3-6-2023

Antecedents of FSSB: Evaluating the Demographic Basis of Support

Erika Ann Schemmel
Portland State University

Antecedents of FSSB: Evaluating the Demographic Basis of Support

by

Erika Ann Schemmel

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

Master of Science
in
Psychology

Thesis Committee:
Tori Crain, Chair
Todd Bodner
Cynthia Mohr

Portland State University
2023

Abstract

The benefits of family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB) have been well-documented in recent literature. However, less research has examined the antecedents of FSSB. The present study draws from two theoretical models of FSSB (i.e., Sargent et al., 2022; Straub, 2012) to investigate the demographic antecedents of FSSB in a military sample. Supervisor and employee gender, partnered status, parental status, and elder caregiving status were examined to determine by whom, and for whom, FSSB is provided, as measured by employee perceptions. I hypothesized that supervisors and employees who are women, partnered, parents, and/or caregivers to elders would have higher employee-ratings of FSSB. Furthermore, the present study applied a relational demography perspective to examine supervisor-employee dyads who have matching characteristics (i.e., a match between the two members of the dyad on gender, race, partnered status, parental status, and elder caregiving status). I hypothesized that supervisor-employee dyads that match in any of these characteristics would have higher employee-ratings of FSSB and greater agreement between supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB. I also hypothesized that dyads with more matching characteristics would have greater employee-ratings of FSSB and greater agreement in supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB. Only eldercare match was tentatively related to greater FSSB agreement. Supplemental analyses showed that supervisors in racially diverse dyads may tend to overrate their own FSSB. However, the findings of the present study generally did not support that employee and supervisor demographics were associated with perceptions of FSSB within this military organizational context.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank the members of my thesis committee, Dr. Todd Bodner and Dr. Cynthia Mohr, for sharing their time and expertise in support of this project. I would also like to thank my committee chair and advisor, Dr. Tori Crain, for all of her encouragement throughout the thesis process and beyond. Her guidance has been invaluable. I am grateful for my family for their unending support, my friends for their confidence, and my cat for his comfort throughout my academic journey. Finally, I would like to thank my fiancé, Ivan, for never ceasing to believe in me and my goals, and for always offering me tea and support.

The U.S. Army Medical Research Acquisition Activity, 820 Chandler Street, Fort Detrick MD 21702-5014 is the awarding and administering acquisition office. This work was supported by Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Health Affairs, through the Psychological Health and Traumatic Brain Injury Research Program – Comprehensive Universal Prevention/Health Promotion Interventions Award, under Award No. W81XWH-16-1-0720. Opinions, interpretations, conclusions and recommendations are those of the author and are not necessarily endorsed by the Department of Defense.

Portions of this research were supported by the Grant # T03OH008435 awarded to Portland State University, funded by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health. Its contents are solely the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official views of NIOSH, CDC or HHS.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Introduction

The face of the workforce has undergone drastic changes in the last 100 years. In the 1920's, women made up about 20% of the total workforce, but this number has grown to be nearly 50% today (Women's Bureau, 2021). At least one family member is employed in over 75% of families in the United States, and in families that include children under 18, nearly 90% have at least one employed parent (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2022). In addition to these childcare responsibilities, 12% of U.S. parents with children under 18 also provide care for an adult (Livingston, 2018). With these nonwork roles come a multitude of home demands that may be incompatible with work demands and vice versa (i.e., work-family conflict), which may be associated with a number of negative outcomes that can affect the occupational and personal health of the individual (e.g., Amstad et al., 2011).

The nature of work itself is also drastically different. Jobs in agriculture, production, and operative & labor roles have continued to decrease in percentage since the mid-20th century (Marlar, 2020; Pew Research Center, 2016), and jobs that require social and analytical skills have had employment growth at least 50% greater than average growth across all occupations (Pew Research Center, 2016). The average worker today has more experience, education, and/or training than before (Graf, 2017; Pew Research Center, 2016). Employees feel that they must continually improve themselves and their skills to stay ahead (Pew Research Center, 2016). In addition to the fast-paced nature of work today, it is important to remember the millions of actively working employees are also parents (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2022). Since the onset of COVID-19, these employed parents may have also experienced pandemic-related

stressors such as lack of access to necessary testing and adapting to school policies (Wenner Moyer, 2022) in addition to the demands of the workplace. The American Psychological Association reported that parents have felt higher stress during the pandemic than adults that do not have children (2020). Many parents exited the labor market during the pandemic, often in the absence of sufficient in-person school or childcare for their children, and many have not yet returned to actively working (Heggeness et al., 2021; Henderson, 2022), demonstrating the struggle to balance work and changes in their children's needs. Furthermore, the effects of COVID-19 impacted people that care for an adult, stemming from conditions such as limited access to formal support and greater COVID-related risk for older adults (Ro, 2021; The One Brief, 2021). Fields that have been particularly overburdened by the pandemic (i.e., technology and health care) have seen higher than usual levels of resignations in recent times (Cook, 2021). This has been dubbed 'The Great Resignation'. Among parents with children under 18 that left their job in 2021, nearly half identified childcare issues as a reason for quitting (Parker & Horowitz, 2022), demonstrating that to achieve stable employment, it is essential to provide employees with adequate support in the workplace.

Fortunately, there is a large body of research that identifies family support in the workplace as a way to alleviate work-family conflict and other undesirable outcomes. A recent review of the work-family support literature highlighted three types of formal supports – general or bundled (e.g., family-friendly benefits), dependent care assistance (e.g., childcare programs), and flexible work arrangements (e.g., flextime) (Masterson et al., 2021). Although these are examples of formal policies that can be implemented at the

organizational level, support can also be given through informal (e.g., interpersonal) approaches, which have also been linked to beneficial outcomes (French et al., 2018). These informal supports may be particularly important to study and understand, as they can take place whether or not sufficient formal support exists within an organization. One form of informal support is family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB), which are behaviors exhibited by one's supervisor that demonstrate support for the employee's family and nonwork demands (Crain & Stevens, 2018; Hammer et al., 2009). The benefits of FSSB are well documented, and research has demonstrated that family-supportive supervision may benefit the organization, the individual, and the family. For example, it has been repeatedly demonstrated that FSSB is negatively related to work-to-family conflict (e.g., Breaugh & Frye, 2008; Hammer et al., 2009, 2013; see Crain & Stevens, 2018 for a review). Moreover, family-supportive supervision has been linked with positive family-related outcomes (Crain & Stevens, 2018), such as work-family balance (Greenhaus et al., 2012). These beneficial outcomes provide a clear and compelling argument that FSSB should be present and encouraged in the workplace.

However, although the desirable outcomes of FSSB have been well-established, the antecedents of FSSB have received less attention in the literature (Crain & Stevens, 2018). A thorough understanding of the precursors of FSSB could guide researchers and practitioners in their efforts to promote FSSB effectively and efficiently in the workplace. Straub (2012) outlined a multilevel theoretical framework, proposing a myriad of antecedents, mechanisms, and outcomes associated with FSSB. Straub (2012) identified several individual supervisor characteristics that may be related to the magnitude of

family-supportive supervision that supervisors provide. However, given that employees represent the population that FSSB is intended to benefit, it is essential to similarly consider how employees' characteristics may be related to the family support that they receive. Sargent et al. (2022) outlined a more recent process model of FSSB and gender-related variables, including some propositions made about the employee's gender. Straub (2012) further posits that supervisor-employee self-identification (i.e., similarity) may be related to displays of FSSB. Sargent et al. (2022) reiterated this proposition for gender similarity specifically. Therefore, it is important to investigate the specific relationships that exist between supervisors and employees to determine by whom and for whom FSSB is displayed.

Finally, the organizational context of previous studies examining antecedents of FSSB has been varied, in part due to the sampling method used. For example, previous studies in this area have included participants from finance (Neglia, 2015), samples recruited by students (Basuil et al., 2016), and telephone interviews that included participants from a variety of industries, such as production and medical services (Foley et al., 2006). Huffman and Olson (2017) examined a military sample. The military is a unique context in which family concerns are particularly salient is the military. There are many events that may take place in the military that do not occur elsewhere, such as deployment, which leads to separation from the family, and drilling, which involves a time commitment for training (Army National Guard, 2022; Dorner, 2020). These events are in themselves demanding and are accompanied by shifts in daily life, which highlight the necessity of family support and preparedness. Additionally, the military continues to

be male-dominated, with females accounting for less than one-fifth of active duty members (Department of Defense, 2020; National Academies of Sciences et al., 2019)(Department of Defense, 2021; National Academies of Sciences et al., 2019). This is important to consider, as gendered contexts may moderate the family support perceived by employees (e.g., Sargent, 2020). A male-dominated organization may have norms and expectations more in line with traditional masculine gender roles (Cejka & Eagly, 1999). To this point, previous research has demonstrated differences in displays of FSSB between male-dominated, mixed-gendered, and female-dominated occupations (Sargent, 2020). The military also has a deeply hierarchical structure, which is central to the culture of the military, with senior members having responsibility for their direct reports' personal well-being (Redmond et al., 2015). Thus, military supervisors may be more inclined to provide FSSB to their employees in an effort to enhance employee wellbeing to the greatest possible extent. The integration of family in the military context is also unique – for example, the families of service members are also expected to abide by certain laws and norms (Redmond et al., 2015). Because of this, it is essential to examine the layers of support that may be present in the military. FSSB may be one of these layers, and therefore should be examined in the masculine, hierarchical, family-involved context of the military.

The Present Study

The present study will provide a thorough examination of supervisor and employee demographics as they relate to supervisors engaging in FSSB. The context of this study is the Oregon National Guard. I investigate supervisor gender, partnered status,

parental status, and elder caregiving status as predictors of employee-ratings of FSSB to determine if supervisors with particular gender or family roles are more likely to engage in FSSB. Because employees are the target recipients of FSSB, employee-ratings of FSSB, versus supervisor-ratings, will be used as the primary source of FSSB ratings for this study. Likewise, the same characteristics (i.e., gender, partnered status, parental status, and eldercare status) are examined at the employee level as predictors of employee-ratings of FSSB, to determine if supervisors display more FSSB to particular employees. Finally, supervisor-employee dyads will be examined to determine whether dyads that have matching characteristics, or are highly similar, have higher employee-ratings of FSSB, as well as greater agreement in supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB. Please see Figure 1 for the full model.

Anticipated Contributions

This study poses several theoretical contributions to the literature. First, it will test and extend Straub's (2012) framework of FSSB, and also test components of Sargent et al.'s (2022) process model of gender and FSSB. As noted by Crain and Stevens (2018), less is known about the antecedents of FSSB, although some research has turned to this area (see Basuil et al., 2016; Epstein et al., 2015; Foley et al., 2006; Huffman & Olson, 2017; Neglia, 2015; Sargent, 2020; Sargent et al., 2022; Straub, 2012). Straub (2012) addresses the potential relationship that supervisor characteristics will have with their family-supportive behaviors. This study will evaluate this proposition by examining supervisor gender, partnered status, parental status, and elder caregiving status as predictors of FSSB. Straub (2012) proposes that supervisors' life experiences and family

demands may affect how salient FSSB is to them, and thus that they will display more FSSB through felt responsibility. Sargent et al.'s (2022) model reinforced Straub's propositions regarding supervisor gender, proposing that supervisors who are women will more often perceive opportunities to engage in FSSB. Therefore, the present study will test these propositions.

The present study will also extend Straub's (2012) model to include employee characteristics. Although Straub's framework does not address employee characteristics in depth, a study that examined employee gender and FSSB in married work-linked couples in the military, found that men perceive more FSSB than women (Huffman & Olson, 2017). However, Sargent et al. (2022) posited that FSSB will be more requested by women employees, and supervisors may perceive more opportunities to display FSSB towards their women employees. Therefore, the present study will further examine Sargent et al.'s (2022) proposition regarding employee gender, and extend both models to include employee partnered status, parental status, and elder caregiving status as predictors of FSSB in a new sample. The exploration of the association of supervisor and employee characteristics with FSSB can benefit employees, supervisors, and organizations by providing a clear picture of the reality of the distribution of FSSB in the workplace. This could highlight issues of inequitable or insufficient support, and create awareness that may prompt supervisors to be more intentional with the way in which they engage in FSSB to create the most beneficial outcomes possible for their employees, as well as for the organization.

Straub (2012) further proposed that shared characteristics between supervisors and employees will be related to FSSB. Sargent et al. (2022) reinforced this proposition, specifically with regards to gender. The comparative demographics of one person to another person(s) in a group is known as relational demography (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Some studies have begun to examine FSSB through a relational demography lens. These studies have shown that shared supervisor-employee race (Foley et al., 2006), gender (Basuil et al., 2016; Foley et al., 2006), and parental status (Basuil et al., 2016) may be related to greater family supportive supervision. This study will continue to examine these relationships. In addition to this, I include elder caregiving status as a demographic predictor, which has yet to be examined in this growing body of literature. Furthermore, this study adds to the relational demography literature by providing a more multifaceted approach to assessing the relationship between supervisor and employee demographics. Research in relational demography has often focused on the relationship between supervisor and employee demographics, such as age, race, gender, and job tenure, and a variety of work-related outcomes, such ratings of as extra-role behaviors (Tsui et al., 2002) and role ambiguity (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). A few of these studies have looked at FSSB as an outcome of dyadic demographics (Basuil et al., 2016; Foley et al., 2006). However, fewer studies have considered the degree to which supervisor and employee are similar. One such study found that supervisors and employees who match in both gender and race have the highest ratings of FSSB (Foley et al., 2006). The present study will therefore include two relational demography variables to provide a more thorough understanding of the association of comparative demographics with employee-ratings of

FSSB. First, this study will assess *supervisor-employee match* on each characteristic (e.g., supervisors and employees who have the same gender) as it relates to FSSB. It is possible that matching on some characteristics may be more strongly related to FSSB than others, and the match variable will allow for this more precise investigation. Second, this study will also assess the *degree of similarity*, which is a representation of how similar employees and their supervisors are (i.e., the number of characteristics on which the supervisor and employee match). This will contribute to the present literature by providing a more comprehensive approach to addressing relational demography, which will benefit organizations and future intervention studies by identifying particular supervisor-employee dyads that could benefit the most from FSSB training.

This study also makes a methodological contribution by utilizing both supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB. The use of employee-ratings of FSSB in this study avoids inflated supervisor-ratings of their own family-supportive behaviors, as it is important to consider whether supervisors will inflate their own ratings of performance (e.g., Fleenor et al., 2010). More specifically, supervisors and their employees are more likely to have discrepancies in ratings when responding about the dimensions of supervisor's relational leadership (e.g., ethical leadership, or the display and promotion of appropriate personal and interpersonal behaviors [Brown et al., 2005]) rather than task-oriented leadership (Lee & Carpenter, 2018). Previous studies about dyadic demographics as antecedents of FSSB generally used only employee-ratings of FSSB (e.g., Basuil et al., 2016; Foley et al., 2006). The multisource ratings of FSSB also provide an important theoretical contribution because throughout FSSB research, little

distinction has been made between employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB (Crain & Stevens, 2018; Marescaux et al., 2020). Thus far, the literature has only briefly examined intrinsic motivation and employee turnover intentions as outcomes of disagreement in supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB (Marescaux et al., 2020). In another article, supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB were differentially related to sleep-related impairment (Sianoja et al., 2020). However, even though the research has shown that FSSB ratings from the supervisor and the employee are not equivalent, the antecedents of this discrepancy are not yet known. A review of self-other agreement noted that biographical variables may be related to self-ratings and other-ratings on various organizational constructs (Fleenor et al., 2010). The present study will be the first to address the gap in the literature by identifying whether there are demographic antecedents of FSSB rating disagreement. Specifically, this study will determine whether supervisor-employee dyads that have more characteristics in common may be more likely to agree on ratings of FSSB. Thus, this study has important implications for future FSSB research, in that it will explore the extent to which supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB are distinct, and identify for whom these discrepancies are most likely to occur.

Theoretical Rationale

The basis for the present study rests on Straub's (2012) multilevel theoretical framework of FSSB, which outlines a number of proposed antecedents, mechanisms, and outcomes of FSSB. Within the framework, Straub utilizes a number of other theories to support the propositions. Therefore, although the primary basis of this study is Straub's

framework, the present theoretical rationale will likewise employ additional theories to support the hypotheses. More recently, as research has furthered in this area since the introduction of Straub's (2012) model, Sargent et al. (2022) put forth a conceptual and process model of FSSB that related specifically to gender and gender-related variables. Therefore, the present study will draw from both of these models.

First, Straub (2012) proposes that supervisors who are women will display more FSSB because women traditionally have more family-oriented gender roles. For example, women have traditionally been socialized to prioritize motherhood over careers. Sargent et al. (2022) reinforced this proposition by stating that women supervisors will perceive more opportunities to engage in FSSB. Family roles, such as parental status, may also influence FSSB such that supervisors experiencing more family demands will feel that work-family issues are more salient and will have greater felt responsibility to engage in FSSB (Straub, 2012). To illustrate, a supervisor with a child will have first-hand experience with, and therefore awareness of, the responsibilities that accompany parenthood, as well as the role-conflict between parenthood and work. FSSB may be more salient to these supervisors, compared to supervisors without children. These propositions highlight the potential mechanism through which demographics may be related to FSSB.

In addition, supervisor and employee demographics do not exist in isolation, but rather, supervisors may perceive that they are demographically similar or dissimilar to their employees. Straub (2012) draws from research regarding relational demography theory (Tsui et al., 1992; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989), which suggests that it is not only one's

own demographics, but also the comparative demographics of the team-members, that may drive an employee's experience and impact the relationships formed within the workplace. Therefore, relational demography may provide a rationale for proposing the demographics will be related to FSSB. Relational demography was developed with workplace groups, such as supervisor-employee dyads, as its focus (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). To draw more generally from the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) from which relational demography theory was developed, people feel closer to those that they perceive as similar. Therefore, when shared characteristics (e.g., demographics) exist, there may be more frequent communication and/or in-group helping behaviors, such as increased support. In further justification of the examination of specific supervisor-employee dyadic relationships, one part of the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership, called LMX differentiation, emphasizes that supervisors form unique relationships with each employee (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Martin et al., 2018). Part of LMX differentiation is the notion that these unique relationships differ in quality (Henderson et al., 2009; Liden et al., 2006). Furthermore, similarity in demographics and relational demography may play a role in the quality of these supervisor-employee relationships, although research on this has been mixed (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 1999; Pelled & Xin, 2000). In conjunction, these theories support Straub's proposition that supervisors who socially identify with an employee will provide more FSSB to that employee (Straub, 2012).

Support in the Military

Family and the military are highly intertwined, likely to a greater extent than other occupational contexts. Family life in the military can include frequent moves and separation, requiring spouses to be flexible and independent (Military OneSource, 2021). Thus, within the military there are family supports, such as Family Readiness Groups (FRGs) and related groups across military branches (Duttweiler, 2021; Griffith, 2020). Throughout deployment, which can be emotional and disrupt family life, the military offers supports to service members and their families (Dorner, 2020). In this way, the military is distinct even from other male-dominated occupations, such as engineering fields (Department of Labor, 2019). There are also counselors and a variety of toolkits, which include targeted information and resources for a variety of topics and services, available to service members (Military OneSource, n.d., 2019). Due to the involvement of family in the military, and vice versa, the relevance and importance of these supports cannot be underestimated. However, all of these supports are more formal programs, and it is also important to consider the value of informal support.

