

Stress-Reduction from Positive Support:
Impacts of Receiving Partner Capitalization Support on Veteran Stress/Work Stress

by

MaryAnn Dona Samson

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

Master of Science
in
Psychology

Thesis Committee:
Cynthia Mohr, Chair
Liu-Qin Yang
Todd Bodner

Portland State University
2023

Abstract

Prolonged stress, a pervasive experience in the United States, has been linked to numerous adverse outcomes (Mayo Clinic, 2019). The workplace commonly operates as a source of chronic stressors (Colligan & Higgins, 2006), in fact 25% of Americans find their job is the most stressful part of life (NIOSH, 2021). This tendency is particularly true for military veterans, who reliably experience elevated stress and burnout (Smith et al., 2017) and low job satisfaction (Teclaw et al., 2016). Inspired by the pervasiveness and seriousness of the chronic stress issue, the current study addresses chronic stress in a veteran sample by examining the stress-protecting effects of social support. Whereas social support has traditionally been conceptualized as providing aid when a person is in need, I advocate the need for research on more positive forms of social support, in this case capitalization support (CS). Capitalization entails the sharing of positive news; the effectiveness and enthusiasm of the partner's response to the positive news determines support received (Gable et al., 2004). Thus, the current study investigated the effects of CS, as a form of positive social support, on experiencing workplace stress among separated service members (i.e., veterans) who work in civilian organizations. Specifically, I examined veterans' rated CS, measured to capture the degree to which they felt that their romantic partner was responsive to their capitalization attempts.

Based on functional models of social support (Cohen & Wills, 1985), I hypothesized a direct effect of CS on stress, such that CS would be negatively related to subsequent perceived stress (controlling for baseline perceived stress). Second, I examined whether veteran CS acts as a buffer against job demands on their psychological stress as

described by the stress-buffering model of Cohen and Wills (1985). This hypothesized buffering relationship is based in part, on modern arguments for the inclusion of personal resources as buffers in the Job-Demand Resources Model (Bakker et al., 2023). Specifically, I anticipated that these personal resources (in the form of CS) act as job resources to both directly prevent and buffer against job-related stress (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

To examine these research questions, I conducted a secondary data analysis of data collected in the Study for Employment Retention of Veterans (SERVe), which recruited veterans from civilian workplaces in Oregon. The participants (N = 160) were veteran military service members (SMs) and had previously served active-duty in various branches. As part of this longitudinal study, veterans completed a 32-day Internet survey of job demands and CS, which were aggregated to capture mean levels of job demands and CS. Perceived stress measures were assessed at baseline, prior to the daily survey, and again at 3-month follow-up. Data analyses revealed support for the hypothesized direct effect, in which higher CS was associated with veterans' lower perceived stress. However, the hypothesized stress-buffering effect of CS was not supported. Implications to theory and application, most notably to inform interventions, are discussed. Present findings support the examination of CS as a form of social support which reduces stress directly.

Acknowledgements

I want to thank all who have supported me along the way. Thank you, of course, to my fabulous advisor, Dr. Cynthia Mohr. Despite a sabbatical and hectic season, I want to recognize the rest of my committee members, Dr. Liu-Qin Yang and Dr. Todd Bodner. My entire committee provided critical support; they maintained curious spirits and patience never-waning.

I want to acknowledge the immense privilege of working with this data set and express gratitude to all who worked to make the Study for Employment Retention of Veterans (SERVe) study a reality. I realize how comprehensive the team was necessary (my gratitude to the involved military leaders, donors, RAs, veteran and civilian participants, and many others) and the immeasurable hours required to complete such a study.

Thank you to my new and old friends in Portland and beyond (HSNE). Of course, thanks to my family! My parents, my brothers, and their partners. In sum, thank you to all those who helped me out through formal avenues through inspiration and encouragement bestowed through pure hearts!

Table of Contents

Abstract	i
Acknowledgements	iii
List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
Introduction.....	1
Workplace Stress	1
Workplace Stressors for Military Veterans.....	2
Theoretical Background.....	4
The Job-Demand Resources Model	4
Job Demands.....	5
Job Resources.....	6
Personal Resources	6
Support Resources	8
Positive Social Support.....	10
Positive Support and Interpersonal Capitalization.....	11
Attempt to Capitalize	12
Response to Capitalization Attempt.....	13
Capitalization Support and Stress	14
Work Stress Avoidance by Direct Effect.....	15
Work Stress Avoidance by Stress-Buffering Effect	17
Partner CS for Military Veterans	19
Present Gaps.....	21
Aims and Hypotheses	23
Methods.....	25
Study Overview	25
Recruitment.....	26
Participant Sample	27
Measured at Baseline	28
Measured at 3-month Follow-Up.....	29
Measured Daily (collected in Daily Family Study)	29
Data Analysis	32
Data Preparation.....	32
Missingness and Compliance.....	32
Assumptions of Normality & Independence.....	33
Selection of Covariates	33
Hypothesis Testing.....	35
CS Direct Effect.....	25

CS Buffering Effect	36
Results.....	37
Preliminary Analyses	37
Results Hypothesis Testing.....	38
CS Direct Effect.....	38
CS Buffering Effect	38
Discussion.....	40
Summary of Findings.....	40
Support for CS Direct Effect.....	40
Null CS Buffering Effect	41
Practical Implications.....	43
Limitations	45
Future Directions	46
Conclusions.....	47
References.....	55
Appendix A: Theoretical Models.....	77
Appendix B: Study Measures	79

List of Tables

Table 1: Demographic Descriptive Statistics.....	49
Table 2: Key Variable Descriptive Statistics	50
Table 3: Select Controls.....	35
Table 4: Key Variable ICCs.....	51
Table 5: Inter-Correlations Among Study Variables	52
Table 6:Regression Statistics Among Study Variables	53

List of Figures

Figure 1: Hypothesized Model 1.....	54
Figure 2: Hypothesized Model 2.....	54
Figure 3: Data Collection Procedure.....	54

Introduction

Workplace Stress

Experiencing stress is not inherently harmful; however, prolonged (e.g., chronic) experiences are often highly damaging (Sapolsky, 2004). Chronic stress is defined as “ongoing demands that threaten to exceed the resources of an individual in areas of life such as family, marriage, parenting, work, health, housing and finances” (Schetter & Dolbier, 2011, p. 638). Alarming, chronic stress quickens the process of acquiring age-related diseases such as cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, and cancer (Kiecolt-Glaser et al., 2003). Workplace stress is related to countless adverse employee outcomes ranging from increases in mental health symptoms to heightened existential dread (Galani, 2021) and a tendency towards maladaptive coping like lessening sleep (Arpin et al., 2018) and behaviors of workplace ostracism (Chung, 2018).

Work is a common source of stress; according to the 2021 Stress at Work report, 83% of Americans experience work-related stress. The report, conducted by National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH), also estimated that over half of the total stress in America was from the workplace. Chronically high workplace stress commonly leads to negative health consequences (Colligan & Higgins, 2006), including unstable blood pressure, clinical depression, hypertension, and diabetes (Mayo Clinic, 2019; U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2021; Colligan & Higgins, 2006). Burnout is another pervasive consequence of chronic workplace stress (Wu et al., 2021), which occurs when resources are depleted at a higher rate than the individual can replenish (Hobfoll, 1989). The effects of workplace burnout also bleed into deleterious

psychological and social consequences (Lizano et al., 2015; Rodrigues et al., 2018). Due to the health-jeopardizing consequences of chronic stress and related burnout, determining areas of chronic work stress prevention would be invaluable.

Workplace Stressors for Military Veterans

Military veterans are a group that is particularly vulnerable to workplace stress and need further research attention. Workplace discrimination research in the next century must broaden the focus on experiences outside the U.S. and a wider swath of those within the U.S. workforce. When veterans leave the military, it is difficult to reinstate their identities in unfamiliar environments, including new civilian workplaces. McAllister et al. (2015) reported that 44% of veterans reported that their integration into a civilian workplace posed "great difficulties." The challenge for veterans is coping with Veteran Identity Strain, a type of anxiety commonly experienced during their transition out of military service. Veteran Identity Strain is often triggered by the tensions associated with the veteran integrating aspects of their military identity into civilian life (McAllister et al., 2015).

Integration issues can lead to additional work stressors for the veteran when completing their job duties (McAllister et al., 2015; Teclaw et al., 2016; McGregor, 2015). An example of a stressor many veterans face is feeling misunderstood by their colleagues when working in civilian sectors. Specifically, many veterans report not feeling that their previous military titles, skills, and accomplishments are neither adequately understood nor appreciated (Stone & Stone, 2015; Stone et al., 2018).

Ultimately, veterans not feeling appreciated or understood; ostracized in their new workplaces.

The added challenges faced by the veterans compile and place them at risk for mental distress and lack of psychologically safe at work (McAllister et al., 2015), both forms of chronic workplace stress. Separated military veterans reported their source of stress as almost twice as likely to be work-related (39%) than personal or family-related (22%; Bray et al., 2001). Veteran workers report elevated job strain and higher burnout than civilians (Smith et al., 2017), presumably repercussions of the work stressors and challenges previously described.

The size of my population of interest provides further justification for the need for research efforts: As of 2016, it was estimated that there were 20.4 million veterans in the U.S. (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). Further, only one in five military service members reaches full retirement (Military Retirement Fund Audited Financial Report, 2015, as cited in Schragger, 2017), meaning most military service members confront the high-risk process of reintegrating into civilian employment. In sum, the military veteran population needs efforts to increase their social integration and lessen their workplace issues.

Theoretical Background

The Job-Demand Resources Model (JD-R) provides a framework to organize factors that contribute to or limit the degree that veterans experience workplace stress. Another theoretical approach which is critical to the present studies is social support theory. Namely, the disagreement on the definition of social support, instigated by Feeney and Collins (2015) and others, motivates the present research. The theoretical stances that frame the current study and the straightforward application make the present investigation highly relevant in both empirical and applied works. Each theory is described in the following section.

The Job-Demand Resources Model

There was recently the release of an updated Job-Demand Resources Model (JD-R), a model which has served as a long-standing popular theory among workplace psychologists for decades (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker et al., 2023). Schaufeli and Taris (2014) credit the model's flexibility of application across varying situations, environments and workplace contacts. Both historical and current versions of the JD-R rely on the same principle of separating work-related factors into job demands and resources. Another anchor belief is that harmonious equilibrium between job demands and resources is necessary for ideal worker productivity and psychological functioning (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker et al., 2023).

While Bakker and Demerouti (2007) pair strain with intermediary factors and organizational outcomes as the penultimate outcome, the newest version of the model offers the construct of worker exhaustion. strain. Another small discrepancy exists in that

in the current study, perceived stress is the key outcome. The overlap is apparent when comparing the conceptualization of *disequilibrium* (Demerouti et al., 2001) and how Schetter and Dolbier (2011) define *chronic work stress*. *In fact*, the only substantial difference is the *chronic* aspect to describe the period of inadequate resources as prolonged. What's more, Bakker et al. (2023) explain the constructs to operate in unison, in that "Job demands (e.g., workload, email demands, interpersonal conflicts) leads to increased effort. This increased effort depletes employees' physical, emotional, and cognitive resources and may lead to job strain, exhaustion, and health problems" (p. 13:53). In sum, the associations and interplay between *work stress*, *strain* and other related concepts enable the ease to solely use the terms *job stress* or *work stress* in reference interchangeably.

Job demands

Job demands are the predecessor to strain, and represent the workplace factors that take effort and induce psychological costs (Demerouti et al., 2001). MacDonald (2003) declares that situations of unrealistic work demands are "psychosocial hazards" (p. 1). Job demands act as hazards by predicting worker fatigue (Andersson et al., 2017) and depressive symptoms (Pulkki-Råback et al., 2016). In sum, "disequilibrium" caused by high job demands and low job resources is the situation trigger for workers (Demerouti et al., 2001). For simplicity in the following sections, the term "disequilibrium" is used in reference to the disequilibrium (e.g., imbalance) of (high) job demands and (low) resources.

Job Resources

Although job demands are often credited as harmful to a worker achieving demand-resource balance maintenance, job resources can enable the worker to complete tasks and manage these demands (Demerouti et al., 2001; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Moreover, a worker's job resources help them achieve their goals, lower the cost of the job demands they experience, and promote growth (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources can influence workplace stress creation via two avenues, which is demonstrated in the JD-R Bakker and Demerouti (2007). First, job resources have the direct effect of counteracting job demands. The JD-R Model (Appendix 1) shows a direct association between job demands and resources, which captures how high job resources allow a worker to complete high job demands and be in demand/resource equilibrium.

Second, job resources affect the stress-creation process through a buffering effect. In the JD-R diagram (Appendix 1), this second avenue is visually displayed by the connection between job resources and the space between job demands and strain: Even if disequilibrium occurs, high job resources work through the second avenue (buffering effect), lessening the magnitude of strain caused by disequilibrium (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

Personal Resources

The field has evolved in the increased recognition that personal resources, beyond and separate from job resources, are also active to impact workplace processes. Hobfoll et al. (2003) define personal resources as being linked to resiliency and a feeling that one can effectively impact their environment. Notably, personal resources can alter the harm

that a worker experiences from job demands (e.g., Hobfoll et al., 2003; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Accordingly, the present review relies on the theoretical stance that personal resources work to interrupt job stress via the same two mechanisms as job resources.

