

FROM SUFFERING FIRM TO SUFFERING FAMILY? HOW PERCEIVED FIRM PERFORMANCE RELATES TO MANAGERS' WORK-TO-FAMILY CONFLICT

ABSTRACT

This study draws from the Conservation of Resources theory and Job Demands-Resources model to analyze how perceived organizational performance relates to managers' work-to-family conflict. We then explore how sources of supervisor support modify this relationship. Our study of 182 managers reveals that poor perceived organizational performance is significantly related to greater work-to-family conflict. We also find that while sources of supervisor support tend to lessen the work-to-family conflict of managers who perceive strong organizational performance, they tend to have little benefit for those who perceive poor organizational performance. Only high time availability was shown to buffer the negative relationship between perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict. Our results therefore highlight the need to consider an organization's perceived performance when studying managers' attitudes and career outcomes.

Keywords: *work-to-family conflict; organizational performance; conservation of resources theory; job demands-resources model; managers*

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1. INTRODUCTION

Managers are increasingly pressured by their organizations to devote as many hours to work as possible, which has led to them being particularly vulnerable to experiencing work-to-family conflict, a key form of stress (Burke & Cooper, 2008; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Poelmans, 2005; Powell, Greenhaus, Allen, & Johnson, 2019). Indeed, the management position has been described as one of the most stressful organizational jobs, akin to a 'pressure cooker,' because managers are charged with meeting their organization's strategic goals (Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002; Waller, 2010) and are often the most frequent targets for layoffs when those goals are not reached (Luthans & Sommer, 1999). For example, an Employee Outlook 2011-2012 survey of middle managers reported that half feel excessive pressure to meet strategic goals and almost a third worry about job security due to financial pressures. In light of escalating financial, market, and job insecurity from the global economy as well as changes in technology that encourage managers to stay connected to work during nonwork hours, work-to-family conflict has therefore become a serious concern across the globe (Kossek et al., 2011; Powell et al., 2019). Further, given the war for managerial talent that organizations are facing (Kossek et al., 2011), it is important to investigate how organizations can help alleviate managers' work-to-family conflict amidst the presence of organizational performance pressures.

Work-to-family conflict poses a threat to both managers and their organizations because it has been linked to individual outcomes such as burnout, depression, hypertension, and substance abuse (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Frone, 2000; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997; Kossek & Lee, 2017) and organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, job performance, absenteeism, affective organizational commitment, and turnover intentions (Allen, Herst,

Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Collins, 2001; Kinman & Jones, 2001; Kossek & Lee, 2017; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

Work-to-family conflict research extends role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964) by investigating the conflicts that occur between work and family roles (Carlson & Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). It also builds on resource drain theory, which views resources like time, energy and attention as finite, by demonstrating how resources applied in one domain, work or family, diminish those available in the other domain (Edwards & Rothbard, 2005; Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh, & Reilly, 1995). Work-to-family conflict thus captures the negative emotions, attitudes and behaviors that arise when work and family demands are mutually incompatible (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Martins et al., 2002). Many studies have sought to identify the strongest predictors of work-to-family conflict. Common antecedents include personality (e.g. internal locus of control, regulatory focus), work characteristics (e.g. task variety, job autonomy), work role involvement (i.e. work centrality, career salience), work role stressors (e.g. role ambiguity, role overload), and work social support (e.g. supervisor support, coworker support) (Byron, 2005; Chen & Powell, 2012; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Kossek et al., 2011; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011). In particular, researchers have called for more attention on sources of supervisor support (Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2012; Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998) and job insecurity (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Richter, Näswall, & Sverke, 2010; Voydanoff, 2004) in understanding work-to-family conflict.

While sources of supervisor support have been shown to reduce work-to-family conflict (Culbertson, Huffman, & Alden-Anderson, 2009; Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Kossek et al., 2011), it is not known if such support is also effective when managers perceive their organization as performing poorly. For managers, poor organizational

performance may be seen as a threat to their job security, financial well-being, and the stability of their family that thereby increases their work-to-family conflict. Therefore, our study seeks to explore what types of supervisor support are most effective in reducing the work-to-family conflict of managers who perceive their organization as performing poorly.

Perceived organizational performance refers to employees' perception of how their organization is performing in regards to profitability and growth. Drawing from Conservation of Resources theory (COR) (Hobfoll, 1989) and the Job Demands- Resources model (JD-R) (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001), we argue that poor perceived organizational performance serves as a stressor that triggers work-to-family conflict. We then explore how sources of supervisor support can help alleviate this effect since research suggests that a supportive supervisor and positive supervisor relations are important resources that reduce work-to-family conflict (Culbertson et al., 2009; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Kossek et al., 2011). Indeed, support from one's supervisor is one of the most common buffers against stress (Roskies & Lazarus, 1980; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). Given our focus on managers' perceived organizational performance, we chose sources of supervisor support associated with trust, fairness and control since they help to reduce a sense of uncertainty, which is at the heart of stress (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Judge & Colquitt, 2004). We surmise that such sources of support help managers feel that their organization cares for them and appreciates their contributions, thereby moderating the relationship between perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict. Specifically, we consider four dimensions of organizational justice related to managers' relationship with their supervisor and also time availability, recognition and nonrestrictive monitoring which are heavily determined by one's supervisor.

Our study aims to make several contributions to the literature. First, we contribute to the literature on work-to-family conflict by demonstrating that managers' perceived

organizational performance has a significant negative relationship with their work-to-family conflict. We therefore identify perceived organizational performance as an important stressor associated with managers' work-to-family conflict. Second, we contribute to research applying COR and JD-R by demonstrating how a negative stressor can overshadow the buffering effect of resources. We drew from these theories in developing our hypotheses because of their focus on how threats to resources increase stress and their emphasis on how accumulated resources can buffer against stress. However, contrary to expectations, our findings reveal that multiple sources of supervisor support previously shown to buffer work-to-family conflict are only effective when managers perceive their organization to have a strong performance. We therefore add to the limited amount of research that has proposed that social support can actually be taxing rather than beneficial when it does not fit situational needs and takes personal time and energy to receive from another (Gudmunson, Danes, Werbel, & Loy, 2009; Hobfoll & Spielberger, 1992). As such, our study highlights the importance of considering an organization's performance when studying how sources of supervisor support benefit employees.

2. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS AND HYPOTHESES

2.1 Work-to-family Conflict and Conservation of Resources Theory

Due to an increase in dual-earner households, the number of hours employees work, and technology that keeps employees tethered to their work (Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2000; Michel et al., 2011), the study of work-to-family conflict has increased over the last decade (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Kossek et al., 2011). Rooted in role theory (Kahn et al., 1964), the work-to-family conflict literature draws from theories of resource scarcity and resource drain to propose that work and family demands lead to negative emotions, attitudes and behaviors because these demands are mutually incompatible

(Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Martins et al., 2002). Work-to-family conflict is often depicted as a type of role stress since it reflects a state in which an individual's resources are threatened and depleted (Eby et al., 2005). Conflict can occur from work-to-family whereby participation in the family role is made difficult due to work demands, or from family-to-work whereby participation in the work role is made difficult due to family demands (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrin, 1996). This is because those who spend time and mental energy in one domain will have less cognitive resources available to cope with competing demands in the other domain. Since sources of stress and support in the work domain more strongly predict work-to-family conflict whereas those in the family domain more strongly predict family-to-work conflict (Michel et al., 2011), our interest in studying the effects of perceived organizational performance led us to focus on work-to-family conflict.

Because individuals have a fixed amount of time and energy, greater demands at work increase the likelihood for work-to-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In turn, research has linked work-to-family conflict to poor job performance, turnover intentions, absenteeism and low organizational commitment (Greenhaus et al., 2001; Kinnunen, Feldt, Mauno, & Rantanen, 2010; Netemeyer, Maxham, & Pullig, 2005). For example, work-to-family conflict is believed to lower job performance because the process of juggling work and family demands leads to a scarcity of resources (e.g. time and energy) that prevents optimal job performance (Hoobler, Hu, & Wilson, 2010).

While several meta-analyses have investigated the antecedents of work-to-family conflict (Allen et al., 2012; Kossek et al., 2011; Michel et al., 2011; Shockley & Singla, 2011), no known study has considered how the perceived performance of one's organization plays a role. Such an omission is surprising given findings that suggest that organizational layoffs, job insecurity, and downsizing increase work-to-family conflict (Burke & Greenglass, 1999;

Virick, Lilly, & Casper, 2007). Managers' perceived organizational performance may be important in understanding their work-to-family conflict since a sense of job insecurity and uncertainty about one's future tend to disrupt how one feels about their work situation (Murphy, Burton, Henagan, & Briscoe, 2013), creating strain that increases work-to-family conflict (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998). Indeed, research on threat-rigidity highlights how a threat to one's work environment leads individuals to become preoccupied with thoughts about an impending loss or possible costs (Staw, Sandelands, & Dutton, 1981). Accordingly, we drew from Hobfoll's Conservation of Resources (COR) theory and the Job Demands-Resource model (JD-R Model) to explore how an organization's perceived performance relates to managers' work-to-family conflict, and how sources of supervisor support may alter this relationship.

COR theory and the JD-R model are two fundamental frameworks in the stress literature that explain how individuals seek to gather, protect and apply resources in their efforts to manage stressful situations. In particular, COR theory explains how stress develops when individuals face a threat of loss to resources, an actual loss of resources, or fail to gain expected resources (Hobfoll, 1989; Wu, Yim, Kwan, & Zhang, 2012). A basic tenet of COR theory is that the way in which employees respond to stressful situations depends on the resources they have accumulated as well as their ability to draw from, develop, and apply those resources. The JD-R model extends COR theory by explaining how job demands tax personal resources over time, thus increasing stress (Demerouti et al., 2001). More specifically, the JD-R model is a theory of occupational stress that takes into account how an occupation's specific work characteristics can be classified as either job demands or job resources. The model explains that when employees face high emotional demands at work, the importance of support in alleviating stress intensifies (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Taken together, COR theory and the JD-R model suggest that under stressful conditions, the value of

resources becomes more salient as employees attempt to use resources to cope with stress. The frameworks also suggest that greater demands and stress at work require individuals to apply resources in this domain leaving less resources to apply in other areas like the family domain (Hall, Dollard, Tuckey, Winefield, & Thompson, 2010; Kossek et al., 2011).

