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Servant Leadership and Family Supportiveness:

Looking into Employees' Work and Family Outcomes

Abstract

How does servant leadership trickle down to impact subordinates' work and non-work outcomes? This study sets out to investigate the mechanisms and boundary conditions associated with this question. In so doing, we integrate two sequential mechanisms (family-supportive supervisor behaviours and work engagement/self-care) and a contextual condition (servant leader's perceived organizational support) to address whether and how servant leaders shape subordinates' work performance and their satisfaction with work–family balance. Using lagged and matched supervisor–subordinate data (770 supervisors and 819 subordinates) collected from a group of companies in Chile, our results from multilevel analyses largely support our hypotheses. We contribute to servant leadership and research on family supportiveness by: 1) introducing and discussing two separate and sequential mediating mechanisms to explain the trickle-down effect of servant leadership; 2) emphasizing the role of perceived organizational support in establishing when the trickle-down effect occurs; 3) highlighting the need to bridge two separate bodies of research (namely those of servant leadership and family supportive supervisor behaviours) in developing interventions in organizations to help employees manage work–family issues.

Keywords: Servant Leadership, FSSB, POS, Crossover, Trickle-down

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Introduction

In an increasingly competitive work environment where employees find it difficult to balance work-family lives (Dumas & Sanchez-Burks, 2015; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), managers have begun to implement family-supportive supervisor behaviours (FSSBs), such as showing concern for the problems of employees in the home domain or offering creative work–family solutions (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009). A growing body of research supports the positive association between FSSBs and positive employee outcomes (e.g. Basuil, Manegold, & Casper, 2016), such as improvements in psychological health (Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, & Crain, 2013), employee job satisfaction (Bagger & Li, 2014), work engagement (Qing & Zhou, 2017), and job performance (Rofcanin, Las Heras & Bakker, 2017; Wang, Walumbwa, Wang, & Aryee, 2013).

In a parallel vein, prior research has shown that servant leaders, who are driven with the goal of grooming their followers and sustaining a culture of service, influence the follower outcomes positively (see van Dierendonck, 2011; Eva et al., 2019 for recent reviews). A key tenet of servant leadership is a focus on followers' needs and wants in work and non-work domains (Eva et al., 2019). Despite this acknowledgment, little research addresses the question of how and why servant leaders may shape their followers' family lives positively (e.g., Tang, Kwan, Zhang, & Zhu, 2016; Yang, Zhang, Kwan, & Chen, 2018). Taking servant leadership as our point of departure, the core aim of this study is to understand the mechanisms and boundary conditions that drive servant leadership and shape employee outcomes through the deployment of FSSBs. Our focus on FSSBs aligns with the latest research on servant leadership, which suggests that serving behaviours of servant leaders demonstrate proactive willingness of such leaders who go above and beyond the formal requirements of their duties to meet follower needs (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). From this perspective, as FSSBs are informal mechanisms which aim to help

employees achieve work-life balance (Hammer et al., 2009), integrating FSSBs enables us to conceptually expand and empirically validate the family-oriented behavioural demonstration of servant leaders.

The overarching framework of this study is informed by the role modelling and tenets of social learning theory (Bandura, 1986; Hunter et al., 2013) and research on both servant leadership and FSSBs (Hammer et al., 2009; Rofcanin et al., 2017). This study encompasses two key objectives. First, we introduce work engagement and self-care (conceptualized as sleep, exercise and quality time spent with family members at home) as two parallel mechanisms to explain how and why the positive influence of servant leadership affects work and non-work domain outcomes for employees. To this end, we apply and extend research on servant leadership by revealing that the benefits of servant leadership are transferable into the non-work domain through FSSBs (e.g., Bakker, 2009; Zhang & Tu, 2018). In turn, FSSBs are likely to shape employees' work performance and work–family balance by impacting on work engagement and self-care, respectively. Thus, we introduce sequential and parallel mechanisms that reveal the positive consequences of servant leadership that are most likely to trickle down to generate desirable outcomes for employees in both domains. Our focus on these mechanisms addresses calls in the servant leadership literature (see Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, & Liden, 2019) to link this construct to the family domain. From an FSSB perspective, we contribute to recent research that highlights the lack of investigation of the antecedents of FSSBs and introduces servant leadership as a trigger for such behaviours (Crain & Stevens, 2018). This is important because FSSBs are informal and low-cost organizational interventions that can become part of formal HR policies and can be used as motivational tools for employees.

For our second key objective, we introduce a boundary condition, servant leaders' perceived organizational support (POS), to explore how and when the impact of servant

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leadership on FSSBs unfolds. We propose that servant leaders' perceptions of the supportiveness of an organization (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) are likely to shape the extent to which they engage in FSSBs. In organizations where servant leaders perceive high supportiveness of the organization (i.e., high POS), servant leaders are likely to engage in more FSSBs (Matthews, Mills, Trout, & English, 2014). On the contrary, in organizations where servant leaders' perceptions of organizational supportiveness are low, servant leaders are still likely to demonstrate FSSBs, yet we propose that the association between servant leadership and FSSBs is likely to be less positive and significant.

We draw on key features and characteristics of servant leadership (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012; Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014), to ground our arguments. Our second contribution, therefore, relates to our emphasis on an organizationally relevant contextual variable to render the consequences of servant leadership effective for the recipients. Within a handful of studies that have focused on contextual conditions, the role of organizational structure has been revealed (Neubert, Hunter, & Tolentino, 2016) as well as a climate of family concern (Zhang et al., 2012), but the possibility of broader and general organizational support (i.e., POS) as a boundary condition has been overlooked. In addition, our model, as a whole, contributes to research that explores trickle-down models from a positive leadership perspective (e.g., Mayer et al., 2009 for ethical leadership; Stollberger et al., 2019 for servant leadership) and expands this stream of research, which has, to date, mainly focused on trickle-down models of negative states, such as stress and aggression (Wo et al., 2018). We present our conceptual model in Figure 1 and develop our hypotheses in the following sections.

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Hypotheses Development

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Linking Servant Leadership with FSSBs: The Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

The original conceptualization of servant leadership emphasizes the notion of grooming followers to become servant leaders themselves (Greenlaf, 1970). A key attribute of servant leadership is follower emulation of leader behaviour (Graham, 1991), which places the "cultivation of leadership" as a central tenet of servant leadership theory (Liden et al., 2008; Liden et al., 2014b). Servant leaders create an environment where employees feel valued, supported and encouraged (van Dierendonck, 2011). They achieve this by consciously or unconsciously encouraging follower behaviours through role modelling (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999), a process explained by social learning theory (Bandura, 1977). In line with social learning theory, followers are inclined to emulate the behaviours of their leaders when they perceive their leaders as possessing sought-after characteristics (Hannah et al., 2011). From the perspective of social learning theory, servant leaders reflect many attractive characteristics and engage in desirable behaviours, such as integrity and concern for others in work and non-work domains, which are emulated by their followers (Schaubroeck et al., 2011).

Recent review studies have shown that servant leadership impacts on various positive outcomes for followers (see Eva et al., 2019; van Dierendonck, 2011). [1]In the context of its positive features and focus on improving the functioning of subordinates at work (e.g., Parris & Peachey, 2013), servant leadership has elements in common with transformational

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[1] Recent research has demonstrated that these two leadership constructs are quite distinct from one another and our focus on servant leadership has been guided by these points of divergence. First, a key distinction is that transformational leadership centres on organizational objectives, whereas servant leadership focuses on subordinate needs, preferences and goals, both within and outside the organization, including the wider community and society (Stone et al., 2004). Second, transformational leaders do not necessarily go above and beyond the duties and requirements of their job, whereas servant leaders, by definition, pursue an exemplary type of leadership that emphasizes leading-by-serving within and beyond the boundaries of an organization (Sun & Wang, 2009). Third, and related to our second point, servant leadership is about employees' well-being, and their lives outside the organization, which makes it more relevant to the family domain (Zhang et al., 2012) and thus our exploration in the context of FSSBs.

leadership. Furthermore, recent research has started to demonstrate that servant leadership and transformational leadership are distinguishable in terms of the measures utilized (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Parolini, Patterson, & Winston, 2009; Sun & Wang, 2009), and are usually explored using different theoretical frameworks, employee outcomes and contexts (Parolini et al., 2009).