Support for the stress-buffering effect of personal resources was also found in Bakker et al. (2022) 's JD-R review, "Similar to job resources, personal resources moderate the impact of job demands on employee well-being. A worker facing high job demands is at risk of strain (e.g., caused by demand-resource disequilibrium). Nevertheless, if the worker has high personal resources (e.g., optimism, self-efficacy), the impact of job demands is redirected and can even predict work engagement. For demonstration purposes, let's consider the impact from a worker having a personal resource, like self-efficacy. Consequences include an increase in positive work behaviors, such as job crafting (Roczniewska et al., 2020), which is explained by Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) as the ability of a worker to shape the demands and resources of their job to cater to them. Ultimately, the frequency of the positive behaviors like job crafting, determine meaningful outcomes for the worker, like their level of engagement (Breevaart et al., 2014; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

A worker's personal resources have only recently been acknowledged as usable in counteracting job demands (Bakker et al., 2023). A contemporary review of the JD-R (Bakker et al., 2022) adds further agreement by including a description of the reciprocal relationship between personal resources and job resources (p. 13:11; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a). Equally to how job demands and resources counteract, the required activities of the individual at work (e.g., demands) erode their personal resources (Troughakos &

Hideg, 2009). Personal resources also boost worker appraisals of their job resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; Mockało & Widerszal-Bazyl., 2021), resulting in the prevention of disequilibrium. These details describing the ability for personal resources to offset job demands offer support for the direct effect of personal resources on workplace stress.

Support Resources

Social support is a personal resource linked to many life domains, including the workplace. Considering the source of personal resources, they are frequently gained through social means, from enduring social relationships (Layous & Nelson-Coffey, 2021; Vaillant, 2012) to simple interpersonal interactions (Driver & Gottman, 2004; Gable et al., 2004), and are beneficial at work (Kerksieck et al., 2019). To understand the impact of social support when applied to the context of job demand and work stress, I rely on Cohen and Wills' (1985) landmark stress-buffering model because it details the function and impact of social support on stress. As briefly spoken to in a previous section, stress research is of heightened importance: the prevalence of chronic stress (Schetter & Dolbier, 2011; NIOSH, 2021) paired with its capacity to be health-damaging (Kiecolt-Glaser et al., 2003; Sapolsky, 2004; Mayo Clinic, 2019), is alarming.

Cohen and Wills argue that damage caused by stress is modifiable in that perceived social support can lessen the degree of perceived stressors to be health-damaging. In fact, Cohen and Wills' (1985) describe two critical functions of social support. Cohen and Wills (1985) considers social support to first work through the direct

effect, most during primary stress-appraisal and with a buffering effect by impacting the stress response and the secondary stress appraisal.

Viewed in the current model (Cohen & Wills, 1985), a potential stress trigger is not destined to be damaging; in fact, the appraisal and coping processes are fundamental in determining the effect of the potential stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). According to Cohen and Wills' (1985), the stress process begins with a potential stress trigger, deemed "potential stressful events" on the diagram. Following is the appraisal process, in which the individual distinguishes the trigger as stressful or not.

Moving through the stress-buffering model, if the trigger is appraised as stressful, the next step is the physiological response. The secondary appraisal and coping process lend themselves to the impact of social support via direct effects. The buffering effect of social support can occur during the response process because social support may lead to reappraisal, inhibition, or creating a counter-response (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Plainly, higher social support should lessen the degree to the situation, which has already been appraised as stressful, harms the veteran worker.

When the mechanism explained by Cohen and Wills' (1985) are applied to the workplace context, social support's direct effects are still seen when a potential workplace stress-trigger is appraised. According to the direct effect in the model, when for example a worker faces a mounting workload coupled with an aggressive deadline, high social support would determine if the situation is perceived as stressful or manageable. If the worker appraises the situation as stressful, social support can intervene during the next step (buffering effect) by limiting the reaction and adapting the response

to the workload stressor. We also apply this model of stress, including both social support effects (direct and buffering) in the present investigation of Veterans experiences of work stress during civilian employment.

Positive Social Support

Social support, which can come in many forms, is one of the most critical manifestations of personal resources (Bavik et al., 2020). In their review incorporating findings from 4,500 articles, Bavik et al. (2020) summarize the current understanding of relevant characteristics and contexts for social support. Namely, they detail how the format of the social support (i.e., direct versus indirect, solicited versus unsolicited) and other contextual factors (i.e., level of congruence between support and stressor) can guide the support's impact (Bavik et al., 2020). Another contribution from the Bavik et al. (2020) review is their explanation of the four roles of social support: a positivity catalyst, a positivity enhancer, a negativity buffer, and a negativity exacerbator: The roles of social support of present consideration are social support as a positivity enhancer, enhancing favorable impacts of positive factors, and as a negativity buffer, alleviating harm from stress.

Although the role of social support is complex (Bavik et al., 2020), the operationalization of the construct of social support in research is limited and stiff. Social support is traditionally defined in psychology as the availability of community, friends, and family in times of need (Ozbay et al., 2007). However, as research groups like Gable and colleagues (2004), Bavik et al. (2020), and Feeney and Collins (2015) emphasize, there is a need to consider social support beyond the strict definition of aid during times

of need. Research shows that social support during "good times" (e.g., capitalization exchanges) aids the individual in "bad times" (e.g., times of distress; Gable & Bedrov, 2022, p. 10).

Positive Support and Interpersonal Capitalization

Circling back to the debated definition of social support, Feeney and Collins (2015) call for a need to re-conceptualize social support to be more inclusive of support and encourage well-being. Gable et al. (2004)'s stance of that social support including times without adversity is similar to Bavik et al. (2020)'s description of the positivity enhancer role of social support. Bavik et al. (2020) explains the positivity enhancer role refers to social support leading to a maximization of the positives by working well with "positive initiatives", promoting effectiveness and facilitating success (p. 734).

Feeney and Collins (2015) also social support by different roles and functions: source of strength and relational catalyst. The source of strength model describes a more traditional role of providing support during adversity that lessens the intensity of harm (Feeney & Collins, 2015). Contrastingly, the relational catalyst, which can loosely be connected to Bavik et al. (2020)'s positivity enhancer, functions by encouraging thriving and meaning. Relational catalyst behaviors, being that they exist without the necessity of adversity, are classified as a form of positive social support. Lastly, there is a common behavior of positive social support, which also serves as a relational catalyst, and is called capitalization (Feeney & Collins, 2015).

Sullivan and Davila (2010) agreed with Feeney and Collins (2015) that another form of social support exists, and works outside the constraints of traditional social

support. Since Langston first introduced the idea of interpersonal capitalization in 1994, capitalization research has only gained popularity (Gable et al., 2004; Peters et al., 2018). Component of capitalization that sets it apart from perceived support is that it occurs in response to positive events and lacks a criterion that the support receiver be experiencing duress. Feeney and Collins (2015) categorize the construct as quintessential to the new form of support, positive social support.

The Attempt to Capitalize

The situation of a capitalization exchange is marked by one individual telling another about a piece of positive news. The initial action (i.e., “attempt”) of one person offering their good news to another, irrespective of how the interaction partner responds, is called a capitalization attempt. Capitalization attempts can be on subjects of major successes, like an individual telling their parents about achieving a health goal or a worker telling their spouse that they received a promotion at work (Langton, 1994; Reiss et al., 2010). However, capitalization attempts also include instances when the subject of positive disclosure is more trivial (Reiss et al., 2010), such as one friend telling another about an exceptional Caesar salad eaten for lunch that day.

Presumably, the positive event that is being discussed should be associated with positive emotions for the individual who experienced it (Gable et al., 2004). Positive events create an increase in positive emotions (Reis et al., 2010). Further, a quintessential benefit of capitalizing is that telling another person the news of the positive event leads to a greater gain in positive emotions than from just the event itself (Langston, 1994). Moreover, the frequency with which someone tells good news to others (i.e., makes

capitalization attempts) predicts their self-perceived resilience (Arewakikporn et al., 2016) and intimacy between them and the individual in the exchange (Reis et al., 2004; Otto et al., 2009).

Response to Capitalization Attempt

The first portion of a capitalization exchange is the capitalization attempt, seen when one individual tells another of the good news of the positive events (Langston, 1994). Importantly, there is a second portion of the capitalization interaction, and this is the response the capitalization "attempter" receives to their good news. The quality of the response determines if the capitalization "attempter" feels supported, and the degree of perceived support is logically referred to as capitalization support (CS). CS is measured for the person who recently disclosed the event based on their perception of the response. Consequently, CS is determined by the perceived enthusiasm conveyed in response to the newly shared positive statement (Gable et al., 2004; 2022).

CS is a form of social support and can be classified into the categories described by Bavik et al.'s (2020). According to Bavik et al.'s (2020) categorizations, CS is indirect support because the supporter does not directly affect the decision-making of the support recipient. Applying Bavik et al.'s (2020) descriptions, CS should be considered solicited because disclosing a positive event is an invitation for a response. An important categorization of CS to remember is as a form of positive social support (Sullivan & Davila, 2010). Examining CS in the context of workplace demands and job stress marks a move away from traditional forms of social support during adversity. Capitalization, as an example of positive social support interaction, also has many advantages.

Capitalization Support and Stress

Originally, Langston (1994) described three significant benefits from capitalization exchange, marking functions to account for this correlation: increasing memorability, maximizing the event's significance, and building social resources. Reis et al. (2010) argue that capitalization works primarily through two mechanisms: 1) heightening the perceived value of the disclosed event and 2) increasing prosocial orientation and trust. This review argues that the effects of positive social support, i.e., CS, mimic the well-accepted effects of traditional social support described by Cohen and Wills (1985).

The current pool of CS research demonstrates that positive support has innumerable benefits and positive consequences for the receiver, which is provided in detail in the section below. The present argument is that CS, a form of positive social support, mimics social support's effects on stress. According to the popular model by Cohen (1985) explained previously, the two effects of social support on stress are stress-buffering and direct. By learning on the empirically-supported benefits of CS (described shortly) a tenable argument is made for the benefits of CS in this context to lead to stress-buffering and direct effects on experienced stress. I defend this assertion in the following sections, that it is conceivable for CS to create the same dual effects on stress as general social support in both general and workplace contexts.

Specifically, I use the context of the workplace to display how the effects of CS lead to stress-avoidance. As displayed in the JD-R, job resources can work directly to counteract demands and avoid disequilibrium (direct effect). Or, job resources can limit

the strain caused from disequilibrium (buffering effect). Presented here is the argument that the benefits from CS, as an acting job resource, interrupts via both these pathways.

Work Stress Avoidance by Direct Effect

I argue that one way CS achieves stress avoidance is in a similar fashion to the direct effect of social support in Cohen and Wills (1985)'s model, namely by preventing the situation that would cause stress. Cohen and Wills (1985) describe the reasons that social support is "related to overall well-being because it provides positive affect, a sense of predictability and stability in one's life situation, and a recognition of self-worth." (p. 311). They offer social integration as a reason for social support's effects, because social functioning being a common source of stability, link it to the predictability and stability category (Wills & Cohen, 1985).

If McDougall and Drummond's (2010)'s findings are replicated with my key variables, veteran CS-created resources prevent job demand-resource disequilibrium and the consequence of experienced workplace stress. Considering our workplace context and the JD-R model, stress is triggered by the disequilibrium resulting from insufficient resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). I argue that CS benefits could allow stress-avoidance via benefits like CS-related gains of self-efficacy: these gains can act as a job resource and also inflate worker appraisals of their resources, through which either avenue ultimately results in work against job demands. This direct effect of CS (**Hypothesis 1**) would be supported through an association of high veteran CS to lower perceived stress.

Just as job resources can mitigate the strain felt from disequilibrium, I argue that CS can be stress-protecting in a work environment by shielding the veteran from the damage caused by a resource-demand imbalance. This prediction would be upheld by CS working as a moderator between veterans' job demands and perceived stress (**Hypothesis 2**). Using Cohen and Wills (1985) own categories for the direct effect of social support, select CS benefits are presented as enhanced positive affect, social bonding, and self-worth.

Cohen and Wills (1985) include improvements to social integration as a reason for the effects of social support because it establishes stability and predictability. The construct of *social integration* is visible through behaviors, such as taking part in social activities, and having a cognitive component, such as achieving a feeling of community belonging (Brisette et al., 2000). CS helps establish life stability by governing some relationship qualities between oneself and their romantic partner: CS predicts positive relationship outcomes like high relationship satisfaction (Hicks & Diamond, 2008) and intimacy (Reis et al., 2010; Reis & Gable, 2003). The benefits of CS for relationship quality and intimacy have been demonstrated in studies that administered measures at a single time point (Pagani et al., 2020), as well as daily measures showing changes in perceptions of CS one day predicting marital satisfaction the next (Logan & Cobb, 2016).

