Navigating the Tug-of-War: A Resource Perspective of How FWC and FWE Affect Leadership Style

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Abstract

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Research on the interactive effects of conflictual and enriching dimensions of family life on different leadership styles is almost non-existent. The present study explored three gaps in this area: (a) the direct effect of family-to-work conflict (FWC) and family-to-work enrichment (FWE) on one positive (transformational) and two negative (abusive supervision and passive) leadership styles, (b) the mediating role of resource loss and gain by applying the conservation of resources (COR) theory and work-home resource (WH-R) theory, and (c) the interactive effect of FWC and FWE on the three leadership styles. Using a cross-sectional study design within a sample of 579 leaders, results showed that FWC is detrimental in the workplace – being associated with diminished transformational leadership and enhanced abusive and passive leadership. FWE works oppositely – being associated with enhanced transformational and decreased abusive and passive leadership. FWC and FWE also interact such that high levels of FWE attenuate the adverse effects of FWC on leadership styles. The mediating role of resource loss and gain was not found. Analysis by gender suggested that men leaders were found to be more influenced by FWC whereas women leaders manage negative family events more effectively and benefit more from FWE. However, the moderating effect of FWE is stronger for men. Implications, limitations, and directions for future studies have been discussed.

Keywords: Family-to-work conflict, family-to-work enrichment, resource loss, resource gain, leadership styles.

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How family dynamics shape leadership style is of considerable importance. Despite a long and impressive history of identifying consequences of different leadership styles, either positive (e.g., transformational leadership; Riggio, 2005) or negative (e.g., abusive supervision, Tepper, 2007; passive leadership, Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008), research on the predictors of leadership styles has lagged behind. Similarly, although the intersection of work and family life is well understood (e.g., Barling, 1990; Grzywacz & Butler, 2008), it was not until recently that the impact of family functioning on leadership behavior received attention (e.g., Courtright et al., 2016; Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2014). As the number of women, dual-career couples, and single parents in the workforce increases and more individuals assume elder care responsibilities, an increase in research attention to the interdependence of work and family life has emerged, which consistently confirms the permeability of cross-domain relationships (e.g., Grzywacz & Butler, 2008; Jain & Nair, 2021). For example, 68% of women aged 20 to 54 in Canada were employed full-time in 2021. Dual-earner families rose from 36% in 1976 to 69% in 2015, while the employment rate for single mothers increased from 54% in 2001 to 64.2% in 2019 (Statistics Canada, 2017, 2020).

The work-family literature has recognized the pivotal role of leaders in assisting employees juggling dual roles and maintaining the balance between family responsibilities and work functioning (e.g., Braun & Nieberle, 2017; Hammer et al., 2009; Harris et al., 2015). Specifically, leaders' understanding of their employees' familial matters reduces work-family conflict among followers (van Daalen et al., 2006), decreasing turnover and increasing organizational commitment and job satisfaction (e.g., Haar & Roche, 2010; Muse et al., 2008). In contrast, experiencing abusive supervision has a detrimental impact on family functioning quality (Carlson et al., 2011). Like any other employees, leaders can bring their

family matters to work (Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2014), which highlights the fact that their personal lives can potentially influence their roles. Given their inspirational and motivational role, the repercussions of leaders' experiences of familial matters interfering with work can be far-reaching.

Yet, surprisingly, limited research delves into this area. In this regard, scholars have begun investigating the familial antecedents of transformational leadership (e.g., Lin et al., 2021; McClean et al., 2021; Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2014) and abusive supervision (e.g., Courtright et al., 2016; Dionisi & Barling, 2019). This reinforces the idea that family interfering with work either happens negatively (i.e., family-to-work conflict) or positively (i.e., family-to-work enrichment) and each leads to a specific form of leadership style. Ten Brummelhuis et al., (2014) have demonstrated that leaders' family-to-work conflict (FWC, i.e., family activities and responsibilities interfering with work roles and responsibilities; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) can predict follower burnout through leaders' feelings of burnout while leaders' experiencing family-to-work enrichment (FWE, i.e., the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other" Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73) positively impacts follower engagement via leader engagement. Moreover, findings indicate that leaders' daily experience of FWC predicts increased passive leadership and abusive behavior toward followers (Courtright et al., 2016; Dionisi & Barling, 2019), yet daily FWE is positively associated with transformational leadership (McClean et al., 2021).

One interesting fact that has been ignored is that FWC and FWE can happen concurrently and impact leaders' behavior. I, therefore, aim to explore how FWE in leaders' personal lives can buffer the negative effect of FWC on leadership style at work. Applying the conservation of resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) and work-home resource theory (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), I seek to explain the enactment of three

prominent forms of leadership – namely, transformational, abusive supervision, and passive leadership – given two mechanisms of depletion and creation of resources.

I make four contributions to the existing literature. First, the proposed research offers valuable insights into the antecedents of leadership behaviors. As influential and powerful individuals with distinct responsibilities, demands placed on leaders go beyond the organization's walls. Leaders' personal lives encompass romantic partnerships, parental duties, and eldercare responsibilities – any of these can potentially act as stressors that interfere with the ability to do their jobs well or as supporters to provide leaders with more resources to address job demands. Therefore, by focusing on how extra-organizational family stressors and supports can impact leaders' professional lives, this study will provide a holistic understanding of the antecedents of three different leadership styles (transformational, abusive, and passive leadership). The simultaneous effect of positive and negative familial antecedents on predicting positive and negative leadership styles has been largely ignored. Therefore, in so doing, the contribution is made to leadership and family-work literature.

Second, using the well-known COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) and Work-Home Resource (WH-R) theory (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), the theoretical understanding of leadership style predictors will be developed based on resource changes. With a few exceptions (e.g., Chen & Powell, 2012; Oren & Levin, 2017), previous studies focused on the level of specific forms of resources (e.g., emotional intelligence; Barling et al., 2000; depressive symptoms and cognitive distraction; Dionisi & Barling, 2019). This study will measure a broader range of resources and focus on the concurrent occurrence of resource loss and gain. By investigating how constructive and adverse events within the family domain can either deplete or enrich leaders' resources, this research will offer a more comprehensive understanding of the processes involved. Unlike previous research, which often focuses on specific resource types, this study considers various familial resources – such as

interpersonal, emotional, and financial. In this way, a holistic perspective on the influence of family dynamics will be provided. It will shed light on how these resource changes uniquely impact leaders' work roles.

Third, a holistic picture of this relationship will be provided by assessing the interacting effect of FWC and FWE and differentiating between positive (i.e., transformational leadership), negative (i.e., abusive supervision), and passive forms of leadership. To date, the majority of studies have focused solely on one specific form of leadership, and none of them have considered the interacting effect of positive and negative family events. Thus, this study will address the literature gap and contribute to theory development in leadership scholarship.

Finally, gender differences will be taken into account. While these differences are extensively explored in both leadership and work-life literature, the findings remain inconsistent. For instance, although men and women may spend similar amounts of time at work, women are more likely to engage in family activities (Fridman & Greenhaus, 2000), which contributes to higher levels of FWC reported among women (Haar et al., 2014; Nielson et al., 2001; Yavas et al., 2008). However, a recent meta-analysis on work-family conflict suggests that gender differences in work and family outcomes are minimal (Shockley et al., 2017). Leadership research has also indicated that women are more likely to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors (Bass & Avolio, 1994), though situational factors often provide a more nuanced explanation (Riggio, 2008). Some scholars argue that organizational roles tend to supersede gender roles in management and leadership contexts (Mushtaq & Qureshi, 2016). Given these findings, examining the effect of family-life experiences on different leadership styles through the lens of gender seems essential.

Literature Review

Work-family conflict is a form of inter-role conflict that arises when demands from the family and work domains are mutually incompatible in some respect (Carlson et al., 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Having a finite amount of psychological and physiological resources (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), conflict results when the role demands from multiple domains exceed individuals' supply (Eby et al., 2005; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002) and leads to overall poor functioning (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Work-family conflict is seen to be bi-directional in nature in which work interferes with family (i.e., WFC) or family interferes with work (i.e., family-to-work conflict (FWC); Jain & Nair, 2021; Oren & Levin, 2017). FWC, therefore, is a specific form of work-family conflict where demands and stressors of personal life create challenges in effectively fulfilling work-related duties or commitments (Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2014).

However, family-work enrichment is "the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73). This perspective posits that managing different roles is not inherently challenging nor consistently leads to resource depletion and strain. According to Carlson et al. (2000), enrichment occurs when developmental, capital, affective, and efficiency resources are cultivated and transferred across different spheres. This implies that engaging in multiple roles provides individuals with opportunities and resources that can be used to promote growth and enhance performance in various domains (Barnett, 1998; Jain & Nair, 2021). Similar to work-life conflict, work-life enrichment is also a bi-directional construct. Antecedents of work-to-family enrichment (WFE) can be derived from the work domain, and antecedents of family-to-work enrichment (FWE) can be derived from the family domain (Oren & Levin, 2017). As such, FWE is a specific form of work-family enrichment whereby experiences and fulfillment

gained from an individual's family or personal life contribute positively to their work-related attitudes and behaviors (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

Since this study considers the experience of both FWC and FWE at the same time, it is important to note that research has indicated these constructs are independent yet individuals may experience both simultaneously to varying degrees (Greenhaus & Powell, 2016; Jain & Nair, 2021; Oren & Levin, 2017).

