

© 2018. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

This version is the accepted manuscript. The final version is available at:
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2018.01.006>

Citation: García-Cabrera, A. M., Lucia-Casademunt, A. M., Cuéllar-Molina, D., & Padilla-Angulo, L. (2018). Negative work-family/family-work spillover and well-being across Europe in the hospitality industry: The role of perceived supervisor support. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 26, 39-48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2018.01.006>

NEGATIVE WORK-FAMILY/FAMILY-WORK SPILLOVER AND WELL-BEING ACROSS EUROPE IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED SUPERVISOR SUPPORT

Antonia M. García-Cabrera,
agarcia@dede.ulpgc.es,

Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (Spain)
Professor of Strategic Management at the Economic and Business Administration
Department of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria University

Ana M^a Lucia-Casademunt,
alucia@uloyola.es,

Universidad Loyola Andalucía (Spain)
Professor of Business Organization
Business Administration Department of Universidad Loyola Andalucía (Seville-
Cordoba, Spain).

Deybbi G. Cuéllar-Molina
dcuellar@dede.ulpgc.es,

Escuela Universitaria de Turismo de Lanzarote adscrita a la Universidad de Las Palmas
de Gran Canaria (Spain)
Professor of Management and Marketing at the School of Tourism of Lanzarote
(attached University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain).

Laura Padilla-Angulo,
lpadilla@uloyola.es,

Universidad Loyola Andalucía (Spain)
Adjunct Professor of Economics
Department of Economics at Universidad Loyola Andalucía in Seville, Spain

Abstract

Employees in the fast-growing tourism sector must juggle work-family responsibilities with negative implications for well-being (Erden, & Bayazit, 2017). While the tourism literature highlights that general work-family conflict (or spillover) negatively affects well-being, there is scant literature distinguishing between the impact of negative work-family spillover, NWFS (i.e. when the direction is from work to the family domain) and negative family-work spillover, NFWS (i.e. when the direction is from the family to the work domain) on job well-being. There is also scant literature studying these two types of conflict differentiating both by gender and work status (part time and full time) and exploring the moderating role of perceived supervisor support. To fill this gap in the literature, we analyse a sub-sample of 1.494 from the most recent version of the European Working conditions Survey (6th EWCS-2015). We find a significant impact of perceived supervisor support on employee's job well-being and provide empirical evidence of the existence of differences in the impact of work-family spillover, the role of perceived supervisor support and its moderating role on employees' job well-being. These differences mainly respond to (i) work status (ii) conflict direction and (ii) gender.

1. INTRODUCTION

In general, the tourism sector has a substantial economic and social impact in every territory (UNWTO/UNESCO, 2015). Thus, tourism is unquestionably an important industry in the global economy. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2017), travel and tourism's contribution to the worldwide gross domestic product (GDP) outpaced the global economy for the sixth consecutive year in 2016, rising to a total of 10.2% of the world GDP (US\$7.6 trillion). This sector now employs 292 million people throughout the world. The hospitality industry contributes significantly to the European economy, representing employment for 1 out of every 13 jobs (Ernst and Young, 2013). The outlook for the sector remains robust, and employment creation is expected to rise substantially.

However, the data about the economic growth of the industry do not reflect the quality of jobs, given that the hospitality industry is a sector with generally difficult work conditions for employees. For example, low salaries and limited financial gains are factors that cause demotivation and dissatisfaction for tourism sector employees (Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan, & Buyruk, 2010), similar to the effect of the frequent use of temporary contracts in

