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# Does Experiencing Spousal Support and Strain Impact the Quality of Family-Based Support that Supervisors Provide to Employees?

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Does Experiencing Spousal Support and Strain Impact the Quality of Family-Based  
Support that Supervisors Provide to Employees?

by

Joseph Alvin Sherwood

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy  
in  
Applied Psychology

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### **Abstract**

Relying on previously collected data from the Work, Family and Health Study (WFHS), and drawing from a sample of 75 supervisors working in the extended healthcare industry, this research investigation empirically tested propositions of the Work-Home Resources Model to explore antecedents of family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB). To explore these relationships a longitudinal, multi-level structural equation model (MSEM) was used to examine how supervisor contextual resources (spousal support) and demands (spousal strain) in the home domain impacted employee perceptions of these supervisors' FSSB through gains in personal resources (psychological distress) across three time points. Results from the MSEM model confirmed one hypothesis, namely that supervisor spousal strain at baseline was significantly and negatively related to FSSB at 12 months. Neither the mediational mechanism of psychological distress, nor any of the other hypothesized relationships between spousal support and FSSB were supported. Limitations and future directions are discussed.

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## Chapter 1: Introduction

Several social and demographic trends have resulted in a steady rise in work and home demands. Among these trends, women make up a historically large percentage of the U.S. workforce (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021); the numbers of dual-earner couples and working mothers are on the rise (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021); and a growing number of men and women are assuming caretaking responsibilities of parents and children (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019). Additionally, technological advances, globalization, and capitalistic trends that prioritize lean production and enable an “always on” economy have contributed to increasing work demands (e.g., Bond et al., 1998; Tetrick & Quick, 2003). These developments, coupled with stagnating wages, increases in the cost of living, and a widening economic gap (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015b), exacerbate the impact that these competing work and home demands have on the lives of workers and organizations.

The conflict that arises between competing work and home demands has been shown to negatively impact individuals and organizations by leading to increases in stress, withdrawal, burnout, and decreases in satisfaction, commitment, health, and performance (for a review, see Eby et al., 2005). Due to the observable personal and organizational impact of increasing home and work demands, a significant body of research has focused on the interface between the home and work domains. Some organizational policies or other resources, such as flexible work arrangements (e.g., flextime and telework), paid parental leave, and subsidized childcare expenses have been introduced to mitigate the negative impact of these competing demands with variable

success (Allen et al., 2012). This may be in large part because the effectiveness of such policies depends largely on a supervisor's proclivity to endorse their use or actively support a healthy integration between work and home (Berkman, Buxton, Ertel, & Okechukwu, 2010; Hammer et al., 2007).

Some research has shown that family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB) can mitigate the negative impact of these demands. For example, having a supervisor who displays behaviors that support an employee's home life has been shown to reduce perceptions of work-home conflict, reduce stress, turnover intentions, and improve job satisfaction, engagement, and performance, as well as improve various employee wellness based outcomes (Bagger & Li, 2014; Hammer et al., 2011; Hammer et al., 2013; Hammer et al., 2009; Kossek et al., 2011; Matthews et al., 2014; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012).

Notwithstanding the growing evidence that family-supportive supervision is beneficial to workers and organizations, very little research has examined factors that motivate managers to engage in FSSB. Straub (2012) presented a theoretical agenda for several research propositions around the construct of FSSB, including several antecedents (e.g., organizational work-home culture, leader-member-exchange, the relationship supervisors have with their own managers, reward systems; other individual level factors like life stage, gender roles, social identity, and leadership skills), but this conceptual framework did not consider the influence of supervisor resources, despite the prevalence of resource-based theories underpinning much of the work-home interface (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Several studies have conceptualized various constructs as



antecedents of FSSB, but performed only cross-sectional analyses of such, and thus did not empirically evaluate directionality of relationships (Allen, 2001; Foley et al., 2006; Huffman & Olson, 2017; Kailasapathy & Jayakody, 2017; Las Heras et al., 2015; Matthews et al. 2014; Mills et al. 2014; Morganson et al. 2017).

Collectively, these cross-sectional studies found that supervisors provide higher levels of FSSB for those of the same gender or race (Foley et al., 2006), that positive leadership styles like transformational leadership are correlated with increases in FSSB (Kailasapathy & Jayakody, 2017; Kossek et al., 2018), and that organizations with enhanced supportive cultures also have supervisors with greater FSSB (Las Heras et al., 2015; Matthews et al., 2014; Mills et al., 2014). Nonetheless, none of these studies used a time-lagged design to examine antecedents of FSSB, and therefore cannot justifiably make inferences about directionality. Worth noting, Kossek et al. (2018) used a time-lagged design to explore a full theoretical model of FSSB including antecedents and outcomes, but the time-lag component of the design only applied to the outcome variables of FSSB, while transformational leadership (conceptualized as an antecedent) was measured cross-sectionally with FSSB.

To date, only three published studies have empirically examined antecedents of FSSB using a time-lagged design; these three studies demonstrated that managerial training aimed to increase FSSB led to increases in employee perceptions of FSSB (Hammer et al., 2011; Kelly et al., 2014; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2016). To my knowledge, with the exception of the aforementioned training intervention studies targeting FSSB

(Hammer et al., 2011; Kelly et al. 2014; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2016), no other published studies have used a time-lagged design to examine antecedents of FSSB.

The work-home resources model (WHRM), which draws heavily from other resource and demand-based theories like conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989; 2002), job demands-resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Shaufeli & Bakker, 2004), and ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1994), proposes that work-home conflict is a process in which contextual demands in one domain drain personal resources, leaving insufficient personal resources to function optimally in the other domain. According to the WHRM, personal resources, in contrast to contextual resources like social support, are more proximal to the self, and include things like individual traits, mental health, mood, energy, or time (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). It is further suggested that work-home enrichment reflects the process whereby resources in one domain replenish, or add to, one's personal resource supply, subsequently improving performance in the other domain. Specifically, it is proposed that low resources and high demands in one domain are likely to worsen outcomes in the other domain (work-home conflict), whereas low contextual demands and ample contextual resources facilitate outcomes in the other domain (work-home enrichment). Drawing from COR theory, the work-home resources model also describes processes whereby people seek to conserve resources in the face of demands and use existing resources as a means to generate future resources via investment of those resources, and as a means to combat the perceived strain originating from contextual demands. Empirical evidence based on the above theories have demonstrated that access

to home resources (via processes of home-to-work enrichment) lead to positive work outcomes like increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance (McNall et al., 2010; Shockley & Singla, 2011), and that home demands (via processes of home-to-work conflict) lead to negative work outcomes like reduced job satisfaction, increased turnover intentions, and decreased job performance (Amstad et al., 2011).

Spousal support has been conceptualized as a form of home-based resource (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), and has been shown to positively impact work outcomes. Specifically, spousal support has led to reduced perceptions of work and home demands (Aryee et al., 1999; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999), has been shown to be negatively related to both directions of work-home conflict (Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Noor, 2002; Van Daalen et al., 2006), psychological distress (Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Burke & Greenglass, 1999), and emotional exhaustion (Halbesleben et al., 2012), and employees feel less obligated to come to work while sick with a supportive spouse (DePasquale et al., 2017). Spousal support has also been shown to be positively related to job satisfaction (Aryee et al., 1999; Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Ferguson et al., 2012), improved job performance, and less aggressive behaviors on the job in a high stress environment (Repetti, 1989).

Spousal strain, on the other hand, has been conceptualized as a home-based demand (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), and has been shown to have a negative impact on psychological health. For example, spousal strain has been shown to lead to

increases in depressive symptoms, reduced physical and mental health, and reduced job satisfaction (Sandberg et al., 2012).

Regardless of these findings, very little research examines the influence of spousal support and strain on work behavior. In line with the WHRM, I first argue that 1) high demands and low resources in a supervisor's home life, assessed as spousal strain and spousal support, respectively, will lead to fewer family supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB) performed (as reported by the recipients of FSSB, the supervisor's employees), and conversely, 2) low levels of spousal strain and a high degree of spousal support will lead to increases in FSSB performance (employee-reported).

In addition, Hammer et al. (2007) made the observation based on early validation work around FSSB that "our empirical data from the focus groups show... if supervisors are experiencing work-family stress, they are less likely to have the personal resources to be able to be supportive of their subordinates' work-family conflicts." (p. 189). Moreover, this early work aligns with the theoretical assumption provided by the work-home resources model that home demands and resources influence work outcomes through the impact they have on an employee's personal resources.

Indeed, research has demonstrated that home-to-work conflict is related to decreases in mental health (Amstad et al., 2011) and home-to-work enrichment is related to improved mental health (McNall et al., 2010; Shockely & Singla, 2011), and that mental health subsequently influences several work outcomes, including engagement, satisfaction, turnover, and performance (see Sonnentag & Frese, 2012 for review).

Some studies have shown how baseline levels of demands moderate the effect of FSSB trainings. For example, one study showed that employees' level of family-to-work conflict moderated the effects of a training where supervisors were trained to provide greater FSSB (Hammer et al., 2011), but this study focused on employee-level demands, not those of the supervisors themselves. A more recent study showed that supervisors who reported lower job demands at baseline experienced greater levels of burnout after a training intervention designed to teach them to provide greater FSSB (Perry et al., 2020). Nevertheless, to date no studies have examined the impact of contextual resources and demands on supervisor enactment of FSSB (i.e., whether contextual resources and demands impact levels of, or changes in, FSSB), or how these processes may function through fluctuations in personal resources like mental health. In line with early suggestions of Hammer et al. (2007) and the theoretical assumptions of the WHRM (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), I argue that supervisor's mental health, as assessed by the degree of psychological distress experienced, has a direct effect on FSSB, and an indirect effect through the supervisor's home resources and demands. Specifically, I suggest that as supervisors face home environments with high demands and few resources (as assessed via spousal strain and support, respectively), they will experience increases in psychological distress, and subsequently perform fewer FSSB. Conversely, supervisors experiencing high resources and low demands at home will report improved mental health, as assessed by lower ratings of psychological distress, and perform more FSSB. Spousal support and strain were selected as focal contextual resources in this study because they are generated in the home domain and have been shown to be a moderate to

strong predictor of psychological distress (Mickelson, 2012; Papp et al., 2007). A review of all suggested relationships is modeled in Figure 1.

This research provides several theoretical and practical contributions. First, to my knowledge, only three published study have examined the antecedents of FSSB with a time-lagged design. These studies demonstrated that FSSB increase after a training designed to increase FSSB (Hammer et al., 2011; Kelly et al., 2014; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2016). These trainings generally involved a mix of computer-based instruction, face-to-face instruction and behavioral modeling, and supervisor behavioral self-monitoring. Trainings focused on the benefits of reducing work-family conflict for employees' and their families' health and well-being, the organization's motivation for reducing work-family conflict, including concerns about retention, absenteeism, and health costs, information on the company's current work-family policies and programs, and definitions and examples of the four FSSB dimensions, and support for practicing and understanding how to provide FSSB. This research will extend the theory of FSSB to examine resource-based drivers of FSSB, expanding understanding of FSSB theory. Second, as the WHRM is a relatively new theory, this study will help provide support for yet untested propositions and will contribute to a greater understanding of the processes by which work-home conflict and enrichment function relative to cross-domain access to contextual resources and exposure to contextual demands. Understanding these specific antecedents can also help to inform interventions aimed at changing family-supportive attitudes and behaviors. Lastly, this study may also highlight the importance of ensuring that managers themselves receive ample home-based support and could also contribute to

the large body of work demonstrating cross-domain interactions, potentially influencing public policy that provides greater access to home-based support for workers.

The rest of this dissertation will be divided into five remaining chapters. Chapter 2 will lay the theoretical foundation upon which the investigation of this dissertation is based, provide key definitions and summarize important findings regarding relationships of constructs with FSSB. Chapter 3 will provide conceptual support and summarize research findings that justify the hypothesized relationships of this study, in addition to articulating precisely these hypotheses. Chapter 4 will describe the methodology used to test the hypotheses described in Chapter 3. Chapter 5 will report the findings and results of this study, and Chapter 6 will summarize these findings, describe their practical and theoretical implications in addition to listing various limitations to the study and avenues for future research.

## Chapter 2: Theoretical Foundation

### Work-Home Interface

Work-home interface refers to the body of scientific work and findings generated around the idea that there are cross-domain interactions between the work and home domains. That is, experiences that occur in the work domain can influence experiences in the home domain, and vice versa, both positively, negatively, and in a variety of ways (Eby et al., 2005). While most research has traditionally focused on the cross-domain interactions of the family and work domain, organizations and researchers have begun shifting the focus to be more inclusive of workers who have lives, roles, and responsibilities outside of the work domain, but do not necessarily have a family (Hammer & Demsky, 2014). Thus, for the remainder of this dissertation, I use the terms, work-family and work-home, interchangeably. Furthermore, while this research does not aim to explicitly measure any of the following outlined constructs, it is at its core a work-home study, so it bears briefly explaining the theoretical foundations on which it rests.

One of the primary theories cited among early work-family researchers was that of role theory (Katz and Kahn, 1978), which suggests that people occupy various roles as they carry out their day-to-day lives, and within each role face certain demands. These demands drain resources and can create *role conflict*, when responsibilities or obligations in one role compete for the same resources (e.g., time, energy) as another occupied role. Role conflict can occur for a person within a single domain (e.g., work) or across domains (e.g., work-home). Within the framework of this research, *contextual demands* refer to physical, emotional, social, or organizational aspects of the social context that



require sustained physical and/or mental effort (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), and include examples like overtime work, conflicts at home, many household chores, and can originate in both nonwork or home domain and the work domain.