2.2 *The Influence of Perceived Organizational Performance*

Due to escalating financial, market, and job insecurity from the global economy, managers are experiencing more and more workplace stress (Kossek et al., 2011). For example, recent reports highlight how many managers express anxiety regarding job security, opportunities for career progression (CIPD, 2012), and intense stress about the future of their organization due to increasing global competition and economic pressures (TowersWatson, 2012). Managers may be especially affected when their organization is suffering from poor performance since they are often charged with meeting organizational goals and blamed when the organization struggles to meet performance targets. During prolonged problems with organizational performance, there are often management layoffs (Luthans & Sommer, 1999) and significant downsizing (Alakent & Lee, 2010). For example, amidst economic decline, employees are likely to form fears about job security that disrupt how they evaluate their particular work situation (Murphy et al., 2013). Indeed, research integrating COR theory and regulatory focus theory argues that for individuals focusing on the prevention of a resource loss, the need to be highly engrossed and absorbed in work intensifies their work-to-family conflict (Chen & Powell, 2012). Further, these researchers called for studies to explore how an organization may be able to influence employees' regulatory focus; that is, whether they focus more on achieving gains and positive outcomes or avoiding losses and seeking security (Chen & Powell, 2012). Accordingly, organizations that are perceived as performing poorly, for example those which are seen as not reaching financial targets and suffering from slow

growth, may push their managers to focus their attention on preventing resource loss and obtaining job security, thus intensifying their work-to-family conflict.

Indeed, research drawing from COR theory emphasizes how job insecurity serves as an indirect threat to multiple resources including employment, financial well-being, and social status (Richter et al., 2010; Schreurs, van Emmerik, Notelaers, & De Witte, 2010; Smithson, Lewis, & Brannen, 1998). Job insecurity is depicted as a strain-based work demand that increases work-to-family conflict because of the uncertainty and stress it creates that make it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities (Burke & Greenglass, 2001; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998) and also its potential threat to a family's financial stability (Voydanoff, 2004; Witte, 1999). Further, the cognitive resource framework (Pugh, Skarlicki, & Passell, 2003) explains how worry can immobilize an employee and cause the employee to become intensely concerned about self-preservation. As such, when managers perceive the performance of their organization to be poor, they will likely become mentally preoccupied with it because they will see it as a threat to their livelihood and careers. Further, because managers are often responsible for meeting organizational goals and increasing their firm's performance (Martins et al., 2002; Waller, 2010), they are likely to be concerned when their organization's performance declines.

We therefore argue that how managers view their organization's performance may be key in understanding their work-to-family conflict since poor organizational performance not only threatens their job, but also their workload, salary, and career progression as well as their family's financial stability. Accordingly, since COR theory and the JD-R model propose that self-preservation is universally valued, and when threatened, is a salient resource loss (Hobfoll, 2001), we argue that poor perceived organizational performance works as a stressor that increases managers' work-to-family conflict. That is, because managers are likely to spend time and mental energy worrying about the performance of their organization when

they see it as poor, those in struggling organizations will be less able to use cognitive resources to cope with competing work and family demands, thereby leading to greater work-to-family conflict. Although we recognize that some managers (e.g., highly sought-after managers) may have other ways to react to poor organizational performance, such as leaving their organization to join a more successful one, the intention to leave their current organization should invoke a degree of stress that increases their work-to-family conflict. Indeed, in line with COR theory, research has shown that intentions to quit an organization is an indicator of stress; that is, high levels of stress are significantly associated with intra- and inter-occupational voluntary turnover (e.g., de Croon, Sluiter, Blonk, Broersen, & Frings-Dresen, 2004). We therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Managers' perceived organizational performance is negatively related to their work-to-family conflict.

2.3 The Moderating Influences of Supervisor Support

In extending COR and the JD-R model to our study of how perceived organizational performance relates to managers' work-to-family conflict, we sought to include resources that could buffer how the perceived performance of their organization influences work-to-family conflict. Because sources of supervisor support act as buffers to dampen the deleterious effects of stress and help individuals to cope with work demands (Burke & Greenglass, 2001; Cohen & Wills, 1985; Kossek et al., 2011), we focus on several factors that capture managers' relationship with their supervisor. Indeed, a key resource that is often considered in research applying COR theory and the JD-R model to work settings is the support of one's supervisor (Bouckenoghe, De Clercq, & Deprez, 2014; Demerouti, Bouwman, & Sanz-Vergel, 2011; Hobfoll, 2002). When supervisors treat their subordinates with dignity and respect, the employee is likely to feel protected and valued. In contrast, when employees feel their supervisor treats them unfairly, they are likely to sense a threat to their psychological and physical functioning (Cropanzano, Goldman, & Benson, 2005; Eib, von Thiele Schwarz, &

Blom, 2015) and doubt their ability to cope with work demands (Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Vermunt & Steensma, 2001). Accordingly, when considering supervisors as providers of security and stability, research suggests that justice should be considered (Bouckenooghe et al., 2014; Campbell, Perry, Maertz, Allen, & Griffeth, 2013) as well as factors that reflect the appreciation for employees' achievement and trust in their abilities (Culbertson et al., 2009).

More specifically, while research applying COR theory and the JD-R model propose that positive, supportive interactions between an employee and supervisor act as resources that help employees reduce stress and manage job demands, they also acknowledge that negative, dysfunctional interactions act as stressors that produce and increase stress (Bouckenooghe et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 2001). Sources of supervisor support act as buffers that dampen the deleterious effects of stress and help individuals cope with work demands (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Kossek et al., 2011). Conversely, negative relationships with one's supervisor, especially when rooted in injustice, are often seen as the strongest triggers of stress (Eib et al., 2015; Judge & Colquitt, 2004). Indeed, Judge and Colquitt (2004) described the four dimensions of justice as a source of support or stress; that is, fairness is portrayed as reflecting supervisor support and unfairness is portrayed as a stressor and source of strain. Accordingly, in extending COR theory and the JD-R model to our study on how supervisor support serves as a buffer to minimize the negative relationship between managers' perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict, we begin by considering the four dimensions of justice. We then expand our view of supervisor support by considering elements associated with trust and control since they foster a sense of autonomy, appreciation, and security that can help individuals cope with stress (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Demerouti et al., 2011; Eib et al., 2015; LePine, LePine, & Jackson, 2004).

2.4 *Justice as a Source of Supervisor Support*

In considering sources of support that supervisors can display, justice is important since fairness acts as a resource to reduce strain (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Lind & Van den Bos, 2002) and helps to create positive organizational attitudes and behaviors (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). A sense of fairness helps employees manage their reactions to uncertain situations and creates feelings of security and stability. Justice reaffirms an employee's sense of status and self-esteem (Tyler & Blader, 2000) which should serve as a resource when managers are concerned with the performance of their organization. In our investigation of justice, we consider the four dimensions studied by Judge and Colquitt (2004) in their study of work-to-family conflict: distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice.

Forms of justice are valued resources because they provide information that facilitates employees' navigation of uncertain work situations (Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Lind & Van den Bos, 2002). Our basic tenet is that because justice encourages employees to trust their supervisor and organization (Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Lind, 2001; Lind & Van den Bos, 2002) and to feel valued for their contributions to the organization (Colquitt, 2001; Eib et al., 2015), the ill-effects of poor perceived organizational performance on work-to-family conflict should dampen. Just and fair behaviors are therefore seen as gestures of goodwill by one's supervisor and a well-functioning organization, thus contributing to employees' replenishment of resources that help them to cope with stress (Cole, Bernerth, Walter, & Holt, 2010). In other words, for managers worrying about the performance of their organization, displays of justice by their supervisor will help them cope with stress thereby lessening the extent to which work spills over to their family life. In contrast, perceptions of injustice impose severe demands on employees and cause a depletion of resources that increases employees' susceptibility to stress (Cole et al., 2010).

Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of outcome distributions (Greenberg, 1987), especially salary or benefits (Colquitt et al., 2001) but can also include job titles, promotions and assigned duties. A distribution is perceived as fair if it is consistent with allocation norms such as equity (Adams, 1965; Colquitt et al., 2001). Equity theory postulates that individuals are less concerned about the *absolute* level of outcomes than whether the outcomes are *fair* (Colquitt et al., 2001). Organizational members thus compare their own input/output ratio to that of other employees within their reference frame, for example with others working in similar positions. If the ratio is perceived as equal, equity is perceived and the situation is regarded as fair (Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1990). Research applying COR theory proposes that when distributions are seen as equitable, employees perceive their investment in the organization (e.g. time, effort) as positive which serves as a resource to buffer against strain (Campbell et al., 2013). Therefore, feeling that one's supervisor distributes rewards fairly should be beneficial in reducing the work-to-family conflict of managers with poor perceived organizational performance since they are likely to be worried about their future prospects regarding salary, benefits and promotions in light of their organization's poor performance. In contrast, managers who lack distributive justice, are likely to have more difficulties coping with the perceived poor performance of their organization and thus, experience greater work-to-family conflict.

Hypothesis 2a: The negative relationship between managers' perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict is moderated by distributive justice such that the relationship weakens as justice increases.

Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness in the way decisions are made and how outcomes are allocated (Colquitt et al., 2001; Walumbwa, Cropanzano, & Hartnell, 2009). Procedural justice reflects a sense of consistency, lack of bias and accuracy (Thibaut & Walker, 1975) and therefore, serves as a resource by making long-term outcomes feel more controllable and predictable (Cole et al., 2010; Judge & Colquitt, 2004). When employees

perceive the availability of resources and their allocation as fair, they are likely to feel supported by their supervisor and the organization (Hobfoll, 2001). Additionally, supervisors that consider the views and input of their subordinates are likely to be responsive to work-family concerns (Judge & Colquitt, 2004). As such, supervisors who demonstrate procedural justice should help managers deal with the stress associated with poor perceived organizational performance, thereby lessening the extent to which it increases their work-to-family conflict. In contrast, COR theory proposes that when individuals perceive a lack of input or control regarding outcomes related to their work investments, resource loss is experienced (Westman, Hobfoll, Chen, Davidson, & Laski, 2005). Indeed, procedural justice violations are associated with forms of emotional distress, resentment and anger (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005). Therefore, managers with poor perceived organizational performance should experience less work-to-family conflict when they see their supervisors as procedurally just.

Hypothesis 2b: The negative relationship between managers' perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict is moderated by procedural justice such that the relationship weakens as justice increases.

Interpersonal justice describes individuals' perception of how fair and respectful their supervisor has treated them during organizational communications and procedures (Colquitt, 2001; Karriker & Williams, 2009; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Supervisors perceived as demonstrating high interpersonal justice show sincerity and respect that facilitate trust with subordinates (Lind, 2001; Lind & Van den Bos, 2002). As such, when supervisors are seen as being interpersonally just, their subordinates feel supported and valued which improve their wellbeing (Campbell et al., 2013; Hobfoll, 2001). In this way, supervisors who treat employees fairly serve as an important resource for employees (Campbell et al., 2013) because they help them build a sense of dignity and self-worth (Cole et al., 2010). Interpersonal justice therefore serves as a resource that helps managers deal with the stress

associated with poor perceived organizational performance, thereby lessening the extent to which their work infringes on their family life. Conversely, when supervisors do not treat their subordinates with dignity and respect, they are likely to feel intense anxiety and relational strain that undermines their sense of psychological safety and stability (Bouckennooghe et al., 2014). For these managers, the negative relationship between perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict should intensify because they lack interpersonal trust and fairness with their supervisors.

Hypothesis 2c: The negative relationship between managers' perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict is moderated by interpersonal justice such that the relationship weakens as justice increases.

Finally, informational justice refers to the accuracy and timeliness of the information provided to employees during procedures and outcome distributions (Greenberg, 1993; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Informational justice is argued to be a resource because open, trustworthy and honest communication with one's supervisor enhances an employee's self-evaluations and self-worth (Cole et al., 2010). Such positive emotions and feelings of support should be particularly beneficial to the work-to-family conflict of managers perceiving their organization as performing poorly. In contrast, when employees lack the necessary information to perform their jobs, they are likely to experience ambiguity and uncertainty (Bies & Moag, 1986). Low informational justice also hurts employees' self-esteem and trust in organizational leadership (Colquitt, 2001). Accordingly, for managers who perceive poor organizational performance, a lack of informational justice should hamper their ability to perform their job and achieve organizational goals which is likely to increase their work-to-family conflict. Therefore, we propose that perceptions of informational justice dampen the negative relationship between managers' perceived organizational performance and their work-to-family conflict.

Hypothesis 2d: The negative relationship between managers' perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict is moderated by informational justice such that the relationship weakens as justice increases.

Research also suggests that factors that produce a sense of achievement (LePine et al., 2004), autonomy and trust (Demerouti et al., 2011; Mayer & Gavin, 2005) can act as resources that help managers cope with work and family demands. Therefore, in attempting to develop an encompassing view of supervisor support, we also consider time availability, recognition, and nonrestrictive monitoring.

2.5 Time availability as a Source of Supervisor Support

A main aspect of work-to-family conflict is the competing demand for managers' time from both spheres – work and family (Frone et al., 1992; Netemeyer et al., 2005). Research demonstrates that control over when work needs to be performed and having the appropriate time available to meet work obligations are critical resources that should lessen work-to-family conflict (Kossek & Lambert, 2004). More specifically, amidst poor perceived organizational performance, time availability should be an important resource in lessening work-to-family conflict. In line with COR theory and the JD-R model, supervisors who grant greater time availability to managers are therefore expected to be an increasingly important resource to managers as their perception of the organization's performance declines.

For example, in predicting burnout and work engagement, the JD-R model characterizes time availability as a key resource that offers employees a sense of control over their work responsibilities and helps them feel they can accomplish their work goals within an appropriate time frame. In contrast, excessive and irregular work hours infringe on an employee's ability to fully recover from job stress (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Demerouti et al., 2001). Greater time availability should therefore help managers who perceive poor organizational performance to gain a greater sense of control over their work, thereby lessening their work-to-family conflict. Further, research drawing from COR theory and the

JD-R model suggests that when additional time is required to perform one's work, an employee has fewer resources available to meet family responsibilities (Hall et al., 2010). Thus, for managers who perceive poor perceived organizational performance, a supportive supervisor who promotes greater time availability is predicted to be a resource that lessens work-to-family conflict.

Hypothesis 3: The negative relationship between managers' perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict is moderated by time availability such that the relationship weakens as time availability increases.

2.6 Perceived Recognition as a Source of Supervisor Support

Managerial careers can be regarded as a constant quest for status and rewards (Eddleston, Baldrige, & Veiga, 2004; Rosenbaum, 1979). Hence, it seems reasonable to deduce that when managers receive recognition for their work and their achievements are acknowledged by supervisors, this represents a resource that reduces the stressful impact of working conditions (Demerouti et al., 2011). That is, according to COR theory and the JD-R model, positive feedback regarding work accomplishments is a resource that prevents stress since recognition serves to promote a positive sense of self and stimulate personal development (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Hobfoll, 2001). For example, resources related to self-esteem are negatively related to emotional exhaustion and appear to make individuals more resilient towards stress (Janssen, Schaufeli, & Houkes, 1999). Appropriate recognition from one's supervisor satisfies a manager's need for status and appreciation and may thus render high job demands and the resulting resource scarcity less severe and more acceptable, thereby minimizing work-to-family conflict. Conversely, supervisors who withhold recognition and praise can damage one's self-esteem and sense of self-worth, thus increasing psychological demands at work (Hobfoll, 2011). This is in line with the effort-reward imbalance model of stress (Siegrist, 1996) that posits that stress results when employees' perceive inequity in regards to their inputs and the recognition they receive from their supervisor.

Accordingly, recognition from one's supervisor serves as a resource by providing positive feedback regarding one's work performance, which is expected to be particularly important during times of uncertainty and job insecurity (Greenglass & Burke, 2001; Kossek et al., 2011). In turn, when managers perceive their organization as performing poorly, they may respond more strongly to signs of recognition from their supervisor, thereby lessening their work-to-family conflict. In this way, recognition from one's supervisor serves as a source of support that dampens the negative relationship between perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict.

Hypothesis 4: The negative relationship between managers' perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict is moderated by perceptions of recognition such that the relationship weakens as perceived recognition increases.

2.7 Nonrestrictive Monitoring as a Source of Supervisor Support

Monitoring is an important factor to consider when studying managers' relationship with their supervisor since the monitoring of subordinates' work is a critical task of supervisors (Brewer & Genay, 1995; Stanton, 2000) that increases employee stress (Smith, Carayon, Sanders, Lim, & LeGrande, 1992). Monitoring refers to the observation of work behavior and the gathering of information related to subordinates' work effectiveness and productivity (Larson & Callahan, 1990). Although monitoring is often associated with increased performance on a task being observed (Brewer & Genay, 1995; Larson & Callahan, 1990), it also threatens an employee's sense of autonomy and control (Brewer & Genay, 1995; Michel et al., 2011). Extensive monitoring is often seen as coercive and as reflecting a lack of trust in employees (Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Stanton, 2000). It creates anxiety and stress because it infringes on employees' sense of autonomy and control and damages their intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Michel et al., 2011). Indeed, work conditions with high demands and low control are believed to confound employees' resources and to be a source of stress according to COR theory. Accordingly, research on work-to-family conflict argues that

organizations should encourage autonomy and control over one's work, and thus – minimal and nonrestrictive monitoring, in order to better help employees manage work and family demands (Kossek et al., 2011; Michel et al., 2011).

Supervisors who reduce their direct oversight and allow employees to have input in decisions and to monitor their own performance are seen as sources of support that help employees to reduce their emotional exhaustion and job-related stress (Richer, Blanchard, & Vallerand, 2002). Indeed, research applying the JD-R model suggests that control over one's own work serves as an important resource that helps to minimize stress (Demerouti et al., 2011). As such, nonrestrictive ways of monitoring may strengthen employees' perceptions of control, autonomy and trust (Deci & Ryan, 1985), and therefore serve as a resource that helps to lessen the deleterious effect of poor perceived organizational performance on work-to-family conflict. This is in line with COR theory that suggests that a work environment that promotes feelings of control, certainty and trust helps employees to accumulate resources that can be used to minimize stress (Hobfoll, 2011; Westman et al., 2005). We therefore argue that nonrestrictive monitoring dampens the negative relationship between perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict.

Hypothesis 5: The negative relationship between managers' perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict is moderated by nonrestrictive monitoring such that the relationship weakens as nonrestrictive monitoring increases.

An overview of our conceptual model is given in the figure below.

----- *Insert Figure A here* -----

3. METHOD

3.1 *Sample and Data Collection*

To compile our data set, we randomly retrieved 10,750 valid email addresses of managers from the two largest professional address data providers in Switzerland and Germany. The selection criterion was that the managers were “heads” or “directors” of various departments

(e.g., marketing, research and development, production, logistics, human resources, sales). We then sent those managers an email with a link to an online survey in October 2009, with data being collected through November 2009. Identification markers prevented multiple responses from the same individual. With one reminder email, we achieved a response rate of 9.5%. While our response rate is not ideal, studies that target managers tend to have a lower response rate than those that target non-managers (Anseel, Lievens, Schollaert, & Choragwicka, 2010; Baruch, 1999). In fact, a 10-12% response rate is not atypical for studies on managers from mid-sized firms (MacDougall & Robinson, 1990; Schulze, Lubatkin, Dino, & Buchholtz, 2001; Sikora, Ferris, & Van Iddekinge, 2015). Data on all our independent variables (including perceived organizational performance) were collected in 2009 (time 1).

