A   Additional Results and Robustness Checks

A.1   Descriptive Statistics: Changes in Pay Grade

In the body of the paper, we use the pay grade of the employee as the main outcome. In this section, we provide descriptive statistics about the main outcome of interest.

In Figure A.1.i, we show that there is a tight and linear relationship between pay grade and the logarithm of salary. The slope of the relationship (0.227) indicates that a 1-point increase in pay grade is associated with a 25% increase in salary ($= e^{0.227} - 1$). Note also that the R^2 of the regression (0.83) is quite high, implying that pay grade explains the vast majority of the salary variation at the firm.

We show the timing of pay grade changes following a manager transition. While promotions/changes in pay grade are concentrated during two times of the year, May and October, they appear much more evenly distributed when we plot the timing relative to manager transitions. The reason for this is that manager transitions are evenly distributed throughout calendar time, so promotion season can fall anytime after the transition. In Figure A.1.ii.a, we present a binned scatter plot with an overlaid linear trend line of the change in pay grade since a manager transition. This relationship tracks the linear trend closely; which is consistent with the underlying mechanics of the manager transitions and pay grade changes. In Figure A.1.ii.b, we produce the equivalent figure but with the x-axis being the time since the employee joined the firm (instead of the time since the last manager transition). This relationship is also linear. After approximately 10 quarters, the conditional expectation of change is pay grade is equal to 1.

A.2   Additional Event Study Descriptive Statistics

In the body of the paper we provide descriptive statistics about the transitions in manager's gender. In this section we present the corresponding statistics about the transitions in manager birthday, and smoking status.

A.2.1   Descriptive Statistics: Placebo Events

The placebo events are similarly uniformly distributed across the panel. We see balance across events both in terms of the number of events per manager (Figure A.2.i.b) and size (Figure A.2.i.c).

Similarly, there is balance across event type in terms of pay grade, age, and the share that are male and attended college (Appendix Table A.3). However, we do see that outgoing even-to-even

birthday and odd-to-odd birthday managers are more likely to be male, as are workers who go through transitions starting with an odd birthday manager. This is a good reminder that even in the face of "as good as random" assignment, we can still find random variation across groups.

A.2.2 Smoking Events

Like the placebo events, the smoking events are also essentially uniformly distributed throughout the panel (Figure A.2.ii). The share of "eligible" workers who have events (males with known smoker status) is similar to the share that have events in the larger sample (49% of this sample have smoking events, 44% of employees in the broader sample have gender transition events).

As with the main sample, the set of workers in this sample who have events are similar to those who do not, and workers who experience transition events are similar across events. As we show in Table A.4, employees are largely similar in terms of age and likelihood of having a college degree. The relatively small population of workers who transition from a smoking manager to another smoking manager are slightly older and less likely to have a college degree. While the differences in means are statistically significant, they are economically small; the average worker with a smoker-to-smoker transition is about 32 years old (those with a smoker-to-non-smoker event are 30 on average) and 78% of these workers have a college degree (compared to 88% of those with a smoker-to-non-smoker transition).

Importantly, we do not rely on balance in these levels for identification, rather we rely on parallel trends. In Figure 11.b, we present double-difference estimates of the difference between smoking and non-smoking employees transitioning smoker to non-smoker relative to those who transition from a smoker to another smoker. In these estimates, the confidence intervals are wide, but we do not find evidence for significantly different pretends. Further, when we combine these estimates, with those from transitions that start with a non-smoking manager (Figure 11.a) and present the dual-double-differences (Figure 11.c), we find no evidence that our results are biased by differential pre-trends. For this reason, this minor imbalance in these attributes is not a threat to our identification strategy.

A.3   Robustness Check: Underlying Transition Event Studies

In this section, we present the underlying event dummy estimates for each gender transition event individually, before combining coefficients to create single-differences, double-differences and dual-double-differences. Consider our baseline single-difference event-study design, presented in Figure 3 and discussed throughout the paper. The coefficients in this single-differences are simply the coefficients in the "Female to Male" event-study (panel a, Figure A.3.i) minus from those in the "Female to Female" event-study (panel b, Figure A.3.i).

Before discussing individual results, note that the interpretation of these coefficients is different than those in the single- and double-differences estimates that we report throughout the main text of the paper. In particular, the coefficients should be understood as estimates of the effect of transitioning, for example, from a female manager to a male manager, *relative to not experiencing a manager transition.* This is contrast to the single- and double-difference results, which adjusts for the effect of transitioning managers per se and estimates the effect of transitioning to a manager of a certain gender *relative to transitioning to a manager of the other gender.* In this way, the main specification has the advantage of allowing us to abstract away from the effects of transitioning managers per se, and allows us to focus on the differences associated with transitioning to a manager of one gender or the other.

It is also important to note that we have no gender-neutral, "unbiased" comparison group. That is, we can only observe the emergent outcomes under male and female managers; we cannot evaluate what these outcomes *should* be in the absence of a gendered lens. We are now comparing male and female workers who experience a particular event to everyone who does not experience that particular event. The outcomes in the reference category may still be affected by the genders of workers and their managers.

With this in mind, we turn to the gender transition events. In Figure A.3.i.a we present transitions from one female manager to another. We see that the effect on female employees is statistically indistinguishable from zero before and after the transition. Indeed, in all panels in Appendix Figure A.3.i, the effect of the transition on the pay grade of female workers is close to zero and statistically indistinguishable from zero. However, when male workers transition from a female manager to another female manager we see that after 10 quarters, their pay grade is approximately 0.24 pay grades lower (p-value =0.044). This is very similar to the estimate at 10 quarters (-0.23, p-value =0.043) for male workers who transition from a male manager to a female manager (presented in Figure A.3.i.c).

This negative estimate for males 10 quarters after the event presented in Figure A.3.i.a and Figure A.3.i.c is very similar in magnitude to the positive effect (+0.26, p-value =0.069) presented in Figure A.3.i.b. Indeed, regardless of direction, we see similar timing in the effects in panels a, b, c; in all of these transitions, effects are generally not visible until 7 or 8 quarters after the event. Figure A.3.i.d is then an outlier in the following respect - it is the only transition event that does not follow this timing pattern, and it is the only transition event for which the effect on male or female employees is never statistically significant.

A.4   Descriptive Statistics: Duration of Manager Transitions

Our event-study specification defines events based on the manager in the month of the transition (the incoming manager) and the month before (the outgoing manager). However, the new manager may stay with the team for as little as one quarter or throughout the rest of the panel. To aid our interpretation of the impact of the new manager, we describe in more detail the expected amount of time that the employee spends under a new male or female manager.

The graphs in this section measure the share of workers that are paired with a manager of a particular type (male/female, even/odd birthdays, smoker/non-smoker) in the quarters after a transition event. These graphs can be likened to a "first stage" for the event-study: we show the manager transition indeed increases exposure to the gender of the new manager.

We report this graph for gender events (Figure A.4.i), placebo events (Figure A.4.ii), and smoking events (Figure A.4.iii). For gender events, we can interpret the coefficient each quarter as the additional share of workers with a male (female) manager. That is, in Figure A.4.i.a, we report the single-differences estimates for transitions from a female to a male manager netting out transitions from one female manager to another female manager. In the first quarter, we interpret a point estimate of roughly 75% to mean that workers who transition from a female to a male manager are roughly 75 percentage points more likely to work under a male manager than their counterparts who transition from one female manager to another. That the estimates for male and female employees are very similar in every period suggests that there is not significant sorting of employees to (away from) managers of the same (opposite) gender in the quarters after a transition.

The estimates in Figures A.4.ii and A.4.iii can be interpreted analogously: for placebo events as the additional share of workers working under a manager with an even (odd) birthday, and for smoking events the additional share with a smoking (non-smoking) manager.

Note that nowhere is the coefficient identically one. We allow workers to rotate freely out of the unit (and to a different manager) immediately following the event. However, on average, the events are highly predictive of the type of manager long after the event. We see, for example that one year after the event, employees who move from a female to male manager are 50 percentage points more likely to be working under a male manager than their peers who move from a female to female manager. Even after the full 10 quarters, men who transition from a female to a male are about 25 percentage points more likely to be working under a male manager than their peers who transition from a female manager to another female manager.

In Appendix A.6 we show that the magnitude of the effect increases when we apply additional restrictions on the share of the unit that stays through the event or that stays through the first quarter after the event.

A.5 Event-Study Analysis: Including Manager Fixed Effects

In the body of the paper, we show that that managers are very similar in observable characteristics across event transitions (see Table 1). However, there may still be concern that differences in manager characteristics other than gender have a role to play in differential promotion rates. In this section, we show that including manager fixed-effects to address this concern does not appreciably change our estimates.

In Figure A.5.i.a, we show that estimate of the male-to-male advantage measured using the set of transitions with an outgoing female manager is robust to the inclusion of manager fixed effects. In particular, we see that the double-differences estimate is again statistically differentiable from zero in quarter 8 (0.34, p-value = 0.016), quarter 9 (0.47, p-value < 0.001) and quarter 10 (0.55, p-value < 0.001). Note that the estimate at quarter 10 (0.55) is consistent with the estimate in the baseline specification (0.50).

In panel b of Figure A.5.i, we present the results for the opposite set of transitions – those starting with a male manager. Again, the results with manager fixed-effects are consistent with those in the main specification. The double-differences estimate is statistically differentiable from zero in quarter 7 (-0.24, p-value = 0.014), quarter 8 (-0.34, p-value = 0.0014), quarter 9 (-0.39, p-value < 0.001) and quarter 10 (-0.41, p-value = 0.001). As with the female-origin set of events, the estimate at quarter 10 (-0.41) is consistent with the estimate in the baseline specification (-0.38).

Note that in both sets of transition events, to the extent that the manager fixed effects change the results, they increase the magnitude of the results. In addition, adding these fixed effects slightly increases the precision the point estimates. For the female-origin set of events, the standard error of the estimate at 10 quarters falls from 0.167 to 0.152; for the male-origin set of events, it falls from 0.145 to 0.126.

The set of incoming managers are well-balanced across gender (and within gender, across event transitions types). As we show in Table 1, the differences are negligible in levels, and negligible relative to the standard deviations. To the extent that differences across managers affect our estimates, they do not do so significantly. Further, it appears that these time-invariant differences across managers bias our results toward zero. Rather than explaining some of the gender effect, these differences in manager traits are idiosyncratic and add noise to our estimates; including these fixed effects thus makes our estimates more precise and greater in magnitude.

A.6 Robustness Check: Additional Restrictions on Transition Events

In our main specification, we say that a unit experiences a manager transition event in some month if the manager is replaced by a new manager who stays with that unit for at least one quarter. This excludes cases where a very transient substitute manager takes over for brief leave spells. In

our main specification, we do not place any restrictions on concurrent employee moves. In this section, we impose additional restrictions on the percent of the unit that stays: in particular, we can require a) that 90% of employees in the unit in the month before the event stay through the manager transition or that b) 80% of these employees remain in the unit after three months. We can also ensure that these effects are not driven by a small set of large "outlier" events; we can replicate our results after ignoring the largest (i.e. most affected employees) 5% or 10% of events.[39]

Recall that transition events are defined at the unit level, as a check against endogenous manager changes (i.e. a worker-initiated transfer). The point estimates in the baseline specification may thus be biased towards zero by employees who quickly move out of the unit and have only minimal exposure to the new manager. As we apply restrictions on employee moves, we reduce the share of workers who never directly experience the new manager (i.e. they transition out of the unit in the same month that the unit experiences an event) or "weak" matches (i.e. they transition out of the unit in the month after the new manager arrives). When we apply these restrictions on transitions, we see that the point estimates increase in magnitude.

In Figure A.6.i.b, we require that 90% of the unit stays through the event. With this restriction, the male-to-male advantage after 10 quarters nearly doubles to .90 from .50 in the main specification. However, this more restrictive definition of events does cause our power to decrease; we go from 3,160 employees with events in our main specification (A.6.i.a) to only 1,693. With this reduced precision, we are unable to reject the null hypothesis that this effect is the same as the estimate in our main specification (p-value = 0.21).

In Figure A.6.i.c we apply a alternative restriction on worker mobility, this time requiring that 80% of the workers in the unit in time of the event stay through three months (one quarter). Under this restriction, we lose less power; we have 2,182 employees with events. The point estimate 10 quarters after the event increases slightly to 0.57 (from a baseline of 0.50), well within the range we would expect to see under the assumption that we observe the same effect as in the main specification.

When we drop the largest 5% (Figure A.6.ii.b) and 10% (Figure A.6.ii.c) of events, the point estimates stay stable at 0.51 (5%) and 0.57 (10%); neither are statistically differentiable from the baseline estimate of 0.50.

A.7 Robustness Check: Restricting the Event-Study to a Single Cohort

Throughout the paper, we discuss the timing of the gender gap in promotions: that the gender gap becomes visible in late quarters. Since our panel covers 48 months, there is a mechanical restriction on the workers that identify these medium-run effects. That is, since the 10 quarter estimate is the

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[39]When we apply these restrictions, we do not drop observations from the panel. Rather, we drop *events*. That is, the number of observations stays constant, but the number of employees experiencing events decreases.

average of the estimates in months 28, 29, and 30, only workers with a start date before the 20th month in the panel can identify these coefficients. Even for workers who are in the panel in all periods, these coefficients are identified only from events that occur before the 20th month of the panel. In this section, we show that these composition effects do not drive our results by replicating our analysis on a single cohort of workers.

We restrict to the cohort of workers who start before the panel window, January 2015. In principle, any of these individuals are eligible to appear in any of these periods. We present results for this specification in Figure A.7.i. We retain roughly two-thirds of the individuals who experience a transition event of any kind. In panel a (outgoing female manager events), we observe 2,135 workers with events and in panel b (outgoing male manager events), we observe 3,084 workers with events. The male-to-male advantage after 10 quarters when transitioning from a female manager to a male manager in this sample is 0.45 (p-value 0.0147). The "lost" male-to-male advantage after 10 quarters for events with an outgoing male manager is -0.51 (p-value 0.0013). These results are close to the baseline estimate of 0.50 for the outgoing female manager events and -0.38 for the outgoing male manager events. Restricting to the single cohort has little effect on our estimates, although the symmetry between gaining and losing a male manager improves. The event studies limited to the cohort of workers who are working at the bank in the first month of the panel retain the timing and magnitude of the baseline results.

A.8 Robustness Check: Workers with Multiple Events

In the body of the paper, we treat each transition event as discrete and independent. However, it is possible that there is path dependence (or auto-correlation) in these events. That is, if having a transition event sets an employee on a certain "path" that causes her to experience more transitions more rapidly, the estimated long run effect of the first event reflects the effects of these additional events. For example, consider a male employee who experiences a transition from a female to male manager. He is promoted more quickly than a male coworker who transitions from one female manager to another female manager. As a result of his promotion to a higher-ranked male manager, he (possibly) experiences more frequent male-to-male manager transitions. His counterpart who was a male that was paired with another female manager is not promoted and experiences relatively more female-to-female manager transitions.

In this section, we show that this path dependence is not qualitatively important in identifying overall effects. First, we look only at the event that each employee experiences (discarding events beyond the first). Then, we impose an even stricter restriction and drop entirely from the sample any employee who experiences more than one transition event during the panel.

The initial random assignment to a male manager rather than a female manager places the

two on different career trajectories. It may also bias the effect of the *next* transition event they experience. That is, the incoming manager of the next event is (often) the outgoing manager of the first event.[40] Thus, even if manager transitions are exogenous, there may still be bias that arises in our estimates if the events are serially correlated in this way.

Simply considering the distribution of events reveals that the extent of this bias is quite limited; 90% of the employees who have events have only one event. We show in Figure A.8.i that the main results are robust to excluding the second or third events that an employee experiences. These results are highly consistent with the baseline. We estimate a male-to-male advantage of 0.44 (p-value = 0.007) after 10 quarters when transitioning from a female to a male manager, and a disadvantage of -0.42 (p-value 0.005) after 10 quarters when transitioning from a male to a female manager.

In Figure A.8.ii we show the results are robust to the more aggressive step of dropping from the sample entirely any individuals who experience more than one event. Under this restriction, we estimate a male-to-male advantage of 0.49 (p-value = 0.012) after 10 quarters when transitioning from a female to a male manager, and a lost advantage of -0.39 (p-value 0.008) after 10 quarters when transitioning from a male to a female manager.

A.9   Event-Study Analysis: Additional Placebo Results

In the main paper, we show that the single-differences estimates for employees with even (or odd) birthdays are not statistically differentiable from zero (Figure 5). In this section, we can present the double-differences estimates, which reflects the difference between employees with even and odd birthdays who experience a given pair of transition events.

In Figure A.9.i.a, we present double-difference estimates for the effect of a transition from a manager with an odd birthday to a manager with an even birthday relative to another manager with an odd birthday. Nowhere are these estimates statistically differentiable from zero. In the tenth quarter after the event, the point estimate is close to zero (-0.15) and statistically insignificant (p-value = 0.165).

In Figure A.9.i.b we present the analogous double-difference estimates for transitions from a manager with an even birthday to managers with an odd-birthday, relative to transitioning to another manager with an even birthday. Just as in panel a, these estimates are nowhere statistically significant. In the tenth quarter after the event, the point estimate is close to zero (-0.003) and statistically insignificant (p-value = 0.976).

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[40]The correlation between the two is not exactly one, because there can be endogenous manager transitions that are not considered events. That is, a worker could have an initial transition event of a female manager to a male manager, transfer to different unit with a female manager (endogenously) and then have second transition event of a female manager to another female manager.

Finally, when we average these estimates together and present the dual-double-difference estimates in panel c, we recover precisely estimated null point estimates in all periods. Even by the 10th quarter after the event, when the confidence intervals are at their widest, the confidence interval ranges only from -0.23 to 0.07. This interval is centered at a point estimate of -0.08 (p-value = 0.32).

