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Mediators of transformational leadership and the work-family relationship

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to examine the ways in which leaders influence follower's work-life management. Specifically, the authors propose that personal (positive affect), social (managerial support for work-family balance), and job (autonomy) resources mediate the relationships between transformational leadership and work-family conflict (WFC) and enrichment.

Design/methodology/approach – The sample included 411 managers in 37 hotel properties across the USA.

Findings – The relationship between TL and WFC was mediated by autonomy, positive affect and managerial support for work-family balance, whereas the relationship between TL and WFE was mediated by managerial support for work-family balance and positive affect.

Research limitations/implications – This study constructs a foundation for future integration of leadership and work and family literatures. It also provides preliminary support for work-family enrichment theory (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006), as well as the value of examining leadership through a resource-based perspective.

Introduction

Given the high cost of ineffective work-family management on employees, organizations, and societies, understanding factors that contribute to (in)effective work-family management is of significant concern (O'Neill and Davis, 2011). Leaders have the potential to drastically influence employees' work experiences, positively or negatively (Arnold *et al.*, 2007; Perry *et al.*, 2010). As such, leadership has been identified as an important factor for employee overall well-being (Arnold *et al.*, 2007), and a growing body of literature has indicated the influence of leaders goes beyond the workplace (Hammer *et al.*, 2011). As transformational leadership (TL) "has been the dominant focus of contemporary leadership research" (Judge *et al.*, 2006, p. 204), it is important to understand its potential effect on employee work-family management, in particular.

Work-family conflict (WFC) represents the extent to which work and family roles are irreconcilable in some way, including conflicts regarding time, strain, and behavior (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). WFC been linked with increased stress, burnout, and decreased job satisfaction, commitment, and citizenship (Amstad *et al.*, 2011). Although early research on work-family linkages has concentrated almost entirely on conflict, more recent studies have investigated mutual benefit (Grzywacz and Marks, 2000). Work-family enrichment (WFE) has been defined as "the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role" (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006, p. 73) and involves the utilization of resources from one domain to another. WFE is positively related to job satisfaction, commitment, and health (McNall *et al.*, 2010). Although related, WFC and WFE are theoretically and empirically distinct and are bi-directional constructs, including work-to-family and family-to-work directions (Carlson *et al.*, 2006). Meta-analyses suggest that work-related antecedents (e.g. leadership) tend to relate more strongly from work-to-family than family-to-work (Byron, 2005). Further, employees experience a higher level of WFC than FWC (Amstad *et al.*, 2011) suggesting a greater impact on their lives. As such, the present study focusaes on the work-to-family direction.

TL and work-family management

TL is the process whereby a leader goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group, as well as encourages followers to do the same to achieve performance beyond expectations (Bass and Avolio, 1994). TL includes elements of promotion of identification of the follower with the leader (idealized influence), communication of a strong and appealing vision (inspirational motivation), encouragement of followers to think for themselves (intellectual stimulation), and consideration of followers' unique needs (individualized consideration). Empirical research has demonstrated relationships between TL and leader effectiveness, group and organizational performance, follower satisfaction, and motivation (see Judge *et al.*, 2006 for a review). The evidence linking TL with organizational outcomes is impressive, but, to our knowledge, only two studies have examined the effects beyond the workplace. Munir *et al.* (2012) found TL to be negatively associated with WFC, while Wang and

Walumbwa (2007) found TL moderates the relationship of family-friendly benefits with commitment and withdrawal. However, the relationships between TL and WFE, as well as the mechanisms by which transformational leaders influence the work-family interface, have not yet been examined.

In response to calls to examine the process by which leaders impact follower outcomes (Dinh *et al.*, 2014), a growing body of work has highlighted the important role of resources (Breevaart *et al.*, 2013). Leaders can influence resource levels as well as more subjective resource perceptions (Purvanova *et al.*, 2006). For example, leaders possess the ability to allow greater freedom over how and when employees complete their work but they also shape perceptions of this control through processes of management of meaning, language, and framing (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006). Social information processing theory (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978) suggests these perceptions are partly determined by the social environment, of which leaders play a primary feature. Recent work supports the role of resources as the explanatory mechanism by which transformational leaders influence follower outcomes such as engagement (Breevaart *et al.*, 2013), task performance, and citizenship (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006). Given this support, resources may also explain the link between TL and work-family management.