*Work-home conflict* reflects a process whereby demands in one domain deplete personal resources, resulting in diminished outcomes in the other domain (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Briefly, Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) define *personal resources* as those resources existing more proximal to the self, and include things like individual traits, mental health, mood, energy, or time. Research has generally delineated work-home conflict into three broad types- *time-based conflict*, in which time pressures in one role restrict the amount of time that can be devoted to the other role. For example, a pressing deadline for a work-task may impede a parent from having the time to prepare a nutritious meal for their children. *Strain-based conflict*, which occurs when strain in one role (e.g., home) affects successful performance of role responsibilities in another (e.g., work). For example, experiencing work stress due to difficult work demands may diminish one's ability to be fully present and provide emotional support to a spouse. Lastly, *behavior-based conflict*, occurs when patterns of behavior in one role are incompatible with behaviors in another. For example, a police officer may learn to speak authoritatively with suspected criminals and struggle to transition to more empathic or open forms of dialogue with a spouse or children at home (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Work-home conflict has been linked to several work outcomes including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, burnout, emotional exhaustion, absenteeism, job performance, job stress, and OCB, several home outcomes

including marital satisfaction, family satisfaction, family-related performance, and family stress, and several individual health outcomes and health behaviors like, general health, psychological strain, somatic/physical complaints, depression, and substance/alcohol abuse (Amstad et al., 2011).

Just as people facing competing demands with limited resources in the home domain may create strain and diminished experiences in the work domain and vice-versa, resources generated in either domain may also be used to improve the experience and outcomes of the other (McNall et al., 2010; Shockley & Singla, 2011). To understand these positive work-home interactions, researchers have developed a few similarly defined constructs, namely *work-home enrichment*, a process whereby contextual resources from the home and work domains lead to the development of personal resources subsequently facilitating performance in the other domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), *positive spillover*, the transfer of positively-valenced affect, skills, behaviors, and values from the originating domain to the receiving domain, thus having beneficial effects on the receiving domain (Hanson, Hammer, & Colton, 2006), and *facilitation*, the extent to which an individual's involvement in one particular life domain (e.g., home) provides gains (i.e., developmental, affective, capital, or efficiency) that contribute to enhanced functioning in another domain of life (e.g., work; Wayne et al., 2007). The subtle distinctions among these constructs is discussed by Hanson et al. (2006), but are largely accounted for under the conceptualization of work-home enrichment as defined within the work-home resources model (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012); this is due, more specifically, to

the broad definition of resources within the work-home resources model, which will be discussed in the following section. Briefly, the general construct of work-home enrichment has been linked to several work, home, and personal health outcomes. For example, Hammer et al. (2006) found that the spillover of resources from one domain (e.g., home) to another (e.g., work) led to increased job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and mental health. Two meta-analyses of work-home enrichment research have reported significant positive relationships with job satisfaction (McNall et al., 2010; Shockley & Singla, 2011). In addition, McNall et al. (2010) found that both work-to-home enrichment and home-to-work enrichment were positively related to organizational affective commitment, and family satisfaction.

Both work-home conflict and enrichment have been empirically shown to operate bi-directionally. That is, resources and demands in the home domain can influence outcomes in work domain, and vice versa. Research has shown that whereas work demands are more predictive of work to home conflict, home demands are most predictive of home-to-work conflict (Frone et al., 1992). Throughout this dissertation, where appropriate, directionality will be indicated with the terms and work-to-home conflict (or enrichment), and home-to-work conflict (or enrichment). In sum, these concepts and background serve to demonstrate that the work and home domains are a mesosystem that continually influence one another in several ways. According to ecological systems theory, upon which the WHRM is partially built, a mesosystem is defined as conglomerates of two microsystems, including the linkage between those two domains (e.g., work and home domains; Bronfenbrenner, 1994). A microsystem is a

domain or context with which the individual has a direct connection (e.g., home, work, school).

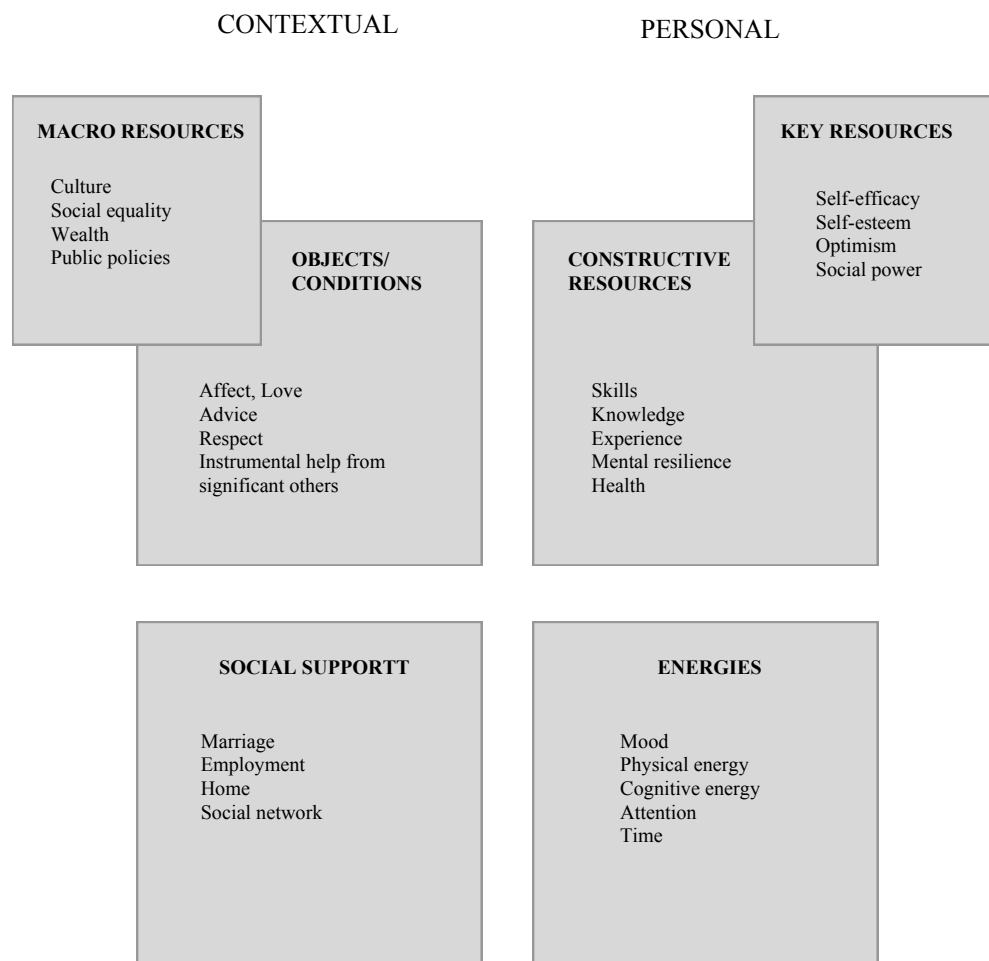
### **Work-Home Resources Model (WHRM)**

The work-home resources model (WHRM) posits that work-home conflict occurs when resource depletion in one domain diminishes outcomes in the other domain, and that work-home enrichment occurs when contextual resources generated in one domain lead to positive outcomes in the other (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). The WHRM draws heavily from conservation of resources (COR) theory to define various types of resources, and describe the motivational processes involved in the acquisition and conservation of resources across the work and home domains. According to COR theory, people strive to maintain, protect, and build their resources and that stress occurs when individuals are either threatened with losing or actually lose these resources (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002). COR theory makes six broad propositions (two “principals” and 4 “Corollaries”) in relation to the acquisition and loss of resources, 1) losing resources is psychologically more harmful than gaining them, 2) people must invest resources to protect from resource loss and to gain resources, 3) people with greater access to personal resources are better positioned to invest those resources, 4) as people lose resources, investment becomes more difficult (i.e., loss spiral), 5) as people gain resources, they are in a better position to invest and gain additional resources (i.e., gain spiral), and 6) a lack of resources leads to defensive attempts to conserve remaining resources. These assumptions are adopted by the WHRM and applied more narrowly to the work and home domains. In addition to the six assumptions accepted from COR theory, the

WHRM makes eight propositions specific to the work-home interface. Two, stated above, emphasize the role of resources in the processes of work-home conflict and enrichment, and provide justification for the model of the present research. The other six are not mentioned here as they fall outside the scope of this research.

Resources can be defined as anything perceived by the individual to help attain their goals (Halbesleben et al., 2014). The WHRM expounds on the taxonomy of resources described by Hobfoll (1989, 2002) and defines resources by their origin, or source, distinguishing between contextual and personal resources. *Contextual resources* exist outside the self as objects or conditions (marriage, employment, home, social network), social support (instrumental help from significant others, affect, love, advice, respect), and *macro resources*, which refer to characteristics of the larger economic, social, and cultural system in which a person is embedded (e.g., economic prosperity, public policies, social equality, etc.). *Personal resources* are more proximal to the self and include constructive resources, key resources, and energies (Hobfoll, 2002). *Constructive resources* refer to those personal resources that are more stable and can be drawn from more reliably (e.g., skills, knowledge, experience, mental resilience, health). *Key resources* represent several personality traits that enable more effective coping strategies in the face of a stressor (i.e., self-efficacy, self-esteem, optimism, social power). *Energies* are more volatile in that they can be depleted (e.g., time, physical and cognitive energy) or represent psychological states that fluctuate (e.g., mood, attention). A visual summary of definitions of resources as defined by the WHRM is provided in Figure 1.

Research has shown that access to contextual resources has beneficial effects, being significantly related to increases in job satisfaction, engagement, general psychological well-being, and job performance, and decreases in emotional exhaustion, turnover intentions, and absenteeism, among others (Hausser et al., 2010; Humphrey et al., 2007; Luchman & Gonzalez-Morales, 2013). In sum, these concepts and background serve to highlight the point that resources and demands originating in one domain (home) continually impact experiences and outcomes in the other domain (work) and vice-versa.

**Figure 1***Categorization of Resources According to the WHRM*

*Note.* This figure is adapted and largely based on Figure 1 provided by Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012)

### **Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviors (FSSB)**

Social support is listed as one of the primary contextual resources people draw on to confront demands and role stress originating in the work and home domains (Hobfoll 2002; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Generally speaking, various forms and sources of social support have been shown to be effective at reducing stress, and contributing to several positive outcomes, including job and family satisfaction, organizational commitment, task performance, employee well-being, and engagement, and reduced work-home conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Hammer et al. 2009; 2011; 2013; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Considering social support originating from the workplace, family-specific support has been shown to be more effective at reducing work-home conflict than general forms of support (Hammer et al., 2009; Kossek et al., 2011). It is worth noting that FSSB is generally conceptualized as a contextual resource received by employees, but as this study focuses on supervisors and not their employees, FSSB is conceptualized as an outcome of other contextual and personal resources received or possessed by supervisors.

Supervisors have shown to be especially important sources for decreasing work-home conflict and improving work and health outcomes (Berkman et al., 2010; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Berkman et al. (2010) describe supervisors and managers as “the gatekeepers of [organizational] family responsive policies and practices,” for their role in determining the levels of work–home strain that employees experience (p. 317). In this study, Berkman et al. (2010) found that employees with supervisors who were open, supportive, and creative about work-home needs (e.g., work



schedule flexibility), slept 29 more minutes per day, and were over twice as likely to have 2 or more cardiovascular disease risk factors than employees of supervisors who were less open, supportive, and creative. These findings suggest that not only are family-specific forms of support especially important in organizations, but that supervisors ultimately hold the key to unlocking the door allowing organizational support to have a positive effect. Further, research has shown that employee job satisfaction can be increased by family supportive supervision (Hammer et al., 2009; Hammer et al., 2011). According to the WHRM, this is accomplished by increasing an employee's personal resource supply thereby facilitating more effective coping, and/or fulfillment of various role demands.

The concept of a work-family supportive supervisor emerged in the late 1980s, and over the next 20 years, a number of measures were developed (Clark, 2001; Fernandez, 1986; Galinsky, Hughes, & Shinn, 1986; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Shinn et al., 1989; Thompson et al., 1999; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Thomas and Ganster (1995) defined the family-supportive supervisor as “one who empathizes with the employee's desire to seek balance between work and family responsibilities,” and included examples like “accommodating an employee's flexible schedule, being tolerant of short personal phone calls after school, granting a time trade so that new elder-care arrangements can be monitored, allowing one to bring a child to work on a snow day, or even offering a kind word when the babysitter quits.” (p. 7). Like many of the other constructs introduced, this definition highlights both instrumental (e.g., accommodating schedules) and emotional (e.g., empathy, offering a kind word) forms of support.

However, none of the measures developed offered a thorough examination into the sub-dimensions of the construct and into the specific behaviors ideally performed by work-family supportive supervisors. Hammer et al. (2007) acknowledged these gaps, defined work-family supportive managers as people who recognize “the dual agenda of working families housed within organizations” (p. 182), introduced a theoretical model and future research agenda, conducted qualitative research among grocery store employees, and from this work identified four potential, behaviorally structured, sub-dimensions of a superordinate factor termed family supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB).