A.10 Alternative Placebo: Gender Event Transitions by Employee Birthday

Throughout, we discuss placebo results with the as good as random odd/even birthday groupings. In this section, we present an alternative placebo where we split employees by odd and even birthday and consider the impact of manager gender transition events on employees according to their birthdays. In this way, we directly test for statistical artefacts within the baseline gender events.

We show that pairings between employees with an odd birthday, and a male manager follow the same trajectory as employees with an even birthday paired with a male manager, as well as employees with an odd birthday and a female manager. Thus, the key event study result in this paper, with gender pairings between employee and manager, cannot be explained by an artifact of the manager gender transitions alone. Only when we consider the gender pairings of managers and employees do we see differences across groups in the effect of transition events.

In Figure A.10.i, we present single-difference estimates for employees with odd and even birthdays. In panel (a), we show that difference between transitioning from a female manager to a male manager and transitioning from a female manager to another female manager is nowhere statistically significant for employees with an odd birthday (0.134 at 10 quarters, p-value = 0.307) or an even birthday (0.14 at 10 quarters, p-value = 0.265). We see in panel b that this is also true in the quarters after the transition events that start with a male manager. The estimated difference between transitioning from a male manager to a female manager rather than from one male manager to another male manager is small and statistically insignificant for both employees with an odd birthday (-0.006 at 10 quarters, p-value = 0.952) and an even birthday (-0.085 at 10 quarters, p-value = 0.379).

However, we do see evidence of an economically modest, but statistically significant pre-trend for these transition events that start with a male manager. In particular, the point estimate for employees with an even birthday is positive and statistically significant at level $\alpha = 0.05$ in quarters -7, -8 ,-9 , and -10. In the first pre-period in t = -10, the point estimate is moderately large (0.35) and significant (p-value 0.003). While these estimates are distinguishable from zero, they are not significantly distinguishable from the estimates for employees with an odd birthday. At t = -10, the difference is 0.22 with a p-value of 0.052.

In Figure A.10.ii we present double-difference estimates for the same transitions. We show that

the difference between the estimates for workers with an even/odd birthdays is never significant for the pair of transitions with an outgoing female manager (panel a, for example, the difference is 0.009 at 10 quarters with a p-value = 0.949) or male manager (panel b, difference of -0.079 at 10 quarters, p-value = 0.463).

While the dual-double-differences estimate (panel c) in the earliest period is on the threshold of traditional statistical significance, this provides a helpful bound on the magnitude of pre-trends we may expect to see simply based on random sampling, especially given that sample size decreases as we move farther away from the event (i.e. towards the beginning (end) of the the pre (post) period). This pre-trend is greater in magnitude than the pre-trends that we observe in our main specification, and is much more tenuous (i.e. lesser in magnitude, less precisely estimated) than post-period effects that we identify elsewhere.

A.11 Alternative Measures of Productivity and Effort

In our main results, we include several transformed variables. In this section, we show that the results are robust to alternative presentations of these variables.

In the body of the paper, we report days worked per month outcome in logs; we therefore necessarily drop observations with zero observed workdays. We can include these zeroes by instead reporting in Figure A.11.i.a the percent of days worked per month. This increases the number of observations in our sample by less than 5% and unsurprisingly does not change results substantively.

Additionally, in our main results we report normalize sales revenues using the arcsinh (inverse hyperbolic sine) transform, which is defined at zero but otherwise has similar properties to the log transformation. In this section, we report sales in levels, after normalizing the measure to have mean 100.[41] In Figure A.11.i.b we present the dual-double-difference estimates of this measure.

A.12 Additional Transition Events: Productivity and Effort

In the body of the paper, we present dual-double-difference estimates for productivity and effort outcomes. In this section, we present the underlying double-difference estimates for the same productivity and effort outcomes - firm exit (quits), sales revenue and days and hours worked, as well as the same outcomes for smoking transitions.

In Figure A.12.i we compare men and women going from a female to a male manager with those going from one female to another; we do not find a significant effect on any outcome. The estimates for days worked (panel b) and sales (panel d) revenues are precisely estimated, close

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[41]We do this for confidentiality concerns with our institutional partner (i.e. to avoid sharing confidential information about their compensation structure) and for ease of interpretation.

to zero, and statistically differentiable from zero nowhere. The estimates for firm exit (panel a) and work hours (panel c) are also nowhere statistically differentiable from zero, but do have wider confidence bands. In particular, recall that the sample for the work hours is significantly limited to a subset of employees who work in the headquarters, as even within the headquarters, we do not have reliable swipe data for all employees.

In Figure A.12.ii we compare men and women going from a male to a female manager with those going from a male to another male manager. The results are qualitatively similar; we do not find a significant effect on any outcome. As with the outgoing female manager transitions, we do have reduced power on the work hours outcome (panel c) that is derived from swipe data, which is reflected in standard errors that are relatively wide.

We also present for the first time productivity results for smoking events in Figure A.12.iii. We only have power to carry out this analysis for the smoking events with a non-smoking outgoing manager. Similarly, these estimates all prove to be null results. As is to be expected, standard errors are again slightly wider than we find in the case of gender events, and the point estimates show slightly more variation, though no clear trend. In particular, power is very low for our hours worked outcome (panel *d*), since we further restrict the smoking subsample to the subsample of these workers who are in the headquarters and have observed swipes in and out. This graph is difficult to interpret since the point estimates are noisy, even before the event, and the standard errors cover much of the plot region.

A.13   Robustness Check: Consistency Across Subsamples

Throughout the paper, we make references to outcomes that are only observed for a subset of the employees in our sample. Physical proximity to the manager is only available for workers in a subset of positions, work hours (imputed from ID card swipes) are only available for a subset of workers in the headquarters, and sales data are only available for a subset of workers in the sales and distribution division.[42] In this section, we replicate the main pay grade result in each of these subsamples.

We first replicate the main double-differences specification from Figure 4.a in Figure A.13.i.a to facilitate comparison with the male-to-male advantage across subsamples. In Figure A.13.i.b, we present pay grade results restricted to workers in positions that we can split into high and low physical proximity to their manager. These estimates are more similar in precision to the baseline, as we observe 1,994 workers in high and low proximity positions with events. The point estimate after 10 quarters is very slightly higher than in the main specification (0.45, compared to 0.44 in the

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[42]Sales and work hour results are discussed in Section 4.4 for the main specification and in Appendix A.12 for additional transition events. Recall the physical proximity variable is defined at the position level, as a composite of two measures (see Section 5.1 and Appendix A.14 for more information).

main specification), but this difference is not statistically significant. In Figure A.13.i.c, we present pay grade results restricted to workers in the headquarters. We observe only 2,816 such workers with events and have greatly reduced power. While the estimated male-to-male advantage is of lesser magnitude (0.32), it is still statistically significant (p-value 0.036). This sample includes all workers in the headquarters even if their swipe data are unavailable.

In Figure A.13.i.d, we present the pay grade results for employees in the sales sample. In this sample, we observe 2,766 workers with events. The estimated male-to-male advantage is 0.35 after ten quarters, but the 95% confidence intervals are wide enough that this estimate does not meet traditional levels of statistical significance (p-value = 0.073). This sample differs from the sample on which we directly measure the sales outcome in that we continue to observe pay grade for workers who switch out of sales in the quarters after the event; we only observe sales outcomes for employees in the months in which they work in sales. In panels c and d, we choose to present estimates for the set of workers for which the productivity outcome could be observed. This allows us to test for heterogeneity across subdivisions of the bank while limiting the loss in power associated with switching to an even smaller sample.

A.14 Robustness Check: Additional Estimates of Proximity to the Manager

In Section 5.1 we show that our central result – the male-to-male advantage – is driven by males who work in close physical proximity to their managers. For the sake of power and for brevity, we present the dual-double-differences estimate in the main body. In this section, we present the underlying double-differences estimates.

In Figure A.14.i Panel I, we present the double-differences estimate for events with an outgoing female manager. The male-to-male advantage for workers who are closer to their manager is 0.91 and 0.84 in quarters 9 and 10 (p-value < 0.001 in both periods), nearly twice the baseline estimate of 0.50. This increase is so steep that the estimate is statistically significant by the fifth quarter (0.35, p-value = 0.003). In the lower proximity sample in panel I.b , however, nowhere is the estimate statistically differentiable from zero. The estimate after 10 quarters is 0.14 (p-value = 0.583). The confidence intervals for these estimates are wide; while still statistically insignificant, the point estimate at quarter 5 is relatively large in magnitude (-0.30, p-value = 0.068).

In Panel II of Figure A.14.i, we present the analogous double-differences estimate for events that have an outgoing male manager. In panel II.a, we present dual-differences results for male employees in close proximity to their manager transitioning from a male manager to a female manager (relative to transitioning to a female manager). The estimates in the 9th and 10th quarters are stable at -0.42 and -0.41 (p-values 0.027 and 0.040, respectively). We can make two observations about this estimate of the male-to-male advantage. First, when we estimate the male-to-male advantage

among workers who are close to their managers (panels I.a and II.a of Figure A.14.i[43]), we estimate a greater male-to-male advantage when we look at "gained" male managers than "lost" male managers, which is a pattern that we also observe in the baseline estimates.[44] Secondly, we note that the double-difference estimates after 10 quarters for the subset of workers who work in proximity to their manager are greater in magnitude than the baseline estimates for both "gaining" a male manager (0.84, compared to 0.50) and "losing" a male manager (-0.41, compared to -0.38). As with the set of employees with an outgoing female manager, there is no evidence of a male-to-male advantage for employees with an outgoing male manager who do not work in proximity to their manager (estimate of -0.17, p-value = 0.392, after 10 quarters).

In the results until this point, we have combined two sources of data on physical proximity. In this section, we show that these results hold for both samples individually.

First, we consider the survey measures. Within the Sales and Distribution division, we derive a position-level proximity measure from individual responses to a survey question "how often are (or were) you physically working near *[Manager's Name]*?". We present these results in Panel I of Figure A.14.ii. Since the sample sizes are smaller, in general the confidence intervals are wider for the event studies discussed in this section. Nevertheless, when we consider workers in close proximity to their manager according to this measure, we see that the male-to-male follows roughly the same path. There is suggestive evidence of moderate advantage in the first eight quarters after the event, and then a sharp from quarters five to ten. By the tenth quarter, the point estimate is large (0.87) and highly statistically significant (p-value < 0.001). This is very close to the point estimate of (0.84) in the main manager proximity results. In comparison, in the low proximity group, there is no evidence of the male-to-male advantage; nowhere is the event-study estimate positive. After 10 quarters, the estimate is slightly negative and statistically insignificant.

When we separately consider the administrative records, we find strikingly similar results.[45] We present results for this measure in Panel II of Figure A.14.ii; here, the gradual evolution of the male to male advantage is clearly visible in the high-proximity group. Indeed, we see that this advantage smoothly and gradually appears over the course of ten quarters. From the fifth quarter through the tenth quarter, the point estimates are differentiable from zero. By quarter ten, the estimate is large (0.72) and statistically significant (p-value = 0.002). Note that this is very close to the estimate when the sample is split into high and low proximity using the survey data. Among workers who are not in close physical proximity to their managers, there is no evidence of a male-to-male advantage. Indeed, the point estimates are mostly negative – until quarters 9 and 10 – though in none of those quarters are these estimates significant.

In the body of the paper, we combine these two samples for additional power and precision, but

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[43]These results are unified and presented as a dual-double-difference in panel a of Figure 7.

[44]See, for example, panels a and b of Figure 4.

[45]In Section 3, we discuss the swipe data that is available in the headquarters.

the result is robust to using either measure on its own. That this is robust to both measures is striking - there is very little overlap between the samples and while the measures are similar, they imply different definitions of physical proximity. In Section 3.6, we discuss the survey instrument. The question admits some degree of subjectivity in what is meant by "physically working near". The variation then comes from how often (days per week) this subjective standard of physical proximity is met. In the administrative records, we have the more objective measure of whether or not they work on the same floor. We can think of ways in which these two definitions may be in conflict - for example, a manager and employee who work on different floors but have regular team meetings before lunch may spend more time together than a worker and manager with desks at opposite ends of the same floor. That the results under both of these measures, and across both of these samples are consistent is strong evidence that proximity to a manager is an economically significant driver of the baseline male-to-male advantage.

A.15 Gender and Smoker Events

In the body of the paper, we present the gender and smoke status events separately; in this section, we estimate the familiar gender transition differences, but include a full vector of controls for smoking transitions. That is, in addition to the set of interacted event-study indicator variables that separately identify manager gender transition events for male and female employees, we include in the regression the full set of interacted event-study indicator variables that separately identify manager smoke status transition events for smoking and non-smoking employees.

In Figure A.15.i, we place side-by-side the event-study analysis of transitioning to a male manager, with and without the full vector of smoker events controls. We see that the gap after 10 quarters barely falls from 0.50 points to 0.48 points. Similarly, in Figure A.15.ii we show that the share of breaks together measure is unaffected by adding controls for smoker events.

The most simple explanation for this is that male smokers are a relatively small share of the observations. The share of men in this sample who smoke is 33%, but this subsample is 75% percent female and only 2.8% percent of females smoke, so we have only 308 unique smoking workers, only 45 of whom transition to a smoking boss.

We may expect controlling for the "co-smoking" effect to adjust our estimate of the "co-male" effect downwards. We simply do not observe enough variation in smoking status in this sample for the "co-smoking" effect to explain all of the variation associated with gender. Under 3% of the transitions from a female to male manager involve a smoker going to a smoking manager; under 0.2% percent of the female to female transitions are smokers going to a smoking manager. Mechanically, it is implausible that the 1.3% of transitions that are smokers moving to a smoking manager would explain any significant share of the variation.

A.16 Robustness Check: Alternative Coding of Smoker Data

In Section 3.9, we discuss how smoking and non-smoking workers are identified. Recall that we identify smoker status based on self reports and peer reports. In our main specification, we consider workers without self reports a smoker if more than one third of their peers report them a smoker. This maximizes overlap between self-reports and peer reports for workers with both available. In this section, we test the sensitivity of our results to our definition of smoke status. In particular, we consider extreme allocations of the group of workers who 1) do not self report and 2) have conflicting crowdsourced reports, i.e. at least one peer each who reports them as smoker and a non-smoker.

Under the threshold used in the main specification, crowdsourced reports are more accurate for self-reported non-smokers (84%) than for self-reported smokers (65%). While we only rely on the the crowdsourced reports for a minority of the sample, this provides important validation for this measure. We need not expect that employees know the smoking habits of their peers; empirically, many of them do.

The majority of males coded as a smoker or non-smoker are unambiguous; of the males who do not self report, only 27% (11% of men with a smoking status) have at least one "non-smoker" and "smoker" crowdsourced report. We must then choose how to allocate these 11% of males who do not self-report and have conflicting crowdsourced reports. In our main specification, we consider workers without self reports a smoker if more than one third of their peers report them a smoker. This maximizes overlap between self-reports and peer reports for workers with both available.

We show in this section that our results are robust to even the most extreme thresholds for self-reports. We test the extreme cases where we allocate all of the workers with conflicting peer reports as smokers or as non-smokers. 21% of people flip their smoker status when we raise the threshold to require all reports indicate the person is a smoker and 9% flip status when we lower the threshold to any smoker report. In both of these extreme cases, our results hold.

In Figure A.16.i.a we code all workers with any peer reports of "smoker" as smokers. The estimated smoker-to-smoker advantage increases to 0.93; this change is not statistically significant. When we code as smokers only those with all peer reports "smoker", we lose precision as we now have only 131 smokers who experience a transition event.
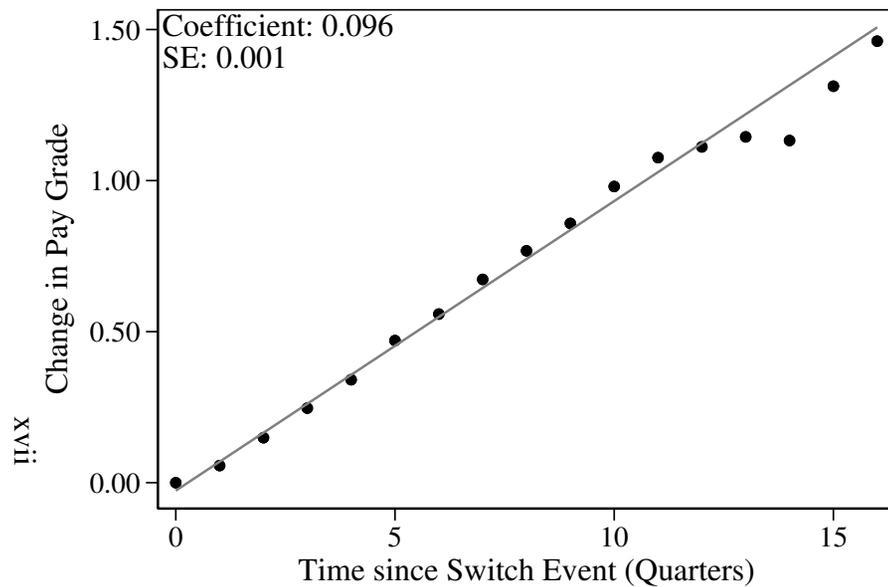
**Figure A.1.i:** Relationship between Pay Grade and Salary
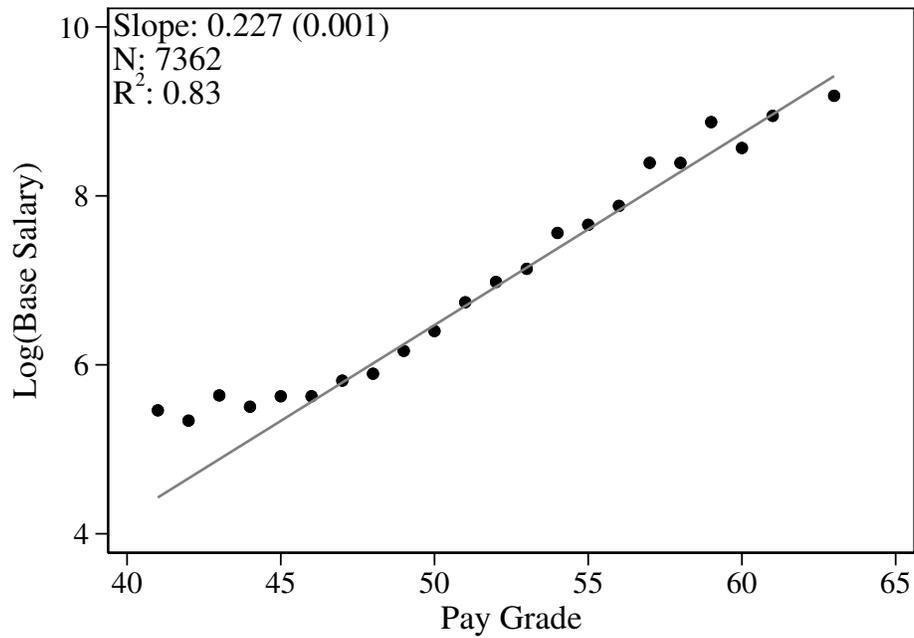
Notes: The above presents a binned scatter plot of log base salary against pay grade in March of 2017. We use this cross section of the bank's employees as we have access to their base salary from related work (Cullen and Perez-Truglia, 2018).