this industry (Dawson, Veliziotis, & Hopkins, 2017). In addition, hospitality jobs are characterized by long hours of work, irregular working time and ‘unsocial’ work hours and split shifts (Gamor, Amissah, Amissah, & Nartey, 2017; Zhao, & Ghiselli, 2016). Under these circumstances, individuals experience conflicts between work and family roles; that is, work interferes with family duties and vice versa. Thus, employees in the hospitality industry must juggle work and family responsibilities, which can become a challenge (Karatepe, & Baddar, 2006) that may harm their well-being (Cho, & Tay, 2016; Erden, & Bayazit, 2017) and erode their performance at work (Boyd, 1997). The idea of well-being can be conceptualized as the way in which people evaluate their life (Diener, 2009), including their work and personal lives. Thus, the quality of employees’ work life should be a critical and central concern for hospitality organizations. Indeed, well-being is a constant source of debate for work-family researchers and public policy advocates (Cleveland, O’Neill, Himelright, Harrison, Crouter, & Drago, 2007; Zhao, Qu, & Ghiselli, 2011), who recommend a revision of the pattern of relationships in work-family conflicts and their consequences (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011).

In this context, it must be noted that the United Nations has declared 2017 the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development. This decision aims to promote recognition of the high potential of the tourism industry to help to overcome the poverty in that sector and foster reciprocal understanding among countries and cultures, which is part of UNESCO’S key goals. Given that one of the main facets of employment and working conditions in the tourism sector is social tourism sustainability (Fortanier, & van Wijk, 2010), managers should be aware of the need to improve such conditions. According to Fortanier, & van Wijk (2010) and considering the importance of offering employees in this industry well-being, it is important to consider the underlying factors and conditions for such well-being.

Some of the previous literature on relationships between well-being and work-family conflict focuses on spillovers (e.g., Kinnunen, Tarufeldt, Geurts, & Pulkkinen, 2006; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010; Cho, & Tay, 2016; Nohe, Meier, Sonntag, & Michel, 2015) as well as on the moderating role of social support (Nohe, & Sonntag, 2014) because supervisor support may alleviate employees’ work-family conflict (O’s Driscoll et al., 2003). However, these previous works are mute on the likely impact of these spillovers on employees’ well-being when they consider differences between genders and work status (i.e., full-time versus part-time employment), which are two relevant factors

in this industry. First, part-time work is much more prevalent in service organizations such as those found in the hospitality industry because employers seek to obtain short-term cost reductions by hiring part-time employees so they can easily address the variations in customer demands (e.g., peaks on weekends, nights, and holidays). However, according to social exchange theory, this status can harm individuals' commitment to an organization and their willingness to go beyond the core job requirements to contribute to the organization (Stamper, & Van Dyne, 2013). Nevertheless, it is apparent that employees who work full time could require more flexible work arrangements than those who work part-time (Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013) to reconcile their responsibilities in the family and work domains, which will also affect their well-being (Cho, & Tay, 2016; Erden, & Bayazit, 2017) and, consequently, their contributions to the organization (Boyd, 1997). Second, according to traditional gender assumptions and cultural pressures, working fathers are expected to devote their time to their career (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2017); nevertheless, they face increasing cultural pressures to dedicate energy and time to childcare (Milkie, Nomaguchi, & Denny, 2015). Conversely, working mothers are required to devote more time and commitment to their family role and simultaneously to accommodate work-related responsibilities because women generally bear greater responsibility for domestic tasks than men do (Davis, Greenstein, & Marks, 2007).

Thus, because the processes that link work and family interference may vary depending on personal characteristics such as gender and work conditions such as work status and because there is a lack of research on this issue, the current study aims to analyse the effect of perceived work-family and family-work spillover as well as supervisor support on hospitality employees' well-being, differentiating by gender and work-status. To achieve this, an empirical analysis was performed using data from 27 European countries.

This research offers two main potential contributions to the literature. First, the present study investigates whether work-family spillover and family-work spillover predict well-being at work in the hospitality industry considering the moderating role of supervisor support and controlling by age and number of children. It offers evidence about which employees experience the greatest challenges to achieve well-being in the hospitality industry according to these life and labour circumstances. Second, the study identifies the potential subgroups for whom work-family conflict may be particularly problematic by examining gender and work status as conditions that can affect the linkages between

spillover and well-being. Thus, this research provides theoretical implications that support a better understanding of how managers can effectively design and develop human resource interventions to address negative work-family/family-work spillover according to employee-specific circumstances. The conclusions of this study can guide managers in the decision-making process to ensure improved policies in their organizations.

