THESIS

EMPLOYEE NONWORK SUPPORT-MARSHALING: SCALE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION

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ABSTRACT

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Supervisor support for employees' nonwork lives positively impacts a variety of outcomes for both employees and organizations. Despite growing evidence for the importance of family-supportive supervisors, the current literature fails to fully capture the supervisor-employee support process by neglecting the role of the employee. To begin addressing this gap, the current study aimed to develop and validate a self-report scale to measure the behaviors that employees perform in order to manage the support they receive from supervisors for nonwork issues. Specifically, the scale draws on support-marshaling literature to capture direct and indirect behaviors that are enacted either to increase support (i.e., approach behaviors) or to decrease nonsupport (i.e., avoid behaviors). Thus, the scale uses 16 items to measure four dimensions of employee support-marshaling: direct-approach, direct-avoid, indirect-approach, and indirect-avoid. Results from an MTurk sample provide initial evidence of reliability (i.e. internal consistency) and validity (i.e., appropriate content, internal structure, and relationships with other variables).

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CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

As a result of current trends, such as longer working hours, more dual-earner households, and increased access to technology, the modern workforce frequently experiences work conflicting with nonwork life and vice versa (e.g., Allen & Martin, 2017; Milligan, 2016). The experiences of receiving an email after work hours, deciding how to handle a sick child who cannot go to school, or debating whether or not one should disclose a health concern to a supervisor are not uncommon. Recognizing these issues, scholars and popular press authors have suggested that organizations and supervisors should be doing more to support their employees as they manage their work and nonwork responsibilities (e.g., Ellard, 2016; Fondas, 2014; Ford, 2017; Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011a; Major & Morganson, 2011). However, scholars have focused almost exclusively on top-down processes (e.g., supervisor support, organizational culture change) that assume the employee is a passive receiver of support, leading some, such as Kossek and colleagues (2011a), to call for more research examining the ways employees actively contribute to this process and improve their own work-nonwork management.

Some research has evaluated individual employee efforts for reducing work-nonwork conflict, such as mindfulness interventions (e.g., Kiburz, Allen, & French, 2017) and broad coping strategies (e.g., Baltes, & Heydens-Gahir, 2003). Despite this work, we still lack scholarly research on other interactive (i.e., between the employee and the organization) bottom-up processes that influence work-nonwork conflict. However, the popular press has directly addressed this. Specifically, some authors have attempted to help employees express their work-nonwork concerns and support needs upward by presenting suggestions or steps for approaching one's boss (e.g., Jackson, 2016; Marcin, 2014; Parker, 2018). These recommendations may not

be empirically supported, but importantly, they highlight the prevalence of two issues: supervisors do not always know how or when to support employees, and employees do not always know how to communicate their needs to supervisors.

In the organizational sciences, there has been an abundance of research on social support in the workplace and its impact on various individual and organizational outcomes, including work-nonwork conflict. Workplace social support is defined as the extent to which individuals feel that their well-being is valued by work sources (e.g., coworkers, supervisor, upper management, organization) and perceive that those work sources help to maintain and improve their well-being (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011b). Specifically for managing and minimizing work-nonwork conflict, organizations and supervisors play a unique role by providing various types of support for employees, including emotional support (e.g., listening to concerns, showing care), instrumental support (e.g., rescheduling meetings, connecting an employee to resources), and a family-supportive climate (i.e., the extent to which employees perceive day-to-day organizational practices and policies as supportive of their nonwork lives; Allen, 2001) (French, Dumani, Allen, & Shockley, 2018).

For decades, scholars have recognized that the social support process is a two-way interaction requiring input from both the support giver and the support receiver (e.g., Barbee, 1990; Eckenrode & Wethington, 1990; Shumaker & Brownell, 1984). However, the organizational science literature has yet to incorporate the dual-participant nature of the support process into our understanding of nonwork-supportive supervisors. Thus far, this literature has focused on identifying the types of support that supervisors provide (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009; Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007) and training supervisors to be more supportive (e.g., Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, & Zimmerman, 2011;

Odle-Dusseau, Hammer, Crain, & Bodner, 2016). Despite the acceleration of research into how family-supportive supervisors can improve employee outcomes, we lack a full understanding of the support process without acknowledging and examining the role that employees play. The current study aimed to develop and validate a measure of *employee support-marshaling behaviors*, or the ways in which employees attempt to manage the nonwork support they receive from their supervisors. Specifically, the measured construct is defined as employee efforts to communicate support needs related to nonwork issues to a supervisor, with the goal of increasing supportive supervisor behaviors or decreasing nonsupportive supervisor behaviors. The development of this scale contributes to the literature and intervention efforts that aim to mitigate work-nonwork conflict and improve the support that employees receive for their nonwork lives.

Theoretical Contributions

The current study makes three specific theoretical contributions to the work-nonwork literature. First, I connect the literature on support-seeking with the literature on work-nonwork support and family-supportive supervisor behavior (FSSB; i.e., acknowledging employees' nonwork roles and helping employees as they manage their work and nonwork demands; Hammer et al., 2009). Most of the research to date on support-seeking examines close personal relationships outside of the workplace (e.g., Barbee, Gulley, & Cunningham, 1990, Collins & Feeney, 2000; Iida, Seidman, Shrout, Fujita, & Bolger, 2008), often with the focus of support being health concerns (e.g., Derlega et al., 2003; Faw, 2014; Wang, Kraut, & Levine, 2015). Some studies have qualitatively categorized support-seeking behavior (e.g., Trees, 2005; Wang et al., 2015; Yankeelov et al., 1995), and others have attempted to quantitatively measure support-seeking behavior (e.g., Derlega et al., 2003; Dunkel-Schetter, Feinstein, & Call, 1986). However, individuals seek support differently depending on a number of factors, including their

relationship with the potential support provider and the type of support desired or needed (e.g., Barbee, 1990; Eckenrode & Wethington, 1990). Considering this, our current understanding of support-seeking that has evolved out of the communications and social psychology literatures might not apply fully to other types of relationships or support needs. Support-seeking has yet to be understood in the context of supervisor-employee relationships regarding work-nonwork support.

Additionally, although our knowledge of how work-nonwork support is *provided* is substantial, our understanding of how work-nonwork support is *sought* remains underdeveloped. Scholars have differentiated the types of nonwork-specific support that supervisors provide (e.g., emotional, instrumental; Hammer et al., 2009) and have identified some factors that predict supervisors providing support (e.g., a family-supportive organization, leadership qualities, employee-supervisor demographic similarities; Crain & Stevens, 2018). However, the role of employees and the behaviors they engage in to elicit this support from supervisors remains mostly unexamined. Bradshaw (2014) identified the need to measure employee actions and developed a scale of work-family help-seeking behavior. In contrast to that scale, the proposed scale differs in three ways. First, the proposed scale only refers to supervisors as opposed to combining supervisors and coworkers because support-seeking may look different within these different relationships. Second, the proposed scale refers to "nonwork" more broadly and inclusively as opposed to using family-specific language and scenarios. Third, the proposed scale is intended to differentiate between different strategies in addition to measuring an overall frequency of support-seeking behavior. Being able to measure and examine employee behaviors that initiate or modify the support process will expand our existing theories about family-supportive supervisor behavior to include employees as active support-managers, and bridging

these literatures will enable us to more fully understand the work-nonwork support process. To address this gap, I developed and tested a multidimensional quantitative measure of support-seeking behaviors between employees and supervisors for nonwork issues.

Second, support-seeking is evaluated as an employee-level predictor of FSSB. FSSB is related to a variety of positive individual and organizational outcomes, and in order to understand how, when, and why FSSB is likely to occur, scholars have specifically called for an expansion of the FSSB nomological network to include employee-level antecedents, including support-seeking behavior (Crain & Stevens, 2018). The only employee-level predictors of FSSB that have been studied are demographic-based, with women reporting less FSSB than men and employees reporting more FSSB when their gender, race, or parental status match that of their supervisor (Crain & Stevens, 2018). The social support process is dyadic and mutually influenced (Collins & Feeney, 2000), but the current literature lacks a full understanding of this process within the workplace by not considering employee-level antecedents. In addition to developing a measure of support-seeking, I situated support-seeking within the nomological net of FSSB.

Third, I reviewed various taxonomies and measures of support-seeking that have not yet been applied to the supervisor-employee relationship and identified the specific strategies that employees use to communicate support needs to their supervisors. Specifically, I adapted the communications literature on support-marshaling (i.e., attempting to increase supportive behaviors and decrease nonsupportive behaviors; e.g., Crowley, 2016) to the employee-supervisor relationship, resulting in a scale that measures these behaviors. To date, support-marshaling has not been applied to work relationships and has not been measured quantitatively. By incorporating behaviors aimed at both increasing support and decreasing nonsupport, the

proposed taxonomy accounts for a wider variety of support-related interactions than support-seeking alone. Identifying these categories of support-marshaling behavior will allow future researchers to understand the circumstances under which employees use different strategies and how those strategies influence the support received as well as more distal outcomes of the support process.

Thus, I developed a nonwork support-marshaling scale to contribute to the work-nonwork literature and inform practice. Before I describe the current study in detail, I first provide an in-depth and integrative literature review to assist the reader in understanding the key concepts, formative theoretical frameworks, and empirical research that has informed the development of, and need for, my support-marshaling scale. Specifically, I introduce the reader to work-nonwork conflict, then describe the history of social support research broadly and the importance of supervisor support for addressing employee work-nonwork conflict. Lastly, I discuss recent support-seeking and support-marshaling approaches from the communication and social psychology literatures that I apply to the novel context of supervisor-employee interactions. With this background in place, I then orient the reader to my current study and hypotheses.

Background Literature Informing the Development of a Support-Marshaling Scale

Work-Nonwork Conflict

Work-nonwork conflict occurs when the demands of one domain (e.g., work) interfere with meeting the demands of the other domain (e.g., nonwork; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Conflict can arise in regard to time (i.e., time spent in one role makes it difficult to fulfill other roles), strain (i.e., negative physical and emotional experiences from one role make it difficult to fulfill other roles), or behavior (i.e., actions performed in one role are not compatible with other roles, making it difficult to fulfill the latter; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Conflict is directional;

work can hinder one's ability to meet demands outside of work and nonwork roles can hinder one's ability to meet demands at work. Although the research in this area has historically referred primarily to "work-family" constructs, scholars have recognized the need for more inclusive terms, such as "work-nonwork," to capture the various roles and responsibilities that employees may have outside of work, including volunteer work, exercise and health behaviors, friendships, political engagement, and hobbies (e.g., Fisher, Bulger, & Smith, 2009; Voydanoff, 2006). Because much of the research uses "family" and "nonwork" interchangeably, and nonwork encompasses family, I exclusively use the term "nonwork" in the remainder of this document in order to holistically refer to the roles and responsibilities of employees outside of paid work.

Based on meta-analytic results, employees experience conflict to varying degrees depending on a number of factors, including characteristics of their job (e.g., task variety, job autonomy), personality (e.g., locus of control, negative affect), work role stressors (e.g., role ambiguity, time demands), and family role stressors (e.g., parental demands, number of children) (Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011). However, social support is an important resource that can help mitigate the occurrence and effects of work-nonwork conflict (Kossek et al., 2011b).

Social Support

Social support has been defined in different ways, but most scholarly sources trace their definitions back to Cobb (1976), who described social support as perceptions that one is valued and cared for as part of a social network, or to House (1981), who described social support as a global construct encompassing the emotional concern, instrumental aid (i.e., behaviors that directly aid the individual in meeting demands), information, and appraisal (i.e., social information used to evaluate the self) provided to a person by others. Taken together, the two

core aspects of social support are 1) feeling valued and cared for and 2) having access to help (Kossek et al., 2011b). Having social support is related to various health outcomes, including less depression, alcoholism, and recovery time as well as better sleep, mental health, and psychological adjustment to stressful health conditions (e.g., Cobb, 1976; Harandi, Taghinasab, & Nayeri, 2017; Kent de Grey, Uchino, Trettevik, Cronan, & Hogan, 2018; Taylor, 2010). Social support can come from many different sources, including friends, family members, neighbors, coworkers, or a romantic partner (e.g., Schumaker & Brownell, 1984; Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988).

Workplace social support. For the purpose of mitigating work-nonwork conflict, social support from work sources is an especially important resource (Kossek et al., 2011b). Workplace social support is the combined support that one receives from multiple work sources (e.g., organization, coworkers, supervisor; Kossek et al., 2011b). The literature on workplace social support has been focused on questions regarding support source (e.g., coworker, supervisor, organization, nonwork), support form (i.e., measured as support behaviors or perceptions of support), support type (e.g., instrumental, emotional) (French et al., 2018), support formality (i.e., the extent to which support is formally implemented and obtained; Behson, 2005), and support content (e.g., general, work-nonwork-specific; Kossek et al., 2011b).

Workplace social support is beneficial in a variety of situations, including employees experiencing changes at work (e.g., socialization and training; Chiaburu, Van Dam, & Hutchins, 2010; Fisher, 1985), and it is related to employees being more satisfied with and committed to their jobs (Ng & Sorensen, 2008), as well as less likely to leave their organization (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007). Importantly for the work-nonwork interface, workplace social support is also

related to decreased work stress outcomes (Ganster, Fusilier, & Mayes, 1986; Halbesleben, 2006; Viswesvaran et al., 1999) and, more specifically, work-nonwork conflict (French et al., 2018; Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Regarding general work stress, one meta-analysis demonstrated that social support can reduce experiences of work-related strain, reduce the strength of workplace stressors, and moderate the relationship between stressors and strain, such that the effects of stressors on strain outcomes are mitigated (Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). In addition to its relationships with more general stressors and strain, workplace social support is a particularly important resource for dealing with work-nonwork stressors (Kossek et al., 2011b).

Types of nonwork support. Workplace support for employees' nonwork lives can occur in a variety of ways and, importantly, not all forms and sources of support are equally impactful. Regarding support content, work-nonwork-specific forms of support are more strongly related to work-nonwork outcomes than general forms of support (Kossek et al., 2011b). Regarding form, some evidence suggests that informal types of support (e.g., support from managers, family-supportive culture) are more strongly predictive of employee outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, stress, work-family conflict) than formal types of support (e.g., policies and resources; Behson, 2005). Regarding sources, support from work sources tends to be more strongly related to work-nonwork conflict than support from sources such as friends or family (e.g., French et al., 2018; Muse & Pichler, 2011). Additionally, according to meta-analytic results, general supervisor support is more strongly related to work outcomes than general coworker support (Ng & Sorensen, 2008), and when comparing the impacts of supervisor work-nonwork support, support from family members, and work-nonwork benefits, supervisor work-nonwork support is the strongest predictor of work-nonwork conflict (Muse & Pichler, 2011). Therefore, some evidence

indicates that informal work-nonwork-specific support from supervisors is a particularly important support resource for employee work-nonwork outcomes.

Interestingly, a recent meta-analysis indicated that broader sources of support are more strongly related to work-nonwork conflict than supervisor or coworker support (French et al., 2018). Broad sources of support are those that encompass a more comprehensive collection of multiple types and sources of support; measures of support from broad sources (e.g., organizational support) capture more opportunities for support that may relate to work-nonwork conflict compared to measures of support from narrow sources (e.g., supervisor support). French and colleagues (2018) argue that broader sources of support may be more influential when respondents consider retrospective, aggregated evaluations of work-nonwork conflict (which is how most of the included studies measured conflict), but that specific sources of support may be more influential when considering specific episodes of work-nonwork conflict (i.e., singular incidents of conflict, such as a doctor's appointment occurring at the same time as a proposed work meeting). Compared to broad support sources, supervisors or coworkers can provide more targeted instrumental support to alleviate the conflict (e.g., covering a shift, rescheduling a meeting, rearranging deadlines). Therefore, particularly for specific instances of work-nonwork conflict or work-nonwork-related strain, supervisor support provides a crucial resource for employees when managing the work-nonwork interface. Scholars in the work-nonwork literature have demonstrated that when employees have supervisors that support their nonwork lives, they experience less work-nonwork conflict and more work-nonwork enrichment (i.e., the extent to which experiences in one domain improve quality of life in the other domain; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) in addition to better job attitudes, job performance, and physical and mental health (Crain & Stevens, 2018).

Family-supportive supervisor behavior. More specifically, supervisors can enact FSSB to positively impact their employees' nonwork lives and reduce their work-nonwork conflict. FSSB involves recognizing, validating, and supporting the various nonwork roles that employees hold, and assisting employees as they manage the conflicting responsibilities of both work and nonwork (Hammer et al., 2009). Hammer and colleagues (2007) outlined the four primary ways in which supervisors offer this support: emotional support, instrumental support, creative work-family management, and role modeling. Emotional support involves making employees feel comfortable expressing nonwork-related issues and needs as well as showing concern, care, and respect for employees' nonwork roles (e.g., listening to employees' work-nonwork concerns, asking employees about their nonwork roles, validating employees' feelings about work-nonwork conflict). Instrumental support refers to the day-to-day responses to employee work-nonwork needs (e.g., changing schedules, rearranging work responsibilities, interpreting company policies). Role modeling involves supervisors demonstrating their own effective work-nonwork management strategies (e.g., notifying employees when they will be out of the office for nonwork reasons, mentioning nonwork roles and responsibilities in positive ways, demonstrating how they set their own boundaries and manage their time). In contrast to day-to-day, reactive instrumental support, creative work-family management entails more proactive, broad, innovative actions to restructure work in order to support employees' nonwork roles and responsibilities and to enhance effectiveness at the employee, team, and organization level, benefiting both employees and the organization. Some examples of creative work-family management include advocating for organizational flextime policies and reorganizing team members' responsibilities to facilitate employee effectiveness both on and off the job.

Hammer and colleagues (2007) developed the first theoretical framework of FSSB to explain the predictors and outcomes of FSSB. FSSB is theorized to be directly influenced by both formal family-supportive organizational policies and practices as well as informal family-supportive organizational culture. The extent to which supervisors engage in FSSB influences how employees perceive family-supportive supervisors, which in turn, influences employees' experienced work-family conflict and enrichment. In addition to the indirect effects of formal and informal organizational support through FSSB, formal and informal organizational support also are theorized to have direct effects on perceptions of family-supportive supervisors and work-family conflict and enrichment. In Hammer and colleagues' (2007) model, work-family conflict and enrichment then affect health-, safety-, family-, and work-related outcomes for employees.

Straub (2012) extended this theoretical model to include additional, more specific variables. Antecedents of FSSB include variables related to the organizational context (e.g., reward systems, family supportive organizational culture, access to work-family policies and resources) and to the individual supervisor (e.g., gender role, life course stage, work-family interference). Straub (2012) proposed that the organizational context variables contribute to supervisors feeling psychologically empowered to provide support, and the individual supervisor variables contribute to feelings of responsibility to provide support. The third antecedent of FSSB is leader-member exchange quality (LMX), which is defined as the extent to which a supervisor-employee relationship is characterized by trust, respect, and mutual obligation fulfillment (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX, psychological empowerment, and felt responsibility all contribute to the extent to which a supervisor provides FSSB. As outcomes of

FSSB, this framework includes employee-level variables (e.g., well-being, satisfaction, engagement, performance) and team-level variables (e.g., team performance).

Despite different levels of focus, both models contribute to our understanding of FSSB and its antecedents and consequences, and both have informed empirical work. Hammer and colleagues' (2007) model uses a multi-level approach to describe how organizational factors affect supervisor-level factors, which affect individual employee-level factors. Straub's (2012) model identifies more specific variables that precede and follow FSSB than Hammer and colleagues' (2007) model. This model also includes psychological mediating mechanisms through which antecedents influence FSSB. Additionally, Straub (2012) indicates that although FSSB is a factor of an individual relationship between a supervisor and employee, FSSB can influence team outcomes. Both models contribute to our understanding of FSSB and propose relationships that can be, and have been, tested empirically.

Most of the existing research on FSSB has focused on outcomes proposed by both Hammer et al. (2007) and Straub (2012), and authors of a recent comprehensive review found that having a supervisor who engages in FSSB is related to positive work, health, and work-nonwork outcomes (Crain & Stevens, 2018). Regarding work outcomes, employees who perceive their supervisors as more supportive of their nonwork experience higher job satisfaction, job commitment, and job performance, as well as lower turnover intentions. Health variables associated with FSSB include indirect effects on physical health outcomes, such as sleep, headaches, and cholesterol, as well as direct relationships with psychological health outcomes, including perceptions of stress, burnout, and mental health. Regarding work-nonwork outcomes, FSSB is associated with increased work-nonwork enrichment and, most importantly for the current study, decreased work-nonwork conflict.

In addition to the aforementioned correlational studies, the importance of FSSB has been demonstrated in a variety of randomized control trial intervention studies. Interventions designed to increase FSSB have successfully improved important outcomes, such as job performance, organizational commitment, job engagement, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions (e.g., Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, & Zimmerman, 2011; Hammer et al., 2016; Odle-Dusseau, Hammer, Crain, & Bodner, 2016). Further, positive effects on work-nonwork conflict, sleep, daily time with children, safety compliance, and organizational citizenship behavior remain over time (i.e., up to 18 months after intervention; e.g., Crain et al., 2019; Davis et al., 2015; Hammer et al., 2016; Kelly et al., 2014). Because FSSB is linked to important individual and organizational outcomes, it is crucial to understand the factors that may predict FSSB, as well as the dynamic interplay between employees and supervisors in the support process.

Despite the existing empirical evidence, most of the antecedents proposed by Straub (2012) remain untested, and most of the FSSB research to date has focused on outcomes (Crain & Stevens, 2018). Building on current theory and empirical work, there is clearly more to be understood regarding how FSSB occurs. Specifically, the models from Hammer and colleagues (2007) and Straub (2012) are both limited in that, although they address supervisor-level and organization-level antecedents of FSSB, they do not include any employee-level antecedents. In the hierarchical setting of an organization, supervisors and the overall organization have more power to control resources, influence relationships, and change norms than employees do (e.g., Feldman, 1984; Yukl & van Fleet, 1992). By studying and emphasizing the actions of supervisors and organizations in the support process, scholars of workplace social support rightly suggest that the responsibility to determine (i.e., improve) the support relationship should fall mostly on those with more power.

However, although it should ultimately be the responsibility of the supervisor to provide support, employees likely play an important role in eliciting FSSB when they are experiencing a specific instance of work-nonwork conflict or strain. An individual supervisor may do everything they can to provide nonwork support, but their various employees may report different levels of FSSB—a phenomenon which cannot be fully explained by the current literature on contextual predictors, supervisor-level predictors, or even LMX and supervisor-employee match alone. Employee-level variables must be considered explicitly to more fully understand the support relationship between employees and supervisors. However, the existing theoretical and empirical literature does not address employee-level variables and their contribution to predicting FSSB. Specifically, the literature fails to describe and explain the behaviors in which employees engage that make supervisors aware of a need for support and that encourage or compel supervisors to act supportively.