Resources appear to be a key construct in most theoretical foundations of work-family management (e.g. Conservation of Resources, Hobfoll, 2002; Job Demands-Resources Model, Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Further, many empirical studies support the importance of resources for reducing WFC and enhancing WFE (e.g. Voydanoff, 2004). Resources refer to "entities that are either centrally valued in their own right or act as a means to obtain centrally valued ends" (Hobfoll, 2002, p. 307). Although there are no universally accepted typologies of resources (Hobfoll, 2002), personal, job, and social resources tend to be of primary concern for employees. Job resources, sometimes referred to as contextual or situational resources (Wayne *et al.*, 2007), consist of aspects of work that enable coping with job demands such as autonomy or task complexity (Breevaart *et al.*, 2013). Social resources are defined as supports from various others and facilitate coping with demands (Hobfoll, 2002). Personal resources are factors related to resiliency, such as self-efficacy, locus of control, or optimism (Tims *et al.*, 2011), many of which are emotion-laden.

The primary goal of this study is to examine follower resources as mediators of the relationship between TL and work-family management, because the mechanisms by which leaders influence followers is largely underdeveloped (Dinh *et al.*, 2014). This study also moves beyond previous studies of TL and work-family that have only addressed the conflict perspective (Munir *et al.*, 2012; Wang and Walumbwa, 2007) by including WFE. As indicated in Figure 1, we propose that resources mediate the relationship between TL and WFC/WFE. Specifically, leaders higher on TL may influence perceptions of job, personal, and social resources, which, in turn, promote effective management of work and family. To our knowledge, we are the first to examine mediating processes of the relationship between TL and work-family outcomes.

TL and job resources
As noted, leaders may influence job resources, such as autonomy, both objectively and, perhaps to a greater extent, subjectively (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006). Transformational leaders may provide employees with autonomy through empowering followers, encouraging independent thinking, and supporting creative idea generation. Moreover, these behaviors signal freedom and perceptions of autonomy (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006). As such, followers of transformational leaders may perceive greater autonomy to flexibly
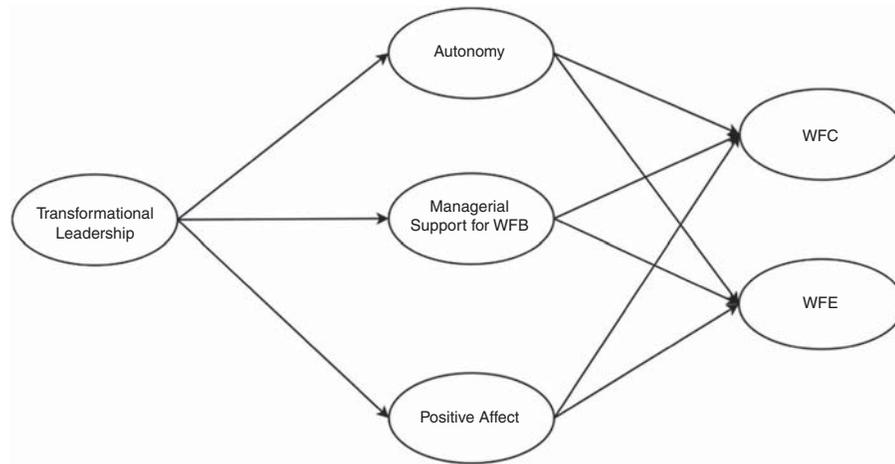
Figure 1.
Hypothesized model

manage workloads. This may allow them to attend to family matters or may decrease stress more generally, which may carry home. Indeed, perceptions of autonomy and control are negatively related to WFC (Michel *et al.*, 2011; Thompson and Prottas, 2005):

H1a. Autonomy mediates the relationship between TL and WFC.

The instrumental path of WFE theory (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006) suggests that enrichment occurs when resources are directly transferred from one role to another. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggest autonomy may promote family functioning because it affords more time for family, as well increased energy, skills, and attitudes. Empirical research has indicated a positive relationship between autonomy and WFE (Grzywacz and Butler, 2005):

H1b. Autonomy mediates the relationship between TL and WFE.