Figure A.1.ii: Pay Grade: Rate of Change

a. Time Since Any Transition Event

b. Time in Panel
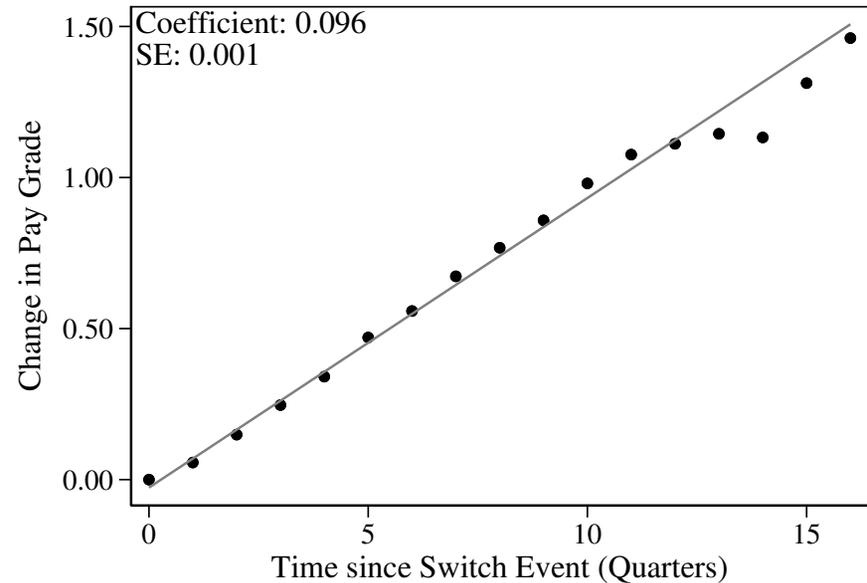
Notes: In *a)* we present binned scatter plots with linear trend lines of the change in pay grade against time elapsed since a manager transition event. The change in pay grade is simply the pay grade in some quarter pay grade minus the pay grade at the time of the event. In *(b)*, we fit a hazard function where the event is defined as *change in pay grade* and individuals can have multiple events. Time on the x-axis is time in the panel; the y-axis is the cumulative hazard function. We interpret this figure as the expected number of pay grade changes (i.e. promotions) conditional on being in the the panel for a given period of time. Note that this will be mechanically less than the expected change in pay grade, as a promotion that involves an increase of multiple pay grades is treated as a single "change in pay grade" for the purposes of fitting the hazard function.

Figure A.2.i: Descriptive Statistics about Placebo Events

a. Distribution Over Time

b. Events per Manager

c. Event Size

Odd-BD Manager to Even-BD Manager
Odd-BD Manager to Odd-BD Manager
Even-BD Manager to Odd-BD Manager
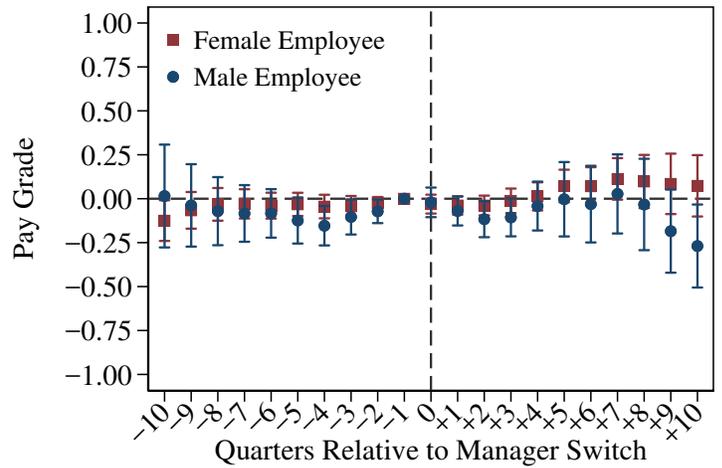Even-BD Manager to Even-BD Manager

Notes: Panel (a) presents counts of the number of observations (i.e. workers) that experience a manager transition event in each quarter. Panel (b) presents counts of the number of times a manager appears as the incoming manager for a transition event; most managers never "cause" an event by transitioning to a new unit. Panel (c) presents the event size (i.e. number of workers in a unit) distribution by event type. That is, it shows the share of a given event type that affects a given number of employees. The number of employees affected is simply the number of employees who are in the unit for the outgoing manager's last month and the incoming manager's first month.

Figure A.2.ii: Descriptive Statistics about Smoker Events

a. Distribution Over Time

b. Events per Manager

c. Event Size

- Non-Smoking Manager to Smoking Manager
- Non-Smoking Manager to Non-Smoking Manager
- Smoking Manager to Non-Smoking Manager
- Smoking Manager to Smoking Manager

Notes: Panel (a) presents counts of the number of observations (i.e. workers) that experience a manager transition event in each quarter. Panel (b) presents counts of the number of times a manager appears as the incoming manager for a transition event; most managers never "cause" an event by transitioning to a new unit. Panel (c) presents the event size (i.e. number of workers in a unit) distribution by event type. That is, it shows the share of a given event type that affects a given number of employees. The number of employees affected is simply the number of employees who are in the unit for the outgoing manager's last month and the incoming manager's first month.

Figure A.3.i: Pay Grade, Gender Transition Events

a. Manager Transition: Female to Male

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 1,685 employees (470 Male & 1,215 Female) experience events: 1,846 transitions from a female manager to a male manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.
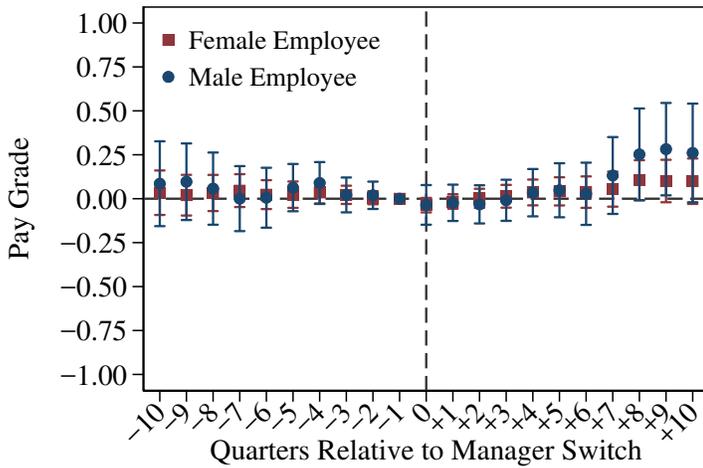
b. Manager Transition: Female to Female

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 1,759 employees (428 Male & 1,331 Female) experience events: 2,120 transitions from a female manager to a female manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

c. Manager Transition: Male to Female
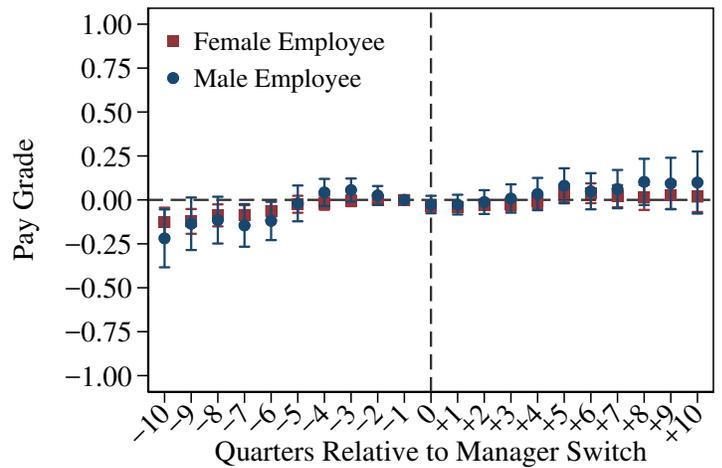
All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 1,671 employees (420 Male & 1,251 Female) experience events: 1,745 transitions from a male manager to a female manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

d. Manager Transition: Male to Male

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 3,305 employees (1,150 Male & 2,155 Female) experience events: 4,291 transitions from a male manager to a male manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

Notes: See Section 2 for details about the regression specification. Each panel plots underlying event-study estimates $\beta^{g}_{\text{Gender Transition},t}$ where $g \in \{\text{Male}, \text{Female}\}$ indexes the gender of the employee and the subscript indexes the transition event type and time since the event. All coefficients are estimated from the same regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 workers (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). The dependent variable is the pay grade of the employee. The red squares correspond to the coefficient for female employees, while the blue circles correspond to the coefficients for male employees. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.4.i: "First Stage": Gender Events

a. Female to Male
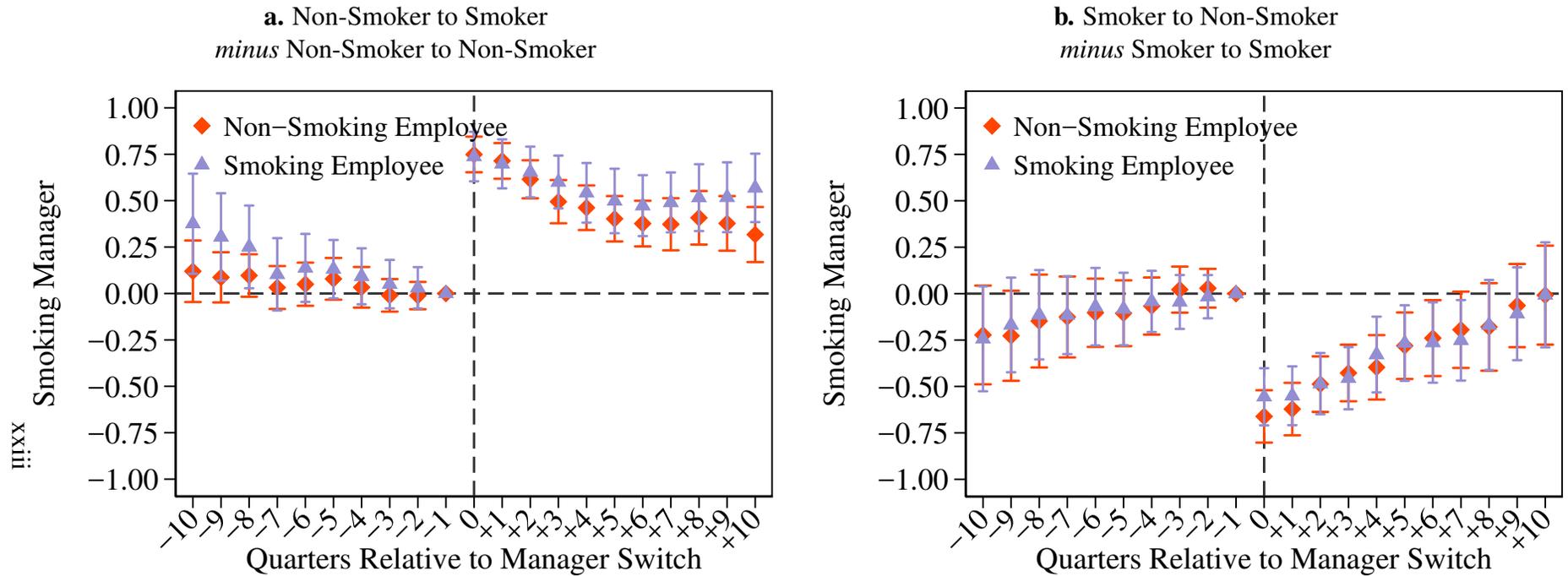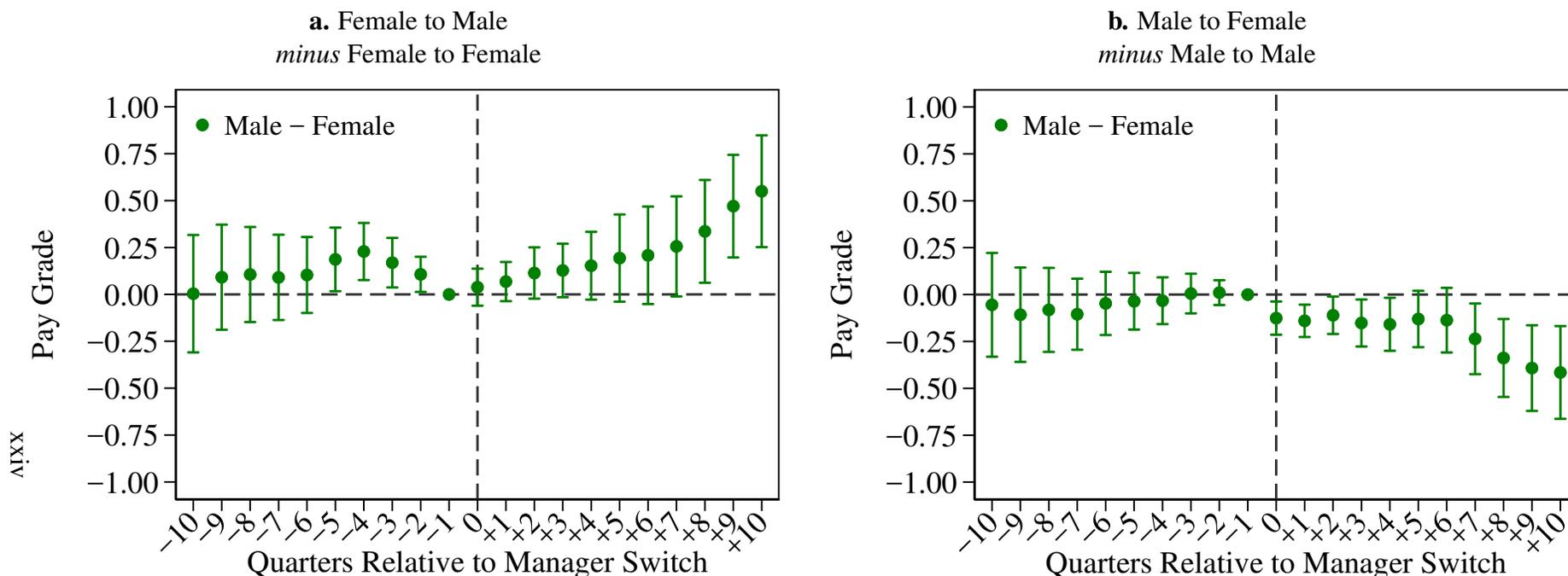*minus* Female to Female