Support-Seeking

Individuals can communicate that they need support in a variety of different ways, which can influence how effective one is at eliciting support (e.g., Barbee et al., 1993; Williams & Mickelson 2008). To understand how support-seeking influences the support process and its outcomes, the social support literature has identified different ways to conceptualize and measure support-seeking activity. Support-seeking has primarily been measured dichotomously (i.e., whether or not the respondent sought support) or in terms of frequency, and the purpose of many measures is to differentiate between different targets of support-seeking (e.g., friends, family members, spouse; e.g., Bradshaw, 2014; Iida et al., 2008). Essentially, the focus is usually on capturing *if* and *how much* individuals seek support, not on capturing *how* individuals seek support.

Theory and measures of support-seeking. To address this gap, Barbee and colleagues (1990) developed the sensitive interaction systems theory (SIST), which describes the support process as a type of interactive coping and directly addresses support-seeking behaviors. According to the theory, individual characteristics of the support-seeker, the support-seeker's appraisal of the problem, and the individual characteristics of the potential helper are all factors that influence the decision to seek support and what kind of support-seeking behaviors are used. Then, the support-seeking behaviors used (in addition to the characteristics of the helper) theoretically predict the reaction of the helper, leading to interaction outcomes, such as problem-solving, mood, and relationship development (Barbee et al., 1993). Specifically, the authors determined that support-seeking behaviors have two dimensions: direct-indirect and verbal-nonverbal. Direct behaviors entail explicitly making the target aware of the need for support, and indirect behaviors entail implying a need for support. Within those two categories, support-seeking behaviors can be verbal or nonverbal. Therefore, the four categories of support-seeking behavior are described as 1) ask (direct-verbal), 2) cry or pout (direct-nonverbal), 3) hint or complain (indirect-nonverbal), and 4) sulk or fidget (indirect-nonverbal; Barbee et al., 1993). This framework has subsequently been used to understand support-seeking in multiple contexts (e.g., for general stressful problems, in response to a medical issue) either with self-report measures or as a behavioral coding scheme (e.g., Collins & Feeney, 2000; Derlega et al., 2003; Yankeelov, Barbee, Cunningham, & Druen, 1995).

Despite the framework from Barbee et al. (1993), only a few scales have attempted to quantitatively measure support-seeking strategies, and those that do exist are either not directly applicable to the employee-supervisor relationship or not designed to differentiate between strategies. For example, the scale reported by Derlega and colleagues (2003) specifically

measured the SIST support-seeking behaviors. However, the "cry or pout" dimension and the "sulk or fidget" dimension contain items that either are less relevant in the employee-supervisor context or that employees would be less likely to endorse, due to impression management concerns, which might not be present in the personal relationships (e.g., friendships, romantic relationships) for which the scale was developed. Dunkel-Schetter and colleagues (1986) created a scale of support-seeking with four items (e.g., "In general, which one of the following best describes you when you need information or advice?"), all with a Likert-type response scale with the following anchors: 1 (*I usually don't show that I need it, nor do I ask for it*), 4 (*My need is probably obvious, but I usually don't ask for it directly*), and 7 (*I usually ask for it*). This format allows researchers to differentiate between strategies, but using this response format suggests that all support-seeking strategies fall along one interval-level continuum and the scale does not capture that someone might use these strategies to different extents.

The lack of quantitative support-seeking scales may be due in part to the focus on qualitative studies of support-seeking, resulting in various frameworks and typologies of behaviors. For example, when coding the content of online message boards designated as support groups for individuals with serious diseases, Wang and colleagues (2015) determined that the content of support-seeking messages could be categorized as either a self-disclosure or a question. The self-disclosure content could be further distinguished into messages that revealed emotions or messages that revealed information, both of which could be negative or positive. Faw (2014) divided the support-seeking strategies of adolescents who were trying to elicit support for weight loss into direct and indirect categories and low-risk and high-risk categories, based on the extent to which the individual's support-seeking strategy made the individual vulnerable. Additionally, multiple scholars have used other coding schemes, often relying, at

least in part, on the framework developed by Barbee and colleagues (e.g., Collins & Feeney, 2000; Trees, 2005; Yankeelov et al., 1995). Despite this foundational literature on support-seeking and the fact that individuals do receive social support from work sources, no existing frameworks have been developed for support-seeking in the work context.

Measuring support-seeking in the work context. The existing theories and frameworks of support-seeking come from the literature on personal relationships, including those between romantic partners, close friends, or family members (e.g., Barbee et al., 1993; Cutrona, Suhr, & MacFarlane, 1990; Faw, 2014). Specifically, the communication and social psychology literatures have often addressed support-seeking within the context of health- and disease-related support elicitation (e.g., Derlega et al., 2003; Faw, 2014; Wang et al., 2015). Due to the nature of these close relationships, the communication in these contexts likely differs from that which occurs in the working environment within the hierarchical and professional relationship between supervisors and employees. Additionally, providing social support is widely accepted as a natural part of most personal relationships, whereas providing social support in the workplace is, in some cases, seen as extra-role or discretionary (e.g., Bamberger, 2009; Eckenrode & Wethington, 1990; Ng & Sorensen, 2008). Viewing a needed resource (e.g., help, support) as discretionary, as opposed to expected, is likely to create differences in the considerations involved with choosing whether and how to seek that resource (Bamberger, 2009). Specifically, compared to support that is more directly related to work, nonwork support may be perceived as especially discretionary.

Further, seeking nonwork support at work is likely to differ from seeking nonwork support from people outside of work due to the extent to which each individual prefers to keep their work and nonwork separate or integrated, as research suggests that individuals hold

different styles for managing work and nonwork boundaries (e.g., Bulger, Matthews, & Hoffman, 2007). For example, an employee who prefers work and nonwork to be separate might not seek nonwork support from a supervisor, or they might do so in very direct ways only when necessary. Due to the hierarchical relationship, formal environment, and discretionary nature of nonwork support from supervisors, it would be inappropriate to assume that the existing frameworks of support-seeking directly transfer to the employee-supervisor relationship.

Other processes that occur in the employee-supervisor relationship can also inform our understanding of support-seeking. Most relevant, measures of help-seeking, feedback-seeking, and information-seeking can provide insight into the communication dynamics in these relationships. Information-seeking, feedback-seeking, help-seeking, and support-seeking are all similar in that they involve the proactive solicitation of some type of resource (Bamberger, 2009). However, they differ in that help-seeking is inherently problem-focused and requires interpersonal interaction, and information-seeking and feedback-seeking could occur in the absence of a problem and without interpersonal interaction (e.g., looking up an unfamiliar word online, observing cues from supervisors about one's performance; Bamberger, 2009; Cornally & McCarthy, 2011; Lee, 1997). Additionally, providing information and/or feedback is usually considered a formal, required aspect of a supervisor's job, while providing help is considered discretionary (Bamberger, 2009). Therefore, the process of seeking help incorporates considerations of reciprocity and self-presentation that play a very minimal role in the process of seeking information or feedback.

Support-seeking is conceptually more similar to help-seeking than to feedback-seeking or information seeking because support-seeking is also problem-focused, support provision (especially that which is nonwork-focused) is typically considered voluntary, and support-

seeking cannot occur in the absence of interpersonal interaction. Help-seeking has primarily been studied in relation to job performance and well-being outcomes (Bamberger, 2009), and some studies have demonstrated that the relationship between help-seeking and job performance is not always positive and linear (e.g., sometimes curvilinear or dependent on moderators), and the relationship between help-seeking and well-being results from mediators (e.g., help provision; e.g., Nadler, Ellis, & Bar, 2003). Help-seeking and support-seeking differ in that help-seeking is specific to the helper providing aid related to a work task to make that task easier to understand or complete (Bamberger, 2009). Support is not task-related but instead, encompasses a variety of resources for personal and interpersonal challenges. In the case of the proposed scale, support is specifically related to work-nonwork issues.

Despite these conceptual differences, scales of these constructs can inform an employee nonwork support-seeking scale. Measures of help-seeking (e.g., Nadler et al., 2003; van der Rijt et al., 2013), feedback-seeking (e.g., Krasman, 2010), and information-seeking (e.g., Miller, 1996) all provide examples of the ways in which employees communicate needs to supervisors. Specifically, they provide information about communication within a hierarchical relationship that is generally absent in the measures of support-seeking in other contexts, in which the two members of the dyad may be more equal in status. Measures of help-seeking, due to its conceptual closeness to support-seeking mentioned previously, are particularly useful in understanding how employees may use interpersonal interaction to communicate that they need discretionary aid in order to address a problem.

One existing measure does specifically address work-family help-seeking behavior, which is defined as "self-directed behaviors that initiate receipt of relevant and directed work-family support from others in the work domain" (Bradshaw, 2014, p. 32). However, this scale

was intended to measure this construct more broadly than the proposed scale. For example, Bradshaw (2014) included items that address help-seeking aimed at both coworkers and supervisors but did not conduct a factor analysis in order to support the use of the items as two distinct scales. Additionally, the item content assumes certain familial responsibilities (e.g., "During the past month have you asked your coworkers for help getting information about childcare support your organization offers?"), and importantly, there is no differentiation of support-seeking strategies. Similar to the coping scales discussed previously, the work-family help-seeking scale measures whether and to what extent someone seeks workplace support for nonwork but does not distinctly address *how* they seek that support. The proposed scale aims to address this gap and also to incorporate recent developments in the communication field that extend the conceptualization of support-seeking to more fully capture the support process.

Support-Marshaling

Scholars in the communications field recently introduced the idea of support-marshaling, which goes beyond support-seeking behavior to recognize that individuals perform a variety of behaviors to more actively structure their support network and manage their network relationships (Crowley, 2012). Support-seeking alone describes individuals always wanting more support from those around them. However, in a support-marshaling framework, individuals are framed as more intentional and active in determining the type and amount of support they need and want. A support-marshaling framework provides a more accurate and nuanced way of capturing how people interact with network members by incorporating both attempts to increase supportive behaviors (i.e., approach behaviors) and attempts to decrease nonsupportive behaviors (i.e., avoid behaviors; Crowley, 2016).

I argue that formative work on support marshaling by Crowley (2016) has applications to the work context. Nonsupportive behaviors from supervisors include any actions that are unhelpful, unwanted, or detrimental to the employee's efforts to manage and navigate the work-nonwork interface (Faw, 2014; Parks & Faw, 2014). Nonsupport in the workplace could occur for three reasons: 1) the supervisor intends to be nonsupportive (e.g., telling an employee that they need to prioritize work deadlines over family obligations, purposefully scheduling meetings when an employee asked for time off to go to an appointment), 2) the supervisor has no intentions to be supportive or nonsupportive, but their actions impact the employee (e.g., discussing another employee's nonwork roles in a negative or positive way, emailing during nonwork hours and expecting a response), or 3) the supervisor intends to provide support, but their actions are misguided, inappropriate, or ineffective (e.g., excessively asking about an employee's health concerns, suggesting that a female employee not have kids until reaching a certain milestone at work, such as tenure in academia). To limit this nonsupport, some examples of avoid behaviors include an employee limiting the time spent around a supervisor who makes unsupportive comments or an employee telling their supervisor not to ask any questions about a current nonwork situation. Approach behaviors (i.e., intended to increase support) might include an employee asking the supervisor to listen while they explain a stressful situation, or the employee might show signs of emotional distress until the supervisor asks what is bothering them. According to this framework, individuals actively structure their support networks in attempts to maximize support, and specifically, they attempt to receive support at the right time and in the right way depending on what they want from the support interaction.

In addition to the distinction between approach and avoid, support-marshaling incorporates the dimensions of direct and indirect communication outlined by Barbee and

colleagues (1993). Therefore, support-marshaling includes the direct and indirect behaviors to seek support described previously as well as direct and indirect behaviors to reduce nonsupport. Direct avoid behavior includes asking a supervisor not to ask about one's recent health challenges and telling a supervisor that one will handle their own nonwork challenges without assistance. Indirect avoid behavior includes hiding nonwork issues from one's supervisor and ignoring a supervisor's attempts to provide unwanted support. As such, support-marshaling behaviors are conceptually divided into four categories: direct-approach, direct-avoid, indirect-approach, and indirect-avoid.

Through qualitative research, these categories have been used to describe how individuals seek support for their romantic relationship and for their weight loss efforts (Crowley, 2012; Crowley & Faw, 2014; Faw, 2014). Specifically, Crowley (2012) interviewed individuals who were in a romantic relationship to which another network member (e.g., friend, family member) expressed opposition (i.e., they did not approve of the relationship or had concerns about it). Interview responses that involved support-marshaling behavior were thematically categorized into 17 specific strategies. Those strategies were then categorized into the four themes mentioned above. Crowley and Faw (2014) then validated this typology with a larger sample. Respondents reported whether or not they had used each of the 17 strategies, and if they had, they were asked an open-ended question about what exactly they said or did. Crowley and Faw (2014) also allowed participants to report any support-marshaling strategies that were not included in the predetermined list. From these responses, Crowley and Faw (2014) coded responses and revised the typology, resulting in 17 strategies.

Applying support-marshaling to a different context, Faw (2016) conducted a qualitative study with adolescents who were attempting to lose weight and were marshaling support for their

efforts. Although the resulting typology of behaviors was slightly different than the one from the previous two studies, the interview questions were framed around support-marshaling, identifying the ways in which participants interacted with social network members to increase support or limit nonsupport for their weight loss attempts. All studies of support-marshaling thus far have been qualitative and have not attempted to measure support-marshaling quantitatively.

Additionally, support-marshaling has yet to be examined in the work context. It is especially important to consider support-marshaling when trying to understand the support interactions between supervisors and employees. In a hierarchical relationship, eliciting support and limiting nonsupport may be particularly distinct because asking a supervisor to do more (i.e., provide more support) might qualitatively feel more or less acceptable than avoiding, deceiving, or setting boundaries with a supervisor. The latter behaviors (i.e., avoid behaviors) are important for employees to know and enact when supervisors fail to provide support in appropriate or helpful ways. However, limiting inappropriate and unhelpful support also requires the individual to take a more assertive role in determining the extent and nature of the supervisor-employee relationship, which goes against the typical hierarchical distribution of influence.

Drawing on the aforementioned frameworks and previously-developed measures of support-seeking and support-marshaling (e.g., Barbee et al., 1993; Crowley & Faw, 2014; Faw, 2016), in addition to the literature on workplace support and FSSB (e.g., Crain & Stevens, 2018; French et al., 2018; Hammer et al., 2009; Straub, 2012), we can further our understanding of the support process between employees and supervisors regarding nonwork issues. Knowing that FSSB is impactful for multiple employee outcomes, including work-nonwork conflict (Crain & Stevens, 2018), it is critical to understand and measure how exactly this support resource is managed by employees and, from that, how we can improve nonwork support communication in

the workplace. Despite attempts to measure similar constructs, including help-seeking at work, and support-seeking in personal relationships, no existing scales fulfill this specific purpose.

Current Study

The current study aimed to develop and validate a scale to measure the support-marshaling behaviors of employees for work-nonwork issues. Specifically, this construct is defined as employee efforts to communicate support needs related to nonwork issues to a supervisor, with the goal of increasing supportive supervisor behaviors or decreasing nonsupportive supervisor behaviors. Work-nonwork issues can include those related to work-nonwork conflict or to issues specifically occurring in a nonwork domain that do not necessarily lead to conflict, but that are meaningful or detrimental for the individual (e.g., a death in the family, a health concern, a stressful volunteer position). To provide clarity around these specific behaviors, I drew on and extended Barbee et al.'s (1993) and Crowley and Faw's (2014) formative work on support-seeking and marshaling by proposing a 2x2 taxonomy of employee support-marshaling behaviors for work-nonwork issues (see Figure 1 for dimensions, definitions, and examples). One dimension represents the form of the behavior (direct vs. indirect) and the other represents the intention of the behavior (approach to increase support vs. avoid to decrease nonsupport). Direct support-marshaling is active, explicit, and obvious to the target (Barbee et al., 1993; Crowley & Faw, 2014); in this context, it can include strategies such as describing a challenging nonwork situation to the supervisor, talking with one's supervisor about emotions associated with the conflict, and asking for the supervisor's help in managing competing demands. With indirect support-marshaling, the support need is implied and the request for support is not obvious to the target (Barbee et al., 1993; Crowley & Faw 2014); in this context, it can include behaviors such as showing signs of distress around one's supervisor (e.g., sighing,

crying, pouting), minimizing any conversations with one's supervisor about the nonwork issue, or making broad, vague comments about the nonwork problem to one's supervisor (Barbee et al., 1993; Crowley & Faw 2014).

Regarding the second dimension, the intention of the communication can either be to increase supportive behaviors (i.e., approach) or to decrease nonsupportive behaviors (i.e., avoid; Crowley, 2014). For example, approach behaviors include directly asking for flexible work arrangements, sharing experiences of strain or emotions due to a nonwork issues with one's supervisor, or displaying signs of distress around one's supervisor as a result of the nonwork issue. Avoid behaviors include asking one's supervisor to stop inquiring about the nonwork issue, setting up arrangements outside of work to avoid asking a supervisor for a schedule change, or minimizing the amount of conversation about nonwork that occurs with a supervisor. Thus, support-marshaling behaviors can be categorized as direct or indirect and as an attempt to approach or avoid the supervisor (see Table 2 for original items).

Hypothesis 1: The scale will present four distinct dimensions: direct-approach, direct-avoid, indirect-approach, and indirect-avoid.

Establishing the Nomological Network of Nonwork Support-Marshaling

In order to provide additional evidence for the support-marshaling scale measuring the intended construct, I tested the scale's associations with other variables, including relationships that provide evidence of convergent, discriminant, and concurrent criterion-related validity.

Convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent and discriminant validity provide evidence of validity based on the extent to which the scale's dimensions correlate with other constructs in the ways that would be expected based on theory and existing empirical evidence (DeVellis, 2017). The following three constructs were chosen for inclusion based on their

conceptual proximity to support-marshaling behavior within work relationships: attachment style, work-nonwork boundary preferences, and leader-member exchange (LMX). Specifically, these three constructs address stable individual differences, work-nonwork related preferences, and supervisor-employee interactions, respectively, each of which relates to different aspects of the employee nonwork support-marshaling construct.

Attachment. Attachment describes individuals' interpersonal beliefs and actions in close relationships, especially when experiencing stress or some type of need (Ravitz et al., 2010). Researchers have suggested and identified three or four attachment styles, but in more recent research, rather than classifying individuals, attachment has been conceptualized and measured as a continuous two-dimensional construct, with the dimensions of anxiety and avoidance (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Ravitz et al., 2010). Anxiety is characterized by "fear of interpersonal rejection or abandonment, an excessive need for approval from others, and distress when one's partner is unavailable or unresponsive," and avoidance is characterized by "fear of dependence and interpersonal intimacy, an excessive need for self-reliance, and reluctance to self-disclose" (Wei, Russell, Mallinckrodt, & Vogel, 2007, p. 188). Ideally, through early experiences with caregivers, individuals develop what was historically called secure attachment, which is characterized by low anxiety and low avoidance (Holmes, 1993).

Attachment is primarily considered a factor in intimate relationships, but previous research has indicated that attachment does play a role in professional relationships as well (e.g., Harms, 2011; Leiter, Day, & Price, 2015). Leiter and colleagues (2015) found that attachment avoidance was negatively related to civility, psychological safety, and trust, while attachment anxiety was positively related to incivility, exhaustion, and cynicism in work relationships. Attachment anxiety is also related to other organizational and work-related variables, including

lower citizenship behavior and higher turnover intentions, even after controlling for personality, affectivity, and organizational commitment (Richards & Schat, 2011). Importantly, attachment has also been looked at in relation to other supervisor-employee relationship variables, with secure attachment being positively related to employees' trust in their supervisors (Frazier, Gooty, Little, & Nelson, 2015). Additionally, attachment theory has been proposed by multiple scholars to be related to mentoring relationships (e.g., Germain, 2011; Ragins & Verbos, 2007), and one study found that employee attachment anxiety was associated with less feedback-seeking and less acceptance of feedback from mentors (Allen, Shockley, & Poteat, 2010).

Attachment is conceptually related to support-marshaling because it describes how people perceive and act in relationships, especially in times of need (Ravitz, Maunder, Hunter, Sthankiya, & Lancee, 2010), which impacts how employees communicate their needs to their supervisors. However, the constructs are distinct in that attachment is considered a stable trait (Ravitz et al., 2010), whereas support-marshaling is a behavior that varies depending on situational variables. The two constructs are theoretically related because support-marshaling is a behavioral outcome influenced by one's beliefs about relationships and support (i.e., attachment). Empirically, one study indicated that wives who are avoidant are less likely to seek support from their husbands (Alexander, Feeney, Hohaus, & Noller, 2001). Another study indicated that although both avoidance and anxiety are negatively associated with perceived social support in college students, the relationship between avoidance and social support was much stronger (Mallinckrodt & Wei, 2005).

Specific to the workplace and support-seeking, Richards and Schat (2010) found that attachment avoidance was negatively related to support-seeking behavior and attachment anxiety was positively related to support-seeking behavior. However, multiple studies have indicated that

attachment anxiety is not systematically related to support-seeking behavior (e.g., Collins & Feeney, 2000; Fraley & Shaver, 1998; Simpson, Rholes, & Nelligan, 1992). Without a strong theoretical or empirical basis for specific hypotheses regarding attachment anxiety and the avoid dimensions of support-marshaling, I only predicted that attachment anxiety would be positively related to the two approach dimensions. However, because attachment anxiety is characterized by a fear of rejection, I predicted that this relationship would be stronger for indirect-approach than for direct-approach support-marshaling. Indirect communication can be subtle and can allow the employee to minimize the likelihood of a direct refusal of the supervisor to support the employee.

> *Hypothesis 2a*: Attachment anxiety will be more strongly and positively related to indirect-approach support-marshaling behavior than to direct-approach support-marshaling behavior.

Based on theory and empirical results, I predicted that attachment avoidance would be strongly and positively related to direct-avoid and indirect-avoid support-marshaling behavior. An employee who does not like to disclose personal information to others and does not like to rely on others is less likely to communicate a support need to their supervisor and less likely to try to receive more support in either direct or indirect ways. However, individuals who are more avoidant do tend to use indirect support-seeking strategies more than direct strategies in intimate relationships (Collins & Feeney, 2000). Therefore, I predicted that employees who are more avoidant would also engage in more indirect support-marshaling strategies than direct support-marshaling strategies. When an avoidant employee does need support from their supervisor, they are more likely to communicate that in ways that do not make it obvious that they are asking for help.