Theoretical Background

A limited number of theoretical frameworks have guided work-life research. Historically, the dominant models in work-family literature have stemmed from the role theory (Pleck, 1977). This theory, rooted in the concept of having limited resources to fulfill diverse roles, suggests that work-family conflict arises when demands and stressors in one domain (e.g., family) impede meeting demands in the other (work) (Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The other theoretical frameworks developed based on this approach explore work-family conflict, interferences, negative spillovers, and the adverse effect of work and personal life on one another (Carlson & Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Powell et al., 2019). Nevertheless, work and family are not always competitors, and there can be advantages to juggling dual roles (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). Furthermore, role theory falls short of fully explaining the causal mechanisms linking the work and family domains. While dual roles might be incompatible in some respects, identifying underlying factors in one domain that complicate functioning in the other remains an ongoing challenge (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

More recent theoretical models have delved into work-family enhancement, facilitation, positive spillovers, and positive work-family interdependencies (Greenhaus &

Powell, 2006; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005; Hanson et al., 2006; Ruderman et al., 2002) all rooted in the theory of work-family enrichment. This theoretical framework indicates a beneficial linkage between the work and family domains. It explains why experiences in one role may improve the quality of life in the other using the accumulation of resources, such as skills, social support, and self-esteem (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Mauno et al., 2015; Wayne et al., 2007). This approach is supported by some research (McNall et al., 2009; Russo & Buonocore, 2012) and clarifies relationships between enrichment, work-related, and non-work-related outcomes. Similar to the conflict approach, enrichment models have a unilateral perspective, focusing solely on enrichment and not encompassing cases of negative work-family interplay (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Generally, none of these approaches provide a comprehensive perspective of work-family interdependencies. Therefore, a theory that integrates conflicting and enriching processes must be used and offers a valuable foundation for building a model that provides a detailed picture of work-family resources.

The COR theory. According to the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), individuals are driven to accumulate, preserve, and foster resources that enhance their ability to cope with challenges and maintain their psychological and emotional well-being. These resources encompass objects (e.g., tools for work, workplace), social resources (e.g., marriage, supportive work relationships), personal resources (e.g., self-esteem, self-efficacy), and energies (e.g., time, knowledge, credit) that are valued in their own right by individuals and the cultural environment. Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) included individual difference variables (e.g., hope, personal health) as a resource and a component of COR theory. According to (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), this theory is guided by two main processes: the *loss spiral*, where resources deplete in the face of stress, and the *gain spiral*, where resources accumulate. The loss spiral happens when people use up their resources to

address a stressor. Yet, if resource investment is high and/or coping is unsuccessful, stress develops (Hobfoll, 2002). For instance, imagine a situation in which an employment resource is threatened, and the person is faced with a high risk of layoff if he or she fails a particular task accomplishment. To avoid being fired, the employee expands efforts and uses other resources such as time, cognitive energy, and physical energy. If this effort is unsuccessful, the failure leads to severe stress. Layoff may happen among other things that result in more depletion, including deterioration in relationships with spouse and children and less money for extras. Contrasting this, the COR theory assumes that a gain spiral happens when resources generate new ones and exist in "caravans" (Hobfoll, 2002; see also Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). With possessing more resources, individuals can navigate and avoid problematic situations adeptly and invest energy in gaining additional resources rather than just preventing losses (Hobfoll, 2002). In addition, when an individual is equipped with alternate resources, in case of any stressful or conflicting situation, he or she can deal with the stressor more effectively and less negatively affected by depletion (Hobfoll, 2002). Creating resources from existing ones is a continual cycle (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). For illustrative purposes, imagine being promoted to a managerial role, which might be accompanied by the sense of having control over one's life, support from co-workers, well-developed social networks, and more lucrative assignments. Once the position is obtained, resources appear to accumulate and create a gain spiral where increased financial stability, amplified social connections, and heightened perceived efficacy contribute to available resources. Different studies provide evidence that various types of resources evolve into a cycle, ultimately creating a gain spiral (e.g., Lin & Bai, 2022; Llorens et al., 2007; Oren & Levin, 2017; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Jiang et al. (2023) also showed that gain spirals are stronger than loss spirals, meaning that when individuals have sufficient resources, it is easier for them to enter into gain spirals rather than fall into loss spirals.

Work-Home Resource Theory. Rooted in the COR theory, Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) proposed the Work-Home Resource (W-HR) model to describe personal resources' depletion and enrichment processes as the results of interaction between home and work domains. The model also suggests that conditional factors such as a range of key resources (personal characteristics such as social power and conscientiousness) can modify this interaction. Additionally, more and new resources will be collected if the individual exploits their contextual resources (e.g., organizational support, work control, culture, etc.; Bakker et al., 2015). Studies have repeatedly supported this theory and the negative effects of resource depletion on organizational outcomes. For instance, Bakker et al. (2019) showed major negative life events such as divorce would undermine the use of personal resources which ultimately reduces work engagement. Using W-HR theory, Du et al. (2018) also articulated that homesickness attenuates job performance by interfering with using job resources; however, personal resources weaken this association. In another study, Du et al. (2018) noted that high family hassles induce repetitive thoughts in employees, which prevents them from using their contextual resources and eventually functioning optimally. Du et al. (2020) also revealed that task performance will be enhanced when employees have a resourceful home life.

Overall, the COR and WH-R theories can serve as explanatory frameworks for the interaction between family and work (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; McNall et al., 2009; Oren & Levin, 2017). They consider resources from different domains, such as work and family, as being interconnected and able to impact and contribute to each other, creating a dynamic interplay between these domains (Hobfoll & Freedy, 2017; Oren & Levin, 2017).

Furthermore, loss and gain of resources can explain the pros and cons of the family-work interaction which is in line with the tenets of WH-R theory (i.e., conflict vs. enrichment; Oren & Levin, 2017; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Mainly, conflict is

triggered when balancing family and work leads to depletion and loss of resources, which eventually result in a negative state of being (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). In contrast, when resources are generated and preserved, they form a "solid resource reservoir" (Hobfoll, 2002, p. 318) and prompt the enrichment process (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Williams et al., 2006).

Despite the holistic view that COR and WH-R theories provide, little research exists on the effect of resources on leaders themselves. Given the number of resources needed to perform high-quality leadership and the critical role of leaders, this shortage is surprising.

Family-Work Conflict, Family-Work Enrichment, Antecedents, and Outcomes

Applying resource theories, it can be inferred that when resources are depleted from one domain (i.e., family or work domain), strains increase and result in conflict between domains. Conversely, when resources accumulate from one domain, individuals can overcome challenges by possessing more resources. Therefore, each domain can be considered as the antecedent and outcome of the other. Jain and Nair's (2021) findings provide partial support to this claim. They revealed that although family-work enrichment follows both matching-domain (i.e., enrichment from family to family or work to work) and cross-domain principles (i.e., enrichment from family to work or vice versa), family-work conflict only follows the matching-domain principles. If an individual finds their family role refrains them from fully dedication to work, this only leads to negative family outcomes such as family dissatisfaction rather than job dissatisfaction. In other words, family-to-work conflict (FWC) results in negative family outcomes, while work-to-family conflict (WFC) predicts only negative work outcomes (Jain & Nair, 2021). However, Oren and Levin (2017) posited the opposite: family-to-work conflict (FWC) results in resource loss which then leads to work-to-family conflict (WFC). Imagine an employee experiencing caregiving difficulties

with their children. They may feel depleted of cognitive energy and emotional resources as they dwell on conflicts at home. This distraction can lead to decreased task performance at work, which then becomes a stressor in itself. To compensate, the employee may need to invest additional time, physical, and cognitive resources into their work, which potentially exacerbates tensions with their spouse. This creates a vicious cycle that results from the cross-domain effect of FWC. This dynamic applies to work-to-family conflict (WFC) as well (Oren & Levin, 2017).

A work and family conflict meta-analysis suggests three kinds of conflict-related antecedents: work-domain-related, family-domain-related, and individual-related (Byron, 2005). Although individual factors such as sex and marital status are poor predictors of conflicts, work factors related to WFC and family factors predict FWC more strongly. Michel et al. (2011) revealed that role-related stress and support from either domain are predictors of both FWC and WFC. Several studies since confirmed that both family and work antecedents have cross-domain and matching-domain effects (e.g., DiRenzo et al., 2011; Lu & Chang, 2014; Lu et al., 2010). This highlights how antecedents from one domain not only affect the same domain but can also amplify conflict within the other domain.

Prior studies have suggested similar patterns for family and work enrichment. Bhargava and Baral (2009) found supervisory support as an antecedent of both FWE and WFE. Other studies indicated that supervisory support as a work resource and family support as a family resource are predictors of both FWE and WFE, confirming matching- and cross-domain effects for enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hill, 2005). A more recent meta-analysis on enrichment antecedents indicated that matching-domain antecedents have stronger effects on work and family enrichment; nonetheless, cross-domain relationships are also significant (Lapierre et al., 2018). Again, these findings highlight that although resources

from either the family or work domain can provide enrichment in the other domain, resources are better invested and used in the same domain.

Findings on the outcome of conflict and enrichment are also similar. Even though Amstad et al. (2011) found that both FWC and WFC are negatively related to job and family satisfaction, other studies confirmed that this relationship is stronger for matching domains (e.g., Beutell & Schneer, 2014; Rathi & Barath, 2013). Likewise, both WFE and FWE are found to be positive predictors of job and family satisfaction (Bhargava & Baral, 2009; Mcnall et al., 2009; Shockley & Singla, 2011); however, matching-domain effects are stronger (e.g., Amstad et al., 2011; Nicklin & McNall, 2013). In other words, the positive impacts of work-family enrichment tend to be more pronounced within the same domain but the other domain also benefits from this positive impact.

Even though findings are quite scattered, with greater emphasis placed on the same domain dynamics, they don't reject the significant effect of family-domain conflict and enrichment on workplace outcomes. The cross-domain antecedents and outcomes are repeatedly established providing evidence that family-to-work conflict and enrichment influence workplace outcomes. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that a similar process operates for leaders as their family domain can significantly impact their style at work. As there is a dearth of research in addressing family-level variables, this study adopts the role of resources to explain how the family domain could potentially impact leadership styles.

Family Domain and Depleted vs. Enriched Leaders

As noted above and according to the COR theory, individuals are characterized by a finite number of resources (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), which must be invested in order to recover from losses. However, when people find themselves depleted of resources, they often struggle to re-stock their resource reservoirs and often use a defensive approach to conserve

their remaining resources (Hobfoll, 2001). Research has now adopted COR theory to explore how abusive leadership results in work withdrawal (Chi & Liang, 2013) and work-family conflict (e.g., Carlson et al., 2012) among employees. The theory also reveals how the family domain and its demands can serve as a threat or actual loss of resources and result in a depleting role (e.g., Oren & Levin, 2017; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). While Byrne et al. (2014) showed that leaders' affective resource depletion is associated with lower levels of transformational leadership and higher levels of abusive supervision, Courtright et al. (2016) showed that abusive supervision is more likely to happen when leaders' self-regulatory resources are depleted. In this realm, Dionisi and Barling (2019) articulated that FWC can result in destructive leadership (abusive supervision and passive leadership) as it can drain leaders' cognitive and affective resources.