Servant leadership is considered to be an important source of support at work that benefits the family lives of employees (Zhang et al., 2012). Despite this acknowledgment, few studies have explored the impact servant leadership has on employees' family lives. For example, Tang and colleagues (2016) show that employee perceptions of servant leadership relate negatively to work-to-family conflict and positively to work-to-family positive spillover. In a recent unpublished dissertation, Milorava (2020) examines the impact of servant leaders as facilitators of couples' meaningfulness at home and at work. These findings, together with a recent review study by Eva and colleagues (2019), show that there is an opportunity to explore and extend research on servant leadership into employees' family domains and FSSBs, which represents an untapped area of inquiry. We thus aim to contribute to the associated body of research (Liden et al., 2008; Sendjaya et al., 2008) by integrating a relatively novel construct, FSSBs, with research on servant leadership.

FSSBs involve four specific dimensions that aim to facilitate the work–family lives of subordinates: emotional support (communication about an employee's family life), instrumental support (offering resources and services to an employee on a needs-based basis so that they can tackle the conflicts arising in the work–family domain), role modelling (exhibiting an effective work–family management style), and creative work–family management (i.e., creative and proactive efforts to improve an employee's ability to handle non-work demands while helping them work effectively; Hammer et al., 2009).

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The primary function of FSSB is distinguishable from other supportive behaviours (e.g., work- or family-specific constructs) by virtue of its focus on work–family enrichment, often leading to higher levels of satisfaction (e.g., well-being, health or work–family engagement) (Crain et al., 2014; Matthews et al., 2014). It can also be associated with the recent shift in work practices, where there has been a need for greater implementation of flexible work and family-supportive practices (Kossek et al., 2010). Recognizing this shift, organizations have been empowering supervisors to act as an interface between organizations and employees in enacting supportive policies that help satisfy personal needs (Crain & Hammer, 2013; Hammer et al., 2013).

Research on servant leadership has shown the scope of its positive impact on followers to extend beyond organizational boundaries, influencing the family lives of followers (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). Defining features of servant leadership, that is, concern and care for others and maintaining a culture of service, may be more relevant in addressing how supervisors that exhibit such ideals of service (e.g. FSSBs) influence not only the work of subordinates but also carry over into their home/family domains (e.g., Zhang et al., 2012). By engaging in FSSBs, servant leaders consciously or unconsciously groom their followers, address their needs and signal appropriate behaviours and norms that can be emulated by them and that can cascade down to influence their behaviours and attitudes positively. Integrating social learning theory and drawing from research on family-supportive behaviours (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Hammer et al., 2009) and the limited body of literature that has given due consideration to explore the consequences of servant leadership in followers' non-work domains, we argue that an important way by which servant leaders groom their followers and serve their needs is to demonstrate FSSBs.

We thus argue for a positive association between servant leadership and the perceptions of FSSBs:

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H1: There is a positive association between servant leadership and FSSBs.

We further argue that the positive association between servant leadership and FSSBs is influenced by the context of the organization. To start exploring this association, we integrate a boundary condition, namely the perception of the supportiveness of the organization (i.e., POS) from the angle of managers. We argue that in organizations where servant leaders' perceived organizational supportiveness is high, the association between servant leadership and FSSBs is stronger and more positive. On the contrary, we argue that in organizations where servant leaders perceive organizational supportiveness to be low, the association between servant leadership and FSSBs is less strong and positive.

Servant leaders' perceptions of high organizational support indicates a resourceful and supportive work environment in which these leaders can enact role-related behaviours, such as investing in the needs of their followers, showing empathy and caring for their well-being more effectively (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Liden et al., 2008). In line with the tenets of social learning theory, leaders are often considered as role models given their position power and formal status (Yukl, 2010). Followers are more inclined to look up to and evaluate the behaviours of their leaders more favourably when they possess desirable characteristics (Hannah et al., 2011). Following this logic and from the perspective of the followers, integrity, concern for others, morality and empathy are the defining features of servant leaders that build trust in their followers and, as a result, induce credibility and influence their perceptions favourably. From the perspective of servant leaders whose identities are built on behaving consistently and ethically toward others and showing empathy for follower needs, a supportive work environment delivers signals that reinforces and supports the ultimate goals of servant leaders: to prioritize the needs of their followers by building credible and trusted relationships with them and by portraying integrity (Meuser et al., 2011). The consistency between the perceptions of organizational supportiveness and servant characteristics of

leaders creates a synergic effect that ultimately shapes the view and perceptions of followers positively.

Holding high perceptions of organizational support is important for servant leaders to enact their behaviours and roles because, according to latest research, servant leadership is considered to be a prosocial behaviour in which leaders proactively seek out opportunities to support followers (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011), usually as part of dyadic leader-follower relationships (Greenleaf, 1977; van Dierendonck, 2011). For servant leaders to invest in their followers and help them tackle work-family related issues, they need to feel supported by their organization and be equipped with resources to allocate for the needs of their followers. Integrating these arguments, in organizations where servant leaders perceive the supportiveness to be high, they are more likely to exhibit FSSBs toward their subordinates. In these organizations, which are resourceful, servant leaders are likely to tap on and exhibit behaviours reflective of their key servant characteristics: behaving consistently, emotional healing, creative problem-solving skills for their subordinates and empowering them to grow and develop (Liden et al., 2014b). Because FSSBs are informal behaviours that are not an official part of HR policies and practices (Crain & Stevens, 2018), servant leaders are likely to feel safer and more encouraged in practicing FSSBs in organizations where they are supported and thus at ease (i.e., their perceptions of supportiveness are high). Furthermore, in supportive and well-resourced organizations, servant leaders may worry less about possible negative reactions of co-workers, feeling more at ease and comfortable in demonstrating family-oriented and family-helpful behaviours (Marescaux et al., 2019; Hammer et al., 2009). As such, when servant leaders feel that their organization is supportive and cares for the well-being of subordinates (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2016), they are more likely to feel equipped with resources to facilitate the personal growth and development of their subordinates. One prominent and recently appreciated

approach is to value and appreciate subordinates' family lives and help them tackle issues in their family domain so that they feel less stressed and more engaged in their work (Hammer et al., 2009). We thus argue that servant leaders whose perceptions of organizational supportiveness are high are likely to exhibit more FSSBs with the aim of helping their subordinates tackle work-family related problems.

In organizations where servant leaders consider their organizations to be less supportive of the overall well-being of employees, we argue that the association between servant leadership and FSSBs will be less strong and positive. Servant leaders engage in activities and behaviours that groom their followers in becoming servant leaders themselves (Greenleaf, 1970). An underlying and key assumption of servant leadership theory is that by prioritising the needs of followers, servant leaders aim to create a "serving culture" (Liden et al., 2014b), addressing the unique needs and preferences of employees at individual level. Integrating social learning theory with key tenets of servant leadership, these leaders engage in activities that are effective in evoking change in the attitudes of followers and in influencing their perceptions of the work environment favourably (Bandura et al., 1969). In a work environment where servant leaders consider their organization to be less supportive, they are still likely to engage in FSSBs, with the ultimate purpose of helping their followers achieve a better work-family balance and thus sustain a healthy and supportive culture. But in comparison to a work environment where they perceive supportiveness to be high, they are less likely to engage in FSSBs.

As suggested in two recent review studies on servant leadership (Eva et al., 2019; Van Dierendonck, 2011), serving behaviours of these leaders can be considered as examples of proactive behaviours. This is because servant leaders balance concerns regarding day-to-day details with the prospects for the future and try to identify ways to help their followers be the best they can be (Bande et al., 2019). Engaging in such behaviours is future-oriented, requires

change and is risky in a work context where organizations are less supportive (Parker et al., 2010). Ultimately, these leaders may be considered as deviating from the norms in the organization. Under these circumstances of low organizational supportiveness, servant leaders are likely to engage in FSSBs with the ultimate purpose of serving the needs of their followers and maintaining a culture of service, (characteristics that make them who they are) but the extent and impact of these behaviours are likely to be limited and lesser due to the organizational constraints and leaders' perceptions of low supportiveness.