Of the 1,024 respondents in 2009, 650 provided their email address. In May 2012, we sent them an email with a link to a second survey with identification markers (i.e., to collect our dependent variable at time 2). This time lag of approximately 2.5 years compares well to previous studies on work-to-family conflict. For instance, the time lag in Frone et al.'s (1997) well-cited study was almost 4 years; Hammer et al. (2005) used a one-year time lag. Thus, while clear-cut guidelines about the appropriate time lag in the work-to-family context are hard to find, we are convinced that our approach is a good compromise that balances the advantages of longer time lags (e.g., reducing common method biases and allowing sufficient time for the observed effects to unfold) and shorter time lags (e.g., accounting for relevant changes in respondents' lives and for construct volatility). We were able to retrieve 198 completed questionnaires at time 2, which corresponds to a response rate of 30.5%. We then excluded managers who indicated in 2012 that they were no longer working for the same company as in 2009 or did not have a supervisor. In other words, to be included in our study, managers needed to have a supervisor and be employed at the same organization at time 1 and time 2. Since we only utilized fully completed questionnaires for our study, our final sample

was reduced to 182 respondents; this corresponds to 28% percent of those who provided their email address at time 1. Managers' mean age was 45.03 years (S.D. = 7.67) and 23% were female. Mean tenure with the firm was 12.07 years (S.D. = 8.25 years) and 64.8% held a master's degree from a university. Average company size was 1,782 employees (S.D. = 13,176; median = 300). The most prevalent industry sectors were manufacturing (55%), service (12%), retail/wholesale trade (10%), financial services (9%), and construction (7%). Mean firm age was 75.64 years (S.D. = 82.63).

We performed two tests to explore the possibility of non-response bias. First, to test for a potential bias between those respondents who only responded in 2009 and those who responded in both 2009 and 2012, we checked for significant differences in all of our study variables. No significant differences were found for any study variables that were available for both groups. Second, we compared data from early and late respondents both in the 2009 sample and in the combined 2009 and 2012 sample using an ANOVA. This test is based on the assumption that late respondents are more similar to non-respondents than are early respondents (Oppenheim, 1966). There were no significant differences in the mean scores of the variables in both samples; non-response bias should thus not be a major concern.

3.2 Measures

If not mentioned otherwise, all items in this study were anchored at 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree) on a seven-point Likert-type scale. All measures that did not have a previously validated German version available were translated from English to German. Here, we followed the recommended back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1970) where two independent bilingual experts unfamiliar with the original scales then re-translated the items from German to English. Together with a native English speaker, the original English versions of the scales were compared with the translation. No major differences were found

for any item used in our study. In the few cases where minor differences were found, these differences were solved in discussions between the involved experts.

Work-to-family Conflict. We used 5 items based on recent works by Hoobler et al. (2009) and Carlson et al. (2000). Sample items included: “My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like” and “Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home, I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy”. A factor analysis revealed that all items load on one factor, with loadings of 0.954 or higher. A separate confirmatory factor analysis revealed a CFI of 0.903, which indicates acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The Cronbach’s Alpha for the scale was 0.92.

Organizational Justice. We used the validated German version (Maier, Streicher, Jonas, & Woschée, 2007) of Colquitt’s (2001) established justice measurement instrument. Also for the sake of consistency and comparability, we followed Maier et al. (2007) and excluded items that achieved a factor loading of less than 0.6 in our sample; these were the same items that Maier et al. (2007) had excluded. We thus used four items for distributive, five items for procedural, three items for interpersonal, and three items for informational justice. We note that this measurement instrument ties justice assessments to the respondents’ last appraisal interview, which refers to the year-end review of the managers’ performance with the supervisor. This approach is common in organizational justice research (Colquitt, 2001). We regard this approach as appropriate for the managers in our study since they all had to report to an immediate supervisor. The distributive justice items were introduced with the sentence “The following items refer to the result of your appraisal interview with your supervisor (e.g., salary, promotion, raise)”. A sample item is: "Does your appraisal interview outcome (e.g., salary, promotion, raise) reflect the effort you have put into your work?" Items were anchored from 1 = not at all to 7 = absolutely (as with all the organizational justice items). Items for procedural justice were introduced with “The following items refer to the procedures used by

your supervisor during your appraisal interview". A sample item is: "Have you been able to express your views and feelings during your last appraisal interview?" The prompt for both interpersonal and informational justice was "The following items refer to your supervisor who has conducted the appraisal interview". A sample item for interpersonal justice is: "Has he/she (your supervisor) treated you in a polite manner?". A sample item for informational justice is: "Were his/her explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?" As expected, all the items of each justice dimension loaded on only one respective factor, with item loadings of 0.63 or higher. The CFI indices for the different justice dimensions were 0.958 (distributive), 0.941 (procedural), 0.996 (interpersonal), and 0.995 (informational). Cronbach's Alphas were 0.97, 0.84, 0.97, and 0.91, respectively.

Time Availability. We used four items from Hornsby et al. (2002) which aim to capture workplace-specific conditions associated with time availability. Sample items include: "I always seem to have plenty of time to get everything done" and "I do not feel that I am always working with time constraints on my job". This measure was unidimensional, with loadings of 0.525 or higher, which is above the commonly applied threshold of 0.4 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). It achieved a CFI of 0.995, and a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.77.

Recognition. To capture our recognition dimension, we used three items from Hornsby et al. (2002). A sample item is: "My supervisor will increase my job responsibilities if I am performing well in my job". The items of this unidimensional variable exhibited loadings of at least 0.575, which led to a CFI of 0.942 and a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.77.

Nonrestrictive Monitoring. The literature offers instruments to measure the degree of monitoring, which can be seen as a stressor. Since we wanted to focus on potential resources which lessen the negative effects on work-to-family conflict, we reverse-coded four items from Chrisman et al.'s (2007) scale on monitoring. Their instrument directs respondents to

consider how their supervisor monitors and evaluates their work. Sample items include: "To assess my performance, input from other managers and subordinates is used," "In our company there is personal, direct observation" and "In our company, short-term performance is evaluated regularly". The measure was shown to be unidimensional, with item loadings of 0.689 or higher. The CFI was 0.931 and Cronbach's Alpha was 0.70.

Perceived Organizational Performance. We asked respondents to rate their company's perceived performance over the last three years compared to their competitors in five areas: growth in sales, growth in market share, growth in profits, creation of jobs, and growth in profitability (adapted from Dess & Robinson, 1984; Eddleston, Kellermanns, & Sarathy, 2008). Performance indicators were measured on a seven-point scale ranging from worse (1) to better (7). The factor analysis extracted only one factor, with loadings of at least 0.722. The CFI was 0.996 and Cronbach's Alpha was 0.87.

We note that we relied on self-reported company performance data in our study. This is justified because when investigating how company performance is linked to managers' attitudes and behaviors, it is imperative to rely on individuals' *perception* of company performance because the same financial indicator, such as sales growth, can be interpreted differently. For example, one person might perceive 3% growth as very good, while another regards it as very poor; consequently, the effects on individuals' attitudes may be different, albeit the absolute performance indicator is the same. Hence, for our purposes, objective financial indicators did not seem appropriate; rather, the *perception* of organizational performance is what is expected to have the strongest impact on managers (Sieger, Zellweger, & Aquino, 2013). However, it should be noted that subjective perceptions of organizational performance have been found to correlate highly with objective performance data (Dess & Robinson, 1984; Love, Priem, & Lumpkin, 2002). In addition, we believe that our approach of capturing perceived organizational performance relative to competing firms is

advantageous for two main reasons. First, absolute performance perceptions might not adequately reflect the extent to which a firm is actually in crisis. That is, perceived poor absolute performance may still represent performance above industry average. Second, if a whole industry is performing poorly, perceived organizational performance allows us to capture a company's success in comparison to similar firms, regardless of the industry's overall performance. The interaction terms for testing our moderation hypotheses were calculated by multiplying the respective standardized variables.

Control Variables. Following previous empirical studies about work-to-family conflict, we control for several factors at the firm- and the individual-level. On the firm level, to account for the type of company and their competitive environment (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), we used two dummy variables that represent the most frequently mentioned industry sectors in our sample, namely manufacturing and service. Those dummy variables were coded "1" if a company is active in the respective sector, and "0" if not. In addition, we controlled for company age and size (number of full-time equivalent employees) (Frone et al., 1992). At the individual level, we controlled for respondent age and gender (Demerouti et al., 2011). To account for the family/home environment of the managers (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002), we controlled for marital status (with a dummy variable coded "1" for married and "0" otherwise) and the number of children living in the managers' household (see also Frone et al., 1992). As we measured work-to-family conflict at time 2, one should ideally control for work-to-family conflict at time 1. Since this data was not available, we included weekly working hours as a proxy for work-to-family conflict at time 1 (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998). Because stock ownership may affect managers' organization-related attitudes and behaviors, we used a dummy variable that indicates if the manager owned company stock (Daily, Dalton, & Rajagopalan, 2003). Also success-related remuneration systems might have an effect on

our variables of interest (Block & MacMillan, 1993), which led us to include it as a control with a corresponding dummy variable.