Although other scholars have demonstrated that FWE is related to transformational leadership (Dumas & Stanko, 2017; Lin et al., 2021; McClean et al., 2021), they adopted other theoretical approaches that do not take into account the simultaneous occurrence of FWC and FWE. Enrichment theorists explained that affective and objective resources acquired from family roles are helpful in work roles (Ayree et al., 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), which can ultimately elucidate the influence of FWE on transformational leadership. Nonetheless, little research has been done to identify resource enrichment among leaders from the family domain. Ten Brummelhuis et al. (2010), for example, found that caregiving at home and having a life partner provided fulfillment and life skills that increased helping behaviors at work, yielding a positive or enriching effect of family involvement on essential leaders' skills. Dumas and Stanko (2017) also found that being married and having parental duties are associated with higher levels of transformational leadership. This means that by identifying with family roles, leaders transfer behaviors and skills associated with transformational leadership from the family domain to the workplace

(Dumas & Stanko, 2017; McClean et al., 2021). For example, skills like empathy, patience, and effective communication – often developed through caregiving and parental duties – could serve as valuable resources. Scholars have discussed that when FWE happens, resources are more likely to accumulate enhancing work performance (Aryee et al., 2005; Kirchmeyer, 1992; McClean et al., 2021).

Effective leadership encompasses a multifaceted range of responsibilities, including influencing tasks, goals, strategies, employee commitment (Yukl, 2000), team effectiveness (Hackman, 2002), and decision-making (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996), demanding various resources (e.g., energies, social support, cognitive, and affective resources). The need for resources becomes apparent when examining different leadership styles, such as transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006), abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007), and passive leadership (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). As mentioned earlier, the research history highlights the shortage of studies using the COR theory to consider the effect of familial resources on leadership. This study investigates the depletion and enriching effect of the family domain on three different leadership styles.

Transformational Leadership and Antecedent Resources

Transformational leadership refers to the "leader moving the follower beyond immediate self-interests through idealized influence (charisma), inspiration, intellectual stimulation, or individualized consideration" (Bass, 1999, p. 11). *Idealized influence* requires leaders to set a positive example and earn the trust and respect of followers. *Inspiration* is motivating followers through a compelling vision and enthusiasm. *Intellectually stimulating* leaders encourage creativity and innovation by challenging the status quo and promoting critical thinking. Finally, leaders high in *individualized consideration* provide personalized support and guidance to each follower's needs. Research on the resource-based antecedents of transformational leadership has found predictors such as moral reasoning (Turner et al.,

2002), self-confidence (Ross & Offermann, 1997), emotional intelligence (e.g., Barling et al., 2000), leader extraversion (Bono & Judge, 2004), peer leadership (Bommer et al., 2004), and psychological efforts (Byrne et al., 2014) – all personal or organizational resources. Enacting four transformational dimensions needs different personal resources. Self-confidence has been associated with charisma (e.g., Klein & House, 1995), while the perception of control over events is linked to the ability to provide intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Howell & Avolio, 1993). Additionally, emotional intelligence has been found to have connections with inspirational motivation, idealized influence, and individualized consideration (Barling et al., 2000). Investigating how family domains deplete or enrich resources required to enact transformational leadership justifies a closer inspection of antecedent resources. For example, during work hours, a leader might find themselves dwelling on a previous argument with their partner – an activity that drains cognitive and emotional resources essential for effectively mentoring followers (e.g., Mankowski et al., 2013). On the contrary, having parental duties would help leaders acquire skills and abilities to demonstrate inspirational motivation, idealized influence, and individualized consideration toward followers (McClean et al., 2021).

Abusive Supervision and Antecedent Resources

Abusive supervision is defined as being engaged in an ongoing display of verbal and nonverbal (but not physical) hostility (Tepper, 2000). Manifestations of abusive supervision include but are not limited to public ridicule, inappropriate assignment of blame, invasion of privacy, and rudeness (Tepper et al., 2006). The research on the antecedents of abusive supervision generally offers failure in self-regulation as a potential explanation. Depleted self-regulatory resources impair affective reactions and behaviors, which in turn results in showing abusive behaviors (Wang et al., 2010). Other scholars demonstrated that drained self-control could hinder the capacity to engage in socially appropriate interactions (e.g., Von

Hippel & Gonsalkorale, 2005). Additionally, depletion of resources, such as sleep (Kahn-Greene et al., 2006) and executive functioning (DeWall et al., 2007), emotional energy (Liu et al., 2015), and psychological well-being (Byrne et al., 2014) can predict aggressive behavior, highlighting the potential influence of resource depletion as a precursor to abusive supervision. Similar to this study, Dionisi and Barling (2019) revealed that FWC results in abusive leadership by depleting affective resources.

Passive Leadership and Antecedent Resources

Passive leadership is characterized by leaders taking minimal or no action in their leadership role (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). This kind of leadership can be as harmful as abusive supervision by withdrawing from their responsibilities, such as not providing appropriate rewards or punishment to their followers when necessary (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). Although extensive empirical research has delved into passive leadership, particularly its prevalence and consequences (Carleton & Barling, 2018; Wei et al., 2016), there has been a notable absence of exploration into its underlying causes or antecedents. However, passive leadership may reflect depleted resources that lead a person to take a defensive posture and protect their remaining resources. Bani-Melhem et al. (2022) showed that passive leadership results from centralization in organizations only through autonomy frustration which drains leaders' energy and motivational resources. Research using COR theory also suggests cognitive resource depletion can happen among leaders, which prevents them from actively engaging in their roles (e.g., Dionisi & Barling, 2019; Dóci & Hofmans, 2015) – depletion that can result from FWC. For example, leaders facing cognitive depletion may opt for a less demanding approach instead of investing the cognitive effort needed to assess and manage follower behavior effectively. This might involve allowing current subordinate actions to persist without intervention. The cognitive strain of switching between personal concerns and leadership responsibilities can further deplete cognitive resources (Rubinstein et al., 2001).

Accordingly, I argue that leaders with higher levels of FWC would have fewer resources available to enact high-quality leadership. Conversely, FWE provides different resources that encourage positive forms of leadership rather than negative ones. It is important to note that in this study, the emphasis is placed exclusively on family resources as they are rooted in the family context and can serve as potential influencing factors for other resources such as personal, social, financial, intellectual, etc. Therefore, by focusing on familial resources, this study provides a comprehensive framework of how family dynamics can drive changes in leadership styles by influencing different resources (more detailed information will be provided in the measure section).

Thus, the first hypothesis is:

H1(a): *Leaders' FWC is negatively related to transformational leadership and positively related to abusive supervision and passive leadership.*

H1(b): *Leaders' FWE is positively related to transformational leadership and negatively related to abusive supervision and passive leadership.*

H2(a): *Family-related resource loss mediates the effect of FWC on three leadership styles.*

H2(b): *Family-related resource gain mediates the effect of FWE on three leadership styles.*

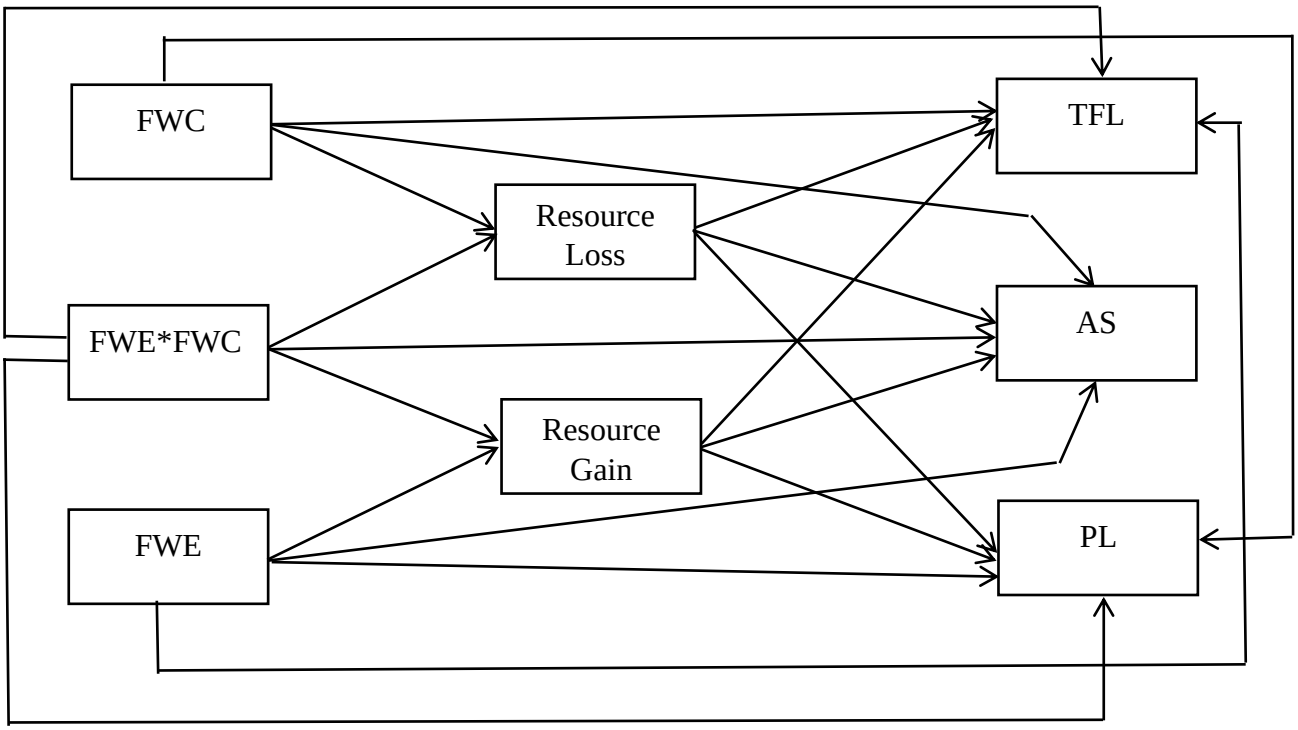
Interactive Effects of FWC and FWE

The main argument of COR theory is that individuals with more resources are more resilient against conflicts than those with fewer resources. However, it is imperative to avoid assuming that conflicts or enrichment exist in isolation, given the dynamic nature of human experience. Notably, the simultaneous occurrence of resource loss and gain can change the