Hypothesis 2b: Attachment avoidance will be more strongly and positively related to direct-avoid and indirect-avoid support-marshaling behavior than to direct-approach and indirect-approach support-marshaling behavior.

Hypothesis 2c: Attachment avoidance will be more strongly and positively related to indirect-approach and indirect-avoid support-marshaling behavior than to direct-approach and direct-avoid support-marshaling behavior.

Boundary preferences. Boundary preferences refer to the extent to which an employee prefers to keep their work and nonwork separate from each other (Kossek et al., 2006), and they are generally conceptualized as a continuum from segmentation (i.e., roles are considered mutually exclusive and boundaries are not flexible or permeable) to integration (i.e., roles are not clearly differentiated and boundaries are flexible and permeable; Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000). Boundary preferences relate to nonwork support-marshaling because they describe how people conceptualize the relationship between work and nonwork (Kossek et al., 2006), and these preferences are reflective of how employees relate to their workplaces and how they conceptualize the role of work in their lives, which are factors that influence whether and how employees would communicate with their supervisors about nonwork. Similar to support-marshaling behavior, managing boundaries requires decision-making (Kossek, Noe, & DeMarr, 1999) and self-regulation (e.g., emotion regulation and mindfulness; Allen, Cho, & Meier, 2014). Additionally, when employees prefer to integrate their work and nonwork lives as opposed to distinctly segmenting them, they tend to experience more work-nonwork conflict (Kossek et al., 2006; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006). Asking a supervisor for nonwork support entails integrating work and nonwork to some extent. Therefore, those who prefer to keep their work and nonwork separate are more likely to set boundaries with their supervisor regarding

discussing nonwork issues. Because this aligns with the avoid items within my support marshaling scale, preference for segmentation should be strongly and positively related to both direct-avoid and indirect-avoid support-marshaling. In contrast, people who prefer to integrate their work and nonwork are more likely to talk to supervisors about issues that are going on outside of work. Therefore, I predicted that preference for segmentation would be moderately and negatively related to both direct-approach and indirect-approach support-marshaling.

Hypotheses 3: Preference for segmentation will be more strongly and positively related to direct-avoid and indirect-avoid support-marshaling behavior than to direct-approach and indirect-approach support-marshaling behavior.

Leader-member exchange quality. LMX quality is the extent to which the relationship between a supervisor and an employee is characterized by trust, respect, and mutual obligation fulfillment (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In high quality LMX relationships, the supervisor and the employee engage in more interactive communication and decision-making, based on shared values and perceptions of reciprocity. LMX quality relates to support-marshaling with supervisors because it describes how employees perceive their relationship with their supervisor, including the extent to which they think that their supervisor will help them (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Despite a lack of empirical evidence for a relationship between LMX and support-seeking, relationship quality has been connected to similar employee-supervisor relationship processes described earlier. For instance, subordinate help-seeking behavior is positively influenced by the interpersonal relationship between the supervisor and the employee (Thacker & Stoner, 2012), and leader-member exchange quality is associated with more feedback-seeking behavior (Lam, Huang, & Snape, 2007). Although help-seeking, feedback-seeking, and support-seeking are distinct constructs (Bamberger, 2009), based on their similarities, I predicted that

leader-member exchange quality would also be related to support-marshaling. Additionally, Straub (2012) provided theoretical rationale for LMX quality predicting FSSB (i.e., support received) by proposing that supervisors would be more likely to offer support to high performing employees who have consistently met their supervisor's expectations. Employees with high quality relationships may also feel more comfortable and confident with their supervisor, making them more willing to communicate with their supervisor about their need for support. Lastly, the experiences of mutual trust and respect would likely be related to clearer, more direct communication. Therefore, I predicted that employees who experience a higher quality relationship with their supervisor would be most likely to engage in direct behaviors with the intention of enhancing support.

> *Hypothesis 4*: Leader-member exchange quality will be more strongly and positively related to direct-approach support-marshaling behavior than to direct-avoid, indirect-approach, and indirect-avoid support-marshaling behavior.

Concurrent criterion-related validity. Evidence of criterion-related validity is characterized by the proposed scale being empirically associated with important theoretical outcomes of the construct being measured (DeVellis, 2017). Criterion-related validity was assessed concurrently, meaning that the data for the proposed scale and the theorized outcomes were collected at the same time. The important outcomes of support-marshaling considered in this study were FSSB, work-to-nonwork conflict, and nonwork-to-work conflict.

FSSB. As mentioned previously, scholars have already suggested that support-seeking is likely an antecedent of receiving nonwork support from supervisors, but this has not been empirically tested (Crain & Stevens, 2018). When individuals seek support, they are more likely to receive support (e.g., Collins & Feeney, 2000), and studies tend to show that direct support-

seeking is more strongly related to receiving support than indirect support-seeking (e.g., Derlega et al., 2003; Steuber & High, 2012; Williams & Mickelson, 2008). Direct support-marshaling behaviors include making a supervisor aware that the employee is attempting to change the supervisor's behavior, and approach behaviors entail attempting to gain support. Therefore, I would expect that employees who behave in direct ways to increase the support they receive from supervisors (i.e., direct-approach) will receive more nonwork support from supervisors. With indirect-approach support-marshaling, the employee is still attempting to make the supervisor aware of the support need and gain support. However, because indirect behaviors are less effective at eliciting support due to more opportunity for missed or misinterpreted communication, I expected this positive relationship to be less strong than that between direct-approach support-marshaling and FSSB.

Both types of avoid support-marshaling include an element of minimizing the nonwork support interactions between the supervisor and employee, which is likely to lead to reduced support received. Therefore, I expected both types of avoid behaviors to be negatively related to FSSB, but because direct communication behaviors are generally more effective at accomplishing communication goals, the relationship was expected to be stronger for direct-avoid support-marshaling.

Hypothesis 5a: Direct-approach support-marshaling behavior will be strongly positively related to FSSB.

Hypothesis 5b: Indirect-approach support-marshaling behavior will be moderately positively related to FSSB.

Hypothesis 5c: Direct-avoid support-marshaling behavior will be moderately negatively related to FSSB.

Hypothesis 5d: Indirect-avoid support-marshaling behavior will be weakly negatively related to FSSB.

Work-to-nonwork conflict. As described above, individuals who seek support are more likely to receive support (e.g., Collins & Feeney, 2000), and individuals who receive nonwork support from supervisors are less likely to experience work-nonwork conflict (e.g., Crain & Stevens, 2018; Kossek et al., 2011b). If employees actively seek support for nonwork issues, they are more likely to receive support that would help to mitigate the issue or conflict. Therefore, I predicted that both types of approach support-marshaling would be negatively related to work-to-nonwork conflict, but again, because direct communication is more effective, the relationship would be stronger for direct-approach than for indirect-approach support-marshaling. Additionally, employees who attempt to limit support communication with their supervisor are likely to experience more conflict between roles due to not receiving support. Therefore, I expected a weak positive relationship between both avoidance support marshaling behaviors and work-to-nonwork conflict.

Hypothesis 6a: Direct-approach support-marshaling behavior will be strongly negatively related to work-to-nonwork conflict.

Hypothesis 6b: Indirect-approach support-marshaling behavior will be moderately negatively related to work-to-nonwork conflict.

Hypotheses 6c and 6d: Direct-avoid and indirect-avoid support marshaling behavior will be weakly positively related to work-to-nonwork conflict.

Nonwork-to-work conflict. Both overall workplace support and supervisor support are more strongly related to work-to-nonwork conflict than to nonwork-to-work conflict (French et al., 2018). Although seeking support likely reduces both directions of conflict, if employees are

seeking support from a work source, they may be attempting to change something about their work, which would be more beneficial for minimizing work-to-nonwork conflict. For example, a supervisor can rearrange employee responsibilities so the employee can meet family demands, removing the source of the conflict. In contrast, asking for support from a work source may not influence nonwork-to-work conflict as strongly. For example, a supervisor may be able to rearrange an employees' responsibilities, but this does not necessarily reduce caregiving responsibilities or emotional labor outside of work (i.e., source of the conflict), which in turn affect the employee's ability to meet work demands. Therefore, I predicted that the relationships between support-marshaling and nonwork-to-work conflict would be weaker, but in the same direction as those between support-marshaling and work-to-nonwork conflict.

Hypothesis 7a: Direct-approach support-marshaling behavior will be moderately negatively related to nonwork-to-work conflict.

Hypothesis 7b: Indirect-approach support-marshaling behavior will be weakly negatively related to nonwork-to-work conflict.

Hypotheses 7c and 7d: Direct-avoid and indirect-avoid support marshaling behavior will be weakly positively related to nonwork-to-work conflict.

CHAPTER 2 – METHOD

Participants

Participants (N = 321) included employees from an online sample in the United States. In order to describe the sample, I asked participants to respond to questions about demographics, including age, gender, race/ethnicity, and family responsibilities, as well as work-related variables, such as organizational tenure and tenure with supervisor (see Appendix F for all demographic and work-related questions). Participants were primarily female (53.58%) and White (73.83%), and the average age in the sample was 37.25 years (SD = 11.09). Most participants had at least completed college or technical school (67.91%), were partnered (65.11%), and did not have eldercare responsibilities (75.70%). About half of participants did not have children (52.96%), and the number of children ranged from 0-5 (M = 0.90, SD = 1.16). On average, participants worked 39.44 hours per week (SD = 6.09), had worked in their current organization for 6.12 years (SD = 5.52), and had worked with their current supervisor for 3.93 years (SD = 3.91). The most frequent occupation types were business and financial operations (n = 34), office and administrative support (n = 34), education, training, and library (n = 32), sales (n = 31), and computer and math (n = 30). Other occupation types included healthcare practitioners and support, food preparation, management, and entertainment.

The number of participants was determined through an evaluation of best practices for sample size when conducting factor analyses. Various scholars have suggested participant-to-item ratios ranging from 5:1 (Comrey, 1988) to 10:1 (Nunnally, 1978), and Marsh, Hau, Balla, and Grayson (1998) simply suggest that more is always better regarding sample size for factor analysis. MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, and Hong (1999) point out that the necessary sample

size is dependent on additional characteristics of the scale. The authors found that, with low proportions of shared variance due to the common factor (i.e., factor loadings), a small number of factors, and only three or four items per factor, one would need a sample size of about 300. Therefore, if any one of these three conditions were improved (e.g., higher factor loadings, more items per factor), the sample size could be relaxed. Conservatively, a sample size of 300 for the 32 items in the initial proposed scale would allow for smaller factors, more factors, and lower quality items.

The convenience sample was obtained at one time point through the online recruiting platform Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Specifically, I used TurkPrime, a system that accesses MTurk workers, but provides more research-oriented flexibility (Litman, Robinson, & Abberbock, 2017). MTurk enables data collection with real workers and previous research has demonstrated that the research pool is generally more diverse than other internet samples and typical undergraduate samples (e.g., Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Mason, & Suri, 2012). Additionally, despite some concerns about data quality, most studies have determined that the data quality and validity is equal to or better than that of data collected with other samples or on other platforms (e.g., Barger, Behrend, Sharek, & Sinar, 2011; Buhrmester et al., 2011; Hauser & Schwarz, 2016; Mason & Suri, 2012). There are mixed findings regarding whether and the extent to which compensation amount affects data quality (e.g., Buhrmester et al., 2011; Litman, Robinson, & Rosenzweig, 2015), and there are ethical concerns around fair pay (e.g., Gleibs, 2017; Mason & Suri, 2012; Pittman & Sheehan, 2016). Some authors have suggested that $0.75 for a 30-minute survey is adequate for participation (Barger et al., 2011), while others recommend compensating according to minimum wage (e.g., Gleibs, 2017; Pittman & Sheehan, 2016). To ensure ethical treatment of participants, compensation was based on the current

minimum wage in the United States. Participants who completed that criteria questions but did not meet the criteria were paid $0.10 for less than one minute of their time. Participants who qualified for the full survey were paid an additional $2.35 for the full 20-minute survey. For best practices other than pay, I followed recommendations provided by Cheung, Burns, Sinclair, and Sliter (2017) to address methodological concerns (see Table 3), and I adhered to recommendations of transparency by reporting how MTurk was used (Buhrmester, Talaifar, & Gosling, 2018).

Using TurkPrime exclusion criteria, participants were required to have an IP address within the United States, duplicate IP addresses were blocked, and workers were required to have achieved, at minimum, an 80% approval rating. In addition to the TurkPrime exclusion criteria, I also limited my sample to individuals who work more than 20 hours per week at their primary job outside of MTurk and have a direct supervisor with whom they interact at least once per week. Hours spent at work is positively associated with work-nonwork conflict (e.g., Byron, 2005; Major, Klein, & Ehrhart, 2002), suggesting that individuals who work less than 20 hours (i.e., part-time) might have less conflict and therefore, might experience fewer or different support needs. Further, employees who work multiple part-time jobs have multiple supervisors, making it difficult to identify the supervisor from whom they seek support, to fully and clearly understand the ways in which they seek support within one relationship, and to accurately relate support-marshaling to other variables.

Procedure

Measure development. Using scale development practices consistent with DeVellis (2017), items were generated for the construct of employee support-marshaling behaviors based on the following definition: employee efforts to communicate support needs related to nonwork

issues to a supervisor, with the goal of increasing supportive supervisor behaviors or decreasing nonsupportive supervisor behaviors. Based on previous scales and frameworks of support-seeking and support-marshaling, items were written to correspond to the following categories: direct-approach, indirect-approach, direct-avoid, and indirect-avoid.

The specific content of these items was informed by three primary sources: 1) previous literature on, and existing measures of, support-seeking and support-marshaling; 2) measures of help-seeking; and 3) qualitative accounts from working adults contacted by the author. Specifically, I examined various support-seeking frameworks and determined which categories and examples of behaviors were appropriate to apply to the employee-supervisor nonwork support context. Barbee's (1993) measure of support-seeking behaviors as well as Crowley and Faw's (2014) and Faw's (2014) taxonomies of support-marshaling behaviors were particularly informative to the content of the items. Of the 17 strategies identified by Crowley and Faw (2014) and the six identified by Faw (2014), I identified 15 as relevant to the supervisor-employee relationship and nonwork support (see Table 1 for included strategies and their definitions). Additionally, the scale content was informed by the support-seeking scale reported by Norberg and colleagues (2006), the work-family help-seeking scale developed by Bradshaw (2014), and social support-focused coping scales (Amirkhan, 1990; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Greenglass, Schwarzer, Jakubiec, Fiksenbaum, & Taubert, 1999).

In addition to drawing on previous literature, scales, and frameworks, I also gathered qualitative information regarding support-seeking behaviors through informal semi-structured interviews with a convenience sample of working adults ($N = 4$). I asked the individuals to think about instances of work-nonwork conflict or when something was going on outside of work. I then asked if and how they communicated with their supervisor regarding that situation. This

question was usually followed up with more specific questions to fully understand the behaviors that were enacted. Lastly, I asked about the behaviors that they had seen or heard coworkers display in attempts to gain support for nonwork or work-nonwork issues from supervisors.

In regard to the actual item writing, included items had to meet certain content criteria. All items reference 1) a nonwork issue; 2) the supervisor as the target of the support-marshaling behavior; 3) increasing supportive behavior or decreasing nonsupportive behavior; and 4) general (e.g., support or help), as opposed to specific (e.g., schedule change, advice for managing a work-nonwork conflict) support resources being requested or avoided. Items were written in first-person format, and they use a Likert-type response scale anchored from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). I chose to use a scale with an odd number of response options to allow respondents to choose a neutral option. Following the guidelines outlined by DeVellis (2017), the items for the scale are short, simple, and consistent in form and referent to the extent possible while still representing a complex construct (see Table 2).

Additionally, the scale does not include any reverse-coded items because the meaning of the items would not be consistent between positively phrased items and negatively phrased items. For instance, the items "I hint to my supervisor that I have nonwork challenges in order to get support" and "I do not hint to my supervisor that I have nonwork challenges in order to get support" do not necessarily capture opposites of the same behavior. Additionally, reverse-coding the direct items unintentionally and more vaguely captures some of the content of the indirect or avoid items. For example, when the direct item: "I describe challenging nonwork situations to my supervisor to gain their support" is phrased to be reverse-coded: "I do not describe challenging nonwork situations to my supervisor to gain their support," this may be capturing part of the avoid item: "I steer clear of talking about my nonwork issues with my supervisor."

The scale instructions for respondents are as follows: “Think about your direct supervisor (the person at your primary job who typically assigns your work, provides day-to-day supervision, and/or who you talk to about time off). How do you generally communicate with your direct supervisor about life outside of work, including your family, friends, hobbies, health, etc.? The word “support” has different meanings for different people (for example, helping you, listening to you, providing advice, shifting your work schedule, referring you to resources, decreasing workload, etc.). Please think about whatever “support” means to you as you respond.” These instructions were meant to encourage respondents to think broadly and inclusively about nonwork situations and issues as well as about different types of support in order for the scale to fully capture the support-marshaling phenomenon.

Measure testing. In order to gather evidence of appropriate content, seven subject matter experts (SMEs) reviewed the proposed items. SMEs consisted of two senior graduate students and two industrial-organizational psychology faculty members who study the work-nonwork interface and/or workplace support, a practitioner who studies the work-nonwork interface and supervisor support, and two communications faculty members who study support communication and support-marshaling. SMEs rated the essentiality of the items to the construct on a 3-point scale (0 = *not necessary*, 1 = *useful, but not essential,* 2 = *essential*), and Lawshe’s (1975) content validity ratios (CVRs) were calculated to quantify how many SMEs agreed on essentiality. (See Table 2 for CVRs and Appendix H for qualitative feedback from SMEs.) Fifteen items had negative CVRs, indicating that less than half of the SMEs rated the item as essential, and only one item had a CVR of 1, which is the critical value for an item to be acceptable using this panel size (Ayre & Scally, 2014). By reducing the cutoff to allow one SME to rate the item as nonessential ($CVR_{critical} = .71$), two more items were deemed acceptable.

Based on SME comments, two items were deleted, and the 30 remaining items were revised per their feedback. Items were no longer required to refer to the intended outcome (i.e., increase support or decrease nonsupport), and items were more evenly divided on whether they referred to work-nonwork conflict specifically or to nonwork issues more broadly. (See Table 4 for revised items.)

Measures

Along with the proposed scale, additional variables were collected in order to provide evidence of convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity. To determine that these scales demonstrated good model fit and acceptable internal consistency, I conducted CFAs for each scale and obtained reliability estimates. I report the comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and chi-square test statistic to assess the fit of each model to the data, as suggested by Raykov and Marcoulides (2011). The CFI and TLI represent the extent to which the specified model fits the data, and values closer to 1 (i.e., above .90) indicate acceptable fit (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2011). The RMSEA represents the extent to which the data does not fit the specified model, and small values (i.e., less than .10) indicate support for the model (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2011). The chi-square test of model fit compares the predicted covariance matrix based on the specified model to the observed covariance matrix (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2011). A significant test statistic suggests the predicted model does not fit the observed data. However, the chi-square test is very sensitive to sample size, so a significant value does not necessarily indicate a bad model.

For estimates of reliability (i.e., proportion of score due to true score as opposed to measurement error), I used Cronbach's alpha (α) and Macdonald's omega (ω). Both coefficients are measures of internal consistency reliability, representing the extent to which the variance in

the items can be attributed to a common source. Although Cronbach's alpha is most commonly used to indicate reliability, it tends to underestimate reliability or be inaccurate (DeVellis, 2017). Additionally, internal consistency does not provide any information about the homogeneity of items. Omega is considered a better estimate of reliability because it uses factor loadings and item quality to estimate the true score variance (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2011). Nunnally's (1978) recommendation of a .7 minimum cutoff for reliability is widely cited, although some authors argue that the broad application of this value is problematic (e.g., Cho & Kim, 2015). An acceptable reliability statistic should be determined based on the purpose of the measure and the types of decisions the measure will inform, with higher thresholds required for more high-stakes decisions (Cho & Kim, 2015; Lance, Butts & Michels, 2006; Nunnally, 1978). Considering the low-stakes nature of these measures in this context and the fact that none of these scales (including the proposed support-marshaling scale) will be used to make important decisions, I used the .7 cutoff to determine acceptable internal consistency.

Attachment. Attachment was measured with the 12-item scale developed by Wei and colleagues (2007), which is a short-form version of the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale (ECR; Brennan et al., 1998). The scale measures the two dimensions of attachment (i.e., anxiety and avoidance) with six items each. Based on the changes to the long-form version of this scale made by Richards and Schat (2011) for use in an organizational setting, any reference to a romantic partner was replaced with "others" or "other people." A sample anxiety item is, "I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by [others]" and a sample avoidance item is, "I want to get close to [other people], but I keep pulling back." The scale Likert-type response options from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The attachment scale demonstrated poor model fit (χ^2 = 836.78, df = 53, $p < .001$; CFI = .52; TLI = .40; $RMSEA$ = .22), and Cronbach's alpha values

were .71 for the avoidance dimension and .80 for the anxious dimension (omegas were .56 and .81, respectively). Due to the poor fit of this model, I examined the factor loadings, discrepancy matrices, and item content. I iteratively dropped three items that seemed to be causing misfit, which resulted in a better but still poor-fitting model (χ^2 = 157.34, *df* = 26, $p < .001$; *CFI* = .86; *TLI* = .81; *RMSEA* = .13), but acceptable internal consistency for both the anxiety dimension (α = .80, ω = .81) and the avoidance dimension (α = .76, ω = .78). Due to poor model fit, I decided not to report analyses using this scale.

Boundary preferences. Boundary management preferences were measured with an adapted nine-item scale created by Kossek and colleagues (2006). Two sample items are, "I prefer to not talk about my nonwork issues with most people I work with" and "I actively strive to keep my nonwork and work-life separate." Item content was adapted to refer to nonwork more broadly, as opposed to "family." The scale uses Likert-type response options from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The boundary preferences scale demonstrated poor model fit (χ^2 = 186.06, *df* = 27, $p < .001$; *CFI* = .75; *TLI* = .66; *RMSEA* = .14), with acceptable internal consistency (α = .75, ω = .76). Based on factor loadings, discrepancy matrices, and item content, I dropped the two reverse-coded items because they were much more highly correlated with one another than any of the other items and were causing misfit. Doing so resulted in a well-fitting model (χ^2 = 427.76, *df* = 21, $p < .001$; *CFI* = .96; *TLI* = .94; *RMSEA* = .06) and acceptable internal consistency (α = .73, ω = .75).