b. Male to Female
minus Male to Male
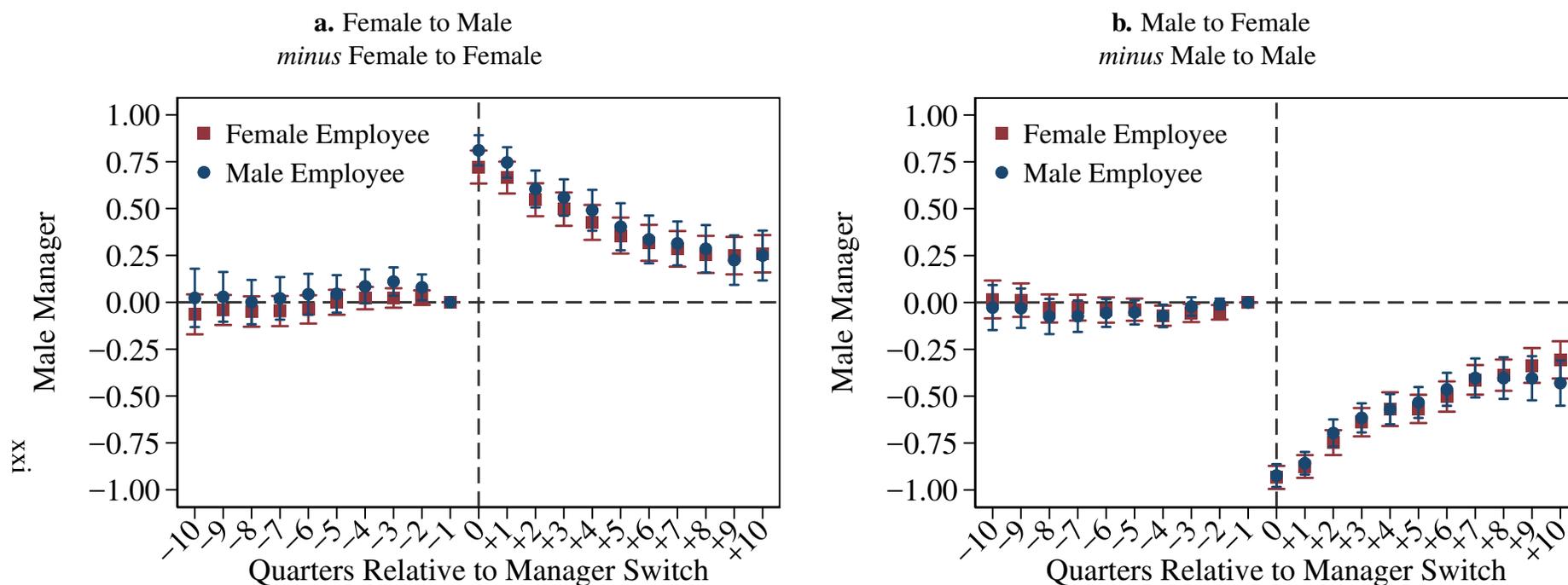
Notes: All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 366,882 observations of 14,439 employees (5,083 Male & 9,356 Female). **Panel a.** 3,156 employees (818 Male & 2,338 Female) experience events: 1,845 transitions from a female manager to a male manager and 2,117 from a female manager to another female manager. **Panel b.** 4,396 employees (1,395 Male & 3,001 Female) experience events: 1,670 transitions from a male manager to a female manager and 4,164 from a male manager to another male manager. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.189. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.4.ii: "First Stage": Placebo Events
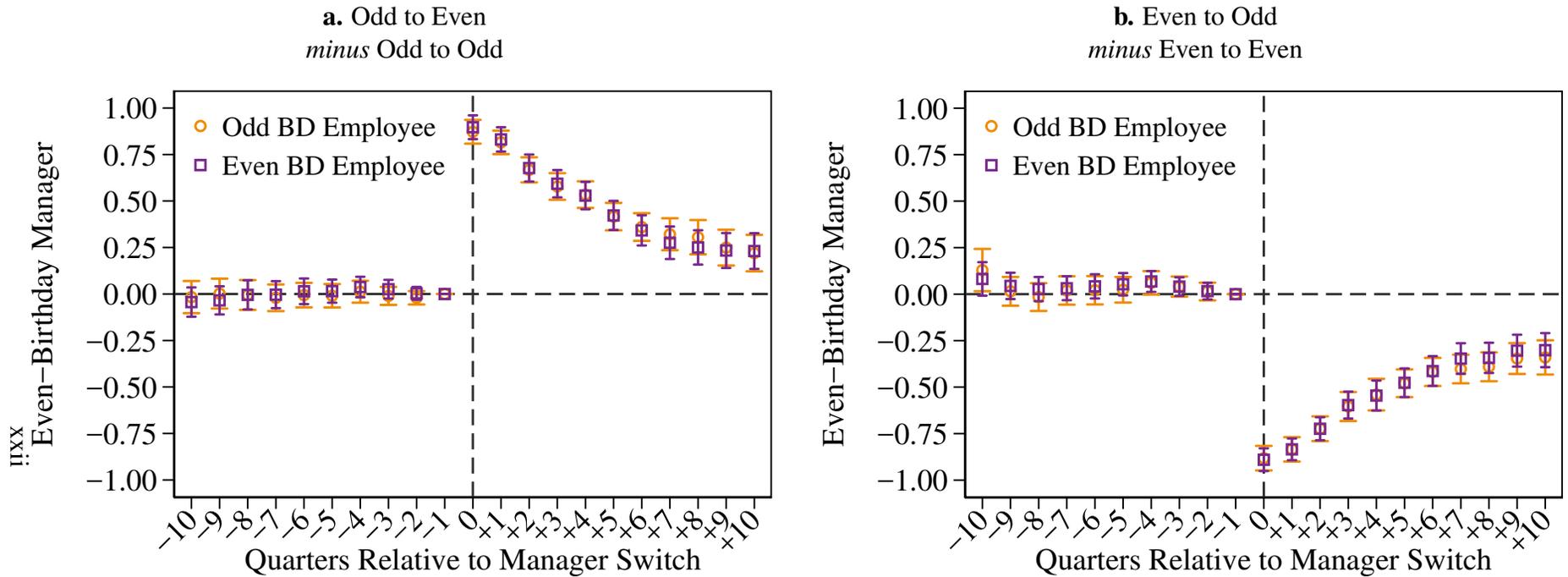
a. Odd to Even
minus Odd to Odd

b. Even to Odd
minus Even to Even

Notes: All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (7,533 Even BD & 7,105 Odd BD). In panel (a), 3,940 employees (2,011 Even BD & 1,929 Odd BD) experience events: 2,611 transitions from a odd‚Äêbirthday manager to a even‚Äêbirthday manager and 2,188 from a odd‚Äêbirthday manager to another odd‚Äêbirthday manager. In panel (b), 4,161 employees (2,171 Even BD & 1,990 Odd BD) experience events: 2,555 transitions from a even‚Äêbirthday manager to a odd‚Äêbirthday manager and 2,709 from a even‚Äêbirthday manager to another even‚Äêbirthday manager. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.245. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.4.iii: "First Stage": Smoking Events

a. Non-Smoker to Smoker
minus Non-Smoker to Non-Smoker

**b.** Smoker to Non-Smoker
minus Smoker to Smoker

Notes: All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 90,965 observations of 2,894 employees (965 Smoking & 1,929 Non-Smoking). Panel (a): 912 employees (275 Smoking & 637 Non-Smoking) experience events, 287 from a non-smoking manager to a smoking manager and 939 from a non-smoking manager to another non-smoking manager. Panel (b): 464 employees (198 Smoking & 266 Non-Smoking) experience events, 296 transitions from a smoking manager to a non-smoking manager and 276 from a smoking manager to another smoking manager. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.158. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.5.i: Pay Grade Double-Differences Estimates, including Manager Fixed Effects

a. Female to Male
minus Female to Female

b. Male to Female
minus Male to Male

Notes: All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,959 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). Panel (a): 3,160 employees (819 Male & 2,341 Female) experience events, 1,846 from a female manager to a male manager and 2,120 from a female manager to another female manager. Panel (b): 4,489 employees (1,458 Male & 3,031 Female) experience events, 1,745 from a male manager to a female manager and 4,291 from a male manager to another male manager. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.6.i: Additional Restrictions on Event Transitions: Female to Male (Dual-Double-Difference)
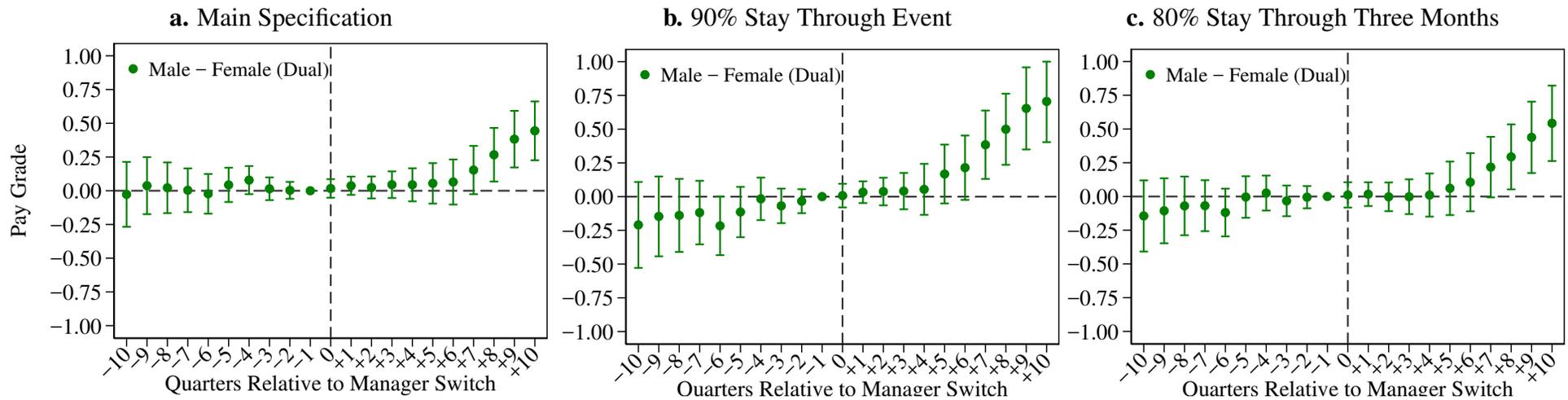
Notes: Panel (a): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 6,536 employees (2,012 Male & 4,524 Female) experience events: 1,846 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 2,120 F2F, 1,745 M2F, 4,291 M2M. Panel (b): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 3,691 employees (1,046 Male & 2,645 Female) experience events: 849 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 1,067 F2F, 904 M2F, 1,793 M2M. 95 CI are trimmed at -1 and 1. Panel (c): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 5,064 employees (1,528 Male & 3,536 Female) experience events: 1,084 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 1,513 F2F, 1,257 M2F, 2,937 M2M. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.
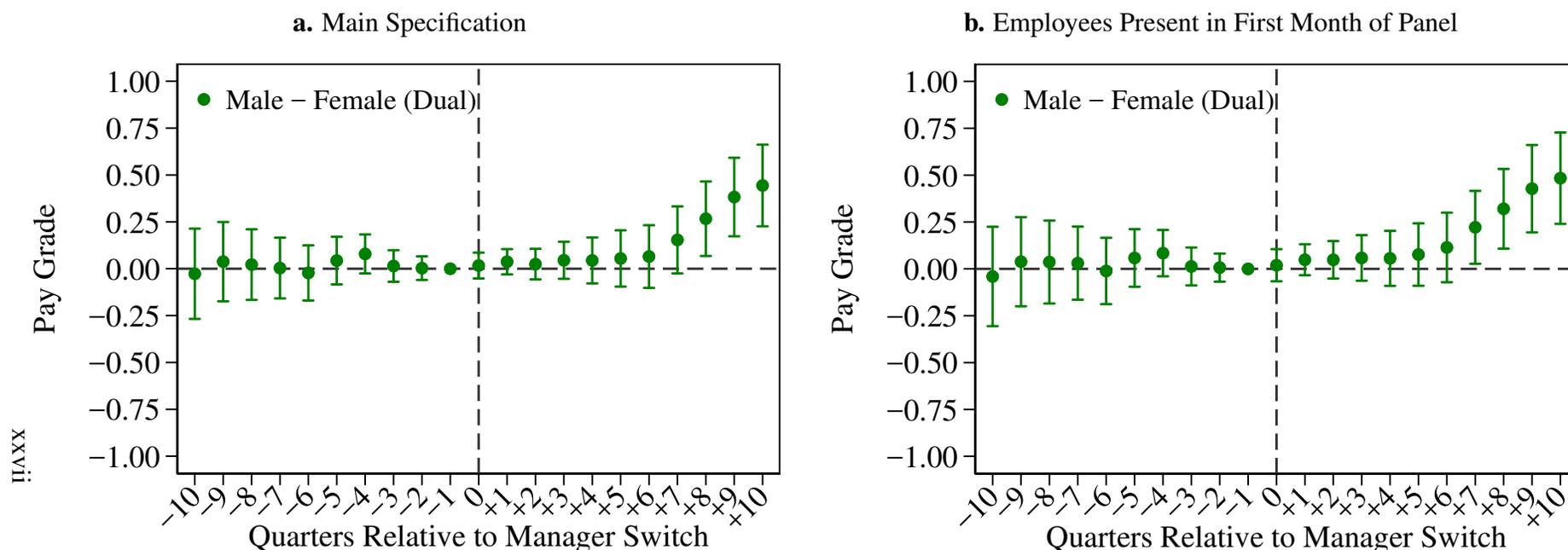
**Figure A.6.ii:** Drop Largest Events: Female to Male (Dual-Double-Difference)
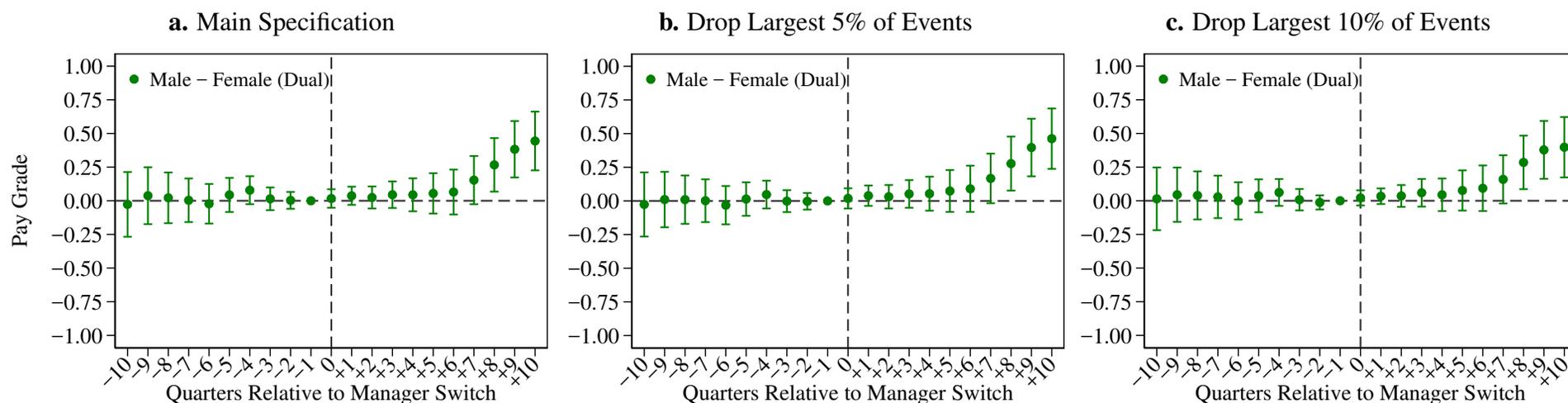
a. Main Specification   **b.** Drop Largest 5% of Events   **c.** Drop Largest 10% of Events

Notes: Panel (a): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 6,536 employees (2,012 Male & 4,524 Female) experience events: 1,846 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 2,120 F2F, 1,745 M2F, 4,291 M2M. Panel (b): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 6,334 employees (1,989 Male & 4,345 Female) experience events: 1,867 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 1,967 F2F, 1,643 M2F, 4,172 M2M. Panel (c): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 5,999 employees (1,823 Male & 4,176 Female) experience events: 1,632 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 1,844 F2F, 1,643 M2F, 4,001 M2M. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.7.i: Effects on Pay Grade, Present in First Month of Panel: Dual-Double-Differences Estimates

a. Main Specification
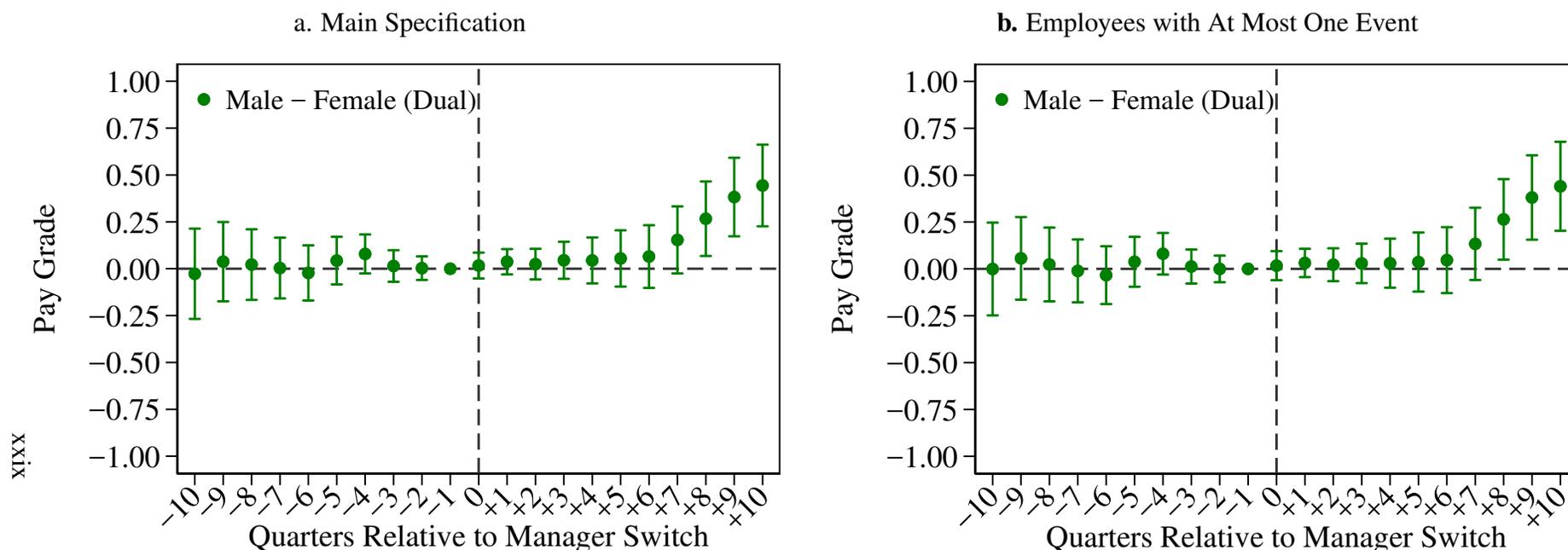
b. Employees Present in First Month of Panel