experience of conflict and enrichment, particularly from the family domain toward the work domain (Oren & Levin, 2017). Although research on the interactive effects of conflictual and enriching dimensions of family-to-work conflict is scarce, the available discussions are characterized by low FWC and high FWE levels to provide work-life balance (Moazami-Goodarzi et al., 2019; Morganson et al., 2014; Valcour, 2007; Vieira et al., 2018; Weinzimmer et al., 2017). Specifically, Vieira et al. (2018) explored different family-to-work conflict and enrichment dynamics combinations and found four couple-level profiles: *Harmful* group (i.e., high conflict, low enrichment), *Passive* group (i.e., low conflict, low enrichment), *Active* group (i.e., high conflict, high enrichment), and *Beneficial* group (i.e., low conflict, high enrichment). Moreover, the harmful type was associated with lower satisfaction with work and family (Vieira et al., 2018). These studies prompt the idea that positive experiences and negative counterparts may exist concurrently. However, they generally assume that the changes in conflict and enrichment directly affect the outcome. Yet, none of the previous studies have explicitly tested the buffering effect of FWE on FWC. Building on Wong et al.'s (2019) argument for a buffering effect, I propose that examining this interaction will clarify the mechanisms through which FWC and FWE influence the development of each of the three leadership styles. This interaction aligns with the core tenets of the COR theory in the sense that the more enrichment an individual experiences, the more resources will be available to them, and the gain spiral will be initiated (See Figure 1). Hence, a significant buffering effect implies that having an enriched family experience changes the way that FWC is related to different leadership styles. As such, exploring the interaction between FWC and FWE would be of considerable importance.

H3(a): *FWC and FWE interact with each other and moderate the relationships between FWC, FWE, and the three leadership styles. Specifically, high FWE weakens the negative relationship between FWC and transformational leadership, as well as the positive*

Figure 1. The Effect of FWC, FWE, and their Interaction on Leadership Styles Through Resource Loss and Gain.



Note. FWC = Family-to-Work Conflict; FWE = Family-to-Work Enrichment; TFL = Transformational Leadership; AS = Abusive Supervision; PL = Passive Leadership.

relationship between FWC and both abusive supervision and passive leadership. Similarly, high FWC weakens the positive relationship between FWE and transformational leadership, as well as the negative relationship between FWE and both abusive supervision and passive leadership.

H3(b): *The effect of interaction between FWC and FWE on three leadership styles is mediated by family-related resource loss/gain.*

Methods

The first purpose of this study is to investigate whether leaders' family-to-work conflict (FWC) and family-to-work enrichment (FWE) can explain variations in leadership styles, namely transformational, abusive, and passive leadership (hypothesis 1). The study examines how resource loss and gain mediate these relationships (hypothesis 2) and how the interactions between FWC and FWE can influence direct and indirect links toward leadership styles (hypothesis 3).

Participants

Online surveys were distributed through the Prolific Panel Service. Only leaders were the target group of this study. Participants completed a series of self-report questionnaires on FWC, FWE, Resource loss and gain, and three types of leadership. I recruited 600 participants based on the results of a power analysis. Literature on family-work dynamics and leadership resource antecedents usually proves to have a medium to large effect size (e.g., Byrne et al., 2014; Carleton & Barling, 2018; Oren & Levin, 2017). However, since smaller effect sizes are reported for moderation analysis in social science (Memon et al., 2019), I used a small effect size ($f2 = .02$) to calculate the sample size. All participant leaders must have had either full-time or part-time employment status from different industries (excluding self-employment) and have had at least one direct follower. In all cases, participation was confidential. The ethical board (REB) also reviewed the proposed study to protect participants' rights.

Procedure

A screening question was used to target leaders. Participants filled out a cross-sectional survey asking them about their family-to-work experiences, changes in their resources, leadership styles, and some background information after completion of an

informed consent form. The order of measures presented to participants was the same as it is presented in the following section. 21 data points were removed after screening for attention checks and leader role screener. Of the remaining participants, 59.6% were men, 39.2% were women, and 1.2% identified as others or preferred not to specify their gender. The average age was 39.48 years old and nearly half (49.5%) reported being middle-level leaders, followed by first-line (38.6%) and upper-level (11.9%) leaders. Only 10.2% reported working part-time. Descriptive statistics, internal consistency, and intercorrelations of study variables including predictive, mediator, outcome, and control variables appear in Table 1.

Measures

Unless otherwise noted, a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree") is used for all scales. A list of all measures and their items is presented in Appendix A except for the copyrighted MLQ items.

A one-month timeframe was chosen for all measures in the study to ensure that participants could provide accurate and comprehensive responses. Studies have shown that family-to-work conflict and enrichment are generally stable over the course of several months, while shorter timeframes, such as a week, may not capture the full extent of family-work dynamics (Smith et al., 2022). Therefore, a one-month timeframe was selected to capture the family-work dynamics effectively and to prevent recall bias.

Family-to-Work Conflict (FWC)

The leader's FWC was measured by Carlson et al. (2000) 9-item conflict scale. This scale measures family interference with work across three dimensions: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based with a good reliability level of .92 A sample item is "Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work."

Table 1. *Descriptive statistics, intercorrelations, and internal consistency (α) of predictors, the mediator, outcomes, and control variables (N = 579)*

Variable		*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Leader's Level [a]	1.73	.66	_									
2	Work Hours [b]	2.96	.57	.14***	_								
3	Gender [c]	1.40	.49	-.01	-.07	_							
4	Family-to Work Conflict	2.36	.95	-.04	-.08	. 07	**.92**						
5	Family-to Work Enrichment	4.10	.65	.07	.02***	.06	-.11**	**.92**					
6	Resource Loss	.42	.58	-.04	-.09*	.04	.16***	.17	**.93**				
7	Resource Gain	.39	.41	.10*	-.03	-.10*	.10*	.17*	-.07	**.91**			
8	Transformational Leadership	3.51	.66	.15	.05	.08*	-.06	.45***	.28***	.16**	**.93**		
9	Abusive Supervision	1.33	.70	.09	-.01	-.16***	.41***	-.16***	.03	.32**	-.05	**.98**	
10	Passive Leadership	1.46	.72	.01	-.02	-.14***	.46**	-.18***	.02	.21*	-.13**	.81***	**.88**

Note. Internal consistency (α) is in bold on the diagonal. *p < 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p <0.001. a1 = first-line, 2 = middle-level, 3 = upper-level. b1 = less than 20 hours per week, 2 = 21-34 hours per week, 3 = 35-45 hours per week, 4 = more than 45 hours per week. c1 = man, 2 = woman.

Family-to-Work Enrichment (FWE)

The 11-item family-to-work positive spillover scale of Hanson et al. (2006) was used to measure the leader's FWE. This scale measures affective, behavior-based, and value-based spillovers from family to work. A sample item is "Having a good day with my family allows me to be optimistic at work." This scale was found to have an alpha coefficient of .92 in this study.

Resource loss and gain

The Conservation of Resources Evaluation (COR-E; Hobfoll & Lilly, 1993) was used to measure the loss and gain of resources. As a companion to the COR theory, COR-E was developed to examine individuals' resources. The original scale comprised 74 items from different domains. In order to shorten the list and focus on items relevant to the family domain, 9 subject matter experts (SMEs) from Saint Mary's University – graduate students in the Industrial-Organizational Psychology program – were tasked with selecting family-related resources. The 20 most frequently chosen items were then included in the revised scale. Sample items are "family stability", "Time with loved ones", and "Feeling that my life is at peace". Leaders were asked to rate the degree to which they experienced resource loss and gain for each item (-3 = great deal of loss, 0 = no change, +3 = great deal of gain). The unweighted arithmetic mean of negatively rated items was used to represent resource loss, while the unweighted mean of positively rated items represented resource gain. This way the number of items is taken into account to represent the extent or volume of resource loss or gain. The COR-E scale is reported to be a reliable and valid measure (Hobfoll & Lilly, 1993). Factor analysis revealed all items were loaded on one factor and high alpha coefficients of .93 and .91 confirmed the good reliability of both resource loss and resource gain scales.

Transformational Leadership

Leaders' transformational behavior was assessed by 20-item Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X; Bass & Avolio, 1996). Items were modified so that leaders rate their own behavior towards subordinates. All items start with "During the last month…" and measure their transformational behavior on a scale of 0 = "not at all" to 4 = "frequently, if not always". An example item is "This month, I talked enthusiastically about the future." Although the measure was intended to reflect 4 dimensions, previous research has reported strong (>.90) correlations between the dimensions and it is now common to compute a single overall score from the scale (Barling et al., 1996). A high reliability of .93 was also found for this scale.

Abusive Leadership

The 15-item scale of abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000) was used to assess the leader's monthly abusive behavior. Similar to transformational leadership a 5-point scale (0 = "not at all" to 4 = "frequently, if not always") indicated the frequency of enacted abusive behaviors by their leader. Example items are "I told my subordinates their thoughts or feelings are stupid" and "I put my subordinates down in front of others." Same as Dionisi & Barling (2019), a high reliability of .98 was found for this scale.

Passive leadership

The 4-item Laissez-faire (e.g., "I avoided making decisions") subscale of MLQ 5X (Bass & Avolio, 1996) was used to examine leaders' monthly passive behavior. Again, items were reworded to reflect leaders' self-assessments rather than employee perceptions of leaders' passive style. In line with other measures of leadership, a 5-point scale measured the frequency of enacting passive leadership style (0 = "not at all" to 4 = "frequently, if not always"). A good reliability for this subscale was also found ($\alpha = .88$).