Leader-member exchange quality. The quality of the reciprocal relationship between the employee and supervisor was assessed using a 7-item scale developed by Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995). Items include "How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?" and "How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?" The scale uses a

5-point Likert-type response format with different anchors depending on the content of the specific item. The leader-member exchange quality scale had good model fit (χ^2 = 28.60, *df* = 14, *p* = .01; *CFI* = .99; *TLI* = .98; *RMSEA* = .06) and good internal consistency (α = .91, ω = .91).

Family-supportive supervisor behaviors. To measure supervisor support for employees' nonwork lives, I used the 4-item FSSB-SF scale developed by Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, and Crain (2013). Sample items include "My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him or her about my conflicts between work and nonwork." and "My supervisor works effectively with workers to creatively solve conflicts between work and nonwork." The scale uses Likert-type response options from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The FSSB scale had good model fit (χ^2 = 16.33, *df* = 2, *p* < .001; *CFI* = .98; *TLI* = .94; *RMSEA* = .15) and good internal consistency (α = .89, ω = .89). The 95% confidence interval for the RMSEA was .09-.22.

Work-nonwork conflict. Work-nonwork conflict was assessed using the 11 items that assess conflict from the measure developed by Fisher, Bulger, and Smith (2009). The scale measures both directions of conflict (i.e., work-to-nonwork conflict life [WTNC] and nonwork-to-work conflict [NTWC]). Importantly, the item content from the Fisher et al. (2009) scale addresses all aspects of nonwork, rather than narrowly addressing the domain of family. Therefore, compared to family-specific scales, this scale measures a more appropriate outcome of the proposed nonwork-focused support-marshaling construct. Five items assess WTNC (e.g., "My personal life suffers because of my work") and six items assess NTWC (e.g., "When I'm at work, I worry about things I need to do outside work"). The scale asks participants to report the frequency with which they felt the item's described feeling in the past three months using Likert-type response options from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*almost all of the time*). The work-nonwork conflict

scale demonstrated good model fit (χ^2 = 192.37, *df* = 43, $p < .001$; *CFI* = .95; *TLI* = .93; *RMSEA* = .10) and both the WTNC dimension ($\alpha = .93$, $\omega = .93$) and the NTWC dimension ($\alpha = .90$, $\omega = .90$) demonstrated good internal consistency.

CHAPTER 3 – RESULTS

Data Cleaning and Preliminary Analyses

First, I cleaned the data and ran preliminary analyses to inspect the data for missing values and errors. Assuming that up to 30% of responses might be unusable due to missing data or data quality issues, I had aimed to collect responses from at least 400 participants. Of 619 post-pilot recorded responses, 213 did not pass all the screening questions, 42 did not complete the support-marshaling scale, 36 dropped out of the survey, two had duplicate IP addresses, and five missed 1-2 out of three attention check items, leaving a final sample size of 321 participants. After removing these cases, there were only missing data for two items at the scale item level (one missing value [< 1%] per item), for some of the demographic items (< 3% per item), and no missing data at the scale variable level.

To determine the appropriateness of conducting confirmatory factor analyses, I checked assumptions by examining the normality of the distribution for each item and the linearity of the relationships between the items. (For brevity, direct-approach items are labeled as "DAp," indirect-approach items are labeled as "IAp," direct-avoid items are labeled as "DAv," and indirect-avoid items are labeled as "IAv.") All of the direct-approach items were moderately negatively skewed, except DAp 7, which had a bimodal distribution. Three of the direct-avoid items (DAv 5, DAv 6, and DAv 7) were moderately positively skewed, one (DAv 1) was moderately negatively skewed, and two (DAv 2 and DAv 3) were slightly negatively skewed. All of the indirect-approach items were moderately positively skewed. Three of the indirect-avoid items (IAv 1, IAv 2, and IAv 4) had bimodal distributions, and two (IAv 5 and IAv 8) were moderately negatively skewed, while the other items were slightly skewed. Considering that

nearly all of the items had distribution issues, I decided to take this into consideration when making decisions regarding item deletion/retention but did not delete any items at this initial stage. As a conservative approach, I tested CFAs with transformed versions of these problematic items, and the results did not change, so I continued with the untransformed items. Based on scatterplots, there were no obvious issues of non-linearity.

Individual Item and Scale Statistics

For each item, I obtained the item difficulty (i.e., mean), standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, and item discrimination parameter (see Table 4). The item difficulty indicates how high on the construct an individual would need to be to endorse the item (DeVellis, 2017). For example, an item with a low mean would indicate that not many people endorsed the item, so someone would have to be high in the construct to endorse it, making it a difficult item. Preferably, items within a scale would have a range of difficulties in order to accurately capture the full range of the construct. However, any difficulties on the extreme ends of the response scale may be cause for concern, particularly because they might also have low variances (DeVellis, 2017). The most difficult item was "I act upset around my supervisor when nonwork stressors interfere with work," with a mean of 1.92, the easiest item was "I tell my supervisor when I have conflicts between my work and nonwork life," with a mean of 3.59, and the average difficulty was 2.94, which is nearly in the middle of a 1-5 scale. Item standard deviations indicate the variability in responses to the item, which should preferably be high in order to show that an item captures the variability of the level of the construct among people. Standard deviations ranged from .93-1.27 (M = 1.18, SD = .08), which indicates that responses to items varied moderately. Additionally, the minimum and maximum indicate whether or not the full response scale was used when considering responses from all participants. For example, if all

participants selected a 3, 4, or 5 on a 1-5 scale, that might indicate that the item was written to be too easy, and also would likely diminish the item's ability to discriminate between those high or low on the construct. At least one person selected 1 or 5 for each of the items in the support-marshaling scale, suggesting full use of the scale. No items were identified as problematic based on these item statistics.

For item discrimination, I used the item-to-total correlations, correlating scores on the item to scores on the subscale to which the item belonged as well as to the overall subscale due to the possibility of a general support-marshaling factor. Item discrimination is an indicator of the extent to which an item can differentiate between people who are high or low on the construct (DeVellis, 2017). Item-to-subscale correlations ranged from .68-.89 (M = .79, SD = .05), suggesting that items were strongly and positively correlated with their respective subscales. Item-to-total correlations ranged from .13-.58 (M = .39, SD = .12), suggesting that items were positively correlated with the overall scale, but with some variation.

Interitem correlations were calculated, and any negative correlations were closely examined. However, due to the nature of the subscales and the possibility that the dimensions could relate to each other negatively (e.g., those who use approach strategies do not use avoid strategies), items with negative inter-item correlations were not removed at this stage. The indirect-avoid items correlated negatively with nearly all of the approach items, and roughly half of the inter-item correlations between the direct-avoid items and direct-approach items were also negative. Interitem correlations within the direct-approach dimension ranged from .32-.70 (M = .54, SD = .09). Interitem correlations within the indirect-approach dimension ranged from .46-.67 (M = .57, SD = .06). Interitem correlations within the direct-avoid dimension ranged from .29-.81 (M = .50, SD = .18). Interitem correlations within the indirect-avoid dimension ranged from

.54-.83 (*M* = .68, *SD* = .07). Generally, these interitem correlations are acceptable. However, the lower interitem correlations in the direct-approach and direct-avoid dimensions were noted at this stage and considered when determining items to remove or retain.

I also obtained the mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum for each subscale and the overall scale before removing any items, which can be found in Table 5, along with correlations between the four dimensions and with the overall scale. The indirect-avoid subscale correlated negatively with the direct-approach subscale (*r* = -.58) and with the indirect-approach subscale (*r* = -.19). Additionally, the direct-avoid subscale correlated negatively with the direct-approach subscale (*r* = -.10). All other correlations between subscales or between a subscale and the overall scale were positive, the direct-avoid subscale had the highest correlation with the overall scale (*r* = .71), and the direct-approach subscale had the lowest correlation with the overall scale (*r* = .33).

Initial Reliability

To assess reliability, I calculated both Cronbach's alpha and Macdonald's (1999) omega coefficients. Alpha and omega values presented in Table 5 are from the four-factor model for the four subscales and from the one-factor model for the overall scale. For the one-factor model, alpha was acceptable (.81), but omega was unacceptable (.32). The reliability estimates for all factors in the four-factor model were acceptable to indicate good internal consistency. For the direct-approach dimension, alpha was .90 and omega was .91. For the indirect-approach dimension, alpha and omega were both .90. For the direct-avoid dimension, alpha was .87 and omega was .86. For the indirect-avoid dimension, alpha and omega were both .94.

Factor Structure

Based on the theoretical structure of the construct, I conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) to assess internal structure validity of the support-marshaling scale. However, because this is the first quantitative measure of this construct, and there were multiple theoretically plausible factor structures, I used a more exploratory approach to determine the appropriate one. I used the CFI, TLI, RMSEA, and chi-square test statistic to evaluate model fit (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2011). The fit statistics for all initial models can be found in Table 6 and figures of all measurement models can be found in Appendices I, J, and K.

First, I conducted four first-order measurement models. Specifically, I tested a one-factor model, a correlated two-factor model of form (direct and indirect), a correlated two-factor model of intent (approach and avoid), and a correlated four-factor model (direct-approach, direct-avoid, indirect-approach, indirect-avoid). Next, I conducted a hierarchical confirmatory factor analysis, with the four support-marshaling strategies nested within a superordinate dimension of support-marshaling. In this model, the superordinate dimension accounts for the covariation between the four dimensions. This model assumes that overall support-marshaling is responsible for the specific support-marshaling strategies, and those strategies are responsible for participant responses to the individual items.

Finally, I conducted two bifactor models, both of which allow items to load onto two factors (e.g., Chen, Hayes, Carver, Laurenceau, & Zhang, 2012; Credé & Harms, 2015; DeVellis, 2017). In the first model, items were allowed to load onto one of the four specific support-marshaling factors and also onto a general support-marshaling factor. Similar to the hierarchical model, the general factor explains any covariation between the four factors, so the dimensions are considered orthogonal. However, in this model, the general factor has a direct

link to the item responses, rather than operating through the individual factors. In the second bifactor model, I allowed items to load onto one form factor (direct or indirect) and one intent factor (approach or avoid). Again, the dimensions are considered orthogonal.

The fit statistics for all models initially failed to reach the thresholds to indicate a well-fitting model (i.e., above .90 for the CFI and TLI, and below .10 for the RMSEA). However, as indicated in Table 6, the general/specific bifactor model (χ^2 = 1139.37, *df* = 375, $p < .001$; *CFI* = .89; *TLI* = .87; *RMSEA* = .08) and the form/intent bifactor model (χ^2 = 1471.45, *df* = 375, $p < .001$; *CFI* = .84; *TLI* = .82; *RMSEA* = .10) had the best fit of all the models, followed by the four-factor model (χ^2 = 1661.07, *df* = 399, $p < .001$; *CFI* = .82; *TLI* = .80; *RMSEA* = .10) and the hierarchical model (χ^2 = 1707.07, *df* = 401, $p < .001$; *CFI* = .81; *TLI* = .79; *RMSEA* = .10). Due to the four-factor model being most supported by theory and the bi-factor models being most supported empirically, I continued to examine these three models. I obtained the standardized factor loadings for each item in each of the three models (see Appendix L). For the general/specific bi-factor model, nearly every factor loading onto the general factor was either below .3 or negative. For the form/intent bi-factor model, all of the factor loadings for the direct-approach items onto the direct factor were under .30, and all of the factor loadings for the indirect-approach items onto the approach factor were under .30. Additionally, all of the factor loadings for the indirect-avoid items onto the indirect factor were negative and weak. In contrast, the factor loadings for each item in the four-factor model were positive, and the lowest loading was .54, with an average loading of .75 (*SD* = .90). These factor loadings suggest that the bi-factor models may actually not be appropriate for the scale. Therefore, despite the better fit of the bi-factor models and considering the theorized factor structure, I continued my analyses with the four-factor model.

Revisions and Final Scale

Based on the above initial analyses (i.e., individual item statistics, factor structure, factor loadings) and considering the item content, I determined the final items to retain, ensuring at least four items per factor. Although three items is generally the lowest recommended number of items per factor, having more items rather than fewer is better, and reducing a factor to three items could impact the stability of the scale's internal consistency across samples and adequacy of the construct coverage (MacCallum et al., 1999).

Specifically, I examined the discrepancy matrix to determine which items may be causing misfit within the four-factor model. A discrepancy matrix calculates the residuals between the predicted and observed correlations of all the items in the scale, and values further away from zero indicate that items are correlated more or less than they should be according to the model (i.e., misfit). All 30 items had at least one discrepancy over .10 or below -.10 ($M = 6.73$, $SD = 4.81$). After looking at other item statistics, including factor loadings, item-to-subscale correlations, and interitem correlations, I dropped seven items that had eight or more discrepancies over .10 or below -.10 (items DAp 2, DAp 7, DAp 8, DAv 5, DAv 6, DAv 7, and IAv 5). Item DAv 2 had 12 of these problematic discrepancies, but the item was not dropped in order to retain four items in the direct-avoid factor. After removing those items, the four-factor model fit well ($\chi^2 = 576.99$, $df = 224$, $p < .001$; $CFI = .93$; $TLI = .92$; $RMSEA = .07$), supporting hypothesis 1.

Once again, I looked at the discrepancy matrix to see if there were any particular items causing the remaining misfit. In order to shorten the scale for practical use and to retain an equal number of items per factor, items DAp 3, IAp 4, IAp 6, IAp 7, IAv 1, IAv 2, and IAv 4 were iteratively dropped from the scale based on their discrepancies, item content, factor loadings, and

descriptive statistics. With the remaining 16 items, the four-factor model produced five discrepancies over .10 or below -.10, and the model fit very well and better than the four-factor model after the first seven items were dropped (χ^2 = 178.92, *df* = 98, $p < .001$; *CFI* = .97; *TLI* = .96; *RMSEA* = .05). The items in the final scale can be found in Table 7, along with their factor loadings and item-to-subscale correlations. Factor loadings ranged from .70-.89 (*M* = .79, *SD* = .06), and item-to-subscale correlations ranged from .78-.90 (*M* = .84, *SD* = .04). The descriptive statistics, Cronbach's alpha and omega for each factor, and correlations among factors can be found in Table 8. The reliability estimates for all four factors indicated good internal consistency. For the direct-approach dimension, alpha was .83 and omega was .84. For the indirect-approach dimension, alpha and omega were both .86. For the direct-avoid dimension, alpha was .88 and omega was .89. For the indirect-avoid dimension, alpha and omega were both .89.

Assumption Checking for Scale Scores

Given that the following hypothesis testing relied on correlations, I checked for outliers, univariate and bivariate normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2013). Boundary preferences, NTWC, FSSB, and LMX all contained statistical outliers, but the values were contained within the response scales. After removing these cases (*n* = 17), two correlations (FSSB with indirect-approach support-marshaling, *r* = .11 and NTWC with direct-approach support-marshaling, *r* = .09) became slightly smaller in magnitude and nonsignificant compared to the results with outliers included (*r* = .15 and *r* = .13, respectively). However, considering that all other significant results with outliers remained the same without outliers, correlations changed by .07 or less, and the outlier values were reasonable considering the scales, I decided to maintain the cases with outliers.

Mardia's multivarite skewness and kurtosis tests indicated that the assumption of bivariate normality was not met, and regarding univariate normality, all variables besides boundary preferences were visibly non-normal and produced significant Shapiro-Wilk tests. Shapiro-Wilk tests are sensitive to sample size, producing a significant test statistic (i.e., indicating non-normality) even for slight deviations from a normal distribution, particularly with samples larger than 300 (Kim, 2013). I transformed these variables using inverse, natural log, and square root transformations, examined indicators of normality (i.e., histograms, skewness, kurtosis), and compared results between using the transformed and using the untransformed variables. Using the transformed variables caused multiple correlations to become significant or nonsignificant, change in magnitude, and /or switch direction. To verify the direction of the relationships, I tested Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho correlations using the untransformed variables because as nonparametric correlation tests, they do not require normally distributed variables. Comparing those results to the results using Pearson's r and untransformed variables, the directions of the correlations were consistent in all relationships except one (LMX with indirect-approach support-marshaling, r = .02, ρ = -.05, τ = -.06). Other than that correlation, Pearson's r values differed minimally from Spearman's rho values, with differences ranging between 0-.06 (M = .02, SD = .01). Therefore, I decided to move forward with untransformed variables and Pearson's r correlations. Scatterplots indicated no serious concerns regarding linearity or homoscedasticity.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

With Pearson's r correlations, I evaluated the extent to which the final scale demonstrates evidence of convergent and discriminant validity (i.e., the extent to which the scale relates to constructs in theoretically expected ways). Specifically, I correlated the four dimensions of

support-marshaling with boundary preferences and leader-member exchange quality. Correlations between all scales can be found in Table 9. Due to poor model fit for the attachment scale, results of analyses using that scale are not reported here.[1] Thus, support for hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c could not be determined.

Hypothesis 3 was supported, as segmentation preferences correlated positively and more strongly with direct-avoid support-marshaling (r = .22; 95% CI [.12, .33]) and indirect-avoid support-marshaling (r = .37; 95% CI [.27, .46]) compared to the negative correlations with direct-approach support-marshaling (r = -.16; 95% CI [-.26, -.05]) and indirect-approach support-marshaling (r = -.16; 95% CI [-.27, -.05]). The 95% confidence interval for the indirect-avoid correlation did not overlap with the 95% confidence interval for the two approach correlations, providing further evidence of convergent and discriminant validity. However, the 95% confidence interval for the direct-avoid correlation did overlap with those for the two approach correlations, suggesting that the former relationship is not substantially larger in magnitude than the latter relationships as was expected. Hypothesis 4 was partially supported. LMX correlated strongly and positively with direct-approach support-marshaling (r = .35; 95%

[1] In order to be thorough and transparent, I did test hypothesis 2 and I include the results here. Hypothesis 2a was supported by positive correlations between attachment anxiety and direct-approach support-marshaling (r = .08) and indirect-approach support-marshaling (r = .38), and the latter being larger than the former. Hypotheses 2b and 2c were partially supported. Hypothesis 2b was supported regarding direction of the relationships, as the correlations between attachment avoidance and the avoid dimensions of support-marshaling were positive (r = .04 for direct and r = .25 for indirect) while the correlations between attachment avoidance and the approach dimensions of support-marshaling were negative (r = -.22 for direct and r = -.19 for indirect). However, the correlation between attachment avoidance and direct-avoid was weaker than expected, and the correlations with the approach dimensions were stronger than expected. The stronger and positive correlation between attachment avoidance and indirect-avoid support-marshaling (r = .25) compared to the correlations with the two direct dimensions (r = -.22 for approach, r = .04 for avoid) supported hypothesis 2c. However, the correlation between attachment avoidance and indirect-approach support-marshaling (r = -.19) was only stronger than the correlation with direct-avoid, but not the correlation with direct-approach as was expected.

CI [.25, .44]) compared to the correlations with indirect-approach support-marshaling (r = .02; 95% CI [-.09, .13]) and direct-avoid support-marshaling (r = .12; 95% CI [.01, .23]). The 95% confidence interval for the direct-approach correlation did not overlap with the 95% confidence intervals for either the direct-approach correlation or the direct avoid correlation. However, the correlation between LMX and indirect-avoid support-marshaling was of the same magnitude (r = -.34; 95% CI [-.44, -.24]), not weaker as was expected.

Concurrent Criterion-Related Validity

I evaluated the extent to which the scale demonstrates evidence of concurrent criterion-related validity (i.e., the extent to which the scale predicts important outcomes that should theoretically be influenced by support-marshaling). I did this by correlating FSSB, work-to-nonwork conflict, and nonwork-to-work conflict with the four dimensions of support-marshaling. FSSB was strongly and positively related to direct-approach support-marshaling (r = .49), supporting hypothesis 5a. FSSB was moderately and positively related to indirect-approach support-marshaling (r = .15), supporting hypothesis 5b. Hypothesis 5c was not supported, as the relationship between FSSB and direct-avoid support-marshaling was weak and positive (r = .08), not moderate and negative as predicted. Hypothesis 5d was partially supported, however the correlation between FSSB and indirect-avoid support-marshaling was stronger than expected (r = -.40).

WTNC was weakly and negatively related to direct-approach support-marshaling (r = -.08), thus hypothesis 6a was partially supported. WTNC was moderately, but positively, related to indirect-approach support-marshaling, thus hypothesis 6b was not supported. WTNC was positively related to direct-avoid support-marshaling (r = .05) and to indirect-avoid support-marshaling (r = .18), supporting hypotheses 6c and 6d. NTWC was moderately and positively

related to direct-approach support-marshaling (r = .13), thus hypothesis 7a was not supported. NTWC was strongly and positively related to indirect-approach support-marshaling (r = .36), thus hypothesis 7b was not supported. NTWC was weakly and negatively related to direct-avoid support-marshaling (r = -.05) and to indirect-avoid support-marshaling (r = -.04), thus hypotheses 7c and 7d were not supported. Tables 10 and 11 indicate all hypotheses and their support.

Post Hoc Analyses

Based on thesis committee member concerns and questions, I evaluated additional variables to provide evidence of convergent validity and conducted mediations using structural equation modeling to provide preliminary evidence for the sequence of causal influence between support-marshaling, FSSB, and work-nonwork conflict.

Convergent validity. Although not hypothesized, I tested correlations between the support-marshaling dimensions and two additional constructs: social interaction anxiety and assertive communication style. Because both constructs refer to forms of communication, they may have different relationships with the direct versus indirect dimensions of support-marshaling, but likely have similar relationships with the approach and avoid dimensions. Social interaction anxiety is defined as distress when meeting and/or talking with others, particularly for fear of saying or doing the wrong thing, not knowing how to respond, or being ignored (Mattick & Clarke, 1998). Social interaction anxiety may influence the support-marshaling behaviors that an employee would engage in, particularly because of the power differential between them and their supervisor. An individual with high social interaction anxiety is not likely to initiate clear and direct communication with their supervisor, and would instead use other, subtle ways to communicate their needs. Therefore, I predicted that social interaction anxiety would correlate

more strongly and positively with the indirect dimensions of support-marshaling than with the direct dimensions of support-marshaling.