TL and personal resources
The promotion of follower positive affect by transformational leaders is consistent with TL theory. TL has an "intense emotional component" (Bass, 1985, p. 36) and followers experience a deep emotional attachment with their leaders (Shamir *et al.*, 1993). Followers of transformational leaders report feeling more positive emotions throughout the day (Bono Foldes *et al.*, 2007). Communication of transformational leaders include more positive affect-laden words – good, happy, excellent – than less transformational leaders (Bono and Ilies, 2006). This positivity may be passed on through a contagion effect and the creation of a positive work environment (Sy *et al.*, 2005). Further, research has indicated that the link between TL and follower outcomes is mediated by optimism (Tims *et al.*, 2011). Positive affect at work may be negatively associated with WFC. Research has indicated that extraversion and positive affect are negatively related to WFC as positive emotionality is associated with both decreased perceptions of stress as well as the utilization of more proactive coping strategies (Michel *et al.*, 2011):

H2a. Positive affect mediates the relationship between TL and WFC.

The affective path of enrichment theory suggests resources promote enrichment through their influence on positive affect (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Drawing from Rothbard (2001), Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggest that positive affect created in

one role (i.e. the workplace) can promote functioning in another role (family) through positive affect's influence on helping behaviors, other-focusaed attention, and energy expansion. According to broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001), positive emotions expand one's awareness and encourage new, diverse, and exploratory cognitions and behaviors. Over time, this broadened repertoire builds skills and resources, which can, in turn, promote functioning across roles. Furthermore, enrichment itself can occur when the emotions and moods experienced in one role enrich another role (Hanson *et al.*, 2006):

H2b. Positive affect mediates the relationship between TL and WFE.

TL and social resources
Followers of transformational leaders may feel more support from their supervisor both generally (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004) and with regard toward their work-family responsibilities (Straub, 2012), as TL includes behavior such as individual consideration and creative problem solving. Furthermore, as supervisors act as representatives of the organization and shape perceptions of the culture or climate, followers may perceive top management and the organization to be more supportive overall (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2002). Perceptions of organizational support are often mediators of the relationship between supervisor support and outcomes. In a meta-analytic path analysis, Kossek *et al.* (2011) demonstrated that supervisors shape perceptions about the organization's supportiveness both generally and toward work-family needs, which result in reduced WFC. As such, it is possible that perceptions of support from transformational leaders shape followers' perceptions of the supportiveness of the organization, both generally and specifically to work-family. Managerial support for work-family balance is highlighted as a feature of a climate or culture positive toward work-family needs of employees (O'Neill *et al.*, 2009; Thompson *et al.*, 1999) and is negatively related to WFC (Behson, 2005):

H3a. Managerial support for work-family balance mediates the relationship between TL and WFC.

In addition to the link between perceived managerial support for work-family balance and WFC, research has indicated a positive relationship between work-family supportive supervision (Voydanoff, 2004) and work-family culture (Wayne *et al.*, 2006) with WFE. Furthermore, Carlson *et al.* (2011) suggested the supervisors (especially those who experience WFE themselves) can create supportive environments that facilitate follower WFE:

H3b. Managerial support for work-family balance mediates the relationship between TL and WFE.

Method
Participants
Department-level managers in 37 hotel properties across the USA took part in the study. Over 80 percent of the managers contacted agreed to complete the interview. We limited the sample to those who were living with another person (either romantic partner or child) to ensure a similar referent on our outcome variables ($n = 411$). Managers were sampled across all departments, in areas such as housekeeping, sales and marketing, food and beverage, accounting, human resources, and engineering. Sample job titles include "Front Desk Manager," "Director of Sales and Marketing,"

"Chief of Engineering," and "Event Manager." The majority of the participants held a bachelor's degree or higher (63 percent). Participants were approximately evenly divided by gender; mean age was 38 years, with an average tenure of 5.2 years in the organization and 3.8 years in the current position. Managers reported working 56 hours per week, on average. The majority of participants (87 percent) reported working in the day shift, of which 22 percent also reported additional afternoon or night shift work. The racial composition included Caucasian (65 percent), Hispanic (12 percent), and African American (10 percent).