2. THEORETICAL ISSUES

2.1 Well-being at work

Over the past few years, employees' well-being has been of great interest in positive organizational psychology. The research on well-being is a broad concept that has flourished in recent decades (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002) and there is lack of its definition and its measurement (Franco-Santos, & Doherty, 2017) due to it has been analysed from a multidisciplinary approach. Drawing on Warr's (1987) conceptualization, Grant, Christianson, & Price (2007: 52) define well-being at workplace as "the overall quality of an employee's experience and functioning at work". These authors conclude that there are three main facets of job-related well-being, which are related to physical, psychological, and social functioning. We will adopt the psychological approach in this work as according to Topp et al. (2015), this approach has been applied successfully across a wide range of study fields. From this psychological approach, the hedonic and the eudemonic well-being can be distinguished (Guest, 2017). On one hand, the "hedonic" approach to well-being is defined in terms of pleasure achievement and pain avoidance, and it refers to subjective feelings of happiness. The "eudemonic" approach usually refers to the degree to which a person is fully functioning (Robertson, & Cooper, 2011). In the current research, we adopt the eudemonic perspective of psychological well-being. So, and following Schulte, & Vainio (2010), well-being is considered to comprise three components: enthusiasm, pleasure or serenity, and vitality or strength. These components are based on Warr's (1987) model and are also considered by World Health Organization (WHO), regional office for Europe (1998) for elaborating a well-being Index based on the eudemonic approach.

Managers can affect their employees' well-being by modifying the dimensions of organizational contexts such as working hours, tasks or rewards (Danna, & Griffin, 1999). Both employees and employers may profit from increased well-being. Specifically,

organizations with employees who experience poor well-being are subject to negative effects due to employees who are less productive, make poor-quality decisions, are more prone to absenteeism (Boyd, 1997), and suffer from decreased performance.

Given the importance of well-being, there is the need to have a deep understanding of the factors that condition it. The previous works highlight the relevance of the relationships between work-family conflict and well-being on the basis of the impact of spillovers (e.g., Kinnunen, Tarufeldt, Geurts, & Pulkkinen, 2006; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010; Cho, & Tay, 2016; Nohe, Meier, Sonntag, & Michel, 2015) as well as the role of supervisor support (O's Driscoll et al., 2003). We study these variables and relationships below.

2.2 Negative Work-Family Spillover (NWFS) and Negative Family Work Spillover (NFWS)

Work-family spillover occurs when “behaviours, moods, stress, and emotions from work are transferred to the family domain” (Lawson et al., 2013, p. 273), and family-work spillover occurs when the direction is from the family to the work domain. Thus, work-family spillover experiences can take four forms: negative and positive spillover from work to family and from family to work. The present study focuses on negative work-family spillover (NWFS) and negative family-work spillover (NFWS). In essence, NWFS and NFWS capture inter-role conflicts between work and family roles (Hyondong et al., 2017).

As Netemeyer et al. (1996) note, NWFS occurs when “the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the job interfere with performing family-related responsibilities”, and NFWS occurs when “the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the family interfere with performing work-related responsibilities” (p. 401). An example of a demand created by a job that may cause NWFS is the need to work late. An example of a demand created by the family that may cause NFWS is the need to leave work early to pick up a sick child from school.

Identity theory highlights the importance of examining both types of conflict in relation to employees' well-being (e.g., Burke, 1991; Frone et al. 1996; Schlenker, 1987). This theory has been used by other research areas to examine the impact of NFWS and NWFS on workplace conditions that affect employees' well-being (e.g., Hyondong et al. 2017 in a study on their influence in the demand for flexible work arrangements). Identity theory

posits that “people devote considerable time and energy to constructing and maintaining desired identities. Moreover, people are threatened when their self-images are damaged by impediments to self-identifying activities” (Frone et al., 1996, p.58).