The two most salient and significant features of servant leaders, empathy and humility, are likely to be the drivers of their engagement in FSSBs, even in a context where their perceptions of organizational supportiveness are low. Revealed as the most salient and significant features of servant leadership in a cross-cultural study (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012), it is argued that servant leaders try to act with empathy and humility even in extreme situations and contexts, engaging in every effort to understand and address subordinates' unique needs and preferences by putting themselves in their shoes (Liden et al., 2008). Our second hypothesis, which considers the moderating role of POS, is as follows:

H2: Servant leaders' POS moderates the positive association between servant leadership and FSSBs such that the association is stronger (vs. weaker) and more positive (vs. less positive) in organizations characterized by higher (vs. lower) POS.

Linking FSSBs to Subordinates' Domain-Specific Outcomes: The Mediating Role of Work Engagement and Self-Care

Social learning theory argues that learning unfolds in a social context and one learns from others through observation, imitation and emulation (Bandura, 1986). Learning is especially crucial and predominantly observed in a leader-subordinate relationship. We posit that role modelling behaviours are more likely to occur within dyadic relationships; for example, between subordinates and their managers (Hunter et al., 2013). In the context of our

research, we argue that in such dyadic relationships, followers look up to their managers (and partners) and engage in similar behaviours that they learn through observation (e.g., Bandura, 1986; Hammer et al., 2009).

Drawing on the role modelling of social learning theory, we argue that FSSBs are likely to enhance subordinates' domain-specific work outcomes by means of influencing both the work engagement and self-care of subordinates.

To align our argument with the objectives of this study, we first argue that FSSBs influence subordinates' work performance through the mechanism of work engagement, which refers to employees' feelings of vigour, dedication and absorption in relation to work (Bakker, Demerouti & Burke, 2009). This, we believe, represents and captures the essence of how the effects of servant leadership trickle down from the work to the family domain. We argue that it is through role modelling that employees are more likely to acquire demonstrated behaviours and engage in work more vigorously, leading to expectations and perceptions being shaped and changed (Neff et al., 2013). For example, informational cues displayed by servant managers such as care and concern for their subordinates are more likely to shape employee behaviours (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), and such cues represent bridging elements between an organization and its employees (Kossek et al., 2011). Drawing on these cues, employees look up to and adopt the behaviours of those who hold power, status and competence; that is, those who set good role model examples for their subordinates (Bandura, 1986). This role modelling is likely to facilitate the crossover of positive energy among employees from their work domains into their family domains (e.g., Demerouti, 2012).

Applying this logic to our study, we suggest that subordinates that work with managers who exhibit FSSBs are likely to feel more engaged with their jobs (i.e., feeling more vigorous, absorbed and dedicated in relation to them). This is probably because such supervisors offer emotional support, act as role models, and demonstrate efforts to find

solutions for their subordinates' work–family-related problems (Hammer et al., 2009). Thus, subordinates who work with these supervisors are likely to tune into and emulate such behaviours and, as a result, feel more absorbed in their jobs, leading to enhanced work engagement. Engaged employees, in turn, can be expected to exhibit better work performance because work becomes a source of resource generation, energy creation and joyful activity for these employees – i.e., the outcome of which is enhanced work performance (Derks, Bakker, Peters, & van Wingerden, 2016).

Furthermore, we argue that managers who demonstrate FSSBs influence subordinates' satisfaction with their work–family balance by affecting their self-care. We define and conceptualize self-care as the purposeful act of replenishing one's mental and physical resources outside the work domain (Bande, Jaramillo, Fernández-Ferrín, & Varela, 2019). Examples include getting a good night's sleep, exercising regularly, and spending quality time at home with one's family. The primary purpose and target of FSSBs is to enable employees to achieve a balance between their work and home lives through provision of the necessary resources, and to ensure that their lives beyond work are cared for and valued (Crain & Stevens, 2018). As such, having the flexibility to benefit from family-oriented benefits, which are materialized through FSSBs, is likely to reduce the strain of work responsibilities and lead to more positive moods, energy and a sense of fulfilment in their non-work lives (Byron, 2005; Las Heras et al., 2017).

Working with supervisors who are family-oriented, employees are likely to look up to these supervisors in terms of how they achieve a balance in their work-family lives and are less likely to feel stressed about their work tasks, ultimately contributing to improved sleep quality and other means of staying healthy, including regular exercise. Furthermore, the benefits emanating from working with a family-oriented supervisor include the flexibility of working from home and having the time to spend quality time with family members

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(Rofcanin et al., 2019). As a consequence, employees who emulate and mimic the positive family-oriented behaviours of these managers are likely to be equipped with positive resources and energies that allow them to better manage their personal and family responsibilities. These arguments highlight that employees, as recipients of FSSBs, are likely to embody and cultivate a sense of self-care, reflected in the form of enhanced physical and mental health.

A hypothetical scenario might serve to illustrate and supplement our argument. Imagine a work context in which supervisors demonstrate various forms of family-oriented behaviours, such as giving flexitime to subordinates or accommodating their requests to work from home. Observing such supportive behaviours from their managers, subordinates are less likely to feel stressed about their work tasks when they are at home, and are able to allocate time to engage in non-work chores. We believe that employees who are more engaged in their home lives (e.g., reporting higher levels of home-oriented vigour, dedication and absorption) are also likely to feel more satisfied with their work–family balance. The underlying rationale for this argument is that spending time that contributes to a sense of self-care (e.g., getting sufficient sleep and exercise, spending time with one's significant others and paying attention to personal relationships) is likely to lead to more feelings of positive emotion, and improved well-being (Edwards & Van Harrison, 1993). Indirectly supporting our arguments, the findings of Rofcanin, Las Heras, Escribano, and Stanko (2019) demonstrate a positive association between FSSBs and perceived overall health, emphasizing the role of FSSBs as a mechanism to translate the impact of a supportive climate into an employee's global evaluation of their health. However, the findings of Yragui, Demsky, Hammer, Van Dyck, and Neradilek (2016) reveal no significant association between FSSBs and symptoms of physical health (e.g., difficulty in sleeping, and headaches). To help disentangle this inclusive relationship and to better understand the conduit through which

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FSSBs influence employees' satisfaction with work–family balance, we propose self-care as a mechanism, and thus, our third hypothesis is:

H3: FSSBs relate positively to subordinates' work engagement, which in turn relates to subordinates' work performance (H3a); FSSBs relate positively to subordinates' self-care, which in turn relates to their satisfaction with work–family balance (H3b).

A key feature of social learning theory is role modelling, which is also referred to as the ''cascading effect'' in the leadership literature (Bass, 1990). The primary explanation of this approach is that followers, by imitating and engaging in observational learning, act in a manner akin to their leaders and that is in line with the norms and expectations of the work environment (Brown et al., 2005). The perceptions, attitudes or behaviours of one individual (usually a manager) cascade down through a second individual (usually a subordinate), to shape their behaviours and attitudes (Wo et al., 2015). As argued in our first hypothesis, servant leaders are likely to engage in more FSSBs, with the aim of grooming their subordinates, setting the right tone in the work environment and maintaining a culture of servitude by helping their subordinates tackle their work-family issues. Working with servant managers who exhibit FSSBs, subordinates are likely to emulate and tune into their managers' behaviour, adopting the positive features that impact on their work engagement and self-care positively. Feeling engaged and caring for themselves, these subordinates are likely to perform better and achieve better work-family balance. Research exploring how the positive impact of positive leadership trickles down to shape employee outcomes supports our arguments. Drawing on social learning theory, Mayer and colleagues (2009) demonstrate that top management ethical leadership enhances group level OCBs and reduces group level deviance behaviours via impacting on the ethical leadership of supervisors. Focusing on ethical leadership, Schaubroeck and colleagues (2012) found limited support for trickle-down explanations of ethical leadership on follower outcomes but broader support for a multilevel

model that underlines the role of managers in creating the cascading effect of ethical climate and culture on follower outcomes. Research also supports the trickle-down effect of leadership in studies that focus on empowering leadership (e.g., Byun, 2016; Park, 2017).