Procedure
Managers were contacted by telephone to take part in the study. Telephone interviews allowed participants flexibility in interviewing scheduling to accommodate with the 24/7 nature of the hotel industry (e.g. some participants completed the study during their commutes). Participants received $20 compensation.

Measures
Transformational leadership. In total, 15 items taken from the MLQ-5X Short Form (Bass and Avolio, 2004) were used with permission of Mind Garden to assess TL of the participant's immediate supervisor. Supervisors of the participants were senior leaders in the hotels, and often these mid-level managers reported directly to the general manager. For each item, participants rated their supervisor on a five-point scale, (1 = not at all to 5 = frequently, if not always). Coefficient α was 0.92.

WFC and WFE. A scale adapted from Grzywacz (2000) was used to measure WFC and WFE. Three items measured WFE (e.g. "The things you do at work help you deal with personal and practical issues at home.") and three items measured WFC (e.g. "Your job reduces the effort you can give to activities at home."). For each item, participants responded on a five-point scale, (1 = never to 5 = all the time). Coefficient α was 0.81 for WFC and 0.60 for WFE.

Autonomy. Autonomy was measured with three items from Karasek's (1979) decision-making latitude scale. A sample item includes, "You have the freedom to decide how to organize your work." Coefficient α was 0.73.

Managerial support for work-family balance. The managerial support for work-family balance subscale of the work and family culture scale developed by Thompson *et al.*, (1999). This 11-item subscale included items such as "In general, senior management in your hotel is quite accommodating of family-related needs." For each item, participants responded on a five-point scale, (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Coefficient α was 0.84.

Positive affect. Positive affect was measured with the 10 adjective subscale of the positive and negative affect schedule adopted from the Midlife in the United States study. Participants were asked to describe how much each adjective described how they felt in the past two weeks (0 = slightly/not at all to 4 = extremely). Coefficient α was 0.89.

Results
Because of the nested data structure (411 employees in 37 hotels), we examined the data using multi-level modeling. We estimated empty multilevel models to obtain the intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) for all variables, an index of the proportion of the variability at the hotel level relative to the total variability (Raudenbush and Bryk,

2002). In general, ICCs were very low across all variables (0.00 to 0.08). Thus, over 90 percent of the variability was due to differences between individuals rather than organizations. Furthermore, the empty model for WFC indicated no significant random variation across hotels. This suggested the MLM approach was not warranted and attempts to model the data using MLM may result in problems with model convergence. Therefore, we limited analyses to the individual level.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) using maximum likelihood estimation was used to assess model fit and test hypotheses using Mplus7. Before testing hypotheses, the factor structure was examined using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Item parcels were utilized as indicators of latent constructs. The use of parcels is common practice and has been found to have negligible effects on bias in parameter estimates and standard errors (Alhija and Wisenbaker, 2006). We averaged items with highest and lowest factor loadings to achieve three indicators for each construct for all variables except TL, given its multi-dimensionality. For TL, parcels were created across dimensions following the domain-representative approach (Kishton and Widaman, 1994).

Model fit was assessed with well-established indices including χ^2 significance test, Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Hu and Bentler (1999) argued that good fit is indicated with CFI and NNFI values between 0.90 and 0.95, and values above 0.95 indicate excellent fit. With regard to the RMSEA, values below 0.05 indicate excellent fit, whereas values between 0.05 and 0.08 indicate good fit (MacCallum *et al.*, 1996). Results of the measurement model demonstrate excellent fit with the data. χ^2 (120) = 173.46, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.03, NNFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.99. All items held significant loadings on their predicted constructs. Standardized factor loadings are indicated in Figure 2.