Notes: All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,959 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). Panel (a): 3,160 employees (819 Male & 2,341 Female) experience events, 1,846 from a female manager to a male manager and 2,120 from a female manager to another female manager. Panel (b): 4,489 employees (1,458 Male & 3,031 Female) experience events, 1,745 from a male manager to a female manager and 4,291 from a male manager to another male manager. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.8.i: Effects on Pay Grade, Employee's First Event: Dual-Double-Differences Estimates
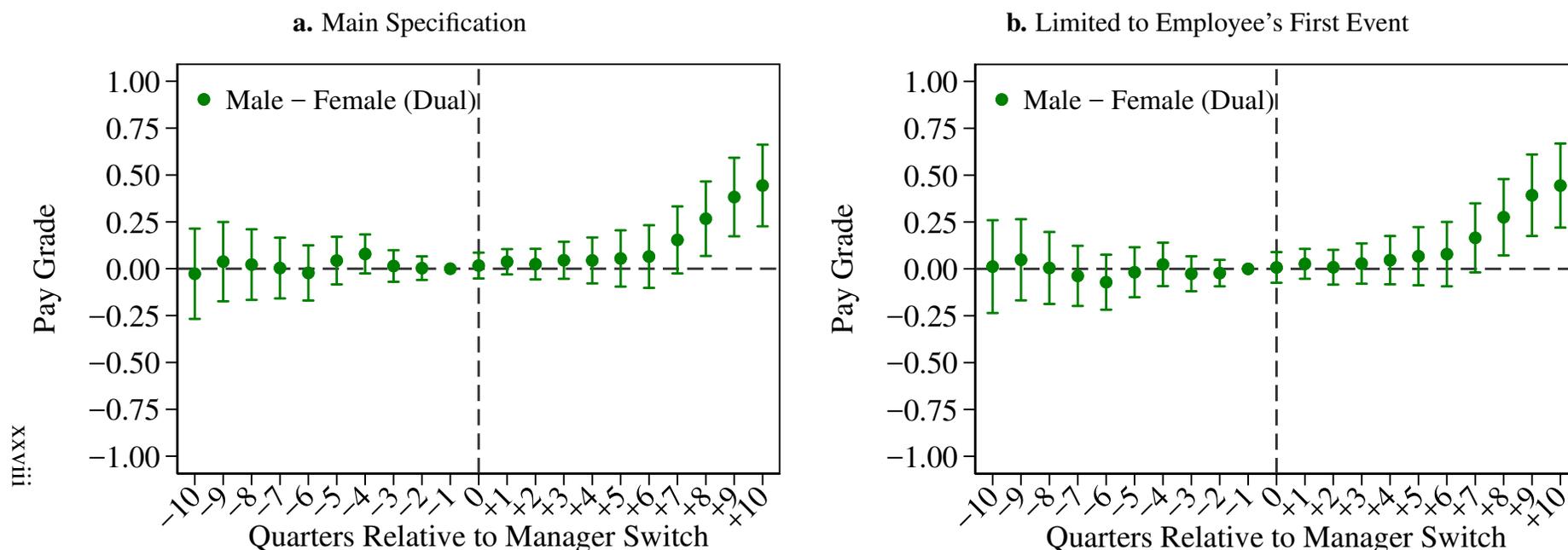
a. Main Specification
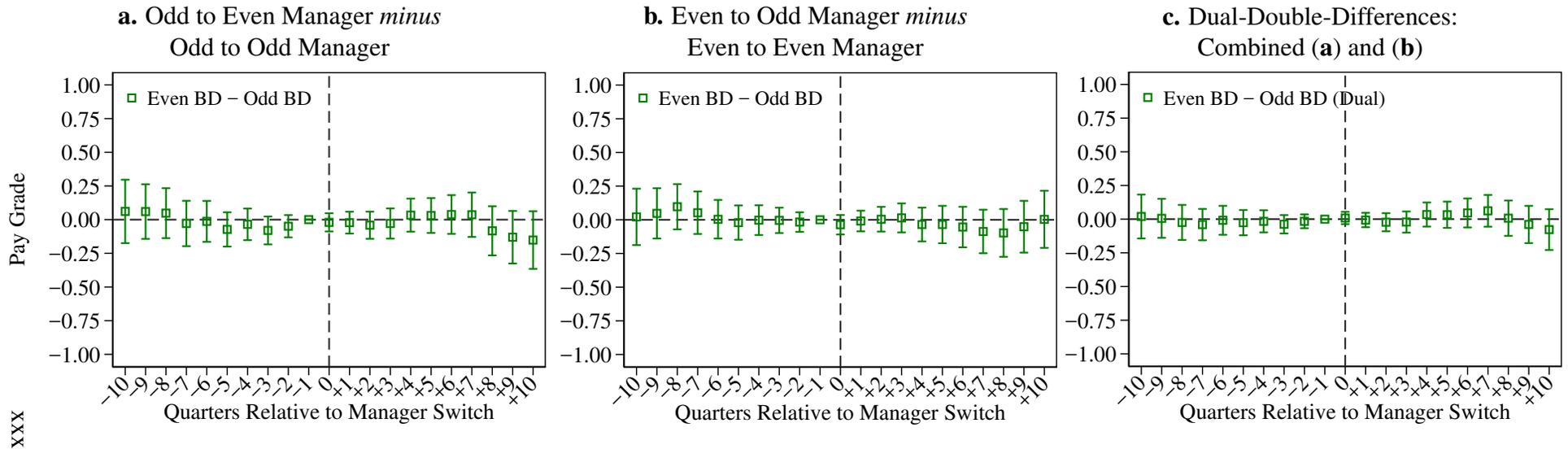**b.** Limited to Employee's First Event

Notes: Panel (a): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 6,536 employees (2,012 Male & 4,524 Female) experience events: 1,846 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 2,120 F2F, 1,745 M2F, 4,291 M2M. Panel (b): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 6,536 employees (2,012 Male & 4,524 Female) experience events: 1,685 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 2,006 F2F, 1,479 M2F, 3,850 M2M. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.8.ii: Effects on Pay Grade, Employees with At Most One Event: Double-Differences Estimates

a. Main Specification

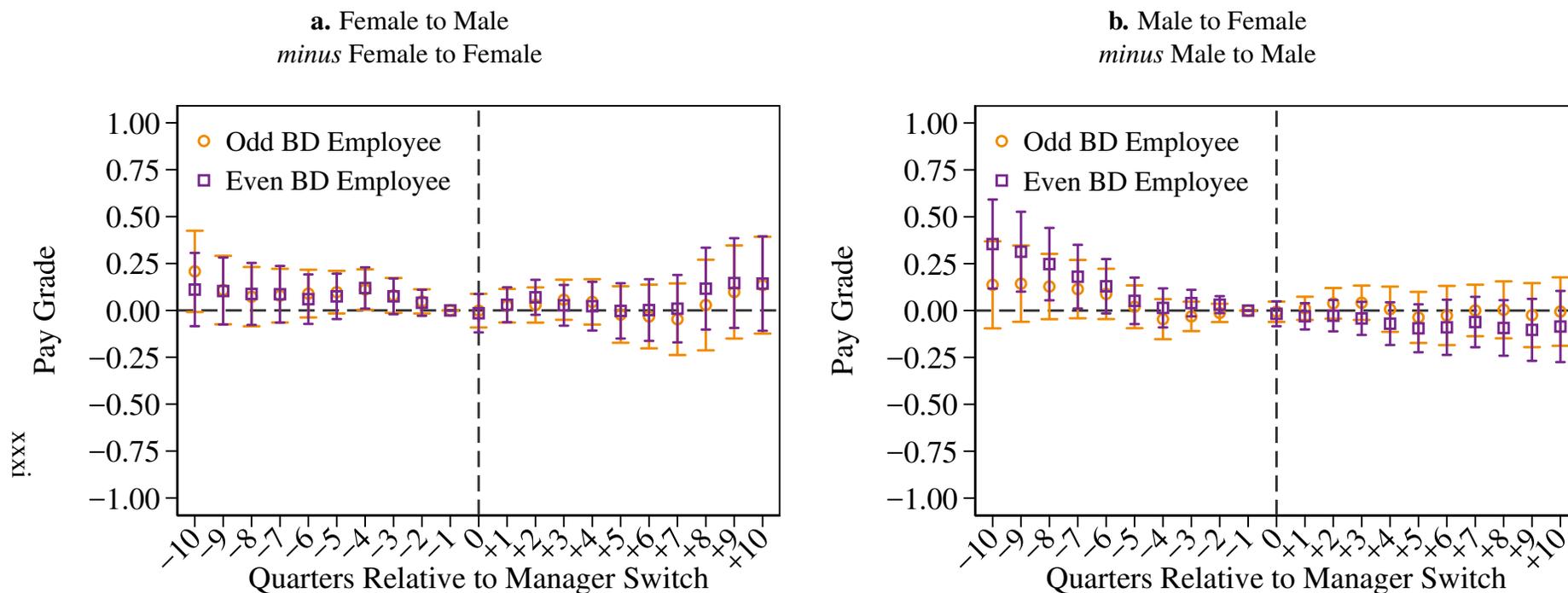b. Employees with At Most One Event

Notes: Panel (a): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 6,536 employees (2,012 Male & 4,524 Female) experience events: 1,846 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 2,120 F2F, 1,745 M2F, 4,291 M2M. Panel (b): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 374,106 observations of 14,483 employees (5,160 Male & 9,323 Female). 6,381 employees (1,979 Male & 4,402 Female) experience events: 1,530 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 2,095 F2F, 1,678 M2F, 4,211 M2M. The within-individual standard deviation of pay grade is 0.475. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.9.i: Placebo: Double-Difference Estimates

a. Odd to Even Manager *minus* Odd to Odd Manager

b. Even to Odd Manager *minus* Even to Even Manager

c. Dual-Double-Differences: Combined (**a**) and (**b**)
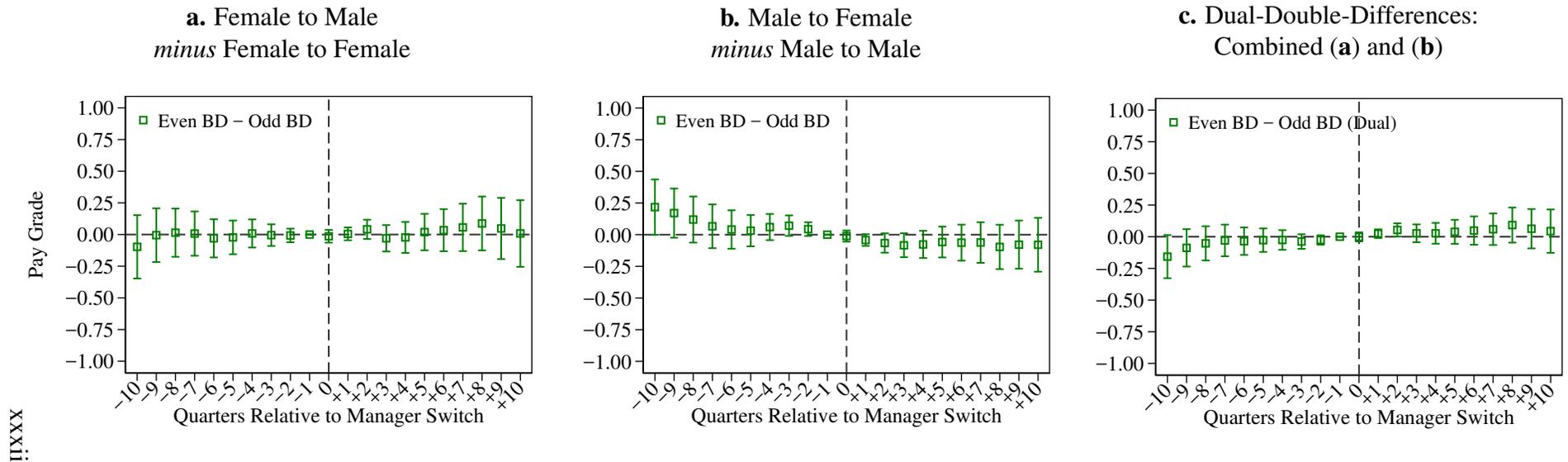
Notes: All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (7,533 Even BD & 7,105 Odd BD). Panel (a): 3,940 employees (2,011 Even BD & 1,929 Odd BD) experience events: 2,611 transitions from a oddâbirthday manager to a evenâbirthday manager and 2,188 from a oddâbirthday manager to another oddâbirthday manager. Panel (b): 4,161 employees (2,171 Even BD & 1,990 Odd BD) experience events: 2,555 transitions from a evenâbirthday manager to a oddâbirthday manager and 2,709 from a evenâbirthday manager to another evenâbirthday manager. Panel (c): 6,536 employees (3,371 Even BD & 3,165 Odd BD) experience events: 2,611 transitions from a oddâbirthday manager to a evenâbirthday manager (O2E): 2,188 O2O, 2,555 E2O, 2,709 E2E. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.10.i: Alternative Placebo: Manager Gender Transition Events, Single-Difference
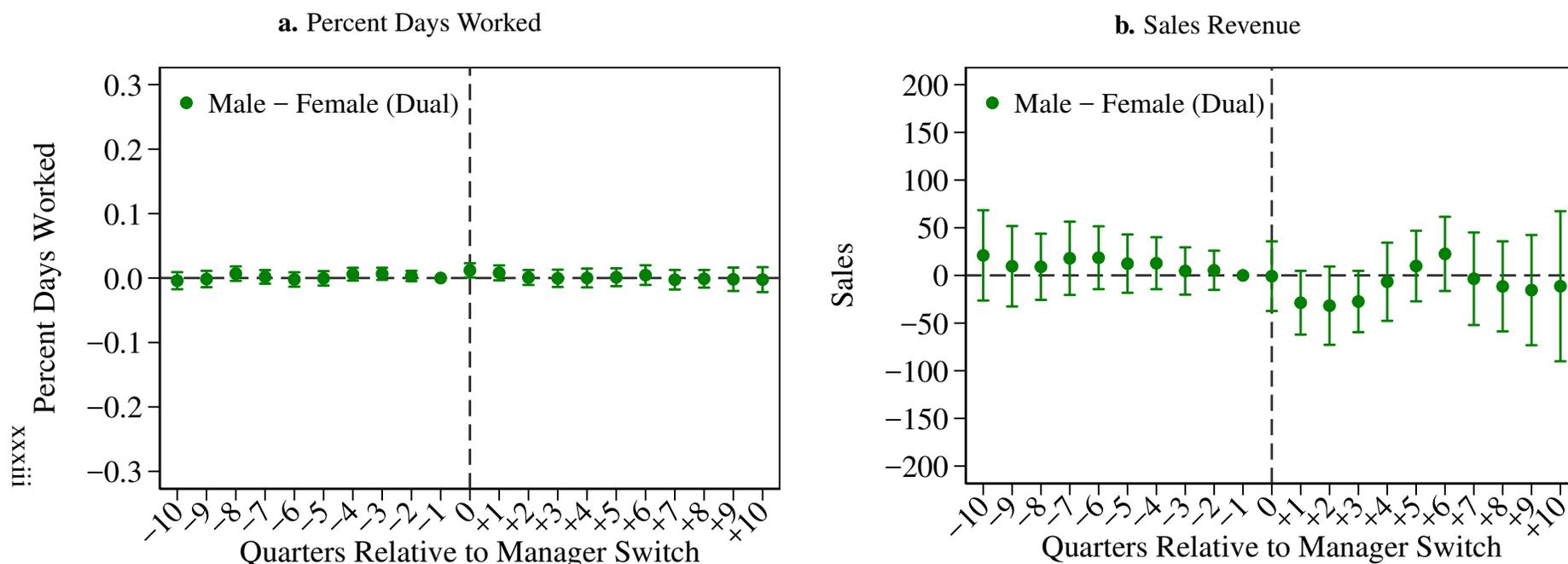
Notes: All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 workers (7,533 Even BD & 7,105 Odd BD). Panel (a): 3,160 of these workers experience a transition event (1,623 Even BD & 1,537 Odd BD). There are 1846 transitions from a female manager to a male manager, 2120 from one female manager to another female manager. The within individual standard deviation of pay grade is 0.475. Panel (b): 4,489 of these workers experience a transition event (2,316 Even BD & 2,173 Odd BD). There are 1745 transitions from a male manager to a female manager, 4291 from one male manager to another male manager. The within individual standard deviation of pay grade is 0.475. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.10.ii: Alternative Placebo: Manager Gender Transition Events, Double-Differences

a. Female to Male
minus Female to Female

b. Male to Female
minus Male to Male

c. Dual-Double-Differences:
Combined (**a**) and (**b**)

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Notes: All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 workers (7,533 Even BD & 7,105 Odd BD). Panel (a): 3,160 of these workers experience a transition event (1,623 Even BD & 1,537 Odd BD). There are 1,846 transitions from a female manager to a male manager, 2,120 from one female manager to another female manager. Panel (b): 4,489 of these workers experience a transition event (2,316 Even BD & 2,173 Odd BD). There are 1745 transitions from a male manager to a female manager, 4,291 from one male manager to another male manager. Panel (c): 6,536 of these workers experience a transition event (3,371 Even BD & 3,165 Odd BD). There are 1,846 transitions from a female manager to a male manager, (F2M): 2,120 F2F, 1745 M2F and 4,291 M2M. The within individual standard deviation of pay grade is 0.475. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.11.i: Alternative Productivity Measures: Dual-Double-Differences

**a.** Percent Days Worked

b. Sales Revenue

Notes: Panel (a): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 355,223 observations of 14,251 employees (4,948 Male & 9,303 Female). 6,198 employees (1,886 Male & 4,312 Female) experience events: 1,683 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 1,975 F2F, 1,664 M2F, 3,894 M2M. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.103. Panel (b): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 136,342 observations of 6,244 employees (1,814 Male & 4,430 Female). 2,766 employees (716 Male & 2,050 Female) experience events: 838 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 626 F2F, 642 M2F, 1,985 M2M. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 95.1. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.12.i: Female to Male (versus Female to Female), Double-Differences Estimates
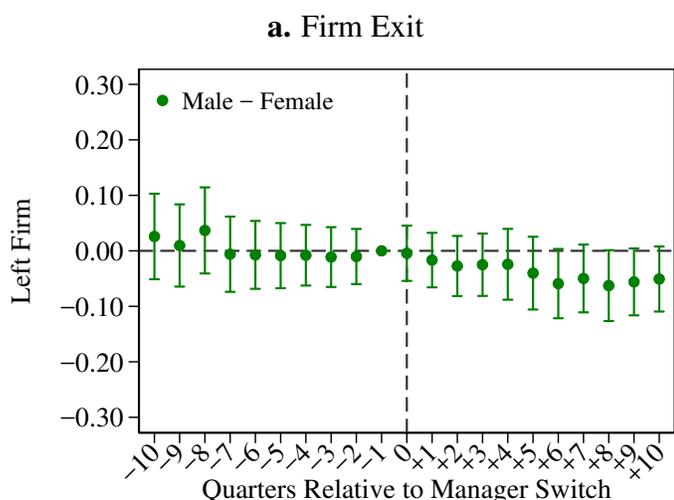
a. Firm Exit