NWFS may prevent people from successfully fulfilling their responsibilities at home, thereby making it difficult for them to “construct and maintain a positive family-related self-image (e.g., I’m a devoted and successful mother or father)” (Frone et al., 1996, p.58). NFWS may prevent people from successfully fulfilling work demands and may be an impediment to a person’s ability to “construct and maintain a positive work-related self-image (e.g., I’m a devoted and successful employee, manager, or business owner)” (Frone et al., 1996, p.58). In line with this, some of the research (e.g., Hyondong et al., 2017) finds that both NWFS and NFWS are important sources of explanation of the demand for flexible work arrangements to alleviate conflicts in the work–family interface.

The previous research associates work-family conflict with lower levels of general well-being (e.g., Frone et al., 1992; Hughes, & Galinsky, 1994; Kinnunen, & Mauno, 1998; Noor, 2004; Nohe, & Sonntag, 2014). In the hospitality industry, the research finds that NWFS and NFWS increase turnover intentions (Johnston et al., 1988; Karatepe, & Karadas, 2014), which are a precursor to actual turnover, a major problem that is faced by this industry and closely related to job satisfaction (Karatepe, & Uludag, 2008). Similarly, other studies report that work-family conflict (NWFS and/or NFWS) is associated with lower levels of employees’ well-being (Ross, & Boles, 1994; Namasivayam, & Zhao, 2007; Karatepe, & Baddar, 2006; Karatepe, & Sokmen, 2006; Zhao et al., 2011) and affective work attitudes (Zhao, & Mattila, 2013).

Based on the identity theory and the above research that suggests that perceived NWFS and NFWS are related to employees’ well-being, we hypothesize the following:

H1a: The greater the perceived NWFS, the lower the perceived well-being.

H1b: The greater the perceived NFWS, the lower the perceived well-being.

2.3 Supervisory support and job well-being

There is empirical evidence that workplace social support from supervisors, or supervisor support (SS), also helps to increase employees’ job satisfaction and well-being (House, 1981; Buunk, & Verhoeven, 1991; Savery, 1988; Marcinkus et al., 2007; Gilbreath, &

Benson, 2004). In addition, supervisor support represents a resource that is needed to address the demands that arise from conflicts in the work-family interface (Karatepe, & Uludag, 2008) and thus diminish the abovementioned spillovers (Thompson, Brough, & Schmidt, 2006). For example, in the hospitality industry, the previous studies report that some management behaviours are perceived by employees as the main source of stress at work that leads to job dissatisfaction, such as being undervalued, a lack of consultation, and inadequate feedback (Law et al., 1995; Faulkner, & Patiar, 1997). A supervisor's willingness to discuss work-family issues with employees who experience family-work spillover and to inform them of policies and practices such as flexible work arrangements (Nohe, & Sonntag, 2014) can be important.

The theory of perceived organizational support (POS) (Eisenberger et al., 1986) is helpful in understanding the link between management behaviour and employees' well-being and attitudes (Rhoades, & Eisenberger, 2002). The POS theory says that employees in an organization develop global beliefs with regard to the extent to which the organization cares about their well-being and values their contributions. Obviously, SS is perceived by employees as an indicator of POS (Boselie et al., 2005). Employees have direct contact with their immediate supervisor, who very often becomes the personification of the organization (Levinson, 1965). We expect that the perception of SS by employees will affect employees' well-being.

The previous research finds that employees' perception that the organization for which they work is family-supportive is associated with higher levels of employees' well-being (Marcinkus et al., 2007). In fact, very often, studies equate SS with family-supportive practices and consider SS to be a part of "family friendliness" (Marcinkus, 2007). Thus, SS is one of the most direct means through which companies can demonstrate a truly family-supportive culture. Accordingly, based on the POS theory and the empirical evidence described above, we hypothesize the following:

H2: The greater the perception of SS, the greater the perceived well-being.

