | 26.21 | -0.04 | 52.33 |

Note. Effects of individual- and site-level control variables can be found in Table 2.

Table SI12*Full Model with Robustness Checks*

| | Excluding Croatia and Macedonia | | | Excluding Ethiopia and Japan | | |
|--|---------------------------------|--------------|--------------|------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| | <i>b</i> | 95% CI | | <i>b</i> | 95% CI | |
| | | LL | UL | | LL | UL |
| Full model | | | | | | |
| Gender x Financially generous leave | -0.09 | -0.26 | 0.07 | -0.10 | -0.26 | 0.06 |
| Gender x Available leave length | -0.08 | -0.13 | -0.03 | -0.07 | -0.12 | -0.02 |
| Gender x Politics | 17.78 | -10.13 | 48.15 | 16.16 | -13.11 | 45.61 |
| Gender x Egalitarian value orientation | 5.91 | -7.03 | 17.35 | 7.17 | -5.23 | 19.50 |

Note. Effects of individual- and site-level control variables can be found in Table 2.

Exploratory Country-Level Confounds

In line with our preregistered procedures, prior to hypothesis testing we assessed whether to control for potential country-level confounds in the final model. We assessed whether the following country-level variables interacted with participant gender in predicting intended uptake of parental leave: *Communal norms* (Global Preference Survey, 2012³; <https://www.briq-institute.org/global-preferences/downloads>); *Affective autonomy values* (Schwartz, 2008); *Intellectual autonomy values* (Schwartz, 2008); *Embeddedness values* (Schwartz, 2008); *Wage equality for similar work* (WEF, 2017); *log GDP per capita*⁴ (<https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.CD>); and *Human Development* (HDI, 2017; http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/2018_human_development_statistical_update.pdf). The above-mentioned country-level variables did not significantly moderate gender differences in intended leave uptake ($ps > .168$) and hence were not included as control variables in the final model.

³ Country-level preferences for altruism and positive reciprocity were averaged into a composite score of country-level communal norms.

⁴ Since GDP per capita may spike from one year to another, we averaged values from 2015 to 2017, which gives us a better estimate of the country's economic activities over recent years. To address positive skew in the GDP per capita data (skewness = 0.44), the scale was logarithmic (log) transformed (i.e., one unit change on the GDP scale corresponds to a GDP ten times higher).

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