Assertive communication style is characterized by independence, dominance, forcefulness, and willingness to speak one's mind, and this characteristic is often considered in contrast to a responsive communication style (i.e., characterized as being compassionate, sensitive, gentle, friendly), although the two are distinct constructs and not meaningfully related to each other (Richmond & McCroskey, 1990). Someone who is more assertive would be more likely to tell their supervisor what they need or want in a direct way compared to someone who is less assertive and more likely to use vague or subtle communication. Therefore, I predicted that assertiveness would correlate more strongly and positively with the direct dimensions of support-marshaling than with the indirect dimensions of support-marshaling.

Measures. Social interaction anxiety was measured using a short form of Mattick and Clarke's (1998) original Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) developed by Fergus, Valentiner, McGrath, Gier-Lonsway, and Kim (2011). The scale contains six items and uses Likert-type response options from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Two sample items are "I am nervous mixing with people I don't know well" and "I become tense if I have to talk about myself or my feelings." The social anxiety scale demonstrated good model fit ($\chi^2 = 56.46$, $df = 9$, $p < .001$; $CFI = .96$; $TLI = .94$; $RMSEA = .13$) and good internal consistency ($\alpha = .91$, $\omega = .91$). Assertive communication style was assessed using the assertiveness dimension of the SocioCommunicative Style Scale (SCS) developed by Richmond and McCroskey (1990). The scale consists of 10 descriptors, such as "forceful," "dominant," and "willing to take a stand" and uses Likert-type response options from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Participants were instructed to indicate the extent to which they agreed that the characteristic applies to them.

The assertive communication scale did not fit the proposed model (χ^2 = 265.26, *df* = 35, *p* < .001; *CFI* = .84; *TLI* = .80; *RMSEA* = .14), but internal consistency was acceptable (α = .88, ω = .89). After looking at the factor loadings, discrepancy matrix, and item content, I iteratively dropped three items. The resulting scale had good fit (χ^2 = 35.40, *df* = 14, *p* = .001; *CFI* = .98; *TLI* = .97; *RMSEA* = .07) and good internal consistency (α = .88, ω = .88).

Results. As expected, social anxiety was more strongly correlated with the two indirect dimensions (approach: *r* = .15, 95% CI [.04, .26]; avoid: *r* = .15, 95% CI [.04, .25]) than with the direct dimensions (approach: *r* = .03, 95% CI [-.08, .14]; avoid: *r* = .07, 95% CI [-.04, .18]). However, confidence intervals for all four correlations did overlap, indicating that the relationships may actually be similar in magnitude. Assertive communication was weakly correlated with all of the dimensions, but positively related to direct-avoid support-marshaling (*r* = .08; 95% CI [-.13, .18]), indirect-avoid support-marshaling (*r* = .09; 95% CI [-.02, .20]), and indirect-approach support-marshaling (*r* = .04; 95% CI [-.07, .15]), and negatively related to direct-approach support-marshaling (*r* = -.05; 95% CI [-.16, .06]). All confidence intervals overlapped regarding strength of the correlations.

Mediation. The hypotheses for criterion-related validity were developed under the assumption that employees' support-marshaling behavior can influence supervisor behavior (i.e., FSSB), which would in turn reduce work-nonwork conflict. An alternative explanation is that the support provided by a supervisor makes an employee more likely to seek support, which then reduces work-nonwork conflict. In order to test this assumption, I compared competing mediation models with structural equation modeling using Lavaan in R. To obtain confidence intervals and determine if the indirect effect was significantly different from zero, I drew 1000 bootstrap samples. In the first model of each pair, FSSB mediates the relationship between

support-marshaling and work-nonwork conflict. In the second model of each pair, support-marshaling mediates the relationship between FSSB and work-nonwork conflict. Specifically, I tested these using both directions of work-nonwork conflict and the two approach dimensions of support-marshaling, as they are theoretically and empirically more likely than the avoid dimensions to lead to the types of support that make up FSSB (e.g., Collins & Feeney, 2000; Crowley, 2016). I predicted that the former mediation model (i.e., with FSSB as the mediator) would fit better than the latter mediation model (i.e., with support-marshaling as the mediator).

Results. I used a two-step process to test the structural regression models, first testing a measurement model and then specifying the structural regression model. Standardized coefficients are presented here. The first comparison was between a model in which direct-approach support-marshaling leads to FSSB, which leads to WTNC and a model in which FSSB leads to direct-approach support-marshaling, which leads to WTNC. The measurement model with direct-approach support-marshaling, FSSB, and WTNC correlated fit well (χ^2 = 126.30, *df* = 62, $p < .001$; *CFI* = .98; *TLI* = .97; *RMSEA* = .06). The negative indirect effect of direct-approach support-marshaling on WTNC through FSSB (indirect effect = -0.14, 95% CI [-0.28, -0.04]) was significant compared to the nonsignificant indirect effect of FSSB on WTNC through direct-approach support-marshaling (indirect effect = 0.02, 95% CI [-0.07, 0.13]).

The second comparison was between a model in which direct-approach support-marshaling leads to FSSB, which leads to NTWC and a model in which FSSB leads to direct-approach support-marshaling, which leads to NTWC. The measurement model with direct-approach support-marshaling, FSSB, and NTWC correlated fit well (χ^2 = 199.73, *df* = 74, $p < .001$; *CFI* = .95; *TLI* = .94; *RMSEA* = .07). The indirect effect of direct-approach support-marshaling on NTWC through FSSB (indirect effect = -0.07, 95% CI [-0.17, 0.02]) was not

significant compared to the positive significant indirect effect of FSSB on NTWC through direct-approach support-marshaling (indirect effect = 0.12, 95% CI [0.02, 0.20]).

The third comparison was between a model in which indirect-approach support-marshaling leads to FSSB, which leads to WTNC and a model in which FSSB leads to indirect-approach support-marshaling, which leads to WTNC. The measurement model with indirect-approach support-marshaling, FSSB, and WTNC correlated fit well (χ^2 = 131.14, *df* = 62, $p <$ .001; *CFI* = .97; *TLI* = .97; *RMSEA* = .06).The negative indirect effect of indirect-approach support-marshaling on WTNC through FSSB was significant (indirect effect = -0.04, 95% CI [-0.09, -0.01]), as was the positive indirect effect of FSSB on WTNC through indirect-approach support-marshaling (indirect effect = 0.04, 95% CI [0.003, 0.07]).

The fourth comparison was between a model in which indirect-approach support-marshaling leads to FSSB, which leads to NTWC and a model in which FSSB leads to indirect-approach support-marshaling, which leads to NTWC. The measurement model with indirect-approach support-marshaling, FSSB, and NTWC correlated fit well (χ^2 = 186.72, *df* = 74, $p <$ .001; *CFI* = .96; *TLI* = .95; *RMSEA* = .07). The indirect effect of indirect-approach support-marshaling on NTWC through FSSB (indirect effect = -0.01, 95% CI [-0.04, 0.01]) was not significant compared to the significant positive indirect effect of FSSB on NTWC through indirect-approach support-marshaling (indirect effect = 0.08, 95% CI [0.02, 0.12]). Note that because all paths were specified in the models, fit statistics and relative fit statistics (i.e., AIC) did not change within the pairs of models. Taken together, these results do not provide clear support for one type of sequential model (e.g., support-marshaling as the predictor, FSSB as the mediator) over the other (e.g., FSSB as the predictor, support-marshaling as the mediator). It is possible that these variables all reciprocally influence one another over time. With cross-

sectional data, testing competing mediations cannot tease apart causality or determine the most plausible temporal sequence of these variables (Winer et al., 2016).

CHAPTER 4 – DISCUSSION

The current study contributes to the literature by developing a measure of employee nonwork support-marshaling, or the behaviors that employees enact in order to manage the nonwork-related support they receive from their supervisors. The results of this study generally provide evidence for the reliability and validity of the employee nonwork support-marshaling scale. Internal consistency for all four support-marshaling dimensions was strong. Although the scale content was developed through a comprehensive literature review, interviews with employees, and discussion with subject matter experts, empirical support for appropriate content validity was lacking. SMEs only agreed on three initial items being essential for measuring the construct, but all other CVRs were unacceptable. Items were revised based on SME feedback before being administered to the sample. Evidence of internal structure validity was strong, as individual item statistics, subscale statistics, and factor analyses all indicated that the items related to each other in the ways we would theoretically expect. Lastly, evidence of construct validity, based on relationships between the proposed scale and other variables, generally situated this construct within its nomological net as expected. Thus, this measure can be used in future studies to further understand workplace support and the influence of employee behavior on the support process.

Theoretical Contributions

Developing this scale fills a theoretical gap by connecting the literature on support-seeking to that on workplace support for nonwork and, specifically, to FSSB. Prior to this study, there had been no consideration of employees' influence on the support process between supervisors and employees with respect to nonwork issues. With this scale, I drew on the qualitative and quantitative work from other disciplines on support-seeking in other settings

(e.g., Barbee et al., 1993; Crowley & Faw, 2014; Faw, 2014) to more fully understand how nonwork support occurs in the workplace. Additionally, the current study addresses a gap in the existing literature and FSSB theory by considering an employee-level antecedent of FSSB, as called for by Crain and Stevens (2018). Specifically, this study demonstrated that employee support-marshaling behavior does relate to FSSB, therefore expanding the nomological net of FSSB. Lastly, this study identified the specific support-marshaling strategies of employees in this context, which will allow future researchers to differentiate between employee behaviors and examine how they relate to the supervisor-employee relationship, the support process, and outcomes. The proposed structure of the construct and the identified behaviors were supported by a well-fitting four-factor structure differentiating direct support-marshaling from indirect support-marshaling and approach support-marshaling from avoid support-marshaling.

Nomological Net of Employee Nonwork Support-Marshaling

By testing evidence of convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity, this study also begins to establish a nomological net for employee support-marshaling.

Convergent and discriminant relationships. First, all the support-marshaling dimensions were related to boundary preferences as expected. Individuals who prefer to keep their work and nonwork roles separate are more likely to use the avoid support-marshaling strategies. They refrain from soliciting support for nonwork issues while at work and, either implicitly or explicitly, maintain their preferred boundaries between work and nonwork in the context of interactions with their supervisors. Additionally, the hypothesized pattern of relationships between the support-marshaling dimensions and LMX was generally supported. Having a higher relationship quality is positively related to using direct-approach support-marshaling. The negative relationship between LMX and indirect-avoid support-marshaling was

stronger than expected. However, it is not surprising that those who have poor relationships with their supervisors would avoid or minimize any interaction with their supervisors, but especially interaction deemed unnecessary such as conversations about nonwork-related topics.

Another unexpected finding was that LMX was positively related to direct-avoid support-marshaling rather than negatively related as expected. I had predicted that employees who have poor relationships would be more likely to set boundaries and not want to discuss nonwork issues with their supervisors. However, because individuals may actually need to feel fairly secure and trusting in their relationship with their supervisor to be direct and set clear expectations and boundaries, it makes sense that higher quality relationships engender more direct communication. Some evidence does suggest that higher LMX quality is related to more direct communication in the context of feedback-seeking (e.g., Eichhorn, 2009; Lee, Park, Lee, & Lee, 2007). Considering this finding in combination with the relationship between boundary preferences and direct-avoid support-marshaling, perhaps boundary preferences drive avoid behaviors, whereas relationship quality allows individuals to express that preference directly. Taken together, these findings provide preliminary evidence for the nomological net of support-marshaling but suggest complex relationships between the four dimensions and these convergent or discriminant constructs.

Criterion relationships and mediation models. Regarding outcomes of support-marshaling and criterion-related validity of this scale, there were multiple findings worth noting. First, the relationships between the approach dimensions and FSSB were positive, and the relationship for direct-approach was stronger than the relationship for indirect-approach, as expected. However, the relationship between direct-avoid and FSSB was very weak, suggesting that the extent to which one sets clear boundaries and clearly limits or disengages from

communication about nonwork with their supervisor may not be meaningfully related to perceptions of supervisor support. Theoretically, if the support provided by a supervisor is low-level, appropriate, noninvasive and/or not overwhelming, a supervisor may continuously provide that same amount of support regardless of whether an employee engages in direct-avoid behaviors or not. Additionally, the relationship between indirect-avoid and FSSB was negative as predicted, but stronger than expected. Perhaps this relationship suggests that when employees actively but subtly limit their communication regarding nonwork, supervisors have to independently determine the FSSB to provide, and they default to very low levels of FSSB. This default may occur for many reasons, including believing FSSB is not necessary, choosing to always keep conversations work-focused, wanting to give employees' privacy and autonomy, or lacking a general awareness or acknowledgement of their employees' nonwork lives and their support needs. Some of these reasons may be captured by what Straub (2012) theorized were the most proximal psychological determinants of FSSB: felt responsibility and psychological empowerment to provide FSSB, without which a supervisor is much less likely to perform FSSB. Conversely, this finding could be indicative of the alternative direction of this relationship, in which low levels of support precede indirect-avoid behaviors because employees feel hesitant to talk about their nonwork issues and stress due to the lack of support they generally receive.

WTNC was positively related to both avoid dimensions (although very weakly to direct-avoid) as expected, suggesting that those who do not discuss work-nonwork conflicts and nonwork issues with their supervisors are more likely to experience their work conflicting with their nonwork lives. Direct-avoid support-marshaling may be weakly related to WTNC because these behaviors are enacted intentionally, and people may be more likely to do so when they have other forms of support or other resources for managing their work and nonwork. Whether

or not someone explicitly limits conversations about nonwork with their supervisor does not relate to their perceptions of their work conflicting with their nonwork.

The relationships between the two avoid dimensions and NTWC were both very weak and negative, indicating that avoid support-marshaling behavior does not relate to the amount of conflict one perceives between their nonwork life and their work life, despite indirect-avoid support-marshaling relating to the amount of conflict one perceives between their work life and their nonwork life. If people engage in indirect-avoid behaviors, they are more likely to face WTNC, possibly because their supervisors cannot assist them in managing their work in order to reduce that conflict. However, whether or not someone chooses to avoid talking to their supervisor about their nonwork issues does not necessarily relate to whether or not they are experiencing NTWC.

Interestingly, indirect-approach support-marshaling was positively related to WTNC, though the relationship was expected to be stronger and negative. The same unexpected result occurred between indirect-approach and NTWC, with an even stronger positive relationship than between indirect-approach and WTNC. One explanation for this relationship might be that indirect efforts to garner support mean that the employee is aware of their need for support and is hopeful for support, but these efforts are not effective, leading to increased perceptions of conflict. Alternatively, higher perceptions of WTNC or NTWC may lead individuals to engage in more indirect-approach support-marshaling. Further, the relationship might be stronger for NTWC because, compared to discussing WTNC at work, an employee may be more likely to use subtle methods to communicate about a nonwork issue affecting work in order to reduce the chances of appearing distracted, being perceived as prioritizing nonwork over work, or having their work output scrutinized. SEM results did indicate that there is a significant negative indirect

effect of indirect-approach support-marshaling on WTNC through increased FSSB, with a positive a-path between support-marshaling and FSSB and a negative b-path between FSSB and WTNC. However, there was not a significant indirect effect of indirect-approach support-marshaling on NTWC, which seems to be driven by a very weak relationship between FSSB and NTWC.

Additionally, direct-approach support-marshaling was weakly related to WTNC, suggesting that directly asking for nonwork support might not relate to perceived conflict between work and nonwork. However, SEM results demonstrate that there is a significant negative indirect effect of direct-approach support-marshaling on WTNC through increased FSSB, indicating that the effects of directly asking for support are transmitted through actually receiving support. Lastly, the relationship between direct-approach support-marshaling and NTWC was weak and positive when it was expected to be moderate and negative. It is possible that this is due to the bidirectional nature of this relationship, such that asking for support would reduce conflict (i.e., negative relationship), and experiencing more NTWC would lead someone to directly ask for support (i.e., positive relationship). Similarly, previous research indicates that support (i.e., family-supportive work environment) predicts strain, but strain also predicts support (Odle-Dusseau et al., 2013). Using SEM, there was not a significant indirect effect of direct-approach support-marshaling on NTWC, which seems to, again, be driven by a very weak relationship between FSSB and NTWC. To gather preliminary evidence for the alternative explanation, I tested the indirect effect of NTWC on FSSB through direct-approach support-marshaling and found a significant positive indirect effect (indirect effect = .08, 95% CI [0.01, .18]), suggesting that while there is no direct relationship between NTWC and FSSB, NTWC relates to increased direct-approach support-marshaling, which relates to increased FSSB.

Two other interesting findings come from the mediation models in which support-marshaling mediates the relationship between FSSB and conflict. It should be noted that the results of all mediation analyses should be interpreted cautiously, considering the data were cross-sectional (Winer et al., 2016). There was a significant positive indirect effect of FSSB on NTWC through direct-approach, a significant positive indirect effect of FSSB on NTWC through indirect-approach, and a significant positive indirect effect of FSSB on WTNC through indirect-approach. Despite the unexpected directionality of these relationships (driven by the positive relationships between conflict and the approach behaviors discussed previously), these indirect effects indicate that FSSB influences conflict through employee support-marshaling. FSSB does directly relate to WTNC, but this relationship is also partially mediated by indirect-approach support-marshaling. Perhaps most interestingly, FSSB does not directly relate to NTWC—the influence of FSSB on NTWC occurs completely through direct- and indirect-approach support-marshaling behavior from employees. In their review of FSSB, Crain and Stevens (2018) note that four previous studies had found a significant association between FSSB and NTWC, but two had not (Hammer et al., 2009; Hammer et al., 2013). Considering the significant indirect effect found in the current study, it is possible that the effects of FSSB (and FSSB interventions) on NTWC may only be realized if employees engage in support-marshaling.

Practical Implications

Current FSSB interventions rely on changing the behavior of supervisors and do not address how employees influence the support process (e.g., Hammer et al., 2011; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2016). To be most effective, interventions should ideally target both the individual and organizational levels (e.g., Hammer & Sauter, 2013), and occupational health scholars have specifically called for interventions aimed at addressing stress to incorporate multiple points of

intervention (e.g., Hurrell, 1995). Organizational level interventions will not be effective if the individual employees in the organization react poorly to initiatives, refuse to follow new policies, or do not know about or understand the changes being implemented. Conversely, employees can only enact individual behaviors within the boundaries of what resources are available to them and what is deemed acceptable in the organization. Accordingly, interventions at higher levels are more wide-reaching and can enable individual interventions to be more effective. Furthermore, the power differential between supervisors and employees regarding control and influence in the organization (e.g., Feldman, 1984; Yukl & van Fleet, 1992) should be considered.

Thus, training supervisors to be nonwork-supportive is crucial for improving employee outcomes in a widespread manner, and current interventions suggest that these types of interventions do successfully improve various work, family, and health outcomes (e.g., Davis et al., 2015; Hammer et al., 2016; Kelly et al., 2014; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2014). However, also due to the power differential, there may be concerns associated with organizations blindly and uniformly encouraging (and expecting) supervisors to ask or talk about employees' nonwork lives. Employees may consider this inappropriate or unwanted, but the hierarchical nature of the relationship could constrain employees' ability to voice their opinions about these behaviors or make them feel unable to control how and when they receive support. Instead of implementing FSSB interventions is this way, findings from this study should be used to strengthen FSSB training for supervisors, but also to incorporate individual-level training for employees.

Employee training should specifically aim to empower employees with the tools and agency to most effectively manage the support that they want and need from their supervisors. The four dimensions of support-marshaling each have unique relationships with FSSB,

suggesting that the different strategies may be more or less useful and appropriate depending on the goals of the employee. Employees should be integrated into FSSB interventions starting with their completion of this support-marshaling measure. The intervention leader could then lead them through a guided exercise to consider what kind of work-nonwork boundaries they desire (Lautsch & Kossek, 2007), how much and what kind of nonwork support they want from their supervisors, and whether or not their current support-marshaling strategies are likely to lead to their desired outcomes. For individuals to learn different strategies, the intervention could also incorporate training strategies such as behavioral role modeling, which emphasizes practice and feedback (Brown & Sitzmann, 2011; Salas, Kraiger, & Smith-Jentsch, 2012). If the effect of FSSB on conflict outcomes is truly mediated by support-marshaling behavior, only training supervisors to be supportive is not sufficient to reduce conflict. It will be crucial for employees to be aware of these support-marshaling strategies and to implement them in order to utilize the FSSB provided.

Even with the involvement of employees, supervisors still need to be trained how to best provide support, as existing FSSB interventions already do (e.g., Kossek, Hammer, Kelly, & Moen, 2014). This study provides a framework for supervisors to recognize the various support-marshaling behaviors carried out by their employees. By educating supervisors about the four dimensions of support-marshaling and providing them with example behaviors from each dimension, supervisors could be better equipped to react to the support-marshaling behaviors enacted by their employees, either by providing more desired support or reducing the intensity and/or frequency of nonwork support to allow the employee to manage their own work and nonwork roles without interference. Like employees, supervisors would benefit from behavioral role modeling, but also from training methods similar to error management training, in which

errors are encouraged and used as part of the learning process (Brown & Sitzmann, 2011; Salas et al., 2012). During the training, supervisors could work in pairs and role play, with the "supervisor" being instructed to intentionally misread support-marshaling behavior from the "employee." This could mean ignoring approach behaviors, making rude comments about nonwork responsibilities and work-nonwork management, or asking intrusive questions and offering unsolicited advice in response to avoid behaviors. After role-playing the scenario, the "employee" could give feedback regarding how the support misstep (i.e., error) felt, and the intervention facilitator could lead a discussion on avoiding errors in genuine situations and addressing errors if they do occur (e.g., apologizing, asking about and resetting boundaries).

In addition to training employees and supervisors separately, interventions would likely benefit from group or dyadic exercises as well, in which employees and supervisors can have facilitated conversations about work-nonwork support (i.e., FSSB) and work-nonwork communication (e.g., support-marshaling) with the intention of aligning expectations. Therefore, this support-marshaling framework could be incorporated with FSSB training interventions to create multilevel work-nonwork interventions in order to improve the appropriateness and effectiveness of supervisor and employee behaviors.

At the organizational-level, being able to identify common support communication strategies across individuals may help leaders to better understand their organization's or team's culture and climate for work-nonwork and for support. For example, although support-marshaling is an individual-level variable, if employees in a work group use more avoid behaviors than approach behaviors on average, that might be indicative of a nonsupportive climate for nonwork. In contrast, if employees primarily use direct support-marshaling, that could indicate a culture of openness, honesty, and psychological safety regarding work-nonwork

communication. Aggregated scores on this measure could be shared with work group leaders and with organizational leaders, who could use this information to better understand why employees might not be getting the support they need and why they might be experiencing work-nonwork conflict, perhaps to inform future training or interventions. Further, these aggregates could be used to identify discrepancies between leaders' perceptions of support interactions in their work group and the extent to which employees in the workgroup actually communicate in different ways about support at work. Incorporating these findings into FSSB interventions may enhance the impact of the interventions on employee-supervisor communication, work-nonwork conflict, and other important outcomes, overall improving employees' experiences with the work-nonwork interface.