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 501,973 observations of 15,817 employees (5,528 Male & 10,289 Female). 3,895 employees (1,039 Male & 2,856 Female) experience events: 2,355 transitions from a female manager to a male manager and 2,612 from a female manager to another female manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.177.

b. Log(Days Worked)
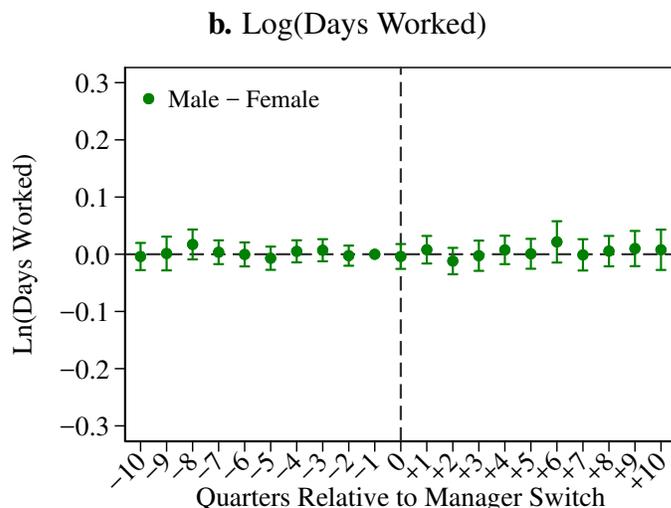
All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 352,285 observations of 14,154 employees (4,913 Male & 9,241 Female). 2,949 employees (761 Male & 2,188 Female) experience events: 1,668 transitions from a female manager to a male manager and 1,967 from a female manager to another female manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.138.

c. Log(Work Hours)
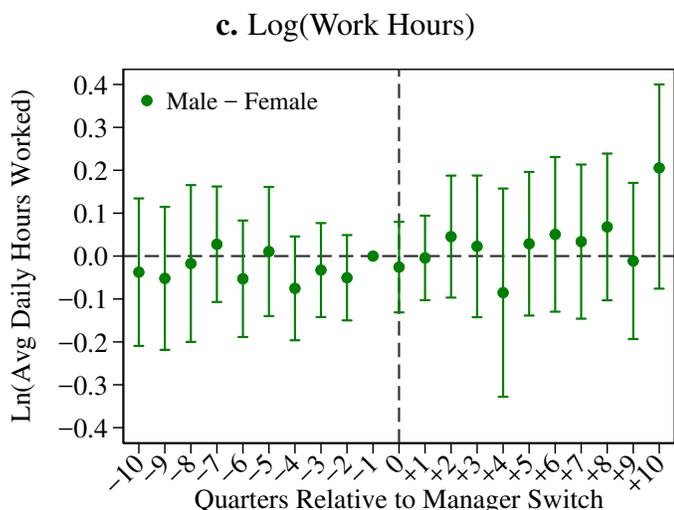
All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 104,231 observations of 4,876 employees (1,881 Male & 2,995 Female). 982 employees (285 Male & 697 Female) experience events: 386 transitions from a female manager to a male manager and 801 from a female manager to another female manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.208. 95 CI are trimmed at −.4 and .4.
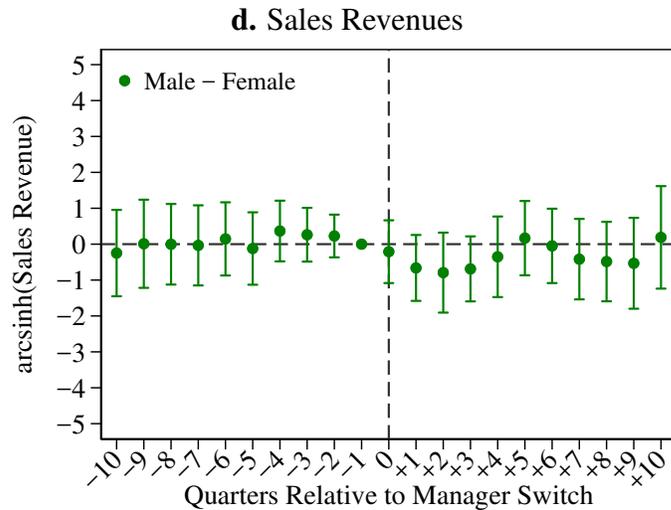
d. Sales Revenues

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 136,342 observations of 6,244 employees (1,814 Male & 4,430 Female). 1,230 employees (279 Male & 951 Female) experience events: 838 transitions from a female manager to a male manager and 626 from a female manager to another female manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 2.21.

Notes: In Figure 6, we present dual-double-differences results; in this figure, we present the underlying double-differences results for manager events that start with a female manager. In panel (a), the dependent variable is an indicator that takes the value 1 in every month after the employee left the firm (these results include additional events after the employees left the firm); in panel (b), the dependent variable is the logarithm of the total number of days worked in the month (inferred from data on approved leaves of absence); in panel (c), the dependent variable is the logarithm of the average number of hours worked in a given month (inferred from data on swipes in and out of the building, and available for headquarter employees only); in panel (d), the dependent variable is the inverse hyperbolic sine (arcsinh) of the sales revenues score (available for employees with sales roles only). The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.12.ii: Male to Female (versus Male to Male), Double-Differences Estimates
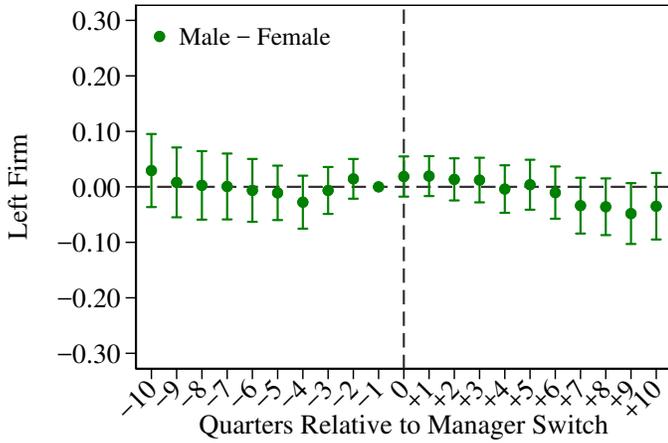
a. Firm Exit

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 501,973 observations of 15,817 employees (5,528 Male & 10,289 Female). 5,745 employees (1,969 Male & 3,776 Female) experience events: 2,222 transitions from a male manager to a female manager and 5,665 from a male manager to another male manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.177.

b. Log(Days Worked)
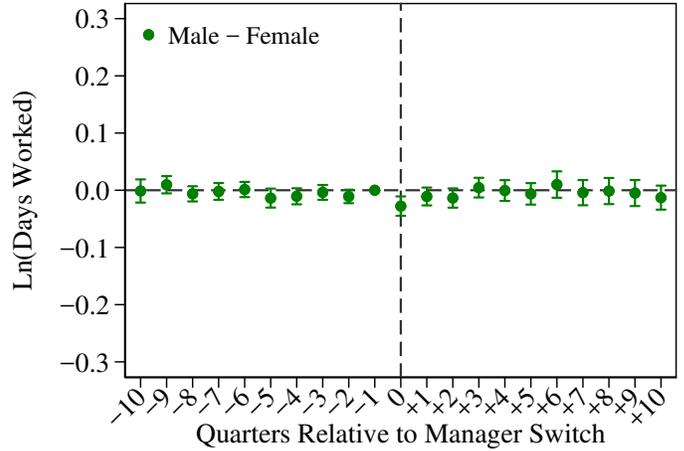
All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 352,285 observations of 14,154 employees (4,913 Male & 9,241 Female). 4,192 employees (1,341 Male & 2,851 Female) experience events: 1,658 transitions from a male manager to a female manager and 3,883 from a male manager to another male manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.138.

c. Log(Work Hours)
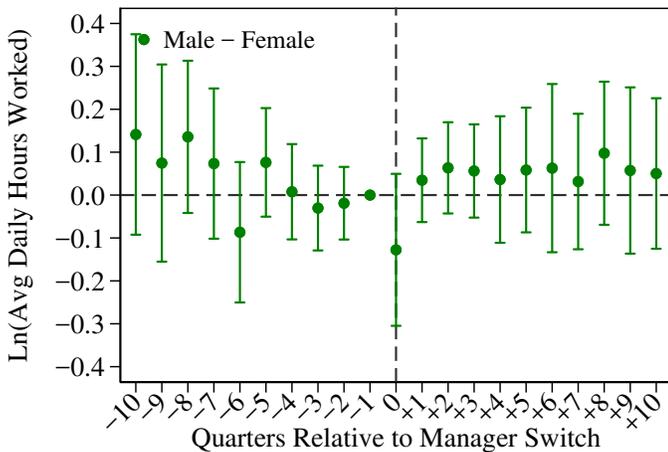
All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 104,231 observations of 4,876 employees (1,881 Male & 2,995 Female). 1,016 employees (415 Male & 601 Female) experience events: 553 transitions from a male manager to a female manager and 711 from a male manager to another male manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.208.
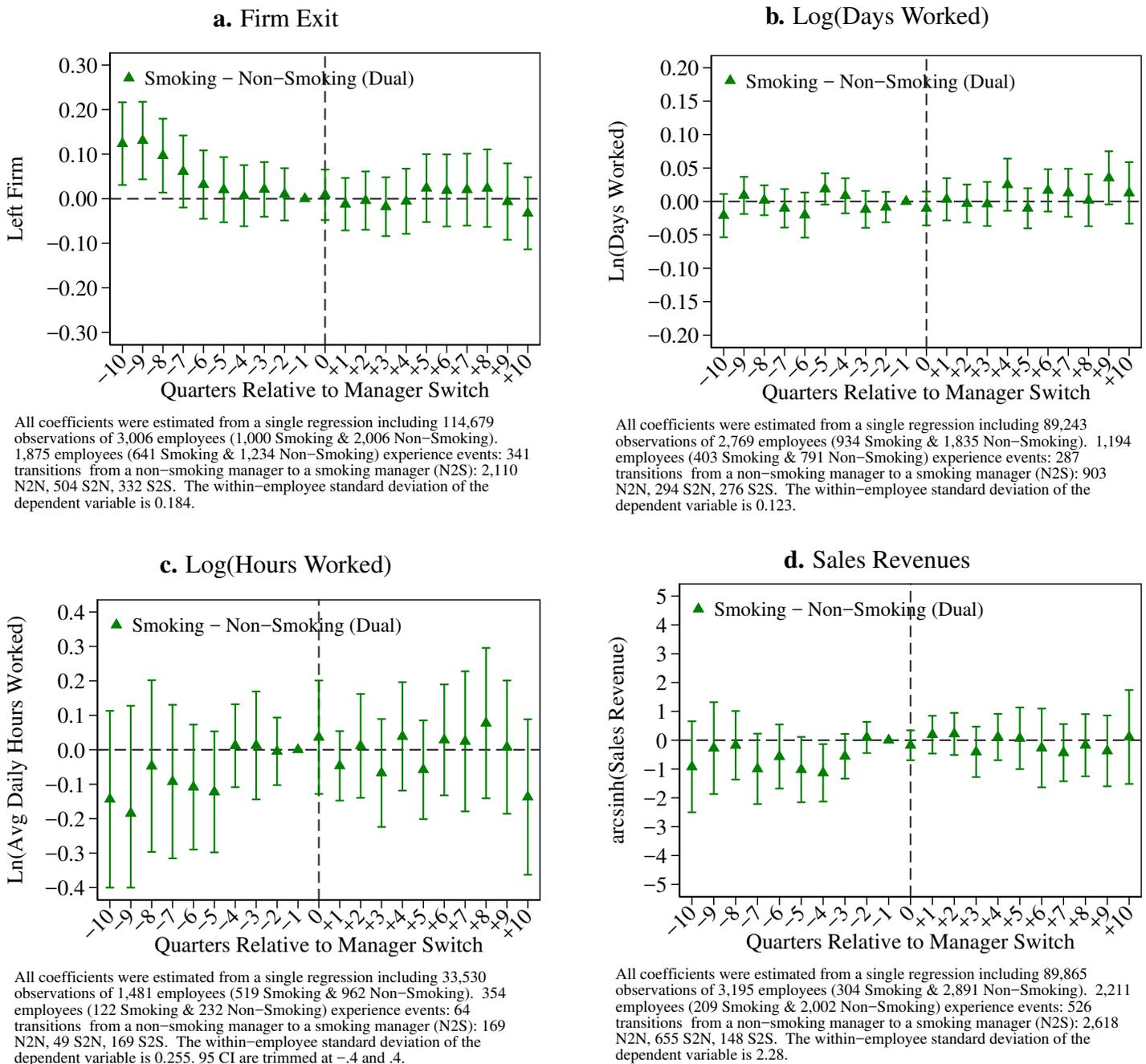
d. Sales Revenues
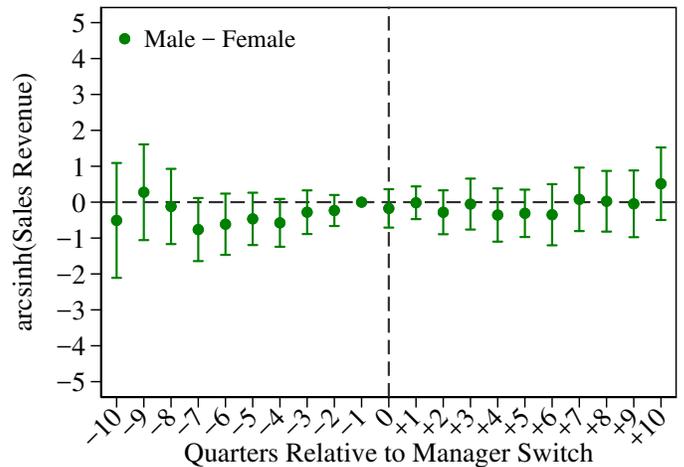
All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 136,342 observations of 6,244 employees (1,814 Male & 4,430 Female). 1,983 employees (505 Male & 1,478 Female) experience events: 642 transitions from a male manager to a female manager and 1,985 from a male manager to another male manager. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 2.21.

Notes: In Figure 6, we present dual-double-differences results; in this figure, we present the underlying double-differences results for manager events that start with a male manager. In panel (a), the dependent variable is an indicator that takes the value 1 in every month after the employee left the firm (these results include additional events after the employees left the firm); in panel (b), the dependent variable is the logarithm of the total number of days worked in the month (inferred from data on approved leaves of absence); in panel (c), the dependent variable is the logarithm of the average number of hours worked in a given month (inferred from data on swipes in and out of the building, and available for headquarter employees only); in panel (d), the dependent variable is the inverse hyperbolic sine (arcsinh) of the sales revenues score (available for employees with sales roles only). The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.12.iii: Non-Smoker to Smoker (versus Non-Smoker to Non-Smoker), Dual-Double-Differences Estimates

a. Firm Exit

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 114,679 observations of 3,006 employees (1,000 Smoking & 2,006 Non−Smoking). 1,875 employees (641 Smoking & 1,234 Non−Smoking) experience events: 341 transitions from a non−smoking manager to a smoking manager (N2S): 2,110 N2N, 504 S2N, 332 S2S. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.184.

b. Log(Days Worked)

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 89,243 observations of 2,769 employees (934 Smoking & 1,835 Non−Smoking). 1,194 employees (403 Smoking & 791 Non−Smoking) experience events: 287 transitions from a non−smoking manager to a smoking manager (N2S): 903 N2N, 294 S2N, 276 S2S. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.123.

c. Log(Hours Worked)

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 33,530 observations of 1,481 employees (519 Smoking & 962 Non−Smoking). 354 employees (122 Smoking & 232 Non−Smoking) experience events: 64 transitions from a non−smoking manager to a smoking manager (N2S): 169 N2N, 49 S2N, 169 S2S. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.255. 95 CI are trimmed at −.4 and .4.

d. Sales Revenues

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 89,865 observations of 3,195 employees (304 Smoking & 2,891 Non−Smoking). 2,211 employees (209 Smoking & 2,002 Non−Smoking) experience events: 526 transitions from a non−smoking manager to a smoking manager (N2S): 2,618 N2N, 655 S2N, 148 S2S. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 2.28.