Langston (1994) wrote how "presumably, 'support' in the context of positive events might mean congratulations or expressed admiration, because assistance with a difficulty would not have been needed." (p. 1113). Clearly, the direct effect of positive social support on job demands is not visible through a partner physically aiding in job

tasks. Self-worth is a fitting example of a resource that a worker can gain through support in their personal life, but it acts as a useful resource in work life. Gable et al. (2010) explain how CS communicates validation of the event's importance via positive feedback, which evokes personal validation. The act of a worker telling their partner of a positive event increases the memorability and how important the worker feels it is (Langston, 1994; Gable et al., 2004). If the interaction results in the worker receiving CS, the memorability and value of the event are further expanded. Presumably, the heightened importance of the event can explain why, after CS is received, the worker experiences elevated self-esteem (Reis et al., 2010; Peters et al., 2018). Personal validation and esteem predict psychological well-being at work (Lo Presti et al., 2020), which a worker can enjoy due to the direct effect of CS on stress.

Work Stress Avoidance by Stress-Buffering Effect

Cohen and Wills (1985) clarify the distinction between the direct and buffering effects of social support in that the buffering process relies on the potential for distress. In this JD-R context, the buffering mechanism can occur after the onset of disproportionately high job demands compared to resources (i.e., disequilibrium), but before experiencing strain (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). This point leaves room for modifying factors, including protection from social support via the buffering effect. Social support and, I argue, CS act as "resources from support 'buffer;" (protects) persons from the potentially pathogenic influence of stressful events" (p. 310). So, the impact of CS may influence the response to the stressor trigger by guiding reappraisal and stress coping (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

After the onset of disequilibrium, the worker then has a response to the stressor, which acts as another point of intervention. Having high positive affect and experiencing shared joy is associated with greater resiliency (Arewasikporn et al., 2019), which could be helpful when responding to a workplace stressor. Positive affect influences the psychological mechanisms occurring during stress appraisal and the response (Richardson et al., 2016), particularly in helping individuals appraise their stressors as opportunities through challenge (Salovey et al., 2000).

Another avenue for CS to buffer against stress is by modifying the physiological response to stress; this mechanism is further demonstrated by the protective benefits to physical health that are attributed to perceived partner responsiveness (PPR) (Khan et al., 2009; Slatcher et al., 2015). Partner responsiveness (PPR) is associated with longevity (Stanton et al., 2019), which could be explained by the link between PPR and healthier stress responses that take less of a toll on the body (Khan et al., 2009). Similarly, Slatcher et al. (2015) found in their longitudinal study that PPR collected at baseline predicted the health of the individual's physiological stress responses 10 years later (determined by the physiological measures of the health of cortisol patterns). For a more thorough explanation of the stress impact and other benefits of PPR, refer to the review article by Kırimer-Aydınlı (2021). Due to the similarity of PPR and CS, the described support for PPR as stress-buffering is encouraging for CS.

A handful of studies have explicitly demonstrated capitalization supportive as protective against duress. Gouin et al. (2020) conducted a study of chronic stress and their participants were caregiving mothers of children with Autism Spectrum Disorder.

Results demonstrated high CS as predicting a healthier stress response by the caregiver, as determined through physiological measure (Gouin et al., 2020). Of even greater promise, findings from Logan and Cobb's (2016) daily study support the hypothesis of CS's ability to buffer against harm. For the wives in the dyadic pairs, days when they reported higher-than-usual CS predicted a reduction of depressive symptoms during the following days (Logan & Cobb, 2016).

Together, these described benefits of CS illuminate the magnitude of potential gain received from a partner expressing this form of positive social support. The CS benefits I selected provide ample justification for considering CS as operating in a similar manner as perceived support.

Partner CS for Military Veterans

A romantic partner is often a valuable and impactful source of social support. For instance, unmarried individuals report lower levels of social support (Thuen et al., 1997) and a greater prevalence of mental illness (Robins & Reiger, 1991). Marriage/long-term partnerships, especially healthy ones, lead to longevity (Kaplan & Kronick, 2006; Whisman et al., 2018) and greater optimal well-being (Sironi, 2019). Social support is similarly beneficial for military couples (Pflieger et al., 2022). In fact, because of the disruption of the veteran's social network during the military-civilian transition, veterans may particularly receive protective benefits from their romantic relationship (SteelFisher et al., 2008). Veterans' high satisfaction with their romantic relationships is negatively related to psychological distress (Kritikos et al., 2019), anger, and the prevalence of mental illnesses like depression, anxiety, and PTSD (Vest et al., 2017). In sum, the

salience of partner support to predict well-being generally (Kaplan & Kronick, 2006), and for veterans (Kritikos et al., 2019; Pflieger et al., 2022), reinforces the need for the current investigation.

It is justifiable for military veterans to benefit from expressions of support from their partners during workday tasks, because benefits of social support are carried with the individuals to provide protective benefits even when the individual is physically separated from their partner (Gellert, 2018). Findings in McDougall and Drummond (2010) study of similar populations add credibility for my argument of personal resource gains from CS as leading to a direct avoidance of experienced work stress (H2). For the active-duty Australian Navy participants, personal resources were a significant moderator, leading to a weaker association predictive between work-related stress and psychological strain (McDougall & Drummond, 2010). Results were interpreted as demonstrating that personal resources (including social support and self-care behaviors) limited the strain that the submariners' experienced as a result of their work-related stressors.

Present Gaps

Although there is growing recognition of the importance of positive social support, the current study filled several gaps in theory and application. There remains a gap in proper research work to guide interventions for military veterans in a way that can reliably ensure their well-being. Since the original publication of the JD-R, contemporary discussions have emerged surrounding the incorporation of personal resources into the JD-R, particularly as it interacts with job resources (Bakker et al., 2023). A primary aim in workplace psychology is to help elucidate the role of personal (positive social support) resources in the JD-R, in which present work is addressed. Further, This effort aimed toward resolving discrepancies in the defining social support by providing results to weigh in on the discussion (e.g., Feeney & Collins, 2015).

Discouragingly, the issue of military veterans facing an elevated risk of that mental illness is not new (SteelFisher et al., 2013; Stone et al., 2015). The shortcomings of current interventions are evidenced by the statement of the Institute of Medicine (2013) on current well-being interventions for U.S. military veterans that "there is little evidence regarding their effectiveness" (Institute of Medicine, 2013, p. 2, as cited in Shepherd et al., 2021). Hence, there is a clear need for the scientific community to provide work that can inform future interventions (Randall, 2022; Institute of Medicine, 2013).

Hunter-Johnson et al. (2020) urge improved interventions to equip military veterans better when transitioning into civilian workplaces. A consistent finding in military research is that solid social support protects military veterans (Vest et al., 2019).

For instance, Castaneda et al. (2008) found that National Guard reservists faced with a stressor also possessed strong social relationships, making them more likely (compared to reservists reporting low social ties) for their stress-coping strategy to be healthy and effective. Findings also extend to social support protecting service members (i.e., submariners) against psychological strain and stress related to their workplace (McDougall & Drummond, 2010).

Support from a romantic partner is highly beneficial for military couples (Pflieger et al., 2022). In fact, because the veteran's social network changes during the military-civilian transition, veterans may receive protective benefits mainly from their romantic relationship (SteelFisher et al., 2008). Veterans' high satisfaction with their romantic relationships is negatively related to psychological distress (Kritikos et al., 2019), anger, and the prevalence of mental illnesses like depression, anxiety, and PTSD (Vest et al., 2017). Accordingly, I argue that intervention efforts should focus on improving social areas such as successfully receiving social support and functioning within romantic relationships. This work examining potential benefits of a form provided-provided support behavior might be crucial to guide intervention approaches. In sum, this work addressed theoretical misunderstandings in conjunction to the practical issue of the separated military veterans who are deserving of intervention efforts.

Aims and Hypotheses

The current study investigated the effects of capitalization support (CS), a form of positive social support, on experiencing workplace stress among separated service members (i.e., veterans) who work in civilian organizations. Specifically, I examined the CS of veterans, measured to capture the degree to which they felt that their romantic partner was responsive to their capitalization attempts. I predicted that those with higher CS, a form of social support (Shorey & Lakey, 2011), lower job-related stress. This prediction is based in theory, particularly that CS benefits add to personal resources. Further, I anticipated that these personal resources act as job resources to both directly prevent and buffer against job-related stress (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

To examine these research questions, I drew on data collected in the Study for Employment Retention of Veterans (SERVe), which recruited veterans from civilian workplaces in Oregon. The primary purpose of SERVe was to assess the efficacy of supportive supervisor training on impacting veteran well-being. As part of the baseline (pre-intervention) assessment, married or partnered veterans in the present study completed survey measures and a 32-day internet survey. Following the supervisor intervention, they completed surveys at 3- and 9-months post-baseline. To answer primary research questions, I examined how daily job demands (aggregated across the 32 days) predict 3-month perceived stress (controlling for intervention condition). First, I investigated if capitalization support from the veteran's romantic partner, as reported during the daily internet survey, is directly related to 3-month perceived stress (controlling for intervention condition). This association would be consistent with CS

working as a direct effect to prevent stress (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Second, I examined whether perceived CS from the veteran's romantic partner acts as a buffer against veteran psychological stress as described by the indirect effect model of Cohen and Wills (1985; Coan et al., 2006).

I hypothesized (H1) capitalization support is negatively associated with 3-month follow-up perceived stress (controlling for baseline perceived stress), see Figure 1. Support for H1 would be consistent with CS-related resource gains protecting against general stress. My second hypothesis (H2) was CS as a significant moderator of the job demands-perceived stress relationship when controlled for score at baseline (Figure 2). Particularly, CS may aid a worker in completing job demands, which leads to avoiding job stress otherwise created from a lack of resources compared to demands. For a supported H2, implications include CS as capable of interrupting workplace stress via a stress-buffering effect.

Methods

Study Overview

The current study is a secondary analysis of data collected as part of the Study for Employment Retention of Veterans (SERVe; Hammer, Wan, Brockwood, Mohr, & Carlson, 2017). A principal aim of the SERVe study was to determine the effectiveness of an intervention for supervisors through a randomized control design. The major aim of the Veteran-Supportive Supervisor Training was to train supervisors to establish supportive work environments. SERVe participants were recruited in the Pacific Northwest region of the United States from 35 workplaces. As seen in Figure 3 the SERVe study collected data at baseline (pre-intervention), then at follow-up at 3 months, 6-month and 9 months (post-intervention).

The SERVe parent study (N = 509) also included a daily portion called the Daily Family Study (DFS). The DFS was a 32-day internet survey of veterans and their romantic partners. As part of the SERVe study, there were two waves of the DFS administered (at baseline and 6 months post-baseline), yet the data analyzed in present study was collected during baseline DFS. The DFS collected daily measures from veterans on their spouses on outcomes such as drinking patterns, workplace issues, stress levels, and other well-being indices.

As part of participation in the overarching study, veterans and their romantic partners completed measures at baseline and multiple follow-up occasions (including the three-month follow-up time point used in the current secondary analysis). For the larger SERVe study, 509 veterans were recruited. Of note, the SERVe study employed two

rounds of DFS data collection, but current usable data was collected during the initial (baseline) DFS, occurring at baseline (denoted “pre-intervention DFS” in Figure 3). primary data collected in the baseline daily portion (DFS) of the SERVe study. The only study variable that was collected outside of the DFS portion was perceived stress, which was measured at baseline and 3-month follow-up. For the SERVe study and the DFS section, there was an opportunity for the partners of the veterans to participate. However, the present investigation does not include partner data. Select studies to find more information regarding both members of the dyads include O'Neill et al. (2020), Lee et al. (2020), and Arpin et al. (2018). For information on recruitment, procedure, and the participant characteristics of the SERVe study, see Hammer et al. (2017).

Recruitment

After meeting criteria for the SERVe study, the participants completed informed consent and a collection of surveys electronically for baseline measurement. Approximately one week later, SERVe participants were invited to become involved in the Daily Family Study (DFS) as a subsection of the SERVe study. Those who wished to participate disclosed their spouse's contact information to the research team, and shortly after, the partners were invited to partake in the DFS study.

Eligibility for DFS relied upon having a spouse or cohabiting partner of at least 6 months. Further eligibility included the romantic relationship consisting of two people and being a heterosexual partnership. There is a possibility that the veteran's romantic partner may also be militarily affiliated. In these cases, the veteran who initially signed

up for SERVe participation is referred to as the “veteran” and their romantic partner that joined for the DFS portion of the study is referred to as the partner/romantic partner.

The baseline surveys were estimated to take approximately 50 minutes, for which participants were compensated \$25. Each daily entry was intended to take approximately 10 minutes to complete, and compensation was calculated based on compliance. The maximum compensation for each partner was \$90 each.

Participant Sample

Sample inclusion. The parent study involved recruiting 509 military veterans, yet only participants in the DFS study were used in the current analysis. A portion (N = 395 SM) of SERVe participants responded to the couples’ recruitment outreach attempt. Of the 260 couples that completed the baseline procedure, there were 173 couples in which both partners consented and enrolled in the study. There was an exclusion for the dyads used for the pilot diary study (N = 9). Being the current study only focused on Veteran dyad members, it is important to note that 175 veterans both enrolled and completed at least one DFS entry. The present analysis sample only includes those who completed at least three (of the 32 possible) days of DFS entries for any key variable, leaving an analysis sample of 160 individuals.