2.4 Supervisory support as a moderator in the influence of perceived NWFS and NFWS on well-being

The previous research finds that work social support can moderate the influence of work-family conflict on job satisfaction and performance. For example, Hsu (2001) finds that although work-family conflict has a negative impact on job satisfaction in stressful

working environments, perceived SS significantly alleviates this negative impact on job satisfaction. Similarly, Wang, & Tsai (2014) find that work social support weakens the relationship between the perception of work-family conflict of nurses and their performance in the workplace. Additionally, Nohe, & Sonntag (2014) find that the relationship between NWFS and increases in the turnover intentions of employees in a German company is buffered by supervisor support.

In the tourism and hospitality industry, studies explore the relationship between work-family conflict and SS from different perspectives. For example, Ross, & Boles (1994) report the negative impact of work-family conflict on food servers' job satisfaction and find that SS diminishes food servers' perception of work-family conflict. Similarly, Karatepe, & Bektashi (2008) find that workplace social support enhances facilitation between the work (family) and family (work) domains (the opposite of work-family conflict) of frontline hotel employees.

In many cases, the finding that perceived SS significantly alleviates the negative impact of work-family conflict on job satisfaction can be explained through the impact of work social support on the level of employees' stress at work. The generation of stress is one of the most important negative consequences of work-family conflict (Allen et al., 2000), and previous research finds that workplace social support alleviates the negative impact of stressful situations on employees' well-being. For example, studies such as Babin, & Boles (1996) or Parasuraman et al. (1992) find that SS can help to decrease work stress and increase employees' well-being. Additionally, Viswesvaran et al. (1999) find that social support buffers the negative relationship between job stress and strain.

In the psychological literature, according to the buffering hypothesis, the level of perceived social support (for instance, from the supervisor) can influence the appraisal of the individual of stressful situations. As Nohe, & Sonntag (2014) put it, "Potential stressors are appraised as more manageable and less threatening when individuals perceive high levels of social support" (p. 3). That is, as a result of high levels of social support, an employee should be less likely to perceive low levels of well-being with the experience of NWFS or NFWS.

In line with these results, there is a paucity of research that investigates the impact of the *interaction* of SS and work-family conflict on employees' well-being in the tourism and hospitality industry. We believe that the perception by employees that their supervisor

helps and supports them may help them to cope with and minimize the negative impact that perceived NWFS and NFWS can have on their well-being. The immediate supervisor is close to the employees, interacts with them on a daily basis and hence can perceive first-hand the problems that they face daily, which may involve NWFS and NFWS. In essence, the immediate supervisor becomes the most relevant organizational medium to help employees balance work and family. In other words, very often, the supervisor is uniquely qualified to offer alternatives that legitimately meet employees' needs and accommodate them when they have family or personal business (e.g., meeting with a child's teacher, medical appointments). A supportive supervisor understands employees when they talk about their personal or family issues that affect their work and cares about the effects that work demands have on an employee's personal and family life. With this type of supervisor, employees tend to feel comfortable bringing up family or personal issues (Mennino et al., 2005).

Based on the above reasoning and empirical evidence, we hypothesize the following:

H3a: Supervisor support moderates the negative effect of NWFS on well-being such that this negative relationship is weaker when supervisor support is high.