Military families may also support each other. Spouses of people in the military also often take part in the military hierarchy, with the spouses of higher-ranking members informally mentoring the spouses of more junior members (Redmond et al., 2015). Because these spouses are usually women, spouses that are men may feel isolated from other military spouses (Military OneSource, 2022). Although formal support groups do exist for military spouses, men may feel less welcome in FRGs that are predominantly women (Baltos, 2022) Furthermore, married women in the military are more likely than married men to be married to another service member (Department of Defense, 2021).

When both spouses or partners are in the military, there may be increased levels of separation from being on two different assignments (Military OneSource, 2019), although joint programs exist In this instance, some family or spousal supports may not be as relevant, because neither partner is a civilian.

Informal, interpersonal supports such as FSSB are critical because they can exist in tandem with formal organizational supports, and supplement where formal policies may fall short. The interpersonal nature of FSSB may allow the support to be more specific to the needs of the individual and the individual's family, rather than the broad support provided through formal pathways or policies. With FSSB, a supervisor is more able to demonstrate support specific to the needs of the individual, at that moment. FSSB may be particularly important to understand because it may be more readily possible to train supervisors to enact family-supportive behaviors than to create new policies. Thus, FSSB should not be incompatible with any of the supports that are already present in the military workplace. Indeed, findings from the data used in the present thesis have already found that supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of family supportive supervisor behaviors may be related to sleep outcomes (Sianoja et al., 2020), further supporting the notion that FSSBs are relevant and present in this population.

The Relationship Between Individual-Level Characteristics and FSSB

This study draws on Straub's propositions that gender and family roles can influence supervisors' engagement in FSSB (Straub, 2012). To address these propositions, this study will first examine the supervisor and employee characteristics of gender, partnered status, parental status, and elder caregiving status.

Supervisor Characteristics

The first part of this study will test Straub's (2012) theoretical framework, which suggests that supervisor characteristics will be associated with supervisor's engagement in FSSB. Straub (2012) suggests that work-family issues will be more salient to supervisors who perceive themselves as filling women's gender roles. It is important to first acknowledge that gender is not binary (McNabb, 2017). Therefore, gender roles should likewise not be assumed to be universal, nor be assumed to apply equally to every person's experience. However, this thesis draws from the dominant, conventional conceptualization of gender roles of men as breadwinners and women as caregivers that have been present historically (e.g., Zhu & Chang, 2019). Women, who traditionally have roles tied to the home and childcare, are expected to be warmer and more communal than men, who are thought stereotypically to be more generally assertive and agentic (e.g., Ellemers, 2017; Heilman, 2001). The divide in expectations between men and women may be seen generally in society (Ellemers, 2017) and in the workplace (Heilman, 2001). Although more women have been entering the workplace (Women's Bureau, 2021), the traditional expectation that women should be caregivers still permeates society. Interestingly, compared to employed men, employed women were perceived as less likely to be married or have children, supposedly owing to the difficulties with fulfilling both of these roles (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Thus, employed women may be left with more demands overall. Therefore, women in supervisor positions may be more proficient at recognizing when family support may be beneficial for their employees (Sargent et al., 2022) and therefore more likely to provide family support to their employees (Straub,

2012). Straub (2012) posits that this may be due to a felt responsibility of women to display FSSB. The results thus far have been mixed. One study found that supervisor gender was indeed correlated with employee perceptions of family support, such that the employees of women supervisors perceived more family support (Basuil et al., 2016). However, Neglia (2015) and Epstein et al. (2015) found that supervisor gender was not significantly related to employee-ratings of family support, in samples from a finance company and mixed occupations, respectively. Drawing from both Straub (2012) and Sargent (2022), the present study will continue to explore the propositions that women supervisors will display more FSSB. A supervisor who is a woman is likely to have been presented throughout life with expectations of domestic and family roles. Due to this socialization, family demands will be more salient to women than men, and therefore women are more likely than men to be aware of the family roles that their employees may face (Straub, 2012). Further proposed by Sargent et al. (2022) employees may believe that women supervisors will be more likely to understand, and therefore accommodate, family demands, and thus supervisors who are women will have more opportunity to display FSSB. Thus, supervisors who are women will have more empathy and felt responsibility for their employees and therefore provide more FSSB than supervisors who are men, as indicated by employee-ratings of FSSB (see Figure 1).

> **Hypothesis 1a:** Supervisor gender will be related to employee-ratings of FSSB, such that employees of supervisors who are women will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Straub (2012) further posits that a supervisor's own family demands will be related to their engagement in FSSB and highlights that, throughout life, individuals may fill different family roles that entail differing responsibilities (e.g., children). Through these roles, individuals can experience many family demands, on top of their work demands (Michel et al., 2011). Additionally, supervisors who experience these family demands may be more understanding of the conflicts that can occur between work and family and therefore they may view FSSB as more important. In this study, partnered status (i.e., married or living with a partner), parental status (having dependent children living at home), and elder caregiving status (regularly providing care to an adult) will be assessed as family roles that may be associated with FSSB.

Although it is often accepted that the partnered and parental roles of an employee are accompanied by more family demands, this has largely been examined at the employee level. However, supervisors also have nonwork lives, and for many, that includes family roles. The supervisor's family life may impact the salience of family concerns to them, and thus their felt responsibility to engage in FSSB (Straub, 2012). For example, relationships such as marriage often require investment of time. Neglia (2015) found that supervisor marital status was related to greater FSSB[1], such that married supervisors displayed more FSSB. Therefore, supervisors who are partnered may be more aware that their employees have commitments outside of work that require time and

[1] Neglia (2015) notes that results should be cautiously interpreted due to the liberal analytical procedure explored in the study.

consideration. Thus, supervisors who are partnered will have more empathy and felt responsibility for their employee's family demands and display FSSB (see Figure 1).

> **Hypothesis 1b:** Supervisor partnered status will be related to employee-ratings of FSSB, such that the employees of supervisors who are partnered will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Neglia (2015) also examined supervisor parental status as a predictor of FSSB, but with statistically nonsignificant results, noting that this may be in-part related to the low variance in the parenthood in the sample. The present study will therefore explore this relationship in another sample. Parental status may be related to greater levels of work-family conflict. For example, employees without children reported less WFC than parents with children under 6 or between 13 and 18 years of age (Bennett et al., 2017). Working mothers reported higher home demands and less control than working women without children (Luecken et al., 1997). Individuals with young children living at home report higher levels of work-family conflict than individuals in the "empty nest stage" (at least 55 years of age, no children living at home) (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014). Therefore, supervisors with children at home are more likely to experience family demands and work-family conflict that supervisors without children would not experience. In line with Straub's (2012) proposition, work-family issues will be more prominent to these supervisors and thus, FSSB will be more salient. Supervisors with children will therefore be more likely to empathize with the family demands of their employees and feel responsible for displaying FSSB (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 1c: Supervisor parental status will be related to employee-ratings of FSSB, such that the employees of supervisors with children will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Furthermore, eldercare is a family role that is comparatively underexplored in FSSB research, even though many adults in the U.S. have eldercare responsibilities (Livingston, 2018). Peng et al. (2020) highlighted the importance of considering eldercare as distinct from other caregiving roles by examining eldercare-supportive supervision. Working adults with adult and eldercare responsibilities had higher ratings of work-family stress than those without caregiving roles (Chapman et al., 1994). Eldercare has also been linked to psychological strain through inter-role conflict (Barling et al., 1994). Given the implications that eldercare responsibilities can have for an employed person, it is likely the supervisors with eldercare responsibilities will view FSSB as more relevant. For example, supervisors who provide care for an adult in their life will have firsthand experience with the family demands that accompany eldercare. Therefore, work-family conflict will be more salient to these supervisors and thus, applying Straub's (2012) propositions, supervisors with eldercare responsibilities will therefore be more empathetic to employees' family demands, and feel more responsibility to display FSSB (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 1d: Supervisor elder caregiving status will be related to employee-ratings of FSSB, such that the employees of supervisors who have eldercare responsibilities will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

These family roles (i.e., partnered status, parental status, elder caregiving status) are not mutually exclusive. However, at any time, a supervisor can fill multiple roles. Chapman et al. (1994) found that employed persons who filled more than one family role often had higher levels of absenteeism and work-family stress. From Straub's (2012) proposition that demanding family roles will increase the salience of work-family issues for supervisors, it then follows that the increased demands from filling more than one family role will only increase the salience of work-family concerns. For example, a supervisor who has children *and* elder caregiving responsibilities may be likely to experience more family demands. Supervisors who have more family roles should be more likely to be empathetic to employees' family demands, and thus feel more responsibility to support their employees' family demands, and therefore display more FSSB (see Figure 1).

> **Hypothesis 2:** The number of nonwork roles a supervisor fills will be positively related to employee-ratings of FSSB.

Employee Characteristics

The second part of the study builds off of previous findings of demographic antecedents of FSSB, while extending Straub's (2012) framework to employees' individual characteristics. Although Sargent et al. (2022) did address employee gender in the recent model, other important demographic variables were not addressed. Literature in the work-family domain has addressed employees' various family roles and associated work-family conflicts. FSSB from the supervisor can provide the employee with a resource for dealing with their family demands (Hammer et al., 2009).

As previously discussed, in line with traditional gender roles, women may be more expected to have home and family demands than men (Ellemers, 2017). Given these greater family demands that women may take on in general, supervisors may anticipate that women could benefit from FSSB, and thus women may perceive more FSSB than men. To this point, Sargent et al. (2022) propose that women employees will be more likely to request FSSB, and supervisors will be more likely to perceive an opportunity to provide FSSB to women. The results so far, however, are mixed. Huffman and Olson (2017), in a study on work-linked couples in the military, found that the women perceived less FSSB than men, the rationale being that inadequate support will be perceived less. However, Sargent (2020) found that in male-dominated occupations, men reported less FSSB. Although the military was not directly explored in this latter study, it is a male-dominated occupation, and thus conflicts with Huffman and Olson's (2017) findings. Another study showed that employee gender was significantly correlated with FSSB, such that women perceived more FSSB (Basuil et al., 2016).

This study will build off of these findings and continue to examine this relationship. Given the persistence of traditional gender roles, employees who are women generally have more family responsibilities than men, and therefore should receive more FSSB (see Figure 1).

> **Hypothesis 3a:** Employee gender will be related to employee-ratings of FSSB, such that employees who are women will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Given that FSSB is intended to benefit employees, it is important to consider other employee-level variables that may be related to need. For example, employees with family demands will require resources and support to fulfil those demands. FSSB can be a part of this solution. Straub does suggest that experiencing work-family conflict may drive employees to use organizational work-family resources (2012). Although Straub (2012) makes no propositions about employee's family roles, every individual can experience different family roles throughout life that are accompanied by various demands, which can occur alongside work roles and demands (Moen & Sweet, 2004). For example, employees who are married or partnered face a unique set of demands. Although it is important to note that spouses and partners can also be a source of support (van Daalen et al., 2006), spouse and partner relationships also involve a level of investment and responsiveness (Clark & Lemay Jr., 2010). Employees who are partnered will have unique demands that single employees are less likely to experience. Therefore, employees who have a spouse or a partner will receive more FSSB (see Figure 1).

> **Hypothesis 3b:** Employee partnered status will be related to FSSB, such that employees who are partnered will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Furthermore, many employees have children. Employees with children will have higher demands than those that do not. Therefore, supervisors will feel more responsible to display FSSB to employees with children.

Hypothesis 3c: Employee parental status will be related to FSSB, such that employees with children will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Similar to other roles, employees with elder caregiving responsibilities have family demands. Supervisors may perceive that their employees who have eldercare demands are more in need of FSSB, feel more empathy and felt responsibility to provide support to these employees, and thus display more FSSB to these employees.

Hypothesis 3d: Employee elder caregiving status will be related to FSSB, such that employees with eldercare responsibilities will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Furthermore, employees can fill any number of these family roles. Employees with various family roles are likely to benefit more from support than employees without these demands (Chapman et al., 1994; Michel et al., 2011). Those who were balancing multiple caregiving roles were frequently, though not always, likely to report greater work/family stress and absenteeism than those who filled just one role (Chapman et al., 1994). Women in the sandwich generation had higher ratings of time-based family-to-work conflict than women who provide care to only their child or only an adult (Aazami et al., 2018). Therefore, the employees who fill the most roles are likely to experience the most demands and, thus, should perceive the most FSSB from their supervisor (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 4: The number of nonwork roles an employee fills will be positively related to employee-ratings of FSSB.

Relational Demography and FSSB

Straub (2012) also proposes that supervisors' social identification with their employees will be related to FSSB, such that dyads with more in common will be associated with greater FSSB. This proposition is an application of relational demography theory, which suggests that the comparative demography between individuals, in addition to each individual's standalone characteristics, is influential in defining the quality of the relationship between those individuals (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Drawing from relational demography theory and the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971; Tsui et al., 1992; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989), shared characteristics between people will be associated with greater communication and attraction between people. Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) demonstrated that the similarity-attraction paradigm extends into the workplace in supervisor-employee dyads. Thus, supervisors and employees who match on any characteristic may have more communication, which provides more time for employees to discuss their family demands. Communication also provides the supervisors with more opportunities to display FSSB. In this way, supervisor-employee dyadic match in any characteristic may be related to greater employee-ratings of FSSB. These relationships may include more positive outcomes, such as greater perceptions of FSSB.

Relational demography theory has been used with a multitude of demographics and a variety of outcomes with significant results. Age, race, gender, and job tenure are all commonly used in relational demography research (e.g., Foley et al., 2006; Tsui et al.,

1992; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Thus far, gender match between supervisors and employees is one of the most explored aspects of relational demography. Conflicting findings have resulted from these investigations. For example, the Queen Bee phenomenon is when women in leadership positions are more "tough" on their women employees, and distance themselves from their identity as women (e.g., Derks et al., 2016; Ellemers et al., 2004; Faniko et al., 2021).

Although the Queen Bee phenomenon is one circumstance in which gender-match may be negative, gender match has also been associated with positive outcomes, such as increased helping behaviors (Tsui et al., 2002) and greater job satisfaction (Campione, 2017)[2]. Specifically, in FSSB research, there has been evidence that gender match is associated with greater perceptions of FSSB (Basuil et al., 2016; Foley et al., 2006). However, conflicting results emerged from a different study, in which gender match was not related to FSSB (Sargent, 2020). Nonetheless, in addition to Straub's (2012) general relational demography proposition, Sargent et al. (2022) contributed a proposition that gender similarity will be related to greater FSSB. Therefore, the Queen Bee phenomenon is acknowledged here, and should be considered along with the results of past and present studies. However, the hypotheses of the present study were more heavily driven by past findings regarding gender in FSSB research.

Supervisors who perceive themselves as filling the same gender roles as their employees may thus feel a kinship to that employee based on their shared gender. This

[2] Campione (2017) reports that the results are significant, but list a p-value of "$p < .10$".

may lead to more frequent communication between supervisor and employee, and may subsequently be related to greater employee perceptions of FSSB because more frequent communication will provide more opportunity for employees to voice their family concerns, as well as more opportunities for supervisors to display FSSB. To further illustrate, when a supervisor who is a woman works with an employee who is also a woman, the supervisor may have a firsthand understanding of the family-related gender roles that the employee has been socialized to expect. Therefore, that supervisor should feel empathy and responsibility to provide FSSB to their employee that is a woman. Therefore, supervisor-employee dyads who match in gender will have higher employee-ratings of FSSB (see Figure 1).

> **Hypothesis 5a:** The presence of a gender match between supervisors and employees will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Relational demography research has also commonly included racial similarity. Tsui et al. (1992) state that similarity or dissimilarity of racial identities may influence the social interactions between people. Therefore, it is essential to understand the nature of the relationship between supervisor-employee racial similarity and FSSB ratings. It is also important to acknowledge the history of inequitable experiences in the United States between employees who are White and employees who are not White (e.g., Nkomo & Al Ariss, 2014) and to examine whether racial biases may be present in the distribution of FSSB in the workplace. For example, one study found that teachers matching in race with their principal had greater feelings of trust towards their principal (Brezicha & Fuller, 2019). Matching race between the supervisor and employee has been associated with

higher job satisfaction and greater perceptions of procedural justice (Wesolowski & Mossholder, 1997). Foley et al. (2006) found that, in a sample comprised of employees from a variety of occupation types, matching race was associated with greater employee-ratings of FSSB. Race match was not found to be related to FSSB in another study (Sargent, 2020). The present study will further examine this relationship. To illustrate, a supervisor may have multiple employees, who may or may not have the same racial identity as that supervisor. Supervisors may then perceive themselves as being more similar to the employees with whom they match in race. This perceived shared identity may then facilitate more frequent or high-quality communication that will provide more opportunities for the supervisor to provide FSSB. Supervisors who share their racial identity with an employee should therefore display more FSSB (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 5b: The presence of a race match between supervisors and employees will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Supervisors are uniquely positioned (e.g., Straub, 2012) to develop personal relationships with their employees to understand their own particular family roles and to tailor and deliver the most optimal support. Therefore, it is likely that many supervisors and employees communicate about their family lives while at work. As previously discussed, supervisors who have an appreciation for, or an understanding of, employees' family demands may be more likely to engage in FSSB. If they are interacting with an employee who has similar nonwork responsibilities, supervisors may identify with those circumstances, and engage in more FSSB. One study found that match in parental status, but not marital status, was associated with higher perceptions of FSSB (Basuil et al.,

2016). The sample from Basuil et al.'s study was recruited from a variety of occupations. Another study found that parental status match was not related to FSSB (Sargent, 2020). The present study will evaluate the experiences of supervisors and employees in one occupational context, thus effectively controlling for occupation-level differences. This study will continue to examine the relationships of partnered and parental status with FSSB, while also including elder caregiving responsibilities. At this point, elder caregiving has not been investigated in relational demography research. However, the theoretical basis for partnered and parental status to be related to FSSB via relational demography translates well to elder caregiving responsibilities.

Lastly, supervisors who have a matching family characteristic with their employee should have greater empathy for the family demands that their employee is experiencing. For example, a supervisor who is a parent will have personal experience of meeting the demands that are associated with parenthood, and will therefore feel more empathy and responsibility for their employees who also have children, because they will understand the conflicting work-family demands. Therefore, match on any of these family roles should increase a supervisor's perception that they are like their employee, and thus more likely to give support. Match in any of these family roles should be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 5c: The presence of a partnered status match between supervisors and employees will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Hypothesis 5d: The presence of a parental status match between supervisors and employees will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Hypothesis 5e: The presence of an elder caregiving status match between supervisors and employees will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Moreover, supervisors and their employees could match on any number of these characteristics. One study indeed found that supervisor-employee dyads who matched in both race and gender were associated with greater ratings of FSSB than dyads that matched in either race or gender alone (Foley et al., 2006). The concept that some dyads match in more characteristics than others is referred to here as *degree of similarity.* As summarized succinctly in a review of relational demography research, "relational demography suggests that the more similar an individual is to a social unit in demographic characteristics, the more positive will be his/her work-related attitudes and behaviors" (Riordan, 2000, p. 131). Therefore, supervisors and employees who match on many characteristics will have a higher degree of similarity, and would be expected to have more positive outcomes (e.g., Foley et al, 2006). For example, the more characteristics that a supervisor and employee have in common, according to relational demography theory, the more kinship will be felt between the supervisor and the employee. This will result in the most frequent communication and greatest felt responsibility in dyads who have the most in common. Subsequently, the greatest employee-ratings of FSSB will be in dyads with highest degrees of similarity (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 6: A greater supervisor-employee dyadic degree of similarity will be associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB.