Integrating these studies and building on the cascading effect literature in leadership studies, we argue that the underpinning sequence of these associations can be showcased through a trickle-down model which sets out from servant leadership and cascades down to influence subordinate outcomes in work and family domains. Thus, our final hypothesis is:

H4: Servant leadership trickles down into (indirectly influences) subordinates' work performance through FSSBs and work engagement (H4a); servant leadership trickles down into (indirectly influences) subordinates' satisfaction with work–family balance through FSSBs and self-care.

Methodology

Sample and Procedure. The data for this study was collected as part of a larger research project carried out by a European university. We contacted a group of Chilean companies that all belonged to the same holding, owned by two families. These companies operate in the finance, travel, and real estate sectors. We explained the research purpose of the project to these companies. As an incentive to participate in our study, we offered a company-specific final report of the results at an aggregate level so that no individual respondent could be identified. Confidentiality was assured to all participants by emphasizing to them that only the researchers would have access to the data collected. The data for servant leadership, FSSBs, work engagement/self-care and subordinate outcomes were collected with a time lag of one month.

With the help of an HR executive in each company, we prepared a representative sample of employees across different managerial levels, occupations and departments. We

conducted a power analysis to determine the final sample size (Ellis, 2010).[2] Ultimately, we invited 3,642 subordinates and 1,245 supervisors to participate in our project. Supervisors had to respond to at least two surveys: one that referred to themselves, and one for each subordinate under them (i.e., in relation to the work performance of the subordinates). Due to missing data, our final sample included matched responses from 819 subordinates and 770 supervisors.

We collected our data in an electronic format and administered the surveys in Spanish. A one-month lag time was used between the surveys of each of our study variables (i.e., one month between surveying servant leadership and surveying FSSBs; one month between surveying FSSBs and surveying work engagement/self-care). We used back-to-back translation procedures to translate the original survey items from English to Spanish (Brislin, 1986). Using a unique identifier for each subordinate, we matched supervisor-evaluated data to that of subordinates. With respect to demographics, subordinates were, on average, 28.4 years old (SD = 3.8 years), and 54 percent were female. In terms of highest level of education, 28 percent had high-school graduation degrees, 32 percent had completed undergraduate degree programs, 30 percent had completed a postgraduate degree, and the remaining 10 percent self-categorized as "Other".

On average, supervisors were 39 years old (SD = 7.4 years old) and 45.5 percent were female; educationally, 10 percent had completed high school, 42 percent had completed

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[2] We had to avoid accessing all employees because most supervisors were also subordinate to a higher-level supervisor. Because we sent supervisors two different questionnaires, one referring to their own perceptions and another asking them to rate their subordinates, we did not ask anyone to respond in both roles, which would have created noise in the study. Moreover, the companies were unwilling to distribute surveys to all employees. Thus, as a first step, we needed to determine a confidence level, influenced by the population size, confidence interval and percentage of respondents falling into our predetermined sampling context. We conducted a basic power analysis, considering the number of dyads, with the target of achieving a 70 percent response rate and a 95 percent confidence interval for each company. This high response rate may seem optimistic, yet the researchers had previously studied companies in this geographical area and were confident that these would be achieved. In the end, we achieved the minimum sample determined by the power analysis.

undergraduate programs, 43 percent had completed a postgraduate degree of some sort, and 5 percent self-categorized as "Other".

Measures

All items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree).

Servant leadership. Subordinates utilized a seven-item scale developed by Liden et al. (2014a) (α = .89) to evaluate the extent to which they perceived their managers to be servant leaders. An example item was "My manager makes my career development a priority".

FSSBs.[3] Subordinates evaluated the extent to which their supervisors exhibited family-supportive behaviours by utilizing seven items from the scale designed by Hammer et al. (2009). Sub-dimensions of the scale cover dimensions of emotional support (two items, e.g., "My supervisor takes time to learn about my personal needs"), instrumental support (two items, e.g., "I can depend on my supervisor to help me with scheduling conflicts if I need it"), role model behaviour (two items, e.g., "My supervisor is a good role model for work and non-work balance"), and creative work–family management (one item: "My supervisor thinks about how the work in my department can be organized to jointly benefit employees and the company"). These sub-dimensions were combined to present a global FSSB score (α = .96).

Work engagement. Subordinates evaluated their work engagement utilizing the nine-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; vigor, dedication, absorption; Schaufeli et al., 2006). In line with previous research, these sub-dimensions were aggregated to present a composite

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[3] In order to explore the divergent validity of these two constructs, we conducted additional confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) for these two constructs. A model in which the items of servant leadership and FSSBs loaded onto their respective constructs had a better fit (χ^2 = 425.344, df = 18, χ^2/df = 23.61, p < 0.001; CFI = 0.92; TLI = 0.92; RMSEA = 0.06; SRMR within = 0.05; SRMR between = 0.05) than a model in which the items of servant leadership and FSSBs were loaded onto one construct (χ^2 = 408.305, df = 14, χ^2/df = 29.16, p < 0.001; CFI = 0.87; TLI = 0.86; RMSEA = 0.10; SRMR within = 0.09; SRMR between = 0.09). This finding strengthens the discriminant validity of servant leadership and FSSBs.

work engagement score ($\alpha = .91$). Example items included "I feel bursting with energy" (vigor), "My job inspires me" (dedication) and "I am immersed in my work" (absorption).

Self-care. Using three items (e.g., Ter Hoeven & van Zoonen, 2015), subordinates were asked to evaluate the extent to which they get sufficient exercise, sleep well at night and have energy at home to take care of family and personal responsibilities. An example item was "I sleep well at night" ($\alpha = 0.79$).

Work performance. Supervisors evaluated the work performance of their direct reports (i.e., subordinates) with four items developed by Williams and Anderson (1991) ($\alpha = .96$). A sample item was "He/she meets the formal performance requirements of the job".

Satisfaction with work–family balance. Subordinates were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with one item from a scale developed by Valcour (2007). The item was "The way you divide your time between work and personal or family life".

POS. Supervisors evaluated their perceptions of overall organizational supportiveness with four items from the scale of Eisenberger et al. (1986) ($\alpha = .96$). An example item was "The organization is sincerely concerned about my well-being".

Controls. Various demographics, including the age, gender and number of children of subordinates and their supervisors, as well as the length of the dyadic relationship between subordinate and supervisor (measured as a continuous variable), were integrated into the analyses. After including the control variables, the direction and strength of the results of our hypotheses did not change; hence, we excluded them from our subsequent analyses to produce clearer results without the obfuscation of control variables (Becker et al., 2015).

Analytical strategy

Our data exhibited a nested structure (work performance was evaluated by managers). To control for this structure, we applied multilevel analyses using MLwiN software. The intra-class correlation (ICC) value for supervisor-rated work performance was 80 percent, which

means that supervisors demonstrated a variance of 80 percent in evaluating the performance of their subordinates (Hox, 2002). These results emphasize the importance of using multilevel analyses. We implemented grand-mean centring for Level 1 variables, and unit-level-mean centring for all variables that were measured at Level 2 (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

We conducted Monte Carlo (MC) simulations with 20,000 iterations to test our mediation hypotheses and to obtain confidence intervals (MacKinnon & Fairchild, 2009). We tested the mediation of work engagement/self-care simultaneously (MacKinnon & Fairchild, 2009). The absence of the value of zero from the confidence intervals means that an indirect effect is established. In testing our moderation hypothesis, we followed the suggestions of Aiken and West (1991) and plotted the simple slopes of our results at one standard deviation above and below the mean of the moderator.

Results

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, correlations and internal reliability values of our study variables.

---Please insert Table 1 around here ----

We conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to explore the factorial structures of our measurement model using Mplus statistical modelling software. We also compared our measurement model to two alternative models, including a model (Alternative model 1) in which the items of FSSBs and servant leadership loaded onto one factor and a model (Alternative model 2) in which the items of self-care and work engagement loaded onto one factor. As depicted in Table 2, the fit indices of our measurement model demonstrated a better fit compared to the two alternative models, underlining that our measurement model had the best fit with the data.