H3b: Supervisor support moderates the negative effect of NFWS on well-being such that this negative relationship is weaker when supervisor support is high.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Data sources and study context

The data are obtained from the latest European Working Conditions Survey 6th EWCS (Eurofound, 2015), which was conducted in 2015 by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. The survey addresses issues in the general job context. The target population under study involves workers aged 15 years and older (16 and older in Spain, the UK and Norway) who are employed in the country being surveyed. The number of interviews in the EWCS (2015) was 43,816 in 27 EU member states (except Switzerland, Ukraine, the Czech Republic and Russia) as well as some countries that were not yet members of the Union (Turkey, Croatia, Norway, Macedonia, Montenegro, Albania and Kosovo). The sample used in the EWCS is representative of those workers aged 15 years and older (16 and older in Spain, the UK

and Norway) who are employed in the country being surveyed. Moreover, in each country, a multi-stage, stratified random sampling design was used according to geographic regions, level of urbanization and limited geographical areas. A screening procedure was applied to select the eligible respondent within each household. Among others, the sampling principles followed for the 6th EWCS were as follows: using the best probability sample design possible in each country to ensure that every population member had a known non-zero chance of selection; using at least 50 primary sampling units (PSUs) per country to achieve a maximum of 20 achieved interviews per PSU; randomly selecting one household at an address (where applicable) or, randomly selecting one eligible respondent per household (Eurofound, 2015).

Table 1.

| Country | n | % | Country | n | % |
|-----------------------|----------|----------|--------------------|----------|----------|
| Austria | 47 | 3.1 | Malta | 21 | 1.4 |
| Belgium | 53 | 3.5 | Netherlands | 23 | 1.5 |
| Bulgaria | 41 | 2.7 | Poland | 27 | 1.8 |
| Croatia | 37 | 2.5 | Portugal | 46 | 3.1 |
| Cyprus | 71 | 4.8 | Romania | 19 | 1.3 |
| Czech Republic | 32 | 2.1 | Slovakia | 35 | 2.3 |
| Denmark | 12 | .8 | Slovenia | 63 | 4.2 |
| Estonia | 16 | 1.1 | Spain | 177 | 11.8 |
| Finland | 17 | 1.1 | Sweden | 15 | 1.0 |
| France | 27 | 1.8 | UK | 34 | 2.3 |
| Germany | 64 | 4.3 | Montenegro | 45 | 3.0 |
| Greece | 80 | 5.4 | FYROM | 35 | 2.3 |
| Hungary | 26 | 1.7 | Serbia | 22 | 1.5 |
| Ireland | 37 | 2.5 | Turkey | 103 | 6.9 |
| Italy | 66 | 4.4 | Norway | 14 | .9 |
| Latvia | 23 | 1.5 | Switzerland | 50 | 3.3 |
| Lithuania | 22 | 1.5 | Albania | 72 | 4.8 |
| Luxembourg | 22 | 1.5 | - | - | - |

In light of the objective of this research, we obtained a sample of 1,494 hospitality employees from the full database. It is included in Section I of the Statistical Classification of Economic Activities in the European Community (NACE), which lists accommodation and food service activities (NACE codes 55-Accommodation and 56-Food and beverage service activities).

From a demographic perspective, the sample participants are on average 35.71 years of age. With regard to their educational level, more than half of them (58.9%) had reached “upper secondary education”; 94% worked in the private sector and 3.5% in the public sector. The largest percentage of employees (47.1%) was concentrated in medium-sized organizations with 10-to-49 employees. The sample of 1,494 hospitality employees was divided into smaller sub-samples for further analysis: females (51.3% of sample), males (48.7% of sample), part-time employees (26.3% of sample) and full-time employees (73.7% of sample).

3.2 Measures

Dependent variable. Five questions included in the EWCS questionnaire were used to create an index that measures employee’s well-being. It is based on an individual’s state of mind according to World Health Organization, regional office for Europe (1998) with the WHO (Five) Well-Being Index. Specifically, the factor analysis with varimax rotation and performed with principal components estimation, included the following questions: Please indicate for each of the five statements which is the closest to how you have been feeling over the last two weeks: “I have felt cheerful and in good spirits”; “I have felt calm and relaxed”; “I have felt active and vigorous”; “I woke up feeling fresh and rested” and “My daily life has been filled with things that interest me”. According to Topp et al., (2015), the 5-item World Health Organization Well-Being Index (WHO-5) assesses subjective psychological well-being and has been applied across a wide range of study fields.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity (χ^2) both offer satisfactory levels (KMO=0.735 $\chi^2=2198.553^{***}$). The variance explained rises to 79.17%. According to Cronbach’s alpha coefficients the scales used to measure employees’ well-being have internal consistency (0.867).