Discrepancy in Supervisor and Employee Ratings of FSSB

As discussed previously, gender, race, and family roles have the potential to shape the experiences of employees and their supervisors (Straub, 2012; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Specifically, individuals who share identities may have shared life experiences that may lead to similarities in how they perceive behaviors. This may thus lead to an alignment in behavior ratings. Dyads that match in gender, race, partnered status, parental status, and elder caregiving status may then be more likely to match in their judgement of certain behaviors. This concept has not been largely explored in the FSSB literature. Crain and Stevens (2018) claimed that it may not be accurate to assume supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB would be equivalent. It is important to consider FSSB as an evaluative measure, and thus supervisors may be more likely to rate themselves highly in FSSB as the result of bias. This is one of the reasons why employee-ratings of FSSB may make up the majority of the present study. However, if it is the case that supervisors will rate themselves more highly in FSSB, it is important to go beyond this assumption and get a closer look at when supervisors and employee agree, and disagree, on supportive behaviors.

Marescaux et al. (2020) more recently found that agreement in supervisor-ratings of FSSB and employee-ratings of FSSB is, for some, related to important employee outcomes, such as turnover intentions and intrinsic motivation. However, although Marescaux et al. (2020) provided an examination of the potential consequences of supervisor-employee disagreement, it is yet unknown what factors may be associated with that disagreement. A shared social identity (i.e., identifying as the same gender) may

include shared norms, values, and beliefs (Abrams & Hogg, 1990), which may influence how behaviors are interpreted. Therefore, it is promising to look to supervisor-employee matching (e.g., the supervisor and employee are both parents) and degree of similarity (i.e., the number of characteristics on which the supervisor and employee match) to determine if shared characteristics are indeed associated with similar perceptions of FSSB, and ultimately, greater agreement on ratings of FSSB.

For FSSB specifically, no study has yet examined antecedents that may be associated with rating disagreement between supervisors and employees. Marescaux et al. (2020) examined agreement in FSSB ratings in different levels of work-family culture and employee segmentation desire, finding that, in some contexts, agreement in levels of FSSB may relate to levels turnover intentions and intrinsic motivation. These findings indicate that it is important to understand when and why supervisors and employees are not rating FSSB similarly. Sianoja et al. (2020) found that supervisor ratings of FSSB and employee-ratings of FSSB were differentially related to sleep outcomes, further emphasizing the need to parse apart supervisor and employee perceptions of FSSB. Although a previous study with this sample had identified that supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB were not significantly different as a whole (Leslie, 2022), another paper did find that supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB were differentially related to sleep outcomes (Sianoja, 2020). Therefore, discrepancy in ratings of FSSB is worthwhile to examine. Previous researchers have explored self-other agreement in the workplace more generally. Demographics (e.g., gender, race, age) may be related to patterns in ratings of the self and others (Ostroff et al., 2004). One article

reports that differences in age and tenure, but not gender and education level, were related to less congruence on perceptions of supervisors' developmental support, or the extent to which the supervisor provides their employee with opportunities that enable them to develop personally and professionally (Fagenson-Eland et al., 2005)[3]. One study found that employees and supervisors of the same race had higher agreement on ratings of the supervisor's motivation and performance (Wohlers et al., 1993). However, research has yet to explore what variables may be related to disagreement in FSSB.

When a supervisor and employee share a characteristic, the mechanism through which this may impact the discrepancy in ratings of FSSB is twofold. First, a common characteristic or shared identity may indicate that the supervisor and employee have at least some shared experiences. For example, when both the supervisor and employee are parents, they have the experience of parenthood in common. These common experiences may result in more closely aligned approaches of assessing behavior. Second, drawing generally from the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), the presence of matching characteristics may be accompanied by greater communication between the supervisor and employee. This increased communication may present greater opportunity to discuss behaviors and needs, therefore minimizing the discrepancy between supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB. This study will be the first to investigate antecedents of the disagreement in supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB by establishing

[3] These findings utilized one-tailed p-values.

whether the relational demography of supervisor-employee dyads is related to disagreement in perceptions of FSSB between supervisors and employees (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 7a: The presence of a gender match between supervisors and employees will be associated with lower disagreement on employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB.

Hypothesis 7b: The presence of a race match between supervisors and employees will be associated with lower disagreement on employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB.

Hypothesis 7c: The presence of a partnered status match between supervisors and employees will be associated with lower disagreement on employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB.

Hypothesis 7d: The presence of a parental status match between supervisors and employees will be associated with lower disagreement on employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB.

Hypothesis 7e: The presence of an elder caregiving status match between supervisors and employees will be associated with lower disagreement on employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB.

Hypothesis 8: Greater degree of similarity between supervisors and employees will be associated with lower disagreement on employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB.

Methods

Participants

Participants from this study come from the baseline timepoint of the larger Oregon Military Employee Sleep and Health Study (MESH; see Hammer et al., 2021). Participants worked full-time (at least 32 hours/week) for the National Guard, in the Army and Air National Guard. There were slightly more participants in the Air National Guard, 54%, than in the Army National Guard, 46%. The positions held by the participants were largely related to day-to-day functions of the National Guard, such as maintenance, finance/supply, logistics, and human resources.

Supervisors and employees both participated in the study. A supervisor in this study is defined as someone who self-reported that they have direct reports, and correspondingly, their direct reports also had data available in the MESH dataset. Employees also identified their direct supervisor, and supervisor responses were linked to the responses of their direct reports. Employees who were not linked to a supervisor were excluded from the present sample. Supervisors without direct reports were also excluded from the present sample. The final sample size consisted of 178 supervisors with 392 employees, forming 392 dyads. Sample sizes for the analyses ranged from 354 to 392. Each supervisor had between one and 13 employees (M = 2.20, SD = 1.85). Participants also worked at different locations. The supervisor's location was used for the analyses as the nesting variable, and in all but 18 cases, the supervisor and employee had the same location. The supervisors were located in 25 locations, with between one and 45 supervisors per location (M = 7.12, SD = 13.45).

Recruitment and Procedure

Unit leaders emailed their staff with information provided by the research team to recruit participants. Participants received $25 gift cards for their participation in the baseline survey. The participants received the survey via email, which was completed outside of working hours (Hammer et al., 2021; Sianoja et al., 2020).

Measures

Please see Appendix A for all measures used in this study.

Gender. Participants were asked to report their gender. This was coded as 0 = male, 1 = female[4].

Partnered status. Partnered status was measured with the item, "What is your current marital status?" The response options included single, in a committed relationship, cohabitating, married, divorced, separated, and widowed. A dichotomous marital status variable was created which was coded as 0 = not married or cohabitating, 1 = married or cohabitating.

Parental status. Parental status was measured with the item, "How many children do you have living in your home for 3 or more days a week?" Responses were coded as 0 = none, 1 = at least one child living in your home at least 3 days per week.

[4] The original wording of the item assumes that sex and gender are analogous. Although acknowledging that this is not precise, the present study will assume that participants that respondents who replied "female" as their gender would likewise identify as woman. Due to low frequency, respondents that did not identify as male or female will not be included in the analysis.

Elder caregiving status. Elder caregiving status was measured with the item, "caring for elderly or adult dependent at least 3 hours per week", with response options of 0 = no, and 1 = yes.

Number of roles. A number of roles variable was constructed by adding together the responses for the partnered, parental, and elder caregiving variables for each participant. For example, a participant who was both partnered, and a parent, but did not have eldercare responsibilities (coded as 1, 1, 0 respectively) would have 2 roles.

Race. Participants were asked to describe their race. Response options included American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black, or African American, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, White, and Other (participants could then describe their racial and ethnic identities). Because of the lack of variability in this variable (most participants identified as White), the dichotomous race variable was used, which was coded 0 = not White, 1 = White.

Family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB). FSSB was measured using the validated four-item short-form version of a previously developed scale (FSSB-SF) (Hammer et al., 2013) for both employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings. An example item for the employees is, "Your supervisor makes you feel comfortable talking to him/her about your conflicts between work and non-work". The responses were scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 5 *(strongly agree)*, Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.95$. An example of how the four items were re-worded for supervisors is, "I make my subordinates feel comfortable talking to me about their conflicts between work and non-work," Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.85$. For supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings

of FSSB, aggregate scores were calculated using a 75% mean-imputation approach, such that overall FSSB ratings were computed for participants who responded to at least 75% of the FSSB items within the scale (i.e., 3 of the 4). Scale responses that did not meet this threshold were then eliminated using listwise deletion. Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted in MPlus to confirm that the employee measure and supervisor measure of FSSB were each unidimensional. Although the chi-square test of model fit was significant for both employee-ratings of FSSB (p = .26) and supervisor-ratings of FSSB (p = .09), which would suggest that the unidimensional models were a poor fit, this was not unexpected as large sample sizes can often result in significant chi-square tests (Babyak & Green, 2010). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and comparative fit index (CFI) fit indices supported that both supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB were a good fit with unidimensional models based on the accepted thresholds (RMSEA < .05, SRMR < .05, and CFI > .95) (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999).

FSSB disagreement. To calculate the disagreement in supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB, the supervisor-ratings of FSSB were subtracted from the employee-ratings. The simple difference score was then squared (e.g., Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989), which enhanced the interpretability of the regression coefficient. Although squaring the coefficient does not allow for the directionality of the disagreement to be examined (i.e., whether the supervisor or employee had rated FSSB more highly), the squared coefficient instead allows comparisons of the size of the disagreement.

Matching characteristics. Matching variables were created by comparing the dichotomous variables of the characteristics described above for each supervisor and employee. Each pair of characteristics (supervisor and employee gender, race, partnered status, marital status, and eldercare status) were coded as 0 = not a match or 1 = match. Missing data for either the supervisor or the employee resulted in a missing matching variable.

Degree of similarity. The number of matching scores from the supervisor and employee characteristics were then added together. This resulted in a degree of similarity variable that ranged from 0 (no characteristics of interest were shared between supervisors and employees) to 5 (supervisors and employees had every characteristic of interest in common, including race, gender, etc.).

Control variable. As in past research that has utilized this dataset, employment in branch (i.e., Army versus Air) was controlled for (e.g., Leslie, 2022). This accounted for potential differences in how supervisors and employees may function between branches. For example, past literature has noted cultural differences between the Army and Air branches that may influence how leadership occurs, such as differences in general emphasis that members of either branch place on occupational goals (rather than institutional goals), the extent to which interdependence occurs between group members, and the extent to which leaders can provide practical advice and teaching to their team (Mastroianni, 2005). The branch was reported by both the supervisor and the employee. The supervisor branch variable was used in the analyses, but each supervisor-employee dyad reported the same branch. Responses were coded as 0 = Army and 1 = Air.

Results

Data Cleaning and Preliminary Analyses

Unless otherwise specified, all data cleaning, statistical assumption checks, and analyses were conducted in SPSS version 28. Supervisor and employee responses from the baseline wave of the MESH survey were linked in a long-form dataset.

Missingness. The overall missingness of the relevant variables was assessed using Little's test (Little, 1988) in SPSS to determine whether the data were missing completely at random (MCAR) or missing at random (MAR). Data that was MAR would indicate that missingness in one variable is related to another variable – however, if MCAR, missingness in one variable is not related to another variable. The newly constructed variables (e.g., number of roles) were not included in these tests, as participants did not supply this information, but rather these variables were constructed from the collected responses. The employee responses and supervisor responses were assessed for missingness separately. The results generally indicated that responses were likely not MAR, but rather MCAR. This indicates that missing responses on the surveys were likely not related to responses on any other variable, which is the more ideal situation for the analyses. If the data were missing at random, the more conservative approach would have been to use the full information maximum likelihood approach available in MPlus. However, because the data were more likely to be MCAR, the analyses were conducted in SPSS, which utilizes listwise deletion as the default. Overall, the original variables had low missingness, with percentages ranging from 0% to 5%. The missingness of the constructed variables was slightly higher, ranging from 0% to 7%,

which was expected because missingness of any of the original variables from which the new variables were constructed resulted in a missing value.

Intraclass correlations. Due to the organizational structure of employees nested within supervisors, and supervisors nested within locations, further analyses were conducted to determine whether multilevel modeling was appropriate. Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) were obtained for employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB. The computed ICCs demonstrated that 12% (ICC = 0.12) of the variance in employee-ratings of FSSB was accounted for by the supervisor. Thus, employees with different supervisors may have different ratings of FSSB simply because they have different supervisors. This can be considered a moderately sized ICC, and provided evidence for the use of multilevel modeling, as even small ICCs may be related to erroneous conclusions if not accounted for with multilevel modeling (e.g., Musca et al., 2011). I attempted to obtain a 3-level ICC for employee-ratings of FSSB, nested within supervisors, nested within location. The output showed that the covariance parameter of location was redundant, which suggested that including location in the model did not meaningfully contribute to explaining the variance of the dependent variable (i.e., employee-ratings of FSSB). To further examine the necessity of using location as a third-level clustering variable, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine differences in employee-ratings of FSSB by supervisor location. The results were nonsignificant ($F[24] = 1.21$, $p = 0.23$), indicating that it is likely not necessary to account for location in the multilevel model. Nevertheless, I attempted to run three-level models that included employees nested within supervisors, and supervisors nested within

location. However, convergence problems emerged when using the three-level model. Therefore, all final models reported here only account for employees nested within supervisors.

Because the difference between supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB was examined, calculation for the ICC for the supervisor-ratings of FSSB nested within supervisor were attempted, but rationally did not make sense to include. However, the ICC for the simple difference score (0.24), the squared difference score (0.12), and the absolute value of the difference score (0.24) all similarly pointed to a moderate amount of variance in the difference score being attributed to the supervisor. Thus, multilevel analyses were also used for models that utilized the difference score as an outcome variable.

Outliers. Potential univariate outliers in the employee-ratings of FSSB and FSSB disagreement (simple difference score and the squared difference score) variables were examined with descriptive statistics, boxplots, and histograms. For employee-ratings of FSSB, 18 potential univariate outliers were identified when ratings were less than 2. However, all of these datapoints fell within the 1-5 response range for FSSB scale. Therefore, there was no theoretical justification for removing them from analyses and they were retained in the dataset. For the simple difference score, 10 potential outliers were identified. However, because the difference scores were calculated using the employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB, and all of those values were within the 1-5 response range for the FSSB scale, there was no theoretical rationale to exclude any

outliers. Additionally, 37 univariate outliers were identified for the squared difference score. Again, no outliers were justifiably excluded.

Multivariate outliers were then examined with Mahalanobis distance. For employee-ratings of FSSB as an outcome, when all predictors were entered (i.e., supervisor and employee demographics, matching and similarity variables, control variable) 22 datapoints were identified as potential outliers. I obtained additional Mahalanobis distance values for employee-ratings of FSSB for each hypothesized model (e.g., including only employee demographics and the control variable, including only employee number of family roles and the control variable, etc.). With this approach, between zero and 19 outliers were identified. The matching and similarity variables, in addition to the control, were entered as predictors to examine outliers in both difference score variables. I also obtained additional Mahalanobis distance values using the predictors that were in-line with the hypothesized models (e.g., including just the matching variables and controls as predictors in one model, including degree of similarity and the control variable as predictors in another model) for each difference score variable. Between zero and three potential multivariate outliers were identified for each difference score variable with this approach. Due to the dichotomous nature of many of the predictor variables, and because there was no theoretical reason to exclude any of the outliers on the FSSB scale scores, no multivariate outliers were excluded.

Multicollinearity. Multicollinearity exists when predictor variables are highly correlated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Some of the variables were correlated to an extent that would suggest multicollinearity, $\rho > .80$. Specifically, number of supervisor

roles was highly correlated with supervisor parental status (ρ = .85), number of employee roles was highly correlated with employee parental status (ρ = .81), and the simple FSSB difference score was highly correlated with employee-ratings of FSSB (ρ = .88). However, this is not surprising, as all of these variables were constructed using the variable to which they are highly correlated. See Table 1 for correlation coefficients.

Normality. Histograms were used to examine the normality of the distributions of the variables, as well as of the residuals. Normality is evident when histograms display a relatively normal distribution, and when skewness and kurtosis statistics are near zero (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). First, the distribution of employee-ratings of FSSB had a notable negative skew. In line with recommendations from Tabachnik and Fidell (2013), I applied an inverse square root transformation to this variable, which did improve the normality and kurtosis statistics. Therefore, analyses were run with the original employee-ratings of the FSSB variable, as well as the transformed variable. The conclusions from the main analyses did not change when using the original employee-ratings of FSSB variable versus the transformed variable. Thus, the original variable of employee-ratings of FSSB was retained for the analyses in the results section.

I also examined the distribution of the simple difference score, and found the distribution to be approximately normal. The distribution of the squared difference score was positively skewed, which was algebraically not surprising, as squaring the values resulted in only positive values. The normality was also assessed with P-P plots and scatterplots, which displayed some deviations from normality. The squared difference score was then transformed by taking the square root, resulting in what is equivalent to

the absolute value of the simple difference score. This improved the normality of the distribution, as well as the distribution of the residuals. Because both the absolute difference and the squared difference have been used in related literature (see Rogers et al., 2018), analyses were run with both outcome variables. The conclusions were largely in agreement. Because the absolute difference score is more closely in line with the normality assumption, the results reported use the absolute difference score as the FSSB disagreement variable.

The distribution of degree of similarity was also examined. It showed a small negative skew. Inverse square root transformations were applied, following recommendations from Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). However, after examining the histogram of the residuals and the P-P plot, the transformation did not notably improve the normality. Thus, the original variables were retained.

Linearity. P-P plots were also used to examine the assumption of linearity. Nonlinearity is evident when there are areas on a P-P plot in which values tend to fall below the trend line, and areas in which values tend to fall above the trend line (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). For employee-ratings of FSSB, there was some evidence of nonlinearity, which were diminished by using the transformed employee-ratings of FSSB variable. Again, the results reported use the original variable. For the squared disagreement score, the P-P plots did display evidence for nonlinearity. However, when the disagreement score was transformed with the square root transformation, these issues of nonlinearity were diminished.

Homoscedasticity. Scatterplots of the residuals of the hypothesized models were used to examine the assumption of homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity is evident when the residuals are evenly distributed around the trend line at all values of the dependent variable. The residuals appeared generally homoscedastic.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were obtained for all variables. The supervisors mostly identified as White (84%), with 5% identifying as Latino or Hispanic, 2% identifying as Asian, 1% identifying as Black or African American, 2% identifying as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, and 4% identifying with multiple racial identities. Most identified as men (81%). Most were married or cohabitating with a partner (87%), had at least one child at home at least three days/week (72%), and most did not provide care for an elderly or adult dependent at least three hours/week (95%). Supervisors held an average of between one and two family roles (i.e., partnered, parent, elder caregiver) (M = 1.65, SD = 0.67). The minimum number of family roles held by supervisors was zero, and the max was three. For the employees, 82% identified as White, 7% as Latino or Hispanic, 1% as Asian, 1% as Black or African American, 1% as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, 1% as American Indian or Alaska Native, and 6% identified with multiple racial identities[5]. 74% identified as men. Most were married or cohabitating (76%), had children at home at least three days/week (61%), and did not have eldercare

[5] When the racial identity variables were recoded into dichotomous variables. 84% of supervisors identified as White, and 82% of employees identified as White.

responsibilities at least three hours/week (95%). Employees filled a minimum of zero family roles, and a maximum of three family roles (*M* = 1.43, *SD* = 0.76).