Data Analysis

Data analyses were conducted to test the mediated moderation hypotheses through observed variable path analysis. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed using the lavaan package in R (Rosseel, 2012). Although the sample size was large enough the robust version of maximum likelihood (MLR) estimation was chosen to account for the violation of normality assumption. Missing data were also treated using a FIML as this procedure is robust to both MCAR and MAR types of missing data (Enders & Balandos, 2001) – listwise deletion is likely to result in more bias when using SEM (Enders & Balandos, 2001).

To assess the goodness-of-fit of the path analysis, model fit was evaluated using the χ^2-value (Bollen, 1989) and a variety of fit indices including the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990), for which values .05 or less indicate a good fit, values .06-.08 an adequate fit, and values close to .10 a mediocre fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999); and the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), for which values above .95 indicate an acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

All predictors, the mediator, and outcomes were measured as observed variables and, because of the high reliability (low measurement error) of predictors (see Table 1), the observed interaction term was used to assess the moderation effect. Both FWC and FWE were grand mean-centered prior to analyzing the structural models. Mean-centering can help the interpretation of the moderation without harming the model fit (Iacobucci et al., 2016). Since results of different studies offer different work-family experiences among men and women (e.g., Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Boz et al., 2016); the model was also tested for each gender group separately.

Results

Descriptive analysis

Descriptive statistics, internal consistency, and intercorrelations of study variables including predictive, mediator, outcome, and control variables appear in Table 1.

Test of Moderated Mediation Model

An initial test of the hypothesized model (see Figure 1) yielded mixed results in the model's goodness-of-fit [χ^2 (5) = 67.53, $p < .001$, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .13, 90% CI [.08, .19], $p < .01$]. Although the χ^2 test is significant, this outcome is common in large samples or complex models. The model's fit isn't ideal, but the inclusion of .08 in CI provides some reason to consider the fit as borderline acceptable especially because the complexity of the model makes RMSEA overly sensitive (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Huang, 2017). Also, the CFI value of .95 provides additional support for an acceptable fit to the data.

Furthermore, other fit indices, including an SRMR of .06 (values below .08 indicate a good fit; Hu & Bentler, 1999), a GFI of .99 (indicating a good fit to the data, with values above .95; Hu & Bentler, 1999), and an NFI of .97 (values above .95 indicate good fit; Bentler & Bonett, 1980), suggest that the model fits the data well overall. Given the strong theoretical basis of the model and the acceptable fit demonstrated by all indices, it is reasonable to proceed with testing the model pathways to evaluate the hypotheses.

The model explained a significant amount of variance in each of the leadership outcomes: transformational leadership ($R^2 = .27$, $p < .001$), abusive supervision ($R^2 = .29$, $p < .001$), and passive leadership ($R^2 = .29$, $p < .001$). These variances can be considered as large effect sizes (Cohen, 1988).

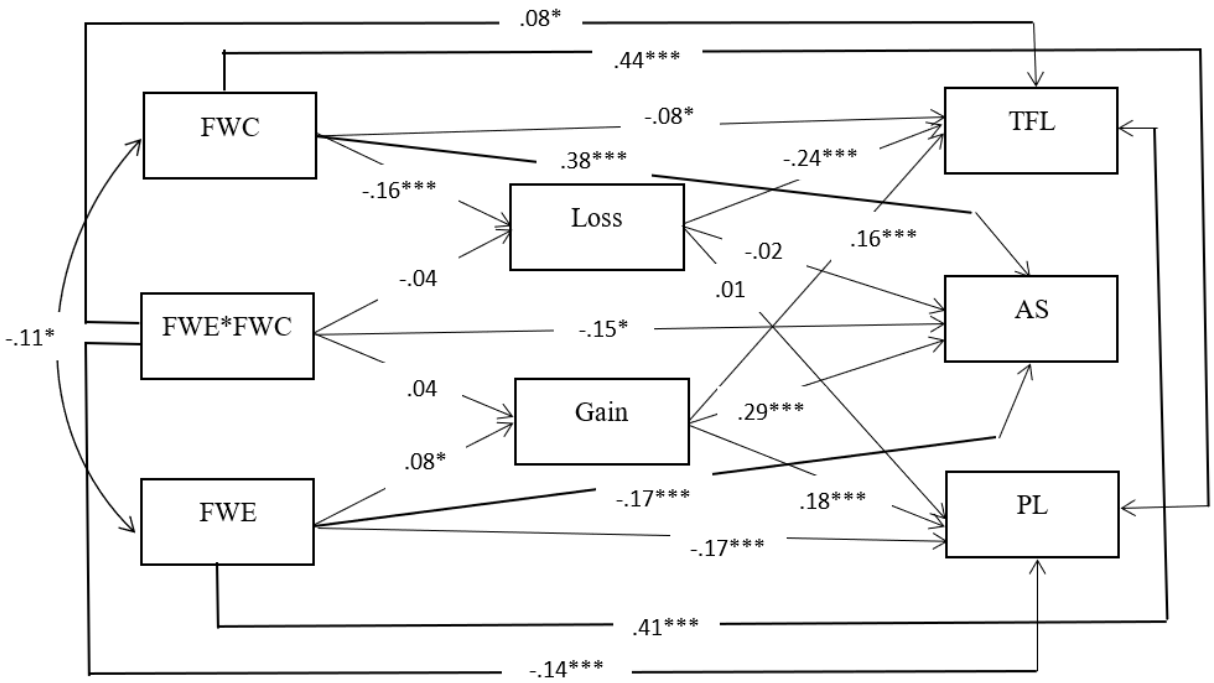
The first hypotheses were tested to find the relationship between FWC (H1a), FWE (H1b), and three leadership styles. FWC was found to negatively predict transformational

leadership (β = -.08, *SE* = .03, $p < .05$). However, FWC was positively associated with abusive supervision and passive leadership (β = .38, *SE* = .04, $p < .001$; β = .44, *SE* = .03, $p < .001$). As hypothesized, FWE positively predicted transformational leadership (β = .41, *SE* = .04, $p < .001$). The effects of FWE on abusive supervision (β = -.17, *SE* = .05, $p < .001$) and passive leadership (β = -.17, *SE* = .04, $p < .001$) were negative. Therefore, both hypotheses 1(a) and (b) were fully supported.

Hypothesis H2(a) proposed that resource loss mediates the effect of FWC and three leadership styles. FWC was also found to predict resource loss (β = .16, *SE* = .03, $p < .001$). Resource loss was not significantly related to either abusive supervision or passive leadership (β = .02, *SE* = .04, p = .63; β = -.01, *SE* = .04, p =.79). However, in line with what was hypothesized, resource loss was negatively related to transformational leadership (β = -.24, *SE* = .04, $p < .001$). To further explore the indirect effects, I used 5000 bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals (Mackinnon et al., 2017). The test of indirect effect also revealed that resource loss mediates the impact of FWC on transformational leadership (β = .04, *SE* = .01, $p < .01$). Thus, hypothesis 2(a) was supported only for transformational leadership but in the opposite direction of the assumption. This unexpected finding suggests that being as a role model to subordinates transformational leaders might leverage resource loss as a motivating factor, potentially viewing the challenge as an opportunity to inspire and drive positive change.

Similarly, H2(b) hypothesized that resource gain would mediate the relationship between FWE and three leadership styles. FWE positively affected resource gain (β = .08, *SE* = .03, $p < .05$). Resource gain was subsequently related to all three leadership styles positively: transformational leadership (β = .16, *SE* = .05, $p < .001$), abusive supervision (β =

Figure 2. *The moderated mediation model of FWC, FWE, and Resource loss and gain in predicting leadership styles.*



Note. N= 579. The curved double-headed arrow is the covariance. Only standardized estimates are presented. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001. FWC = Family-to-Work Conflict; FWE = Family-to-work Enrichment; TFL = Transformational Leadership; AS = Abusive Supervision; PL = Passive Leadership. FWC and FWE were mean-centered.

.29, *SE* = .06, p < .001), and passive leadership (β = .18, *SE* = .06, p < .001). The test of indirect effects also confirmed that resource gain mediated the impact of FWE on abusive supervision (β = .02, *SE* = .01, p < .05), but not on transformational (β = .01, *SE* = .01, p = .06), or passive leadership (β = .01, *SE* = .01, p = .05). Hypothesis 2(b) was supported for abusive supervision, meaning that by providing more resources, FWE resulted in more abusive supervision. While unexpected, this finding might indicate that if a leader engages in abusive supervision, more resources from the family domain intensify his or her leadership style.

The third set of hypotheses was tested to assess the interaction between FWC and FWE and its effect on three leadership styles (3Ha), as well as its moderation effect on the mediated paths (3Hb). Consistent with H3(a), the interaction was found to predict transformational leadership (β = .08, *SE* = .04, $p < .05$), abusive supervision (β = -.15, *SE* = .07, $p < .05$), and passive leadership (β = -.14, *SE*=.05, $p < .001$). However, no significant effect of the interaction was found on either resource loss or resource gain (β = -.04, *SE* = .05, p = .45; β = .04, *SE* = .02, p = .31, respectively), and therefore, the moderated mediation effects were also nonsignificant.

Using PROCESS for R studio simple slopes of the moderation effects were tested. As shown in Table 2, the effect of FWC on transformational leadership is only significant at lower levels of FWE (*b* = -.09, p = .03, 95% CI [-16, -.01]), indicating that FWC has a small yet significant negative effect on transformational leadership when FWE is low.