---Please insert Table 2 around here ----

Hypothesis 1 argues for a positive relationship between servant leadership and FSSBs.

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This is supported by these results ($\gamma = 0.66$, $p < .001$). Hypothesis 2 proposes that servant leaders' POS moderates the positive association between servant leadership and FSSBs. The interaction term was significant ($\gamma = -0.08$, $p < 0.01$; Table 2, Model 2). Please refer to Figure 2 for the results of our slope analyses and, as can be seen from the findings, our hypothesis is only partially supported.

---Please insert Table 2 around here ----

---Please insert Figure 2 around here ----

Hypothesis 3a proposes that FSSBs relate to subordinates' work performance through the shaping of their work engagement. Because the confidence intervals did not include a value of zero, this meant that work engagement mediated the positive association between FSSBs and work performance (95% CI [0.025, 0.069]). This mediation was full, because the impact of FSSBs on work performance became non-significant with the inclusion of work engagement (see Table 3, Model 2).

---Please insert Table 3 around here ----

Hypothesis 3b proposes that FSSBs indirectly relate to subordinates' satisfaction with their work–family balance through shaping their self-care. Because the confidence intervals did not include a value of zero (95% CI [0.06, 0.16]), this hypothesis was also supported (Table 4, Model 2). However, this mediation was partial, because the impact of FSSBs on subordinates' satisfaction with work–family balance was still significant and positive with the inclusion of self-care.

---Please insert Table 4 around here ----

Hypotheses 4a proffers a serial mediation in which the impact of servant leadership trickles down to the work performance of subordinates via first influencing their perception of FSSBs and then their work engagement. The confidence interval of this serial mediation was significantly positive and did not include a value of zero, supporting our hypothesis

(95% CI [0.12, 0.22]). Hypothesis 4b proposes a serial mediation in which the impact of servant leadership on subordinates' satisfaction with their work–family balance trickles down through their perception of FSSBs first and then their perceptions of self-care. The confidence interval of this mediation was also significantly positive and did not include a value of zero (95% CI [0.08, 0.14]), offering support for this hypothesis too.

Discussion

This study aimed to explore the mechanisms and boundary conditions by which servant leadership trickles down to shape subordinates' domain-specific outcomes. We introduced two sequential mechanisms, namely FSSBs and work engagement/self-care, and a boundary condition in the form of POS to address our research question. Our findings largely supported our conceptual model and offered interesting additional insights. We discuss our contributions to the literatures on servant leadership, FSSBs, and engagement, and to the trickle-down model below.

Contributions to servant leadership literature. Do servant leaders also make a positive contribution to their subordinates' family lives and, if so, how? We contribute to this debate by introducing FSSBs as a behavioural mechanism through which servant leaders enact their helping and serving intentions in relation to subordinates' family lives. This is noteworthy because one way for servant leaders to ensure that their subordinates feel safe and happy is by caring for their family lives (van Dierendonck, 2011). In introducing FSSBs and the consequential mechanism of self-care, we have responded to a call from the most recent research review of servant leadership (i.e., Eva et al., 2019; van Dierendonck, 2011) to adopt and utilize a theoretical framework that recognizes employees' needs outside the work domain.

Empirically, we extend recent research that has started to focus on the consequences of servant leadership in the family domain. Tang et al. (2016) reveal that servant leaders

cause employees to feel less emotionally exhausted and enhance their learning experiences, which reduces work–family conflict and leads to mutual work–family enrichment. These findings also draw on Zhang et al. (2012), who demonstrate that servant leaders, through the fostering of organizational identification, generate work–family enrichment. By integrating and exploring the role of FSSBs as mediating mechanisms, we discuss and demonstrate how and why the positive impact of servant leadership unfolds on employee work and non-work outcomes.

Contributions to FSSB literature. From an FSSB research perspective, our findings contribute to the expansion of the nomological network of such behaviour. To date, antecedents of FSSBs remain little-researched; in a recent review of FSSBs, Crain and Stevens (2018) reveal that only a handful of studies have explored these antecedents. Among such studies, the predominant focus has been on organizational culture (Matthews et al., 2014), leader–member exchange (LMX) (Pan, 2018), and demographic characteristics that pertain to the dyadic relationship between supervisors and their subordinates (Huffman & Olson, 2017). However, a leadership perspective is important because it helps to determine the characteristics of managers who trigger and sustain FSSBs, which represent low-cost and informal policies to keep employees motivated and engaged (Hammer et al., 2013). By revealing a positive relationship between servant leadership and FSSBs and the downstream consequences of the latter, this study underscores the role of FSSBs as a mechanism, and therefore as a tool of intervention (Kossek, 2016) in materializing the serving and helping ideals of leaders in relation to subordinates' work and family domains.

From a boundary condition perspective, our results revealed that the association between servant leadership and FSSBs is not straightforward and is dependent on other contextual elements. As discussed in a recent review (Eva et al., 2019), a potential area of future research is to unravel the boundary conditions affecting the influence of servant

leadership on followers. In an emerging body of research, a few studies have started focusing on organizational structure (Neubert et al., 2016), the climate for sharing family concerns (Zhang et al., 2012), and elderly care responsibilities as boundary conditions for FSSBs, but have overlooked the possible role of POS as a contextual element in explaining how and when FSSBs are triggered. Our findings showed that managers are likely to demonstrate FSSBs in organizations where their perceived supportiveness is lower. In other words, in organizations where formal support is low (i.e., low POS), servant leaders still demonstrate examples of family-supportive behaviours, potentially to provide a source of informal, compensatory support and help to their subordinates. This result helps to clarify the findings of Matthews et al. (2014), who reveal that managers engage in fewer FSSBs in contexts where family-friendly benefits are perceived to be low. They speculated that if managers perceived organizations to be supportive in general, they would demonstrate family-supportive behaviours, and called for further research to explore the facilitating boundary conditions. Our results in relation to servant manager's POS underpin a compensatory perspective that aligns with the view that employees can harness resources from elsewhere and contributes to debates about the compensatory role of climate in FSSB research (Bagger & Li, 2014) and to research on POS (Eisenberger et al., 2014).

Contributions to trickle-down models of servant leadership. Taking FSSBs as a starting point and a first mediating mechanism, work engagement of subordinates links the positive influence of servant leaders to subordinates' work performance. This expands on the findings of Wang, Xu, and Liu (2018), who reveal the servant leadership of line managers as a mediating mechanism between higher-level managers' servant leadership and subordinates' work performance. Taking a family angle, which corresponds to a key tenet of servant leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011), one potential explanation of why subordinates deliver better performance might be because they feel more engaged with their jobs as a result of

working with servant leaders who demonstrate FSSBs. The benefits associated with FSSBs (e.g., feeling valued, caring for one's family) trigger a sense of attachment to, and engagement with one's work, which may provide a mechanism to explain the improved performance of subordinates. As such, in enjoying the benefits of FSSBs, subordinates may invest in themselves, developing their skills in new areas, rendering them more employable and more capable of carrying out tasks in an effective way. Following a similar pattern, subordinates who work with servant leaders that demonstrate FSSBs feel more relaxed at home, can engage more in home chores, and have the resources to engage in family activities. Importantly, this reveals that the positive impact of servant leaders may be explained in part by the gains associated with family life, leading to enhanced satisfaction with work–family balance. In a time where juggling the demands arising from one's work and family become ever-more crucial, this finding extends research that underscores the importance of managers considering the family needs of their subordinates (Las Heras et al., 2017).

The findings in this study also contribute to debates that explore how and why the impact of positive leadership in general, and specifically servant leadership, cascades down to shape and impact employee outcomes. Focusing on ethical leadership, the results in Mayer et al. (2009) underline that ethical leadership flows from one organizational level to the next: accordingly, supervisors role model the ethical leadership of their managers which leads to enhanced OCB and reduced deviance at the group level. Focusing specifically on the question of how and why servant leadership trickles down the hierarchy of an organization, Stollberger et al. (2019) show that managers' servant leadership, through role modelling and vicarious learning, increases supervisor servant leadership, which in turn increases employee prosocial motivation and work performance. An interesting finding of this study is that supervisor family motivation buffers the trickle-down mechanism in a manner that the effect on employee work performance is weaker for supervisors with high levels of family motivation.