#### ***Definition of the FSSB Construct***

Hammer et al. (2009) built on this research agenda by developing and testing a measure that assesses family supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB). This study confirmed that FSSB was a multi-dimensional construct comprised of four sub-dimensions, 1) emotional support, 2) instrumental support, 3) role-modeling, and 4) creative work-life management. *Emotional support* refers to perceptions that one is being cared for and one’s feelings are being addressed. *Instrumental support* refers to perceptions that the supervisor responds to the work-home needs regarding daily management transactions, such as scheduling flexible time. *Role modeling behavior* refers to the supervisor exhibiting how to handle work-home issues and allowing subordinates to observe and learn. *Creative work-family management* refers to managerial-initiated actions to restructure work to enhance employee effectiveness. In this case, the supervisor exhibits proactive, strategic, and innovative methods to manage

the whole team so that everyone's needs are fulfilled. Hammer et al.'s (2009) study provided empirical evidence that these four dimensions are highly correlated, ranging from 0.62 to 0.74. In addition, they have similar, significant effect sizes on various outcomes, such as job satisfaction, turnover intentions, work-to-home conflict, and home-to-work positive spillover.

These significant effects were also observed with the inclusion of general supervisor support, demonstrating that FSSB are distinguishable and add value over general supervisor support alone to alleviate work-home stressors (Hammer et al., 2009). A meta-analysis showed that FSSB are also distinguishable from perceptions of organizational home support, with the average-weighted correlation between work-family supervisor support and organizational family support as 0.32, ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Kossek et al., 2011). In terms of the relationships between these two forms of support, it may be that perceived supervisor support results in perceived organizational support because a supervisor is a key person representing the organization's support to employees (Eisenberger et al., 2002). In addition, it is also likely that family-supportive culture prompts supervisors to provide family support to their employees (Foley et al., 2006). It is also possible that several top-down processes are at work; for example, the use of family-supportive policies and practices are strongly encouraged from organizational leaders via communications, values and mission statements, leadership role modeling, and reward systems. From a resource perspective, top-down processes may also have an indirect impact on FSSB, such that supervisors receive FSSB from their own managers, reducing supervisor work-home conflict, leading to an increase in personal resources

(i.e., work-home enrichment), and the subsequent investment of those resources into practicing FSSB with their own employees (Hammer et al., 2007; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Conceptually, it is difficult to determine the causality between perceptions of supervisor behavior and those of the organization because they likely influence one another.

### ***Outcomes of FSSB***

Since the FSSB construct was developed, a growing number of studies have shown that FSSB are beneficial to employees and organizations, and a robust record of research exists outlining several positive impacts associated with FSSB, including work-family outcomes, work outcomes, and employee health outcomes. Because outcomes of FSSB are not the focus of this study, I provide only a cursory review of past research findings and refer readers to Crain and Stevens (2018) for a more comprehensive review.

Several studies have shown a negative relationship between FSSB and work-to-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Beham et al., 2014; Behson, 2005; Breugh & Frye, 2008; Frye & Breugh, 2004; Hammer et al., 2009; Hammer et al., 2013; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Muse & Pichler, 2011; Thompson & Prottas, 2006). A number of studies have also shown a negative relationship between FSSB and family-to-work conflict (Breugh & Frye, 2007; Frye & Breugh, 2004; Muse & Pichler, 2011; Thompson & Prottas, 2006). Regarding work-family outcomes of FSSB, a handful of studies have also shown that FSSB is also positively related to work-family enrichment or positive spillover (Ode-Dusseau et al., 2012; Straub et al., 2017). A handful of studies have shown positive correlations between FSSB and perceptions of control over work and family (Thomas &

Ganster, 1995), perceptions of having more adequate time for family responsibilities and relationships (Hammer et al., 2013), work-family balance (Greenhaus et al., 2012; Las Heras et al., 2015), and employee work-home segmentation behaviors (Koch & Binnewles, 2015). Two studies have found positive relationships between FSSB and perceptions about flexible work arrangements (Allen, 2001; Breugh & Frye, 2007). Thompson and Prottas (2006) also showed that FSSB was indirectly and positively associated with life and family satisfaction via perceptions of control. Finally, a meta-analysis revealed that supervisor family support is positively related to perceived organizational support and perceived work-family organizational support and negatively related to work-to-family conflict (Kossek et al., 2011).

In addition to various work-family outcomes, FSSB has also been shown to be related several work outcomes. A number of studies have shown positive relationships between FSSB and job satisfaction (e.g., Allen, 2001; Bagger & Li, 2014; Behson, 2005; Breugh & Frye, 2007; Frye & Breugh, 2004; Hammer et al. 2009, 2011, 2013; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012; Thompson & Prottas, 2006), job commitment (Jahn et al., 2004; Choi et al., 2017), organizational commitment (Allen, 2001; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012). A number of studies have also shown negative correlations between FSSB and turnover intentions (Allen, 2001; Bagger & Li, 2014; Hammer et al., 2009; Hammer et al., 2013; Hill et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2016; Las Heras et al., 2015; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012; Thomas & Prottas, 2006). In addition to the aforementioned relationships found between FSSB and job attitudes, FSSB has also been shown to be positively related to task performance (Bagger & Li, 2014; Muse & Pichler, 2011; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012;

Wang et al., 2013) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB; Aryee et al., 2013; Bagger & Li, 2014; Choi et al., 2017; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012; Pan, 2018), and engagement (Matthews et al., 2014; Rofcanin et al., 2016; Straub et al., 2017).

A number of studies have also shown a link between FSSB and employee health or wellness outcomes. Specifically, FSSB has been shown to be negatively related to job stress (Behson, 2005; Hammer et al., 2013; Thompson & Prottas, 2006), cardiovascular disease risk (Berkman et al., 2010), obligation to come to work while sick (Hammer et al., 2013), and burnout (Koch & Binnewies, 2015; Yragui et al., 2016). Another study also found a positive link between FSSB and sleep duration (Berkman et al., 2010).

### ***Antecedents of FSSB***

Antecedents of FSSB have received very little attention by comparison. Straub (2012) presented an empirical agenda and proposed several potential antecedents of FSSB, including top-down influences like organizational work-family culture, leader-member-exchange, or the relationship supervisors have with their own managers, reward systems, and other individual level factors like life stage, gender roles, social identity, and leadership skills. Straub's (2012) conceptual framework did not consider how various conditions like demands and access to resources, contextual and personal, influence a supervisor's propensity to exhibit FSSB.

Hammer et al. (2007) also proposed that formal organizational family-supportive practices and policies and informal organizational family-supportive culture were antecedents of FSSB and employee perceptions of FSSB, while also specifically calling researchers to seek to "better understand what factors contribute to FSSB, in addition to

the formal and informal family-supportive organizational culture” (p. 195). After examining data from focus groups conducted with grocery store employees and supervisors, Hammer et al. (2007) acknowledged the potential impact of work-home demands and personal resources on supervisors’ likelihood to engage in FSSB, noting that “if supervisors are experiencing work-family stress, they are less likely to have the personal resources to be able to be supportive of their subordinates’ work-family conflicts.” (p. 189).

A number of studies have conceptualized various antecedents of FSSB, but very few have empirically examined the directionality of relationships between proposed antecedents and FSSB with a time-lagged design. While not explicitly FSSB, Foley et al. (2006) found that supervisors provide the higher levels of support for subordinates who are similar to supervisors in gender and race, providing the rationale that gender and race similarities spur perceived similarity in attitudes, values, and beliefs, which provide foundation for mutual trust and interpersonal attraction. Using a sample of military personnel whose spouse was also enlisted, Huffman and Olson (2017) found that men gave higher FSSB ratings for their supervisors than the women in the study.

Using cross-sectional data, two other studies also modeled transformational and transactional leadership styles as antecedents of FSSB (Kailasapathy & Jayakody, 2017; Kossek et al., 2018). Furthermore, Morganson et al. (2017) found a positive relationship between LMX and FSSB. Kossek et al. (2018) used a time-lagged design to explore a full theoretical model of FSSB including antecedents and outcomes, but the time-lag component of the design only applied to the outcome variables of FSSB, while the

proposed antecedents were measured cross-sectionally with FSSB. This study showed that supervisors who were rated higher on the dimension of transformational leadership, were also rated higher on FSSB, and while transformational leadership was conceptualized as an antecedent to FSSB in this study, both constructs were measured at the same time, thus the directionality of the relationship was not empirically tested.

Another recent study (Pan, 2018) explored how supervisor workaholism was positively related to FSSB, moderated by supervisors' perceptions of their employees' family-to-work conflict, such that supervisor's perception of employees' family-to-work conflict enhanced the relationship between supervisor workaholism and FSSB, but these findings were also based on cross-sectional data, therefore cannot adequately infer directionality. A few studies have demonstrated support for top-down antecedents of FSSB. For example, using cross-sectional data, Matthews et al. (2014) found that employees perceive greater FSSBs in organizations that provide more family-supportive benefits like child and eldercare resources. Other studies have shown that organizations with stronger work-family cultures and organizational support for family have higher FSSB perceptions (Allen, 2001; Las Heras et al., 2014; Mills et al., 2014). Allen (2001) also found positive correlations between flexible work arrangements and FSSB.

Only three published studies to date have empirically demonstrated antecedents of employee perceptions of FSSB using a time-lagged design, justifying claims about directionality. All three of these studies showed that training supervisors to be more supportive of their employees' personal and family lives led to increases in employee perceptions of FSSB. For example, a quasi-experimental field study of Hammer et al.



(2011) revealed that formal training designed to increase supervisors' FSSB interacted with employees' family-to-work conflict to predict employees' perceptions of FSSB. More specifically, positive training effects were observed for employees with high family-to-work conflict, whereas negative training effects were observed for employees with low family-to-work conflict. The following section presents and provides justification for a model that uses a time-lagged design to test the influence of home-based demands and resources on the occurrence of FSSB (as reported by supervisors' employees).

Two additional quasi-experimental studies from the Work, Family, and Health Network (WFHN) found that supervisor trainings led to increases in FSSB for the intervention group when compared to the control group. Examining health-care workers, Odle-Dusseau et al. (2016) found that the intervention led to increases in FSSB, which had a subsequent and positive impacts on employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, engagement, and job performance, while reducing employees' turnover intentions. This study revealed that the creative work-family management dimension of FSSB had the most profound effect on the positive intervention effects observed. Drawing from this same work and using a quasi-experimental design to train supervisors to provide greater support for employees' personal lives, but examining information technology workers, Kelly et al. (2014) found beneficial intervention effects. Specifically, when compared to the control group, employees from the intervention groups rated their supervisors higher in FSSB and found improvements in work-family conflict, family time adequacy, and schedule control. Subgroup analyses suggest the

intervention brought greater benefits to employees more vulnerable to work-family conflict.

In sum, theory and research support the idea that home and work domains are meso-systems with interacting mechanics and interwoven relationships. Furthermore, resource-based theories like COR and the WHRM provide support for the idea that contextual resources and demands generated in one domain (e.g., the home) can deplete or enhance one's personal resources, like energy or psychological health, which can influence outcomes (e.g., attitudes, affect, behaviors) in the other domain (e.g., work). Additionally, FSSB, one type of work behavior specific to supervisors, has been shown to have many positive outcomes for employees. Many research studies have explored these outcomes, but very little research has examined antecedents of FSSB. The following chapter will provide justification for an exploration of antecedents of FSSB, based on the theory discussed in this chapter.

### **Chapter 3: Support for the Proposed Model**

The proposed model (see Figure 1) makes two broad propositions, 1) high demands and low resources in a supervisor's home life, assessed as spousal strain and spousal support, respectively, will lead to increases in supervisor-reported psychological distress, and lead to fewer FSSB, and conversely, 2) low levels of supervisors' spousal strain and a high degree of spousal support will lead to reduced psychological distress of supervisors, and subsequent higher employee-reported FSSB. These propositions can be further broken down into five hypothetical relationships, and their indirect effects, whose justification is discussed in the following section and illustrated in Figure 1.

#### **FSSB**

A number of the studies and meta-analyses have reported relationships between various work and home resources and demands with work behaviors. For example, one meta-analysis showed that coworker support (a work resource) was significantly related to increases in job performance, engagement, occupational citizenship behaviors (OCB), negatively related to absenteeism, turnover, and counterproductive work behaviors; moreover, coworker antagonism had inverse significant relationships with the work behaviors (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Another meta-analysis (Humphrey et al., 2007) showed that general workplace social support and other work resources (feedback, autonomy, etc.) significantly predicted increases in task performance, job involvement, and decreases in absenteeism. A third meta-analysis by Crawford, LePine, and Rich (2010) also showed that several work resources (opportunities for development, recovery, feedback, autonomy) were positively related to engagement, whereas job demands

(workload, time urgency, emotional conflict, role conflict) were related to increases in burnout. These studies clearly demonstrate that access to work resources lead to positive work behaviors, and excessive work demands lead to negative work behaviors.

Research has also demonstrated that home resources and demands influence work behaviors. The meta-analysis by Amstad et al. (2011) demonstrated that family-to-work conflict was negatively related to job performance, OCB, and engagement, and lead to increases in absenteeism, substance use/abuse. Another meta-analysis showed that both work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict were negatively related to engagement (composite measure of performance, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and health; Halbesleben, 2010).

While research is lacking, two studies have shown that resources developed within a romantic partnership can influence work behaviors. For example, amongst a sample of Malay couples, Nasir (2010) showed that spousal support was a predictor of job performance. Amongst a sample of air traffic controllers, Repetti (1989) found that high spousal support helped these workers cope with job-related stressors, regulate emotions, and express less aggressive behaviors on the job.

The research above highlights the point that being a recipient of social support can influence a person to offer support to others (e.g., coworker support lead to positive increases in OCB-I, Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008); that access to home resources, especially spousal support, can positively impact work behavior; and that, conversely, home-based demands negatively impact work behavior by threatening resources. Theoretically, because FSSB conceptually involve the proper role modeling of effective

work-home integration, it is also possible that supervisors experiencing significant conflict and a lack of support from their spouses at home will not be perceived as effective role models, thereby reducing overall FSSB perceptions. Thus, in accordance with the above reasoning, I make the two following hypotheses.