As hypothesized, the positive effect of FWC on abusive supervision was moderated

Table 2. *Conditional direct effects of FWC on three leadership styles at different levels of FWE.*

	b	*SE*	Bias-corrected 95% CI
Family-to-Work Conflict → Transformational Leadership			
High Family-to-Work Enrichment	.01	.03	[-.05, .08]
Medium Family-to-Work Enrichment	-.04	.03	[-.09, .01]
Low Family-to-Work Enrichment	-.09**	.04	[-17, -.02]
Family-to-Work Conflict → Abusive Supervision			
High Family-to-Work Enrichment	.20***	.04	[.13, 27]
Medium Family-to-Work Enrichment	.31***	.03	[.25, .36]
Low Family-to-Work Enrichment	.41***	.04	[.33, .50]
Family-to-Work Conflict → Passive Leadership			
High Family-to-Work Enrichment	.25***	.04	[.18, .32]
Medium Family-to-Work Enrichment	.36***	.03	[.30, .41]
Low Family-to-Work Enrichment	.46***	.04	[.38, .54]

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

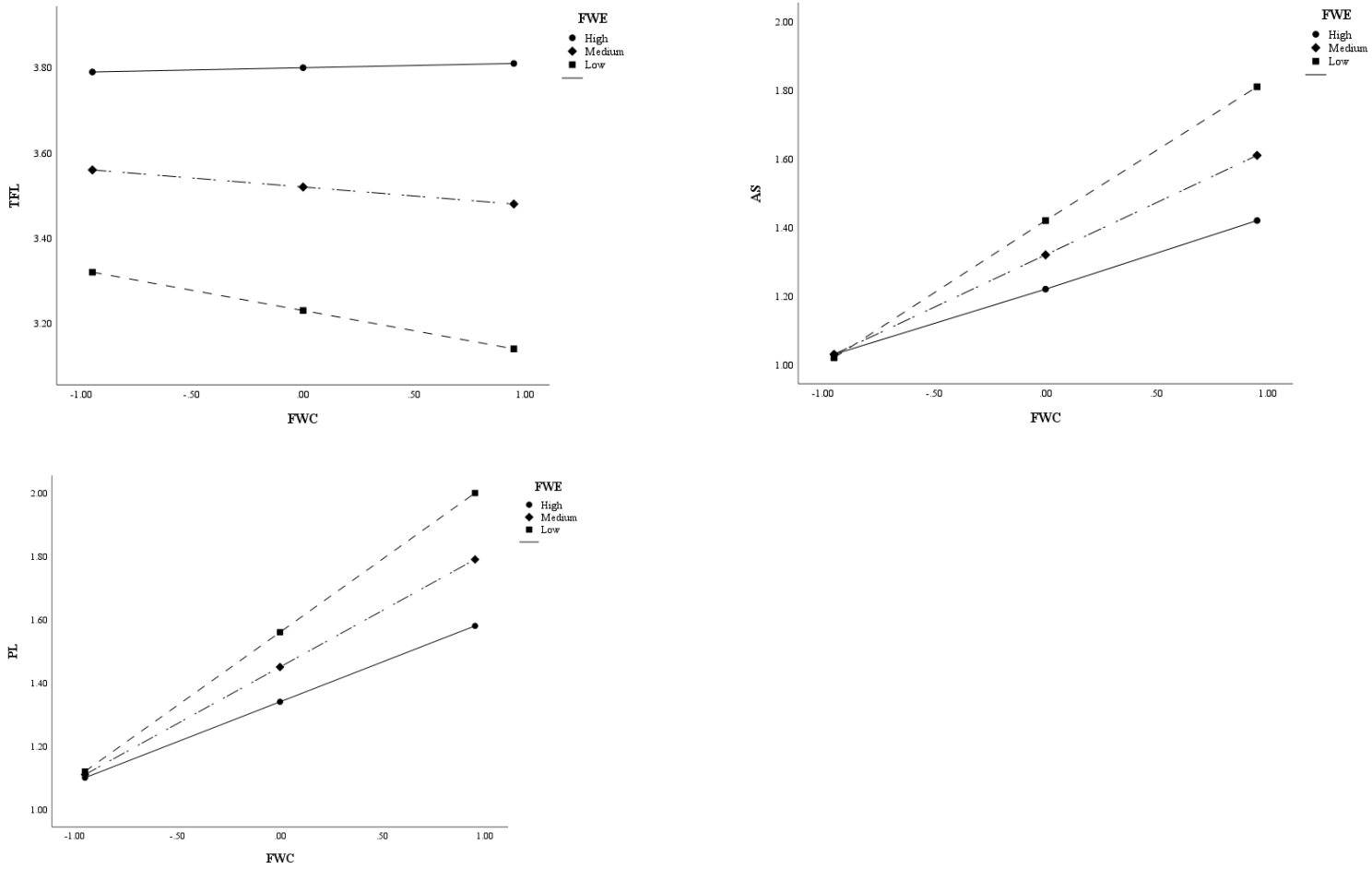
by FWE in a way that at higher levels of FWE, the relationship between FWC and abusive supervision became weaker. Likewise, higher levels of FWE attenuated the positive effect of FWC on passive leadership. Figure 3 illustrates all moderation effects for visual interpretations. While hypothesis 3(b) was rejected, hypothesis 3(a) was fully supported for abusive supervision and passive leadership and partially for transformational leadership.

The model was also tested among men and women to examine further how the impact of FWC and FWE on leadership styles differs among genders. Detailed results are presented in Tables 3 and 4. I note that both models were just-identified. As shown, and consistent with the overall model, hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b) were supported for men. However, for women, FWC predicted only destructive forms of leadership, while FWE was associated only with positive forms of leadership.

Explained variances in leadership styles for men were found to be substantial: transformational leadership (R^2 = .31, p < .001), abusive supervision (R^2 = .38, p < .001), and passive leadership (R^2 = .38, p < .001). For women, on the other hand, effect sizes were medium for destructive leadership: abusive supervision (R^2 = .18, p < .001), and passive leadership (R^2 = .20, p < .001); and large for transformational leadership (R^2 = .26, p < .001). These findings suggest that the impact of family-work dynamics on leadership styles is notably stronger for men across all types of leadership, particularly destructive forms. For women, the variance explained by FWC and FWE in leadership outcomes was more context-dependent, with a stronger emphasis on positive leadership styles.

Additionally, the simple path from FWC to resource loss was significant among both genders, but FWE did not predict resource gain. The test of indirect effects supported the mediating role of resource loss in the relationship between FWC and transformational leadership for men. No significant indirect effects were found for women, indicating that

Figure 3. *Conditional direct effects of FWC on three leadership styles at different levels of FWE.*



Note. FWC = Family-to-Work Conflict; FWE = Family-to-work Enrichment; TFL = Transformational Leadership; AS = Abusive Supervision; PL = Passive Leadership. FWC and FWE were mean-centered.

Table 3. *Path coefficients and indirect effects for moderated mediation model for men.*

	Simple paths									
	Loss		Gain		TFL		AS		PL	
	β	***SE***	***β***	***SE***	***β***	***SE***	***β***	***SE***	***β***	***SE***
FWC	.17**	.06			-.15**	.04	.47***	.05	.50***	.04
FWE			.07	.04	.40***	.05	-.18**	.07	-.22***	.06
FWC × FWE	-.04	.07	.00	.08	.11*	.06	-.19**	.08	-.19***	.07
Resource Loss					.26***	.05	.01	.05	-.01	.05
Resource Gain					.20***	.06	.26***	.08	.15***	.07

	Indirect paths								
	TFL			AS			PL		
	b	***SE***	**Bias-corrected 95% CI**	***b***	***SE***	**Bias-corrected 95% CI**	***b***	***SE***	**Bias-corrected 95% CI**
FWC → Resource Loss	.04**	.01	[.00, .05]	.00	.01	[-.01, .01]	-.00	.01	[-.01, .01]
FWE → Resource Gain	.01	.01	[-.01, .03]	.02	.01	[-.01, .05]	.01	.01	[-.01, .03]
FWC × FWE → Resource Loss	-.01	.02	[-.05, .03]	-.00	.00	[-.00, .00]	.00	.00	[-.00, .01]
FWC × FWE → Resource Gain	.00	.01	[-.02, .02]	.00	.02	[-.03, .04]	.00	.01	[-.02, .02]
Total R^2	.31			.38			.38		

Note. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001. FWC = Family-to-Work Conflict; FWE = Family-to-work Enrichment; TFL = Transformational Leadership; AS = Abusive Supervision; PL = Passive Leadership. FWC and FWE were mean-centered. **The R^2 values for indirect effects are smaller than 0.01 and not included here.**

Table 4. *Path coefficients and indirect effects for moderated mediation model for women.*

	Simple paths									
	Loss		Gain		TFL		AS		PL	
	β	***SE***	***β***	***SE***	***β***	***SE***	***β***	***SE***	***β***	***SE***
FWC	.15*	.05			-.00	.04	.30**	.05	.39***	.05
FWE			.09	.05	.42***	.06	-.11	.06	-.08	.06
FWC × FWE	-.02	.06	.12*	.06	.06	.05	-.10	.07	-.12*	.05
Resource Loss					.23***	.06	.03	.08	-.01	.07
Resource Gain					.13*	.10	.26***	.11	.18*	.12

	Indirect paths								
	TFL			AS			PL		
	b	***SE***	**Bias-corrected 95% CI**	***b***	***SE***	**Bias-corrected 95% CI**	***b***	***SE***	**Bias-corrected 95% CI**
FWC → Resource Loss	.02	.01	[-.00, .05]	.00	.01	[-.01, .02]	-.00	.01	[-.01, .01]
FWE → Resource Gain	.01	.01	[-.01, .03]	.02	.01	[-.01, .05]	.02	.01	[-.01, .04]
FWC × FWE → Resource Loss	-.00	.02	[-.03, .03]	-.00	.00	[-.00, .00]	.00	.00	[-.00, .00]
FWC × FWE → Resource Gain	.02	.01	[-.00, .03]	.02	.01	[.00, .05]	.02	.01	[-.00, .04]
Total R^2	.26			.18			.20		

Note. $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$, $***p < .001$. FWC = Family-to-Work Conflict; FWE = Family-to-work Enrichment; TFL = Transformational Leadership; AS = Abusive Supervision; PL = Passive Leadership. FWC and FWE were mean-centered. **The R^2 values for indirect effects are smaller than 0.01 and not included here.**

Table 5. *Conditional direct and indirect effects of FWC on leadership styles at different levels of FWE across genders.*