Demographics. The majority (89.4%) of the sample was male. Almost half (46.3%) held a college or tech school certificate, many completed some college or tech school (26.3%) and some were involved or completed graduate school (21.3%). Consistent with the region of data collection (a metropolitan area in the Pacific Northwest of the United States), most (86.9%) of veterans identified as White or Caucasian. The

next most-represented racial group held 11.9% (N = 19) of the sample and identified as mixed-race. The vast majority of the sample (90%, N=144) were married, and a portion were cohabiting but not married (N=13), non-cohabiting (N=2) and in a civil commitment or union (N=1). The majority (83.8%; N = 134) of the sample were completely military separated whereas the remainder was still involved in the military reserves (N = 26). A full representation of descriptive statistics are provided in Table 1 and 2. A full representation of regressions are provided in Table 5.

Measures

Measured at Baseline

Baseline and follow-up surveys were administered via a Qualtrics sent to participants' email. The survey assortment at baseline and follow-up were intended for completion to take slightly less than one hour.

Demographics. The demographic information was collected at baseline—participants self-reported information regarding basic demographics such as age, education, SES and ethnicity. Relationship information was gathered, such as length of partnership and if either partner had a child and/or a child living in the home with them. Participants were also asked about their military experiences, status, and rank.

Perceived stress. An abbreviated 4-item Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen & Williamson, 1988) was used to assess perceived stress. Participants rated each item on a 4-point scale (0=Never to 4=Very). An example is, “In the last month, how often have you felt that things were going your way?” (reverse-coded). Summary scores were calculated by averaging responses to the four items, with higher scores indicating higher

perceived stress. The internal consistency reported by Cohen and Williamson (1988) in their validation study is adequate ($\alpha=.60$). When analyzing data from all participants in the overarching SERVe study, the internal consistency of the PSS-4 was acceptable ($\alpha=.76$) (Hammer et al., 2017).

Measured at 3-month Follow-Up

Perceived stress. 3 months later, the only collection of a key variable was administering the 4-item PSS scale created by Cohen & Williamson (1988) again.

Measured Daily (collected in Daily Family Study)

For the DFS collection, online via a secure email link was administered once daily for 32 days and needed to be completed between 5:00 PM - 11:00 PM. A portion (18%) of the participants received accommodations to complete the DFS survey outside the standard hours because they had alternative work shifts. The romantic couples were asked not to discuss answers to coordinate their survey taking. During the DFS portion, Role Hassle Index (RHI) and Perceived Responsiveness to Capitalization Attempts (PRCA) data were gathered daily.

Capitalization Support. The veteran's partner's capitalization support is the current consideration's key variable. As such, the capitalization support (CS) score is determined from the veteran's perceptions of their partner's response post-capitalization attempt. The capitalization support (CS) perceived by the veterans was determined using Gable et al. (2004) 's 4-item Perceived Responsiveness to Capitalization Attempts (PRCA). The assessment first asks participants to complete the Daily Experiences of Capitalization (DEC) questions, including whether the veteran shared the news of a

positive event. If they had, the next part of the DEC measure included questions on when the event happened, with whom it was experienced, how important and positive the event was, and how much they perceived they controlled it (Gable et al., 2004). Lastly, the veterans recorded with whom they shared the event's news (their romantic partner or someone else) (Gable et al., 2004).

On days when the veteran reported not sharing good news (i.e., no capitalization attempt), the instance was treated as missing data. However, on days when at least one CA occurred, the veterans were asked to assess their partner's response to the positive disclosure using the PRCA. As the present study is focused solely on the veteran members of the dyad, the CS score represents specifically how responsive the veterans found their romantic partners to be after they attempted to capitalize.

Gable et al. (2004) outline instructions for scoring, which include the creation of a single composite score. The PRCA has 4 items, each of which represents a category of responsiveness. The items Gable et al. (2004) 's scale that the veterans answered were, over the past 24 hours, how often "My spouse/partner reacted enthusiastically to this event," "My spouse/partner pointed out the potential problems to this event," "My spouse/partner said little, but I knew he/she was happy for me" and "My spouse/partner seemed disinterested." Participants answered on a 1-5 Likert-type scale (1-Strongly disagree, 5-Strongly agree). Scores were considered along two dimensions: the continuum of "active" vs. "passive" and of "constructive" vs. "destructive." A "successful" capitalization experience is determined to be high on "Active-Constructive" and low on "Passive Destructive" (Gable et al., 2004, p. 1). Single composite

capitalization scores were created by subtracting the other subscale composites from the active–constructive scores.

Job demands. Job demands (JD) were assessed using Zohar's (1997) survey of the Role Hassle Index (RHI). The RHI includes three subscales: conflict, ambiguity, and overload, but only the "role overload" subscale is included in the current study. An example item from the role overload subscale includes, "Felt under time pressure, had difficulty due to insufficient time." Published internal consistency of the RHI role overload subscale is high ($\alpha=.82$) (Zohar, 1997). For job demands and CS, my planned protocol included a predetermined assessment of their reliability and validity. I selected data entries for RHI (job demands) and PRCA (CS) three random days (strategically from the beginning, middle and end of the 32-day study).

RHI as the measure for job demands is strategic in that the scale was created with the theoretical understanding that worker exhaustion is a product of "effort expenditure" or "demand level" with "recovery availability" (Zohar, 1997, p. 102). Zohar (1997)'s framework is, of course, very similar to that of the JD-R (Bakker & Demerouti, 2001). Moreover, considering the primary motivation of this study is ensuring veterans' well-being, it is notable that scales like the HRI that focus on hassle are more predictive of well-being than scales that focus on objective events (Lazarus et al., 1985).

Data Analysis

Data Preparation

Data collected at the 3-month follow-up was the only data in the current analysis potentially influenced by group assignment, as the DFS portion was completed before the intervention. Analysis was conducted primarily using SPSS. It would have been reasonable to use Mplus due to its ability to correct for data missingness, however SPSS was sufficient to conduct the majority of analysis. Mplus was mostly employed for the purpose of testing that the data works in the independence from which (of 35 locations) workplace site the veteran works. I calculated the composite score for capitalization support based on Gable et al.'s (2004) protocol of scoring PRCA that was previously described. Job demands and capitalization support were both aggregated for each eligible veteran across days. I completed grand mean centering of select variables, a process that is suggested for this type of analysis by Kenny et al. (2006). For my H1, capitalization support is my predictor variable. And, for H2, capitalization support is examined as a moderator. As such, for hypothesis testing analysis in both for H1 and H2, CS is grand mean centered. In H2, job demands, acts as my H2 predictor and consequently is also grand mean centered.

Missingness and Compliance

Because of the length of involvement in daily diary measures, it was important that conservations are made for missing data and completion rates. The data has been monitored for issues related to missingness in order to ensure the appropriate steps taken to accommodate. Consistent for all analysis, if participants provided no for either key

DFS variable (job demands or capitalization support), the data was considered missing. When examining histograms of key variables collected in DFS, there was no clear cutoff point. There were 175 veterans who completed any of the DFS entries on at least one key variable collected daily. In parallel to O'Neil et al. (2020), I chose to include veterans who completed at least three days of DFS. With this criteria imposed, 160 veterans remained, which became my analysis sample. The average entries completed was 23.96 out of 32 days, with a compliance rate of 74.88%. Only 25% of the sample completed fewer than 8 entries.

Assumptions of Normality & Independence

Planned preliminary analysis to investigate assumptions include testing the key outcome variable, perceived stress, for assumptions of data normality via the Shapiro–Wilk test (Meyers et al., 2010). For instance, kurtosis values falling between +2 and -2 were considered acceptable (Meyers et al., 2010). Key variables withheld primary recommended assumptions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The current methodology posed a potential risk of breaking assumptions of independence, emphasizing the necessity to test data for independence. Participants were recruited from 35 workplace sites in the Pacific Northwest. It was possible that the participants, who were recruited from overlapping workplace sites, could have non-independent responses. Therefore, it was necessary to examine ICCs to test the degree of added variance due to SM being nested within the same workplace site in the major outcome variable (perceived stress) as well as the other remaining key variables.

Selection of Covariates

Innumerable variables could be justifiably selected for inclusion as controls in the present analysis. A strategic choice was made from the potential options, which included available demographic variables such as relationship length, group assignment in the SERVe parent study (intervention or control), age, education, SES, military status, parent status, and ethnicity, Table 4. Because a time point included in this analysis is post-intervention, including the condition the veteran was assigned to (supportive supervisor training or control) in the parent SERVe study is inherently necessary. Available evidence leads to the impression of gender being impactful on support receivable (Rostami et al., 2013; Van Steenbergen et al., 2011). However, analyses showed little difference when including gender as a covariate in the models. Similar findings were revealed for parent status. Moreover, the inclusion of variables of parent status, education, SES or ethnicity in statistical models revealed no notable differences in hypothesized relationships as such, none were included as control variables.

Relationship length could potentially introduce bias because it is a highly influential factor to numerous processes and predictive associations related to romantic partnerships. For instance, relationship length is a significant moderating between marital satisfaction and symptoms of depression (Kouros et al., 2008). Analysis of current findings mirrored this characteristic of the relationship length factor; the length of the veteran's relationship with their partner was associated with differences in the veteran's reported perceived stress scale measured at 3 month follow-up. Age is a potential confounding variable, however the variance introduced by age should be captured by relationship length due to the high overlap between the constructs. As anticipated, our

sample showed age and relationship length were highly correlated ($r = .53, p < .01$, adjusted $R^2 = .53$). Consequently, relationship length was incorporated into the analytical model. Ultimately, the external variables included as covariates during hypothesis testing are: condition assignment, military status and relationship length. It is common for relationship length to be included as a covariate in general relationship research and in research on similar factors (Arpin et al., 2018; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Full description of inter-correlations is visible in Table 5.

Table 3 Select Controls	
Key Variables	Control Variables
Job demands (e.g., role overload)	Group assignment (in SERVe parent study)
Perceived stress	Military status (active reserve vs. fully separated)
Capitalization support (perception of responsiveness to capitalization attempt provided by partner)	Relationship length

Hypothesis Testing

CS Direct Effect (Hypothesis 1)

Hypothesis 1 stated that CS is negatively associated with perceived stress (controlled for perceived stress score at baseline). Evaluations for the parameter for CS in predicting perceived stress needed to be at the grand mean of job demands. So, the centering of job demands is the initial step. I ran a linear regression analysis to determine the predictive nature of CS (IV) on perceived stress (DV), controlling for baseline

perceived stress. The anticipated direction of the association between CS and perceived stress was negative. If the results showed the statistic produced from the H1 analysis procedure is significant and negative in sign, my prediction would have been supported.

CS Buffering Effect (Hypothesis 2)

My second hypothesis (H2) offered that CS was a significant moderator of job demands predicting perceived stress (controlling for baseline perceived stress). I used regression analysis, grand mean center job demands, and capitalization support to evaluate H2 and create an interaction term from these centered predictors. Evidence for moderation is marked by an interaction term that is statistically significant. The moderation analysis was used to determine if there is an interaction effect: specifically, if the job demands (IV) on the perceived stress (DV) differ across different levels of CS (Moderator). The predicted direction for the H2 moderation was that higher CS predicted a weaker association.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Based on descriptive statistics, all key variables appeared to uphold the assumption of normality: kurtosis and skewness values of both measures of perceived stress, capitalization support and job demands fell within suitable range (Meyers et al., 2010). When viewing histograms, data distributions appeared normal aside from a slight positive skew for the disruption of job demands. After viewing the results of a Shapiro–Wilk ($p < .05$), I determined that the distribution for job demands upheld the assumption of normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

The veteran's mean scores of role overload could fall between 1 and 4, and in the current sample was $M=1.67$ ($SD = 0.55$), which was lower than anticipated. Capitalization support for the veterans was $M= -3.27$, $SD=2.28$ ($N=126$), which was also relatively low (Gable et al., 2004). Veterans could report their perceived stress up to the value of 15, veterans at baseline ($N=160$) had a $M = 2.36$, $SD = .82$ and follow-up, $M= 2.41$, $SD= 0.68$ ($N = 146$). Moreover, both distributions of perceived stress had high standard deviations and relatively low scores compared to those reported ($M=4.49$, $SD = 2.96$) in validation paper (Cohen & Williamson, 1988). Although mean levels of perceived stress were similar across time points, baseline values had a greater portion of low scores (38.8% values below 2) compared to collection at follow-up (28.8% values below 2).

Although perceived stress as the outcome variable is primarily required for independence, I calculated and evaluated intraclass correlations (ICCs) for each of the

key variables. Values below .10 suggest that the between groups differences are small, independence is upheld and the data is workable for regression analysis (Hox, 2002). ICCs of the present key variables ranged from .0003 - 0.058, which lead to multilevel regression to be deemed as appropriate. See Table 3.

Results of Hypothesis Testing

I hypothesized that H1 analysis will display CS to induce stress-avoidance for veterans, seen in high CS predicting lower stress. Moreover, I anticipated hypothesis 2 to show CS as stress-reducing in the workplace, with higher CS associated with the reduced strength of the relationship between job demands and perceived stress. Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 were tested by running linear regression analysis. However, support for H1 was determined with a direct effect and H2 relied on an interaction term.