Limitations

There are a few notable limitations of this study. First, with cross-sectional data, I cannot establish any temporal relationships, so I cannot determine predictive criterion-related validity of this scale or capture the support process in its entirety. However, these cross-sectional data can still be used to provide preliminary evidence of appropriate content, internal structure, convergent and discriminant validity, and concurrent predictive validity. Additionally, with cross-sectional data, the relationships between support-marshaling and certain variables could potentially have been predicted to go in either direction. I hypothesized all relationships in the direction that is most in line with theory and past research and took into consideration the way the items were phrased in regard to time (i.e., behavior in general, rather than past behavior or likelihood of future behavior). For instance, I expected that individuals who engage in more approach support-marshaling behaviors would experience reduced work-nonwork conflict, indicated by a negative relationship. However, I would also theoretically expect that individuals

with more work-nonwork conflict would engage in more approach support-marshaling behaviors, indicated by a positive relationship. Results from this study primarily produced weak to moderate positive relationships between approach support-marshaling and conflict, suggesting that this cross-sectional data may be capturing the alternative, not-hypothesized directionality. Collecting data at one time point cannot capture this entire cyclical process. I also tested competing mediation models to explore preliminary evidence of relationship directionality (i.e., comparing FSSB as a mediator between approach support-marshaling and conflict to approach support-marshaling as a mediator between FSSB and conflict). However, the comparisons of these models did not provide clear evidence for whether support-marshaling or FSSB occurs first in sequence with conflict outcomes. Thus, future research should explore the relationships between support-marshaling behavior and other constructs longitudinally.

In addition to traditional longitudinal study designs, future research should implement an experience sampling methodology (ESM) framework, in order to fully capture the construct and the support process. Although longitudinal data could provide more evidence for the overall temporal relationship between support-marshaling and outcomes (e.g., FSSB, work-nonwork conflict), ESM would better capture the complexities of day-to-day interactions between supervisors and employees (Beal, 2015). This would make it possible to see how a specific type of support-marshaling behavior relates to immediate FSSB received and other outcomes (e.g., leader-member exchange quality assessed by both the employee and supervisor). Additionally, ESM would make it possible to see how and why employees engage in different support-marshaling behaviors over time or in different situations (e.g., different support needs, soon after a previous instance of asking for support versus after a long period of time). Presumably, the support process is a feedback loop, and ESM would help us to understand the full process of one

support event as well as trajectories of behavior, attitudes, and outcomes across multiple support and nonsupport events.

Second, this scale measures behavior through a self-report format. Lehmann-Willenbrock and Allen (2017) highlight the importance of capturing actual behavior through observation rather than relying on self-reported behavior, especially in the context of organizational interactions. Particularly important for this scale, the indirect support-marshaling items may contain an element of social desirability, making respondents less likely to endorse those items. The lower mean for the indirect-approach dimension ($M = 2.26$) compared to the other dimensions ($M = 3.26$ for direct-approach, $M = 3.35$ for direct-avoid, $M = 3.15$ for indirect-avoid) might be due to a true lower base rate of these behaviors or to socially desirable responding. This may present issues regarding limited variability and floor effects in future research. Observational data would provide more accurate and descriptive data for some dimensions of support-marshaling (i.e., direct and approach items), although some behaviors may be hard to observe (i.e., indirect and avoid items). However, the development of a self-report scale is an important first step in establishing this construct and demonstrating its importance in order to study it in more depth in future research.

Third, some of the scales used to provide evidence of convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity did not fit their proposed factor models as expected. In particular, the attachment scale did not fit the proposed two-factor model, making it inappropriate to test the hypotheses between attachment and support-marshaling. Additionally, the boundary preferences scale and the assertive communication scale originally did not fit their proposed one-factor models. With modifications (i.e., items deleted), the scales were deemed acceptable. However, despite careful intentions to make conservative changes based on empirical and theoretical (i.e.,

item content) information, removing items jeopardizes the integrity of the original validated scales. Future validation efforts for the support-marshaling scale will require different measures of these constructs or establishing that these measures do demonstrate good fit statistics within the sample prior to testing relationships with the support-marshaling scale.

Finally, this study is also limited by the use of an MTurk sample. Only five participants missed one or more attention checks and there were no missing data, minimizing most concerns about data quality. However, MTurk workers are generally better at passing attention checks than subject pool participants, which may mean they are truly more attentive or it may indicate they are better at noticing and completing attention checks while still responding to the true items without fully considering the content and their responses (Hauser & Schwarz, 2016). Additionally, despite many required qualifications and exclusion criteria, we cannot be completely certain about who is in the sample (e.g., Buhrmester et al., 2011; Cheung et al., 2017). For instance, MTurk workers could misrepresent their demographics or work-related variables, whereas by contacting employees through their workplace, researchers could at least verify the individuals' employment status. Further, using this type of sample makes it difficult to collect data for some important contextual factors, including aggregated climate (e.g., climate for support, climate for nonwork) and organizational structure. Therefore, with this type of sample, we cannot statistically model contextual variables that describe the environment within which the support interactions occur. Specifically, with an MTurk sample, data were self-reported from a single source (i.e., employees), which may inflate relationships between variables due to common method or common source variance (e.g., Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Additionally, without collecting data from supervisors, we could not conduct dyadic analyses or link employees to supervisors for multilevel modeling, which would

allow us to distinguish variability of employee support-marshaling between supervisors from variability within supervisors.

Future Directions

Beyond different study designs including longitudinal and ESM studies, multilevel modeling, behavioral observation, and different types of samples, there are many other opportunities to develop our knowledge of this construct within organizational psychology and to use this scale in research and practice.

Support-marshaling conceptualization and scale. First, although the scale was carefully developed based on previous literature regarding support-seeking and support-marshaling, other employee-supervisor interactive processes (e.g., feedback-seeking, help-seeking), and interviews, there are alternative ways this construct and scale could theoretically be conceptualized. For instance, Barbee and colleagues (1993) emphasized the distinction between verbal and nonverbal support-seeking. Although this is partially captured by direct versus indirect communication, the verbal and nonverbal categories are more specific and might capture these behaviors slightly differently. Additionally, other scholars (e.g., Wang et al., 2015) have identified the general categories of self-disclosure versus asking a question when seeking support. Similarly, Williams and Mickelson (2008) describe the importance of considering disclosure of information in addition to direct versus indirect communication. Disclosure versus request might indicate a third dimension of this scale or may be suited to replace one of the dimensions examined with this scale in order to better or more fully capture this construct.

Future work on this construct could also consider whether this support-marshaling scale should measure behavior that occurs in response to a supervisor's behavior (e.g., asking about an employee's recent decision to move into a new home and how the supervisor could be helpful or

accommodating), or only behavior that occurs without a supervisor initiating the interaction. Thus far, FSSB has been conceptualized as completely supervisor-initiated (e.g., Crain & Stevens, 2018). We may be missing important support-marshaling information by not measuring how exactly employees respond to these situations. Lastly, of the four dimensions of FSSB, instrumental support and emotional support are generally more likely to be enacted in response to employees' day-to-day work-nonwork challenges (i.e., reactive), while creative work-family management and role modeling are generally more proactive (Crain & Stevens, 2018; Hammer et al., 2009). Therefore, instrumental support and emotional support may also be important to consider when conceptualizing support-marshaling behaviors, which may differ depending on what type of support the employee is looking for. This may tie back into the distinction between disclosure and request, because the former may be more related to seeking emotional support while the latter may be more related to seeking instrumental support. Future research could explore these competing frameworks of support-marshaling to further establish the construct's boundaries and structure.

Another consideration for the content of this scale is the use of a "nonwork" frame of reference. I intentionally chose not to refer to "family" due to concerns of inclusivity and fairness in research and practice (Young, 1999). The term "nonwork" accounts for employees who do not have traditional, nuclear family roles and responsibilities and employees for whom additional non-family roles and responsibilities are equally or even more important (e.g., Fisher et al., 2009). However, using this term trades inclusivity for our ability to examine nuances related to different aspects of nonwork. For example, nonwork could theoretically be divided into categories of family (e.g., parents, spouse, friends, siblings, children), leisure (e.g., hobbies, sports, volunteer work, church), and health. Although these three realms can be interconnected

(e.g., running a marathon with one's partner, undergoing a procedure to donate an organ to a sibling), they differ in multiple ways, including how they are perceived, reacted to, and acted upon by the employee and by others around the employee.

Some nonwork issues may be perceived as more pressing or important (e.g., family compared to hobbies), some may be more socially acceptable (e.g., a sick child compared to a sick pet), and some may be considered more sensitive and private (e.g., health concerns). How the employee perceives their own nonwork situation or issue may determine whether and how they will engage in support-marshaling. Additionally, how the employee believes their supervisor will perceive the nonwork situation may also factor into their support-marshaling behavior. For example, the employee who is feeling stressed because their hobby (e.g., playing live music events) keeps conflicting with their work responsibilities might hide that stress from their supervisor (i.e., indirect-avoid behaviors) because hobbies may be perceived as a lower priority than work by the employee or the supervisor. The employee with the sick pet may choose not to engage in approach behaviors in order to leave work to go to the vet due to their supervisor and coworkers frequently talking about the stressors of being parents and the employee believing that the supervisor will dismiss their pet's needs. In these instances, one important factor that likely influences support-marshaling behavior is that childless employees do perceive discrimination, which can manifest in the form of family-specific policies at work, being expected to work while employees with families take time off, and disregarding childless employees' stress (e.g., Casper, & Swanberg, 2009; Perrigino, Dunford, & Wilson, 2018; Young, 1999). Lastly, the employee with a sensitive health concern may ask for time off to go to an appointment (i.e., direct-approach) without telling their supervisor anything about the issue, or

they may hint that something serious is going on and visibly show their distress (i.e., indirect-approach) until their supervisor asks the employee what is going on.

Although using the "nonwork" reference is inclusive, it also might make it difficult for employees to rate items (e.g., conflicting responses depending on the type of nonwork issue) and makes it difficult for scholars to tease apart exactly how these interactions are likely to occur. Therefore, we may still be missing important pieces of information in order to fully depict how employees and supervisors communicate about nonwork support needs. Future research should consider teasing apart the different categories of nonwork and examining which support-marshaling behaviors are most probable depending on various types of nonwork issues and employee might face. Another interesting research question is how supervisors perceive and evaluate the different nonwork issues of employees, and how these perceptions may influence the FSSB they provide.

For the development of this scale, I used a support-marshaling framework (e.g., Crowley, 2016), which incorporates approach behaviors (i.e., to increase support) and avoid behaviors (i.e., to decrease nonsupport). However, it is possible that avoid behaviors actually constitute a distinct construct from typical approach support-seeking. They may be enacted without any intention to decrease nonsupport. Instead, avoid behaviors might be more akin to boundary management, general communication style, and heavily influenced by personality, rather than being a type of support management. For example, an individual who keeps their work and nonwork separate is more likely to engage in avoid behaviors—not necessarily in an attempt to manage support from their supervisor, but because they do not perceive nonwork support as part of their supervisor's job and they rely on people outside of work to provide that support. Similarly, an individual may engage in avoid behaviors because they are highly conscientious

and do not want to bother their supervisor, not because they are do not want (i.e., are trying to avoid) the nonwork support that their supervisor does provide. Further, employees may not always easily recognize the intention behind their avoid behaviors, whether or not that intention is to avoid nonsupport. Therefore, future research on support-marshaling in the workplace should examine whether or not avoid behaviors and approach behaviors truly fall under one construct. However, one important consideration this support-marshaling framework brings to light is the idea that employees do avoid discussing nonwork with their supervisors and may actually avoid support interactions that are deemed inappropriate, unhelpful, or unwanted. Without being able to define the exact supervisor behaviors that they are avoiding that fall into these descriptions, employees may be avoiding what we call FSSB.

Assumptions and relationship dynamics. Underlying the FSSB measure and FSSB interventions is a subtle assumption that FSSB is perceived as a good and desired thing by employees. Because FSSB does relate, on average, to positive outcomes (Crain & Stevens, 2018), FSSB is regarded as an important resource for individual employees. However, to date, no research has actually examined this assumption specifically or considered the implications if this assumption is incorrect under some conditions. Similar to the consideration of backlash (i.e., negative attitudes, emotions, or behaviors) in response to organizational work-life balance policies (e.g., on-site provisions, leave policies, and flexible work arrangements; Perrigino et al., 2018), it is important to consider the backlash that might occur in response to other, informal supervisor or organizational nonwork-related efforts, including enacting FSSB and implementing FSSB interventions. Perrigino and colleagues (2018) identified four mechanisms of backlash, including inequity (i.e., negative attitudes characterized by perceptions of unfairness), stigma (i.e., receiving negative behaviors for using policies), spillover (i.e., unintended consequences

that occur outside of work), and strategic (i.e., resisting or shifting away from family-friendly policies). Like work-life balance policy backlash, perhaps some people would perceive inequity due to who receives what types FSSB, leading to resentment and dissatisfaction. Additionally, employees who use support-marshaling to elicit FSSB in certain ways and those who receive FSSB might be subject to negative reactions from coworkers. It is also possible that there are employees who do not want FSSB and who would withdraw from their organization with a range of severity in response to an FSSB intervention (e.g., reduced engagement, absenteeism, counterproductive work behaviors, turnover). Distinct from work-life balance backlash, backlash against FSSB could also include feelings of ambiguity regarding one's relationship with their supervisor, blurring the line between work superior and friend, particularly with the practice of emotional support.

By developing a measure of support-marshaling and incorporating employee behavior into our understanding of nonwork support at work, we open up the possibility that employees are not passive recipients of FSSB and they do not solely seek more nonwork support from their supervisors, but instead manage it—initiating desired support interactions and avoiding unwanted ones. In general, this framework could also be extended to other areas of organizational psychology including feedback-seeing and help-seeking, which are similar processes to support-seeking (Bamberger, 2009). Employees may use similar approach and avoid strategies in these contexts. More broadly, the idea of support-marshaling, which is that employees are active and intentional participants in workplace interactions and processes, should be incorporated throughout organizational psychology research and practice.

First, especially during interventions or periods of organizational change, organizations could provide employees with resources, skills training, and empowerment to advocate for

themselves and be proactive, a type of behavior which is increasingly sought after in employees (Bindl & Parker, 2011). Second, regarding research, this study and its limitations highlight the need for more appropriate methodologies (e.g., ESM) that truly examine how interactions between organizational members occur in the moment and how those interactions are perceived from both perspectives. One unique type of methodology that could benefit the study of these interactions is the use of sociometric badges, which are wearable technology that collect data from face-to-face interactions, including conversational time, physical activity and motion, proximity to others, and speech patterns (e.g., Kim, McFee, Olguin, Waber, & Pentland, 2012). Data from these wearables could be used to examine patterns of interactions between supervisor-employee dyads. Static measures of support and support-marshaling are an important starting point, but they cannot capture the whole support process.

Moreover, a quantitative measure of FSSB only captures the extent to which employees perceive that their supervisors enact certain supportive behaviors, but it cannot capture the employees' evaluations of the behaviors themselves. Future research should examine employee perceptions of and beliefs about FSSB to further understand their responses to the FSSB scale and their support-marshaling behavior. Further, although this measure of support-marshaling can indicate low approach behaviors and/or high avoid behaviors, it cannot help us to determine why individuals enact those patterns of behavior. Future research should specifically examine decision-making and potential explanations for enacting avoid behaviors, which may include beliefs about FSSB mentioned previously, but also perceptions of support received from sources outside of work. Employees could enact or not enact support-marshaling behaviors for many reasons, and power differentials between supervisors and employees must be taken into account. Considering how much we do not know regarding our assumptions about FSSB, qualitative

research may be appropriate to fully explore these support interactions and how internal attitudes, beliefs, and needs influence both sides of the dyadic interaction, including support-marshaling behavior.

Related to employee perceptions of FSSB, future research on support-marshaling may also benefit from considering the idea of support gaps, which comes from the communications literature. Support gaps occur when there are discrepancies between the support desired, sought, and received, and they have been studied in relation to various support situations, including marital stressors, interracial friendships, infertility, and general stressful experiences (e.g., Davis & High, 2019; High & Crowley, 2018; High & Steuber, 2014; McLaren & High, 2015). Importantly, support gaps can occur in both directions (i.e., receiving more or less support than desired), which aligns with support-marshaling including both approach behaviors (for when you are under-supported) and avoid behaviors (for when you are over-supported). Rather than just measuring the amount of support received in order to understand and predict outcomes, it is important to consider how one perceives that amount of support, which is likely determined, at least in part, by what the individual wanted and what they tried to obtain. One person may want very little FSSB, seek very little FSSB, and receive very little FSSB. Another may want a lot of FSSB, seek that out, and yet, receive the same low amount of FSSB. Their outcomes would presumably be very different, yet the way we measure social support in the workplace does not account for this. Therefore, studying support gaps in FSSB may better inform our understanding of support in the workplace and how that relates to important outcomes.

Expand the nomological net of support-marshaling. Lastly, future research should examine additional antecedents and outcomes of support-marshaling to continue to build our empirical knowledge of its nomological net. Specifically, there may be work-related variables

that precede certain types of support-marshaling. For example, a nonwork-supportive organizational climate might be related to more approach behaviors, whereas a climate that is less supportive of employees' nonwork roles might be related to avoid behaviors. Additionally, other relationship variables between employees and supervisors besides LMX (e.g., demographic similarity, tenure) may facilitate more direct communication and more approach behaviors. Previous studies have demonstrated that demographic similarity (e.g., gender similarity, racial similarity, parental status similarity) does predict FSSB (Crain & Stevens, 2018), and this might be due to employees feeling more comfortable asking for what they need in addition to supervisors feeling better equipped to support their employees due to the familiarity with elements of the employees' experiences and needs. Additionally, previous research has demonstrated that organizational variables (e.g., family-friendly culture, family-supportive organizational perceptions, family-friendly benefits) are related to FSSB (e.g., Las Heras, Bosch, & Raes, 2015; Matthews, Mills, Trout, & English, 2014; Mills, Matthews, Henning, & Woo, 2014). Again, these relationships might be due to employees feeling empowered and actively taking advantage of the benefits in addition to supervisors feeling psychologically empowered to provide FSSB as proposed in Straub's (2012) theoretical model. Therefore, these support-marshaling behaviors may serve as a mediator for some of the established relationships between organizational variables or employee-supervisor relationship variables and FSSB.

Future research should also examine individual-level antecedents, particularly to explore who is more likely to exhibit certain support-marshaling behaviors. The four support-marshaling dimensions may be differentially predicted by individual differences (e.g., personality, values, attitudes, and beliefs). Two trait characteristics that may influence support-marshaling behavior are perceptions of obligation (i.e., what is owed to others) and perceptions of entitlement (i.e.,

what is deserved from others; Brummel & Parker, 2015). These two traits do predict general prosocial behavior as well as attitudes and behavior (e.g., engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, effectiveness) in the workplace (Brummel & Parker, 2015). An employee who feels both a sense of obligation and a sense of entitlement may be more likely to engage in direct-approach support-marshaling, while an employee who feels a sense of obligation but not entitlement may be more likely to engage in avoid support-marshaling. It is likely that these traits would relate not only to employee support-marshaling, but if measured in supervisors, also to FSSB provided.

Some research shows that individuals who perceive stigma are more likely to use indirect support-seeking strategies, leading to less support received than those who use direct strategies (Williams & Mickelson, 2008). This could have implications for individuals of marginalized and minority identities, who may not receive the nonwork support that they need and want from supervisors. Additionally, because demographic match between employee and supervisor influences FSSB received (Crain & Stevens, 2018), employees who do not share these stigmatized identities with their supervisors might be particularly at risk for not receiving support. Further, these individuals may be less comfortable using direct-avoid strategies when supervisors are providing unwanted support, thus exacerbating the existing concern of power differentials between supervisors and employees. If this is the case, some employee-supervisor dyads may especially need and benefit from training to better communicate with each other.

Regarding outcomes to be examined, future research should consider how support-marshaling behavior influences direct outcomes, such as supervisor perceptions of the employee, dyadic supervisor-employee relationship quality indicators (e.g., trust, LMX), and future support interactions (e.g., trajectories of support-marshaling tactics across support events), as well as

indirect outcomes, such as work-nonwork enrichment, health outcomes (e.g., strain), and nonwork outcomes. Although categorized as direct and indirect, a couple of these outcomes could theoretically be either. Regarding strain, support-marshaling may have direct effects on strain (i.e., communicating about nonwork with one's supervisor is a stressor), but may also have indirect effects through FSSB, considering that previous research indicates that FSSB is related to perceived stress and strain outcomes (Behson, 2005; Hammer et al., 2013). Similarly, enrichment may occur directly (e.g., learning support-marshaling skills at work and transferring them to support-marshaling at home) as well as indirectly through FSSB. In contrast, the influence of support-marshaling on many nonwork outcomes would likely be primarily mediated by support received and/or work-nonwork conflict. For instance, only one family outcome of FSSB has been studied thus far (Crain & Stevens, 2018). FSSB is related to frequency of family dinners through WTNC (Allen, Shockle, & Poteat, 2008), and support-marshaling may come before FSSB or between FSSB and WTNC in this causal chain. In general, with this measure of support-marshaling behavior, research can begin to examine these relationships and build a better model to represent the nonwork support process between supervisors and employees.

Conclusion

The lines between work and nonwork in many industries are becoming increasingly blurred with advances in technology and changes to working hours and work schedules, increasing and intensifying employees' experiences of work-nonwork conflict (e.g., Allen & Martin, 2017; Milligan, 2016). Employees can benefit from supervisors who know about, care about, and actively support their employees' nonwork lives—so long as the support is appropriate and desired. However, in order for supervisors to most accurately know what employees need, employees have to communicate with their supervisors. The existing literature

on nonwork-supportive supervisors has not addressed this important half of the support process. In this study, I developed and provided evidence of validity for a measure of employee nonwork support-marshaling in order to appropriately and sufficiently measure the construct. This measure will allow future research to consider employee support-marshaling behavior in relation to its antecedents, FSSB, and other outcomes and to improve workplace support interventions at the employee-, supervisor-, and organizational-levels.

Table 1.