We assessed the fit of the hypothesized mediational model by adding paths to the measurement model. The hypothesized structural model provided excellent fit with the data χ^2 (184) = 291.91, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.04, NNFI = 0.96, CFI = 0.97. Table I
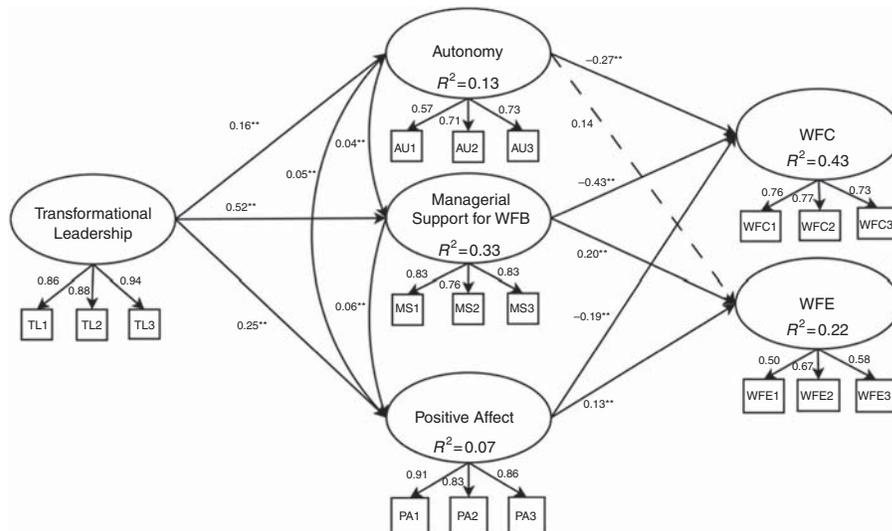
Figure 2.
Results of structural equation modeling

Note: **$p < 0.01$

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender[a]	0.55	0.49									
2. Work hours	56.40	8.84	0.21**								
3. Partnered[b]	0.93	0.26	0.16**	0.02							
4. No. children	1.15	0.76	0.08	0.00	−0.08						
5. TL	3.89	0.87	−0.09	0.00	−0.03	0.10*					
6. Autonomy	3.36	0.56	0.02	0.03	−0.07	0.16**	0.32**				
7. Managerial support for WFB	3.71	0.74	−0.02	−0.17**	−0.06	0.05	0.52**	0.30**			
8. PA	2.62	0.72	0.08	0.12*	0.01	0.05	0.24**	0.25**	0.26**		
9. WFC	3.02	0.85	−0.12*	0.21**	0.08	−0.08	−0.24**	−0.27**	−0.47**	−0.28**	
10. WFE	2.87	0.77	0.03	0.04	−0.11*	0.08	0.21**	0.19**	0.26**	0.25**	−0.19**

Notes: $n = 411$. [a]$0 =$ female, $1 =$ male; [b]$0 =$ not married/cohabitating, $1 =$ married/cohabitating; PA, positive affect; WFB, work family balance. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$

Table I.
Means, standard deviations, and correlations for all included variables

presents descriptive statistics and correlations of all included variables and the parameter estimates are displayed in Figure 2. We included work hours, gender, partnered status, and number of children as covariates, given their potential confounding effect on WFC and WFE; however, they are not represented in the figure for simplicity. Work hours ($\beta = 0.02$, $p < 0.05$), partnered status ($\beta = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$), and gender ($\beta = -0.25$, $p < 0.01$) were significant for WFC, but not for WFE. As indicated in the correlation and parameter estimates, TL was positively related to the three resource variables. Further, each of these hypothesized mediators was correlated with WFC and WFE, with the exception of the path between autonomy and WFE. Additionally, the correlations between TL and WFC ($r = -0.24$, $p < 0.01$) and to WFE ($r = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$) were significant. However, path estimates were not significant ($\beta = 0.02$, $p > 0.05$ for WFC, and $\beta = 0.02$, $p > 0.05$ for WFE) when including covariates and mediator variables, which may signify full mediation.

We followed Preacher and Hayes (2008) recommendations for using bootstrapping for the simultaneous test of multiple indirect effects within SEM. First, the total indirect effect was examined to determine if the set of resources mediates the relationship between TL and WFE/WFC. Next, individual indirect effects were examined to determine the specific effect, above and beyond the effects of the other mediators. Indirect effects of the latent constructs were calculated along with their 95 percent confidence interval (CI) using bias-corrected bootstrapping (5,000 resamples) within Mplus7. Finally, we examined paired contrasts to determine the unique ability of each variable to mediate beyond the effects of other mediators and covariates. This method is advantageous as it minimizes collinearity among multiple mediators and does not assume normal distribution of indirect effects, by allowing the paths among mediators to be estimated. Although we did not hypothesize relationships among mediators, they were estimated and included in Figure 2.