CS Direct Effect (Hypothesis 1)

For H1, I hypothesized a significant negative association between CS and 3-month follow-up perceived stress (controlling for baseline perceived stress). In support of H1 and the hypothesized direct effect of CS on perceived stress, veterans' level of received capitalization support was negatively related to subsequent perceived stress, $b = -0.07$, $SE = 0.09$; $p < 0.01$; 95% CI[-0.11, -0.03]. With an adjusted R² of .56, my proposed model accounted for 56% of the explained variance in perceived stress.

CS Buffering Effect (Hypothesis 2)

My second hypothesis (H2) was that CS is a significant moderator job that demands predicting perceived stress. H2 would be supported if the grand mean centered job demands and capitalization support interaction term is statistically significant,

signifying that job demands (IV) on the perceived stress (DV) differ across different levels of CS (Moderator). Specifically, I predicted the pattern of results to show a weaker association between job demands and perceived stress for those veterans with higher CS. Findings revealed a lack of support for Hypothesis 2. Specifically, the interaction term for CS X job demands was not statistically significant, $b = -0.04$; $SE = 0.04$; $p = 0.23$; 95% CI [-0.11, 0.03].

Discussion

Summary of Findings

Through two hypotheses, I examined the stress-reducing capability of social support for separated military veterans. In particular, the support behavior I examined is capitalization support. CS is a form of positive social support that diverges from traditional support, which excludes itself to only support received in a context of negativity (Ozbay et al., 2007; Feeney & Collins, 2015). Testing the effects of the positive support yielded mixed results. My findings supported the direct effect of CS to lower perceived stress hypothesized in H1. The findings for Hypothesis 1 revealed CS as involved in a direct effect on stress reduction. The supported hypothesis underpins social support for a positive happening as having a direct effect benefit. However, findings did not reveal the expected moderation effect of CS to lessen the effect on demands leading to increased perceived stress. The unconfirmed Hypotheses 2 fails to display a stress-buffering effect of CS extending to the work domain by protecting against job demands.

Support for CS Direct Effect

The support for Hypothesis 1 adds to the mounting evidence for interpersonal capitalization being highly impactful for well-being (Gable et al., 2004; 2022; Peters et al., 2018). Given that successfully receiving messages of social support reduces experienced stress (Pietromonaco & Collins, 2017; Gellert et al., 2018), it is no surprise that CS induces the same effect. Capitalization support effectively communicates support to a romantic partner (Gable et al., 2022; Peters et al., 2018). A cornerstone theoretical contribution of the present work is to the movement to reconceptualize social support to

include positive situations. Support for Hypothesis 1 weighs in favor of the suggestions of Feeney and Collins (2014) and other proponents of positive social support. The supported hypothesis underpins social support for a positive happening as having direct effect benefits that ultimately are protective for veterans against general stress. This idea is indeed a movement. Until recently, the ability to buffer was incorrectly considered a benefit limited to social support during times of need. Accuracy in theory and application establishes legitimacy across the social support discipline and the domain of psychology as a whole. Allowing this incorrect theory to prevail could damage social psychology's and academic research's reputation.

Null CS Buffering Effect

For my second hypothesis, I posted that CS would offset job stressors in the form of demands on workers' perceived stress. Bakker et al. (2023) review of the JD-R points attention to personal resources, which umbrella over social resources, as moderating the effects of job demands. Perceived support has been previously found to be stress-buffering in the workplace context (e.g., Tremblay et al.; Jimenez & Dunkl, 2017; Gellert et al., 2018) and the present study offers a logical extension by investigating positive support. Considering current evidence, Hypothesis 2 of CS to buffer against job demands was sound. However, the proposed moderation effect of CS was ultimately not affirmed, and thus the effect of CS to create workplace protections via contributing to job resources and interrupting strain (H2) was not visible.

The descriptives in the current sample showed that veterans experienced relatively low perceived stress. There is extensive research to support that workers with lower

general stress would be able to fare better against demands (and reduce the likelihood that CS can elicit a unique buffering effect). Workers with lower general stress from personal life and environment predicted lower job stress and related positively to favorable outcomes, such as a high perception of well-being (Kendall & Muenchberger, 2009).

Interestingly, my findings fail to produce a CS buffering effect that may be partially due to the strength of the CS direct effect. CS working through a direct effect (upheld by Hypothesis 1) could impact mechanisms of veteran work stress creation via positive spillover. Positive spillover is seen when a worker's non-work and work domains influence each other (e.g., Elf, 2019). Types of spillover include "positive mood, skills, values, and behaviors that transfer from one role to another" (Poelmans et al., 2008, p. 143), which capture CS benefits like high positive affect. By reducing stress directly, CS potentially reduced the potential for high job stress. Future research should investigate this potential pathway.

It is also possible that the failure to produce results in support of H2 can be explained by methodological constraints. The Role Hassles Index has been validated as predictive of worker exhaustion and worker depersonalization (Zohar, 1997), as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach and Jackson, 1986). The RHI did not map to differences in worker self-accomplishment. This detail is important because one of the primary mechanisms in which CS operates (and benefits) is by elevating self-accomplishment/self-achievement (Langton, 1994; Reiss et al., 2010). In sum, a theoretical hole may lie in the choice of RHI: overload subscale. The RHI may

capture select stressors not malleable by CS, tempering CS's ability to operate and muting the strength of CS benefits.

Present work relied on the JD-R framework and implications of personal resources for mitigating job demands (Bakker et al., 2023). I intended for my conceptualization of CS benefits to attend to this gap and extend theory; yet, the current findings did not reveal evidence of buffering. More research is necessary to determine the implications and mechanisms behind worker possession of positive support resources and how it fits into JD-R theory. Importantly, this work can act as a launch pad for researchers interested in the role of positive support in the workplace.

Practical Implications

Contributing to creating intervention efforts for military veterans and their families is a primary avenue of application. Military veterans are already at an increased risk for these mental and physical health issues (Wilson et al., 2018). What is more, a multitude of health issues (e.g., sleep issues) and negative behaviors (e.g., excessive alcohol use) can be accredited to loneliness (Cacioppo et al., 2002). To promote the best outcomes, military veterans need to receive adequate signals from others that they are supported. Applying this research could look like guiding intervention creation so they are most effective in aiding veterans to receive social support. Beyond the current focus on stress-avoidance, capitalization training may be an effective intervention for loneliness, which Lim and Gleeson (2014) posited in their paper on the future of social connectedness research. The previous success of comparable couples training, especially because the behaviors work through similar benefits as CS, is highly encouraging.

Receiving CS may work to reduce work stress and avoid long-term harm. Although not through the anticipated method. It is expected that conflict between the domains can jeopardize functioning, and lead to workplace issues like heightened absenteeism, more worker sickness, and reduced motivation (Aronsson et al., 2011). Moreover, Elahi et al. (2022) found that work-home conflict and job stress were positively significantly related. Following the same logic, non-work general stress should therefore be protective. Indeed, the degree of general stress predicts worker mental health and workplace functioning (Kendall & Muenchberger, 2009). Interestingly, Kendall and (Muenchberger, 2009)'s study of 630 employees showed possession of work and personal support as mitigating harm (Kendall & Muenchberger, 2009). In sum, the lower personal stress of the veteran consequenced by receiving CS may lead to benefits for workplace stress, which is vital considering the health consequences associated.

Damage created by workers experiencing chronically high stress at their jobs is seen in worker burnout (Wu et al., 2021) and can commonly take the form of adverse health. Depression, diabetes, and heart disease are chronic illnesses associated with high work stress (Mayo Clinic, 2019; Colligan & Higgins, 2006). This study was aimed at evaluating social support for well-being promotion via decreasing stress, which creates an intuitive application of findings, particularly to inform intervention efforts for veterans, being an at-risk population, who are poised to benefit. An ideal outcome of applying current and related future research would be the availability of psychoeducation and training to teach behaviors and skills to enable them to maximize the benefits of partner

support designed for veterans and beyond. This expansion of partner support benefits could aid when responding to life's challenges in various life domains.

Limitations

Although the present proposal was built on sound methods and theory, limitations persist, particularly with generalizability. It is likely that these findings would not generalize to non-military populations because of the uniqueness of military-related challenges and stressors (Frey et al., 2011). For example, a unique experience to military couples is military deployment. Deployment commonly leads the civilian partner to fear for the safety of the military partner, and fear within a military couple leads to adverse relationship outcomes that persist long after post-deployment reunion (Schumm et al., 2000). Another unique consideration in a military sample is that veterans are especially impacted by social support compared to non-military counterparts (Schuetz, 1945). Considering the workplace context, it could be that the additional stressors of veteran workers (e.g., lasting impacts from their military service experiences) may lead to greater need for resources from social support (Hunter-Johnson et al., 2020; Castaneda et al., 2008; Vest et al., 2019). This heightened susceptibility to social support could mean that impacts of CS as social support would be exaggerated and potentially not replicable to non-military samples.

Methods included controlling for, but largely still excluded examinations of potentially influential characteristics of the veteran, like their attachment style and PTSD status. A PTSD diagnosis predicts the military couples to have worse relationship adjustment, more relationship problems (Carroll et al., 1985), and lower relationship

satisfaction (Cook et al., 2004; Frey et al., 2011). PTSD may have impacted t capitalization interactions because symptoms of PTSD (even “subthreshold”; Zlotnick et al., 2002), are associated with issues disclosing information to romantic partners (Carroll et al., 1985; Zamir et al., 2020). Similarly, attachment style can predict the ability to establish social connections and related behaviors like expressing and recognizing social support (Hicks & Diamond, 2008) and communicating emotionally charged information (Gosnell & Gable, 2013). Previous research demonstrated that attachment style can predict success in the support recognition component of the capitalization interaction, seen by individuals with avoidant attachment giving lower ratings for expressions of capitalization support than objective raters (Shallcross et al., 2011). Although the present study may have missed opportunities for exploration related to veteran characteristics, the inability of the current study to consider these variables can guide future research.

Future Directions

Future work that includes both members of a capitalization interaction would also be vital in pinpointing the mechanisms that lead to observed CS effects. For instance, researchers could use daily dyadic data to shed light on the details that promote CS, like the setting. This study focus was veterans, numerous research groups have highlighted that it is essential moving forward that more research to encapsulate experiences of the romantic partners of veterans (Frey et al., 2011; Mikulincer et al., 1995). Future military research involving positive support should consider more than just veterans, and expand to active duty service members, and military families, namely partners.

A handful of intervention trials have been conducted specifically to increase capitalization behavior (Conoley et al., 2015; Woods et al., 2015), although these studies yielded mixed results. In Woods et al. (2015)'s study evaluating a capitalization intervention, a partner receiving the intervention training led to a perception of the other partner having elevated relationship satisfaction compared to the control group. However, the training induced no significant changes in personal satisfaction (Woods et al., 2015). Clarifying the effectiveness of a training aimed at specifically behaviors of the capitalization exchange is a necessary goal for future research

Conclusion

Feeney and Collins (2015) wrote, "It is not just whether someone provides support, but it is how he or she does it that determines the outcome of that support" (p. 121). Aside from focusing on outcomes or risks associated with possessing support, our field needs to uncover effective avenues for the support received. A portion of the pursuit must examine the different forms of social support, as it is necessary for understanding boundary conditions and comparing salience between types of support. This study's focus on positive social support was a strategic and modern approach, which adds novelty and exploratory nature to the study. Inarguably, findings revealing support for both hypotheses have created a more powerful and straightforward message of encouragement for the social support construct to be reformed and accommodate positive support. Nevertheless, the existence of partial support underpins the capability of a positive form of support to impact general well-being. Although some aspects of social support may be

convoluted, the construct being closely tied to fulfilling basic human needs (Leary, 2010) makes the refinement of current topics and extension beyond a worthwhile pursuit.

Table 1. Demographic Descriptive Statistics

<i>Sample Demographics (N=160)</i>	
Sex: Male	89.4%
Age (years)	38.43 (9.01)
Relationship length (months)	31.88 (10.29)
Has children	78.1%
Partnership: Marriage	90%
Race: White/Caucasian	86.9%
Race: Mixed	46.3%
Deployed	88.3%
Fully military-separated	83.8%
Army reserves	16.2%
Education: College/ tech cert	46.3%
Education: Some college/ tech	26.3%

Table 2. Key Variable Descriptive Statistics

Key Variables Descriptives

<i>Variable</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Perceived Stress (BL)	2.36 (0.82)
Perceived Stress (3M)	2.41 (0.68)
Role Overload	1.67 (0.55)
Capitalization support	M = -3.27(2.88)

N's ranges per variable from 126 to 160 due missing data.