	Conditional direct effects					
	Men			Women		
	b	***SE***	**Bias-corrected 95% CI**	***b***	***SE***	**Bias-corrected 95% CI**
Family-to-Work Conflict → Transformational Leadership						
High Family-to-Work Enrichment	-.01	.05	[-.10, .08]	.05	.05	[-.05, .15]
Medium Family-to-Work Enrichment	-.09*	.03	[-.15, .02]	.01	.04	[-.07, .09]
Low Family-to-Work Enrichment	-.16**	.05	[-27, -.06]	-.03	.06	[-.14, .08]
Family-to-Work Conflict → Abusive Supervision						
High Family-to-Work Enrichment	.28***	.05	[.17, .38]	.14***	.04	[.05, .22]
Medium Family-to-Work Enrichment	.45***	.04	[.37, .53]	.17***	.04	[.10, .24]
Low Family-to-Work Enrichment	.63***	.06	[.50, .75]	.20**	.05	[.10, .29]
Family-to-Work Conflict → Passive Leadership						
High Family-to-Work Enrichment	.28***	.05	[.18, .38]	.20***	.05	[.10, .30]
Medium Family-to-Work Enrichment	.45***	.04	[.38, .53]	.26***	.04	[.17, .34]
Low Family-to-Work Enrichment	.63***	.06	[.51, .74]	.31***	.06	[.20, .42]
	Conditional Indirect Effects					
	Men			Women		
	b	***SE***	**Bias-corrected 95% CI**	***b***	***SE***	**Bias-corrected 95% CI**
Family-to-Work Conflict → Resource Loss → Transformational Leadership						
High Family-to-Work Enrichment	.03	.02	[-.01, .07]	.02	.02	[-.01, .07]
Medium Family-to-Work Enrichment	.03**	.01	[.01, .05]	.02	.02	[-.01, .05]
Low Family-to-Work Enrichment	.03**	.01	[.00, .06]	.03	.02	[-.01, .08]

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.

Hypothesis 2(a) was partially supported only for men.

Results also indicated that FWC and FWE interact when predicting all three leadership styles among men. Graphs and illustrations for the men subgroup followed those of the overall population. When focusing on women, however, the interaction between FWC and FWE was significant only when leaders enacted destructive leadership. When comparing women and men for destructive leadership, the moderating effect of FWE becomes stronger among men.

Moreover, except for the moderating effect of FWE on the relationship between FWC and transformational leadership through resource loss among men, no other significant moderated mediation effects were found for either men or women. Table 5 provides conditional direct and indirect coefficients. The results of direct moderation effects are consistent with the overall model. For the conditional indirect effect, the results partially supported the hypothesis. They suggest that the negative indirect effect of FWC on TFL through resource loss diminishes as FWE increases. This means that FWE buffers the adverse impact of FWC on transformational leadership only at its medium and high levels. Also, this moderation effect is trivial. This means that while FWE does buffer the negative impact of FWC on TFL through resource loss, the effect size is minimal.

Discussion

This study used a cross-sectional design to examine the effects of family-to-work conflict (FWC), family-to-work enrichment (FWE), and resource loss and gain on the prediction of three leadership styles: transformational, abusive, and passive. The findings highlight the theoretical and methodological importance of the study. First, consistent with prior research, the findings demonstrate that Family-to-Work Conflict (FWC) not only undermines positive leadership but also contributes to destructive leadership styles. Conversely, Family-to-Work Enrichment (FWE) enhances positive leadership and attenuates

the prevalence of destructive leadership. In the same line, Ten Brummelhuis et al. (2014) showed that, although FWC is related to leaders' burnout, FWE can enhance leaders' engagement. Courtright et al. (2016) also showed that the previous day's level of family-to-work conflict increased leaders' abusive behaviors on the next day. By focusing on specific manifestations of family demands, Dionisi and Barling (2019), indicated that FWC can increase destructive leadership as well. Others also showed that experiencing daily FWE is indeed related to transformational leadership (McClean et al., 2021; Lin et al., 2021).

Second, and perhaps more importantly, this study highlights that FWE can buffer some of the negative effects of FWC, particularly in reducing destructive leadership. This protective effect is more pronounced at higher levels of FWE and varies across genders (gender difference is discussed later in detail). Previous studies have predominantly explored work-life balance through self-assessment (i.e., the perception of balance, see for example Braun & Peus, 2018; Morganson et al., 2014; Weinzimmer et al., 2017), this study aimed to assess the impact of different levels of FWC and FWE on each other. Despite our different methodologies, the results aligned. Previous scholars showed that an imbalanced situation characterized by high conflict and low enrichment is associated with decreased performance and a higher likelihood of turnover (Moazami-Goodarzi et al., 2019; Vieira et al., 2018; Weinzimmer et al., 2017). This implies, for leaders specifically, that a high level of family hassles prevents individuals from optimal functioning, yet an enriching family environment can mitigate this situation.

According to Luhmann et al. (2012), it is hard to focus on anything else, even a work responsibility, when a negative major life event happens. For example, while marriage and having a new child can be a great source of daily family conflict for a leader, a loving supportive partner can decrease the stress to a high degree. Despite the wealth of research on the impact of transformational leadership on followers' ability to balance their family and

work lives (Allen, 2001; French et al., 2018), research on how family-to-work conflict can impede transformational leadership is almost non-existent. This study, however, shows that although FWC negatively predicts transformational leadership, this negative effect becomes non-significant even at the medium level of FWE, which highlights the significant role of FWE. This also implies that when family work enrichment is at its high levels, leaders are more likely to practice transformational enactment. Even when conflict arises, enriched leaders are able to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors. Additionally, highly enriching families make passive and abusive leaders less destructive. Findings are in line with previous studies that showed experiencing high conflict and low enrichment results in lower job performance, life satisfaction, and higher turnover intentions (Rantanen et al., 2013; Vieira et al., 2018).

My mediation analysis suggests that resource loss partially explains the impact of FWC on transformational leadership. Even if very small, this effect is found to be positive and introduces a surprising twist. It appears that leaders experiencing resource loss may respond by enhancing their transformational behaviors, possibly as a way to compensate for the stress and depletion caused by FWC. This indicates that, in the face of adversity, some leaders might double down on positive leadership practices, perhaps to ensure that their negative family events do not interfere with their effectiveness at work. Additionally, in light of the cross-sectional design, it is possible that the causation was reversed. Scholars have shown that enacting transformational leadership can lead to resource depletion due to the high levels of time, energy, and emotional investment required (Byrne et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2019; Poetz & Volmer, 2023). As such, it is more plausible to argue that higher levels of transformational leadership are associated with resource loss, rather than resource loss leading to transformational leadership.

Previous studies have identified resource gain as an antecedent to transformational leadership (e.g., Barling et al., 2000; Bono & Judge, 2004; Byrne et al., 2014). Yet in this study, the indirect effect of FWE on transformational leadership through resource gain was not found to be significant. One possible reason is that prior research has looked at how specific personal traits (e.g., moral reasoning, emotional intelligence, and extraversion) as resources contribute to positive leadership. In contrast, this study examines more general family-related resources. It seems that while family resources can be gained through enriching experiences, they might not directly boost transformational leadership unless they specifically enhance personal resources (such as self-confidence). Essentially, it's not just about having family resources, but how those resources translate into personal growth that makes a difference in leadership style. Of course, future research could further explore this relationship to confirm this argument.

Moreover, my results showed that resource gain from FWE significantly influences abusive supervision. The predictive role of resource loss in the enactment of destructive leadership has been demonstrated in various studies (e.g., Bani-Melhem et al., 2022; Dionisi & Barling, 2019; Dóci & Hofmans, 2015; Liu et al., 2015). However, this unexpected finding challenges the assumption about the mediating role of resource gain here. By examining the simple effects, the results suggest that resource gain from family-related enrichment is positively associated with all three leadership styles. This implies that as leaders experience greater family-related resources, they are more able to freely express leadership behaviors they have already developed. As discussed earlier, FWE, WFE, FWC, and WFC have shown stronger effects on outcomes within the same domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hill, 2005; Lapierre et al., 2018; Michael et al., 2011). In other words, when leaders experience work-related conflict, the negative impact is more pronounced on their professional life than on their family life. Conversely, when their family life is enriching, the positive effects are

more significant in their personal life than in their professional role. Therefore, it is reasonable to argue that family-enriching experiences help leaders leverage the resources gained to focus more on their work. It is only a matter of organizational antecedents in which leadership style was developed.

Previous research has identified various antecedents of abusive supervision, including supervisor-related factors (e.g., narcissism, low self-esteem), organizational-related factors (e.g., competitive environment, lack of organizational support), and subordinate-related factors (e.g., subordinates' incompetence, low performance, or challenging behavior) (e.g., Zhang & Bednall, 2016). Given this, if the organizational context triggers the enactment of abusive supervision, the resources gained from family enrichment may mitigate this tendency by facilitating the enactment of leadership behaviors that have already been internalized.

Another plausible explanation could be related to how resource loss and gain were measured in this study. The use of a checklist might have introduced limitations in capturing the full complexity of these constructs and thus might have fallen short in accurately reflecting resource loss and gain. The possibility becomes stronger when considering the unexpected positive effect of resource gain on both destructive leadership styles and resource loss on transformational leadership. Hobfoll and Lilly (1993) assessed loss and gain patterns over a specific period when developing the COR-E measure. Therefore, using this checklist for a cross-sectional study, might not fully capture the change in the resources. Participants were asked to rate their resource loss or gain through a checklist, which provides information on their experiences but does not capture changes in these resources over time and how they might relate to leadership styles. Not many studies have used this measure, so future research could further analyze this argument.