Notes: See Section 2 for details about the regression specification. This figure replicates 6, but for smoking transitions. In panel (a), the dependent variable is an indicator that takes the value 1 in every month after the employee left the firm (these results include additional events after the employees left the firm); in panel (b), the dependent variable is the logarithm of the total number of days worked in the month (inferred from data on approved leaves of absence); in panel (c), the dependent variable is the logarithm of the average number of hours worked in a given month (inferred from data on swipes in and out of the building, and available for headquarter employees only); in panel (d), the dependent variable is the inverse hyperbolic sine (arcsinh) of the sales revenues score (available for employees with sales roles only). The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.13.i: Heterogeneity (Dual-Double-Differences)
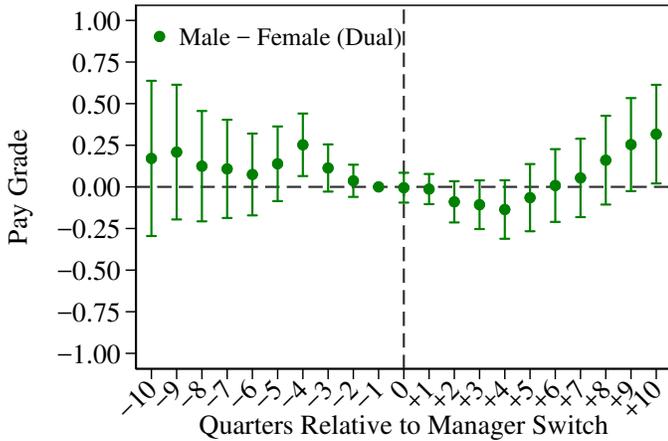
a. Employees in Main Sample
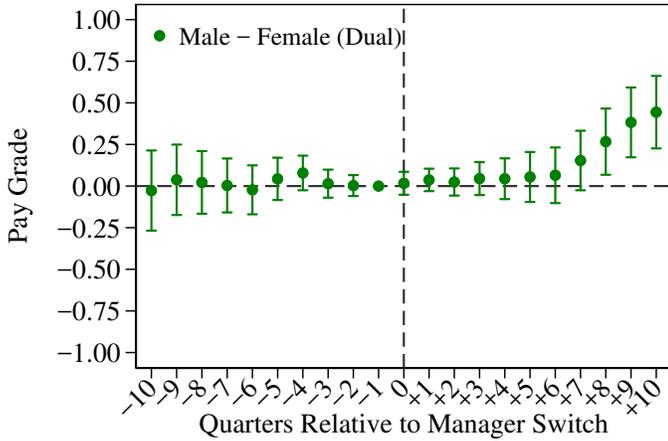
All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 6,536 employees (2,012 Male & 4,524 Female) experience events: 1,846 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 2,120 F2F, 1,745 M2F, 4,291 M2M. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

**b.** Employees in Proximity Data Sample
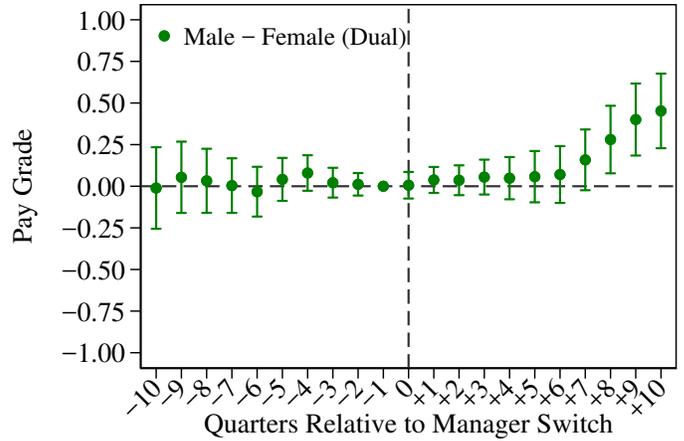
All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 335,443 observations of 10,717 employees (3,590 Male & 7,127 Female). 5,769 employees (1,696 Male & 4,073 Female) experience events: 1,645 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 1,904 F2F, 1,592 M2F, 3,950 M2M. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.520.

c. Employees in Swipe Data Sample

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 178,815 observations of 7,602 employees (3,251 Male & 4,351 Female). 2,816 employees (1,082 Male & 1,734 Female) experience events: 669 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 1,414 F2F, 795 M2F, 1,195 M2M. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

d. Employees in Sales Sample
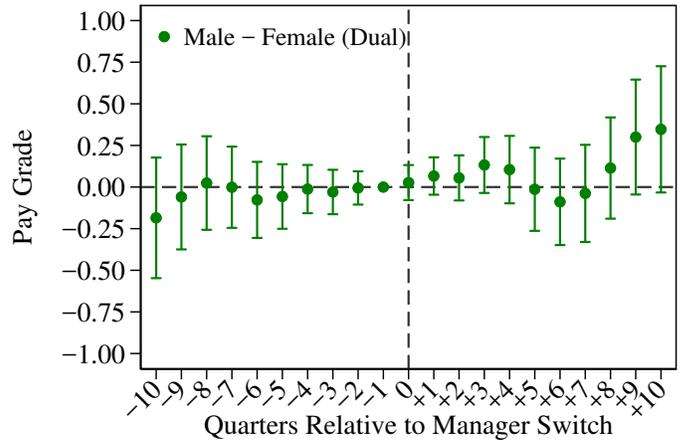
All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 162,884 observations of 6,269 employees (1,821 Male & 4,448 Female). 2,766 employees (716 Male & 2,050 Female) experience events: 838 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 626 F2F, 642 M2F, 1,985 M2M. The within−employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.601.

Notes: See Section 2 for details about the regression specification. In panel (a), we present again the main specification for reference; in panel (b), we limit to workers in positions that we can code as high or low proximity to the manager; in panel (c), we limit to workers in the headquarters, which is where we observe swipes in and out; in panel (d) we limit to workers who are in a sales position in the month in which they experience a manager transition. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.14.i: Heterogeneity by Proximity to the Manager (Double-Differences Estimate)

I. FEMALE TO MALE MANAGER *minus* FEMALE TO FEMALE MANAGER
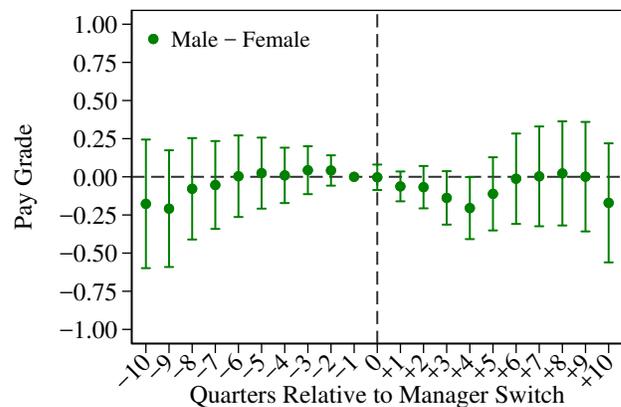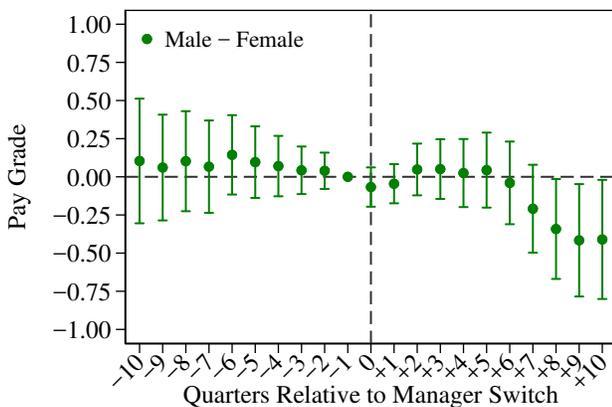
a. Closer
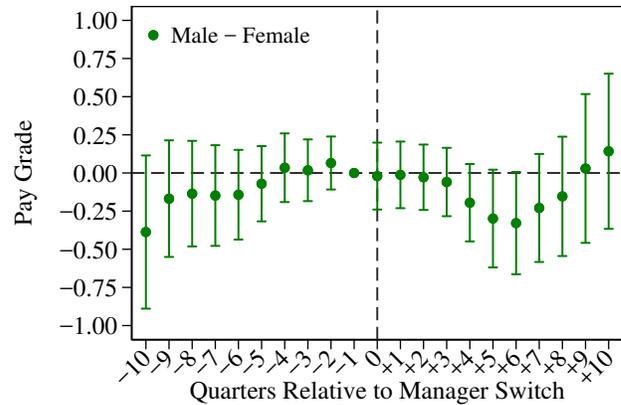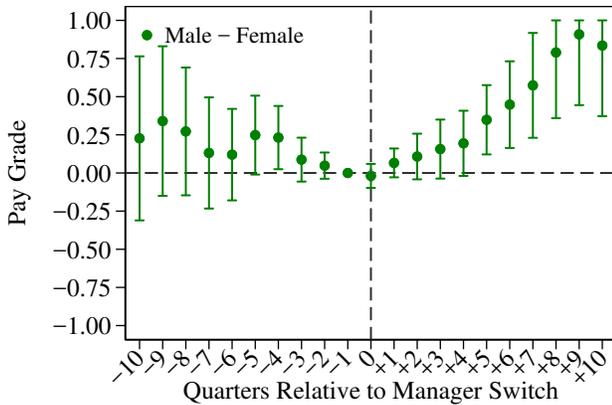
b. Farther

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 360,239 observations of 13,814 employees (4,912 Male & 8,902 Female). 1,567 employees (411 Male & 1,156 Female) experience events: 743 transitions from a female manager to a male manager and 1,163 from a female manager to another female manager. The within–employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475. 95 CI are trimmed at −1 and 1.

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 360,239 observations of 13,814 employees (4,912 Male & 8,902 Female). 1,532 employees (384 Male & 1,148 Female) experience events: 1,063 transitions from a female manager to a male manager and 841 from a female manager to another female manager. The within–employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

II. MALE TO FEMALE MANAGER *minus* MALE TO MALE MANAGER

a. Closer

b. Farther

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 360,239 observations of 13,814 employees (4,912 Male & 8,902 Female). 2,077 employees (827 Male & 1,250 Female) experience events: 842 transitions from a male manager to a female manager and 1,796 from a male manager to another male manager. The within–employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 360,239 observations of 13,814 employees (4,912 Male & 8,902 Female). 2,419 employees (621 Male & 1,798 Female) experience events: 826 transitions from a male manager to a female manager and 2,409 from a male manager to another male manager. The within–employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

Notes: See Section 2 for a formal discussion of the event-study specification. All estimates presented above are estimated on the same regression. To normalize across groups, we estimate coefficients for the pre-period separately for the high and low proximity groups, and explicitly difference the smoothed estimate for $q = -1$ out of each panel. Mechanically, the coefficients for both groups and the double-differences are then 0 in the pre-period. We estimate the high and low proximity event coefficients on the same regression; in both panels, we categorize events as high or low proximity based on the position of the worker in the month they experience a transition event. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.14.ii: Effects on Pay Grade by Proximity to the Manager: Dual-Double-Differences Estimates

I. SELF-REPORTED PHYSICAL PROXIMITY TO MANAGER

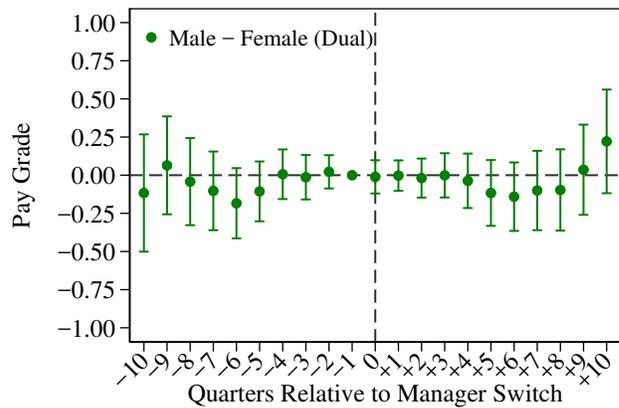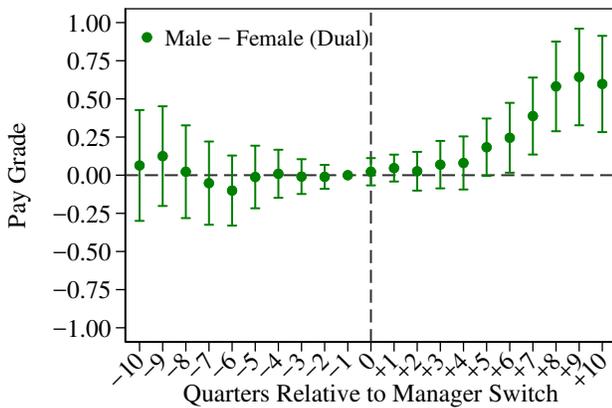a. Closer   b. Farther
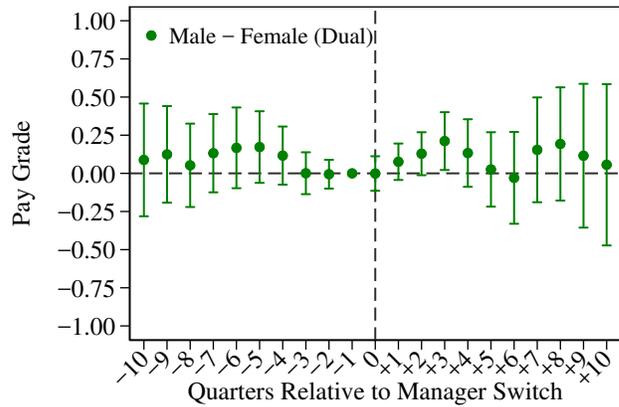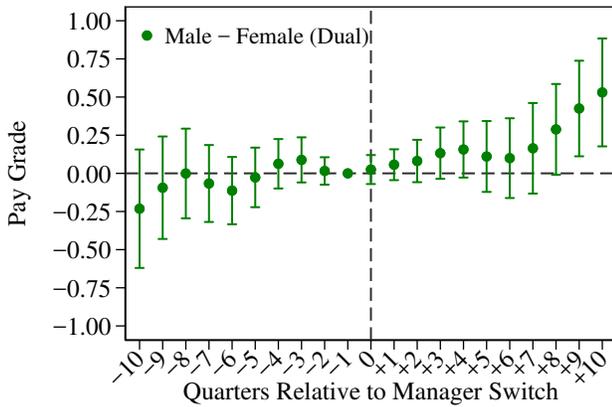
All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 2,357 employees (829 Male & 1,528 Female) experience events: 683 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 594 F2F, 481 M2F, 1,604 M2M. The within–employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 2,386 employees (475 Male & 1,911 Female) experience events: 707 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 474 F2F, 631 M2F, 1,731 M2M. The within–employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

II. ASSIGNED TO WORK ON SAME FLOOR AS MANAGER

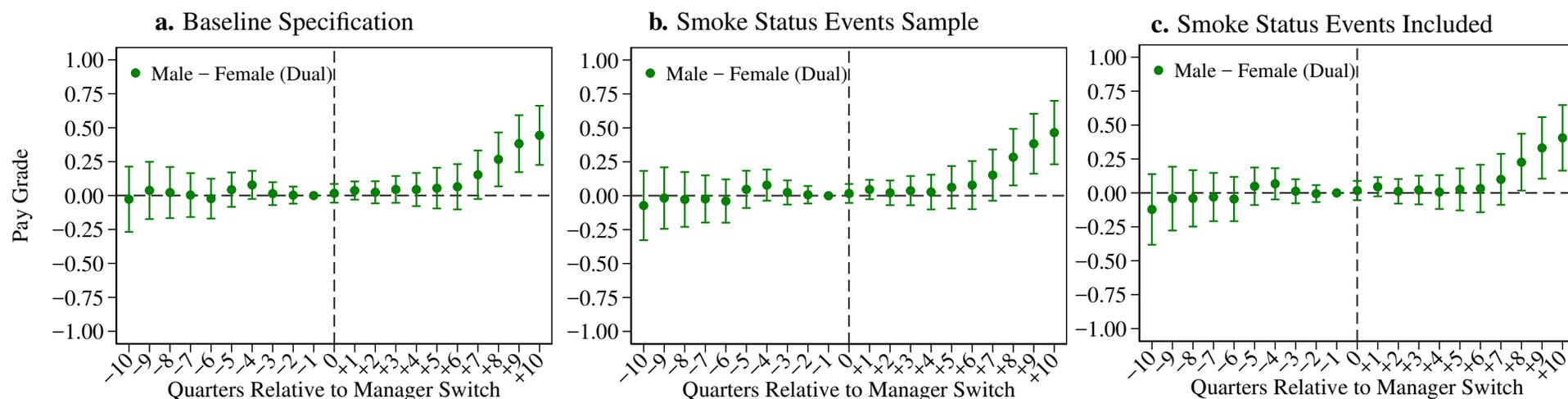a. Closer   b. Farther

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 2,680 employees (1,027 Male & 1,653 Female) experience events: 584 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 1,073 F2F, 714 M2F, 1,383 M2M. The within–employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

All coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 2,892 employees (746 Male & 2,146 Female) experience events: 874 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 734 F2F, 702 M2F, 1,976 M2M. The within–employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475.