Support-Marshaling Strategies and Definitions Adapted from Crowley and Faw (2014) and Faw (2014)

Strategy	Definition
Direct-Approach	Attempting to increase supportive behaviors in ways that are known to the supervisor
Request/solicit/direct requests	Employee directly asks supervisor for nonwork support
Negotiate	Employee bargains with supervisor for nonwork support, offering something in exchange
Explain/defend	Employee provides information about the nonwork situation in order to encourage the supervisor to provide support
Indirect-Approach	Employee attempts to increase supportive behaviors in ways that are not known to the supervisor
Complain	Employee verbally expresses distress regarding nonwork issues to their supervisor but does not ask for support
Broadcast	Employee talks about nonwork issues around the workplace, attempting to communicate a support need to their supervisor
Show distress	Employee displays nonverbal distress (e.g., sighs, cries, slams doors) in order to communicate a support need to supervisor
Direct-Avoid	Attempting to decrease nonsupportive behaviors in ways that are known to the supervisor
Confrontation	Employee directly asks supervisor to stop acting in ways that are perceived to be nonsupportive
Boundary setting	Employee directly determines the extent to which their supervisor can and should discuss the employees' nonwork issues with them
Indirect-Avoid	Attempting to decrease nonsupportive behaviors in ways that are not known to the supervisor
Deceive/disguise	Employee hides nonwork issues from their supervisor
Ignore	Employee does not engage with supervisor when they bring up nonwork topics or try to provide support that is unwelcome
Preemptive planning	Employee receives support from other sources (e.g., friends, family, coworkers) to avoid asking for support from supervisor
Avoidance/decrease interaction time/restrict access	Employee avoids conversations about nonwork with their supervisor or avoids interactions with the supervisor in general in order to limit nonsupport

Table 2.

Original Items for Employee Nonwork Support-Marshaling Scale and Content Validity Ratios (CVRs)

Proposed Factor	Item Content	CVR
Direct-Approach	I ask my supervisor for support so that I can effectively manage my work and nonwork responsibilities.	1.00
	I describe challenging nonwork situations to my supervisor to gain their support.	0.43
	I ask for help from my supervisor when I have nonwork issues arise.	0.71
	When I have nonwork challenges, I turn to my supervisor for help.	-0.43
	I update my supervisor about my nonwork responsibilities so they can help me manage my work and nonwork life.	-0.14
	When I experience nonwork challenges, I ask my supervisor for changes to my work.	-0.14
	I go to my supervisor when I experience nonwork stress, so they can help me adjust my work.	-0.14
	I explain nonwork situations to my supervisor so that they can support me.	0.14
Indirect-Approach	I make sure my supervisor will find out when I am experiencing nonwork challenges so they will support me.	-0.71
	When I have nonwork stress, I show signs of distress around my supervisor so they will help me.	0.71
	I hint to my supervisor that I have nonwork challenges in order to get support.	0.43
	I act upset around my supervisor when I have nonwork stressors so they will know to support me.	-0.14
	When I experience nonwork challenges, I make sure my supervisor knows something is bothering me without telling them explicitly.	-0.43
	I complain about nonwork challenges to my supervisor, hoping that they will support me.	0.14
	I tell other people at work (besides my supervisor) about my nonwork challenges so that my supervisor will hear about it and know that I need support.	0.43
Direct-Avoid	I tell my supervisor that I can handle nonwork challenges on my own so they won't ask me about them.	0.14
	I ask my supervisor not to worry about challenges I'm facing outside of work.	0.14
	I inform my supervisor they should not be concerned with the nonwork stress I'm experiencing.	-0.43
	I tell my supervisor that my nonwork challenges are not their responsibility.	-0.14
	I explicitly set boundaries with my supervisor so they don't talk to me about my nonwork issues.	-0.14
	I tell my supervisor that I would rather not discuss my nonwork issues with them.	0.43
	I ask my supervisor not to bring up any of my nonwork issues or challenges to me.	-0.43
Indirect-Avoid	I steer clear of talking about my nonwork issues with my supervisor.	-0.14

I avoid situations that would result in me having to tell my supervisor about my nonwork challenges.	0.14
I turn to family or friends, rather than my supervisor, when nonwork issues arise.	-1.00
When I experience nonwork challenges, I hide them from my supervisor.	0.43
I hide any distress due to nonwork issues from my supervisor.	0.14
I keep nonwork issues to myself, rather than sharing them with my supervisor.	0.43
I make sure that my supervisor doesn't find out about any nonwork challenges I am facing.	-0.43
When I have nonwork stress, I avoid talking about it with my supervisor.	0.14
I minimize the number of conversations I have about nonwork issues with my supervisor.	-0.14
I find support for nonwork challenges from sources besides my supervisor, such as coworkers or family.	0.14

Note. Content validity ratios (CVRs) were calculated using the following equation: $CVR = (N_e – (N/2))/(N/2)$, where N = the total number of SMEs and N_e = the number of SMEs who rated the item as "essential."

Table 3.

Recommendations for using MTurk in Organizational Research from Cheung, Burns, Sinclair, and Sliter (2017)

Methodological Concern	Validity Threat	Recommendation
1. Subject inattentiveness	Internal, statistical conclusion, construct	Detect and screen inattentive responses Use attention check items fairly and offer second chances to MTurk Workers
2. Selection biases	Construct, external	Consider the extent to which self-selection may affect the validity of findings in light of research objectives
3. Demand characteristics	Internal, construct	Actively monitor MTurk forums Avoid cues signaling study aims and eligibility criteria Measure participant motivation
4. Repeated participation	Internal, construct	Employ steps including data screening and MTurk system and customized qualifications
5. Range restriction	Statistical conclusion	Justify necessary qualification requirements in recruiting MTurk Workers
6. Consistency of treatment and study design implementation	Statistical conclusion	Minimize inconsistencies in study implementations. If study features are designed to be different, incorporate those components into final analyses
7. Extraneous factors	Internal, statistical conclusion, construct	Identify, measure, and include possible sources of extraneous factors into data analyses, especially those common to MTurk participation
		Proactively instruct MTurk Workers to minimize extraneous factors
8. Sample representativeness and appropriateness	External, construct	Ensure that the characteristics of the obtained sample are as close as possible to those of the targeted population
		Understand the demographic characteristics of the MTurk participant pool and determine whether MTurk is an appropriate data source
9. Consistency between construct explication and study operations	Construct	Evaluate the appropriateness of MTurk samples in relation to the explication of measured constructs
10. Method bias	Construct	Measure and control for method effects arising from MTurk samples

Table 4.

Revised Items for Employee Nonwork Support-Marshaling Scale and Initial Descriptive Statistics

Item	Revised Item Content	*M* (*SD*)	Skew	Kurtosis	Item-Total	Item-Subscale
DAp1*	I ask my supervisor for support so that I can effectively balance my work responsibilities with my nonwork responsibilities.	3.41 (1.12)	-0.62	-0.61	0.28	0.73
DAp2	I tell my supervisor when I have conflicts between my work and nonwork life.	3.59 (1.17)	-0.80	-0.32	0.13	0.77
DAp3	I ask for support from my supervisor when nonwork issues arise.	3.07 (1.25)	-0.26	-1.15	0.23	0.80
DAp4*	When I have nonwork challenges that interfere with my work, I turn to my supervisor for help.	3.16 (1.24)	-0.31	-1.08	0.26	0.80
DAp5*	I update my supervisor about my nonwork responsibilities so they can help me manage my work and nonwork life.	3.14 (1.27)	-0.33	-1.10	0.25	0.83
DAp6*	When I experience nonwork challenges that affect my work, I ask my supervisor for changes to my work (for example, moving deadlines, shifting tasks, changing schedules).	3.33 (1.20)	-0.59	-0.70	0.29	0.77
DAp7	I ask my supervisor to adjust my work when I experience nonwork stress.	2.81 (1.21)	0.16	-1.09	0.30	0.68
DAp8	I explain stressful nonwork situations that interfere with my work to my supervisor.	3.15 (1.26)	-0.36	-1.08	0.27	0.79
IAp1*	Without directly telling them, I make sure my supervisor will find out when I am experiencing work-nonwork conflict.	2.42 (1.08)	0.48	-0.66	0.49	0.77
IAp2*	When nonwork stress affects my work, I show signs of distress around my supervisor (for example, sighing, crying, moving frantically).	1.99 (1.04)	0.98	0.21	0.49	0.80
IAp3*	I hint to my supervisor that I have nonwork challenges.	2.37 (1.15)	0.46	-0.89	0.45	0.82
IAp4	I act upset around my supervisor when nonwork stressors interfere with work.	1.92 (0.93)	0.97	0.49	0.49	0.82
IAp5*	When I experience nonwork challenges, I make sure my supervisor knows something is bothering me without telling them explicitly.	2.27 (1.12)	0.58	-0.63	0.52	0.82
IAp6	I complain to my supervisor about nonwork challenges interfering with work without directly asking for support.	2.07 (1.08)	0.80	-0.30	0.39	0.79

IAp7	I tell other people at work (besides my supervisor) about my work-nonwork conflicts so that my supervisor will hear about it and know I need support.	2.15 (1.13)	0.73	-0.48	0.43	0.73
DAv1*	I tell my supervisor that I can handle any work-nonwork conflicts on my own.	3.48 (1.07)	-0.60	-0.32	0.48	0.70
DAv2*	I ask my supervisor not to worry about challenges that I'm facing outside of work.	3.3 (1.17)	-0.38	-0.72	0.54	0.76
DAv3*	I inform my supervisor they should not be concerned with the nonwork stress I'm experiencing.	3.27 (1.16)	-0.32	-0.82	0.51	0.79
DAv4*	I tell my supervisor that my nonwork challenges are not their responsibility.	3.34 (1.16)	-0.25	-0.80	0.45	0.75
DAv5	I explicitly set boundaries with my supervisor so they don't talk to me about my nonwork issues.	2.85 (1.26)	0.26	-1.03	0.58	0.77
DAv6	I tell my supervisor that I would rather not discuss my work-nonwork conflicts with them.	2.73 (1.21)	0.36	-0.81	0.58	0.76
DAv7	I ask my supervisor not to bring up any of my nonwork challenges to me.	2.58 (1.22)	0.55	-0.67	0.58	0.74
IAv1	I steer clear of talking about my nonwork issues with my supervisor.	3.30 (1.27)	-0.30	-1.06	0.32	0.85
IAv2	I avoid situations that would result in me having to tell my supervisor about any work-nonwork conflict.	3.19 (1.23)	-0.21	-1.07	0.45	0.84
IAv3*	When I experience nonwork challenges that interfere with my work, I hide them from my supervisor.	2.87 (1.21)	0.19	-0.98	0.34	0.81
IAv4	I hide any distress due to work-nonwork conflict from my supervisor.	3.12 (1.23)	-0.13	-1.06	0.37	0.84
IAv5	I keep nonwork issues to myself, rather than sharing them with my supervisor.	3.49 (1.24)	-0.47	-0.86	0.26	0.88
IAv6*	I make sure that my supervisor doesn't find out about any work-nonwork conflict that I have.	2.83 (1.22)	0.24	-0.95	0.39	0.85
IAv7*	When I have nonwork stress, I avoid talking about it with my supervisor.	3.34 (1.23)	-0.34	-0.94	0.36	0.89
IAv8*	I minimize the number of conversations I have about nonwork issues with my supervisor.	3.56 (1.18)	-0.61	-0.53	0.26	0.82

Note. Items followed by an asterisk indicate the 16 items remaining in the final scale.

Table 5.

Initial Support-Marshaling Scale and Dimension Descriptive Statistics, Internal Consistency, and Correlations

Scale	*M*	*SD*	Min	Max	Omega	SM	DAp	IAp	DAv	IAv
Support-Marshaling (SM)	2.94	0.46	1.67	5	0.32	(.80)				
Direct-Approach (DAp)	3.21	0.94	1	5	0.91	0.33	(.90)			
Indirect-Approach (IAp)	2.17	0.85	1	5	0.90	0.59	0.40	(.90)		
Direct-Avoid (DAv)	3.08	0.89	1	5	0.86	0.71	-0.10	0.11	(.87)	
Indirect-Avoid (IAv)	3.21	1.04	1	5	0.94	0.41	-0.58	-0.19	0.43	(.94)

Note. Cronbach's alpha values are indicated on the diagonal in parentheses.

Table 6.

CFA Results for Models with All Revised Items

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*	*CFI*	*TLI*	*RMSEA*
One-Factor	4146.80	405	< .001	0.46	0.42	0.17
Two-Factor: Approach vs. Avoid	3157.40	404	< .001	0.60	0.57	0.15
Two-Factor: Direct vs. Indirect	3697.08	404	< .001	0.52	0.49	0.16
Four-Factor	1661.07	399	< .001	0.82	0.80	0.10
Hierarchical	1707.07	401	< .001	0.81	0.79	0.10
Bi-Factor: General/Specific	1139.37	375	< .001	0.89	0.87	0.08
Bi-Factor: Intent/Form	1471.45	375	< .001	0.84	0.82	0.10

Table 7.

Item Discrimination and Factor Loadings for Final Items

Item	Item-to-Subscale Correlation	Direct-Approach Factor	Indirect-Approach Factor	Direct-Avoid Factor	Indirect-Avoid Factor
DAp1	0.78	0.71			
DAp4	0.83	0.78			
DAp5	0.86	0.81			
DAp6	0.79	0.70			
IAp1	0.84		0.79		
IAp2	0.81		0.73		
IAp3	0.86		0.81		
IAp5	0.85		0.79		
DAv1	0.79			0.70	
DAv2	0.90			0.89	
DAv3	0.90			0.89	
DAv4	0.83			0.75	
IAv3	0.84				0.77
IAv6	0.88				0.83
IAv7	0.90				0.89
IAv8	0.82				0.76

Table 8.

Final Support-Marshaling Factor Descriptive Statistics, Internal Consistency, and Correlations

Scale	*M*	*SD*	Min	Max	Omega	DAp	IAp	DAv	IAv
Direct Approach (DAp)	3.26	0.99	1	5	0.84	(.83)			
Indirect Approach (IAp)	2.26	0.92	1	5	0.86	0.35	(.86)		
Direct Avoid (DAv)	3.35	0.98	1	5	0.89	0.05	0.13	(.88)	
Indirect Avoid (IAv)	3.15	1.04	1	5	0.89	-0.50	-0.19	0.20	(.89)

Note. Cronbach's alpha values are indicated on the diagonal in parentheses.

Table 9.

Correlations Among Support-Marshaling Dimensions and Convergent and Criterion-Related Validity Measures

		M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	Direct-Approach	3.26	0.99													
2	Indirect-Approach	2.26	0.92													
3	Direct-Avoid	3.35	0.98													
4	Indirect-Avoid	3.15	1.04													
5	Attachment Avoidance	3.43	1.29	-0.22	-0.19	0.04	0.25	(.76)								
6	Attachment Anxiety	3.26	1.23	0.08	0.38	0.00	-0.01	-0.31	(.80)							
7	Segmentation Preferences	3.35	0.71	-0.16	-0.16	0.22	0.37	0.13	-0.24	(.73)						
8	LMX	3.75	0.80	0.35	0.02	0.12	-0.34	-0.16	-0.15	0.04	(.91)					
9	Social Anxiety	2.34	1.04	0.03	0.15	0.07	0.15	0.03	0.47	-0.06	-0.16	(.91)				
10	Assertive Communication	3.19	0.86	-0.05	0.04	0.08	0.09	0.00	-0.01	0.20	0.11	-0.24	(.88)			
11	FSSB	3.58	0.95	0.49	0.15	0.08	-0.40	-0.21	-0.03	-0.02	0.70	-0.09	0.03	(.89)		
12	WTNC	2.63	1.01	-0.08	0.14	0.05	0.18	-0.02	0.41	0.03	-0.29	0.35	0.05	-0.20	(.93)	
13	NTWC	2.00	0.85	0.13	0.36	-0.05	-0.04	-0.12	0.50	-0.11	-0.15	0.38	-0.01	0.00	0.47	(.90)

Note. Correlations among the support-marshaling dimensions are omitted to avoid redundancy. See Table 8 for these values. Cronbach's alpha values for the convergent and criterion-related measures are indicated on the diagonal in parentheses.

Table 10.

Expected and Observed Convergent/Discriminant Validity Correlations

Variable (Hypothesis)		Direct-Approach	Indirect-Approach	Direct-Avoid	Indirect-Avoid	Support?
Attachment-Anxiety (2a)	Expected	+	+ +			Yes*
	Observed	.08	.38	.00	-.01	
Attachment-Avoidance (2b)	Expected	-	-	+ +	+ +	Partial*
	Observed	-.22	-.19	.04	.25	
Attachment-Avoidance (2c)	Expected	-	- -	+	+ +	Partial*
	Observed	-.22	-.19	.04	.25	
Segmentation Preference (3)	Expected	-	-	+ +	+ +	Yes
	Observed	-.16	-.16	.22	.37	
LMX Quality (4)	Expected	+ +	+	-	-	Partial
	Observed	.35	.02	.12	-.34	

Note. Expected relationships are indicated by plus (+) or minus (-) symbols. Relationships indicated by double symbols were expected to be stronger in magnitude than those with single symbols within the same row. Relationships marked by an asterisk were conducted with a scale that did not produce good model fit, and results should be interpreted with caution.

Table 11.

Expected and Observed Criterion-Related Validity Correlations

Variable (Hypothesis)		Direct-Approach a	Indirect-Approach b	Direct-Avoid c	Indirect-Avoid d	Support?
FSSB (5a-d)	Expected	+ + +	+ +	- -	-	5a – Yes 5b – Yes
	Observed	0.49	0.15	0.08	-0.40	5c – No 5d – Partial
WTNC (6a-d)	Expected	- - -	- -	+	+	6a – Partial 6b – No
	Observed	-0.08	0.14	0.05	0.18	6c – Yes 6d – Yes
NTWC (7a-d)	Expected	- -	-	+	+	7a – No 7b – No
	Observed	0.13	0.36	-0.05	-0.04	7c – No 7d – No

Note. Expected relationships are indicated by plus (+) or minus (-) symbols. Triple symbols indicate a strong predicted relationship, double symbols indicate a moderate predicted relationship, and a single symbol indicates a weak predicted relationship.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Attachment

(Adapted from Wei, Russell, Mallinckrodt, & Vogel, 2007)

Instructions: *The following statements concern how you feel in relationships. We are interested in how you generally experience relationships, not just in what is happening in one current relationship. Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it.*

1. It helps to turn to other people in times of need. (Avoidance, reverse-coded)
2. I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by others. (Anxiety)
3. I want to get close to people, but I keep pulling back. (Avoidance)
4. I find that other people don't want to get as close as I would like. (Anxiety)
5. I turn to others for many things, including comfort and reassurance. (Avoidance, reverse-coded)
6. My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away. (Anxiety)
7. I try to avoid getting too close to other people. (Avoidance)
8. I do not often worry about being abandoned. (Anxiety, reverse-coded)
9. I usually discuss my problems and concerns with other people. (Avoidance, reverse-coded)
10. I get frustrated if people are not available when I need them. (Anxiety)
11. I am nervous when other people get too close to me. (Avoidance)
12. I worry that other people won't care about me as much as I care about them. (Anxiety)

Items are rated on a 1-7 scale. 1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*slightly disagree*), 4 (*neutral*), 5 (*slightly agree*), 6 (*agree*), 7 (*strongly agree*).

Appendix B: Boundary Preferences

(Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006)

Instructions: *With the increasing demands of work and home, employees may work in different ways to handle these demands. Please indicate your agreement with the following statements.*

1. I only take care of personal needs at work when I am "on break" or during my lunch hour.
2. I prefer to not talk about my nonwork issues with most people I work with.
3. Throughout the work day, I deal with personal and work issues as they occur. (reverse-coded)
4. It would be rare for me to read non-work related materials at work.
5. I tend to integrate work and nonwork roles through the work day. (reverse-coded)
6. I tend to handle emails related to nonwork separate from emails related to my work.
7. I try to not think about my family or friends when at work, so I can focus.
8. I tend to not talk about work issues with people outside of work.
9. I actively strive to keep my nonwork and work-life separate.

Items are rated on a 1-5 scale. 1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*agree*), 3 (*neutral*), 4 (*agree*), 5 (*strongly agree*). Items are adapted to refer to nonwork more broadly as opposed to "family."

Appendix C: Leader-Member Exchange Quality

(Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995)

Instructions: *Please respond to the following questions regarding your relationship with your direct supervisor (the person who typically assigns your work, provides day-to-day supervision, and/or who you talk to about time off).*

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader?
   1 (*rarely*), 2 (*occasionally*), 3 (*sometimes*), 4 (*fairly often*), 5 (*very often*)
2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?
   1 (*not a bit*), 2 (*a little*), 3 (*a fair amount*), 4 (*quite a bit*), 5 (*a great deal*)
3. How well does your leader recognize your potential?
   1 (*not at all*), 2 (*a little*), 3 (*moderately*), 4 (*mostly*), 5 (*fully*)
4. Regardless of how much formal authority they have built into their position, what are the chances that your leader would use their power to help you solve problems in your work?
   1 (*none*), 2 (*small*), 3 (*moderate*), 4 (*high*), 5 (*very high*)
5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that they would "bail you out" at their expense?
   1 (*none*), 2 (*small*), 3 (*moderate*), 4 (*high*), 5 (*very high*)
6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify their decision if they were not present to do so.
   1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*neutral*), 4 (*agree*), 5 (*strongly agree*)
7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?
   1 (*extremely ineffective*), 2 (*worse than average*), 3 (*average*), 4 (*better than average*), 5 (*extremely effective*)

Appendix D: Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior
(Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, & Crain, 2013)

Instructions: *The following questions ask about your experiences with your direct supervisor (the person who typically assigns your work, provides day-to-day supervision, and/or who you talk to about time off). Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following items.*

1. My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him or her about my conflicts between work and nonwork.
2. My supervisor works effectively with workers to creatively solve conflicts between work and nonwork.
3. My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and nonwork issues.
4. My supervisor thinks about how the work in my department can be organized to jointly benefit employees and the company.

Items are rated on a 1-5 scale. 1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*agree*), 3 (*neutral*), 4 (*agree*), 5 (*strongly agree*).