Indirect effects and paired contrasts are displayed in Table II. The total indirect effects were significant for both dependent variables. The indirect effect of TL on WFC via all three proposed resources was significant, beyond the effects of covariates and the other mediators, providing support for *H1a, H2a,* and *H3a*. Examination of the pairwise contrast effects suggest the indirect effect of managerial support for work-family balance was larger than the indirect effect of autonomy and positive affect. Together, the covariates and mediators explained 43 percent of the variance in WFC.

The 95 percent CI for the indirect effect of TL on WFE via autonomy included zero. As such, *H1b* was not supported. However, the indirect effects of positive affect and managerial support for work-family balance were significant, providing support for *H2b* and *3b*. Examination of the pairwise contrast effects suggests that the effect of managerial support for work-family balance was marginally larger than the effect of autonomy and positive affect. Together, the covariates and mediators explained 22 percent of the variance in WFE.

Discussion
Summary and implications for theory
The aim of the present study was to examine the role of resources (job, personal, and social) as mediators of the relationships between TL and WFC/WFE. Generally, the results supported most of the relationships in the model.

Implications for TL theory. It is noteworthy that TL was negatively related to WFC and positively related to WFE, when mediator variables were not included. This supports previous research linking TL and WFC (Munir *et al.*, 2012), and extends it to

	Estimate	95% CI (lower)	95% CI (upper)
Indirect effects TL→mediator→WFC			
Sum of indirect effect	−0.37	−0.49	−0.27
H1a: autonomy	−0.05	−0.10	−0.01
H2a: positive affect	−0.05	−0.10	−0.01
H3a: managerial support WF	−0.27	−0.37	−0.16
Contrasts			
Autonomy vs PA	0.00	−0.05	0.06
Autonomy vs Support	0.18	0.09	0.30
Support vs. PA	0.18	0.09	0.29
Indirect effects TL→mediator→WFE			
Sum of indirect	0.24	0.13	0.35
H1b: autonomy	0.03	−0.03	0.10
H2b: positive affect	0.05	0.01	0.10
H3b: managerial support for wfb	0.16	0.06	0.26
Contrasts			
Autonomy vs PA	−0.01	−0.07	0.04
Autonomy vs support	−0.08	−0.18	0.00
Support vs PA	−0.07	−0.15	0.00

Notes: PA, positive affect; WFB, work family balance. $n = 411$

Mediators of transformational leadership

463

Table II.
Indirect effects for all proposed tests of mediation

include WFE. Behaviors such as identifying with one's followers, providing a strong, appealing vision, encouraging followers to think for themselves, and taking followers' needs into consideration (Bass and Avolio, 1994) may translate into gains not only in the workplace, but also for employees' family lives. TL was also positively associated with job, personal, and social resources. These findings highlight the relevance of resource-based views of leadership (Perry *et al.*, 2010) and the role resources play in understanding the effect of TL on follower outcomes (Breevaart *et al.*, 2013). Additionally, whereas there is support in previous research for relationships with TL and autonomy (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006) and positive affect (Bono *et al.*, 2007), to our knowledge, we were the first to empirically demonstrate the association between TL and support for work-family balance. This finding highlights the supportive nature of TL (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004) as well Straub's (2012) assertion regarding the proposed supportiveness for employees' work-family responsibilities by transformational leaders.

Implications for work-family theory. Resource variables differentially mediated the relationship between TL and WFC and WFE, underscoring the related, yet distinct, nature of these constructs (Carlson *et al.*, 2006). The present study further adds to empirical tests of Greenhaus and Powell's model of WFE (Siu *et al.*, 2010). Managerial support for work-family balance was a significant mediator for both WFE and WFC, and showed the strongest effects of all mediators. This makes sense given this resource variable can be considered a boundary-spanning resource, whereas the others resource variables were specific to the work domain (Voydanoff, 2005). Autonomy, a job resource, was a significant mediator for WFC only. Perhaps autonomy is not as important in itself, but rather, serves as a proxy for perceptions of control (Thompson and Prottas, 2005), which better explains these relationships. Factors of autonomy directly related to work-family management, such as flexibility in scheduling, may produce stronger results.