*Hypothesis 1: Supervisor-reported spousal support at baseline will be positively associated with employee-reported FSSB at 12-months.*

*Hypothesis 2: Supervisor-reported spousal strain at baseline will be negatively associated with employee-reported FSSB at 12-months.*

### **Psychological Distress**

Access to contextual resources has been shown to have a positive impact on employee health and well-being, including measures of mental health. Broadly, testing the job-demands resources model, one meta-analysis showed that various contextual job resources like supervisor support and coworker support were negatively related to components of job burnout. Conversely, task related job demands were positively related to burnout, which represents a form of reduced well-being and depleted personal resources (Luchman & Gonzalez-Morales, 2013).

Growing research is also showing how access to home-based resources can enrich the personal and working lives of individuals. For example, validating a measure of work family positive spillover, Hammer et al. (2006) showed that the spillover of resources in a person's home life to the work life (e.g., positive mood and happy feelings at home, and skills and values developed at home, spilling over at work) have positive relationships with family satisfaction, and mental health. Two meta-analyses of work-family

enrichment research have reported significant positive relationships with mental health (McNall et al., 2010; Shockley & Singla, 2011). Results also showed that work to family enrichment was more strongly related to work-related variables, whereas family-to-work enrichment was more strongly related to non-work related variables, and that both directions of work-family enrichment were positively related to physical and mental health (both considered personal resources according to the WHRM).

Conversely high demands, and few or diminishing resources, have shown to negatively impact employee and work outcomes, including measures assessing personal resources. In addition to the meta-analytical relationships highlighted above noting the relationship between job demands and personal resources, a number of meta-analyses specifically highlight the positive relationship between work-family conflict on personal resources like physical and mental health (Allen et al., 2000; Amstad et al., 2011; Ford et al., 2007; Meyer et al., 2002). For example, four meta-analyses report a significant positive relationship between general work-family conflict and personal resources (Allen et al., 2000; Amstad et al., 2011; Ford et al., 2007; Meyer et al., 2002;). Allen et al. (2000) conducted a meta-analysis examining a broad range of consequences of work-family conflict and found that work-family conflict was positively related to burnout, several things that would be considered a threat to personal resources (psychological strain, somatic/physical symptoms, depression, work stress, family stress), and other negative behaviors (alcohol abuse). Amstad et al. (2011) conducted another meta-analysis with updated findings and showed that demands originating at home also negatively impact work and home outcomes. Specifically, this meta-analysis showed that family-to-

work conflict was positively related to substance use/abuse, job stress, family stress, general stress, psychological strain, anxiety, depression, burnout/exhaustion, health problems, and somatic/physical symptoms.

The above findings highlight the broad finding that home- or family-based strains impact psychological (and physical) health, as well as work attitudes and behaviors. More specifically, research has shown that spousal support and strain are primary antecedents of family-to-work enrichment and conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Van Daalen et al., 2006), respectively, and theoretically spousal support and strain are representations of family-to-work enrichment and conflict, respectively, when they have been linked to work outcomes (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

More specifically, a robust body of research has established the relationship between social support and mental health, and a number of reviews and meta-analyses have explored this relationship (Turner et al., 1983; Turner & Brown, 2009; Viswesvaran et al., 1999). An early meta-analysis using 83 effect sizes from independent samples reported mixed findings on the relationship between social support and a range of poor health indicators (including mortality) and found a range of  $r = -.60$  to  $.23$ , depending on a number of moderators (Schwarzer & Leppin, 1989). Relevant to this investigation, the relationship between spousal support and general health was weak, but the investigation failed to explore the role of spousal support with psychological health or distress specifically.

Other meta-analyses have also explored various moderators in these relationships and have reported mixed findings in the social support, psychological health relationship,

depending on number of moderators. Moderators commonly examined include source and type of support, gender of both the support provider and receiver, age, and contextual variables such as job type or traumatic events experienced. Two meta-analyses have been published on the relationship between social support and stress at work. Viswesvaran et al.'s (1999) meta-analysis of 68 studies on the role of social support in the process of work stress showed that social support had a threefold effect on work stressor–strain relations. More specifically, social support reduced the distress experienced, mitigated perceived stressors, and moderated the stressor–strain relationship. It was found that social support reduced the level of stressors or distress experienced rather than social support being elicited when stressors were encountered or distress was experienced. There was weak evidence for mediational and suppressor effects of social support on the process of work stress. The second meta-analysis (Halbesleben, 2006) concerning the relationship between social support and burnout showed medium effect size; more specifically, social support was negatively related to exhaustion ( $r = -.25$ ) and depersonalization ( $r = -.22$ ) and positively related to personal accomplishment ( $r = .23$ ).

Two meta-analyses investigated the association of social support to posttraumatic stress disorder. Across 11 studies, Brewin et al. (2000) found that social support was negatively related to posttraumatic stress disorder. In a similar way, in Ozer et al.'s (2003) meta-analysis the effect size of the relationship between perceived social support after the trauma and posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms was in the medium range ( $r = -.28$ ), making social support the second strongest predictor after peritraumatic dissociation. Along these lines, Prati and Peitroni (2010) reviewed and analyzed the



relation of perceived social support and mental health among first responders from 37 empirical studies. This meta-analysis found an effect size of  $r = .27$ . These findings have also been reported in other cultures. For example, a recent meta-analysis, reviewing 64 independent samples performed in Iran reported effect sizes of  $r = .36$  and  $r = .33$  between social support and mental health for a fixed-effect and random-effect model, respectively (Harandi et al., 2017).

A number of studies have shown that spousal support reduced perceptions of work and home demands (Aryee et al., 1999; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999), is negatively related to both directions of work-family conflict (Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Van Daalen et al., 2006), which was positively linked to psychological distress (Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Burke & Greenglass, 1999), and negatively related to marital satisfaction (Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Ferguson et al., 2012; Nasir & Amin, 2010), and life satisfaction (Aryee et al., 1999). Halbesleben et al. (2012) showed that partnered couples who also worked together had higher levels of spousal support, which negatively related to time-base, strain-based, and behavior-based work family conflict, and experienced less emotional exhaustion than those who worked independently from their partners.

In addition to broader investigations of the relationship between social support and various forms of psychological health and distress, a number of studies have focused specifically on the role of spousal support and psychological health and distress, and various work outcomes. Noor (2002) found that those with high levels of spousal support reported less work-family conflict overall and were more resilient to the worsening of

work-family conflict in the face of low job autonomy, or higher workloads, than peers reporting low spousal support. Within a sample of caregivers, DePasquale et al. (2017) showed that for those with especially demanding workloads (double and triple duty caregivers of children and adults), spousal support moderated the relationship between work demands and the perceived obligation to come to work while sick. This study demonstrated that a resource generated in the home domain (spousal support) can interact with heavy work demands and influence a behavioral intention (obligation to come to work while sick) in a way that more effectively protects against future resource loss (staying home while sick). Spousal support has also been shown to have a direct link to job satisfaction (Bures et al., 1995; Huffman et al., 2014; Nasir, 2010).

With regard to the link between spousal support and psychological health, the majority of studies have examined this relationship within the context of a stressful or traumatic event. For example, Quinn et al. (1987) found amongst a sample of 60 lung cancer patients that spousal support was negatively related to psychological distress and change in distress one and nine months after diagnosis. Two studies examined the relationship between spousal support and variations of psychological health amongst new parents. Using a sample of 92 couples making the transition into parenthood, Don and Mickelson (2012) found that positive paternal spousal support, and negative paternal support interactions related paternal relationship satisfaction positively and negative, respectively, which was negatively related to paternal post-partum depression. Singer et al. (1996) found that among mothers with low birthweight infants and with a low sense of

parenting competence, but who had support from their spouse, reported lower psychological distress related to mothering responsibilities.

Spousal strain, which arises from both marital and nonmarital stressors and demands, has also been shown to have an impact on personal resources like psychological health and various work outcomes. In one study, Khan et al. (2009) found that among 67 couples, with one partner recovering from knee surgery, spousal support (listening and showing empathy) increased self-efficacy, reduced depression, and improved recovery outcomes whereas “problematic support” (showing disinterest and suggestions about how to cope) hindered optimal recovery in part by weakening efficacy beliefs. Another study relying on a large sample of 3,484 couples from the Mexican Health and Aging Study, Saenz (2021) found that older (50+) Mexican couples experiencing more spousal support was associated with less loneliness, whereas experiencing spousal strain was associated with more loneliness three years later. More generally, Biehle and Mickelson (2012) used a 7-day diary study, and found that among 50 couples, spousal support related to less anxiety and depression and more positive mood, whereas spousal strain or a lack of support was related to more anxiety and depression. Additionally, Papp et al. (2007) had a sample of 100 community-based couples complete an assessment of psychological distress and diaries describing marital conflict that occurred at home during a 15-day period. Findings revealed associations between both spouses’ psychological distress and multiple behavioral and emotional conflict expressions in the home. Other studies have shown that partners' negative behaviors such as partner criticism, psychological and physical abuse and trust violations

can be associated with depression and marital dysfunction (Beach et al., 1998; Christian-Herman et al., 2001). For women, spouses' hostility can also be related to depressive symptoms (Brummet et al., 2000). Lastly, Sandberg and Harper (2000) also found that marital relationship can be significantly and directly associated with depression in older couples. Poor health and stress were not only strongly related to depression scores, but they had an indirect effect on depression on both husbands and wives through marital distress.

The studies reviewed above demonstrate a consistent link between various constructs of spousal support and spousal strain with diverse components of psychological health and distress. However, few of these studies examined these relationships in a work setting, and none of them focused on a sample of supervisors, and more specifically, supervisors in an extended care-giving role.

Thus, I hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 3: Supervisor-reported spousal support at baseline will be negatively associated with supervisor-reported psychological distress at 6-months.*

*Hypothesis 4: Supervisor-reported spousal strain at baseline will be positively associated*

*with supervisor-reported psychological distress at 6-months.*

Given that so little attention has been paid to the antecedents of FSSB, the following hypothesis are more exploratory in nature. Nevertheless, based on propositions of COR theory and the WHRM, a conceptual case can be made that psychological distress may impede a supervisor's ability to provide FSSB to their employees, and some

research lends support to this idea. Most research on social support focuses on the outcomes generated for a recipient of social support (i.e., a contextual resource). For example, a large body of research has shown outcomes for the recipients of general forms of social support, including improved health (Smith et al., 1994; Wang et al., 2003), rehabilitation success (Chronister et al., 2008), work stress (Viswesvaran et al., 1999), and work-family conflict (Kossek et al., .2011). Social support is also probably the most well-known situational variable that has been proposed as a potential buffer against job strain (e.g. Haines et al. 1991; Johnson and Hall, 1988). Research has also examined many outcomes that employee recipients of FSSB experience like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work-family conflict, work behaviors like performance, OCB, and safety behaviors, and wellness outcomes like sleep and cardiovascular disease risk factors (Crain & Stevens 2018).

Because research has traditionally focused on outcomes of receiving social support, including FSSB, the antecedents of FSSB have largely been neglected in the research. In other words, very few studies examine factors that enable or motivate people and supervisors to provide social support. Straying from the way social support constructs have generally been examined, the following rationale and hypotheses frame FSSB as a form of work behavior or facet of supervisor performance. Thus, the rationale outlined will focus on how psychological distress or mental health impacts other constructs of work behavior or supervisor performance as they relate, and are conceptually similar, to FSSB. Specifically, the following hypotheses suggest that supervisors experiencing higher levels of psychological distress will provide lower levels

of FSSB to their employees. This assumption is based on central tenets of resource-based theories and relevant research findings.

For example, a central principal of COR theory suggests that people invest resources in order to protect against resource loss, to recover from losses, and to gain resources (Hobfoll, 2001). Additionally, a corollary of COR theory states that individuals with resources are in a better position to invest those resources. In other words, those with a pool of resources to draw from have greater opportunity to invest resources. Corollary 2 states that as individuals lose resources, investment becomes more difficult (a resource loss spiral; Hobfoll, 2001). On the other hand, Corollary 3 states that as individuals gain resources, they are in a better position to invest and gain additional resources (a resource gain spiral). Phrased within the framework of the WHRM, the loss spiral reflects a process whereby an initial loss in personal resources due to contextual demands induces further loss because there are fewer personal resources available to deal effectively with the chronic demands or to collect contextual resources. Likewise, stable contextual resources may lead to a gain spiral in which resources accumulate. Structural contextual resources enable one to avoid or solve contextual demands and to collect new resources (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

According to this logic, it is possible that those who receive contextual resources like spousal support at home, or who possess personal resources like psychological health or wellness, may be better positioned and motivated to invest those resources by providing FSSB to their employees, especially if they perceive that doing so may lead to improvements in team functioning or well-being that increases their own access to future

resources. For example, it is possible that supervisors who provide FSSB to employees create higher functioning teams than those supervisors who do not and that doing so may create promotional or higher compensation opportunities for those supervisors.

Conversely, in line with the aforementioned reasoning presented, supervisors who report experiencing a high degree of spousal strain and a low degree of spousal support may experience a greater sense of psychological distress or overall strain. If these conditions persist, the continually experienced strain may lead to employee burnout and reduced engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). And while research on the antecedents of burnout tends to focus exclusively on stressors originating from the work domain, studies on recovery experiences have shown that stressors and strain from the home domain can also impact one's experience of burnout (Reichl et al. 2014; Sonnentag, 2005). One meta-analysis of 91 samples and with a total of 51,700 participants revealed that both directions of work-home conflict (home-to-work and work-to-home) were related to the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions of burnout (Reichl et al., 2014).