Table 4. Key Variable ICCs

Key Variables ICCs

<i>Variable</i>	<i>ICC value</i>	<i>Instrument</i>
Job demands	.0003	RHI - role overload, Zohar (1997)
Perceived stress, Follow-up	.03	PSS-4, Cohen and Williams (1989)
Perceived stress, Baseline	.016	PSS-4, Cohen and Williams (1989)
Capitalization support	.058	PRCA, Gable et al. (2004)

Table 5

Inter-Correlations Among Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Perceived stress- BL	1						
2 Perceived stress - 3M	.68**	1					
3 Capitalization support	-.19*	-.35**	1				
4 Job demands	.26**	.45**	-.1	1			
5 Condition	.03	.01	.04	.04	1		
6 Relationship length	-.03	-.17*	.03	-.07	-.05	1	
7 Military status	.03	.01	.01	.01	.06	.01	1

Notes. N's ranges per variable from 126 to 160 due missing data.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 6. Regression Statistics Among Study Variables

	Perceived Stress – 3M Follow-up				Perceived Stress – 3M Follow-up			
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>
Perceived stress - baseline	.730***	.11	.963***	[.54, .94]	.641***	.15	.902***	[.36, .89]
Condition	-.054	.11	-.041	[-.27, .16]	-.036	.11	-.300	[-.26, .17]
Relationship Length	-.016*	.01	-.20*	[-.03, -.00]	-.012	.01	-.174	[-.03, -.00]
Military Status	.220	.19	.12	[-.10, .66]	.134	.18	.080	[-.13, .58]
Capitalization Support	-.080**	.03	-.280**	[-.14, -.04]	-.058*	.03	-.215	[-.13, -.01]
Job Demands	---	---	---	---	.154	.10	.139	[-.01, .39]
CS X Job Demands	---	---	---	---	-.041	.04	-.089	[-.12, .05]

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. *Ns* range 126 to 160. Military status: 1= Active; 0= Separated. Condition: 1= Intervention; 0=Control

Figure 1. Hypothesized Model 1

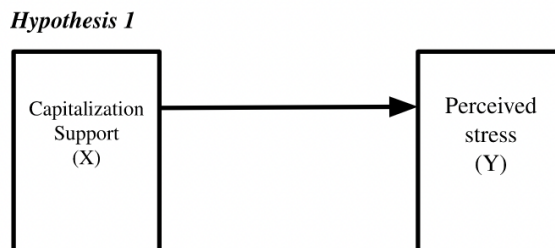


Figure 2. Hypothesized Model 2

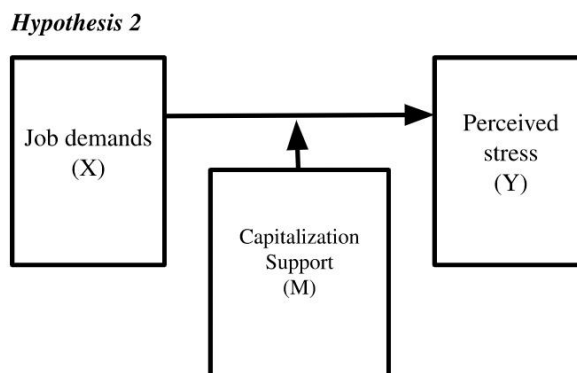
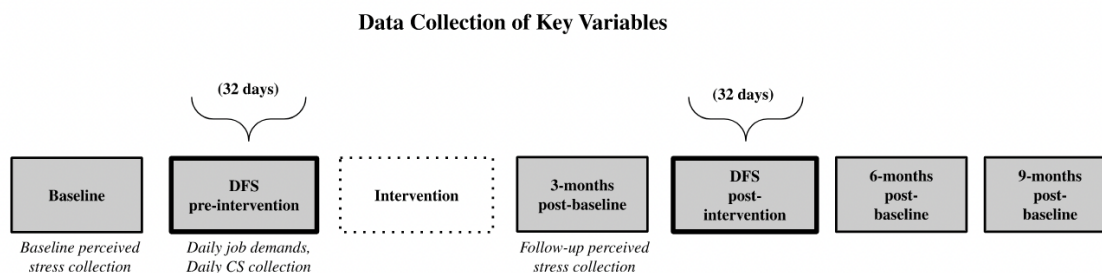


Figure 3. Data Collection Procedure



References

- Chung, Y. (2018) Workplace ostracism And workplace behaviors: A moderated mediation model of perceived stress and psychological empowerment, *Anxiety, Stress & Coping*, 31:3, 304-317, DOI: [10.1080/10615806.2018.1424835](https://doi.org/10.1080/10615806.2018.1424835)
- Andersson, E., Larsen, L. B., & Ramstrand, N. (2017). A modified Job Demand, Control, Support model for active duty police. *Work (Reading, Mass.)*, 58(3), 361–370. <https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-172621>
- Arewakikporn, A., Zautra, A. J., & Sturgeon, J. A. (2016). Sharing positive experiences boosts resilient thinking: Everyday benefits of social connection and positive emotion in a community sample. Unpublished manuscript.
- Arpin, S. N., Starkey, A. R., Mohr, C. D., Greenhalgh, A. M. D., & Hammer, L. B. (2018). “A well spent day brings happy sleep”: A dyadic study of capitalization support in military-connected couples. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 32(7), 975.
- Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Sanz-Vergel, A. (2023). Job Demands-Resources Theory: Ten Years Later. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 10, 25-53. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-120920-053933>
- Bakker, A.B. and Demerouti, E. (2007), "The Job Demands-Resources model: state of the art", *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 22 No. 3, pp. 309-328. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710733115>

- Björklund, C., Jensen, I., & Lohela-Karlsson, M. (2013). Is a change in work motivation related to a change in mental well-being? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83(3), 571–580. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.09.002>
- Bray, R. M., Camlin, C. S., Fairbank, J. A., Dunteman, G. H., & Wheelless, S. C. (2001). The Effects of Stress on Job Functioning of Military Men and Women. *Armed forces and society*, 27(3), 397–417. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0095327X0102700304>
- Cacioppo, J. T., Hawkley, L. C., Crawford, L. E., Ernst, J. M., Burleson, M. H., Kowalewski, R. B., Malarkey, W. B., Van Cauter, E. & Bernston, G. G. (2002). Loneliness and Health: Potential mechanisms. *Psychometric Medicine*, 64(407- 417).
- Carroll, E. M., Rueger, D. B., Foy, D. W., & Donahoe, C. P., Jr (1985). Vietnam combat veterans with posttraumatic stress disorder: analysis of marital and cohabitating adjustment. *Journal of abnormal psychology*, 94(3), 329–337. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-843x.94.3.329>
- Castaneda, L. W., Harrell, M. C., Varda, D. M., Curry Hall, K., Beckett, M. K., & Stern, S. (2008). Deployment experiences of Guard and reserve families: Implications for support and retention. Retrieved from https://www.rand.org/pubs/mono_graphs/MG645.readonline.html
- Chan, E. (2018). Positive psychology couple therapy. *International Journal of Psychiatry*, 3(2). <https://doi.org/10.33140/ijp/03/02/00005>

- Chung, Y. (2018) Workplace ostracism And workplace behaviors: A moderated mediation model of perceived stress and psychological empowerment, *Anxiety, Stress & Coping*, 31:3, 304-317, DOI: [10.1080/10615806.2018.1424835](https://doi.org/10.1080/10615806.2018.1424835)
- Coan, J. A., Schaefer, H. S., & Davidson, R. J. (2006). Lending a hand: social regulation of the neural response to threat. *Psychological science*, 17(12), 1032–1039. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2006.01832.x>
- Cohen, S., & Wills, T. A. (1985). Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 98(2), 310–357. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.98.2.310>
- Cohen, S. (2004). Social relationships and health. *American Psychologist*, 59, 676– 684. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.59.8.676>
- Cohen S, Williamson G (1988) Perceived stress in a probability sample of the United States. In: Spacapan S, Oskamp S (eds) *The Social Psychology of Health*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE, pp. 31–68.
- Colligan, T. & Higgins, E. (2006) Workplace Stress, *Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health*, 21:2, 89-97, DOI: 10.1300/J490v21n02_07
- Collins, N. L., Guichard, A. C., Ford, M. B., & Feeney, B. C. (2006). Responding to need in intimate relationships: Normative processes and individual difference. In M. Mikulincer & G. S. Goodman (Eds.), *Dynamics of romantic love: Attachment, caregiving, and sex* New York, NY: *Guilford Press.*, 149-189.

Conoley, C. W., Vasquez, E., Bello, B. D. C., Oromendia, M. F., & Jeske, D. R. (2015).

Celebrating the accomplishments of others: Mutual benefits of capitalization. *The Counseling Psychologist*.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000015584066>

Craske, M. G., Meuret, A. E., Ritz, T., Treanor, M., Dour, H., & Rosenfield, D. (2019).

Positive affect treatment for depression and anxiety: A randomized clinical trial for a core feature of anhedonia. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*, 87(5), 457–471. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ccp0000396>

<https://doi.org/10.1037/ccp0000396>

Demerouti, Evangelia, & Bakker, Arnold B.. (2011). The Job Demands-Resources

model: challenges for future research. *SA Journal of Industrial*

Psychology, 37(2), 01-09. Retrieved September 08, 2022, from

http://www.scielo.org.za/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S2071-07632011000200001&lng=en&tlng=en.

Department of Health & Human Services. Stress and your health. U.S. *Department of*

Health & Human Services. [https://www.womenshealth.gov/mental-](https://www.womenshealth.gov/mental-health/good-mental-health/stress-and-your-health)

[health/good-mental-health/stress-and-your-health](https://www.womenshealth.gov/mental-health/good-mental-health/stress-and-your-health). Accessed March 18,

2021.

Donato, Silvia & Parise, Miriam & Pagani, Ariela & Bertoni, Anna & Iafrate, Raffaella.

(2014). Demand-withdraw, Couple Satisfaction and Relationship

Duration. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 140. 200-206.

10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.04.410.

- Driver, J. L., & Gottman, J. M. (2004). Daily marital interactions and positive affect during marital conflict among newlywed couples. *Family Process*, 43, 301–314.
- Elf, P., Gatersleben, B., & Christie, I. (2019). Facilitating Positive Spillover Effects: New Insights From a Mixed-Methods Approach Exploring Factors Enabling People to Live More Sustainable Lifestyles. *Frontiers in psychology*, 9, 2699. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02699>
- Estrada, C. A., Isen, A. M., & Young, M. J. (1997). Positive affect facilitates integration of information and decreases anchoring in reasoning among physicians. *Organizational and Human Decision Processes*, 72, 117-135
- Feeney, B. C., & Collins, N. L. (2015). A New Look at Social Support: A Theoretical Perspective on Thriving Through Relationships. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 19(2), 113–147. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868314544222>
- Frey, L. M., Blackburn, K. M., Werner-Wilson, R. J., Parker, T., & Wood, N. D. (2011). Posttraumatic stress disorder, attachment, and intimate partner violence in a military sample: A preliminary analysis. *Journal of Feminist Family Therapy: An International Forum*, 23(3-4), 218–230. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08952833.2011.604530>
- Gable, S. L., & Bedrov, A. (2021). Social isolation and social support in good times and bad times. *Current opinion in psychology*, 44, 89–93. Advance online publication.

- Gable, S. L., Reis, H. T., Impett, E. A., & Asher, E. R. (2004). What do you do when things go right? The intrapersonal and interpersonal benefits of sharing positive events. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 87(2), 228–245. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.87.2.228>
- Galani, M. (2021). A Discussion of Workplace Bullying: Its impact on the sense of self, from an existential phenomenological perspective, and implications for existential clinical practice: Presentation given at the *Society for Existential Analysis Annual Conference*, London, 14 November 2020. *Existential Analysis*, 32(2), 201+. <https://link.gale.com/apps/doc/A672445880/HRCA?u=anon~1f6f4317&sid=googleScholar&xid=6d472370>
- Gellert, P., Häusler, A., Suhr, R., Gholami, M., Rapp, M., Kuhlmeier, A., & Nordheim, J. (2018). Testing the stress-buffering hypothesis of social support in couples coping with early-stage dementia. *PloS one*, 13(1), e0189849. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0189849>
- Genç, E. (2021). Transforming stress to happiness: Positive couple therapy with distressed couples. *Journal of Happiness and Health*, 1(1), 4–15. Retrieved from <https://www.journalofhappinessandhealth.com/index.php/johah/article/view/3>

- Gouin, J. P., Wrosch, C., McGrath, J., & Booi, L. (2020). Interpersonal capitalization moderates the associations of chronic caregiving stress and depression with inflammation.
- Halbesleben, J. R. (2006). Sources of social support and burnout: a meta-analytic test of the conservation of resources model. *The Journal of applied psychology*, *91*(5), 1134–1145. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.1134>
- Hicks, A. & Diamond, L. (2008) How was your day? Couples' affect when telling and hearing daily events. *Personal Relationships*, *15*.
- Hobfoll, S. E., Johnson, R. J., Ennis, N., & Jackson, A. P. (2003). Resource loss, resource gain, and emotional outcomes among inner city women. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *84*, 632–643.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, *44*, 513–524. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513>
- Hox, J. (2002). *Multilevel analysis techniques and applications*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Huang, C., Xie, X., Cheung, S. P., & Zhou, Y. (2022). Job Demands and Resources, Positive and Negative Affect, and Psychological Distress of Social Workers in China. *Frontiers in psychiatry*, *12*, 752382. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsy.2021.752382>
- Huang, C., Xie, X., Cheung, S. P., & Zhou, Y. (2022). Job Demands and Resources, Positive and Negative Affect, and Psychological Distress of Social

Workers in China. *Frontiers in psychiatry*, 12, 752382.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.752382>

Hunter-Johnson, Y., Niu, Y., Smith, S., Whitaker, S., Wells, B., Charkasova, R., A.

(2020). Satisfaction of Veterans Transitioning to the Civilian Workforce.

New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education. 139-150.

10.1002/ace.20389

Hurley, P. (2017). Ego Depletion and Auditors' Busy Season. *Behavioral Research in*

Accounting. 29. 10.2308/bria-51757.