The descriptive statistics of the matching variables demonstrated that 71% of supervisor-employee dyads matched in their racial identification, 78% matched in gender, 71% matched in their marital or cohabitation status, 52% matched in their status as parents, and 92% matched in their elder caregiving responsibilities. The minimum degree of similarity was one, indicating that all dyads matched on at least one characteristic (i.e., gender, race, partnered, parent, eldercare). The maximum degree of similarity was five (*M* = 3.71, *SD* = 1.01).

Employee-ratings of FSSB were generally high (*M* = 4.13, *SD* = 0.98). Supervisor-ratings of FSSB were also high (*M* = 4.16, *SD* = 0.54). The simple difference score between supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB revealed that the differences in scores were generally small (*M* = -0.09, *SD* = 1.09), indicating that in general, ratings of FSSB were similar, although supervisors on average rated their own FSSB slightly higher than their employees. The FSSB disagreement score, which is the squared difference score, showed slightly higher levels of disagreement (*M* = 1.20, *SD* = 2.26), which is not surprising because the squaring of the simple difference score eliminates any negative values that could pull the mean closer to zero. Lastly, the transformed difference score variable (i.e., the absolute difference score) had a slightly lower mean and standard deviation (*M* = 0.82, *SD* = 0.73), which is also not algebraically surprising, considering it is the square root of the FSSB disagreement score.

Hypothesis Testing

I conducted a series of regression analyses in SPSS v. 28 using the MIXED procedure for multilevel models, controlling for branch, with employees nested within supervisor. Because employees are nested within supervisors, a random-intercept, fixed-slope model was used. Random-intercept models more appropriate when using multilevel data, as these models account for differences in average scores between groups (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In the present study, different supervisors are hypothesized to provide different levels of FSSB based on various demographic characteristics, and thus a random-intercept model was used here to allow and account for these differences. As demonstrated by the ICCs, a moderate amount of the variance in employee-ratings of FSSB is accounted for by the nesting of employees within supervisor, and so this variance should be accounted for with a random-intercept model. The random-intercept, fixed-slope model did successfully converge. A fixed-intercept, fixed-slope approach was also tested, which does not allow for intercepts of FSSB to vary between supervisors. The majority of the conclusions did not change between using a random-intercept, fixed-slope model and a fixed-intercept, fixed-slope model, but exceptions are noted where applicable in footnotes of the results section. A random-slopes model was not included, because the relationship between the predictor variables and outcomes variables was hypothesized to be the same across supervisors.

For each set of hypotheses, large regression models that included the control variable (i.e., branch) and all predictors (e.g., supervisor gender, partnered status, parental status, and elder caregiver status) corresponding to the hypotheses were examined. As

outlined in the results below, this approach did not yield many significant effects. This may have been in-part attributable to the correlations between many of the key predictor variables (see Table 1), which could result in the predictors competing for variance of the dependent variable. Neglia (2015) encountered this issue in a study that similarly examined demographics and FSSB. Therefore, in line with the analytical procedure used by Neglia (2015), additional supplemental regression models were tested. Each model contained only the control variable and one characteristic variable as the predictor of the outcome (i.e., employee-ratings of FSSB or the FSSB difference score). In this way, individual predictor variables would not compete for variance in the outcome. As noted by Neglia (2015), however, the results from running analyses in this way should be interpreted cautiously because it is a more liberal approach. There may be more of a risk of Type I error. I label these two approaches throughout the results as "large models" and "individual predictor models".

Supervisor Characteristics and Employee-Ratings of FSSB

To test **Hypotheses 1a-d**, which concerned whether supervisor characteristics are associated with employee-ratings of FSSB, the control variable and predictors (i.e., supervisor [a] gender, [b] partnered status, [c] parental status, and [d] elder caregiving status) were all entered into one large model predicting employee-ratings of FSSB, but none of the predictors were significantly related to FSSB. Please see Table 2 for results from the large model. The individual predictor models were then examined, as described above. There was still no support for supervisor (a) gender (γ = -0.04, *SE* = 0.15, p = .78, 95% CI [-0.33, 0.25]), (b) partnered status (γ = -0.01, *SE* = 0.17, p = .96, 95% CI [-0.35,

0.33]), (c) parental status (γ = 0.00, *SE* = 0.13, *p* = 1.00, 95% CI [-0.25, 0.26]), or (d) elder caregiving status (γ = 0.32, *SE* = 0.27, *p* = .24, 95% CI [-0.21, 0.84]) being related to employee-ratings of FSSB. Thus, hypotheses 1a-d were not supported. Please see Table 3 for results from the individual predictor models.

Hypothesis 2 stated that the number of family roles a supervisor has should be positively related to employee-ratings of FSSB. To test this, the number of family roles that each supervisor has was entered into a regression model as a predictor of employee-ratings of FSSB, along with the control variable. Hypothesis 2 was not supported (γ = 0.02, *SE* = 0.09, *p* = .85, 95% CI [-0.16, 0.19]). Please see Table 4.

Employee Characteristics and Employee-Ratings of FSSB

To test **Hypotheses 3a-d,** which stated that employee characteristics would be related to employee-ratings of FSSB, a similar procedure to that of hypothesis 1a-d was used. Each of the predictor variables (i.e., employee [a] gender, [b] partnered status, [c] parental status, and [d] elder caregiving status) was included in a large model with branch, with no significant results. Please see Table 5 for results from the large model. I then tested the individual predictor models. There was no evidence from these models that employee (a) gender (γ = -0.19, *SE* = 0.12, *p* = .11, 95% CI [-0.41, 0.04]), (b) partnered status (γ = 0.11, *SE* = 0.12, *p* = .34, 95% CI [-0.12, 0.34]), (c) parental status (γ = 0.03, *SE* = 0.11, *p* = .77, 95% CI [-0.17, 0.23]), or (d) elder caregiving status (γ = -0.15, *SE* = 0.23, *p* = .51, 95% CI [-0.60, 0.30]) was related to employee-ratings of FSSB. Thus, hypotheses 3a-d were not supported. Please see Table 6 for results from the individual predictor models.

To test **Hypothesis 4**, the number of family roles that each employee has was entered into a regression as a predictor of employee-ratings of FSSB, along with branch. The results indicated that employee family roles were not related to FSSB, thus not supporting hypothesis 4 (γ = 0.03, *SE* = 0.07, *p* = .63, 95% CI [-0.10, 0.16]). Please see Table 7.

Relational Demography and Employee-Ratings of FSSB

Hypotheses 5a-e concerned the relational demography of supervisor-employee dyads, and stated that shared characteristics would be related to greater employee-ratings of FSSB. The control variable and the newly constructed match variables described above (i.e., [a] gender match, [b] race match, [c] partnered status match, [d] parental status match, and [e] eldercare status match) were entered into one large model predicting employee-ratings of FSSB. None of the predictors were significantly related to employee-ratings of FSSB. Please see Table 8 for results from the large model. I then tested the individual predictor models. Again, there were not statistically significant results for (a) gender match (γ = 0.15, *SE* = 0.12, *p* = .23, 95% CI [-0.09, 0.39]), (b) race match (γ = 0.16, *SE* = 0.11, *p* = .16, 95% CI [-0.07, 0.38]), (c) partnered status match (γ = 0.04, *SE* = 0.11, *p* = .69, 95% CI [-0.17, 0.26]), (d) parental status match (γ = 0.11, *SE* = 0.10, *p* = .27, 95% CI [-0.09, 0.31]), or elder caregiving status match (γ = -0.08, *SE* = 0.19, *p* = .68,

95% CI [-0.45, 0.29]). Thus, there was no support for hypotheses 5a-e[6]. Please see Table 9 for results from the individual predictor models.

To test **Hypothesis 6,** branch and the constructed degree of similarity variable were entered as predictors of employee-ratings of FSSB. The results indicated that degree of similarity was not significantly related to employee-ratings of FSSB[7], (γ = 0.08, SE = 0.05, p = .11, 95% CI [-0.02, 0.18]). Thus, hypothesis 6 was not supported. Please see Table 10.

Relational Demography and FSSB Disagreement

To assess **Hypotheses 7a-e**, the predictors (i.e., [a] gender match, [b] race match, [c] partnered status match, [d], parental status match, and [e] eldercare status match) were entered into one large regression model predicting the absolute difference between an employee's rating of FSSB and their supervisor's self-rating of FSSB. In the large model, only eldercare match was associated with FSSB disagreement, (γ = -0.32, *SE* = 0.15, p = .04, 95% CI [-0.62, -0.02]), indicating that a match in eldercare status was associated with lower FSSB disagreement, supporting hypothesis 7e. Please see Table 11. I then ran the individual predictor models, and the results were also nonsignificant for (a) gender match (γ = 0.04, *SE* = 0.09, p = .66, 95% CI [-0.14, 0.22]), (b) race match (γ = -0.14, *SE* =

[6] Additional supplemental models were run that included the respective supervisor characteristic and the interaction term between match status and supervisor characteristic as predictors to examine whether the relationship between match and FSSB varied based on the specific identity. None of the interactions were significant.

[7] In the fixed intercept model and fixed slope model utilizing the transformed employee-rating of FSSB, degree of similarity was significantly and negatively related to employee ratings of FSSB, (γ = -0.03, *SE* = 0.02, p = .05, 95% CI [-0.07, 0.00]).

0.08, p = .09, 95% CI [-0.31, 0.02]), (c) partnered status match (γ = 0.01, SE = 0.08, p = .94, 95% CI [-0.15, 0.16]), (d) parental status match (γ = -0.01, SE = 0.07, p = .89, 95% CI [-0.16, 0.14]), and (e) elder caregiving status match (γ = -0.19, SE = 0.14, p = .19, 95% CI [-0.47, 0.09]), thus further suggesting that there is no support for hypotheses 7a-d, and tentative support for hypothesis 7e[8]. Please see Table 12.

To test **Hypothesis 8**, degree of similarity was then entered as a predictor in its own model, in addition to the control variable, with the absolute difference score as the outcome variable. The results indicated that degree of similarity was not significantly related to the squared difference score in employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB (γ = -0.03, SE = 0.04, p = .37, 95% CI [-0.11, 0.04]). Thus, hypothesis 8 was not supported. Please see Table 13.

In summary, the results from the main analyses largely did not support the hypotheses in the present study. Supervisor and employee demographics, as well as the comparative demography of supervisor-employee dyads, were assessed as predictors of employee-ratings of FSSB. Supervisor characteristics were not associated with employee-ratings of FSSB. Employee characteristics were also not associated with employee-ratings of FSSB. Supervisor-employee matching, and degree of similarity, were also not associated with employee-ratings of FSSB. The relationships between supervisor-employee characteristic match, degree of similarity and the FSSB disagreement score

[8] Additional models were run that included the respective supervisor characteristic and the interaction term between match status and supervisor characteristic as predictors to examine whether the relationship between match and FSSB disagreement varied based on the specific identity. None of these interactions were significant.

were also examined. The results suggested that only supervisor-employee match in eldercare status was associated with FSSB disagreement. The degree of similarity between the employee and supervisor was also not associated with FSSB disagreement. However, due to the limitations associated with using the difference score as an indicator of self-other agreement, supplemental analyses were conducted.

Supplemental Analyses

The use of difference scores to capture self-other agreement has been criticized by past researchers (e.g., Rogers et al., 2018). For example, the squared or absolute difference scores do not provide information about the direction of the disagreement (i.e., whether the supervisor is over- or under-rating themselves, compared to the employee). Due to these limitations, additional analyses were obtained to examine the relationship between dyadic relational demography and agreement on ratings of FSSB. Other recommended practices, such as pseudocouple analysis (as described in Rogers et al., 2018) or polynomial regression (e.g., Edwards, 1995) are beyond the scope of the current study. However, further analyses that are more descriptive and simpler in nature were conducted to gain more insight into these relationships.

Supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB were not highly correlated (ρ = .06), as seen in Table 1. However, a paired-samples t-test was conducted to determine whether mean employee-ratings of FSSB differed significantly from the supervisor ratings. The results showed that employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB were not significantly different ($t(380) = -1.58$, $p = .12$, 95% CI [-0.20, 0.02]). Past research with this sample similarly found that employees and supervisors generally agreed on

FSSB (Leslie, 2022), which may have contributed to the general lack of findings when using the absolute difference score. However, supervisor-ratings (M = 4.16, SD = 0.54) were overall only marginally higher than employee-ratings (M = 4.13, SD = 0.98), which addresses the concern that supervisors may overrate themselves. Please see Table 1 for means of supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB.

Analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) were then obtained to examine the variance of FSSB disagreement by characteristic match (i.e., gender match, race match, partnered match, parental match, eldercare match), with branch included as a covariate. These ANCOVAs, in addition to the regressions from the main analyses, help to give a more complete picture of the nature of the differences in employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB. The simple difference score, rather than the squared difference score, was used in these analyses to obtain additional understanding of the actual direction of the relationships. The distribution of the simple difference score was assessed via histograms, which were close to normal. The simple difference score distributions were also close to normal for the matching and nonmatching subgroups of all characteristics (i.e., race match, gender match, partnered match, parental match, eldercare match). The scatterplots of the covariate (i.e., branch) and the simple difference score by match were examined for each characteristic to assess the homogeneity of slopes. Slopes were all very similar, with overlapping confidence intervals, thus meeting this assumption. Only race match was significantly related to the difference in FSSB ratings between supervisors and employees. The means indicated that for dyads who did not match in race, supervisors tended to overrate themselves (M = -0.30, SD = 1.16). Dyads who did

match in racial identity had a difference score that was smaller and positive (M = 0.02, SD = 1.04) indicating that dyads with matching racial and ethnic identities had more similar ratings of FSSB, and that the supervisors did not tend to overrate themselves in this group. The results demonstrated that this difference in supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings was significant, $F(1,370) = 6.68$, $p = .01$, $\eta^2 = .02$. The inclusion of branch as a covariate did not change the subgroup means, indicating that this relationship did not differ between branches. Please see Table 14. The additional information that the simple difference score provides regarding the direction of the disagreement is beneficial in highlighting the relationship between race match and FSSB disagreement.

In summary, these findings from supplemental analyses suggest that supervisors and employees generally agree on ratings of FSSB. The many nonsignificant findings in the main analyses suggested the comparative demographics of supervisors and employees were not related to disagreement in supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB. Although the ANCOVAs in the supplemental analyses largely supported the results from the main analyses, race match was found to be related to FSSB disagreement, such that dyads who match in race were less likely to have inflated supervisor-ratings, and eldercare match was found to not be significantly related to FSSB disagreement.

Discussion

In the present study, I examined the demographic antecedents of FSSB to determine by who, and for whom, FSSB is displayed within a military occupational context. Although the hypotheses were largely not supported in the present study, the many nonsignificant findings nevertheless contribute to a further understanding of the distribution of FSSB by supervisors to employees in this context, and add to the growing body of literature dedicated to examining the antecedents of FSSB.

Supervisor characteristics. Supervisor characteristics (i.e., gender, partnered status, parental status, and eldercare status) were examined to determine whether particular supervisors were more likely to display FSSB. Straub (2012) proposed that supervisors who are women and supervisors who are in more demanding family roles, would be associated with greater FSSB through felt responsibility. Sargent et al. (2022) likewise proposed that women supervisors would be more likely to perceive opportunities to engage in FSSB. However, the present study failed to support these propositions. Instead, the nonsignificant findings suggest that no individual supervisor characteristic was significantly associated with employee-ratings of FSSB. Mixed support has been found for this proposition in the literature. The results from the present study are in contrast to Basuil et al. (2016), who found that women supervisors provided more FSSB, and Neglia (2015), who found that married supervisors displayed more FSSB. Neglia (2015) used a sample from a financial services company, and Basuil et al. (2016) utilized a sample recruited by students. As demonstrated in past research by Sargent (2020), the gendered context of the occupation may play in a role in displays of FSSB in an

organization. Different behavioral norms and expectations may be present when an occupational is masculine, versus feminine (Cejka & Eagly, 1999). Thus, the general expectations regarding family may also vary in these occupations. Consequently, the patterns of displayed FSSB can also vary between occupations (Sargent, 2020). Therefore, the various occupations included in the literature regarding antecedents of FSSB may in-part explain the inconsistent findings. However, the findings of the present study were in agreement with past nonsignificant findings regarding supervisor gender (Epstein et al., 2015; Neglia, 2015) and supervisor parental status (Neglia, 2015). Furthermore, the number of family roles that supervisors fill, which has not been studied before, was not related to FSSB in the present study. Therefore, these findings do not support that any particular supervisor was significantly more likely to have high employee-ratings of FSSB.

However, employee-ratings of FSSB were generally high overall (M = 4.13, SD = 0.98), indicating that supervisors on average were perceived as displaying high FSSB. Additionally, the high average rating of FSSB in the present study surpassed the means from Basuil et al. (2016; M = 3.82, SD = 0.85), thus a ceiling effect may be contributing to the lack of findings. The high employee-ratings of FSSB may in-part be explained by the emphasis on family within the military. Because families are often impacted by military responsibilities, such as deployment, supervisors in the military may be more likely than civilian supervisors to be aware of the family-related stressors that their employees are facing. For this reason, family concerns may be more salient to military supervisors and thus, they may feel responsible to engage in more FSSB.

Employee characteristics. Next, employee characteristics were also examined as predictors of FSSB. Although Straub (2012) made no propositions about employee characteristics, Sargent et al. (2022) did propose that employee gender would be related to FSSB, such that women employees would be more likely to request FSSB, and that supervisors would be more likely to perceive FSSB opportunities for women, and neglect to enact FSSB for men. The nonsignificant findings of the present study contrast with the conflicting past findings regarding employee gender (Basuil et al., 2016; Huffman & Olson, 2017; Sargent, 2020). The conflicting findings from these past studies could in-part be explained by the fact that they sample from different occupations – both Basuil et al. (2016) and Sargent (2020) recruited participants from a variety of occupations. Sargent (2020) found that in a female-dominated occupation, FSSB perceptions are similar between men and women, but in mixed-gender and male-dominated occupations, men perceived less FSSB than women. Therefore, it is plausible that the specific context of the study plays into these relationships, and may therefore be driving the inconsistent results. Huffman & Olson (2017) had a military sample, which is similar to the present study. However, their sample contained only work-linked couples, whereas the present sample was broader by also including participants whose partner did not work in the military. Sargent (2020) also found that supervisors' gender-role beliefs moderated the relationship between employee gender and FSSB, such that men perceive higher FSSB when the supervisor is egalitarian, and women perceive higher FSSB when the supervisor is traditional. However, the results suggested that gendered occupational context

moderated the relationship between gender and FSSB regardless of gender-role attitudes, reiterating the importance of context.

The present study also extends and tests frameworks from Straub (2012) and Sargent et al. (2022), and the nonsignificant results of the present study suggest that no employee was more or less likely to perceive FSSB from their supervisor based on any of the characteristics included in this study. This is in agreement with nonsignificant coefficients regarding employee parental status and marital status from Basuil et al. (2016). Again, in this sample employees in general reported high FSSB, which may indicate that employees were generally adequately supported in the present sample. Again, the average ratings of FSSB in this study was higher than past findings (Basuil et al., 2016; Huffman & Olson, 2017; Sargent, 2020) which may have created a ceiling effect and contributed to the lack of findings in the present study

Supervisor-employee dyads. I also examined supervisor-employee dyadic characteristics matching and degree of similarity to determine whether supervisors and employees who match in characteristics were associated with higher employee-ratings of FSSB. Straub (2012) and Sargent et al. (2022) both made propositions that similarity between supervisors and employees will be positively related to FSSB. The findings of the present study contrast with past significant findings regarding gender match (Basuil et al., 2016; Foley et al., 2006), race match (Foley et al., 2006), and parental status match (Basuil et al., 2016). As previously discussed, these past studies utilized samples from a variety of occupations, and recent research from Sargent (2020) highlighted the importance of considering the gendered occupational context when examining FSSB.