3.3 Data Quality Tests

To test the validity and distinctiveness of our measures, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis with all of our latent variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The corresponding factor structure showed an acceptable fit ($\chi^2(322) = 579.827$, CFI = 0.914, RMSEA = 0.065; TLI = 0.893; SRMR = 0.0652). Regarding CFI and TLI, values of 0.9 or higher are regarded as indicators of acceptable model fit (which we miss very slightly with the TLI index); values of 0.95 or higher represent good fit (Bentler, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999). For SRMR, a value of < 0.09 is regarded as acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). For RMSEA, a value below 0.08 can be regarded as reasonable (Byrne, 2001), and a value of < 0.06 indicates good fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The results of a one-factor structure were significantly worse ($\chi^2(350) = 2086.501$, CFI = 0.422, RMSEA = 0.161; TLI = 0.37; SRMR = 0.1487; difference in $\chi^2 = 1506.674$, difference in df = 28, $p < 0.001$). These findings illustrate that our variables are both theoretically and empirically distinguishable and mitigate common method bias concerns. To further address potential common method bias, we used the common latent factor (CLF) approach (Podsakoff et al., 2003). We allowed the items of our independent and moderator variables to load both on their theoretical constructs and on an uncorrelated common factor. Such a factor structure shows an acceptable model fit as well, with some indicators being better and some being worse than in the initial model ($\chi^2(294) = 552.189$, CFI = 0.919, RMSEA = 0.066; TLI = 0.894; SRMR = 0.076); however, model fit did not improve significantly (difference in $\chi^2 = 27,638$, difference in df = 28, $p > 0.1$). Also, all original factor loadings remained significant, and the average variance extracted by the uncorrelated method factor (AVE) was 0.188, which is below the commonly accepted threshold of 0.5. This indicates that common method bias is not a major concern in our study.

Regarding potential social desirability bias we note that respondents were assured strict confidentiality and anonymity, which reduces the tendency to provide socially desirable answers; also, our different variables were spread over the survey in order to reduce the probability that respondents anticipated the research question and adapted their answers accordingly (Podsakoff et al., 2003). We also centered our variables (Aiken & West, 1991) and found that the Variance Inflation Factor did not exceed 3.1, suggesting that multicollinearity is not a concern (Hair et al., 2006).

3.4 Results

Means, standard deviations, and Pearson correlations are presented in Table A. Similar to other studies, moderately high correlations were found between the justice dimensions (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001).

----- *Insert Table A here* -----

The results of our linear regression analyses are reported in Table B. Model 1 contains our control variables. This model shows that managers' weekly working hours are significantly and positively related to work-to-family conflict ($p < 0.05$); a positive relationship is also found for the number of children (marginally significant). In Model 2, we added our independent variable perceived organizational performance and found it to be negatively and significantly related to work-to-family conflict ($B = -0.281, p < 0.05$). This finding offers support to Hypothesis 1. Model 3 adds the main terms of our justice variables, time availability, recognition, and nonrestrictive monitoring; and in Model 4, the corresponding interaction terms with perceived organizational performance are added.

Model 4 shows that the interaction term of perceived organizational performance and distributive justice is not significant, which leads us to reject Hypothesis 2a. Hypothesis 2d was also not supported since the interaction between informational justice and perceived organizational performance did not reach significance. However, significant interaction

effects were found between perceived organizational performance and procedural justice ($B = -0.298, p < 0.05$), and interpersonal justice ($B = 0.273, p < 0.05$), providing initial support for Hypotheses 2b and 2c. Additionally, Model 4 shows significant interaction effects between perceived organizational performance and time availability ($B = 0.192, p < 0.05$), recognition ($B = -0.311, p < 0.05$), and nonrestrictive monitoring ($B = -0.223, p < 0.05$), which offer initial support for Hypotheses 3, 4, and 5.

To better understand and interpret the moderation results, we plotted the five significant interactions in the figures below (Aiken & West, 1991). As shown in Figure B, high procedural justice has a greater benefit on the work-to-family conflict of those with higher than lower perceived organizational performance, which is not fully in line with Hypothesis 2b. Additionally, the moderation effect of interpersonal justice is in the opposite direction than hypothesized (Figure C). Specifically, low interpersonal justice has a greater buffering effect on managers' work-to-family conflict than high interpersonal justice and this buffering effect increases as managers' perception of organizational performance improves.

Figure D shows that time availability more significantly benefits the work-to-family conflict of managers who perceive weak organizational performance as compared to those who perceive strong organizational performance, which is what our theory suggests. Regarding recognition, Figure E shows that recognition as a source of supervisor support has a greater effect on those with high perceived organizational performance than those with low perceived organizational performance, which does not fully match our predictions. The same non-expected pattern is found for nonrestrictive monitoring (see Figure F). We further explore these findings in our discussion section.

In addition, we assessed the Johnson-Neyman significance regions for all of our significant moderators. Specifically, the region of significance for procedural justice is 4.472-6.705, for

interactional justice it is 4.415-6.822, for time availability it is 1-3.273, for recognition it is 4.307-7, and for nonrestrictive monitoring it is 2.862-5.631.

----- *Insert Table B and Figures B, C, D, E, and F here* -----

3.5 Post-hoc Analyses and Robustness Checks

To assess the validity and stability of our findings, we conducted a few additional tests. First, we assessed whether we have enough statistical power in our data. Specifically, we conducted a power analysis using the “powerreg” command in STATA (see also Cohen, 1988) whereby we conducted two comparisons. First, we compared the model with our control variables and our independent variables (Model 2 in Table B) to a model with the control variables only (Model 1 in Table B). For this comparison, the required minimum sample size at a power level of 0.95 is 168 (we exceed this number with our sample of 182 responses). Second, we compared the full model (including interaction terms, Model 3 in Table B) to the model with the main effects only (Model 2 in Table B). Here, the required sample size at a power level of 0.85 is 178. Thus, we achieve power levels of 0.95 (Model 2 vs. Model 1) and 0.85 (Model 3 vs. Model 2), which indicates sufficient statistical power to estimate our proposed relationships (Cohen, 1988) with our sample size.

4. DISCUSSION

Given the pressure and challenges that the global economy and recent economic crisis have placed on managers, a study on how perceived organizational performance contributes to their work-to-family conflict is timely and necessary. Accordingly, our study sought to better understand how managers’ subjective evaluation of their organization’s performance serves as a stressor that triggers work-to-family conflict. Drawing from COR theory and the JD-R model, we also explored how various sources of supervisor support could buffer the negative relationship between perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict since

support from one's supervisor has been recognized as one of the most important buffers against stress at work (Cole, Daly, & Mak, 2009; Eib et al., 2015; Roskies & Lazarus, 1980; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). The sources of supervisor support we examined were the four dimensions of justice as well as time availability, recognition, and nonrestrictive monitoring. While our framework received partial support, several unexpected findings reveal the complexity of providing managers with the appropriate sources of support to buffer against work-to-family conflict amidst poor perceived organizational performance. Most noteworthy, our study highlights the importance of perceived organizational performance to managers' work-to-family conflict and how the presumed stress associated with perceived poor organizational performance can overshadow the benefits of supervisor support in alleviating work-to-family conflict. Below, we discuss our study's findings with particular emphasis on its contributions to theory and practice.

Because managers are charged with meeting organizational goals and are often blamed when their organization fails to meet performance targets (Eddleston et al., 2004; Luthans & Sommer, 1999; Waller, 2010), we surmised that the perception of their organization's performance would be related to their work-to-family conflict. Results from our study provided support for the negative relationship between perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict, suggesting that managers who see their organization as performing poorly are more likely to feel that their work is infringing on their family life. This finding is in line with Hypothesis 1 and to our knowledge, provides the first empirical study on the influence of perceived organizational performance on work-to-family conflict. This finding also supports our COR theory argument that a threat to self-preservation is associated with a sense of resource loss that ultimately increases work-to-family conflict. As such, organizations need to be aware of how their performance is viewed, particularly if their performance could be perceived as worse than reality. Our results highlight the important role

of top management in not only managing social support to managers but also influencing their perceptions in the right way. We do not want to imply that organizations should reduce social support in times of crisis. Instead we argue that organizations and their top management should be mindful of the types of performance information they share with managerial staff. This may be particularly important when facing environmental demands such as the recent global recession or competitor pressures, as well as during times of organizational change such as company restructuring and shifts in strategy. Once information creates negative impressions on how the organization's performance is doing, sources of supervisor support appear less effective in preventing work-to-family conflicts. Given the importance of perceived organizational performance to managers' work-to-family conflict, future research should explore how employees form impressions of their organization's performance and the ways organizations can foster more positive, as well as accurate, perceptions of the organization's performance.

Turning to the results regarding the moderating effects of sources of supervisor support, five out of seven of our hypothesized interactions were found to be significant. However, only one of these interactions fully reflected what we expected. Specifically, we hypothesized that each source of supervisor support would dampen the negative relationship between perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict, focusing particularly on the need for each source of supervisor support to buffer the deleterious effect of poor perceived organizational performance on managers' work-to-family conflict. While almost all of the sources of supervisor support were shown to be associated with less work-to-family conflict for managers who perceived *strong* organizational performance, only one source of supervisor support was shown to lessen the work-to-family conflict of those who perceived *poor* organizational performance. In particular, procedural justice, recognition, and nonrestrictive monitoring appear to buffer against work-to-family conflict for managers who perceive strong

organizational performance, but not for those who perceive weak organizational performance. Only time availability was found to more significantly benefit the work-to-family conflict of managers who perceive weak organizational performance vis-à-vis those who perceive strong organizational performance. Taken together, these results suggest that the stress associated with poor perceived organizational performance often precludes sources of supervisor support from benefitting managers' work-to-family conflict, particularly sources of support that are more interactional in nature such as procedural justice, recognition, and nonrestrictive monitoring. For managers who perceive poor perceived organizational performance, our study suggests that the 'best' resource a supervisor can provide to alleviate their work-to-family conflict is time availability.