Study limitations
Our empirical findings are based on a restricted sample of hotel managers. Because the hotel industry – with its emphasis on 24/7 customer service – may differ from some other industries, it is necessary to conduct additional research to generalize to a more representative population. Similarly, because we focusaed at the managerial level, we are unable to discern whether such findings would replicate for lower (e.g. hourly employees) or higher-level (e.g. corporate executives) positions. Furthermore, there are significant limitations in tests of mediation when using cross-sectional data. The results presented here should be interpreted as correlational, not causational. Research using longitudinal data is needed for more conclusive evidence. Finally, the coefficient α for WFE in the present study was slightly less than desirable and the results for this scale should be interpreted with greater caution. Typically, low reliability in the dependent variable inflates the standard error, which increases Type II error and decreases the likelihood of finding significant effects (Schmidt and Hunter, 1996). Therefore, the effects we found may have been underestimated, rather than overestimated. Furthermore, the use of latent variables in SEM helps to mitigate negative effects.

Additionally, because all data was self-reported, common-method variance may be problematic. Drawing from recommendations by Podsakoff *et al.* (2012) we attempted to reduce method bias procedurally by varying the response format and introducing proximal separation between constructs with others scales not included in this study. Further, we attempted to increase participants' motivation to answer honestly by explaining that we "want to hear their story" and highlighting how the broader study was working toward a goal of helping employees to better manage their own work and families.

Future research directions
In addition to addressing the limitations of the current study, future research could expand the current model in several ways. It would be interesting include other variables such as family-to-work conflict and enrichment, work-family fit, and work-family balance (Voydanoff, 2005). Additionally, the model could be extended to include additional resource variables such as self-efficacy, social capital, material resources, and environmental resources (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006).

Future research might consider a more dynamic approach to the study of resources by considering how resources build on each other. Broaden-and-build theory describes how experiencing positive emotions builds other resources (Fredrickson, 2001). Similarly, COR theory identifies resource caravans or gain spirals in which individuals strive to use resources to accumulate additional resources. Indeed, our data suggested significant relationships among the mediators.

Finally, additional factors might moderate some of these relationships. For example, the job demands-resources model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007) addresses the interactive effects of both resources and job demands. This may be more important for WFC than WFE as Voydanoff (2004) suggested that work demands were primary predictors of WFC, whereas work resources were primary predictors of WFE. Given the importance of role modeling in TL theory, it may be interesting to consider the influence of the leader's own work-family management (Carlson *et al.*, 2011; O'Neill *et al.*, 2009).

Practical and societal implications
Leadership is one of the primary factors contributing to employees' experience in the workplace (Arnold *et al.*, 2007); these findings also extend its influence to family life, as well. Interventions may prove a worthwhile pursuit as they can effectively enhance TL

(Dvir *et al.*, 2002) and family-supportive supervisor behaviors (Hammer *et al.*, 2011). For example, a recent intervention on grocery store managers focussed primarily on concrete behaviors manager could easily implement, such as increasing the frequency of speaking to employees and asking about their families (Hammer *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, interventions to increase TL have included a five-day seminar (Dvir *et al.*, 2002) and one-day group session with follow-up individual sessions (Barling *et al.*, 1996).

It is vital for organizations to minimize the work-family stress experienced by employees – the cost of not doing so may be high for employers and society at large. Previous research suggests that hotel employee stress is linked to negative physical health symptoms, lower job satisfaction, and greater turnover intentions (O'Neill and Davis, 2011). Practically, this finding means that reducing WFC may result in savings to employers through reduced employee health-care costs and costs associated with turnover and an unmotivated staff. Although there have not been many studies evidencing returns for organizations on WFE, it is expected that promoting WFE yields benefits for the organization – and society – given the theoretical link with functioning in both domains (Wayne *et al.*, 2007). Although the hypothesized model needs to be further validated, the implications for promoting positive work-family management remain. This study constructs a foundation for future integration of leadership and work-family literatures through a resource perspective.

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