Therefore, the inconsistent samples may contribute to the conflicting findings. However, the null findings of the present study were aligned with past nonsignificant findings regarding marital status match (Basuil et al., 2016), and race and parental status match (Sargent, 2020). Again, the mean ratings of FSSB in the present generally exceeded the mean ratings in past studies, which may contribute to the lack of findings here. Within the present study I sought to further examine Straub's (2012) and Sargent et al.'s (2022) propositions and include a larger number of characteristics than what has been included in past individual studies. However, there was no evidence that shared supervisor-employee characteristics were associated with FSSB. Therefore, the present study failed to support propositions from Straub (2012) and Sargent et al. (2022).

FSSB disagreement. Lastly, I examined FSSB disagreement by assessing whether dyadic matching and similarity predicted smaller differences in supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB. This study is the first to examine these relational demography variables as predictors of the discrepancy in supervisor self-rating and employee-ratings of FSSB, in response to recent literature that has distinguished between supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB (e.g., Crain & Stevens, 2018; Marescaux et al., 2020; Sianoja et al., 2020). The many nonsignificant main findings, and the many nonsignificant supplemental analyses, suggest that supervisors and employees did not generally disagree on ratings of FSSB. The sole significant main finding of eldercare match indicated that dyads who match in eldercare responsibilities may have lower disagreement in ratings of FSSB. Most dyads matched in eldercare status (92%), and of these, most dyads (99%) matched because they did not have eldercare

responsibilities. Of the 33 dyads who did not match in eldercare status, 48% included a supervisor without eldercare responsibilities, and 52% included an employee with eldercare responsibilities. Comparing mean ratings of FSSB for these subgroups revealed that when supervisors had eldercare responsibilities (but not the employees), employee ratings of FSSB were higher (M = 4.44, SD = 0.66) than in dyads where the employee had eldercare responsibilities (M = 3.96, SD = 1.31). Furthermore, when examining the simple difference score, supervisors tended to overrate their own FSSB when they did not have eldercare responsibilities (M = -0.22, SD = 1.38) compared to nonmatching dyads in which the supervisor had eldercare responsibilities (M = 0.29, SD = 1.36). The magnitude of the absolute difference score was slightly lower in all dyads who matched in eldercare (M = 0.81, SD = 0.70) compared to all those who do not (M = 0.93, SD = 1.00).

Therefore, although there is a low representation of individuals with eldercare responsibilities within the present sample, the descriptive statistics suggest that eldercare responsibilities may play a role in perceptions of family support. More research is needed to determine exactly what this role is. For example, Peng et al. (2020) examined a measure of eldercare-specific supportive supervision. Rofcanin et al. (2020) examined eldercare responsibilities as a boundary condition for FSSB mechanisms. The findings in this study may indicate that the responsibilities associated with eldercare are influential when forming perceptions of FSSB, and that dyads who do not share this responsibility do not have common perceptions of adequate FSSB. However, given the nonsignificant findings regarding eldercare and FSSB disagreement in the individual model, the

nonsignificant supplemental analyses, and the low variance in eldercare status in this sample, this result should be interpreted cautiously.

Furthermore, the low correlation (ρ = .06) between supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB, as well as the larger, negative difference scores in dyads that do not match in race (versus those that do), suggest that there may be some instances when ratings in FSSB diverge. Specifically, racially diverse dyads were more likely to have inflated supervisor-ratings of FSSB. The sample was mostly White (86% of supervisors, and 82% of employees), and of the 106 racially diverse dyads, most (58%) were comprised of a White supervisor and an employee that did not identify as White. It is possible that supervisors, and specifically White supervisors, may be less knowledgeable of the experiences, such as larger societal stressors, and the support needs of their racially diverse employees. However, the means indicate that White supervisors in racially diverse dyads rate their own FSSB less highly (M = 4.25, SD = 0.53) than supervisors who are not White in mixed race dyads (M = 4.38, SD = 0.54), although supervisors overrate themselves in both subgroups. In general, the findings of the present study suggest that, at least in a military context, the differences between supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB may not be very large. These findings do not support the idea that supervisors inflate their own ratings of FSSB.

Therefore, it is important to consider what factors may contribute to self-other agreement in FSSB. Past literature has stated that perceptions of personality traits that are higher in visibility, and lower in evaluativeness (e.g., desirability), should be more aligned (Connelly & Ones, 2010). Although FSSB is a behavior, and not a trait, it is

worthwhile to consider the extent to which FSSB is visible and evaluative. FSSB is socially desirable, and may therefore be presumed to be evaluative. However, because there is general agreement between supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB, this may indicate that the visibility of FSSB is high. It is important to acknowledge that some support is invisible, but still impactful, even if one does not perceive that they are being supported (e.g., Bolger et al., 2000; Bolger & Amarel, 2007; Kirsch & Lehman, 2015). This literature also suggests that people providing support may indicate that they gave support, but the recipients may not be aware of these actions, or may not perceive these actions as support (Bolger et al., 2000). Thus, supervisors could feel that they are providing FSSB, but if the support is not visible, employees may not have similar perceptions. However, given the high employee-ratings of FSSB, and the low disagreement between employee-ratings and supervisor-ratings of FSSB, FSSB may generally be visible to employees.

Nevertheless, it is critical to consider the context of the present study when interpreting the supplemental analyses. Ratings of FSSB, from both the employee and the supervisor, were generally quite high in this sample. Because family is highly integrated into the military, family conflicts may be much more salient to supervisors in the military than in other occupational contexts, and so supervisors may be more likely to engage in FSSB. Thus, if there are generally more displays of FSSB in this military context, which are perceived by both the supervisor and the employee, then it follows that disagreement would be low. This may have contributed to the low number of significant findings in the present study.

The examination of the difference in supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB makes an important theoretical contribution. Much of the past literature has focused on employee-ratings (e.g., Basuil et al., 2016; Foley et al., 2006). These design decisions may in part address the concern that supervisors may inflate the ratings of their own FSSB. The perceptions of support from the employee's perspective is certainly important, but recent literature has questioned whether it is appropriate to conflate these two rating sources (Crain & Stevens, 2018). One study found that supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB were differentially related to sleep outcomes (Sianoja et al., 2020), and another found that, for some people, agreement in ratings of FSSB may be positively related to retention and engagement (Marescaux et al., 2020). However, the present study was aimed at identifying potential antecedents of the disagreement, to contribute to the understanding of how FSSB is perceived by multiple sources.

Limitations

Next, I will address a number of the limitations that exist within the present study, which include concerns of measurement, analytical procedure, sample size, and generalizability.

Sample size. The present study may not have had enough power to detect relationships of smaller magnitudes. This potential issue was also noted by Leslie (2022), who utilized data from the same larger intervention study. Because of the multilevel structure of the data, and of the multilevel analyses conducted in which there were random intercepts, it is important to consider not only the total sample size, but also the number of clusters (Snijders, 2005). 178 supervisors (i.e., 178 clusters) may have limited

the power to detect effects while using multilevel modelling, as this approach requires a larger sample. This issue may be further exacerbated because many of the supervisors have only one employee reporting to them, but other supervisors have many. However, this limitation was minimized by also running analyses with fixed intercepts. As the fixed-intercept, fixed-slope and random-intercept, fixed-slope models were not entirely in agreement, as noted in the footnotes of the results section, a larger sample size may have been beneficial to detect effects while still accounting for the multilevel structure of the data.

Demographics. Another limitation of this study has to do with the operationalization and representation of demographic variables. First, minority racial and ethnic identities were collapsed into one category in the present study due to the low representation of these identities in the sample. This approach disregards the different experiences of people within marginalized racial and ethnic identities. In reality, supervisors and employees within a dyad may both identify as a race other than White, but this does not mean that they identify with the same racial identity as each other. Members from all minoritized groups should not be assumed to have had the same experiences (e.g., George et al., 2014). For example, the proportions of people who report experiencing race-related discrimination varies between members of different racial minority groups (Lee et al., 2019). Thus, it is essential to consider how different relationships may occur within supervisor-employee dyads when the supervisor and employee belong to different racial minority groups. Furthermore, the sample was mainly comprised of men (81% of supervisors and 74% of employees), mostly White (74% of

supervisors and 82% of employees), included only people who identified as men or as women, and did not include any other genders. The present sample also contained very few individuals with eldercare responsibilities, and most of the were partnered (87% of supervisors and 76% of employees). The lack of variance in these variables could have limited the power of the analyses and contributed to the many nonsignificant findings in the present study. Regarding gender, the military is a largely male-dominated field, so the representation of gender in the present study may be in line with the larger military population.

Future research in this area should thoroughly and specifically examine the demands and experiences of people with marginalized identities, especially through an intersectional lens. Intersectionality theory is concerned with the unique experiences that exist within intersections of identities (e.g., Black women have experiences that are distinct from White women and Black men) (Crenshaw, 1989). Sargent et al. (2022) also called for more intersectional research in this area of FSSB research. Categorizing people based upon their gender, and then their race, and then their family roles, prevents the researcher from analyzing the unique experiences that are associated with having many of these identities at once. Furthermore, other family statuses, such as people who identify as being members of nontraditional families, can and should be included in studies of family support to examine whether the current scale of family support is relevant and valid for members of all families. A recent article discussed the lack of intersectional research in I-O psychology, and discussed considerations for methodological procedures, such as considering the salience of particular identities to an individual, accounting for

larger societal contexts, understanding that identity is multidimensional and interdependent, using qualitative methodologies, and considering time and visibility (Rabelo & Cortina, 2016).

It is important to note the absence of age match in the relational demography component of this study. Although the present study is concerned with many demographic variables, age is not included because it often does not follow similar trends as the variables that are included in this study. For example, one study found that in supervisor-employee dyads who were perceived to be similar in age had lower employee engagement (Yang & Matz-Costa, 2018). This may, in part, be due to the relational norms of age and experience (Tsui et al., 2002). Furthermore, match in age would be much more difficult to capture, and could involve drawing arbitrary lines to describe whether a supervisor and an employee do, in fact, match in age. For these reasons, age is not a variable of interest in this study. However, age is another demographic that could be considered alongside other demographics when considering intersectionality.

Operationalization of similarity. Another limitation of this study is that the relational demography within dyads is investigated based solely on categorical similarity (i.e., alignment in self-reports of demographic identities). Perceived similarity is not captured in this study. Although past literature has shown that people are generally able to perceive similarity in more physical, visible attributes (e.g., race and age) (Harrison et al., 1998), family roles are not a visible trait that can be observed in the same way. It is possible that supervisors and employees may have family roles in common, but do not discuss them and therefore they are not aware of any matching roles that the other person

fills. This may dilute any potential relationships between relational demography and perceived support. The rationale of the present study rests on the notion that objective similarity will be related to increased communication or liking. However, more nuanced aspects of the supervisor-employee relationship were not captured in this study, such as knowledge of others' family roles, supervisor-employee liking, and frequency of discussions of family in the workplace.

Difference scores. An additional limitation is related to the analytical procedure used to examine the discrepancy in supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB. The present study utilized a transformed squared difference score. Absolute and squared difference scores had been used more widely in past studies examining rating disagreement, but have lost popularity due to criticisms against their use, such as potentially lower reliability, diminished interpretability, and the confounding of main effects with other factors (Atwater et al., 1998; Edwards, 1994, 2001; Fleenor et al., 2010). A recent review of analytical approaches did note that "squared difference scores can quantify the degree of similarity or agreement" (Rogers et al., 2018, p. 120), but further cautioned the use of the squared difference scores or absolute difference scores because they are not ideal for capturing nuances in the nature of the disagreement. Therefore, the use of the absolute difference score in this study does provide information about the magnitude of the disagreement between supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB. In an effort to address the limitations associated with using the squared difference score, the supplementary ANCOVAs used the simple difference score. These additional analyses provided more information about directionality of the disagreement

(e.g., the supervisor over-rating themselves compared to the employee's ratings). However, even the additional analyses do not provide more detailed information, such as the direction of the disagreement when both the employee and supervisor are both women, compared to when they are both men. Furthermore, because employees are nested within supervisors, some supervisors have more than one employee and thus create a one-to-many data issue that may be problematic. ANCOVA analyses also do not account for the nested structure of the data.

Other approaches, such as polynomial regression (e.g., Edwards & Parry, 1993), have been suggested as more ideal for dealing with difference scores generally. Rather than simply using a difference score between two variables, polynomial regression models contain predictor terms for each variable, as well as interaction terms. In this way, polynomial regression models can be used to model multidimensional relationships between two variables and the outcome (e.g., Edwards & Parry, 1993). Specifically for the research questions described in the present study, which include supervisor-employee dyadic matching and similarity were examined as predictors, pseudocouple analysis may be more appropriate. Pseudocouple analysis involves comparing existing dyads to randomly paired dyads (see Rogers et al., 2018), but was beyond the scope of the present study.

Family roles and demands. The present study uses reports of family roles as a proxy for actual family demands. Although it is likely reasonable to assume that specific family roles are associated with at least a given level of family demands, the present study does not contain information of other nuances of the experiences of the

participants, such as the extent to which their family roles are central to their identity, the magnitude of the demands faced, the comparative amount of time and energy that is spent fulfilling family roles, whether they have filled a particular family role in the past, and sources of support other than the supervisor that may be beneficial in alleviating some of the demands. The additional factors outlined above would provide more information about the extent to which individual employees may actually require FSSB.

Perceptions of FSSB. Another limitation of this study is related to the measurement of FSSB. Self-report measures are frequently susceptible to interpretation. Sargent et al. (2022) noted the need to examine what ratings of FSSB actually capture, in terms of behaviors and evaluations. The utility of the present study is dependent upon the ability of people within an organization to recognize, identify, and rate particular behaviors as FSSB. Rating FSSB in a military context may be particularly complex because families are highly intertwined with the military, and many formal family supportive policies exist. Therefore, informal support, such as FSSB, may be difficult to perceive as separate from more formal family supports. Additionally, the same behaviors may be interpreted differently depending on the source of the rating. For example, Perrigino (2018) explored within-group variance in perceptions of FSSB, reasoning that the differences in the needs of the individual may drive differences in evaluations of FSSB. Huffman and Olson (2017) argued that women in work-linked marriages will perceive less FSSB due to their increased *need* for FSSB. Thus, the same level of support may be sufficient for one person, and therefore rated highly, but may be insufficient for another, and thus rated less highly. This is a component of similar meaning systems,

which addresses that behaviors may be rated differently depending on the person doing the rating (Kenny, 1991).

Thus, it is important to question the observability of FSSB. Gosling et al. (1998) suggested that highly observable acts would need less inference to rate and, regarding Kenny's (e.g., 1991) similar meaning system, highly observable acts would be more likely to be related similarly by multiple perceivers (i.e., employees). Thus, if FSSB is highly observable, employees that do not have the same family demands would still be likely to have aligned ratings of their supervisor's FSSB, as observability may be related to rater agreement (John & Robins, 1993). Although a subjective view of FSSB may certainly provide valuable information about particular employees that may not be receiving adequate support, it complicates the examination of antecedents of FSSB, particularly when those antecedents are family roles that impact one's need for support. Therefore, the potential concern that perceptions of FSSB are subjective and lower in observability is a limitation for the ability of the present study to truly examine whether supervisors are supplying more support to the employees that need it more, or whether they are supplying different levels of *adequate* support to their individual employees.

Another potential limitation regarding ratings of FSSB is assumed similarity, which is when one rates others similar to how one would rate oneself, which could result in greater self-other agreement (Cronbach, 1955; Watson et al., 2000). It is important to note that the present study does not include employees' perceptions of their own supportiveness. However, individuals who believe that they are highly supportive may be likely to rate their supervisor highly in FSSB. Thus, factors other than supervisor

behaviors may play into employee perceptions of FSSB. More information is required regarding the decision-making processes through which individuals perceive and rate FSSB.

Generalizability. Lastly, the present study utilizes a military sample. As such, the generalizability of these findings may be limited. Due to the demands of the military (e.g., deployment), the results may be more generalizable to other high-stress or fast-paced occupation, such as first-responders, than to other civilian occupations. As discussed, the military context is unique in its combination of hierarchical structure, family involvement, and its demographic make-up establishing it as a male-dominated occupation (Redmond et al., 2015). There is evidence that men and women still tend to be employed in jobs that are in-line with traditional gender roles (i.e., women as communal, men as agentic) (e.g., Hentschel et al., 2019; Martinez & Christnacht, 2021). Although Sargent (2020) did not find support for a main effect of occupational gender type on FSSB, there was some support that occupational gender type may be a moderator. To further illustrate, women in male-dominated doctoral programs perceived their department as less sensitive to family issues than women in gender-balanced programs (Ülkü-Steiner et al., 2000). Therefore, the status of the military as a male-dominated occupation may limit the generalizability of the present findings to other settings because attitudes and norms surrounding family-issues may vary between occupations. In addition to being a male-dominated occupation, the military has further unique considerations for families. Military-specific factors, such as deployment, make family life more integrated into the military organizational context than in other occupations. These events may bring

about unique experiences and relationships within the National Guard, which may impact the nature of communication between supervisors and employees. Thus, the generally high ratings of FSSB reported by this sample may not be found in other organizations that have a lesser emphasis placed on the family. Future research may utilize the findings of the present study, and continue to examine these variables in other contexts.

Future Directions

Aside from the limitations of the present study, there are several additional avenues for future research to gain deeper understanding of FSSB within supervisor-employee dyads.

Supervisor-employee relationships. The hypotheses from the present study rest on the assumption that demographic matching and similarity will drive liking and communication between supervisors and employees. Based on the findings of the present study, however, it is evident that these assumptions may not be an accurate reflection of what occurs in the workplace. Although the hypotheses in this study were in line with past theoretical propositions (Sargent et al., 2022; Straub, 2012), and the methodology was in line with similar past research (e.g., Basuil et al., 2016; Foley et al., 2006; Neglia, 2015), the mixed past findings and the many nonsignificant findings of this study suggest that additional information regarding relationships between supervisors and employees may be required for understanding FSSB. For example, in a recent study, the researcher found that a supervisor's relational identity with their employee fully mediated the relationship between competence and FSSB, and partially mediated the relationship between likability and FSSB (Escribano, 2022). Although the relational identification

examined by Escribano (2022) does not only refer to shared demographics, as in the present study, this recent article highlights that there is likely more to the relationship between supervisor-employee dyads and FSSB than just demographics. Furthermore, as previously discussed, demographic similarity in self-report measures may not parallel perceived similarity between supervisors and their employees. The present study also does not capture individual gender-role attitudes, which has been recently included in related FSSB literature (Sargent, 2020; Sargent et al., 2022) and would further describe the supervisor-employee relationship. As such, future research should examine moderators of the relationships between supervisor and employee demographics and FSSB, such as liking, communication frequency, disclosure of family roles, and perceived similarity. These variables would help to capture nuances in supervisor-employee relationships, and reveal potential interpersonal factors that may enhance the relevance of demographics in FSSB research.