Ilies, R., Keeney, J., & Scott, B. A. (2011). Work–family interpersonal capitalization:

Sharing positive work events at home. *Organizational Behavior and*

Human Decision Processes, 114(2), 115–126.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2010.10.008>

Ilies, R., Liu, X.-Y., Liu, Y., & Zheng, X. (2017). Why do employees have better family

lives when they are highly engaged at work? *Journal of Applied*

Psychology, 102(6), 956–970. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000211>

Jimenez, P., & Dunkl, A. (2017). The buffering effect of workplace resources on the

relationship between the areas of worklife and burnout. *Frontiers in*

Psychology, 8, Article 12. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00012>

Kaplan, R. M., & Kronick, R. G. (2006). Marital status and longevity in the United States

population. *Journal of epidemiology and community health*, 60(9), 760–

765. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jech.2005.037606>

- Kerksieck P, Bauer GF and Brauchli R (2019) Personal and Social Resources at Work: Reciprocal Relations Between Crafting for Social Job Resources, Social Support at Work and Psychological Capital. *Front. Psychol.* 10:2632. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02632
- Khan CM, Iida M, Stephens MAP, Fekete EM, Druley JA, Greene KA. Spousal support following knee surgery: Roles of self-efficacy and perceived emotional responsiveness. *Rehabilitation Psychology.* 2009;54:28–32.
- Kiecolt-Glaser, J. K., Preacher, K. J., MacCallum, R. C., Atkinson, C., Malarkey, W. B., & Glaser, R. (2003). Chronic stress and age-related increases in the proinflammatory cytokine IL-6. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 100(15), 9090–9095. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1531903100>
- Kouros, C. D., Papp, L. M., & Cummings, E. M. (2008). Interrelations and moderators of longitudinal links between marital satisfaction and depressive symptoms among couples in established relationships. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 22(5), 667–677. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.22.5.667>
- Kritikos, T. K., DeVoe, E. R., & Emmert-Aronson, B. (2019). The effect of a parenting intervention on relationship quality of recently deployed military service members and their partners. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 89(2), 170–180. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ort0000344>
- Kırimer-Aydınlı, F. (2021). Summary Perceived Partner Responsiveness in Personal and Relational Contexts: A Review Study.

- Langston C. (1994). Capitalizing on and coping with daily-life events: Expressive responses to positive events. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 67:1112–1125. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.67.6.1112.
- Lavassani & Movahedi, Kayvan Miri & Bahar (2014). "DEVELOPMENTS IN THEORIES AND MEASURES OF WORK-FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS: FROM CONFLICT TO BALANCE" (PDF). *Contemporary Research on Organization Management and Administration*. 2: 2335–7959.
- Layous, K., & Nelson-Coffey, S. K. (2021). The effect of perceived social support on personal resources following minor adversity: An experimental investigation of belonging affirmation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 47(7), 1152–1168. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167220961270>
- Lazarus R. S., Folkman S. (1984). *Stress, Appraisal, and Coping*, Springer, New York.
- Leary, M. R. (2005). Sociometer theory and the pursuit of relational value: Getting to the root of self-esteem. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 16(1), 75–111. doi:10.1080/10463280540000007
- Lee, J. D., O’Neill, A. S., Denning, E. C., Mohr, C. D., & Hammer, L. B. (2020). A dyadic examination of drinking behaviors within military-connected couples. *Military Behavioral Health*, 1-14.
- Lim, M. H., & Gleeson, J. F. (2014). Social connectedness across the psychosis spectrum: current issues and future directions for interventions in

loneliness. *Frontiers in psychiatry*, 5, 154.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyt.2014.00154>

Lizano, E. (2015) Examining the Impact of Job Burnout on the Health and Well-Being of Human Service Workers: A Systematic Review and Synthesis, *Human Service Organizations: Management, Leadership & Governance*, 39:3, 167-181, DOI: [10.1080/23303131.2015.1014122](https://doi.org/10.1080/23303131.2015.1014122)

Logan, J. M., & Cobb, R. J. (2016). Benefits of capitalization in newlyweds: Predicting marital satisfaction and depression symptoms. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 35(2), 87–106.

<https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.2016.35.2.87>

Lo Presti, A., Törnroos, K., & Pluviano, S. (2020). “Because I am worth it and employable”: A cross-cultural study on self-esteem and employability orientation as personal resources for psychological well-being at work. *Current Psychology*, 39(5), 1785-1797.

MacDonald, W. (2003) The impact of job demands and workload on stress and fatigue, *Australian Psychologist*, 38:2, 102-117, DOI:

[10.1080/00050060310001707107](https://doi.org/10.1080/00050060310001707107)

Mansfield, A., Kaufman J., Marshall, S., Gaynes, B., Morrissey, J., Engel, C. (2010). Deployment and the use of mental health services among U.S. Army wives. *N Engl J Med*. 362(2):101-10920071699

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burn-out. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 397–422.

- Maslach, C. and Jackson, S. E. (1986). *Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual*, Consulting Psychologists Press, Palo Alto, CA.
- Mayo Clinic (2019). Chronic stress puts your health at risk. *Mayo Clinic*.
<https://www.mayoclinic.org/healthy-lifestyle/stress-management/in-depth/stress/art-20046037>
- Mcallister, Charn & Mackey, Jeremy & Hackney, Kaylee & Perrewé, Pamela. (2015). From Combat to Khakis: An Exploratory Examination of Job Stress With Veterans. *Military Psychology*. 27. 93-107. 10.1037/mil0000068.
- McAllister, S. J., Vincent, A., Hassett, A. L., Whipple, M. O., Oh, T. H., Benzo, R. P., & Toussaint, L. L. (2015). Psychological Resilience, Affective Mechanisms and Symptom Burden in a Tertiary-care Sample of Patients with Fibromyalgia. *Stress and health : journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*, 31(4), 299–305.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2555>
- McDougall, L., & Drummond, P. D. (2010). Personal resources moderate the relationship between work stress and psychological strain of submariners. *Military Psychology*, 22(4), 385–398.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/08995605.2010.513231>
- McGregor J. 2015. The problems veterans face in the professional workplace.
<https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/on-leadership/wp/2015/11/11/the-problems-veterans-face-in-the-professional-workplace/>

- Mikulincer, M., Florian, V., & Solomon, Z. (1995). Marital intimacy, family support, and secondary traumatization: A study of wives of veterans with combat stress reaction. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping*, 8(3), 203-213.
- Mikulincer, M., & Shaver, P. R. (2007). Attachment in adulthood: Structure, dynamics, and change. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Mockało, Z., & Widerszal-Bazyl, M. (2021). Role of job and personal resources in the appraisal of job demands as challenges and hindrances. *PloS one*, 16(3), e0248148. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0248148>
- NIOSH (2021). STRESS ...AT WORK. *U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES*. <https://www.cdc.gov/niosh/docs/99-101/pdfs/99-101.pdf?id=10.26616/NIOSH PUB99101>
- O'Neill, A. S., Mohr, C. D., Bodner, T. E., & Hammer, L. B. (2020). Perceived partner responsiveness, pain, and sleep: A dyadic study of military-connected couples. *Health Psychology*, 39(12), 1089–1099. <https://doi.org/10.1037/hea0001035>
- Otto, A. K., Laurenceau, J.-P., Siegel, S. D., & Belcher, A. J. (2015). Capitalizing on everyday positive events uniquely predicts daily intimacy and well-being in couples coping with breast cancer. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 29(1), 69–79. <https://doi.org/10.1037/fam0000042>
- Ozbay F, Johnson DC, Dimoulas E, Morgan CA, Charney D, Southwick S. (2007). Social support and resilience to stress: from neurobiology to clinical practice. *Psychiatry (Edgmont)*. 2007;4(5):35-40.

- Pagani, A. F., Parise, M., Donato, S., Gable, S. L., & Schoebi, D. (2020). If You Shared My Happiness, You Are Part of Me: Capitalization and the Experience of Couple Identity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 46(2), 258–269. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167219854449>
- Peters, B. J., Reis, H. T., & Gable, S. L. (2018). Making the good even better: A review and theoretical model of interpersonal capitalization. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 12(7), Article e12408. <https://doi.org/10.1111/spc3.12407>
- Pflieger, J. C., Richardson, S. M., Stander, V. A., & Allen, E. S. (2022). Risk and protective factors predictive of marital instability in U.S. military couples. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 36(5), 791–802. <https://doi.org/10.1037/fam0000949>
- Pietromonaco, P. R., & Collins, N. L. (2017). Interpersonal mechanisms linking close relationships to health. *American Psychologist*, 72(6), 531–542. <https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0000129>
- Poelmans, Steven & Stepanova, Olena & Masuda, Aline. (2008). Chapter 8. Positive Spillover Between Personal and Professional Life. 10.1016/B978-012372574-5.50011-9.
- Pulkki-Råback, L., Elovainio, M., Virtanen, M., Kivimäki, M., Hintsanen, M., Hintsanen, T., Jokela, M., Puttonen, S., Joensuu, M., Lipsanen, J., Raitakari, O. T., & Keltikangas-Järvinen, L. (2016). Job Demands and Job Control as Predictors of Depressive Symptoms: Moderating Effects of Negative

Childhood Socioemotional Experiences. *Stress and health : journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*, 32(4), 383–394.

<https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2632>

Reeves, A., Stuckler, D., McKee, M., Gunnell, D., Chang, S. S., & Basu, S. (2012).

Increase in state suicide rates in the USA during economic recession.

Lancet (London, England), 380(9856), 1813–1814.

[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(12\)61910-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(12)61910-2)

Reis, H. T., & Gable, S. L. (2003). Toward a positive psychology of relationships.

Flourishing: The positive person and the good life, 129-159.

Reis, H. T., Sheldon, K. M., Gable, S. L., Roscoe, J., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Daily Well-

Being: The Role of Autonomy, Competence, and Relatedness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26(4), 419–435.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167200266002>

Reis, H. T., Smith, S. M., Carmichael, C. L., Caprariello, P. A., Tsai, F.-F., Rodrigues,

A., & Maniaci, M. R. (2010). Are you happy for me? How sharing positive events with others provides personal and interpersonal benefits.

Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 99(2), 311–329.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0018344>

Richardson, M., McEwan, K., Maratos, F. *et al.* Joy and Calm: How an Evolutionary

Functional Model of Affect Regulation Informs Positive Emotions in

Nature. *Evolutionary Psychological Science* 2, 308–320 (2016).

- Robins, L. N., & Regier, D. A. (1991). *Psychiatric Disorders in America: The Epidemiologic Catchment Area Study*. New York: The Free Press.
- Rodrigues, H., Cobucci, R., Oliveira, A., Cabral, J. V., Medeiros, L., Gurgel, K., Souza, T., & Gonçalves, A. K. (2018). Burnout syndrome among medical residents: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *PloS one*, *13*(11), e0206840. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0206840>
- Romero, D. H., Riggs, S. A., Raiche, E., McGuffin, J., & Captari, L. E. (2020). Attachment, coping, and psychological symptoms among military veterans and active duty personnel. *Anxiety, stress, and coping*, *33*(3), 326–341. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10615806.2020.1723008>
- Rosse, J. G., Boss, R. W., Johnson, A. E., & Crown, D. F. (1991). Conceptualizing the role of self-esteem in the burnout process. *Group & Organization Studies*, *16*(4), 428–451. <https://doi.org/10.1177/105960119101600406>
- Rostami, A., Ghazinour, M., & Richter, J. (2013). Marital satisfaction: the differential impact of social support dependent on situation and gender in medical staff in Iran. *Global journal of health science*, *5*(4), 151–164. <https://doi.org/10.5539/gjhs.v5n4p151>
- Ruini, C., Ottolini F, Tomba E, Belaise C, Albieri E, Visani D, et al. School intervention for promoting psychological well-being in adolescence. *J Behav Ther Exp Psychiatry*. 2009; 40(4):522–32. Epub 2009/08/18. doi: 10.1016/j.jbtep.2009.07.002 PMID: 19683703.

- Sapolsky, R. M. (1994). Why zebras don't get ulcers: A guide to stress, stress related diseases, and coping. W.H. Freeman.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Taris, T. W. (2014). A critical review of the job demands-resources model: Implications for improving work and health. In G. F. Bauer & O. Hämmig (Eds.), *Bridging occupational, organizational and public health: A transdisciplinary approach* (pp. 43–68). Springer Science + Business Media. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-5640-3_4
- Schetter, C. D., & Dolbier, C. (2011). Resilience in the Context of Chronic Stress and Health in Adults. *Social and personality psychology compass*, 5(9), 634–652. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2011.00379.x>
- Schrager, A. (2017). Only one in five people take up this incredibly generous pension... *Quartz*. Retrieved from: <https://qz.com/929153/only-one-in-five-people-take-up-this-incredibly-generous-pension-to-retire-at-40/>
- Schuetz, A. (1945). The homecomer. *American Journal of Sociology*, 50(5), 369–376. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1086/219654>
- Sciangula, A. & Morry, M. (2009) Self-Esteem and Perceived Regard: How I See Myself Affects My Relationship Satisfaction, *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 149:2, 143-158, DOI: [10.3200/SOCP.149.2.143-158](https://doi.org/10.3200/SOCP.149.2.143-158)
- Selcuk, E., Karagobek, A. B., & Gunaydin, G. (2018). Responsiveness as a key predictor of happiness: Mechanisms and unanswered questions. In M. Demir & N. Sümer (Eds.), *Close relationships and happiness across cultures* (pp. 1–

18). Springer International Publishing/Springer Nature.

https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-89663-2_1

Shallcross, S. L., Howland, M., Bemis, J., Simpson, J. A., & Frazier, P. (2011). Not “capitalizing” on social capitalization interactions: The role of attachment insecurity. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 25(1), 77–85.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021876>

Shorey, R. C., & Lakey, B. (2011). Perceived and capitalization support are substantially similar: implications for social support theory. *Personality & social psychology bulletin*, 37(8), 1068–1079.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167211406507>

Sironi, E. Job satisfaction as a determinant of employees’ optimal well-being in an instrumental variable approach. *Qual Quant* 53, 1721–1742 (2019).