Burnout is said to be a multidimensional construct arising from the prolonged experience of stress and consisting of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment, and it is commonly studied within nursing populations due to the high stress nature of healthcare work. Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being emotionally drained by one's contact with other people, and it is the central strain dimension of burnout. Depersonalization refers to a negative or excessively detached response toward these people, who are the recipients of one's service or care. Finally, reduced personal accomplishment refers to a decline in one's feelings of competence and

successful achievement at work (see also Maslach & Jackson 1984, Maslach & Leiter 2008).

Based on these definitions, burnout is a construct with very clear social implications, and those who report having a high degree of psychological distress are more likely to also experience symptoms of burnout (Brewer & Shapard, 2004; Shirom, 2009). Taken alongside the definitions of the dimensions of FSSB, which involve being emotionally present and empathic to employee home challenges as well as strategically working with each employee to balance work-home demands, it's not a leap to suggest that prolonged or serious psychological distress may impede the successful fulfilment of such. In fact, recent cross-sectional studies have shown that the burnout dimension of exhaustion from both the Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory have negative relationships with FSSB (Koch & Binnewies, 2015; Yragui et al., 2016). Studies have also shown that experiencing symptoms of burnout do impact how employees socially engage with those in their care, even potentially leading to aggressive behaviors (Salyers et al., 2015; Shoshan & Sonnentag, 2019; Tanaka et al., 2015). For example, among a sample of 411 long-term care facility employees Tanaka et al. (2015) found that employees with higher reports of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization related to emotional expressions of criticism and hostility toward patients. Another meta-analysis of 82 studies including 210,669 healthcare providers found significant negative relationships between burnout and quality of patient care and safety (Salyers et al., 2015).



Kelly and Adams (2018) noted that although much of the burnout research and discussion has been concentrated on the frontline and direct care nursing staff, nurse leaders also operate within the same at-risk environments while also carrying the burden of disciplinary, organizational, and operational stress. Indeed, a recent longitudinal study of 104 Chinese leader-follower dyads found that after controlling for baseline levels of follower burnout, leader burnout crossed-over to followers and predicted follower resource depletion and burnout at six-month follow-up (Huang et al., 2016).

Taken together these findings suggest that prolonged psychological strain originating from stressors in both work and home domains lead to burnout, and that this burnout impacts the social behavior of employees at work, specifically reducing the quality of social interactions and increasing the level of aggression. Further, nursing supervisors experiencing burnout are likely impacted in a way that negatively impacts the employees under supervision by depleting their job and personal resources. Conversely, FSSB by definition is a contextual resource for employees. This research aligns with the observation made by Hammer et al. (2007) based on early validation work of FSSB that “empirical data from the focus groups show... if supervisors are experiencing work-family stress, they are less likely to have the personal resources to be able to be supportive of their subordinates' work-family conflicts.” (p. 189).

In addition to burnout, other studies have examined how psychological distress has acted as an antecedent of related concepts or correlates to FSSB. For example, studies have shown that employees who report higher levels of psychological distress or poor mental health have greater levels of absenteeism (Cocker et al., 2013; Hardy et al., 2003),

withdrawal (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Jiang et al., 2015; Probst, 2002), and lower levels of engagement (Jiang et al., 2015) and job performance (Cocker et al., 2013). Sandberg et al. (2012) found that spousal strain was a significant predictor of depressive symptoms, health, and work satisfaction; moreover, depression acted as an indirect link between marital distress and work satisfaction. Another study showed that negative marital interaction was associated with significantly lower work satisfaction, poorer health, and elevated depression scores; and that the relationship between negative marital interaction and work satisfaction was mediated by depression and health (Sanderberg et al., 2013). These studies show that spousal strain impacts work outcomes, and that this relationship is mediated by poorer psychological health.

Other studies have shown that mental health also impacts work behavior, including constructs conceptually similar to social support, like OCB. For example, from a theoretical foundation based in COR theory and using a sample of employees providing in-home eldercare, Zacher et al. (2012) found that mental health mediated the relationship between eldercare demands and work performance, including OCB. Similarly, Simbula and Guglielmi (2013) found that mental health problems at Time 1 were negatively related to work engagement and OCBs at Time 2.

A number of studies have also examined constructs related to psychological strain or emotional distress as antecedents of leadership behaviors. For example, a number of studies have examined how trait-based negative affectivity, which is marked by a routine display of negative emotions like sadness and anxiety impact leadership effectiveness. A meta-analysis of these studies found that negative affectivity was significantly and

negatively related to leadership effectiveness and that this relationship was partially mediated through transformational leadership (Joseph et al., 2015), which has been shown to be a positive correlate of FSSB (Kossek et al., 2018).

In addition to transformational leadership, a number of studies have also examined how supervisors' psychological distress or poor health is related to abusive supervision. Abusive supervision reflects the extent to which supervisors engage in ongoing displays of verbal and non-verbal (but not physical) hostility (Tepper, 2000), such as public ridicule, inappropriate assignment of blame, rudeness, and/or the invasion of privacy (Tepper et al., 2006). While no studies examine the relationship between FSSB and abusive supervision, given the conceptual differences it is unlikely that employees would perceive their supervisors to be both hostile or abusive and supportive simultaneously, and highly possible that these two constructs would be negatively related. Using data collected from a field survey of 334 supervisor-employee dyads, Tepper et al. (2006) found that supervisors' depression mediated the relationship between supervisors' procedural justice and employees' perceptions of their supervisors' abusiveness and that the mediation framework was stronger when employees were higher in negative affectivity. A final study using COR theory as a framework examining abusive supervision and transformational leadership investigated the relationship between leaders' depleted resources and their leadership behaviors. Using a sample of 172 supervisor-employee dyads, this study found that leaders' depressive symptoms, anxiety, and workplace alcohol consumption separately predicted lower transformational leadership, and higher abusive supervision. Furthermore, partial support was found for an

exacerbating effect on transformational leadership and abusive supervision (Byrne et al., 2014).

Additionally, a recent study also focused on supervisors and using a similar intervention framework as the one used for this dissertation found that for supervisors, the intervention led to higher work-to-family conflict and lower organizational commitment. Additionally, supervisor reports of job demands at baseline moderated the intervention's effect on supervisor burnout, such that burnout was higher for those supervisors who reported lower job demands at baseline. This suggests that the demands supervisors face may impede them from realizing the full benefits of participating in family-supportive supervision (Perry et al., 2020).

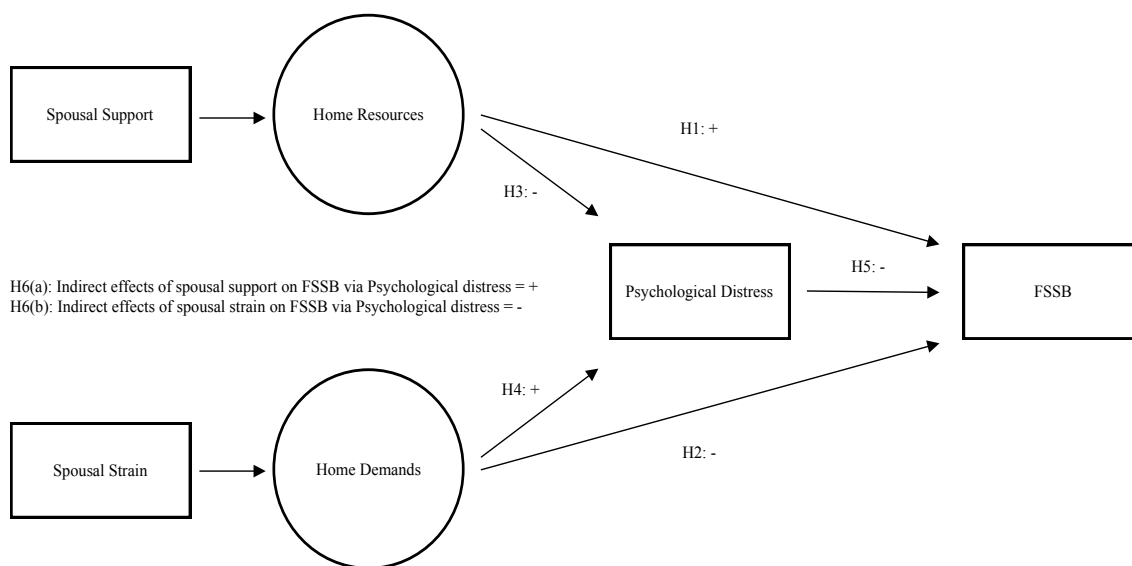
Thus, I make the following hypotheses:

*Hypothesis 5: Supervisor-reported psychological distress at 6-months will be negatively associated with employee-reported FSSB at 12-months.*

*Hypothesis 6: Supervisor-reported psychological distress at 6-months mediates the effects of supervisor-reported spousal support and spousal strain on employee-reported FSSB at 12-months, such that the indirect effects are positive (a) and negative (b), respectively.*

**Figure 2**

*Conceptual Model of Hypothesized Relationships Between Supervisor Home Demands, Resources, Psychological Distress, and Employee Perceptions of FSSB*



## **Chapter 4: Method**

### **Procedure**

Data for this research come from the Work, Family, and Health Study (WFHS), a long-term intervention-based research initiative by the Work, Family, and Health Network (WFHN) to reduce work-family conflict, and improve subsequent health and well-being of workers, their families, and their employing organizations. The WFHN is an interdisciplinary collective of researchers from seven institutions and was funded by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). More detailed information about the WFHS has been described elsewhere (Bray et al., 2013). Briefly, trained field interviewers conducted computer-assisted personal interviews on site with individuals working across 30 facilities of a US extended-healthcare employer. Interviews were conducted at three time points, separated by 6-months, referred to as baseline, 6-months, and 12-months. Interviews lasted approximately 60 minutes, and participants were provided with a \$20 incentive after each interview. Eligible participants for this research included supervisors and employees, who worked a minimum of 22 hours per week during the day or evening shift (not night shift).

### **Participants**

Participants included in this study were taken from a larger sample of 131 supervisors nested within 30 different extended care facilities or units. To be included in the primary analyses, supervisors had to be married or living with a romantic partner, participated at all three time points, and have at least one employee report who completed interview responses at 12-months. This led to a final sample of 75 supervisors, nested

within 30 different units or nursing facilities. Each unit had an average of 2.5 supervisors who were eligible for inclusion in this study. Descriptive statistics of manager sample were examined (Table 1). Of managers in this sample, the majority were White (91.5%) females (87.6%) with an average age of 45 years. Most, 53.5%, had attended some college or were college graduates (43.4%). Managers worked an average 47 hours per week, had an average organizational tenure of 8.7 years, had been in a management role for an average 5.9 years, and directly supervised an average of 8.2 employees, though this was highly variable. Participants had a variety of job titles including, but not limited to, unit manager, administrator, director of nursing, and nurse supervisor. A majority, 61.2%, worked a regular daytime shift with another 27.1% reporting working variables schedules.

Employee-reported FSSBs of managers at 12-months were taken from a sample of 1,075 employees directly supervised by those managers who serve as the primary subjects of this study. These employees were also mostly White (66%) women (92.1%) working an average of 37 hours per week. Employee job titles included, but were not limited to, personal care certified nurse assistant, licensed or certified nurse assistant, licensed practical unit nurse, geriatric certified nurse assistant, and licensed practical charge nurse. While job type can be linked to stress and strain-related experiences, employees in this sample had similar roles and thus it is not expected that job type would have a differential effect in the model.

Matching of employees to supervisors was accomplished with the use of an identification number, and FSSB reports were then aggregated at the supervisor level

with each manager receiving an average score derived from employees under their direct supervision.

Table 1

*Manager Sample Demographic and Work Characteristics (N = 131)*

	Frequency	Percent	Mean	SD
Age			45	10.926
Gender				
Male	16	12.4		
Female	113	87.6		
Race				
White	118	91.5		
Black Or African American	1	0.8		
Asian Indian	1	0.8		
Other Pacific Islander	3	2.3		
Some Other Race	1	0.8		
Hispanic	2	1.6		
More Than One Race	3	2.3		
Education				
Grade 12 Or Ged (High School Graduate)	4	3.1		
College 1 - 3 Years (Some College Or Technical School)	69	53.5		
College 4 Years Or More (College Graduate)	56	43.4		
Job Title				
Licensed practical nurse - unit nurse	1	0.8		
Licensed practical nurse - unit manager	17	13.2		
Licensed practical nurse – supervisor	5	3.9		
Registered nurse – unit manager	27	20.9		
Registered nurse - supervisor	15	11.6		
Administrator	23	17.8		
Registered nurse – director of nursing	23	17.8		
Program director (homestead, progression, tcu)	1	0.8		
Scheduler	15	11.6		



No response	1	0.8		
Work Schedule				
Variable	35	27.1		
Regular daytime shift	79	61.2		
Regular evening shift	7	5.4		
Rotating shift	2	1.6		
Split shift	3	2.3		
No response	3	2.3		
Organizational tenure			8.70	7.43
Managerial tenure			5.90	5.43
Work hours per week			47.33	8.48
Number of employees supervises			34.65	38.81

## Measures

To adequately assess causal relationships, focal measures were measured at three different time points. Specifically, supervisors' home resources and demands, as assessed by spousal support and strain, respectively, were measured at baseline, supervisor psychological distress was measured at 6-months, and employee-reported FSSB were measured at 12-months. All variables were self-reported by the supervisor, with the exception of FSSB, which are employee-reported with the supervisor as the target, aggregated, and matched to the corresponding supervisor responses. All measures and their items are included in Table 2.