Supervisor-employee communication. The actual communication between individuals should be examined to gain further understanding of the social relationships that emerge in workplaces, and whether those social relationships are related to displays of FSSB. Social network analysis (SNA) may be utilized in future research to determine the relationship between communication frequency, or other communication variables, and support. SNA is one way to accomplish this. SNA is intended to describe relationships, and may be used to examine the outcomes of different relationship structures (Wasserman & Faust, 1994). Social networks may be examined by collecting data from participants about the relationships that they have with others, sometimes

indicating the strength of those relationships (Scott & Carrington, 2011). The relevance for SNA in leadership topics has been well researched due to the reality that leadership takes place between individuals (see Carter et al., 2015 for a review of SNA in leadership research). Because the supervisor-employee relationship is critical for leadership to take place, accurate descriptions of these relationships can be obtained using SNA, and can provide more information about antecedents of and structure of relationships (Carter et al., 2015). SNA can be used to answer a number of relevant questions, such as those listed by Hoppe and Reinelt (2010). For example, SNA can provide information about levels of trust and the sharing of resources within the network (Hoppe & Reinelt, 2010). This information could be utilized to determine the social networks that are most likely to encourage FSSB, thus future researchers could use SNA to evaluate particular relationship characteristics that are likely to lead to FSSB so that these relationships can be encouraged. SNA could also be used in conjunction with demographic information to examine whether relationships between individuals in an organization seem to be formed on the basis of shared demographic factors. By examining the social networks that exist between people, future research could more thoroughly examine whether the characteristics included in the present study, or other characteristics, are related to more frequent communication, or stronger relationships, between people.

FSSB behaviors and FSSB ratings. The present study, and similar past studies, have utilized various scales of family-supportive supervision (e.g., Basuil et al., 2016; Foley et al., 2006). To address the limitation associated with the questionable objectivity of FSSB (e.g., Sargent et al., 2022), future research could incorporate mixed-methods

designs that integrate qualitative and quantitative components to gain a deeper understanding of the actual behaviors associated with particular perceptions of FSSB. A mixed-methods design would enable researchers to compare the actual behaviors of the supervisor to perceptions (i.e., ratings) of those behaviors, which would further create an argument for (or against) the feasibility of comparing multi-source ratings of FSSB. For example, a previous study examining leadership behaviors on surgical teams utilized a mixed-methods design in which observational data about the interactions between the participants was used alongside semi-structured interviews and survey responses to examine how behaviors are related to perceptions of leadership (Stone et al., 2017). A similar procedure could be utilized in FSSB research to gain a deeper understanding of the process of perceiving and rating FSSB, by obtaining quantitative information (e.g., observing supervisor behaviors, employees rating FSSB) and qualitative information (e.g., interviews) to explore the process through which employees reached their rating. Additionally, as noted by Huffman and Olson (2017) and Perrigino (2018), the actual family demands that an individual faces may be related to how they rate the FSSB behaviors. A mixed-methods design could be used to address this limitation as well, by gaining a deeper understanding into the actual felt demands that each individual experiences, and how those felt demands impact the relationship between supervisor behaviors and employee perceptions of FSSB.

Remote work. The majority of past research in this area, including the present study, include data that was collected prior to the COVID-19 pandemic. Although remote work did exist prior to the pandemic, the levels of hybrid and exclusively remote

continue to be higher than pre-pandemic levels (Wigert & Agrawal, 2022). Sargent et al., (2022) called for more research into potential differences in FSSB in remote work. Recent literature has shown that FSSB is still an important resource for remote employees (Chambel et al., 2022; Thomas et al., 2022). However, although FSSB may be similarly conceptualized in a remote (versus in-person) context, the expression of FSSB may be different (e.g., more focus on flexibility and visible role-modeling) (Thomas et al., 2022). Although a past article found that dissimilarity in age, sex, and race did *not* moderate the relationship between remote work and employees' impression management efforts (Barsness et al., 2005), it would be interesting to continue examining the impact of demographic similarity and FSSB in a remote context for several reasons. First, in remote work, there is greater distance between individuals – as such, there may be less opportunity for individuals to perceive visible demographic factors, which may decrease the salience of these factors. Additionally, as more work has shifted remotely, the boundaries between work and nonwork have been blurred, such as the increased presence of kids and pets in virtual meetings (e.g., Thomas et al., 2022), which may increase the salience of these factors. As such, further research is required to examine whether individual differences are differentially related to FSSB in remote, versus on-site, work contexts, and to examine the salience of different demographic variables as they relate to FSSB in remote contexts.

Organizational context. As discussed, the growing body of literature examining demographics as antecedents of FSSB has produced mixed and conflicting findings. Straub (2012) proposed a number of contextual factors that may be related to FSSB, such

as a family-supportive organizational culture and access to work-family resources. Sargent (2022) also outlined individual (e.g., gender role conflict) and contextual factors (i.e., gendered occupational context) that may ultimately influence a supervisors' decision to display FSSB. Regarding gendered occupational contexts, past work from Sargent (2020) found that women perceive more FSSB in masculine work environments. However, Huffman and Olson found that in a military sample of work-linked couples, the women perceived less FSSB (2017). The present study, which is also in a military sample, found no significant relationship between employee gender and FSSB. As the military context is a masculine one, it then follows that there may be other contextual factors at play. Perrigino (2018) discussed that different organizational contexts may impact the extent to which supervisors may even engage in FSSB. The ability for supervisors to engage in and display FSSB may in-part be determined by contextual factors of the job, such as the extent to which the job is structured to elicit particular behaviors (e.g., "strong" situations, Snyder & Ickes, 1985). Perhaps the military is a "strong" context in which the behavioral norms and structures prevent individuals from eliciting varied FSSB behaviors. Future literature should consider the rigidity of the norms and structures within an occupation as a factor contributing to (or limiting) displays of FSSB (e.g., Perrigino, 2018).

Practical Implications

The implications of the present study are limited by the many nonsignificant findings. The present results suggest that individual differences in demographics and family roles were not related to the distribution of support in the workplace, although

these results should be cautiously interpreted due to the potentially insufficient power. However, the nonsignificant findings could have implications related to diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI), because employees' demographics were not found to be related to employee-ratings of FSSB. This also is important for the Queen Bee literature (e.g., Derks et al., 2016; Ellemers et al., 2004; Faniko et al., 2021) because the present findings suggest that supervisor and employee gender, as well as gender match, are not related to FSSB in this sample. Importantly, one of the commanders of the Oregon National Guard in this study is a woman, which may create an environment in which women supervisors throughout the National Guard are less likely to feel that they must separate themselves from other women to be taken seriously and be effective leaders. Furthermore, women in leadership have been reported to value and do more to support employee well-being and inclusion (Krivkovich et al., 2022).

Furthermore, although these results do not indicate that support was always equitable, supervisors were generally highly supportive, and employees were generally highly supported. Significant findings in this study would have informed organizations of potential demographics that may be associated with lower ratings of FSSB, and thus would have identified particular instances when supervisors may have been in greater need of FSSB training. The significant findings that eldercare match was negatively related to FSSB disagreement highlights the need for organizations to consider the policies that they have in place regarding eldercare, and interview employees as to whether they are being adequately supported. Additionally, the significant result of race match and FSSB disagreement in the supplemental analyses may serve as a call for

organizations to pay particular attention to the support that is displayed by supervisors in racially diverse dyads.

Although employees' racial identities were not related to FSSB, the trend for supervisors to overrate themselves in racially diverse dyads may indicate that there is a miscommunication of support needs in these groups. It is essential to reiterate that although in the majority of racially diverse dyads (58%), the supervisors were White, many of the racially diverse dyads included supervisors who were not White. Therefore, organizations should encourage all supervisors, but especially those in mixed-race dyads, to seek feedback from their employees on the adequacy of their supportive behaviors. Supervisors acknowledge that they may not have a full understanding of their employees' experiences and needs, should seek out additional information regarding resources, establish trust with their employees, and have conversations about what expressions of support would be most beneficial to their employees.

Conclusion

By testing and extending two existing models of FSSB (Sargent et al., 2022; Straub, 2012) within the present study, I examined individual supervisor and employee characteristics to determine whether employees with specific gender and/or family roles (i.e., partnered status, parental status, elder caregiving status) were more likely to perceive greater FSSB from their supervisors. Two relational demography variables were included to determine whether ratings of FSSB were greater in dyads with shared characteristics. Lastly, the present study was the first to examine antecedents of disagreement in supervisor-ratings and employee-ratings of FSSB. These hypotheses were largely not supported, suggesting that variance in FSSB is not likely related to these supervisor and employee characteristics. Only eldercare match was tentatively related to FSSB disagreement. However, supplemental analyses showed that supervisors in racially diverse dyads may be more likely to overrate their own FSSB.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for All Variables

Variable	*N*	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. Branch-S	178	0.48	0.50	-				
2. Gender-S	178	0.19	0.39	-.11*	-			
3. Race-S	175	0.86	0.35	-.08	.09	-		
4. Partnered-S	178	0.87	0.34	.03	-.12*	-.06	-	
5. Parent-S	174	0.74	0.44	-.11*	-.09	-.03	.30**	-
6. Elder-S	178	0.05	0.22	-.04	-.03	.05	-.01	-.07
7. Number of Roles-S	174	1.65	0.67	-.03	-.13*	-.05	.69**	.85**
8. Gender-E	392	0.26	0.44	.01	.36**	-.02	-.14**	-.09
9. Race-E	389	0.83	0.38	.08	-.06	-.06	.00	-.03
10. Partnered-E	392	0.76	0.43	.03	-.08	-.01	.03	.05
11. Parent-E	388	0.62	0.49	-.04	-.10*	.07	.02	-.02
12. Elder-E	392	0.05	0.22	-.03	-.07	-.02	.04	.06
13. Number of Roles-E	388	1.43	0.76	-.02	-.13**	.03	.04	.02
14. Match Gender	392	0.78	0.41	.04	-.17**	.06	.10*	.05
15. Match Race	384	0.72	0.45	-.02	.02	.53**	-.03	-.01
16. Match Partnered	392	0.71	0.45	.06	-.06	-.04	.34**	.11*
17. Match Parent	373	0.54	0.50	.01	.01	.04	.12*	.20**
18. Match Elder	392	0.92	0.28	.05	.06	-.06	-.07	-.02
19. Degree of Similarity	365	3.71	1.01	.03	-.06	.26**	.22**	.16**
20. FSSB - Employee Ratings	392	4.13	0.98	.08	-.03	.04	.01	-.01
21. FSSB - Supervisor Ratings	171	4.16	0.54	.25**	-.20**	-.13*	-.02	-.13*
22. FSSB Disagreement	381	-0.09	1.09	-.06	.07	.10	.01	.06
23. FSSB Disagreement - Squared	381	1.20	2.26	-.09	.03	.00	.04	-.02
24. FSSB Disagreement - Absolute	381	0.82	0.73	-.11*	.05	.02	.01	-.03

Note. These correlations were obtained using the longform data, therefore supervisors may be represented more than once. S = Supervisor, E = Employee. Branch (0 = Army, 1 = Air). Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female). Race (0 = Not White, 1 = White). Married or cohabitating (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Parent (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Eldercare (0 = No, 1 = Yes). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 1 Continued

Variable	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Branch-S									
2. Gender-S									
3. Race-S									
4. Partnered-S									
5. Parent-S									
6. Elder-S	-								
7. Number of Roles-S	.20**	-							
8. Gender-E	-.02	-.13*	-						
9. Race-E	.07	.00	-.01	-					
10. Partnered-E	.04	.07	-.08	.02	-				
11. Parent-E	.04	-.01	-.08	.03	.30**	-			
12. Elder-E	.06	.09	-.05	-.06	-.04	-.02	-		
13. Number of Roles-E	.06	.05	-.11*	.02	.74**	.81**	.25**	-	
14. Match Gender	.06	.09	-.56**	-.01	.08	.13*	.06	.13**	-
15. Match Race	.08	.00	-.04	.65**	.02	.06	-.02	.05	.02
16. Match Partnered	.00	.23**	-.09	.01	.74**	.19**	-.04	.52**	.07
17. Match Parent	.02	.21**	-.07	.05	.10*	.46**	-.06	.34**	.04
18. Match Elder	-.64**	-.18**	.03	-.04	.03	.01	-.66**	-.16**	-.07
19. Degree of Similarity	-.09	.20**	-.31**	.32**	.42**	.41**	-.23**	.43**	.43**
20. FSSB - Employee Ratings	.06	.01	-.09	.05	.05	.02	-.04	.03	.08
21. FSSB - Supervisor Ratings	-.08	-.12*	-.09	-.06	.02	-.01	-.02	.00	.06
22. FSSB Disagreement	.07	.05	-.04	.08	.04	.03	-.02	.03	.04
23. FSSB Disagreement - Squared	.06	.03	.02	-.04	-.01	-.05	.07	-.02	.03
24. FSSB Disagreement - Absolute	.03	.00	.06	-.05	-.02	.01	.06	.01	.01

Note. These correlations were obtained using the longform data, therefore supervisors may be represented more than once. S = Supervisor, E = Employee. Branch (0 = Army, 1 = Air). Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female). Race (0 = Not White, 1 = White). Married or cohabitating (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Parent (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Eldercare (0 = No, 1 = Yes). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 1 Continued

Variable	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
1. Branch-S										
2. Gender-S										
3. Race-S										
4. Partnered-S										
5. Parent-S										
6. Elder-S										
7. Number of Roles-S										
8. Gender-E										
9. Race-E										
10. Partnered-E										
11. Parent-E										
12. Elder-E										
13. Number of Roles-E										
14. Match Gender										
15. Match Race	-									
16. Match Partnered	.01	-								
17. Match Parent	.06	.18**	-							
18. Match Elder	-.11*	.01	.03	-						
19. Degree of Similarity	.48**	.56**	.63**	.22**	-					
20. FSSB - Employee Ratings	.08	.03	.07	-.02	.10	-				
21. FSSB - Supervisor Ratings	-.13*	.04	-.04	.05	-.04	.06	-			
22. FSSB Disagreement	.13*	.01	.08	-.02	.12*	.88**	-.43**	-		
23. FSSB Disagreement - Squared	-.07	.03	-.06	-.08	-.06	-.59**	-.15**	-.46**	-	
24. FSSB Disagreement - Absolute	-.07	.01	-.02	-.05	-.04	-.54**	-.23**	-.38**	.91**	-

Note. These correlations were obtained using the longform data, therefore supervisors may be represented more than once. S = Supervisor, E = Employee. Branch (0 = Army, 1 = Air). Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female). Race (0 = Not White, 1 = White). Married or cohabitating (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Parent (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Eldercare (0 = No, 1 = Yes). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 2

Regressions of Employee Ratings of FSSB on Supervisor Characteristics – Large Model

Variable	γ	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo* R^2
			LL	*UL*		
Intercept	4.10	0.19	3.71	4.48	.00	
Branch	0.15	0.12	-0.08	0.38	.21	
Gender	-0.06	0.15	-0.36	0.24	.70	
Partnered	-0.07	0.19	-0.44	0.31	.72	
Parental	0.02	0.14	-0.25	0.29	.89	
Eldercare	0.38	0.31	-0.24	1.00	.23	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.13	0.06	0.05	0.32	.03	
Residual	0.83	0.07	0.69	0.99	.00	

Note. Branch (0 = Army, 1 = Air). Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female). Race (0 = Not White, 1 = White). Married or cohabitating (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Parent (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Eldercare (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Marginal *pseudo* R^2 reported.

Table 3

Regressions of Employee Ratings of FSSB on Supervisor Characteristics- Individual Models

Variable	*γ*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo R^2*
			LL	*UL*		
Intercept	4.06	0.09	3.89	4.23	.00	
Branch	0.13	0.11	-0.09	0.35	.26	
Gender	-0.04	0.15	-0.33	0.25	.78	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.12	0.06	0.04	0.31	.04	
Residual	0.85	0.08	0.72	1.02	.00	
Intercept	4.06	0.17	3.72	4.39	.00	
Branch	0.13	0.11	-0.09	0.35	.24	
Partnered	-0.01	0.17	-0.35	0.33	.96	
						.00
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.12	0.06	0.04	0.31	.04	
Residual	0.85	0.08	0.72	1.02	.00	
Intercept	4.05	0.13	3.79	4.30	.00	
Branch	0.16	0.12	-0.07	0.38	.18	
Parental	0.00	0.13	-0.25	0.26	1.00	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.13	0.06	0.05	0.31	.03	
Residual	0.82	0.07	0.69	0.98	.00	
Intercept	4.04	0.08	3.88	4.19	.00	
Branch	0.13	0.11	-0.09	0.35	.24	
Eldercare	0.32	0.27	-0.21	0.84	.24	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.11	0.06	0.04	0.30	.04	
Residual	0.85	0.08	0.72	1.01	.00	

Note. Branch (0 = Army, 1 = Air). Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female). Race (0 = Not White, 1 = White). Married or cohabitating (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Parent (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Eldercare (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Marginal *pseudo R^2* reported.

Table 4

Regressions of Employee Ratings of FSSB on Supervisor Number of Roles

Variable	*γ*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo* R^2
			LL	*UL*		
Intercept	4.02	0.17	3.68	4.36	.00	
Branch	0.16	0.11	-0.07	0.38	.17	
Number Roles	0.02	0.09	-0.16	0.19	.85	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.13	0.06	0.05	0.32	.03	
Residual	0.82	0.07	0.69	0.98	.00	

Note. Number of roles is the aggregate of the family role status of married or cohabiting, children at home at least three days/week, and eldercare responsibilities, which are all coded as 0 = no, 1 = yes. Branch coded as 0 = Army, 1 = Air. Marginal *pseudo* R^2 reported.

Table 5

Regression of Employee Ratings of FSSB on Employee Characteristics – Large Model

Variable	γ	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo* R^2
			LL	*UL*		
Intercept	4.05	0.13	3.79	4.31	.00	
Branch	0.13	0.11	-0.10	0.35	.27	
Gender	-0.19	0.12	-0.42	0.04	.12	
Partnered	0.09	0.12	-0.16	0.33	.48	
Parental	-0.01	0.11	-0.22	0.20	.95	
Eldercare	-0.16	0.23	-0.61	0.29	.47	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.12	0.06	0.04	0.31	.05	
Residual	0.86	0.08	0.72	1.02	.00	

Note. Branch (0 = Army, 1 = Air). Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female). Race (0 = Not White, 1 = White). Married or cohabitating (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Parent (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Eldercare (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Marginal *pseudo* R^2 reported.

Table 6

Regression of Employee Ratings of FSSB on Employee Characteristics – Individual Models

Variable	*γ*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo* R^2
			LL	*UL*		
Gender						
Intercept	4.10	0.08	3.93	4.26	.00	
Branch	0.14	0.11	-0.08	0.35	.22	
Gender	-0.19	0.12	-0.41	0.04	.11	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.11	0.06	0.04	0.30	.06	
Residual	0.86	0.08	0.72	1.02	.00	
Partnered						
Intercept	3.97	0.12	3.73	4.20	.00	
Branch	0.13	0.11	-0.09	0.35	.25	
Partnered	0.11	0.12	-0.12	0.34	.34	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.11	0.06	0.04	0.30	.05	
Residual	0.86	0.08	0.72	1.02	.00	
Parental						
Intercept	4.03	0.10	3.83	4.24	.00	
Branch	0.13	0.11	-0.10	0.35	.27	
Parental	0.03	0.11	-0.17	0.23	.77	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.13	0.06	0.05	0.32	.04	
Residual	0.85	0.08	0.71	1.01	.00	
Eldercare						
Intercept	4.06	0.08	3.90	4.22	.00	
Branch	0.13	0.11	-0.09	0.35	.25	
Eldercare	-0.15	0.23	-0.60	0.30	.51	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.11	0.06	0.04	0.30	.05	
Residual	0.86	0.08	0.72	1.02	.00	

Note. Branch **(**0 = Army, 1 = Air). Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female). Race (0 = Not White, 1 = White). Married or cohabitating (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Parent (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Eldercare (0 = No, 1 = Yes). Marginal *pseudo* R^2 reported.