Appendix E: Work-Nonwork Conflict

(Fisher, Bulger, & Smith, 2009)

Instructions: *Please indicate the frequency with which you have felt the following in the past 3 months.*

1. I come home from work too tired to do things I would like to do. (WTNC)
2. My job makes it difficult to maintain the kind of personal life I would like. (WTNC)
3. I often neglect my personal needs because of the demands of my work. (WTNC)
4. My personal life suffers because of my work. (WTNC)
5. I have to miss out on important personal activities due to the amount of time I spend doing work. (WTNC)
6. My personal life drains me of the energy I need to do my job. (NTWC)
7. My work suffers because of everything going on in my personal life. (NTWC)
8. I would devote more time to work if it weren't for everything I have going on in my personal life. (NTWC)
9. I am too tired to be effective at work because of things I have going on in my personal life. (NTWC)
10. When I'm at work, I worry about things I need to do outside work. (NTWC)
11. I have difficulty getting my work done because I am preoccupied with personal matters at work. (NTWC)

Items are rated on a 1-5 scale. 1 (*not at all*), 2 (*rarely*), 3 (*sometimes*), 4 (*often*), 5 (*almost all of the time*).

Appendix F: Social Anxiety

(Fergus, Valentiner, McGrath, Gier-Lonsway, & Kim, 2012)

Instructions: *Please indicate the degree to which you feel the statement is characteristic or true of you.*

1. I become tense if I have to talk about myself or my feelings.
2. I tense-up if I meet an acquaintance in the street.
3. I feel tense if I am alone with just one other person.
4. I am nervous mixing with people I don't know well.
5. When mixing in a group I find myself worrying I will be ignored.
6. I am tense mixing in a group.

Items are rated on a 1-5 scale. 1 (*not at all*), 2 (*slightly*), 3 (*moderately*), 4 (*very*), 5 (*extremely*).

Appendix G: Assertive Communication

(Richmond & McCroskey, 1990)

Instructions: *The questionnaire below lists ten personality characteristics. Please indicate the degree to which you believe each of these characteristics applies to you while interacting with others. Please mark whether you (5) strongly agree that it applies), (4) agree that it applies), (3) are undecided, (2) disagree that is applies, or (1) strongly disagree that it applies. There are no right or wrong answers. Work quickly—record your first impression.*

1. Defends own beliefs
2. Independent
3. Forceful
4. Has strong personality
5. Assertive
6. Dominant
7. Willing to take a stand
8. Acts as a leader
9. Aggressive
10. Competitive

Items are rated on a 1-5 scale. 1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*undecided*), 4 (*agree*), 5 (*strongly agree*).

Appendix H: Demographics

How many hours per week do you work at your primary job?

How often do you interact with your direct supervisor (the person at your primary job who typically assigns your work, provides day-to-day supervision, and/or who you talk to about time off)?

How long have you worked for your company?

How long have you worked with your current supervisor?

Does your supervisor work at a different office location than you?

0 = No
1 = Yes
2 = Sometimes

What is your supervisor's gender?

0 = Male
1 = Female
2 = Non-binary/genderqueer
3 = Prefer to describe
4 = Prefer not to answer

What is your best guess of the age of your supervisor?

What percentage of your formal, paid work time do you work remotely (for example, at home, at a coffee shop, during business travel)?

How much time do you spend working outside of formal, paid work hours?

What is your job title?

Using the drop-down menus below, select the occupation description that best fits your current job. These are standardized jobs defined by the United States government. Combined with the job title you just entered above, selecting your job from this list will allow researchers to better compare different jobs.
First, select the broad category your job falls under, then use the remaining drop-down menus to further narrow down the choices, choosing the occupation that best matches your current job in the final drop-down. For example, if you are a Barista, you would first choose "Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations" followed by "Food and Beverage Serving Workers" then "Fast Food and Counter Workers" and finally "Baristas (35-3022.01)". **There are many categories and occupations listed, so you might need to go back and change some of the categories to explore and find the occupation that best matches your current job.**

How old are you?

What is your gender?

0 = Male
1 = Female
2 = Non-binary/genderqueer
3 = Prefer to describe
4 = Prefer not to say

Do you identify as transgender?

0 = No
1 = Yes
2 = Prefer not to say

Which categories describe you? Please select all that apply.

1 = White
2 = Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin
3 = Black or African-American
4 = Asian
5 = American Indian or Alaska Native
6 = Middle Eastern or North African
7 = Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
8 = Some other race, ethnicity, or origin, please explain
9 = Prefer not to answer

What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed?

1 = Some high school
2 = High school diploma/GED
3 = Some college or technical school, no degree
4 = Completed college or technical school, with a degree/certificate
5 = Graduate study in progress or completed (e.g., master's, doctorate, MD)

Are you currently married or do you have a permanent romantic partner that lives with you?

0 = No
1 = Yes, currently married and living with spouse
2 = Yes, currently married but not living with spouse
3= Yes, currently living with romantic partner
4 = Yes, currently partnered but not living with romantic partner

How many children live in your home four or more days per week?

How old are your children? Please answer in years and leave additional boxes blank if not applicable.

During the past six months have you provided at least 3 hours of care per week to an adult inside or outside your home? This could include help with shopping, medical care, or assistance in financial/budget planning.

0 = No
1 = Yes

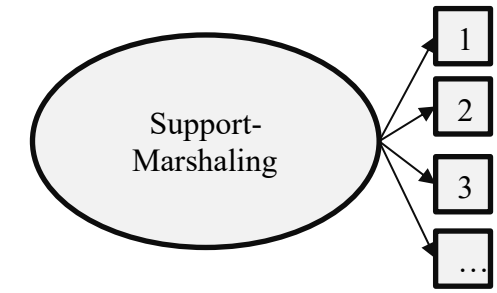
Appendix H: SME Comments for Item Revision

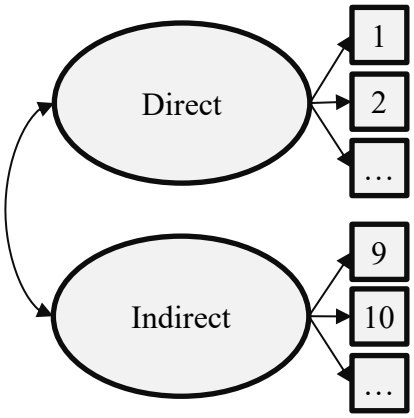
Original Item Text	SME Comments	Revised Item Text
I ask my supervisor for support so that I can effectively manage my work and nonwork responsibilities.	• What is "support"? • Work responsibilities and nonwork responsibilities are different any may elicit different responses.	I ask my supervisor for support so that I can effectively balance my work responsibilities with my nonwork responsibilities.
I describe challenging nonwork situations to my supervisor to gain their support.	• Could be direct or indirect.	I tell my supervisor when I have conflicts between my work and nonwork life.
I ask for help from my supervisor when I have nonwork issues arise.	• Consider simpler wording. • Delete "I have."	I ask for support from my supervisor when nonwork issues arise
When I have nonwork challenges, I turn to my supervisor for help.	• Work/nonwork is different than just nonwork and would elicit different responses. • Should this be specific to nonwork issues that interfere with work?	When I have nonwork challenges that interfere with my work, I turn to my supervisor for help.
I update my supervisor about my nonwork responsibilities so they can help me manage my work and nonwork life.	• Not very direct.	I update my supervisor about my nonwork responsibilities so they can help me manage my work and nonwork life.
When I experience nonwork challenges, I ask my supervisor for changes to my work.	• There are nonwork challenges that wouldn't require changes to work.	When I experience nonwork challenges that affect my work, I ask my supervisor for changes to my work (for example, moving deadlines, shifting tasks, changing schedules).
I go to my supervisor when I experience nonwork stress, so they can help me adjust my work.	• Awkward phrasing and redundant content.	I ask my supervisor to adjust my work when I experience nonwork stress.
I explain nonwork situations to my supervisor so that they can support me.		I explain stressful nonwork situations that interfere with my work to my supervisor.
I make sure my supervisor will find out when I am experiencing nonwork challenges so they will support me.	• Reads as aggressive. • Could be direct or indirect.	Without directly telling them, I make sure my supervisor will find out when I am experiencing work-nonwork conflict.
When I have nonwork stress, I show signs of distress around my supervisor so they will help me.	• May not always be indirect (e.g., crying in a meeting). • Include examples of signs of distress.	When nonwork stress affects my work, I show signs of distress around my supervisor (for example, sighing, crying, moving frantically).
I hint to my supervisor that I have nonwork challenges in order to get support.		I hint to my supervisor that I have nonwork challenges.
I act upset around my supervisor when I have nonwork stressors so they will know to support me.	• May not always be indirect.	I act upset around my supervisor when nonwork stressors interfere with work.
When I experience nonwork challenges, I make sure my supervisor knows something is bothering me without telling them explicitly.	• How is this enacted? • Need to include the goal of gaining support.	When I experience nonwork challenges, I make sure my supervisor knows something is bothering me without telling them explicitly.

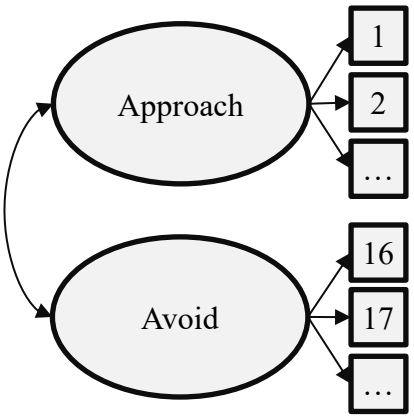
I complain about nonwork challenges to my supervisor, hoping that they will support me.	• Include language about not directly asking for support.	I complain to my supervisor about nonwork challenges interfering with work without directly asking for support.
I tell other people at work (besides my supervisor) about my nonwork challenges so that my supervisor will hear about it and know that I need support.		I tell other people at work (besides my supervisor) about my work-nonwork conflicts so that my supervisor will hear about it and know I need support.
I tell my supervisor that I can handle nonwork challenges on my own so they won't ask me about them.	• Too many pronouns. • Intention of avoiding nonsupport is not clear.	I tell my supervisor that I can handle any work-nonwork conflicts on my own.
I ask my supervisor not to worry about challenges I'm facing outside of work.	• Are these capturing decreasing nonsupportive behaviors or just avoiding support behaviors? • Intention of avoiding nonsupport is not clear.	I ask my supervisor not to worry about challenges that I'm facing outside of work.
I inform my supervisor they should not be concerned with the nonwork stress I'm experiencing.	• Intention of avoiding nonsupport is not clear.	I inform my supervisor they should not be concerned with the nonwork stress I'm experiencing.
I tell my supervisor that my nonwork challenges are not their responsibility.	• Slightly aggressive.	I tell my supervisor that my nonwork challenges are not their responsibility.
I explicitly set boundaries with my supervisor so they don't talk to me about my nonwork issues.	• Setting a boundary isn't really a behavior.	I explicitly set boundaries with my supervisor so they don't talk to me about my nonwork issues.
I tell my supervisor that I would rather not discuss my nonwork issues with them.	• Still slightly aggressive.	I tell my supervisor that I would rather not discuss my work-nonwork conflicts with them.
I ask my supervisor not to bring up any of my nonwork issues or challenges to me.	• Wording is a little awkward. • Seem to be implying supervisor is offering support and employee is turning them down, not necessarily decreasing nonsupport. • Intention of the behavior is not clear.	I ask my supervisor not to bring up any of my nonwork challenges to me.
I steer clear of talking about my nonwork issues with my supervisor.	• Not really a behavior. • Uses an idiom. • Needs clarification to ensure direct behavior isn't included.	I steer clear of talking about my nonwork issues with my supervisor.
I avoid situations that would result in me having to tell my supervisor about my nonwork challenges.		I avoid situations that would result in me having to tell my supervisor about any work-nonwork conflict.
I turn to family or friends, rather than my supervisor, when nonwork issues arise.	• Turning to others for support doesn't necessarily mean avoiding support from a supervisor. • Could throw off reliability. • Is this just boundary management? • Taps something other than the construct.	DELETE

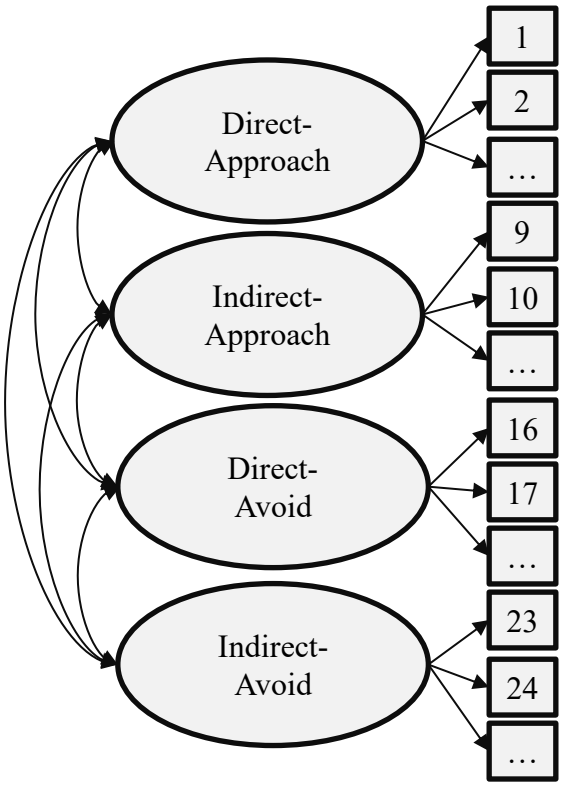
When I experience nonwork challenges, I hide them from my supervisor.		When I experience nonwork challenges that interfere with my work, I hide them from my supervisor.
I hide any distress due to nonwork issues from my supervisor.	• Intention of behavior is not clear.	I hide any distress due to work-nonwork conflict from my supervisor.
I keep nonwork issues to myself, rather than sharing them with my supervisor.		I keep nonwork issues to myself, rather than sharing them with my supervisor.
I make sure that my supervisor doesn't find out about any nonwork challenges I am facing.	• This sounds slightly direct.	I make sure that my supervisor doesn't find out about any work-nonwork conflict that I have.
When I have nonwork stress, I avoid talking about it with my supervisor.		When I have nonwork stress, I avoid talking about it with my supervisor.
I minimize the number of conversations I have about nonwork issues with my supervisor.		I minimize the number of conversations I have about nonwork issues with my supervisor.
I find support for nonwork challenges from sources besides my supervisor, such as coworkers or family.	• Possibly double-barreled. • Intention of the behavior is not clear. • Seeking support from other sources may be a different construct.	DELETE

Appendix I: First-Order CFA Model Figures

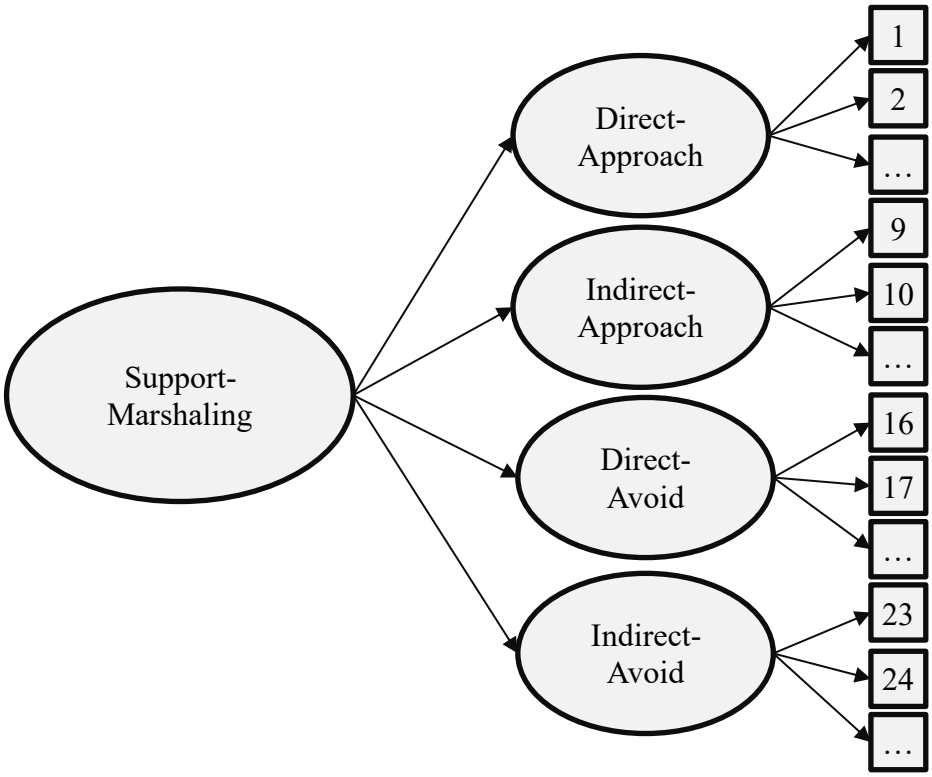




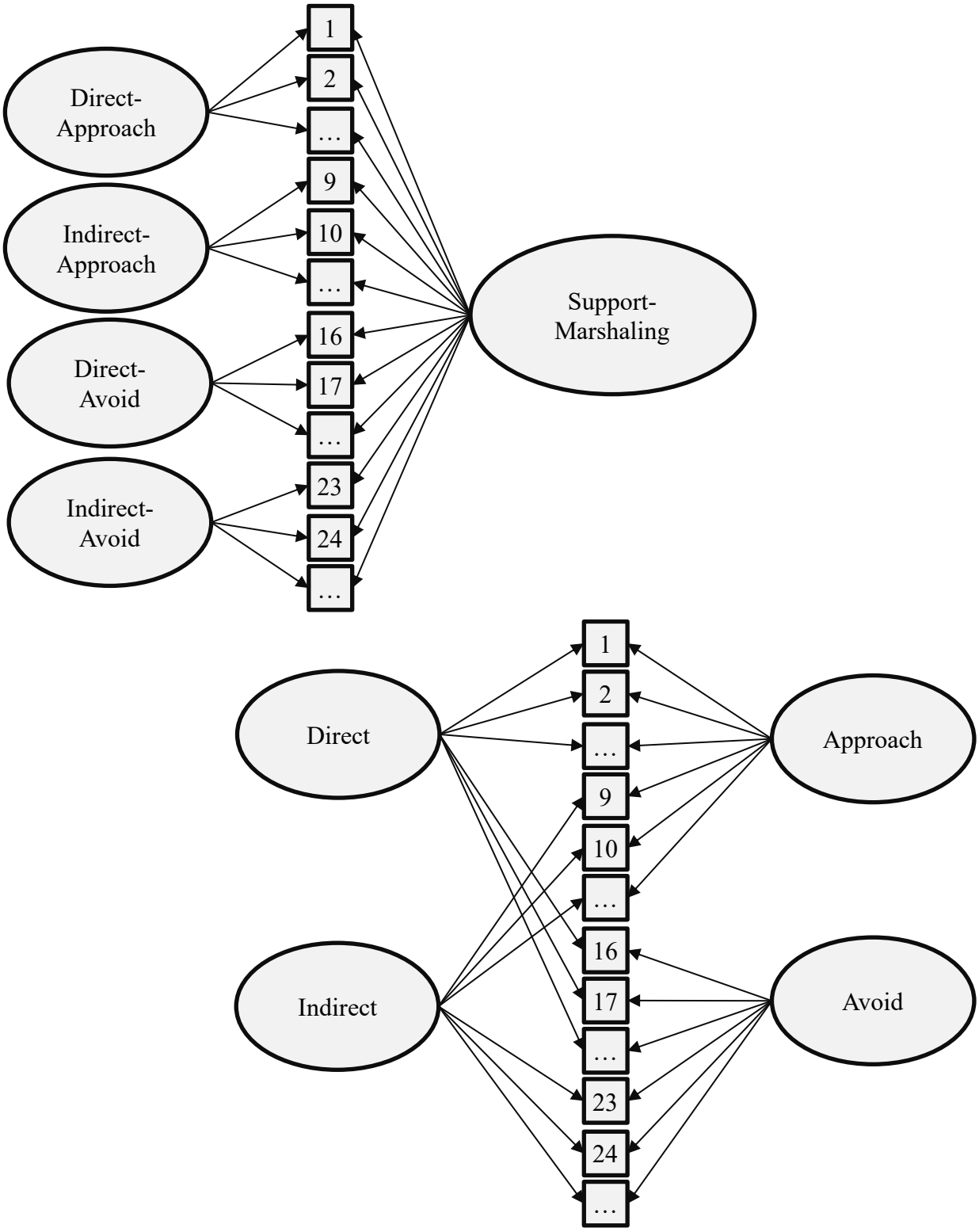




Appendix J: Hierarchical CFA Model Figure



Appendix K: Bi-factor CFA Model Figures



Appendix L: Factor Loadings for Four-Factor and Bi-factor CFAs

Item	Four-Factor	Bi-Factor (General vs. Specific)		Bi-Factor (Form vs. Intent)			
		Specific	General	Direct	Indirect	Approach	Avoid
DAp1*	0.69	0.66	0.22	0.24		0.65	
DAp2	0.75	0.65	0.41	0.24		0.71	
DAp3	0.79	0.73	0.29	0.18		0.76	
DAp4*	0.79	0.73	0.30	0.20		0.76	
DAp5*	0.81	0.78	0.26	0.17		0.80	
DAp6*	0.71	0.70	0.18	0.15		0.70	
DAp7	0.60	0.62	0.05	0.02		0.62	
DAp8	0.74	0.69	0.25	0.14		0.72	
IAp1*	0.73	0.73	0.03		0.65	0.28	
IAp2*	0.78	0.78	-0.12		0.76	0.15	
IAp3*	0.78	0.78	0.07		0.72	0.22	
IAp4	0.81	0.81	-0.10		0.77	0.22	
IAp5*	0.79	0.78	-0.05		0.74	0.22	
IAp6	0.75	0.75	0.02		0.71	0.22	
IAp7	0.65	0.66	-0.08		0.64	0.11	
DAv1*	0.70	0.69	-0.16	0.62			0.37
DAv2*	0.83	0.89	-0.05	0.82			0.30
DAv3*	0.85	0.88	-0.12	0.84			0.32
DAv4*	0.76	0.74	-0.18	0.74			0.29
DAv5	0.59	0.37	-0.73	0.35			0.62
DAv6	0.56	0.30	-0.86	0.31			0.65
DAv7	0.54	0.29	-0.83	0.30			0.60
IAv1	0.84	0.62	-0.57		-0.20		0.83
IAv2	0.81	0.58	-0.58		-0.10		0.83
IAv3*	0.76	0.55	-0.53		-0.12		0.77
IAv4	0.80	0.61	-0.51		-0.17		0.79
IAv5	0.88	0.78	-0.44		-0.32		0.83
IAv6*	0.81	0.60	-0.55		-0.17		0.81
IAv7*	0.89	0.76	-0.49		-0.26		0.86
IAv8*	0.80	0.70	-0.41		-0.28		0.76

Note. Asterisks (*) indicate items in final scale.