### *Spousal Support and Spousal Strain*

Measures of spousal support and spousal strain both contained five items each and were developed by Schuster, Kessler, and Aseltine (1990). Spousal support and strain were self-reported by the supervisor. A sample item for spousal support was, "Does your spouse/partner understand the way you feel about things?" A sample items for spousal strain was "Do you feel your spouse/partner makes too many demands on you?"

Response options for both scales ranged from not at all (1) to a lot (4) in the past month. Scale scores were created by computed a mean score having a range between 1-4 for both spousal strain and spousal support with higher scores reflecting more spousal support or strain. A Cronbach's alpha of .88 for spousal support and .85 for spousal strain were reported at baseline for the supervisors of this sample. It is also worthwhile to note that spousal support and spousal strain were highly and negatively correlated,  $r = -.57$ .

### ***Psychological Distress***

Six items were used to measure supervisor's perceived psychological distress at 6-months. Psychological distress was self-reported by the supervisor. A sample item was "during the last 30 days, how much of the time did you feel so sad nothing could cheer you up?" Responses options ranged from 1 (none of the time) to 5 (all of the time). Scale scores were created by computed a mean score having a range between 1-5, with higher scores reflecting increased perceptions of psychological distress for the supervisor. The measure was developed by Kessler et al. (2003), and a reported Cronbach's alpha of .82 for 6-months of this sample.

### ***FSSB***

Family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB) were measured at 12-months using the FSSB-Short Form (FSSB-SF). This measure includes four items, each item designed to assess a unique sub-dimension of FSSB; a sample item was "your supervisor makes you feel comfortable talking to him/her about my conflicts between work and non-work." Responses range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Unlike the other measures of this study, FSSB was assessed at the employee level from a sample of 1,256

employees directly supervised by the supervisors serving as the target of this investigation. Scale scores were created by computed a mean score having a range between 1-5. These scale scores were then aggregated at the supervisor level, and an average score was computed derived from groups of employees under each manager. These scales were then matched to the supervisor to whom they corresponded. In this sample, employee reported FSSB at 12-months had a Cronbach alpha of .92.

### *Control Variables*

Aligning with the argument by Becker et al. (2016) that control variables are better left out unless there is a theoretical precedent and sufficient statistical power for their inclusion, and given some initial concerns of power for this study, control variables were not introduced to the original model with two exceptions. As the larger study from which these data are drawn included a large-scale intervention, the effects of this intervention will be controlled for. Additionally, analyses were performed on data that are nested. Specifically, the 75 supervisors who were the primary targets of this investigation were nested within 30 extended care-facilities. To assess between-level effects, intraclass correlations (ICC) and  $r_{wg}$  were computed for all measures, and the unit level was accounted for in the primary model as a statistical control.

Regarding statistical power, researchers have noted that features of SEM (e.g., use of various types of data like categorical, dimensional, censored, count variables, and comparisons across alternative models) make it difficult to conduct a power analysis and develop generalized guidelines regarding sample size requirements (MacCallum et al., 1999). Despite this, various rules-of-thumb have been advanced, including a minimum

sample size of 100 or 200 (Boomsma, 1982, 1985). In a more recent investigation examining a variety of models and effect sizes, Wolf et al. (2013) noted that sample size requirements depended on model features, and made sample size recommendations ranging from 30 (for the one-factor CFA with four indicators loading at .80) to 460 (for the two-factor CFA with three indicators loading at .50). According to these recommendations, and given the nested structure of these data and a supervisor sample size of 75, this study falls outside the range of statistical power required to detect a significant effect using SEM.

Table 2

*Study Measures and Survey Items*

Construct	Measure or source	Items
Spousal support	Schuster, Kessler, & Aseltine (1990)	How much... <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Does your spouse/partner really care about you?</li> <li>2. Does he/she understand the way you feel about things?</li> <li>3. Does he/she appreciate you?</li> <li>4. Can you open up to him/her if you need to talk about your worries?</li> <li>5. Can you relax and be yourself around him/her?</li> </ol>
Spousal strain	Schuster, Kessler, & Aseltine (1990)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Do you feel your spouse/partner makes too many demands on you?</li> <li>2. Does he/she argue with you?</li> <li>3. Does he/she make you feel tense?</li> <li>4. Does he/she criticize you?</li> <li>5. Does he/she get on your nerves?</li> </ol>
Psychological distress	Kessler et al. (2003)	During the past 30 days, how much of the time did you feel..." <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. ... so sad nothing could cheer you up?</li> <li>2. ...nervous?</li> <li>3. ...restless or fidgety?</li> <li>4. ...hopeless?</li> <li>5. ... that everything was an effort?</li> <li>6. ...worthless?</li> </ol>
FSSB-SF	Hammer et al. (2013)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Your supervisor makes you feel comfortable talking to him/her about my conflicts between work and non-work</li> <li>2. Your supervisor works effectively with employees to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work.</li> <li>3. Your supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues.</li> <li>4. Your supervisor organizes the work in your department or unit to jointly benefit employees and the company.</li> </ol>

### **Analytical Strategy**

To test the viability and overall fit of the proposed model and examine hypothesized direct and indirect relationships between study variables, Multilevel Structural Equation Modeling (MSEM) was performed using the software package Mplus version 8.1 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2017). As supervisors of this study were nested within units, MSEM allowed for the control of this effect and is recommended when individuals are nested within groups (Preacher et al., 2010). To assess differences between supervisors at the unit level, ICCs and  $r_{wg}$  for all measures were calculated. ICCs are indices of reliability calculated from a one-way ANOVA with random effects. Specifically, ICC(1) represents the proportion of total variance explained by cluster membership, whereas ICC(2) represents the estimate of reliability of cluster means (Bliese, 2000). An  $r_{wg}$  is an estimate of the degree to which raters provide essentially the same rating and is computed by comparing cluster variance to expected random variance (Bliese, 2000). In addition to a complete model including all of the primary measures of this study, individual effect sizes of the paths suggested by each hypothesis were tested as separate models, singularly (i.e., the models only included the two variables of interest suggested by the unique hypothesis, while controlling for experimental condition and unit level).

By default, Mplus applies a full information maximum likelihood (FIML) estimator to account for missing data. This approach to missing data offers advantages to other traditional approaches used to account for missing data (e.g., listwise deletion) because maximum likelihood (ML) approaches produce less biased parameter estimates

and standard errors under the assumption that variables are either missing at random (MAR) and missing completely at random (MCAR; Enders, 2001). Specifically, FIML approaches the estimation of parameters that involve missing data by incorporating information from conditional distribution of the missing data given all other available (i.e., observed) data.

MSEM also allows for the testing of both direct and indirect effects within the same model, for both within and between effects, eliminating the need for multiple steps. Multilevel effects were computed between groups of supervisors at the unit level. The final model included 75 supervisors, nested within 30 different extended care facilities. Given the limited statistical power and large number of parameters included in the model, all paths and slopes were treated as fixed effects for sake of simplicity and feasibility of model convergence, at the expense of the theoretical justification of treating slopes and effects as random, as is traditionally recommended when data are nested and measured across time (Preacher et al., 2010). For similar reasons (limits in statistical power due to sample size and number of parameter estimates), all variables in the model were treated as observed variables, rather than latent constructs.

All measures were self-reported by the supervisor with the exception of FSSB, which was reported by the employees directly supervised by those in this sample. MSEM allows for treating employee reports of FSSB as a latent, third-level, variable, but doing so would increase the complexity of the model. Furthermore, the ICCs and  $r_{wg}$  of FSSB at 12-months revealed that there were no significant effects between supervisors of different units. To further explore the FSSB construct, a three-level, intercepts-only

model was computed in Mplus version 8.1. The results of these analyses are reported in the following chapter. Regarding the measurement and evaluation of employee-reported FSSB, MSEM offers the ability to treat employee-reported FSSB as a latent variable nested within supervisors. To compute and analyze FSSB this way would create a three-level MSEM (e.g., employee-reported FSSB nested within supervisors nested within units). Theoretically, all psychological measures are latent constructs (Preacher et al., 2010; Austin & Villanova, 1992) and so methodologically, this approach may have been preferable. However, computing a three-level model would have increased the complexity of the model by expanding the number of parameters to be estimated and given the limitation in statistical power due to the small sample size, and the lack of significant effects observed at the unit-, or between-level for FSSB (see Table 5), employee-reported FSSB was aggregated at the supervisor level, and treated as an observed variable. Specifically, a mean-score was computed for each individual supervisor from the group of employees they directly supervised.

To justify the aggregation of employee-level data to the supervisor level results from ICCs and  $r_{wg}$  of FSSB at 12-months were considered. Specifically, an  $r_{wg}$  of .90, which is what was calculated in this sample (see Table 6) is considered a strong estimate of within cluster agreement (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Lebreton & Senter, 2008). Typically, an ICC(1) of .05 or above and an ICC(2) of .70 or above indicates a high degree of rater agreement or reliability (Lebreton & Senter, 2008). While these recommended thresholds were not achieved, the Intercepts Only Model of FSSB at 12-months revealed significant variability of employee-ratings of FSSB at 12-months



between managers (see Table 7). Thus, these results, combined with the rwg provided moderate justification for aggregating employee-reported FSSB at 12-months at the supervisor level.

## Chapter 5: Results

Means, standard deviations, normality of sample distribution (skewness and kurtosis), bivariate correlations, and scale reliabilities (where applicable) of primary study variables were computed and examined and are presented in Tables 3 and 4. Given the longitudinal design of the study and the potential volatility of variables classed as resources and demands, correlations of spousal support and spousal strain across all three time points were evaluated to test their stability across time (Table 5). This assessment demonstrated that home resources and demands remained fairly stable throughout the duration of the study. For example, spousal support at baseline correlated strongly with the same measure at 6-months ( $r = .76$ ) and 12-months ( $r = .67$ ). Spousal strain at baseline correlated strongly with measures of spousal strain at 6-months ( $r = .76$ ) and 12-months ( $r = .82$ ).

### Between-Level Effects

Intraclass correlations and  $r_{wg}$  examining the between-level variance amongst the core constructs of the study at the unit or facility level are presented in Table 6. Each facility had an average of 2.5 supervisors eligible for inclusion in this study. Supervisor-reported spousal support, measured at baseline, had an  $r_{wg}$  of .90, an ICC(1) of .25 and an ICC(2) of .49 ( $F = 1.96, p = .02$ ). Supervisor-reported spousal strain, measured at baseline, had an  $r_{wg}$  of .78, an ICC(1) of .11 and an ICC(2) of .27 ( $F = 1.37, p = .16$ ). Supervisor-reported psychological distress, measured at 6-months, had an  $r_{wg}$  of .82, an ICC(1) of -.04 and an ICC(2) of -.13 ( $F = .89, p = .63$ ). Employee-reported FSSB, measured at 12-months, had an  $r_{wg}$  of .90, an ICC(1) of .03 and an ICC(2) of .13 ( $F =$

1.15,  $p = .30$ ). These results indicate that with the exception of spousal support, no significant effects were observed between supervisors of different facilities for any measure of this study. Given spousal support was measured at baseline and random assignment was accomplished at the unit level, between-level effects of this variable were likely due to type 1 error. Further, this study focuses primarily on the outcomes of supervisor psychological distress and FSSB. The results presented in Table 6 indicate that any differences observed in psychological distress at 6-months or FSSB at 12-months are not due to differences at the unit level.

Variance of the FSSB construct was further explored with a three-level, intercepts-only model (IOM). This model sought to investigate any differences in FSSB scores across the levels of analysis present in the data. Results from these analyses are presented in Table 7. Somewhat expectedly, they reveal that FSSB varied significantly at level-one, between employees ( $\tau^2 = .66, p = .00$ ) and across managers at level-two ( $\tau^2 = .04, p = .02$ ). These results indicate that individual employees vary in how they rate the quality of FSSB provided by their supervisors, even within a single team, and that the quality of FSSB provided by supervisors varies between supervisors as collectively reported by those employees they directly manage. While controlling for condition, employee-reported FSSB at 12-months was also not significant at the unit level ( $b = -.03, p = .65$ ).