Table 7

Regressions of Employee Ratings of FSSB on Employee Number of Roles

Variable	*γ*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo* R^2
			LL	*UL*		
Intercept	4.01	0.12	3.76	4.25	.00	
Branch	0.13	0.11	-0.10	0.35	.27	
Number Roles	0.03	0.07	-0.10	0.16	.63	
						.00
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.13	0.06	0.49	0.32	.04	
Residual	0.85	0.08	0.71	1.01	.00	

Note. Number of roles is the aggregate of the family role status of married or cohabiting, children at home at least three days/week, and eldercare responsibilities, which are all coded as 0 = no, 1 = yes. Branch coded as 0 = Army, 1 = Air. Marginal *pseudo* R^2 reported.

Table 8

Regression of Employee Ratings of FSSB on Matched Characteristics – Large Model

Variable	γ	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo* R^2
			LL	*UL*		
Intercept	3.83	0.26	3.31	4.34	.00	
Branch	0.11	0.11	-0.11	0.34	.33	
Match Gender	0.13	0.13	-0.12	0.39	.30	
Match Race	0.20	0.12	-0.02	0.43	.08	
Match Partnered	-0.04	0.12	-0.27	0.19	.71	
Match Parental	0.09	0.10	-0.11	0.29	.38	
Match Elder	0.00	0.20	-0.40	0.38	.99	
						.02
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.11	0.06	0.04	0.31	.05	
Residual	0.82	0.08	0.69	0.99	.00	

Note. All matching variables are coded 0 = not a match, 1 = match. Branch coded as 0 = Army, 1 = Air. Marginal *pseudo* R^2 reported.

Table 9

Regression of Employee Ratings of FSSB on Matched Characteristics – Individual Models

Variable	*γ*	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo* R^2
			LL	*UL*		
Intercept	3.94	0.12	3.70	4.18	.00	
Branch	0.13	0.11	-0.09	0.35	.25	
Match Gender	0.15	0.12	-0.09	0.39	.23	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.11	0.06	0.04	0.30	.06	
Residual	0.86	0.08	0.72	1.02	.00	
Intercept	3.97	0.12	3.75	4.20	.00	
Branch	0.10	0.11	-0.12	0.31	.39	
Match Race	0.16	0.11	-0.07	0.38	.16	
Random Effects						.01
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.10	0.05	0.04	0.29	.06	
Residual	0.85	0.07	0.71	1.01	.00	
Intercept	4.02	0.11	3.80	4.24	.00	
Branch	0.13	0.11	-0.09	0.35	.25	
Match Partnered	0.04	0.11	-0.17	0.26	.69	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.11	0.06	0.04	0.30	.05	
Residual	0.86	0.08	0.72	1.02	.00	
Intercept	3.99	0.10	3.80	4.19	.00	
Branch	0.15	0.12	-0.08	0.38	.19	
Match Parental	0.11	0.10	-0.09	0.31	.27	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.13	0.06	0.06	0.33	.03	
Residual	0.82	0.08	0.69	0.98	.00	
Intercept	4.12	0.19	3.75	4.49	.00	
Branch	0.13	0.11	-0.09	0.35	.24	
Match Elder	-0.08	0.19	-0.45	0.29	.68	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.11	0.06	0.04	0.30	.05	
Residual	0.86	0.08	0.72	1.02	.00	

Note. All matching variables are coded 0 = not a match, 1 = match. Branch coded as 0 = Army, 1 = Air. Marginal *pseudo* R^2 reported.

Table 10

Regression of Employee Ratings of FSSB on Degree of Similarity

Variable	γ	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo* R^2
			LL	*UL*		
Intercept	3.79	0.20	3.39	4.19	.00	
Branch	0.11	0.11	-0.12	0.33	.36	
Degree of Similarity	0.08	0.05	-0.02	0.18	.11	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.12	0.06	0.04	0.31	.04	
Residual	0.82	0.08	0.68	0.98	.00	

Note. Degree of similarity is the aggregate of all matching variables within a dyad. Branch coded as 0 = Army, 1 = Air. Marginal *pseudo* R^2 reported.

Table 11

Regression of FSSB Disagreement on Matched Characteristics – Large Model

Variable	γ	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo* R^2
			LL	*UL*		
Intercept	1.24	0.20	0.85	1.63	.00	
Branch	-0.10	0.09	-0.28	0.08	.26	
Match Gender	0.04	0.10	-0.14	0.23	.66	
Match Race	-0.14	0.09	-0.31	0.03	.10	
Match Partnered	0.00	0.09	-0.17	0.17	.98	
Match Parental	0.02	0.08	-0.13	0.17	.79	
Match Elder	-0.32	0.15	-0.62	-0.02	.04	
						.02
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.12	0.04	0.06	0.22	.00	
Residual	0.39	0.04	0.33	0.48	.00	

Note. All matching variables are coded 0 = not a match, 1 = match. Branch coded as 0 = Army, 1 = Air. Marginal *pseudo* R^2 reported.

Table 12

Regression of FSSB Disagreement on Matched Characteristics – Individual Models

Variable	γ	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo* R^2
			LL	*UL*		
Intercept	0.88	0.09	0.70	1.07	.00	
Branch	-0.13	0.09	-0.31	0.04	.14	
Match Gender	0.04	0.09	-0.14	0.22	.66	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.12	0.04	0.07	0.22	.00	
Residual	0.40	0.04	0.34	0.48	.00	
Intercept	1.00	0.09	0.83	1.17	.00	
Branch	-0.12	0.09	-0.29	0.06	.19	
Match Race	-0.14	0.08	-0.31	0.02	.09	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.13	0.04	0.07	0.23	.00	
Residual	0.38	0.04	0.32	0.46	.00	
Intercept	0.91	0.08	0.75	1.08	.00	
Branch	-0.14	0.09	-0.31	0.04	.13	
Match Partnered	0.01	0.08	-0.15	0.16	.94	
Random Effects						.01
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.12	0.04	0.07	0.22	.00	
Residual	0.40	0.04	0.34	0.48	.00	
Intercept	0.92	0.08	0.77	1.07	.00	
Branch	-0.13	0.09	-0.31	0.06	.17	
Match Parental	-0.01	0.07	-0.16	0.14	.89	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.13	0.04	0.07	0.24	.00	
Residual	0.41	0.04	0.34	0.49	.00	
Intercept	1.09	0.14	0.80	1.37	.00	
Branch	-0.13	0.09	-0.31	0.05	.15	
Match Elder	-0.19	0.14	-0.47	0.09	.19	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.13	0.04	0.07	0.23	.00	
Residual	0.40	0.04	0.33	0.48	.00	

Note. All matching variables are coded 0 = not a match, 1 = match. Branch coded as 0 = Army, 1 = Air. Marginal *pseudo* R^2 reported.

Table 13

Regression of FSSB Disagreement on Degree of Similarity

Variable	γ	*SE*	95% CI		*p*	*Pseudo* R^2
			LL	*UL*		
Intercept	1.01	0.15	0.71	1.31	.00	
Branch	-0.10	0.09	-0.28	0.08	.27	
Degree of Similarity	-0.03	0.04	-0.11	0.04	.37	
						.01
Random Effects						
Intercept (Supervisor)	0.12	0.04	0.06	0.22	.00	
Residual	0.40	0.04	0.33	0.48	.00	

Note. All matching variables are coded 0 = not a match, 1 = match. Branch coded as 0 = Army, 1 = Air. Marginal *pseudo* R^2 reported.

Table 14

Analysis of Covariance of FSSB Simple Difference Scores by Characteristic Match with Branch as a covariate

Variable	Not a Match		Match		F	*p*	η^2	R^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*				
Gender Match	-0.17	1.03	-0.07	1.11	0.63	.43	.00	
Model with Branch					1.07	.34		.01
Race Match	-0.30	1.16	0.02	1.04	6.68	.01	.02	
Model with Branch					4.84	.01		.03
Partnered Match	-0.10	1.05	-0.09	1.12	0.04	.85	.00	
Model with Branch					0.77	.46		.00
Parent Match	-0.19	1.15	0.00	1.04	2.57	.11	.00	
Model with Branch					1.71	.18		.01
Eldercare Match	0.00	1.38	-0.10	1.07	0.14	.71	.00	
Model with Branch					0.83	.44		.00

Note. Branch (0 = Army, 1 = Air) was included as a covariate in all models. All matching variables are coded 0 = not a match, 1 = match.

Figures

Figure 1
Hypothesized Study Model

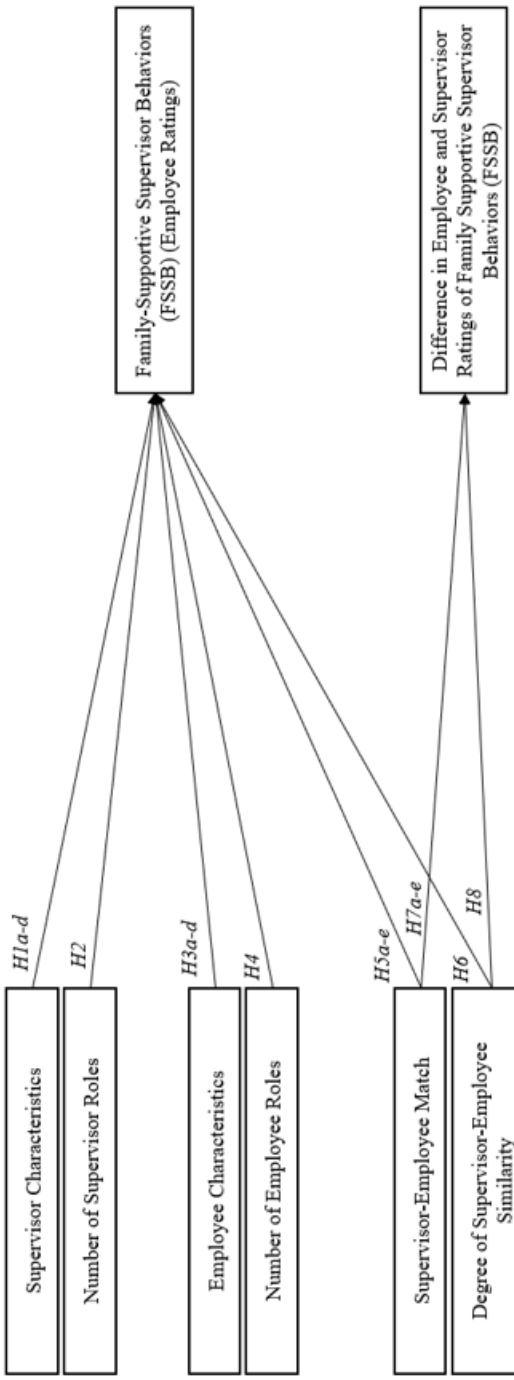

Figure 1. Supervisor- and employee-level characteristics of gender, partnered status, parental status, and elder caregiving status predict employee-FSSB. Supervisor-employee matching on race, gender, partnered status, parental status, and elder caregiving status predict employee-FSSB. Degree of supervisor-employee similarity predicts employee-FSSB. Match and degree of similarity predict less discrepancy in supervisor and employee-ratings of FSSB.

References

Aazami, S., Shamsuddin, K., & Akmal, S. (2018). Assessment of work-family conflict among women of the sandwich generation. *Journal of Adult Development*, *25*(2), 135–140. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10804-017-9276-7

Allen, T. D., & Finkelstein, L. M. (2014). Work–family conflict among members of full-time dual-earner couples: An examination of family life stage, gender, and age. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *19*(3), 376–384. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036941

American Psychological Association. (2020, May). *Stress in America™ 2020: Stress in the time of COVID-19, volume one*. American Psychological Association. https://www.apa.org/news/press/releases/stress/2020/report

Amstad, F. T., Meier, L. L., Fasel, U., Elfering, A., & Semmer, N. K. (2011). A meta-analysis of work–family conflict and various outcomes with a special emphasis on cross-domain versus matching-domain relations. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *16*(2), 151–169. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022170

Army National Guard. (2022). *Guard Pay*. https://www.nationalguard.com/benefits/guard-pay

Atwater, L. E., Ostroff, C., Yammarino, F. J., & Fleenor, J. W. (1998). Self-other agreement: Does it really matter? *Personnel Psychology*, *51*(3), 577–598. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1998.tb00252.x

Babyak, M. A., & Green, S. B. (2010). Confirmatory factor analysis: An introduction for psychosomatic medicine researchers. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, *72*(6), 587–597. https://doi.org/10.1097/PSY.0b013e3181de3f8a

Baltos, C. (2022, May 6). *Male military spouses: Yes they do exist*. U.S. Army. https://www.army.mil/article/256435/male_military_spouses_yes_they_do_exist

Barling, J., MacEwen, K. E., Kelloway, E. K., & Higginbottom, S. F. (1994). Predictors and outcomes of elder-care-based interrole conflict. *Psychology and Aging*, *9*(3), 391–397. https://doi.org/10.1037/0882-7974.9.3.391

Barsness, Z. I., Diekmann, K. A., & Seidel, M.-D. L. (2005). Motivation and opportunity: The role of remote work, demographic dissimilarity, and social network centrality in impression management. *The Academy of Management Journal*, *48*(3), 401–419.

Basuil, D. A., Manegold, J. G., & Casper, W. J. (2016). Subordinate perceptions of family-supportive supervision: The role of similar family-related demographics and its effect on affective commitment: Perceptions of family-supportive supervision. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *26*(4), 523–540. https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12120

Bennett, M. M., Beehr, T. A., & Ivanitskaya, L. V. (2017). Work-family conflict: Differences across generations and life cycles. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *32*(4), 314–332. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-06-2016-0192

Bolger, N., & Amarel, D. (2007). Effects of social support visibility on adjustment to stress: Experimental evidence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *92*(3), 458–475. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.92.3.458

Bolger, N., Zuckerman, A., & Kessler, R. C. (2000). Invisible support and adjustment to stress. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *79*(6), 953–961. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.79.6.953

Breaugh, J. A., & Frye, N. K. (2008). Work–family conflict: The importance of family-friendly employment practices and family-supportive supervisors. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *22*(4), 345–353. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-008-9081-1

Brezicha, K. F., & Fuller, E. J. (2019). Building teachers' trust in principals: Exploring the effects of the match between teacher and principal race/ethnicity and gender and feelings of trust. *Journal of School Leadership*, *29*(1), 25–53. https://doi.org/10.1177/1052684618825087

Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2022). *Employment characteristics of families—2021*. U.S. Department of Labor. https://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/famee.pdf

Byrne, D. E. (1971). *The attraction paradigm*. Academic Press.

Campione, W. A. (2017). The influence of supervisor race, gender, age, and cohort on millennials' job satisfaction. *Journal of Business Diversity*, *14*(1), 18–34.

Carter, D. R., DeChurch, L. A., Braun, M. T., & Contractor, N. S. (2015). Social network approaches to leadership: An integrative conceptual review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(3), 597–622. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038922

Cejka, M. A., & Eagly, A. H. (1999). Gender-stereotypic images of occupations correspond to the sex segregation of employment. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *25*(4), 413–423. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167299025004002

Chambel, M. J., Castanheira, F., & Santos, A. (2022). Teleworking in times of COVID-19: The role of family-supportive supervisor behaviors in workers' work-family management, exhaustion, and work engagement. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *0*(0), 1–36. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2022.2063064

Chapman, N. J., Ingersoll-Dayton, B., & Neal, M. B. (1994). Balancing the multiple roles of work and caregiving for children, adults, and elders. In G. P. Keita & J. J. Hurrell (Eds.), *Job stress in a changing workforce: Investigating gender, diversity, and family issues.* (pp. 283–300). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10165-018

Clark, M. S., & Lemay Jr., E. P. (2010). Close relationships. In *Handbook of Social Psychology*. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470561119.socpsy002025

Connelly, B. S., & Ones, D. S. (2010). An other perspective on personality: Meta-analytic integration of observers' accuracy and predictive validity. *Psychological Bulletin*, *136*(6), 1092–1122. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021212

Cook, I. (2021, September 15). Who Is driving the Great Resignation? *Harvard Business Review*. https://hbr.org/2021/09/who-is-driving-the-great-resignation

Crain, T. L., & Stevens, S. C. (2018). Family-supportive supervisor behaviors: A review and recommendations for research and practice. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *39*(7), 869–888. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2320

Crenshaw, K. (1989). Demarginalizing the intersection of race and sex: A Black feminist critique of antidiscrimination doctrine, feminist theory and antiracist politics. *University of Chicago Legal Forum*, *1989*(1).