From a theoretical perspective, our study adds to the limited amount of COR research that has proposed that social support can actually be taxing rather than beneficial when it does not fit situational needs and takes personal time and energy to receive from another (Gudmunson et al., 2009; Hobfoll & Spielberger, 1992). Further, it extends this research by demonstrating that the perception of one's organization appears to influence whether a source of support is beneficial or not. By extension this also suggests, that a shift in one's organizational environment (i.e. better or worse perceived organizational performance) may alter whether a source of supervisor support benefits work-to-family conflict or not. We believe these findings contribute to research on work-family conflict (see also Boyar, Maertz Jr, & Pearson, 2005; Qu & Zhao, 2012) since they highlight how sources of support are more beneficial to some managers than others based on how they perceive the performance of their organization. The findings also suggest that some sources of support will not alleviate work-to-family conflict if the manager is stressed about the performance of their organization. Building on our research, future studies should seek to identify additional sources of support that could help managers' who perceive their organization's performance as poor to better manage work

and family demands. It would also be interesting to explore other employee-related outcomes beyond work-family conflict that could be affected by perceived organizational performance, for example, psychological well-being, job satisfaction (cf. Chang & Cheng, 2014; Qu & Zhao, 2012), and organizational commitment. Additionally, future research should more fully explore why poor perceived organizational performance overshadows the benefits of various sources of supervisor support in alleviating work-to-family conflict.

Another unexpected finding was the positive moderating effect of interpersonal justice. Our findings revealed that high interpersonal justice increases the work-to-family conflict of managers who perceive both poor and strong organizational performance, although the effect was more significant for those with strong perceived organizational performance. This unexpected finding may also reflect a lack of fit between this source of supervisor support and work-to-family conflict since interpersonal justice, which reflects the degree to which employees are treated in a polite and respectful manner by their supervisor, requires time and energy to receive and reciprocate. For example, research on leader-member exchange reports that trust and respect are central and reciprocal elements of a relationship with one's leader (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). As such, managers might feel an obligation to reciprocate interpersonal justice by devoting more time and energy to their jobs and relationship with their supervisor, thereby increasing their work-to-family conflict. In other words, acts of interpersonal justice by one's supervisor may compel a manager to exert additional effort at work, leading to greater work-to-family conflict. Further, for managers who perceive strong organizational performance, their work-to-family conflict appears to be particularly augmented when supervisors display high interpersonal justice. Our findings appear to be in line with a study by Bolino and colleagues who found that for those with high job satisfaction, pressure to perform citizenship behaviors increased their work-to-family conflict (Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010). They explained that "when employees feel pressured to

perform (organizational citizenship behaviors), those who are satisfied will feel more compelled to repay their organizations than those who dislike their jobs” (838). Therefore, for managers with strong perceived organizational performance, pressures to place work demands before family in response to high interpersonal justice may be especially salient.

For practitioners, our study shows that managers’ perception of their organization’s performance is significantly related to their work-to-family conflict. It also provides novel insights into how sources of supervisor support interact with the perceived performance of the organization in regard to work-to-family conflict. Accordingly, organizations need to recognize that managers are sensitive to the perceived performance of their organization which can be a source of stress when it is seen as performing poorly. Additionally, organizations need to understand that common sources of supervisor support may not be effective in alleviating work-to-family conflict when managers are worried about the performance of their organization. As a direct practical implication from our findings, it would be ill-advised to conclude that sources of social support can be reduced in times of poor performance because they appear to have little benefit in alleviating managers’ work-to-family conflict. Instead, organizations should consider how best to inform managers about their performance and work to ensure that they do not perceive their organization’s performance worse than it really is. For example, it might be advisable to find ways to improve the organization’s future outlook and emphasize its strengths during difficult financial times in order to calm managers’ concerns. Additionally, because high time availability was shown to be an effective resource for managers who perceived their organizations as performing poorly, supervisors should be mindful of the demands they place on managers’ time when their organization’s performance appears to be suffering. In turn, as an organization’s performance improves, sources of supervisor support should be more effective in alleviating managers’ work-to-family conflict.

5. LIMITATIONS AND AVENUES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Although we have collected independent and dependent variables at different points of time, one must be still careful in drawing causal conclusions. Longitudinal research is therefore necessary to more fully explore the relationships between perceived organizational performance, sources of supervisor support, and work-to-family conflict. Indeed, research applying COR theory often recognizes reciprocal effects among stress and resource gains and drains, thus noting how loss spirals and gain spirals can occur over time (Neto et al., 2016; Nohe, Meier, Sonntag, & Michel, 2015; Westman, Hobfoll, Chen, Davidson, & Laski, 2004).

We also note that the 2.5 years time lag between the two data collection waves might be questioned. For instance, some might perceive it as being too long, as work-to-family conflict might be affected by changes in personal and family circumstances. To check for this possibility, we compared the marital status of our respondents in 2009 and 2012 and found that all respondents who had been married in 2009 were still married in 2012. This indicates that family relationships seem to have been stable in that period. Moreover, as mentioned in our methodology section, well-cited studies on work-to-family conflict that used two data collection waves applied time lags between one and four years (Frone et al., 1997; Hammer et al., 2005). Thus, we believe that there is no serious indication that our findings are questionable due to our time lag. Nevertheless, we call for future studies to investigate both shorter and longer time lags with similar variables. Ideally, panel data might offer additional insights on causal connections between the described effects. In addition, we note that work-to-family conflict was assessed only at time 2 although it would have been preferable to also assess it during time 1. While not optimal, we attempted to alleviate this shortcoming by incorporating a relevant proxy; specifically, we controlled for the number of hours worked per week at time 1. However, future research should replicate our study by capturing work-to-family conflict at both points in time. Additionally, because we did not directly capture if a

manager's supervisor had changed between time 1 and time 2 in order to ensure anonymity, future research should investigate if a change in supervisor affects our study's results.

The low response rate of our study should also be noted as a limitation. Because we relied on randomly retrieved email addresses of managers from two professional data providers, we were not able to capitalize on any type of affiliation relationship with the potential respondents (e.g. affiliation with a university or institution), which research shows improves response rates (Newby, Watson, & Woodliff, 2003). However, it should be noted that our response rate is in line with other studies on managers and executives. Indeed, Schulze, Lubatkin, Dino and Buchholtz (2001) explained that a 10-12% response rate is typical for studies that target managers. Similarly, other research has reported low response rates from managers and executives. For example, Simsek, Lubatkin, Veiga and Dino (2009) had 11%, Sikora, Ferris and Van Iddekinge (2015) had 5.1%, and Kulik and Perry (2008) had 5%. Further, Anseel et al.'s study on response rates (2010) noted that "A low response rate does not necessarily entail non-response bias. Similarly, a high response rate in comparison to the guidelines reported in this study, does not mean that the sample characteristics are unbiased" (348). Therefore, as outlined in our methodology section, we performed several tests that indicated that non-response bias is not a concern in our study. Additionally, we performed a power analysis to determine if our sample size provides enough statistical power to test our hypotheses. As explained in our methodology section, our sample meets the requirements of the power analysis.

Another limitation is that our findings may not be fully generalizable to other countries, as Germany and Switzerland are rather individualistic countries (Hofstede, 2001). Societies with lower overall levels of individualism might be more effective in buffering the detrimental effects of organizational performance downturns by means of collective support. We therefore

encourage researchers to compare the effects of perceived organizational performance on work-to-family conflict and other forms of stress across countries.

We hope that our study and its intriguing findings inspire other scholars in numerous ways. We strongly encourage future research to explore how perceived organizational performance affects employees' attitudes and behaviors and to identify other sources of support that benefit work-to-family conflict during times of poor organizational performance. One example might be to examine how supervisors' different leadership styles affect managers' work-to-family conflict during times of organizational decline. We could imagine, for instance, that a supportive leadership style, such as transformational leadership, may be especially beneficial in mitigating managers' work-to-family conflict when their organization is performing poorly. Qualitative research that captures how the benefits of sources of support interact with poor perceived organizational performance in alleviating work-to-family conflict would also be useful. Additionally, it would be interesting to investigate how changes in perceived organizational performance could alter how sources of support or stress affect work-to-family conflict as well as other employee attitudes and behaviors.

Future research should also explore the effects of the justice dimensions in more detail. While the non-significant effects of distributive and informational justice in our study might be explained by their lower interpretability compared to the other two justice dimensions (Judge & Colquitt, 2004), we believe that these dimensions should not be neglected in future research. One could explore how these justice dimensions affect managers' attitudes and behaviors and interact with varying levels of perceived organizational performance. Additionally, even though we focused on work-to-family conflict in our study because of our primary interest on work-domain variables, future research should study family-to-work conflict with the aim of understanding how perceived organizational performance can alter

family-to-work conflict and may influence decisions at the work-to-family interface such as the participation in family support programs and parental leave.

In conclusion, our study highlights the importance of perceived organizational performance to managers' work-to-family conflict. For organizations with strong perceived performance, sources of supervisor support tend to be very beneficial in reducing work-to-family conflict. However, most sources of supervisor support did not alleviate the work-to-family conflict of managers who perceived poor organizational performance. Specifically, only high time availability was shown to buffer the negative relationship between perceived organizational performance and work-to-family conflict. As such, poor perceived organizational performance often appears to overshadow the benefits of supervisor support in reducing work-to-family conflict. Our study therefore demonstrates the need to consider an organization's perceived performance when studying managers' attitudes and career outcomes.