Table 3

*Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates for Model Variables*

	Mean	SD	Skew (SE)	Kurtosis (SE)	$\alpha$
<b>Baseline Measures</b>					
Spousal Support	3.62	.51	-2.15(.26)	5.04(.52)	.88
Spousal Strain	1.92	.73	0.80(.26)	.21(.52)	.85
<b>6-months Measure</b>					
Psychological Distress	1.68	.51	1.13(.24)	1.33(.48)	.82
<b>12-months Measure</b>					
FSSB (emp. reported)	3.71	.47	.23(.21)	.41(.42)	.92

*Note.*  $N = 75$ ;  $SE$  = Standard Error;  $SD$  = Standard Deviation;  $\alpha$  = Cronbach's Alpha

Table 4

*Correlations Between Primary Model Variables*

	1	2	3
1. Spousal support (BL)			
2. Spousal strain (BL)	-.71**		
3. Psychological distress (6M)	-.33**	.40**	
4. Employee reported FSSB (12M)	.21	-.15	.01

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ .  $N = 75$ ; BL = baseline; 6M = 6-

months; 12M = 12-months

Table 5

*Stability Assessment of Supervisor Spousal Support and Strain Across Time*

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Spousal support (BL)					
2. Spousal strain (BL)	-.57**				
3. Spousal support (6M)	.76**	-.60**			
4. Spousal strain (6M)	-.58**	.76**	-.70**		
5. Spousal support (12M)	.67**	-.50**	.68**	-.43**	
6. Spousal strain (12M)	-.53**	.82**	-.63**	.77**	-.63**

Note. \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ .  $N = 85$ ; BL = baseline; 6M = 6-months; 12M =

12-months

Table 6

*Intraclass Correlations and  $r_{wg}$  for Study Constructs Within Extended Care Facilities*

	$r_{wg}$	ICC (1)	ICC (2)	F statistic	$p$
Spousal support (BL)	.90	.25	.49	1.96	.02
Spousal strain (BL)	.78	.11	.27	1.37	.16
Psychological distress (6M)	.82	-.04	-.13	.89	.63
FSSB (12M)	.90	.03	.13	1.15	.30

Note.  $N = 75$ ;  $n = 2.5$ ;  $r_{wg}$  = mean within-group agreement; ICC = Intraclass

correlation; BL = Baseline; 6M = 6-months; 12M = 12-months

Table 7

*Three-Level Intercepts-Only Model of Employee-Reported FSSB at 12-Months*

	Estimate	SE	<i>p</i>
Level 1 (Employee; <i>n</i> = 1256)			
FSSB Variance	.66	.04	.00
Level 2 (Manager; <i>n</i> = 131)			
FSSB Variance	.04	.02	.02
Level 3 (Unit; <i>n</i> = 30)			
FSSB Residual Variance	.00	.01	.76
FSSB Variance controlling for Condition			
	Estimate	SE	<i>p</i>
Level 1 (Employee; <i>n</i> = 1256)			
FSSB Variance	.66	.04	.00
Level 2 (Manager; <i>n</i> = 131)			
FSSB Variance	.04	.02	.02
Level 3 (Unit; <i>n</i> = 30)			
FSSB Residual Variance	.00	.01	.76
FSSB on Condition	-.03	.07	.65

## MSEM Results

Results from the MSEM demonstrated that the proposed model had zero degrees of freedom for the chi-square test of model fit, indicating that the model was just-identified, therefore negating the usefulness of interpreting model fit. Direct effects for the full model, which included all measures of the study, represented in Figure 3, are reported in Table 8.

The results, reported in the following paragraphs, were obtained using a MSEM that controlled for experimental condition and unit. Specifically, the data of this study were drawn from a larger investigation that involved a full-scale intervention and training evaluation. Because this dissertation was not interested in the effects or outcomes of this intervention, I have introduced supervisor's group assignment (i.e., intervention or control group) into the model as a statistical control. The supervisors of this study were also nested within 30 different extended care facilities or units. The results reported in the preceding section titled "between-level effects" revealed that there were no between-unit differences for any measure of this study. Nevertheless, unit was also controlled for in the following results.

### *Hypothesis Testing*

**Direct Effects.** Hypothesis 1 suggested that supervisor-reported of spousal support at baseline would be positively related to employee-reported FSSB at 12-months. This hypothesis was not supported ( $b = -.09$  and  $p = .08$ ). Hypothesis 2 stated that supervisor-reported of spousal strain at baseline would be negatively related to employee-reported FSSB at 12-months. This effect was significant and in the expected direction ( $b$

=  $-.07, p = .03$ ); thus Hypothesis 2 was supported. Hypothesis 3 suggested that supervisor-reported spousal support at baseline would be negatively related to psychological distress at 6-months. The direct effect was not significant; therefore Hypothesis 3 was not supported ( $b = -.05, p = .20$ ). Hypothesis 4, suggesting that supervisor-reported spousal strain at baseline would be positively related to psychological distress at 6-months, was significant, but not in the expected direction, thus was not supported ( $b = -.05, p = .03$ ). Hypothesis 5, which stated that relationship between psychological distress at 6-months on FSSB at 12-months would be negative, was not supported ( $b = .22, p = .36$ ).

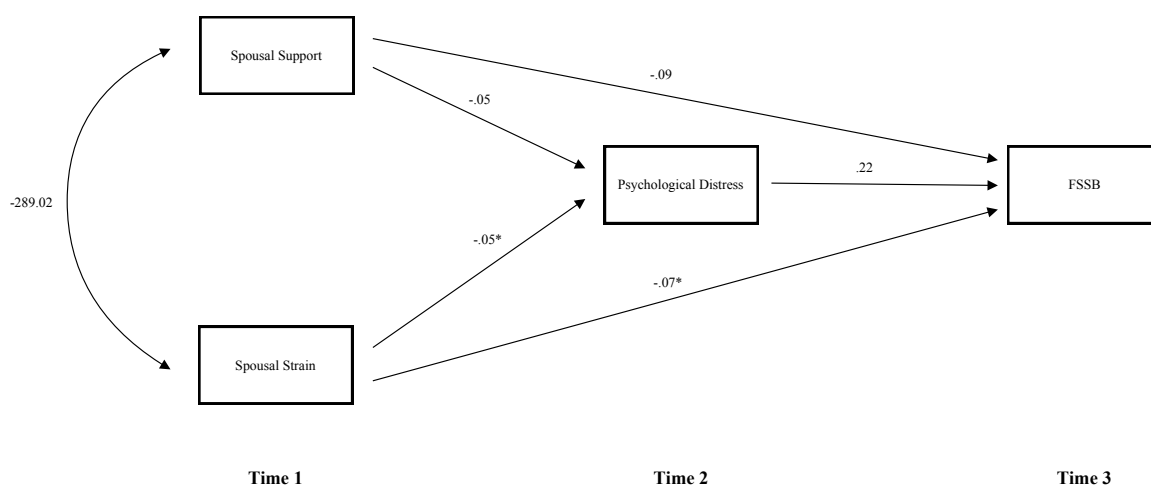
**Indirect Effects.** To test the indirect effects of spousal support and strain on FSSB via psychological distress, a point estimate, using the product of coefficients approach, and Monte Carlo simulated 95% confidence intervals were computed following the methods outlined by Selig and Preacher (2008) using the software program R version 4.0.3. Specifically, Hypothesis 6(a) suggested that supervisor psychological distress at 6-months mediated the effects of spousal support at baseline on FSSB at 12-months and are positive. The indirect effects expected by Hypothesis 6(a) were not significant and 95% confidence intervals included 0, (.20, [-.06, .49]) suggesting that psychological distress did not mediate a positive relationship between spousal support and FSSB. Hypothesis 6(b), suggested that supervisor psychological distress at 6-months would mediate the effects of spousal strain at baseline on FSSB at 12-months and would be negative. The indirect effect expected by Hypothesis 6(b) was also not supported (.24,



[-.62, .41]). A confirmation summary (i.e., supported or unsupported) of hypothesized relationships is presented in Table 9.

**Figure 3**

*MSEM and Corresponding Unstandardized Path Effect Sizes*



Note. \* $p < .05$

Table 8

*Summary of Unstandardized Effects of MSEM (N = 75)*

Path estimates	Within		
	Estimate	SE	p
Psychological Distress (6M) on- Spousal support (BL)	-.05	.04	.20
Spousal strain (BL)	-.05	.02	.03
FSSB (12M) on- Psychological distress (6M)	.22	.25	.36
FSSB (12M) on- Spousal support (BL)	-.09	.05	.08
Spousal strain (BL)	-.07	.03	.03

Note. SE = Standard Error; 6M = 6-months; BL = baseline; 12M = 12-months.

Table 9

*Summary of Support for Hypothesized Relationships*

<b>Hypothesis 1:</b> <i>Supervisor-reported spousal support at baseline will be positively associated with employee-reported FSSB at 12-months.</i>	Not supported
<b>Hypothesis 2:</b> <i>Supervisor-reported spousal strain at baseline will be negatively associated with employee-reported FSSB at 12-months.</i>	Supported
<b>Hypothesis 3:</b> <i>Supervisor-reported spousal support at baseline will be negatively associated with supervisor-reported psychological distress at 6-months.</i>	Not supported
<b>Hypothesis 4:</b> <i>Supervisor-reported spousal strain at baseline will be positively associated with supervisor-reported psychological distress at 6-months.</i>	Not supported*
<b>Hypothesis 5:</b> <i>Supervisor-reported psychological distress at 6-months will be negatively associated with employee-reported FSSB at 12-months.</i>	Not supported
<b>Hypothesis 6:</b> <i>Supervisor-reported psychological distress at 6-months mediates the effects of supervisor-reported spousal support and spousal strain on employee-reported FSSB at 12-months, such that the indirect effects are positive (a) and negative (b), respectively.</i>	Not supported

Note. \*Path was significant but in the unexpected direction

## Chapter 6: Discussion

This research sought to explore two primary objectives. The first was to provide empirical support for propositions advanced by the WHRM (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), namely that resources and demands originating in the home domain, specifically spousal support and strain, impact outcomes and resources experienced in the work domain. The second was to use a time-lagged design to explore antecedents of the FSSB construct, thereby understanding factors that contribute to supervisors' ability or motivation to provide home-based support to their employees.

Given that supervisors were nested within 30 different extended care facilities, an MSEM was used to examine the effect of supervisor spousal support and spousal strain at baseline (home resource and home demand, respectively) on employee perceptions of the quality of their supervisor's support for their (the employee's) own home-based demands (i.e., FSSB) at 12-months. It was suggested that the relationship between supervisor spousal support and spousal strain at baseline on FSSB at 12-months would be mediated by supervisor psychological distress at 6-months. Specifically, supervisors who experienced high spousal support and low spousal strain would experience less psychological distress at 6-months, and would thereby be positioned to provide higher FSSB at 12-months, and conversely, that supervisors experiencing low spousal support and high spousal strain at baseline would experience increased psychological distress at 6-months, and according to theoretical propositions of COR theory (Halbesleben et al., 2014) and the WHRM (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), would not have the personal (time, health) or contextual (social support) resources to provide FSSB to their employees

at 12-months. While no empirical studies had yet tested these propositions, early qualitative work by Hammer et al. (2007) on the FSSB construct suggested that data and information provided in focus groups revealed that if supervisors experience work-family stress, they are less likely to have the personal resources to be able to be supportive of their employees' work-family challenges.

Results from this study found support for only one of the propositions of the hypothesized model. According to this examination, supervisor spousal support at baseline was not related to supervisor psychological distress at 6-months or FSSB at 12-months. Supervisor reports of spousal strain at baseline were not related to psychological distress at 6-months, failing to find support for Hypotheses 1 and 3, but were negatively related to FSSB at 12-months, providing support for Hypothesis 2. Specifically, Hypothesis 2 suggested that supervisors who experienced spousal strain at home would be less likely to provide FSSB to their employees. Hypothesis 4 suggested that supervisor-reported spousal strain at baseline would be positively associated with supervisor-reported psychological distress at 6-months. This path was significant in the MSEM, but not in the expected direction. In other words, this model suggested that supervisors who reported more spousal strain at baseline had less psychological distress six months later. Given that supervisor-reported spousal strain at baseline was significantly and positively correlated with supervisor-reported psychological distress at 6-months ( $r = .40, p < .01$ ), my suspicion is that this was an artifact of the MSEM and is a Type 1 error. I would also argue that according to the WHRM, spousal strain is said to be a more volatile experience and psychological health, which is said to be more stable

(less transient). Thus, I would still contend that the effect was due to measurement error, with at least one construct (i.e., spousal strain) that should be measured with more frequency (i.e., using experience sampling) according to its definition as a “temporal demand” according to Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012). No other significant direct or indirect effects were observed.

### **Theoretical and Practical Contributions**

While most hypotheses of this investigation were not supported, this research has some theoretical and practical contributions. First, this research showed that supervisors who report experiencing higher levels of spousal strain at baseline provide less family-based support to their employees at 12-months, as reported by those employees. This finding contributes to psychological theory as it adds empirical support for one of the propositions of the WHRM, thereby advancing our understanding of the work-home interface. Specifically, Proposition 3 of the WHRM suggests that contextual home demands diminish work outcomes through a loss in personal resources; this was partially supported by the finding that supervisor’s spousal strain reduced FSSB, although the mediational mechanism (i.e., a drain in personal resources) was not significant.

This investigation also added to greater understanding of the FSSB construct. While many studies have examined correlates and outcomes of FSSB, to date none have empirically explored the antecedents of FSSB, particularly using a time-lagged design, despite multiple calls for this work (Crain & Stevens, 2018; Kossek et al., 2018; Straub, 2012), aside from FSSB training intervention studies that investigate FSSB as an outcome of supervisor FSSB training. This investigation therefore adds important

understanding for the overall theoretical underpinning of home-centered supportive supervision by constructing a basis of knowledge for the conditions or factors that motivate or enable supervisors to provide FSSB.

The present study also provides some practical contributions. By increasing the understanding of the role that home- and work-based demands and resources play on FSSB, companies may be better positioned to support the work-home integration of their supervisors and employees, thereby increasing their overall sense of well-being, satisfaction, and performance. Given the mixed findings of successfully training supervisors in FSSB (Crain & Stevens, 2018), it may be worthwhile during a training needs assessment to evaluate supervisors' own access to resources at home or the demands they face at home and work. For example, a more recent study showed that supervisors who reported lower job demands at baseline experienced greater levels of burnout after a training intervention designed to teach them to provide greater FSSB (Perry et al., 2020). Understanding the unique demands supervisors face and the resources, or lack thereof, they have to tackle these demands may provide valuable information about their individual trainee readiness or motivation to learn, two factors that have been shown to be particularly impactful for training success and training transfer (Awais et al., 2014). Companies that find differences in their supervisors' access to resources or presence of demands may be able to more effectively target who is positioned to receive and utilize training in FSSB. Such companies may also know who may be in need of additional home-based support themselves or restructuring of tasks or roles to alleviate various work demands prior to being trained on ways to provide this

support to the employees they supervise. In this way, this research provides justification for a top-down approach to organizational work-life management, ensuring that family- and home-based support is provided at every level of the organization.