Notes: See Section 5.1 for a general discussion of our proximity measure and Appendix A.14 for details about this figure. In this figure, we separately present the survey (top half) and administrative (bottom half) measures of proximity that are combined in our main specification presented in Figure 7. Panel (I): we code positions as "closer" ("farther") if the average worker in that position self-reports spending more than (less than) 4.5 days a week working in close physical proximity with their manager. Panel (II): we code positions as "closer" ("farther") if more than (less than) 33% of workers in that position work on the same floor as their manager. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.15.i: Pay Grade: Female to Male, Smoke Controls

a. Baseline Specification

b. Smoke Status Events Sample

c. Smoke Status Events Included

Notes: Panel (a): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 380,964 observations of 14,638 employees (5,193 Male & 9,445 Female). 6,536 employees (2,012 Male & 4,524 Female) experience events: 1,846 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 2,120 F2F, 1,745 M2F, 4,291 M2M. Panel (b): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 296,330 observations of 8,373 employees (2,907 Male & 5,466 Female). 5,208 employees (1,620 Male & 3,588 Female) experience events: 1,421 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 1,764 F2F, 1,438 M2F, 3,355 M2M. Panel (c): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 296,330 observations of 8,373 employees (2,907 Male & 5,466 Female). 5,208 employees (1,620 Male & 3,588 Female) experience events: 1,421 transitions from a female manager to a male manager (F2M): 1,764 F2F, 1,438 M2F, 3,355 M2M. The within-em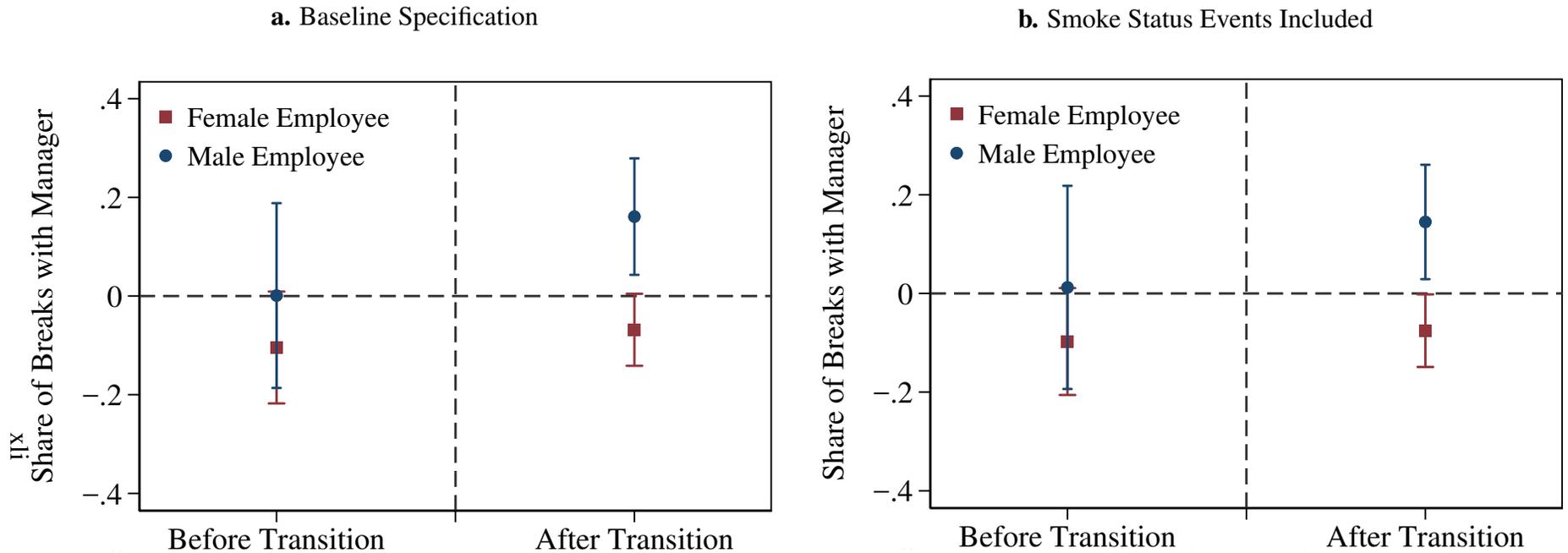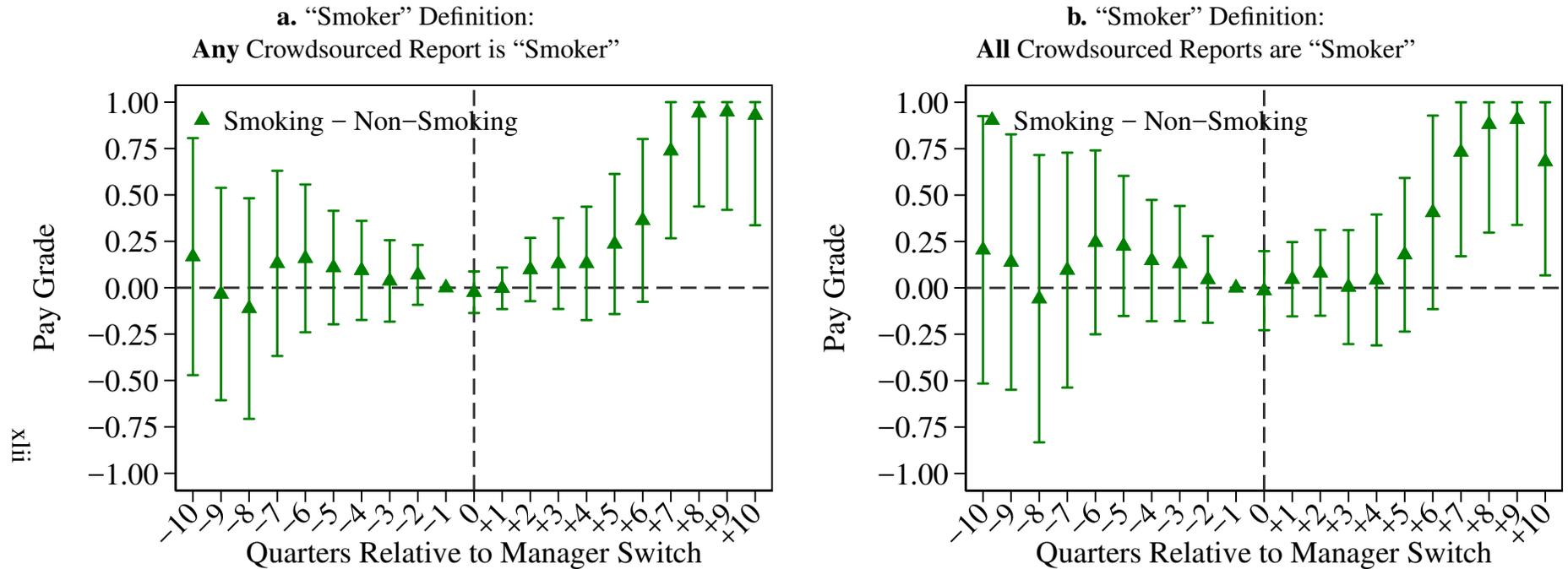ployee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.475. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.15.ii: Share Breaks: Female to Male, Smoke Controls

a. Baseline Specification

b. Smoke Status Events Included

Notes: In both panels, all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 4,843 observations of 2,638 employees (698 Male & 1,940 Female). 430 employees (83 Male & 347 Female) experience events: 254 transitions from a female manager to a male manager and 243 from a female manager to another female manager. Since the survey that we use for the share of breaks outcome also includes smoking status, there is no sample reduction when we add controls for transitions in manager smoke status. Thus, the only difference between panel a and panel b is that the regression estimated in panel b includes controls for manager smoke status, interacted with the employee's smoke status. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.174. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee.

Figure A.16.i: Non-Smoker to Smoker, Alternative "Smoker" Thresholds

a. "Smoker" Definition:
Any Crowdsourced Report is "Smoker"

b. "Smoker" Definition:
All Crowdsourced Reports are "Smoker"

Notes: Panel (a): all coefficients were estimated from a regression including 94,750 observations of 2,907 employees (1,229 Smoking & 1,678 Non-Smoking). 928 employees (348 Smoking & 580 Non-Smoking) experience events: 287 transitions from a non-smoking manager to a smoking manager and 960 from a non-smoking manager to another non-smoking manager. Panel (b): all coefficients were estimated from a single regression including 94,750 observations of 2,907 employees (366 Smoking & 2,541 Non-Smoking). 928 employees (131 Smoking & 797 Non-Smoking) experience events: 287 transitions from a non-smoking manager to a smoking manager and 960 from a non-smoking manager to another non-smoking manager. The within-employee standard deviation of the dependent variable is 0.517. The 95% confidence intervals are presented in brackets, with two-way clustering by manager and employee. Confidence intervals are trimmed at +1.

Table A.1: Reason for Manager Transition

	New Hire	Promotion	Lateral Move
Quit	29	53	78
Promotion	27	79	55
Lateral Move	82	149	311

Notes: Outgoing managers are defined as the manager of unit in the month before a transition event; incoming managers are those who are assigned to a unit in the month of the event. We say that an outgoing (incoming) manager quit (was hired) if they quit (were hired) in the six months after (before) the transition. Similarly, we code a transition a promotion if there is a change in pay grade in the three months before or after the event. Manager transition events that do not coincide with a change in pay grade or an exit/entry, as defined above, are coded as lateral moves.

Table A.2: Types of Manager Changes, Smoking Events

	New Hire	Promotion	Lateral Move
Quit	9	17	33
Promotion	10	33	12
Lateral Move	32	37	240

Notes: Outgoing managers are defined as the manager of unit in the month before a transition event; incoming managers are those who are assigned to a unit in the month of the event. We say that an outgoing (incoming) manager quit (was hired) if they quit (were hired) in the six months after (before) the transition. Similarly, we code a transition a promotion if there is a change in pay grade in the three months before or after the event. Manager transition events that do not coincide with a change in pay grade or an exit/entry, as defined above, are coded as lateral moves.

Table A.3: Descriptive Statistics, Placebo Events

EMPLOYEES	Had Event?		Even to …		Odd to …	
	No	Yes	Even BD	Odd BD	Even BD	Odd BD
Unique Employees	8200	6536	2305	2301	2423	1861
Pay Grade	49.065	48.822	48.822	48.599	48.863	49.029
	(2.74)	(2.56)	(2.46)	(2.49)	(2.54)	(2.72)
Male (%)	0.371	0.292	0.321	0.314	0.261	0.274
	(0.48)	(0.45)	(0.47)	(0.46)	(0.44)	(0.45)
Age	29.844	30.084	29.862	30.008	30.176	30.259
	(5.46)	(5.30)	(5.14)	(5.23)	(5.31)	(5.53)
College (%)	0.851	0.853	0.853	0.850	0.853	0.859
	(0.36)	(0.35)	(0.35)	(0.36)	(0.35)	(0.35)

MANAGERS (INCOMING)	Had Event?		Even to …		Odd to …	
	No	Yes	Even BD	Odd BD	Even BD	Odd BD
Unique Incoming Managers	518	751	222	245	225	200
Pay Grade	53.470	53.640	53.429	53.712	53.741	53.913
	(2.10)	(2.14)	(1.93)	(2.20)	(2.27)	(2.24)
Male (%)	0.457	0.548	0.552	0.568	0.519	0.574
	(0.50)	(0.50)	(0.50)	(0.50)	(0.50)	(0.50)
Age	36.833	35.437	35.494	35.306	35.538	35.511
	(5.31)	(4.34)	(3.71)	(4.52)	(4.70)	(4.24)
College (%)	0.958	0.928	0.915	0.932	0.940	0.930
	(0.20)	(0.26)	(0.28)	(0.25)	(0.24)	(0.25)

MANAGERS (OUTGOING)	Had Event?		Even to …		Odd to …	
	No	Yes	Even BD	Odd BD	Even BD	Odd BD
Unique Outgoing Managers	564	705	213	210	199	199
Pay Grade	53.216	53.868	53.898	53.717	53.982	53.974
	(1.87)	(2.24)	(2.15)	(2.16)	(2.43)	(2.27)
Male (%)	0.408	0.597	0.612	0.532	0.588	0.641
	(0.49)	(0.49)	(0.49)	(0.50)	(0.49)	(0.48)
Age	36.393	36.026	36.186	35.714	36.348	35.879
	(4.67)	(4.40)	(4.76)	(4.31)	(4.34)	(4.14)
College (%)	0.949	0.927	0.945	0.907	0.916	0.944
	(0.22)	(0.26)	(0.23)	(0.29)	(0.28)	(0.23)

Notes: This table presents summary statistics for employees and managers and demonstrates balance of covariates across event types, and between the groups who do and do not experience events. Since workers and managers can experience multiple events, the sum of unique individuals for all four events can be greater than the total count of unique individuals, and the "Yes" column need not be equal to the mean of the four event columns. Outgoing managers are defined as the manager of unit in the month before a transition event; incoming managers are those who are assigned to a unit in the month of the event. For event columns, we show the average of employees and managers in the month they experience events; for those who never experience an event we show the average of all such individuals across their tenure at the bank.

Table A.4: Descriptive Statistics, Smoke Status Transition Events

EMPLOYEES	Had Event?		Non-Smoking to ...		Smoking to ...	
	No	Yes	Non-Smoking	Smoking	Non-Smoking	Smoking
Unique Employees	1248	1226	712	261	268	223
Pay Grade	49.947	49.389	49.355	49.763	49.081	49.457
	(3.52)	(2.49)	(2.45)	(2.79)	(2.32)	(2.45)
Male (%)	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Age	32.152	30.279	29.680	30.614	30.187	32.054
	(6.05)	(5.58)	(5.13)	(5.84)	(5.26)	(6.61)
College (%)	0.804	0.853	0.858	0.885	0.875	0.779
	(0.40)	(0.35)	(0.35)	(0.32)	(0.33)	(0.42)

MANAGERS (INCOMING)	Had Event?		Non-Smoking to ...		Smoking to ...	
	No	Yes	Non-Smoking	Smoking	Non-Smoking	Smoking
Unique Incoming Managers	315	273	161	80	79	46
Pay Grade	53.832	53.645	53.515	53.974	53.608	53.976
	(2.33)	(1.83)	(1.66)	(2.27)	(1.73)	(1.94)
Male (%)	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Age	36.897	35.654	35.381	37.035	35.173	35.250
	(4.37)	(4.52)	(4.25)	(5.24)	(4.23)	(4.62)
College (%)	0.952	0.923	0.956	0.908	0.932	0.780
	(0.21)	(0.27)	(0.21)	(0.29)	(0.25)	(0.42)

MANAGERS (OUTGOING)	Had Event?		Non-Smoking to ...		Smoking to ...	
	No	Yes	Non-Smoking	Smoking	Non-Smoking	Smoking
Unique Outgoing Managers	363	225	112	51	58	42
Pay Grade	53.373	53.657	53.618	53.522	53.559	54.128
	(2.08)	(1.87)	(1.70)	(1.94)	(1.95)	(2.28)
Male (%)	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Age	36.400	35.837	35.866	36.263	35.849	35.197
	(4.45)	(4.38)	(4.26)	(4.59)	(4.46)	(4.59)
College (%)	0.939	0.935	0.952	0.978	0.915	0.846
	(0.24)	(0.25)	(0.22)	(0.15)	(0.28)	(0.37)

Notes: This table presents summary statistics for employees and managers and demonstrates balance of covariates across event types, and between the groups who do and do not experience events. Since workers and managers can experience multiple events, the sum of unique individuals for all four events can be greater than the total count of unique individuals, and the "Yes" column need not be equal to the mean of the four event columns. Outgoing managers are defined as the manager of unit in the month before a transition event; incoming managers are those who are assigned to a unit in the month of the event. For event columns, we show the average of employees and managers in the month they experience events; for those who never experience an event we show the average of all such individuals across their tenure at the bank.

B   Appendix: Survey About Social Interactions

Dear **Leslie Knope,**

   Please help us learn about what determines your performance evaluation and promotion opportunities. All survey responses are completely confidential. Your answers and your participation will not be shared with your co-workers or manager. If you have any issues please contact Jerry Gergich, *Thank you in advance for your participation!*
 Sincerely,

   XXXXX Chief Economist   *Email: XXXXX Address: XXXXX*

   ○ Please click here to confirm that you are Leslie Knope, click "Next" to proceed with
   the survey

Please select all the managers that have directly influenced your KPI and PC [Pay Grade] either in your current position or past positions? You are allowed to select up to 6 managers. If you have more than 6, please prioritize the most important and recent ones since 2015 until the present. If your manager is not on the list, please type their name and their position in the box.

○ Chris Traeger

○ April Ludgate

○ Ben Wyatt

○ Shauna Malwae-Tweep

○ Craig Middlebrooks

○ Joan Callamezzo

Next, we will ask you 6 questions about your most recent managers. All questions refer to the time when your manager was actively your boss, which could in some cases be in the past.

How often are (or were) you physically working near April Ludgate (i.e. same floor and area)?

○ Everyday or most days (4-6 times per week)

○ Some days (2-3 times per week)

○ Infrequently

Out of 10 work breaks (including lunch or random breaks), how many would usually include April Ludgate?

Slider: select 0 to 10

Of the last 10 emails you sent to April Ludgate, how many included some part that was personal?

Slider: select 0 to 10

Do you and April Ludgate both smoke?

	Yes	No
I smoked during the time we overlapped	○	○
He/she smoked	○	○
We smoked together sometimes	○	○

In your opinion, what football team does April Ludgate enjoy? (You can chose multiple choices)

○ Prefers Golf

○ Prefers Tennis

○ Manchester United

○ Barcelona

○ Real Madrid

○ Bayern Munich

○ Manchester City

○ Arsenal

○ Chelsea

○ Liverpool

○ Juventus

○ Tottenham Hotspur

○ Paris Saint-Germain

○ A.C. Milan

○ Prefers a team which is not listed

○ Prefers none. He/She does not watch football

How many years have you smoked? (Enter 0 if never)

Numeric Entry

What football team is your favorite? (You can chose multiple choices)

○ Prefers Golf

○ Prefers Tennis

○ Manchester United

○ Barcelona

○ Real Madrid

○ Bayern Munich

○ Manchester City

○ Arsenal

○ Chelsea

○ Liverpool

○ Juventus

○ Tottenham Hotspur

○ Paris Saint-Germain

○ A.C. Milan

○ Prefers a team which is not listed

○ Prefers none. I do not watch football

C Appendix: Smoke Status Survey

Question 1 Please answer if your following co-workers were smokers? If yes, please let us know if they started smoking before or after joining the bank?

	Was he/she a smoker?			If yes, when did he/she start smoking?		
	Yes	No	I do not know	Before joining bank	After joining bank	I do not know
Leslie Knope	○	○	○	○	○	○
Donna Meagle	○	○	○	○	○	○
Andy Dwyer	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jerry Gergich	○	○	○	○	○	○
Ann Perkins	○	○	○	○	○	○

Question 2 Do you smoke now?

○ Yes

○ No

○ I do not want to answer this question

Question 3 What age did you start smoking?

I do not want to answer this question
or **[*Numeric Entry*]**