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TABLE A

Means, Standard Deviations, and Pearson Correlations

		Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1	Manufacturing	0.55	0.50	1																		
2	Service	0.12	0.32	-0.405**	1																	
3	Firm age	75.64	82.63	0.053	-0.091	1																
4	# of employees	1782	13176	-0.101	-0.016	-0.027	1															
5	Manager age	45.03	7.67	-0.069	-0.015	-0.034	-0.081	1														
6	Gender	0.23	0.42	-0.061	-0.041	-0.057	-0.042	-0.182*	1													
7	Married	0.72	0.45	0.053	-0.008	0.082	0.058	0.070	-0.331**	1												
8	# of children	2.14	1.13	0.020	0.013	0.019	-0.023	0.041	-0.190*	0.343**	1											
9	Working hours	49.24	8.93	-0.069	0.030	0.044	-0.183*	0.128	-0.427**	0.140	0.053	1										
10	Share ownership	0.83	0.38	-0.033	0.034	-0.043	0.008	0.015	-0.006	-0.039	0.001	-0.231**	1									
11	Perf.-based pay	0.32	0.47	0.047	0.004	0.056	0.094	-0.138	0.114	-0.053	0.075	-0.247**	0.148*	1								
12	Perc. org. perf.	4.83	1.03	-0.170*	-0.108	0.015	0.158*	0.038	-0.076	-0.024	-0.108	-0.118	0.082	-0.023	1							
13	Distributive J.	5.02	1.48	-0.149*	0.044	0.102	0.007	0.097	0.125	-0.103	0.002	-0.114	-0.101	-0.043	0.147*	1						
14	Procedural J.	5.29	1.20	-0.182*	0.055	0.105	-0.011	-0.043	0.038	0.024	-0.028	-0.103	0.034	-0.022	0.133	0.701**	1					
15	Interpersonal J.	6.29	1.20	-0.145	0.101	0.095	-0.019	-0.064	0.110	-0.110	-0.035	-0.077	0.044	-0.010	0.094	0.619**	0.701**	1				
16	Inform. J.	5.40	1.49	-0.199**	0.033	0.060	-0.014	-0.039	0.107	-0.057	0.068	-0.082	-0.038	-0.026	0.159*	0.573**	0.645**	0.653**	1			
17	Time availability	2.88	1.26	-0.034	-0.111	0.067	0.082	0.080	-0.099	-0.178*	0.143	-0.072	0.085	-0.039	0.192**	0.245**	0.250**	0.149*	0.238**	1		
18	Recognition	4.69	1.43	-0.170*	0.011	0.109	0.108	0.075	0.007	-0.107	0.040	-0.079	0.054	-0.063	0.235**	0.595**	0.525**	0.466**	0.514**	0.319**	1	
19	Nonrestr. Mon.	3.77	1.26	0.271**	-0.145	-0.033	0.147*	-0.134	-0.120	-0.084	0.020	0.179*	0.043	0.140	-0.049	-0.137	0.192**	-0.087	-0.257**	-0.043	-0.260**	1
20	Work-to-f. confl.	3.95	1.60	-0.067	0.066	-0.055	0.001	-0.033	-0.041	0.224**	-0.025	-0.073	-0.009	0.115	-0.182*	-0.148*	-0.115	-0.001	-0.130	-0.212**	-0.162*	0.101

Notes: N = 182. *= $p < 0.05$; **= $p < 0.01$.

TABLE B

Results of Regression Analysis

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	B	S.E.	p	B	S.E.	p	B	S.E.	p	B	S.E.	p
<i>constant</i>	3.966	0.111	***	3.963	0.109	***	3.964	0.106	***	3.989	0.107	***
<i>Control variables</i>												
Manufacturing	-0.024	0.125		-0.100	0.127		-0.100	0.127		-0.183	0.128	
Service	0.069	0.120		0.011	0.121		-0.063	0.119		-0.096	0.117	
Firm age	-0.076	0.110		-0.074	0.109		-0.064	0.107		-0.057	0.105	
# of employees	0.086	0.114		0.115	0.113		0.166	0.112		0.269	0.122	*
Manager age	-0.088	0.112		-0.087	0.111		-0.092	0.112		-0.119	0.109	
Gender	0.114	0.133		0.078	0.131		0.015	0.132		-0.012	0.130	
Married	-0.104	0.127		-0.084	0.125		-0.125	0.125		-0.069	0.125	
# of children	0.218	0.118	†	0.205	0.116	†	0.226	0.114	*	0.131	0.115	
Working hours	0.417	0.135	**	0.378	0.134	**	0.361	0.136	**	0.255	0.137	†
Share ownership	0.058	0.116		0.023	0.115		0.086	0.113		0.132	0.113	
Perf.-based pay	-0.067	0.117		-0.098	0.116		-0.092	0.115		-0.156	0.113	
<i>Independent variable</i>												
Perc. org. perf.				-0.281	0.114	*	-0.214	0.113	†	-0.292	0.125	*
<i>Main terms moderator variables</i>												
Distributive justice							-0.101	0.170		-0.012	0.178	
Procedural justice							-0.229	0.179		-0.275	0.183	
Interpersonal justice							0.502	0.168	**	0.554	0.167	**
Informational justice							-0.276	0.157	†	-0.250	0.159	
Time availability							-0.127	0.118		-0.225	0.121	†
Recognition							-0.107	0.144		-0.214	0.148	
Nonrestrict Monitoring							-0.280	0.121	*	-0.205	0.122	†
<i>Interaction terms</i>												
Perc. org. perf. * Distributive Justice										0.041	0.130	
Perc. org. perf. * Procedural Justice										-0.298	0.138	*
Perc. org. perf. * Interpersonal Justice										0.273	0.137	*
Perc. org. perf. * Informational Justice										0.009	0.132	
Perc. org. perf. * Time availability										0.192	0.097	*
Perc. org. perf. * Recognition										-0.311	0.138	*
Perc. org. perf. * Nonrestrictive Monitoring										-0.223	0.104	*
<i>Model fit indices</i>												
Adjusted R ²		0.028			0.056			0.114			0.163	
Delta R ²					0.031*			0.089*			0.076*	
F Statistics		1.470			1.890*			2.229**			2.356**	

Notes: N=182. Standardized variables used. Unstandardized regression coefficients reported. S.E. = standard error. †=p<0.1; *=p<0.05; **=p<0.01; ***=p<0.001.