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By unravelling the role of FSSBs as a mechanism for transferring the positive influence of servant leadership to subordinates and the role of managers' POS as a contextual and boundary condition explaining when the trickle-down effect is optimum, we contribute to this nascent line of research.

Contributions relating to practical implications

Our results support the importance of FSSBs in positively shaping the work engagement and self-care of employees, with desirable downstream impacts on supervisor-rated work performance. Given the relatively new recognition of FSSBs (Hammer et al., 2009), supervisors may not yet be well-positioned and equipped to deliver them. Thus, developing and deploying interventions to encourage FSSBs could be a key objective for HR departments and higher-level managers (Hammer et al., 2015). In line with the most recent research, which underlines the importance of interventions on FSSBs (Hammer et al., 2011), we suggest an intervention consisting of three components: computer-based training, face-to-face training, and behavioural self-monitoring, all focused on improving the FSSBs of supervisors. Thus, the computer-enabled training would focus on delivering key skills and capabilities for supervisors such that would be able to communicate with their subordinates in the most effective way and find solutions to help them manage work–family issues. This element of training would focus on providing: a) background information on the importance of reducing work–family conflict; b) the role and mission of the organization in eliminating work–family conflict; c) the definition of FSSBs and examples thereof; d) existing data and knowledge regarding the effectiveness and benefits of FSSBs. The face-to-face component of the intervention should focus on delivering training on the following: how to offer emotional support; the provision of exemplary work–family behaviours; differentiated conflict-resolution methods; familiarization with company policies on reducing work–family conflict. In the last component of FSSB training, supervisors should also be asked to set goals,

monitor their behaviours over time (3–5 weeks), and discuss the effectiveness of their goal achievement and training with colleagues and trainers. This approach enables supervisors to transfer their newly learned skills to the actual work environment and is increasingly being implemented to facilitate workplace learning and development (Olson & Winchester, 2008). By demonstrating that FSSBs transfer into better work performance and enhance employees' satisfaction with their work-family balance, our study adds to prior studies to show the importance of developing interventions. While prior research mainly focused on the work-related outcomes of FSSB interventions, this study highlights the mediating role of self-care and this suggests that three components of FSSB training may encourage and promote self-care among employees. By role modelling and mimicking the FSSB behaviours of their supervisors, employees may feel engaged and take better care of themselves. A broader implication of our findings related to FSSBs and servant leadership literatures is that, leadership development and training programmes can be conducted in the form of developing and enacting FSSBs as proxies for servant leadership.

Another key implication of our findings relates to the role of managers' POS. In organizations where managers' perceived supportiveness is low, the impact of servant leadership on FSSBs is strong and positive. The implication of this finding is to ensure and develop mechanisms where managers (and subsequently employees) feel at ease with implementing FSSBs in organizations. Following a similar approach to that suggested for FSSBs, we recommend training and development interventions to shape and change employees' perceptions of the supportiveness of their organizations. A first and key step towards this is to position and facilitate FSSBs as an integral element of the corporate culture, rather than being seen as a separate source of family support. Altogether, the findings speak to the tenet that the family lives of subordinates, as well as their work, are influenced by servant leaders and the behaviours they exhibit through FSSBs, and the working context

should offer resources to foster work engagement and self-care so that their impact is maximized.

Furthermore, and importantly, another key practical implication relates to the findings on self-care. The findings suggest that worksite health promotion programs are likely to yield positive outcomes for employees, engaging them in family domains (Pederson et al., 2018). Incentives and initiatives at workplaces may be geared toward providing employees with opportunities and spaces for self-care. Examples may include the development of in-house gym programmes, promotion of physical activities among employees and incentivising healthy diets through which employees can thrive and take better care of themselves (Sonnentag et al., 2017).

Limitations and Future Research Directions

Despite its strengths (including manager-rated data in an understudied context), some limitations of this study should be noted. First, because of the cross-sectional nature of the data, certain causal claims cannot be made.[4] We suggest that future research use time-lagged designs to separate the mediating mechanisms and the point at which their impact manifests. Second, we did not test all of the contingencies for how the impact of servant leadership trickles down to subordinates. While a focus on managers' POS is novel, future research could integrate a personality angle (e.g., the personality of the leader), a dyadic angle (e.g., LMX social comparison), or a focus on family-oriented culture (work–family culture), the motives of subordinates as well as managers (e.g., whether prosocial or intrinsic), and co-worker perspectives (e.g., co-worker support, relations with peers in the work setting). In developing and expanding the trickle-down model, these contingencies may offer valuable

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[4] We ran additional analyses to explore the potential issues of causality, alternative models included: 1) work engagement and self-care as outcome variables; 2) FSSBs as predictors of servant leadership; 3) work performance and work–family balance satisfaction as predictors of servant leadership and FSSBs, in sequence. The main thread of the findings was that the conceptual model and paths we described in the current paper fitted the data significantly better than these alternatives. Upon request, we are happy to provide and discuss the implications of our results from these alternative analyses.

avenues for further research. Third, our measurement of work-family balance satisfaction relies on one-single item selected from the five-item measure developed by Valcour (2007)[5]. We recommend future studies replicate the findings using the full-item scale of work-family balance satisfaction and integrate other related constructs, such as work-family enrichment or role-transitions.

Fourth, we did not measure some of the underlying mechanisms and assumptions supporting our hypotheses, such as role modelling and resource accumulation. Rather, we relied on the conceptualization and measurement of FSSBs and servant leadership, which offer an indication of the resourcing and supportive nature of these constructs. It may be worthwhile to explicitly measure the role modelling and resource accumulation tenets of our conceptual model in further research. Fifth, we did not measure home engagement but rather used a construct similar to work engagement as a representative of it. Our rationale was driven by the resource constraints we faced in the project. We suggest that future research explicitly develop and use a more basal measure of home engagement.

It could also be argued that the two constructs of servant leadership and FSSBs share many common elements, raising the possibility that they could be considered the same or very similar in their defining features. However, it is worth noting that servant leadership can be categorized as a proactive prosocial behaviour in which leaders support followers

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[5] There are two reasons underlying our use of one-item for the measurement of work-family balance satisfaction. The first reason is the practical concerns imposed on us by the funded organization to use a shorter scale. This was because the project involved the administration of a long survey for managers and subordinates and the corresponding HR representatives wanted us to avoid a risk of exhaustion and fatigue of the employees participating in the study. For this reason, we were asked to cut down on the items of work-family balance satisfaction scale and were asked to use one-item that is most likely to capture the work-family balance satisfaction perceptions of subordinates. Secondly and in relation to our first reasoning, we ran certain correlation analyses with the one-item of work-family balance satisfaction collected for this project only with the full-list of items of work-family balance satisfaction collected for a different and unique project and that is not part of this project. The correlation between our one-single item of this project and the five-items of another project were very high and significant (ranging from 0.72 to 0.95), indicating a high extent of shared meaning and convergence between the selected item and the rest of them. Driven by these reasons, we deemed that our reliance on one-item would not pose a serious threat to the interpretation of the results.

principally at work, helping them set and achieve targets, and addressing their personal difficulties by providing them with personal and informational resources (van Dierendonck, 2011). Based on the associated body of research, one could argue that the predominant focus of servant leaders is helping and developing their followers in the work domain, with a focus on their career development and potential issues faced at work. However, such a focus does not exclude a follower's family domain and, to capture the latter, we focused on FSSBs as behavioural exhibitions of servant leadership. In contrast to servant leadership, FSSBs reflect and capture leaders' family-oriented behaviours, which can be considered reflections of servant leadership directed solely to addressing the family-related concerns and problems of subordinates (Crain & Stevens, 2018).