Finally, the gender-specific findings shed light on how different work-family experiences influence men's and women's leadership styles. Findings for men follow the pattern observed in the general population. Evidence suggests that FWC is detrimental in leadership enactments among men subgroups by encouraging destructive leadership and depressing the constructive one. On the contrary, FWE enhances transformational leadership and helps reduce abusive and passive leadership among men. For women, FWC is associated only with destructive leadership, and FWE is positively and more strongly linked to transformational leadership. More specifically, men are more strongly influenced by negative family-work events, which increases the likelihood of them exhibiting abusive and passive leadership styles. This means that men may be more prone to destructive leadership enactment under family-work stress. In contrast, women manage negative family events more effectively in the workplace and are better at leveraging enriching family experiences to enhance their leadership behaviors. Consistent with our findings, recent studies have shown that women can actually benefit from their family involvement in their work roles (e.g., Boz et al., 2016; Thomas, 2015). To explain the underlying reasons, Rothbard (2001) argued that better synergetic mental models of family and work roles among women explain the negative effect of FWC on their work. This argument, however, can be extended further: these synergetic mental models may also enable women leaders to capitalize on enriching experiences at home to enhance their leadership styles at work. Furthermore, the different coping strategies men and women adopt when facing stress may offer another explanation. Studies on gender differences in coping strategies (Bonneville-Roussy et al., 2017; Liddon et al., 2017; Peterson et al., 2006) have shown that women are more likely to employ social and constructive strategies (i.e., leading to positive outcomes like problem-solving) whereas men tend to resort to more destructive strategies (i.e., resulting in adverse outcomes such as passive or abusive leadership). Consequently, when faced with family conflicts, men are

more prone to exhibit destructive leadership behaviors. Moreover, as previously argued, leaders who struggle to regulate their emotions and exhibit lower cognitive and affective abilities are more likely to engage in abusive supervision (Byrne et al., 2014; Courtright et al., 2016; Dionisi & Barling, 2019). These tendencies can be further elucidated through studies on gender differences. For instance, Goubet and Chrysikou (2019) found that women employ more strategies and exhibit more flexibility in emotion regulation under stress. Similarly, Verona and Curtin (2006) indicated that while both genders displayed an increase in aggression when frustrated, men exhibited higher levels of aggression, particularly under general stress conditions. Accordingly, these findings suggest that FWC, as a stressful condition, may worsen destructive leadership styles, with men being more prone due to their comparatively lower capacity for regulating their frustration, emotional responses, and hostility.

The interaction effect of FWE and FWC in predicting different leadership styles seems to operate differently among genders. Results suggest that the preventive effect of FWE helped passive and abusive women leaders, whereas, for men, all leaders could benefit from FWE advantages more strongly. Previous studies considering family-to-work conflict and enrichment dynamics combinations found no gender differences in workplace outcomes (Rantanen et al., 2013; Valcoure et al., 2007; Weinzimmer et al., 2017). Studies in this area, nevertheless, are scarce, and none has considered the impact on leadership enactment in the workplace. While the current findings can be partially explained by prior research, future studies should critically assess the validity of these justifications. For instance, Neff and Karney (2005) indicated that women often provide greater familial support when their spouses experience stressful conditions. This may explain why a stronger moderating effect of FWE was observed among men. Additionally, others found that women tend to perceive and benefit from social support more than men (Caetano et al., 2013; Tifferet, 2020).

Similarly, Reevy and Maslach (2001) noted that women are more likely to seek and receive social support. Consequently, the enrichment and support provided by family may hold greater significance for men, particularly when experiencing FWC.

Implications

The findings of this study will have several implications. While the majority of studies on antecedents of effective leadership have focused on organizational factors, the present study goes beyond the walls of organizations. It highlights the importance of maintaining a work-life balance for leaders. As a well-established fact in the leadership literature, transformational leadership is what subordinates aspire to, while abusive and passive forms of leadership are not desired. Therefore, leaders need to invest more in providing a balance between family and work. It is important for leaders to proactively practice enrichment and seek professional support when family life gets stressful.

Organizations may believe that selection and training are the only ways to foster transformational leadership. This study, however, suggests a different way organizations can promote positive leadership and refrain from negative leader behaviors: Facilitating the perception of FWE and helping leaders avoid FWC. Organizations might be reluctant to interfere with their personnel's private lives, however, investment in leaders' work-life balance is beneficial in the prevailing family-supportive culture. Leaders are role models in their organizations and therefore a central key in shaping organizational culture. By providing a family-friendly culture not only leaders themselves focus on their family matters but also other employees will learn to practice this culture and take advantage of it. Incentivizing leaders to benefit from family-supportive policies can also benefit organizations as studies have shown leaders' FWC can spill over to employees (e.g., Courtright et al., 2016). As discussed earlier, practicing these policies by leaders has a determinative role in elevating positive organizational outcomes such as lower turnover intentions, higher organizational

commitment, and job satisfaction among employees (e.g., Haar & Roche, 2010; Muse et al., 2008; van Daalen et al., 2006). Lapierre et al. (2018) have pointed out several organizational policies that promote FWE and provide social support to leaders and their followers. These policies include but are not limited to paternal leave, job sharing, flexible work hours, flexible work location, workplace nurseries, etc. Additionally, it is wise for organizations to provide counseling to help leaders and employees better confront their family conflicts. Aside from “formal policies”, it is important that organizations foster a supportive atmosphere where everyone accepts that, on some days, their colleagues, subordinates, or leaders, may have to address family issues and provide support to them. Therefore, investing in the family role could be both personally and professionally rewarding while also encouraging effective and successful leadership. It is worth noting that work-to-family enrichment will also be achieved (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Lapierre et al., 2018; Oren & Levin, 2017) since bringing up family matters at home would not be frowned upon and workplace support will be provided.

Building on the gender-specific findings, organizations can adopt approaches that acknowledge how family dynamics uniquely influence men and women. For male leaders, offering coaching on how to leverage FWE can help redirect their focus toward more constructive leadership behaviors. Raising awareness about the benefits of social and familial support is equally important to help male leaders better navigate work-life challenges. At the same time, organizations can build on female leaders' strengths by providing opportunities for mentorship and leadership development, as women often excel at turning positive family experiences into effective leadership outcomes. Tailored support systems, such as emotional regulation and boundary-setting training for men, as well as open conversations around work-life balance, can reduce stigma and empower leaders to address personal challenges proactively.

Limitations and Future Direction

The present study like any other studies will have some limitations that need to be taken into account. Firstly, it is a cross-sectional study and, therefore, a causal inference cannot be drawn. A future longitudinal design or a daily diary study would address this concern. Data was also collected from leaders through a self-report survey. This raises concerns about bias in responses as participants tend to present themselves in a socially favorable and acceptable way. It is suggested that future studies ask subordinates to rate their leaders on their style to obtain more reliable data. Moreover, the sample size will be limited to leaders from North America. Although this sample would potentially be diverse in terms of ethnicity, race, language, etc., cultural differences might limit its generalizability. As found by Masuda et al. (2019), FWC is higher in collectivist cultures and as such, processes might be different in different cultures. Therefore, other researchers are encouraged to consider the effect of family life on leadership styles while taking into account collectivism versus individualism. Another important limitation is related to resource loss and gain measurement in this study. The shorter version of the COR-E (Hobfoll & Lilly, 1993) scale used in this study might have not been comprehensive enough to capture all resources available to a person. However, a new scale needs to be developed that while not a checklist, provides a holistic measurement of resources (such as physical, cognitive, affective, etc.) that can contribute to work-life balance.

Despite these limitations, the study's findings will bring out valuable insights into the work-life balance and leadership field that can inform evidence-based practices and guide future research in this area.

Conclusion

I surveyed 579 leaders to examine the effect of FWC and FWE on transformational, passive, and abusive leadership styles. It was hypothesized that [a] these effects would be

mediated by resource loss/gain and [b] the FWE would moderate the effect of FWC on leadership. My results partially support these suggestions showing the moderating effect of FWE on relationships between FWC and leadership. Support for the hypothesized mediation was less clear. Although the results varied slightly between genders, it is suggested that organizations create a more supportive family atmosphere for their leaders.

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Appendix A

Family-to-Work Conflict – Conflict Scale (Carlson et al., 2000)

1. The time I spend on family responsibilities often interferes with my work responsibilities.
2. The time I spend with my family often causes me not to spend time on activities at work that could be helpful to my career.
3. I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.
4. Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work.
5. Because I am often stressed by family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.
6. Tension and anxiety from my family life often weaken my ability to do my job.
7. The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.
8. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work
9. The problem-solving behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be as useful at work.

Family-to-Work Enrichment – Family-to-Work Positive Spillover Scale (Hanson et al., 2006)

1. When things are going well in my family life, my outlook regarding my job is improved.
2. Being in a positive mood at home helps me to be in a positive mood at work.
3. Being happy at home improves my spirits at work.
4. Having a good day with my family allows me to be optimistic at work.
5. Skills developed in my family life help me in my job.
6. Successfully performing tasks in my family life helps me to more effectively accomplish tasks at work.

7. Behaviors required in my family life lead to behaviors that assist me at work.
8. Carrying out my work responsibilities is made easier by using behaviors performed as part of my family life.
9. Values developed in my family make me a better employee.
10. I apply the principles of my family values in work situations.
11. Values that I learn through my family experiences assist me in fulfilling my work responsibilities.

Resource Loss/Gain – COR-E (Hobfoll & Lilly, 1993)

1. Family stability
2. Time with loved ones
3. Health of family members
4. Intimacy with family members
5. Time for adequate sleep
6. Essentials for children
7. Housing that suits my family's needs
8. Help with children
9. Help with tasks at home
10. Personal health
11. Adequate financial credit (e.g., financial stability, savings for emergencies, etc.)
12. Free-time
13. Adequate food
14. Intimacy with at least one friend
15. Feeling that my life is at peace
16. Feeling that my life has meaning or purpose
17. Adequate appliances/furnishing for home

18. Companionship
19. Stamina/endurance
20. Loyalty of family members

Abusive Supervision – Abusive Supervision Scale (Tepper, 2000)

1. I ridiculed my subordinates.
2. I told my subordinates that their thoughts or feelings were stupid.
3. I gave my subordinates the silent treatment.
4. I put my subordinates down in front of others.
5. I invaded my subordinates' privacy.
6. I remind my subordinates of their past mistakes and failures.
7. I did not give my subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort.
8. I blamed my subordinates to same my embarrassment.
9. I broke the promises I made.
10. I expressed anger at my subordinates when I was mad for another reason.
11. I made negative comments about my subordinates to others.
12. I was rude to my subordinates.
13. I did not allow my subordinates to interact with their coworkers.
14. I told my subordinates they were incompetent.
15. I lied to my subordinates.