Lastly, this research provides yet more compelling evidence that could drive public policy to help address and alleviate home-based demands by, for example, subsidizing marital counseling or childcare services, or providing generous parental leave policies as a way to reduce home-related strains.

### **Limitations and Future Directions**

This investigation was not without limitations. First, this study could have been better served with a larger sample size. Given the number of parameters tested and the complexity of nested data, there was insufficient statistical power to adequately test the model and hypotheses using the robust methods of MSEM. Furthermore, within this sample, cluster sizes were very small and variable (with an average  $n$  of 2.5), rendering an examination of between-level effects of little to no use. Therefore, it is recommended that future research examine these relationships using a larger sample of supervisors, and if possible, more consistent and sizable clustering to examine between-level effects.

Another limitation was that this study focused solely on a sample of working nurses, who were predominantly white women. This is particularly noteworthy because some studies have shown that gender has a significant moderating effect on the impact of spousal support. Specifically, some studies have shown that men tend to receive greater benefits as a result of their spousal support than women receiving support from their male spouses (Cornwell, 2012; Schulz & Schwarzer, 2004; Vanfossen, 1981). In addition to

sample size limitations and owing to the fact that this sample was comprised predominantly of women supervisors, this may explain the failure to find an effect of spousal support on both psychological distress and FSSB.

Nursing also represents a unique working population that may have structural constraints that disable significant variations in FSSB. This may be why the three-level, intercepts-only model for employee-rated FSSB at 12-months showed that there was no difference in FSSB between supervisors of different units or why the intervention had no effect on FSSB in this particular sample. For example, perhaps even the most supportive supervisors with ample contextual and personal resources are limited in the amount of FSSB they can provide to employees given the needs of the people they serve. Nurses serve a population of people with vital, ongoing needs (e.g., battling illnesses and diseases that do not hold to a 9-5 schedule). If three of seven employees need to take the same day off to address a home-based demand, and their supervisor knows they need a minimum of five employees to handle the patient load, there may be very little that a supervisor can do to satisfy every employee's home-based needs. It is a reality of healthcare work that sick people will need care even during holidays generally respected as a reprieve from work or time to spend with family and loved ones. And, whereas some industries can allow for flex-time and flex-place work arrangements, much of the role of a nurse must be done on-site and around a 24-hour clock. Thus, these kinds of structural constraints from the work environment may limit the amount of variability that can exist across supervisors in this working population. Future research should look at these



relationships in other, more diverse, working populations and account for structural limitations in administering and offering FSSB.

The structural constraints at the organizational level discussed in the preceding paragraph highlight the fact that in terms of contextual demands and resources, social support only represents one factor that may influence a supervisor's enactment of FSSB. Future research should also examine other top-down factors at the organizational level. For example, Kossek et al., (2011) suggested that organizational policies, work-family climate and culture, and perceived organizational support have relationships with FSSB. Future research should more closely examine these top-down processes. In line with this, other work demands and resources should be examined in conjunction with home-based demands and resources. This study focused only on cross-domain interactions (i.e., from home to work). With a larger sample, it would have been interesting to examine a more holistic view of the work-home interface. For example, I would be interested to see how a supervisor's rating of their own manager's FSSB had any relationship to the type of FSSB they provide to their employees. This investigation hypothesized that one form of support received (spousal support) would translate into future support provided (FSSB). This notion was not supported by the investigation, but it is possible that other, more proximal forms of resources or social support (i.e., occurring within the same domain, and being the same type of social support), have stronger relationships with employee-reported FSSB.

Along with the above, future research should also examine the effect of number of work hours per week and number of employees as additional contextual work demands as

being antecedents of FSSB. Burnout was presented in Chapter 3 as possible mechanism by which supervisor psychological distress could diminish the FSSB they provide to employees. The Job Demands-Resources Model (Demerouti et al., 2001) would suggest that these job demands (e.g., workload, number of employees supervised, number of hours worked per week, other job stressors) are what would drive burnout, and thereby diminish FSSB. Thus, these work demands and resources should also be examined.

In addition to other work contextual demands and resources, it would be interesting to look at other home-based strains or demands and resources, and their impact on psychological distress or FSSB. Given impact of economic insecurity on mental health (Kopasker et al., 2018), future research should also look at how economic factors (e.g., resources like wealth or high income adequacy perceptions, or strains like job insecurity or financial insecurity) influence one's mental health and their subsequent provision of FSSB to employees. Living in a place with publicly funded options for childcare and generous parental leave policies could also be macro resources that should be considered by future research.

The mediational mechanism of psychological distress failed to produce a significant effect in this study. This may have been due to the psychometric properties of the psychological distress measure. Specifically, this scale and its items are worded in a negatively valenced way, thereby assessing the presence of poor mental health. This is problematic as this investigation sought to test the WHRM proposition that contextual resources, like spousal support would improve work outcomes like FSSB, through an increase in personal resources like psychological health. Given that the measure of

psychological distress did not assess the presence of a personal resource, but rather the presence of something negative or draining, this may provide an explanation as to why it did not mediate several relationships between home and work as expected. Future research should examine a positively valenced measure of mental health as a more precise test of the proposition of the WHRM that contextual resources in the home domain enhance outcomes in the work domain through a gain in personal resources.

Further, the WHRM describes several other personal resources worthy of future exploration. Psychological health, even if psychometrically valenced as a positive resource, can only explain a fraction of the variance in how personal resources impact work outcomes like FSSB considering it exists within a myriad of other personal resources. For example, it would be worthwhile to explore the mediating effects of key resources like self-efficacy, self-esteem, optimism, and social power, as well as constructive resources like skills, knowledge, experience, and mental resilience on FSSB. It may be that specific personal resources have stronger relationships with FSSB than others. The various weights of these effects would be interesting to uncover, not only with FSSB but with other work outcomes as well. Beyond comparing the differential impact of various personal resources on FSSB and other work outcomes, it would also be worthwhile to understand the strengths of relationships between specific personal resources and the unique dimensions of FSSB. For example, perhaps a supervisor's social power has a stronger relationship with the instrumental support or creative work-life management dimensions of FSSB whereas perhaps a supervisor's experience has a stronger relationship with the emotional support dimension of FSSB.

This bridges to an additional limitation of this study, which was the use of the FSSB-short form, rather than the full measure (Hammer et al., 2013). The full FSSB measure allows for the investigation of differential strengths between relationships of contextual work and home resources or strains, various personal resources, and the unique dimensions of FSSB. Given that research has shown that the buffering or beneficial effects of social support depend on a number of moderators (source of support, gender, type of support), it's possible that receiving contextual resources in the form of social support may impact the type of social support (e.g., resource investment) offered to others. For example, a person receiving emotional support may experience greater levels of specific types of personal resources (e.g., emotional resilience or health), which may translate into their ability to provide those specific forms of emotional support to others; however, this might have little influence on their ability or motivation to provide other forms of support, like instrumental support. Conversely, a person who receives instrumental support like help with a project that saves them time (a different type of personal resource) may be more likely and able to provide instrumental support to others while having little effect on their ability to provide emotional support. The unique relationship between specific personal resources on various forms of support have not been explored in the literature, and future research should aim to fill these gaps. Having this added clarity may help researchers design studies that explore the role of moderating variables in the relationship between specific resources, demands, and outcomes in work and home domains. Moreover, examining moderators may help provide more theoretical understanding for when people engage in resource conservation versus resource

investment behaviors. Future research should examine the moderating role and unique relationship between various forms of support received and how they translate to diverse forms of support offered to others.

Other moderators identified in the social support literature may also be worth exploring. For example, Cornwell (2012) also found that partners who were more integrated into their partner's social network were more apt at providing support that had a beneficial effect. Considering the WHRM lists a person's broader social network a contextual resource, future research should examine a broader, more complete view of the social support structure and network of managers. Methodologies like social network analysis may be able to uncover a fuller picture of the impact of social networks and how features of one's social network impact their receipt and perception of social support (Brass, 2012). Because some research has highlighted the finding, one place to start would be to investigate how integrated supervisors are into the social lives of their spouses, and how their level of integration impacts how they perceive the support they receive from their spouse.

This research focused on spousal support and strain as the primary contextual resources and demands of the home domain. However, social support can come from other sources (e.g., friends, communities, and other family members beyond one's spouse) and many workers are not in a romantic relationship. Because of this, spousal support and strain likely only account for a small percentage of contextual factors that can diminish or enhance work outcomes through a gain or loss of personal resources. Furthermore, research has shown that the source of support (friend, spouse, parent,

sibling, etc.) acts as a moderator in the stressor-strain relationship. In other words, the strength of the relationship of social support and various forms of strain depends on the source of that support (Halbesleben, 2006; Viswesvaran et al., 1999). Future research should examine how different sources of support impact a supervisor's personal resources and subsequent FSSB.

The three-level, intercepts-only model of 12-month FSSB presented in Table 7, revealed significant differences at level-one. Practically speaking, this suggests that even under a single manager, employees differed in how they perceived the FSSB provided by their direct supervisor. This may be due to factors inherent within the individual recipients of that support, or it may represent actual differences in the quality of support provided by supervisors to the different employees under their supervision. Through the lens of Leader-Member-Exchange Theory, which suggests that managers naturally form relationships of differing quality with the employees they supervise, this finding makes sense (Gerstner & Day, 1997). For example, it is possible that for employees who find themselves in the "in-group" or a high-quality relationship with a manager, also report higher FSSB perceptions. Conversely, employees who report a lower-quality relationship, or are in the "out-group" may report lower FSSB perceptions. Future research should examine how the nature and quality of relationships between managers and employees impacts FSSB perceptions.

While the time-lagged design of this study is certainly a strength, the specific duration of the time-lag, namely 6-months between measurements, does not have any specific theoretical justification for the relationships being examined. In fact, some

relationships, like social support, which is conceptualized as dynamic and shown to be more volatile, would likely be better served within a more frequent and consistent measurement timeframe. Additionally, other personal resources described by the WHRM, called “energies,” like mood, physical and cognitive energy, and attention, are assumed to be more volatile. These kinds of dynamic constructs and their relationships to contextual resources and work and home outcomes, could be better understood using an experience sampling methodology. This approach to measurement assesses psychological constructs across time on a much more consistent, frequent, and regular basis (e.g., daily), and allows for more fine-tuned evaluations of cause and effect relationships, especially with more volatile constructs like those aforementioned (Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). This kind of methodology would be better equipped to test other propositions of the WHRM, namely propositions 7 and 8. Proposition 7 suggest that short-term work–home conflict and enrichment reflect daily processes between the work and home domains, whereby volatile contextual demands and resources from one domain affect daily outcomes in the other domain through a change in volatile personal resources. Proposition 8 suggests that long-term work–home conflict and enrichment reflect durable processes between the work and home domains, whereby structural contextual demands and resources from one domain affect long-term outcomes in the other domain through a change in structural personal resources.

In conclusion, while this study had many limitations and most hypotheses were not supported, it did provide some empirical support for the WHRM proposition that contextual demands in the home domain can impact work outcomes. It also was the first

time-lagged investigation to produce a significant empirical finding on the antecedents of FSSB outside of intervention studies. This study also provided several avenues of future research that could expand theoretical understanding of the work-home interface and the FSSB construct. A summary of these future directions is presented in Table 10. Given the increase of work and home demands on many populations across the US and the world, and the stagnation or growing disparity and unequal distribution of resources to confront these demands, this work remains vitally important to drive understanding, organizational decision-making, and public policy.

Table 10

*Summary of Directions for Future Research Examining Antecedents of FSSB Through the Lens of the WHRM*

Future Direction Category	Specific Future Directions	Further Reading
Methodological considerations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use an experience sampling (i.e., daily diary) methodology to explore more volatile relationships between contextual and personal resources with work outcomes</li> <li>• Use social network analysis to examine social support moderators</li> <li>• Use larger sample size, other working populations</li> <li>• Use positively valenced measure of psychological health</li> </ul>	Larson & Csikszentmihalyi (2014) Brass (2012) Wolf et al. (2013)
Other personal resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Examine unique or composite effects other personal resources. Examples include self-efficacy, optimism, social power, skills, knowledge, experience, mental resilience, health, mood, physical energy, cognitive energy, attention, time</li> </ul>	Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker (2012) Halbesleben (2010)
Social support moderators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Examine other moderators in the social support, strain relationship.</li> </ul>	Gerstner & Day (1997) Halbesleben (2006)



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Examples include source of support, type of support (e.g., instrumental v. emotional), Gender (recipient or provider of support), relational quality/LMX</li> </ul>	<p>Viswesvaran et al. (1999)  Hammer et al. (2013)</p>
Other home contextual resources and strains	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Explore other contextual factors beyond spousal support and strain.</li> <li>• Some examples include Income adequacy, other economic advantages (home ownership, vehicle)</li> <li>• Examine macro resources like public policies that alleviate home-based strains (publicly funded childcare options, parental leave policies, etc.)</li> </ul>	<p>Kossek et al. (2011)  Hobfoll (2001)  Ten Brummelhuis &amp; Bakker (2012)  Kopasker et al. (2018)</p>
Work contextual resources and strains	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Examine impact of work-domain strains and resources on FSSB.</li> <li>• Examine how number of employees supervised, number of work hours per week impact FSSB perceptions</li> <li>• Look at impact of organizational level factors like structural constraints, organizational work-family policies, culture/climate</li> </ul>	<p>Kossek et al. (2011)  Eby et al. (2001)  Allen et al. (2001)  Demerouti et al. (2001)  Bakker et al. (2004)</p>

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