FSSBs aim to enable employees to achieve work–family balance, which could then lead to increased self-care. In order to understand this potential consequence, we tested an alternative model in which work–family balance satisfaction was a mediator between FSSBs and self-care. While the results of this additional analysis were still significant, the tenets of FSSBs suggest that satisfaction with work–family balance is an outcome, raising questions as to the possible mechanisms that could explain and elucidate this relationship. Thus, we proposed and expanded upon the role of self-care as one such mechanism. Future research could explore other possibilities, such as the role of sharing or support at home, that may result in improved work–family balance satisfaction.

Future studies could adopt a within-person design and explore the dynamic change in how servant leaders operate in a dyadic context with their subordinates. One potentially rich approach would be to pair servant leaders with their subordinates and follow the explicit process of trickle-down over several weeks, which would necessitate a diary-based research design. Last but not least, the large body of research concerned with work design and work characteristics could inform future studies. Thus, task interdependence among co-workers,

task significance, and job complexity may all shape the extent to which subordinates benefit from the positive impact of FSSBs of servant leaders.

Conclusion

This study set out to explore the mechanisms and boundary conditions of servant leadership which unfold and impact employee work performance and their satisfaction with work-family balance. Our findings show that servant leadership is positively associated with FSSBs and that these behaviours, in turn, impact work performance through work engagement and work-family balance satisfaction of employees via their impact on self-care. Furthermore, our findings underline that in a work environment where managers perceive high supportiveness (high POS), the impact of servant leadership on FSSBs is not positive and significant. However, this association is positive and significant in organizations where servant managers consider organizations to be less supportive (low POS).

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APPENDIX

Measures

Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviours

Servant leadership (Liden et al., 2014b):

- My manager can tell if something work-related is going wrong.
- My manager makes my career development a priority.
- I would seek help from my manager if I had a personal problem.
- My manager emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community.
- My manager puts my best interests ahead of his/her own.
- My manager gives me the freedom to handle difficult situations in the way I feel is best.
- My manager would not compromise ethical principles in order to achieve success.

FSSBs (Hammer et al., 2009):

- My supervisor is willing to listen to my problems in juggling work and non-work life.
- My supervisor takes the time to learn about my personal needs.
- My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him or her about my conflicts between work and non-work.
- My supervisor and I can talk effectively to solve conflicts between work and non-work issues.
- I can depend on my supervisor to help me with scheduling conflicts between work and non-work issues.
- My supervisor is a good role model for work and non-work balance.
- My supervisor thinks about how the work in my department can be organized to jointly benefit employees and the company.

We note that the correlation between servant leadership and FSSBs is .67; when we remove the two items that are very similar to each other (i.e., Servant leadership: *I would seek help from my manager if I had a personal problem*; FSSBs: *My manager puts my best interests ahead of his/her own*) the correlation drops to .52. We have rerun all of our analyses with these two data items removed and the strength and direction of our results remained unchanged.

POS (Shore & Wyne, 1993)

- When I have a problem, the organization tries to help me.
- The organization is sincerely concerned about my well-being.
- The organization takes my opinion seriously.
- The organization is concerned about my overall satisfaction at work.

Work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003)

- At my work, I feel bursting with energy
- At my job, I feel strong and vigorous
- When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
- I am enthusiastic about my job.
- My job inspires me.
- I am proud on the work that. I do.
- I am immersed in my work.
- I get carried away when I am working.
- I feel happy when I am working intensely.

Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviours

Self-care (Ter Hoeven & van Zoonen, 2015)

- I get sufficient exercise.
- I sleep well at night.
- I have energy at home to take care of family and personal responsibilities.

Work performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991)

- He/She adequately completes assigned duties
- He/She fulfils responsibilities specified in job description
- He/She performs tasks that are expected from him/her
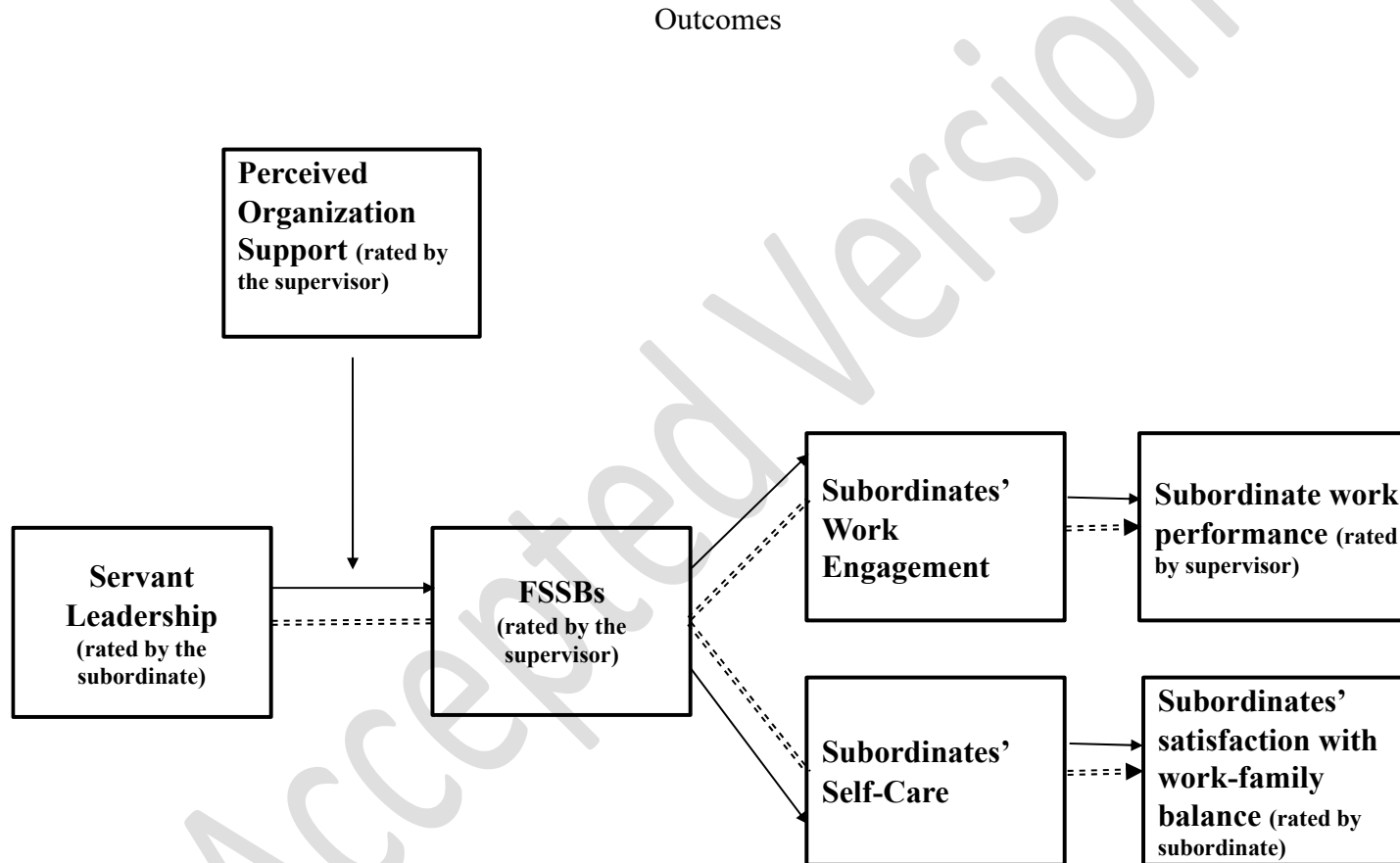- He/She meets formal performance requirements of the job

Satisfaction with work-family balance (Valcour, 2007)