Cronbach, L. J. (1955). Processes affecting scores on "understanding of others" and "assumed similarity." *Psychological Bulletin*, *52*(3), 177–193. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0044919

Department of Defense. (2020). *2020 demographics profile of the military community* (p. 222). Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Military Community and Family Policy. https://download.militaryonesource.mil/12038/MOS/Reports/2020-demographics-report.pdf

Department of Defense. (2021). *Demographics profile of the military community*. https://download.militaryonesource.mil/12038/MOS/Reports/2021-demographics-report.pdf

Department of Labor. (2019). *Percentage of women workers in science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM)*. U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. https://www.dol.gov/agencies/wb/data/occupations-stem

Derks, B., Van Laar, C., & Ellemers, N. (2016). The queen bee phenomenon: Why women leaders distance themselves from junior women. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *27*(3), 456–469. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.12.007

Dorner, J. (2020, October 5). *Military deployment resources*. Military OneSource. U.S. Department of Defense. https://www.militaryonesource.mil/military-life-cycle/deployment/deployment-resources/

Duttweiler, R. (2021, February 25). *What the heck Is an FRG?* Military.Com. https://www.military.com/spouse/military-life/military-resources/what-the-heck-is-an-frg-family-readiness-group.html

Eagly, A. H., & Steffen, V. J. (1984). Gender stereotypes stem from the distribution of women and men into social roles. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *46*(4), 735–754. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.46.4.735

Edwards, J. R. (1994). The study of congruence in organizational behavior research: Critique and a proposed alternative. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *58*(1), 51–100. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1994.1029

Edwards, J. R. (1995). Alternatives to difference scores as dependent variables in the study of congruence in organizational research. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *64*(3), 307–324. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1995.1108

Edwards, J. R. (2001). Ten difference score myths. *Organizational Research Methods*, *4*(3), 265–287. https://doi.org/10.1177/109442810143005

Edwards, J. R., & Parry, M. E. (1993). On the use of polynomial regression equations as an alternative to difference scores in organizational research. *The Academy of Management Journal*, *36*(6), 1577–1613. https://doi.org/10.2307/256822

Ellemers, N. (2017). Gender stereotypes. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *69*, 275–298. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev- psych- 122216011719

Ellemers, N., Heuvel, H. V. den, Gilder, D. de, Maass, A., & Bonvini, A. (2004). The underrepresentation of women in science: Differential commitment or the queen bee syndrome? *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *43*(3), 315–338. https://doi.org/10.1348/0144666042037999

Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (1999). The impact of relational demography on the quality of leader-member exchanges and employees' work attitudes and well-being. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *72*(2), 237–240. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317999166635

Epstein, S. A., Marler, J. H., & Taber, T. D. (2015). Managers' Family-Supportive Supervisory Behaviors: A Multilevel Perspective. *Organization Management Journal*, *12*(2), 49–62. https://doi.org/10.1080/15416518.2015.1037043

Escribano, P. I. (2022). A relational identity approach to study the antecedents of family supportive supervision. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *13*, 1026352. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1026352

Fagenson-Eland, E. A., Gayle Baugh, S., & Lankau, M. J. (2005). Seeing eye to eye: A dyadic investigation of the effect of relational demography on perceptions of

mentoring activities. *Career Development International*, *10*(6/7), 460–477. https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430510620557

Faniko, K., Ellemers, N., & Derks, B. (2021). The Queen Bee phenomenon in academia 15 years after: Does it still exist, and if so, why? *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *60*(2), e12408. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjso.12408

Fleenor, J. W., Smither, J. W., Atwater, L. E., Braddy, P. W., & Sturm, R. E. (2010). Self–other rating agreement in leadership: A review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *21*(6), 1005–1034. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.10.006

Foley, S., Linnehan, F., Greenhaus, J. H., & Weer, C. H. (2006). The impact of gender similarity, racial similarity, and work culture on family-supportive supervision. *Group & Organization Management*, *31*(4), 420–441. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601106286884

French, K. A., Dumani, S., Allen, T. D., & Shockley, K. M. (2018). A Meta-Analysis of Work-Family Conflict and Social Support. *Psychological Bulletin*, *144*(3), 284–314. https://doi.org/10.1037/bul0000120

George, S., Duran, N., & Norris, K. (2014). A systematic review of barriers and facilitators to minority research participation among African Americans, Latinos, Asian Americans, and Pacific Islanders. *American Journal of Public Health*, *104*(2), e16–e31. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2013.301706

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25

years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly, 6*(2), 219–247. https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(95)90036-5

Graf, N. (2017, May). More young workers than ever are college grads in U.S. *Pew Research Center*. https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2017/05/16/todays-young-workers-are-more-likely-than-ever-to-have-a-bachelors-degree/

Greenhaus, J. H., Ziegert, J. C., & Allen, T. D. (2012). When family-supportive supervision matters: Relations between multiple sources of support and work–family balance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *80*(2), 266–275. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.10.008

Griffith, J. (2020). Family Readiness Groups: Helping deployed Army National Guard soldiers and their families. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *48*(3), 804–817. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.22294

Hammer, L. B., Brady, J. M., Brossoit, R. M., Mohr, C. D., Bodner, T. E., Crain, T. L., & Brockwood, K. J. (2021). Effects of a Total Worker Health® leadership intervention on employee well-being and functional impairment. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *26*(6), 582–598. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000312

Hammer, L., Ernst Kossek, E., Bodner, T., & Crain, T. (2013). Measurement development and validation of the Family Supportive Supervisor Behavior Short-Form (FSSB-SF). *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *18*(3), 285–296. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032612

Hammer, L., Kossek, E., Yragui, N., Bodner, T., & Hanson, G. (2009). Development and Validation of a Multidimensional Measure of Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviors (FSSB). *Journal of Management, 35*, 837–856. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308328510

Harrison, D. A., Price, K. H., & Bell, M. P. (1998). Beyond relational demography: Time and the effects of surface- and deep-Level diversity on work group cohesion. *Academy of Management Journal*, *41*(1), 96–107. https://doi.org/10.2307/256901

Heggeness, M., Fields, J., Garcia Trejo, Y., & Schulzetenberg, A. (2021, March). *Moms, work and the pandemic*. The United States Census Bureau. https://www.census.gov/library/stories/2021/03/moms-work-and-the-pandemic.html

Heilman, M. E. (2001). Description and prescription: How gender stereotypes prevent women's ascent up the organizational ladder. *Journal of Social Issues*, *57*(4), 657–674. https://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00234

Henderson, D. J., Liden, R. C., Glibkowski, B. C., & Chaudhry, A. (2009). LMX differentiation: A multilevel review and examination of its antecedents and outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *20*(4), 517–534. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.04.003

Henderson, T. (2022, February). *Working parents face continued chaos despite reopened schools*. Pew Trusts. https://pew.org/3uVXIYP

Hentschel, T., Heilman, M. E., & Peus, C. V. (2019). The multiple dimensions of gender stereotypes: A current look at men's and women's characterizations of others and

themselves. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*. https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00011

Hoppe, B., & Reinelt, C. (2010). Social network analysis and the evaluation of leadership networks. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *21*(4), 600–619. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.06.004

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, *6*(1), 1–55. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118

Huffman, A. H., & Olson, K. J. (2017). Gender differences in perceptions of resources and turnover intentions of work-linked couples in masculine occupations. *Stress and Health*, *33*(4), 309–321. https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2709

John, O. P., & Robins, R. W. (1993). Determinants of interjudge agreement on personality traits: The Big Five domains, observability, evaluativeness, and the unique perspective of the self. *Journal of Personality*, *61*(4), 521. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1993.tb00781.x

Kenny, D. A. (1991). A general model of consensus and accuracy in interpersonal perception. *Psychological Review*, *98*(2), 155–163. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.98.2.155

Kirsch, J. A., & Lehman, B. J. (2015). Comparing visible and invisible social support: Non-evaluative support buffers cardiovascular responses to stress. *Stress and Health*, *31*(5), 351–364. https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2558

Krivkovich, A., Liu, W. W., Nguyen, H., Rambachan, I., Robinson, N., Williams, M., & Yee, L. (2022, October 18). *Women in the workplace 2022*. McKinsey & Company. https://wiw-report.s3.amazonaws.com/Women_in_the_Workplace_2021.pdf

Lee, R. T., Perez, A. D., Boykin, C. M., & Mendoza-Denton, R. (2019). On the prevalence of racial discrimination in the United States. *PLoS ONE*, *14*(1), e0210698. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0210698

Leslie, J. (2022). *Sleeping to support: An examination of the relationship between leader sleep and positive support behaviors* [Thesis, Portland State University]. https://pdxscholar.library.pdx.edu/open_access_etds/6039

Liden, R. C., Erdogan, B., Wayne, S. J., & Sparrowe, R. T. (2006). Leader-member exchange, differentiation, and task interdependence: Implications for individual and group performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *27*(6), 723–746. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.409

Little, R. J. A. (1988). A test of Missing Completely at Random for multivariate data with missing values. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, *83*(404), 1198–1202. https://doi.org/10.1080/01621459.1988.10478722

Livingston, G. (2018, November). *More than one-in-ten U.S. parents are also caring for an adult*. Pew Research Center. https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2018/11/29/more-than-one-in-ten-u-s-parents-are-also-caring-for-an-adult/

Luecken, L. J., Suarez, E. C., Kuhn, C. M., Barefoot, J. C., Blumenthal, J. A., Siegler, I. C., & Williams, R. B. (1997). Stress in employed women: Impact of marital status

and children at home on neurohormone output and home strain. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, *59*(4), 352–359. https://doi.org/10.1097/00006842-199707000-00003

Marescaux, E., Rofcanin, Y., Las Heras, M., Ilies, R., & Bosch, M. J. (2020). When employees and supervisors (do not) see eye to eye on family supportive supervisor behaviours: The role of segmentation desire and work-family culture. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 121*, 103471. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103471

Marlar, J. (2020). *Assessing the impact of new technologies on the labor market: Key constructs, gaps, and data collection strategies for the Bureau of Labor Statistics*. Gallup. https://www.bls.gov/bls/congressional-reports/assessing-the-impact-of-new-technologies-on-the-labor-market.htm#2.4.0

Martin, R., Thomas, G., Legood, A., & Russo, S. D. (2018). Leader–member exchange (LMX) differentiation and work outcomes: Conceptual clarification and critical review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *39*(2), 151–168. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2202

Martinez, A., & Christnacht, C. (2021, January). Women Are nearly half of U.S. workforce but only 27% of STEM workers. *United States Census Bureau*. https://www.census.gov/library/stories/2021/01/women-making-gains-in-stem-occupations-but-still-underrepresented.html

Masterson, C., Sugiyama, K., & Ladge, J. (2021). The value of 21st century work–family supports: Review and cross-level path forward. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *42*(2), 118–138. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2442

Mastroianni, G. R. (2005). Occupations, cultures, and leadership in the Army and Air Force. *The US Army War College Quarterly: Parameters*, *35*(4). https://doi.org/10.55540/0031-1723.2279

Michel, J. S., Kotrba, L. M., Mitchelson, J. K., Clark, M. A., & Baltes, B. B. (2011). Antecedents of work–family conflict: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *32*(5), 689–725. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.695

Military OneSource. (n.d.). *More toolkits*. U.S. Department of Defense. Retrieved December 17, 2022, from https://www.militaryonesource.mil/media/toolkits/more-toolkits/

Military OneSource. (2019). *When both spouses are service members*. U.S. Department of Defense. https://www.militaryonesource.mil/family-relationships/spouse/getting-married-in-the-military/military-couples-when-both-spouses-are-service-members/

Military OneSource. (2021, May 19). *Support for the Military Spouse In Your Life*. U.S. Department of Defense. https://www.militaryonesource.mil/relationships/support-community/support-for-military-spouse-in-your-life/

Military OneSource. (2022, November 2). *Life As a Male Military Spouse*. U.S. Department of Defense. https://www.militaryonesource.mil/relationships/married-domestic-partner/life-as-a-male-military-spouse/

Moen, P., & Sweet, S. (2004). From 'work–family' to 'flexible careers': A life course reframing. *Community, Work & Family*, *7*(2), 209–226. https://doi.org/10.1080/1366880042000245489

Musca, S. C., Kamiejski, R., Nugier, A., Méot, A., Er-Rafiy, A., & Brauer, M. (2011). Data with hierarchical structure: Impact of intraclass correlation and sample size on Type-I error. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *2*, 74. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2011.00074

National Academies of Sciences, E., Education, D. of B. and S. S. and, Board on Children, Y., & Families, C. on the W.-B. of M. (2019). Demographic and military service characteristics of military families. In S. L. Menestrel & K. W. Kizer (Eds.), *Strengthening the Military Family Readiness System for a Changing American Society.* National Academies Press (US). https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK547615/

Neglia, J. (2015). *The role of demographics: Who engages in and who benefits from family supportive supervisor behavior?* [Dissertation, Kennesaw State University]. http://digitalcommons.kennesaw.edu/dba_etd/16

Nkomo, S. M., & Al Ariss, A. (2014). The historical origins of ethnic (white) privilege in US organizations. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *29*(4), 389–404. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-06-2012-0178

Ostroff, C., Atwater, L. E., & Feinberg, B. J. (2004). Understanding self-other agreement: A look at rater and ratee characteristics, context, and outcomes. *Personnel Psychology*, *57*(2), 333–375. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2004.tb02494.x

Parker, K., & Horowitz, J. M. (2022, March). Majority of workers who quit a job in 2021 cite low pay, no opportunities for advancement, feeling disrespected. *Pew Research Center*. https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2022/03/09/majority-of-

workers-who-quit-a-job-in-2021-cite-low-pay-no-opportunities-for-advancement-feeling-disrespected/

Pelled, L. H., & Xin, K. R. (2000). Relational demography and relationship quality in two cultures. *Organization Studies*, *21*(6), 1077–1094. https://doi.org/10.1177/0170840600216003

Peng, Y., Xu, X., Matthews, R., & Ma, J. (2020). One size fits all? Contextualizing family-supportive supervision to help employees with eldercare responsibilities. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *25*(5), 368–383. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000237

Perrigino, M. (2018). When Perceptions Aren't Shared and Relationships Aren't Parallel: The Curious Case of Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviors (FSSB). *Open Access Dissertations*. https://docs.lib.purdue.edu/open_access_dissertations/1801

Pew Research Center. (2016). *The state of American jobs*. Pew Research Center. https://www.pewresearch.org/social-trends/2016/10/06/the-state-of-american-jobs/

Rabelo, V. C., & Cortina, L. M. (2016). Intersectionality: Infusing I-O psychology with feminist thought. In T.-A. Roberts, N. Curtin, L. E. Duncan, & L. M. Cortina (Eds.), *Feminist Perspectives on Building a Better Psychological Science of Gender* (pp. 179–197). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-32141-7_11

Redmond, S. A., Wilcox, S. L., Campbell, S., Kim, A., Finney, K., Barr, K., & Hassan, A. M. (2015). A brief introduction to the military workplace culture. *Work*, *50*(1), 9–20. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-141987

Riordan, C. M. (2000). Relational demography within groups: Past developments, contradictions, and new directions. In *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management* (Vol. 19, pp. 131–173). Emerald (MCB UP). https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-7301(00)19005-X

Ro, C. (2021, January 28). *Why the "sandwich generation" is so stressed out*. BBC. https://www.bbc.com/worklife/article/20210128-why-the-sandwich-generation-is-so-stressed-out

Rofcanin, Y., Las Heras, M., Escribano, P. I., & Stanko, T. (2020). FSSBs and Elderly Care: Exploring the Role of Organizational Context on Employees' Overall Health and Work–Family Balance Satisfaction. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *35*(3), 403–419. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-019-09629-8

Rogers, K. H., Wood, D., & Furr, R. M. (2018). Assessment of similarity and self-other agreement in dyadic relationships: A guide to best practices. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *35*(1), 112–134. https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407517712615

Sargent, A. C. (2020). *Gendered antecedents of family-supportive supervisor behaviors* [Dissertation, The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill]. http://www.proquest.com/docview/2378980685?pq-origsite=gscholar&fromopenview=true

Sargent, A. C., Shanock, L. G., Banks, G. C., & Yavorsky, J. E. (2022). How gender matters: A conceptual and process model for family-supportive supervisor behaviors. *Human Resource Management Review*, *32*(4), 100880. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2021.100880

Scott, J., & Carrington, P. J. (2011). *The SAGE handbook of social network analysis*. SAGE.

Sianoja, M., Crain, T. L., Hammer, L. B., Bodner, T., Brockwood, K. J., LoPresti, M., Shea, S. A., & Link to external site, this link will open in a new window. (2020). The relationship between leadership support and employee sleep. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *25*(3), 187–202. http://dx.doi.org.proxy.lib.pdx.edu/10.1037/ocp0000173

Snijders, T. A. B. (2005). Power and sample size in multilevel linear models. In B. S. Everitt & D. C. Howell (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Statistics in Behavioral Science* (p. bsa492). John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1002/0470013192.bsa492

Snyder, M., & Ickes, W. (1985). Personality and Social Behavior. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.), *Handbook of Social Psychology* (3rd ed., Vol. 2, pp. 883–947). Random House.

Stone, J. L., Aveling, E.-L., Frean, M., Shields, M. C., Wright, C., Gino, F., Sundt, T. M., & Singer, S. J. (2017). Effective leadership of surgical teams: A mixed methods study of surgeon behaviors and functions. *The Annals of Thoracic Surgery*, *104*(2), 530–537. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.athoracsur.2017.01.021

Straub, C. (2012). Antecedents and organizational consequences of family supportive supervisor behavior: A multilevel conceptual framework for research. *Human Resource Management Review*, *22*(1), 15–26. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2011.08.001

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed). Pearson Education.

The One Brief. (2021, April 7). *Coping With COVID: The impact on sandwich generation workers*. The One Brief. https://theonebrief.com/coping-with-covid-the-impact-on-sandwich-generation-workers/

Thomas, C. L., Murphy, L. D., Billeaud, M. L., Strasburg, A. E., & Cobb, H. R. (2022). Supported here and supported there: Understanding family-supportive supervisor behaviors in a telework context. *Community, Work & Family*, *0*(0), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2022.2106188

Tsui, A. S., Egan, T. D., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1992). Being Different: Relational Demography and Organizational Attachment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *37*(4), 549–579. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393472

Tsui, A. S., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1989). Beyond simple demographic effects: The importance of relational demography in superior-subordinate dyads. *The Academy of Management Journal*, *32*(2), 402–423. https://doi.org/10.2307/256368

Tsui, A. S., Porter, L. W., & Egan, T. D. (2002). When both similarities and dissimilarities matter: Extending the concept of relational demography. *Human Relations*, *55*(8), 899–929. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726702055008176

Ülkü-Steiner, B., Kurtz-Costes, B., & Kinlaw, C. (2000). Doctoral student experiences in gender-balanced and male-dominated graduate programs. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *92*, 296–307. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.92.2.296

van Daalen, G., Willemsen, T. M., & Sanders, K. (2006). Reducing work–family conflict through different sources of social support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *69*(3), 462–476. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2006.07.005

Wasserman, S., & Faust, K. (1994). *Social network analysis: Methods and applications*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511815478

Watson, D., Hubbard, B., & Wiese, D. (2000). Self-other agreement in personality and affectivity: The role of acquaintanceship, trait visibility, and assumed similarity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *78*(3), 546–558. https://doi.org/10.1037//0022-3514.78.3.546

Wenner Moyer, M. (2022, January). *Latest COVID surge pushes parents to next-level stress*. Scientific American. https://www.scientificamerican.com/article/latest-covid-surge-pushes-parents-to-next-level-stress1/

Wesolowski, M. A., & Mossholder, K. W. (1997). Relational Demography in Supervisor-Subordinate Dyads: Impact on Subordinate Job Satisfaction, Burnout, and Perceived Procedural Justice. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *18*(4), 351–362.

Wigert, B., & Agrawal, S. (2022, August 31). *Returning to the office: The current, preferred and future state of remote work*. Gallup.

https://www.gallup.com/workplace/397751/returning-office-current-preferred-future-state-remote-work.aspx

Women's Bureau. (2021). *History*. U.S. Department of Labor. https://www.dol.gov/agencies/wb/about/history#

Yang, J., & Matz-Costa, C. (2018). Age diversity in the workplace: The effect of relational age within supervisor–employee dyads on employees' work engagement. *The International Journal of Aging and Human Development, 87*(2), 156–183. https://doi.org/10.1177/0091415017709798

Zhu, N., & Chang, L. (2019). Evolved but not fixed: A life history account of gender roles and gender inequality. *Frontiers in Psychology, 10*, 1709. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01709

Appendix: Survey Items

Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors Short Form (FSSB-SF): Employee Ratings (Hammer et al., 2013)

1. [Supervisor name] makes you feel comfortable talking to him/her about your conflicts between work and non-work.
2. [Supervisor name] demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues.
3. [Supervisor name] works effectively with employees to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work.
4. [Supervisor name] organizes the work in your department or unit to jointly benefit employees and the company.

Response Options: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors Short Form (FSSB-SF): Self Ratings (Hammer et al., 2013)

1. I make my subordinates feel comfortable talking to me about their conflicts between work and non-work.
2. I demonstrate effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues.
3. I work effectively with my subordinates to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work.
4. I organize the work in my department or unit to jointly benefit employees and the company.

Response Options: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

Gender.
What is your gender?
Response options: 1 = Male; 2 = Female; 3 = Other

Partnered status.
What is your current marital status?
Response options: Single, in a committed relationship, cohabitating, married, divorced, separated, widowed

Parental status.
Participants were asked to enter the number of children living at home at least 3 days per week
Response options: 0, 1,2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11+

Elder caregiving status
Asked if they are caring for elderly or adult dependents at least 3 hours per week
Response options: 0 = No; 1 = Yes

Race.
What is your race/ethnicity?
Response options: American Indian or Alaska Native; Asian; Black or African American; Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander; White; Other
Please specify _____.

Branch (control).
Response options: 0 = Army; 1 = Air