FIGURE A

Conceptual Model

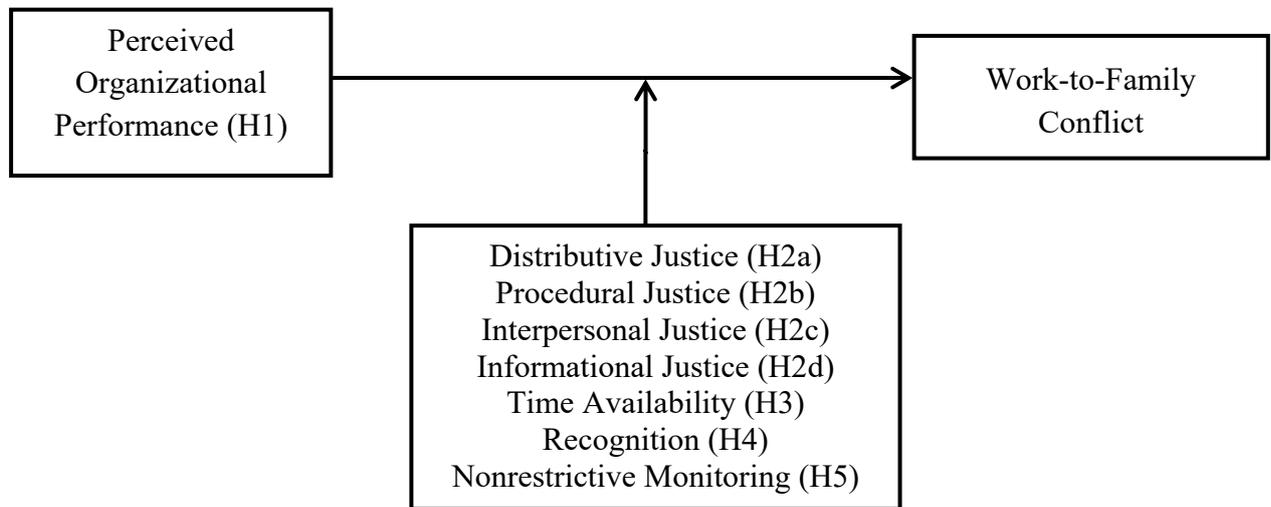


FIGURE B

Interaction Plot: Perceived Organizational Performance and Procedural Justice

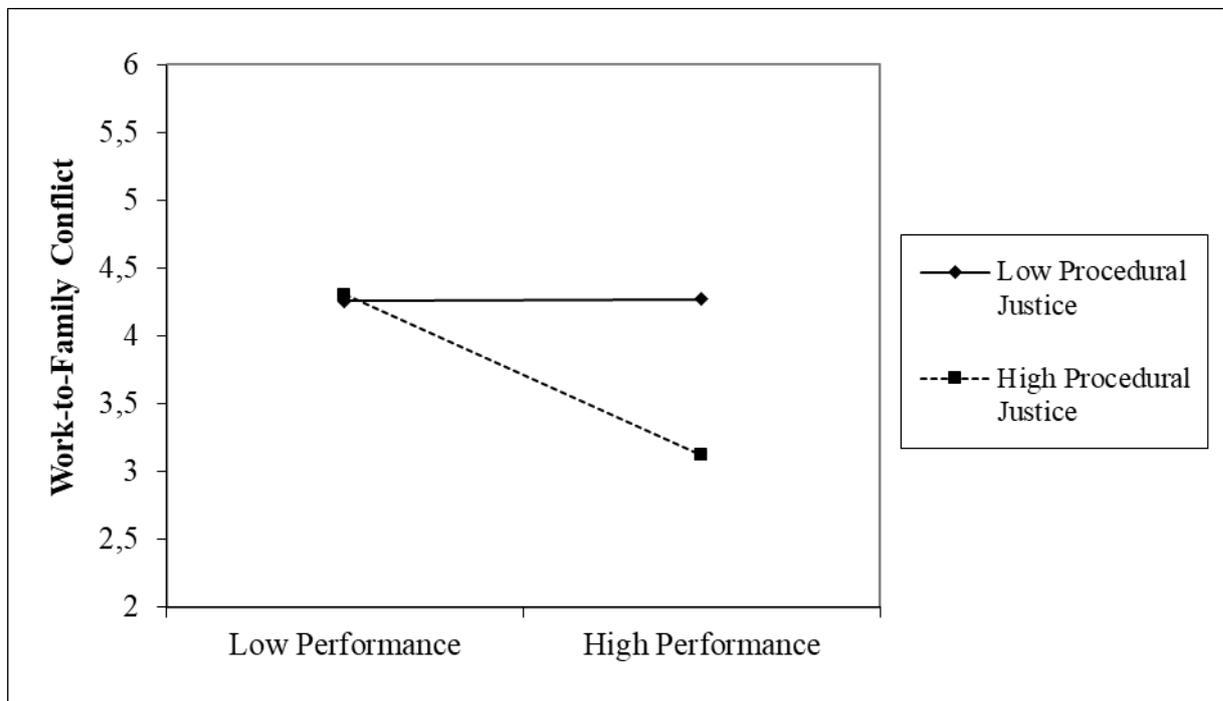


FIGURE C

Interaction Plot: Perceived Organizational Performance and Interpersonal Justice

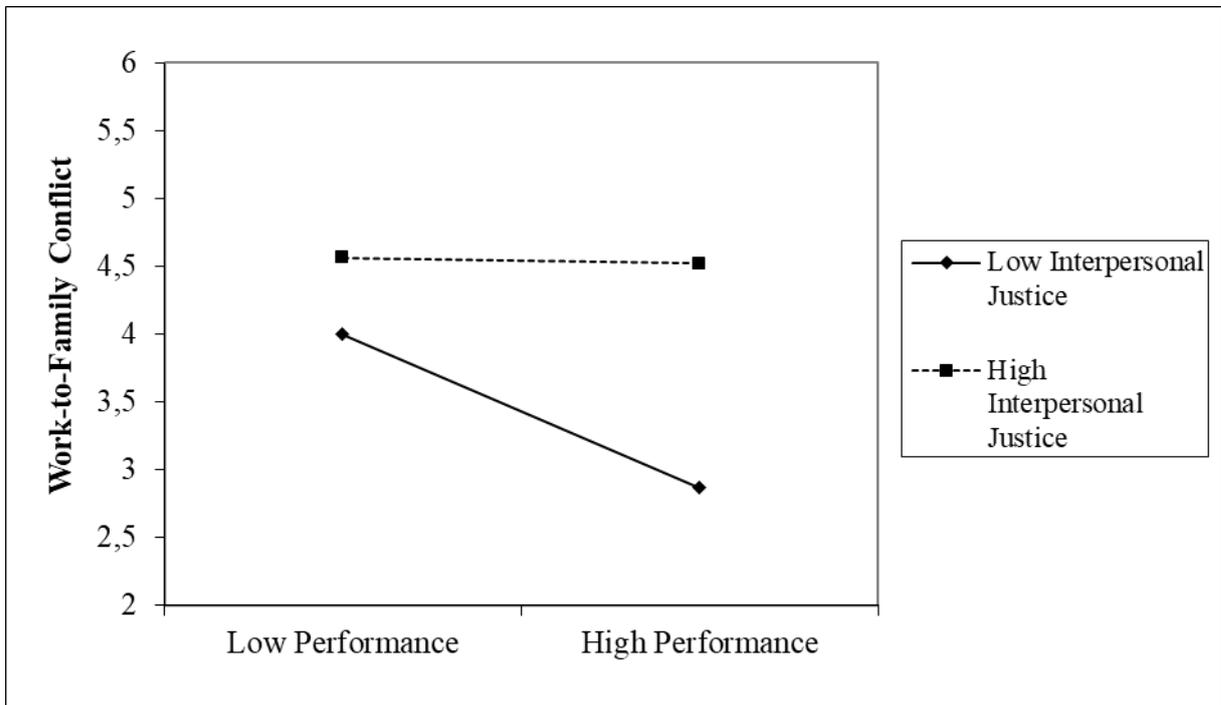


FIGURE D

Interaction Plot: Perceived Organizational Performance and Time Availability

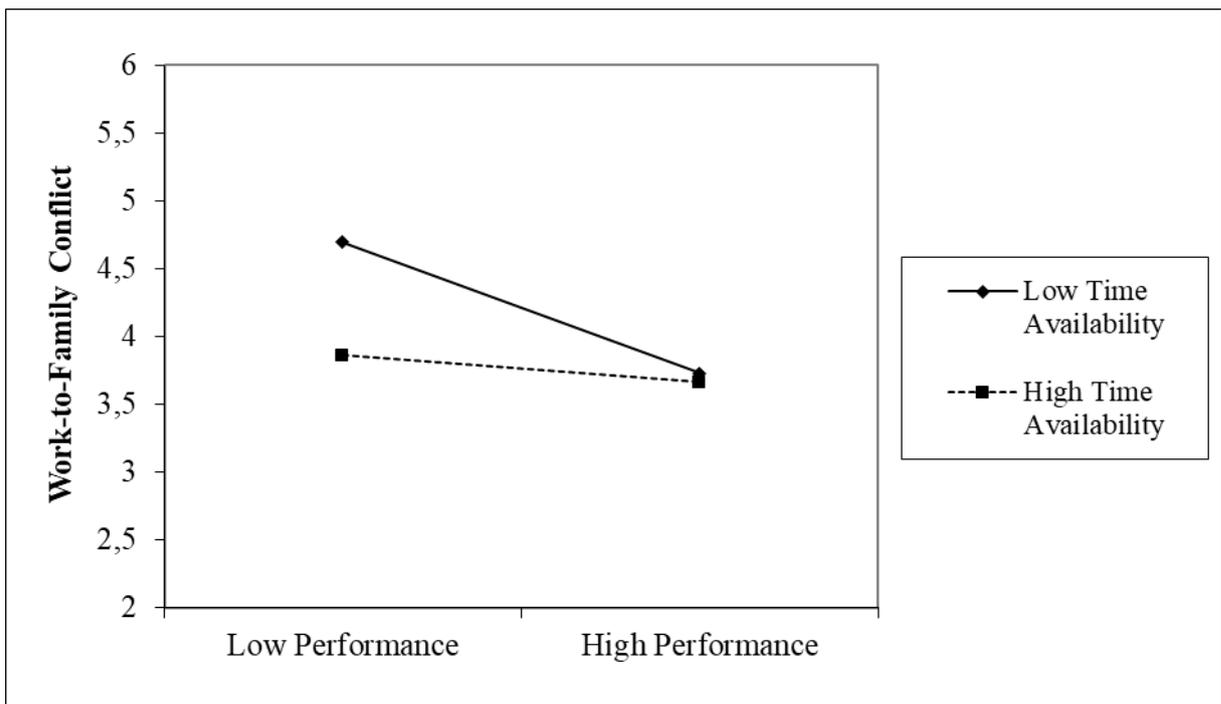


FIGURE E

Interaction Plot: Perceived Organizational Performance and Recognition

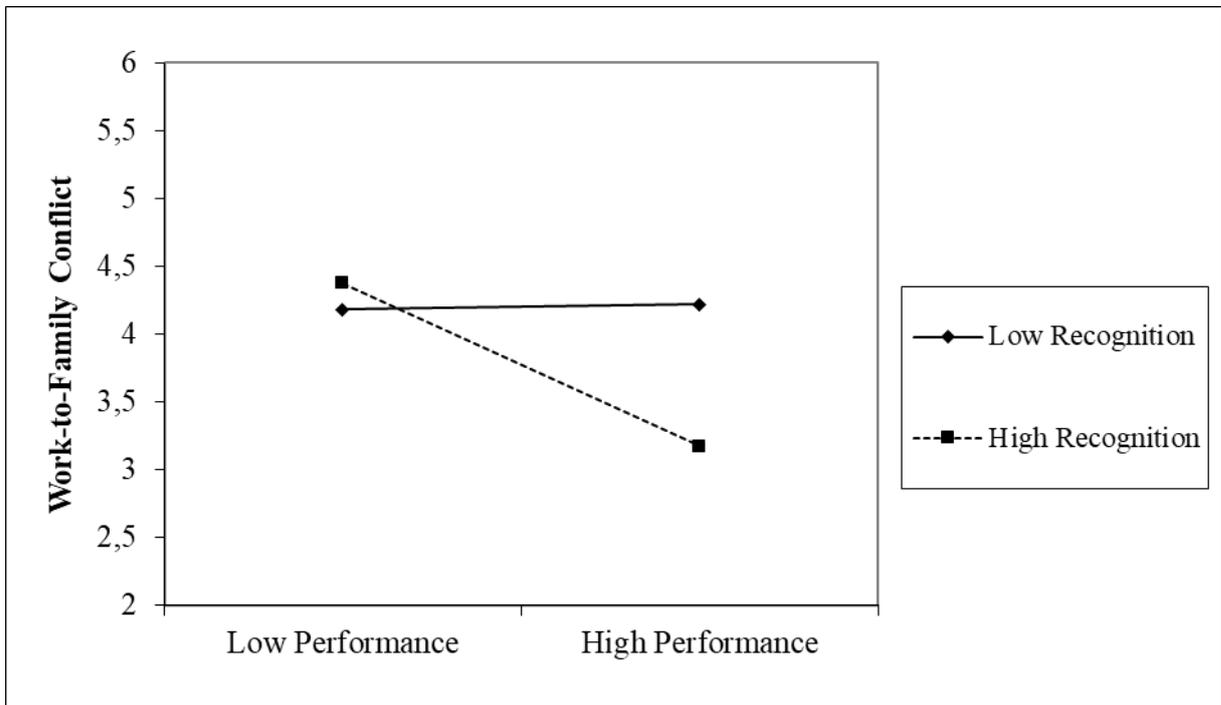


FIGURE F

Interaction Plot: Perceived Organizational Performance and Nonrestrictive Monitoring