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-019-00835-3>

Smith, B. N., Taverna, E. C., Fox, A. B., Schnurr, P. P., Matteo, R. A., & Vogt, D. (2017). The role of PTSD, depression, and alcohol misuse symptom severity in linking deployment stressor exposure and postmilitary work and family outcomes in male and female veterans. *Clinical Psychological Science*, 5, 664 – 682. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/2167702617705672>.

Stanton, S., Selcuk, E., Farrell, A. K., Slatcher, R. B., & Ong, A. D. (2019). Perceived Partner Responsiveness, Daily Negative Affect Reactivity, and All-Cause Mortality: A 20-Year Longitudinal Study. *Psychosomatic medicine*, 81(1), 7–15. <https://doi.org/10.1097/PSY.0000000000000618>

- SteelFisher GK, Zaslavsky AM, Blendon RJ. Health-related impact of deployment extensions on spouses of active duty Army personnel. *Military Med.* 2008;173(3):221–9.
- Steptoe, A., Owen, N., Kunz-Ebrecht, S. R., & Brydon, L. (2004). Loneliness and neuroendocrine, cardiovascular, and inflammatory stress responses in middle-aged men and women. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*, 29(5), 593–611. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0306-4530\(03\)00086-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0306-4530(03)00086-6)
- Stone, C., & Stone, D. L. (2015). Factors affecting hiring decisions about veterans. *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(1), 68–79. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2014.06.003>
- Stone C.B., Lengnick-Hall M., Muldoon J. (2018). Do stereotypes of veterans affect chances of employment? *The Psychologist-Manager Journal.*;21:1–33.
- Sullivan, K. T., & Davila, J. (Eds.) (2010). Support processes in intimate relationships. Oxford, UK: *OxfordUniversity Press*.
- Tabachnick, B.G., & Fidell, L.S. (2007). Using Multivariate Statistics, 5th ed., Pearson Education, Boston. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2006-03883-000>
- Teclaw, Robert & Osatuke, Katerine & Ramsel, Dee. (2016). Workplace Perceptions of Veterans and Nonveterans in the Department of Veterans Affairs. *Military Psychology*. 28. 10.1037/mil0000126.
- Thoits, P. A. (2011). Mechanisms linking social ties and support to physical and mental health.

- Thuen F. (1997). Social support after the loss on an infant child: a long-term perspective. *Scandinavian journal of psychology*, 38(2), 103–110.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9450.00015>
- Tremblay, Maxime A., & Messervey, Deanna. (2011). The Job Demands-Resources model: further evidence for the buffering effect of personal resources. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37(2), 10-19. Retrieved August 18, 2022, from
http://www.scielo.org.za/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S2071-07632011000200002&lng=en&tlng=es.
- Trougakos J. P. , Hideg I. (2009). Momentary work recovery: The role of within-day work breaks. In Sonnentag S. Perrewe P. L. Ganster D. C. (Eds.), *Current perspectives in job-stress recovery*: 37–84. Bingley, UK: Emerald Publishing. [Google Scholar](#)
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2020). *Civilian labor force, by age, sex, race, and ethnicity*. U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics website:
<https://www.bls.gov/emp/tables/civilian-labor-force-summary.htm>.
- U.S. Office of Personnel Management’s Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey. (2017). Retrieved from: <https://www.fedshirevets.gov/>
- Vaillant, G. E. (2012). *Triumphs of experience: The men of the Harvard Grant Study*. Cambridge, Mass: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.
- Van Steenbergen, E. F., Kluwer, E. S., & Karney, B. R. (2011). Workload and the trajectory of marital satisfaction in newlyweds: job satisfaction, gender,

and parental status as moderators. *Journal of family psychology : JFP : journal of the Division of Family Psychology of the American Psychological Association (Division 43)*, 25(3), 345–355.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0023653>

Vest, B. M., Heavey, S. C., Homish, D. L., & Homish, G. G. (2017). Marital Satisfaction, Family Support, and Pre-Deployment Resiliency Factors Related to Mental Health Outcomes for Reserve and National Guard Soldiers. *Military behavioral health*, 5(4), 313–323.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/21635781.2017.1343694>

Whisman, M. A., Gilmour, A. L., & Salinger, J. M. (2018). Marital satisfaction and mortality in the United States adult population. *Health Psychology*, 37(11), 1041–1044. <https://doi.org/10.1037/hea0000677>

Wilson, G., Hill, M., M, Kiernan, M. (2018). Loneliness and social isolation of military veterans: systematic narrative review, *Occupational Medicine*, 68(9), p. 600–609, <https://doi.org/10.1093/occmed/kqy160>

Woods, S., Lambert, N., Brown, P., Fincham, F., & May, R. (2015). “I’m so excited for you!” How an enthusiastic responding intervention enhances close relationships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 32, 24–40.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407514523545>.

World Health Organization (2019). Burn-out an "occupational phenomenon": International Classification of Diseases. *World Health Organization*.
<https://www.who.int/news/item/28-05-2019-burn-out-an-occupational->

phenomenon-international-classification-of-

diseases#:~:text=%E2%80%9CBurn%2Dout%20is%20a%20syndrome,rel

ated%20to%20one's%20job%3B%20and

Wu, F., Ren, Z., Wang, Q., He, M., Xiong, W., Ma, G. Fan, X. Guo, X., Liu G. & Zhang,

X. (2021) The relationship between job stress and job burnout: the

mediating effects of perceived social support and job satisfaction,

Psychology, Health & Medicine, 26:2, 204-211, DOI:

10.1080/13548506.2020.1778750

Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A.B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W.B. (2007). The Role of

Personal Resources in the Job Demands-Resources Model. *International*

Journal of Stress Management, 14, 121-141.

Zamir, O., Gewirtz, A. H., Cheng, C. H., Zhang, N., & Lavee, Y. (2020). Psychological

distress and communication quality in military couples after deployment

to war. *Journal of family psychology : JFP : journal of the Division of*

Family Psychology of the American Psychological Association (Division

43), 34(4), 383–391. <https://doi.org/10.1037/fam0000589>

Zlotnick, C., Franklin, C. L., & Zimmerman, M. (2002). Does “subthreshold”

posttraumatic stress disorder have any clinical relevance? *Comprehensive*

Psychiatry, 43, 413–419. 10.1053/comp.2002.35900

Zohar, D. (1997). Predicting Burnout with a Hassle-Based Measure of Role Demands.

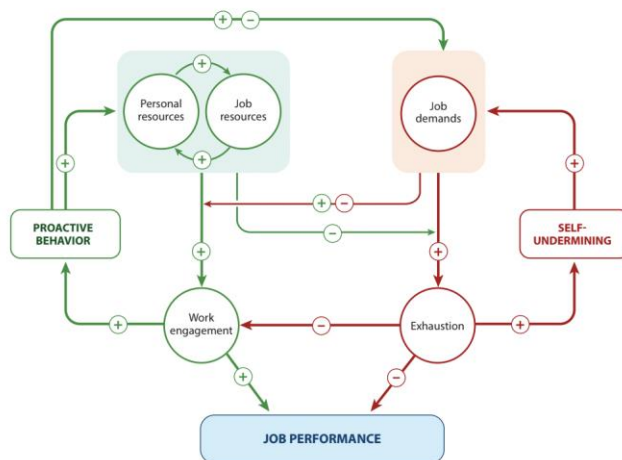
Journal of Organizational Behavior, 18(2), 101–115.

<http://www.jstor.org/stable/3100244>

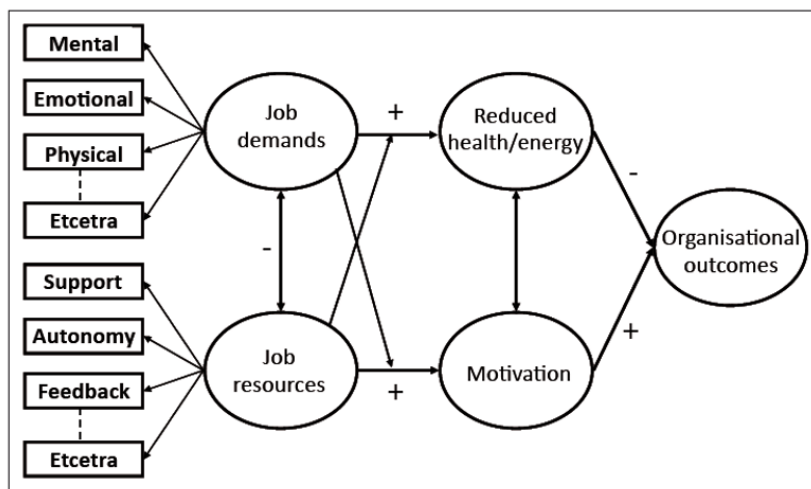
Appendix A: Theoretical Models

Appendix A1: Select Versions of the Job-Demand Resources Model

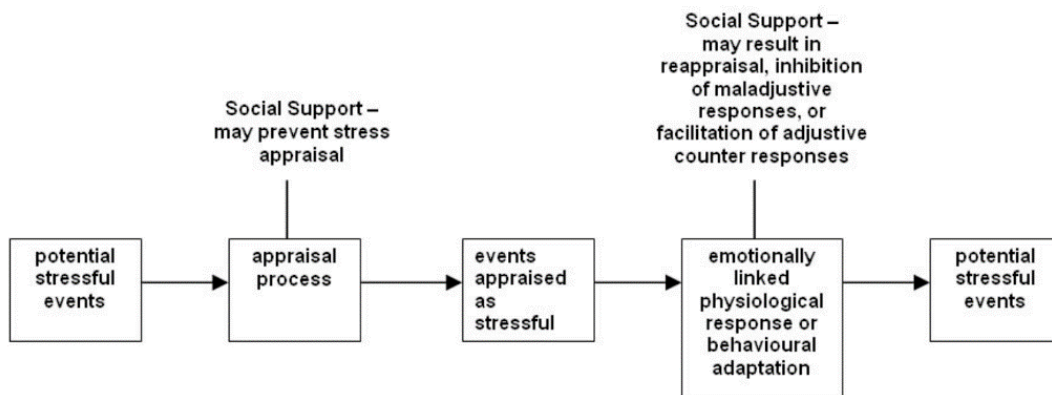
Bakker et al. (2023)



Xanthopoulou et al. (2007)



Appendix A2: Stress-buffering hypothesis by Cohen and Wills (1985)



Appendix B: Study Measures

Appendix B1: Perceived Stress Scale - 4-items (Cohen & Williamson, 1988)

Instructions: The questions in this scale ask you about your feelings and thoughts during the PAST 30 DAYS. In each case, please indicate how often you felt or thought a certain way on the scale below.

Variable Name	Text	Factor
stress1R_v	In the last month, how often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?	F1
stress2_v	In the last month, how often have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?	F2
stress3_v	In the last month, how often have you felt that things were going your way?	F2
stress4Rx_sp	In the last month, how often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?	F1

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Almost never
- 3 = Sometimes
- 4 = Fairly often
- 5 = Very often

Appendix B2: Perceived Responsiveness to Capitalization Attempts (Gable et al., 2004)

Instructions: The questions in this scale ask you about your feelings and thoughts during the PAST 30 DAYS. In each case, please indicate how often you felt or thought a certain way on the scale below.

Variable Name	Text
prpe2	Partner response positive event: My spouse/partner pointed out the potential problems to this event (Active-Destructive)
prpe3	Partner response positive event: My spouse/partner said little, but I knew he/she was happy for me (Passive-Constructive)
prpe4	Partner response positive event: My spouse/partner seemed disinterested (Passive-Destructive)

- 1 - Strongly disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 3 - Neutral
- 4 - Agree
- 5 - Strongly agree

Appendix B3: Role Hassle Index, Role Overload subscale (Zohar, 1997)

Instructions: The questions in this scale ask you about your feelings and thoughts during the PAST 24 HOURS. In each case, please indicate how often you felt or thought a certain way on the scale below.

Variable Name	Text
rs7	Role Stress: Felt under time pressure, had difficulty due to insufficient time
rs8	Role Stress: Had too much work—too many things to take care of
rs9	Role Stress: Had to stay too many extra hours or do inconvenient shift-work schedules
OVERLOAD	Role Overload: Composite

- 0 - N/A
- 1 - Not Disruptive
- 2 - Slightly Disruptive
- 3 - Quite Disruptive
- 4 - Very Disruptive