- I am satisfied with the way I divide my time between work and personal or family life.
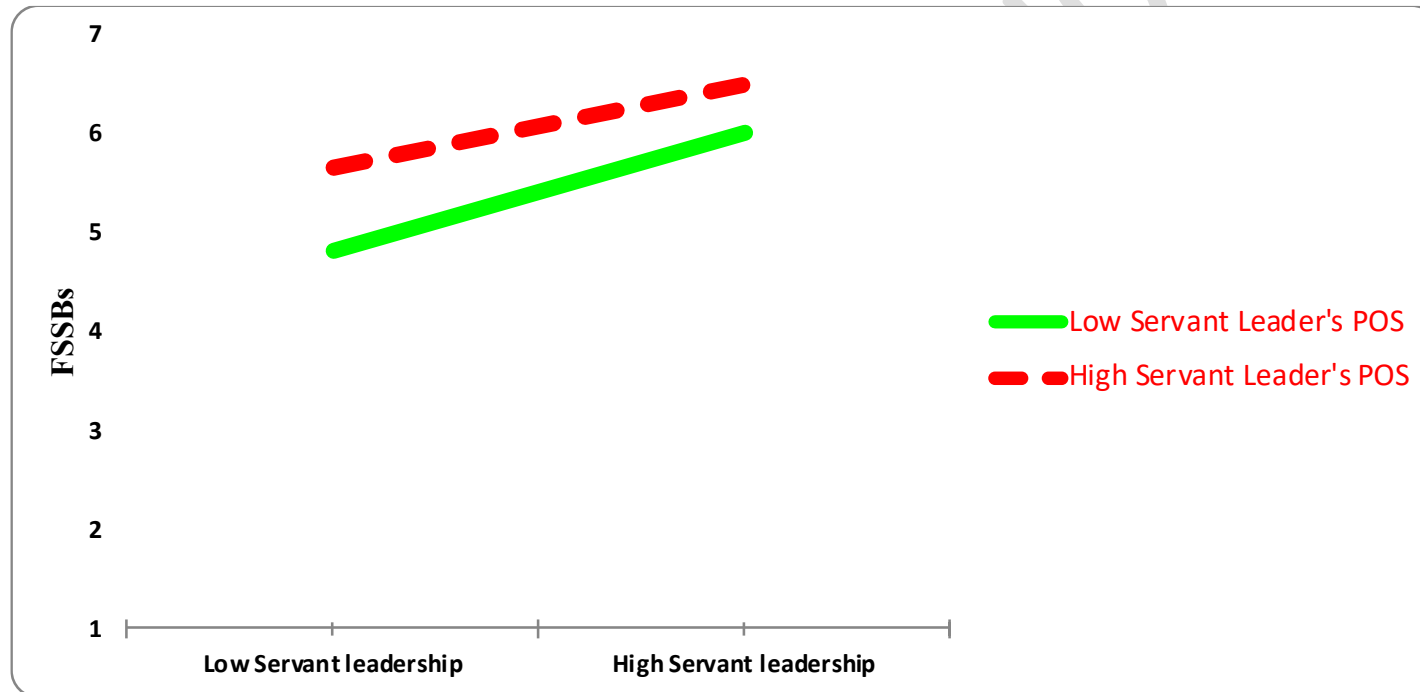
Figure 1. Mechanisms and Boundary Conditions of the Trickle-down Model of FSSB and Servant Leadership in Relation to Work and Home

Outcomes

Notes. *Dotted lines represent mediation.*

Figure 2. Moderation by POS of the Association Between Servant Leadership and FSSBs

Notes. We plotted the interaction at one standard deviation above and below the mean of the POS (Figure 2). In work organizations where servant leaders consider organizations to be less supportive, the simple slope was significantly positive (gradient of slope = 0.19, t = 2.11, p < 0.05); in work organizations where servant leaders consider organizations to be more supportive, the simple slope was not significant (gradient of slope = -0.04, t = -2.25, p = 0.82). Thus, our hypothesis is only partially supported.

Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviours

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Internal Reliabilities

	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Servant leadership	4.91	1.35	0.89						
2	FSSBs	5.74	1.32	0.67**	0.96					
3	Work engagement	5.61	0.92	0.46**	0.49**	0.91				
4	Self-care	4.61	1.42	0.28**	0.30**	0.55**	0.79			
5	Work performance	5.91	1.07	0.11**	0.17**	0.21**	0.09**	0.96		
6	Satisfaction with work–family balance	5.48	1.29	0.32**	0.37**	0.56**	0.59**	0.11**	NA	
7	POS	5.80	1.13	0.50**	0.57**	0.60**	0.41**	0.16**	0.47**	0.96

Notes. N = 770 supervisors, 819 subordinates.
Reliabilities are shown in italics on the diagonal.
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviours

Table 2. Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Model	Model description	χ2 (df)	χ2/df p value	CFI	TFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Measurement model	**Six-factor model:** POS, FSSB, Servant leadership, self-care, work engagement and work performance	2487.949 (512)	4.85 p <. 0.001	0.92	0.91	0.06	0.04
Alternative model 1	**Five-factor model:** The items of servant leadership and FSSB load onto one factor, the rest of the items load onto their respective constructs.	3344.272 (517)	6.46 p <. 0.001	0.88	0.88	0.08	0.05
Alternative model 2	**Five-factor model:** The items of self-care and work engagement load onto one factor, the rest of the items load onto their respective constructs.	3656.701 (517)	7.07 p <. 0.001	0.88	0.87	0.08	0.12

N = 770 managers, 819 subordinates.

CFI: Confirmatory fit index, TFI: Tucker-Lewis index, RMSEA: Root mean square of error approximation, SRMR: Standardized root mean square residual.

Table 2. Moderation by POS of the Association Between Servant Leadership and FSSBs

| Variable | Dependent Variable: FSSBs | | | | | |
| | Model 1 | | | Model 2 | | |
	Estimate	SE	t	Estimate	SE	t
Intercept	5.74	0.03	191.30	3.72	0.05	74.4
Servant Leadership	0.51	0.03	17.02***	0.49	0.03	16.33***
POS	0.33	0.04	8.25***	0.28	0.06	4.66**
Servant Leadership × POS				-0.08	0.02	-4.00***
Level 1 intercept variance (SE)	0.24	0.02		0.17	0.04	
Level 2 intercept variance (SE)	0.62	0.01		0.60	0.03	

Notes. N = 770 supervisors, 819 subordinates.

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

Table 3. Mediation by Work Engagement of the Association Between FSSBs and Work Performance

Variable	Dependent Variable: Work Engagement			Dependent Variable: Work Performance		
	Model 1			*Model 2*		
	Estimate	SE	t	Estimate	SE	t
Intercept	5.61	0.03	187	5.91	0.04	147.75
Servant Leadership	0.17	0.03	5.60***	0.04	0.03	1.33
FSSBs	0.24	0.03	8.00***	0.07	0.04	1.75
Work Engagement				0.19	0.04	4.75***
Level 1 intercept variance (SE)	0.16	0.07		0.88	0.05	
Level 2 intercept variance (SE)	0.52	0.03		0.23	0.02	

Notes. N = 770 supervisors, 819 subordinates.

The indirect effect is calculated using an online interactive tool that generates an R score (http://quantpsy.org/medmc/medmc.htm). The first path of the indirect relationship relates to the association between FSSBs and self-care (controlled for servant leadership) and the second path of the indirect relationship relates to the association between self-care and satisfaction with work–family balance.

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

Table 4. Mediation by Self-Care of the Association Between FSSBs and Satisfaction with Work–Family Balance

Variable	Dependent Variable: Self-Care			Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with Work–Family Balance		
	Model 1			*Model 2*		
	Estimate	SE	t	Estimate	SE	t
Intercept	4.61	0.04	115.2	5.49	0.35	15.68
Servant Leadership	0.15	0.04	3.75***	0.05	0.04	1.25
FSSBs	0.23	0.05	4.60***	0.17	0.04	4.25***
Self-Care				0.48	0.02	24.00***
Level 1 intercept variance (SE)	0.32	0.24		0.001	0.04	
Level 2 intercept variance (SE)	1.49	0.25		0.101	0.02	

Notes. N = 770 managers, 819 subordinates.

The indirect effect is calculated using an online interactive tool that generates an R score (http://quantpsy.org/medmc/medmc.htm). The first path of the indirect relationship relates to the association between FSSBs and self-care (controlled for servant leadership) and the second path of the indirect relationship relates to the association between self-care and satisfaction with work–family balance.

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.