Independent variables. Three items were chosen from the 6th EWCS as proxies of Supervisor Support, Negative work-family spillover and Negative family-work spillover. Although numerous researchers are in favour of using multiple-item measures, the trend has been challenged (Loo, 2002). In fact, authors have analysed the validity of single-item measures, and their findings provide qualified support for these measures (Nagy, 2002; Robins, Hending, & Trzesniewski, 2001). The use of a single-item scale to capture

the constructs under study has demonstrated the ability to predict outcomes (Wanous, & Hudy, 2001). In particular, *Supervisor Support* was measured through the following question: For the following statement, please select the response that best describes your work situation: “Your manager helps and supports you” (Likert scale that ranges from “Never – 1” to “Always – 5”).

Negative work-family spillover and *negative family-work spillover* were measured through the following two questions, respectively: “Have you found that your job has prevented you from giving the time you wanted to your family [How often have you...?]”; “Have you found that your family responsibilities have prevented you from giving the time that you should to your job [How often have you?]” (Likert scale ranging from “Never – 1” to “Always – 5”).

Control variable. Two variables were treated as control variables in the multivariate analyses to be reported: *Age* and *Number of Children*. The previous studies of hospitality employees' NWFS demonstrate the usefulness of these variables (Jensen et al., 2014; Yavas, Babakus, & Karatepe, 2008). For example, having more children is associated with increased personal and professional demands, which leads to higher levels of work-family conflict and consequently to poor well-being (Kinnunen, & Mauno, 1998; Perrewe, Hochwarter, & Kiewitz, 1999). Moreover, several authors have suggested that *Age* is an important control variable in well-being research (e.g., Veld, & Alfes, 2017). Many studies confirm that years of experience garnered by age may allow people to design their jobs better and overcome adversity (Rafferty, & Jimmieson, 2017). This assertion is consistent with research that shows positive correlations between *Age* and well-being (Nikolova et al., 2014). Thus, we expect *Age* to positively affect well-being.

3.3. Data analysis

First, bivariate correlations were examined among the variables under study. Second, a multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to study which variables explain the main effect of the independent variables and the moderating effect of supervisor support on the impact of NWF and NFW spillovers on well-being. The variables were introduced in the following three steps: controls (age and number of children), negative work-family spillover, negative family-work spillover and supervisor support (NWF, NFW and SS), and two interacting effects ($NWF \times SS$; $NFW \times SS$). A collinearity diagnostics has been

conducted in linear regressions through a variance inflation factor (VIF) and a condition number in order to assess the potential for regression coefficient instability. The *F* statistic and adjusted *R*² were calculated in each step, as were the β values for all of the variables that were introduced. These analyses were performed using SPSS version 21.0 (IBM Corp 2012). All of the regressions were estimated for the full sample and for the sub-samples of female, male, part-time and full-time employees.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Who experiences work-family conflict and well-being?

Table 2 provide descriptive statistics and correlations among life circumstances (age and number of children), spillover, supervisor support and interaction effect variables for the total sample. Table 2 demonstrates that all of the control and independent variables have significant correlations with the study variable of employee well-being. These findings indicate that older employees, those with a higher number of children, and those who face negative work-family/family-work spillovers experience lower well-being. However, employees who are supported by their supervisor experience better well-being. In addition, employees with children experience more work-family conflict (NWFS and NFWS).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and correlations between well-being, age, spillover, supervisor support and interaction terms

| | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---------------------|--------|--------|----------|---------|---------|----------|----------|----------|-------|---|
| 1.Well-being | .00647 | .98319 | 1 | | | | | | | |
| 2.Age | 35.71 | 12.776 | -.079** | 1 | | | | | | |
| 3.Children | .5241 | .86868 | -.073** | .234*** | 1 | | | | | |
| 4.NWFS | 2.390 | 1.2297 | -.303*** | .023 | .203*** | 1 | | | | |
| 5.NFWS | 1.719 | .95148 | -.277*** | -.002 | .146*** | .451*** | 1 | | | |
| 6.SS | 3.817 | 1.1561 | .278*** | -.066* | .007 | -.188*** | -.132*** | 1 | | |
| 7.NWFS x SS | -.177 | 1.0347 | .072** | .031 | -.030 | -.069* | -.032 | .060* | 1 | |
| 8.NFWS x SS | .000 | 1.0000 | -.277*** | -.002 | .146*** | .451*** | 1.00*** | -.132*** | -.032 | 1 |

4.2 Does work-family conflict predict employees' well-being?

Table 3 shows the regressions that were estimated to analyse the direct and moderating effects proposed in the hypotheses. The two control variables have different effects in the estimated equations. For example, in the total sample and in the sample of men, age appears to be significant and negatively influential in well-being ($\beta = -.072^*$ and $\beta = -.102^*$, respectively). However, age is not a determining factor in explaining females' well-being and full/part-time employees' well-being in the hospitality sector. The latest results support the homogeneity of the female and full/part-time employees' samples by showing that gender and number of children do not have significant effects on well-being. In addition, the fact that women and men do or do not have children is not a crucial aspect in terms of job well-being. This result with regard to the relationship of number of children and family-to-work spillover is not in line with the previous studies (e.g., Grandey, & Cropanzano, 1999; Kinnunen, & Mauno, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 1996), which conclude that having children who live at home has simultaneously negative and positive spillover effects that consequently reduce well-being. Our result could be consistent with Grzywacz, & Marks (2000), who state that children appear to enhance positive interaction between work and family, which is reflected positively in family life through learned skills and good mood.

With regard to the direct effects (Step 2), the results confirm hypotheses H1a and H1b and verify the significant and negative effect that is exerted by work-life conflict (i.e., Negative Work-Family Spillover, Negative Family Work Spillover) on well-being for both women ($\beta = -.201^{***}$; $\beta = -.186^{***}$) and men ($\beta = -.255^{***}$; $\beta = -.180^{***}$) and for full-time employees ($\beta = -.245^{***}$; $\beta = -.213^{***}$), although for part-time employees this effect is only found for Negative Work-Family spillover ($\beta = -.274^{***}$). The findings imply that individuals with high levels of negative work-family/family-work spillover experience lower well-being in the workplace. In practical terms, work-family conflict is a highly negative factor in terms of well-being. In the case of part-time employees, negative family-work spillover does not influence well-being ($\beta = -.095$). Part-time employees may be able to manage their entire home and family responsibilities because of their reduced work schedule; consequently, what occurs at home rarely interferes with work. Moreover, the result may indicate that work status represents an employee's strategy to improve work-life balance (De Cieri et al., 2005) even if it means differences in the work

behaviour of part-time employees, such as less job involvement or organizational commitment (Stamper, & Van Dyne, 2003).

Table 3. Results of estimated models examining life circumstances, work-life conflict and supervisor support as predictors of well-being

| Variables | Model 1 General Model (n=1,494) | Model 2 Female Employees (n=766) | Model 3 Male Employees (n=728) | Model 4 Part-time Employees (n=1,132) | Model 5 Full-time Employees (n=362) |
|---|--|---|---|--|--|
| Step 1: Controls | | | | | |
| Age | -.072* | -.057 | -.102* | -.051 | -.051 |
| Number of Children | -.039 | -.071 | .013 | .012 | -.059 |
| ΔR^2 | 0.8% | 1% | 1% | 0.2% | 0.7% |
| ΔF | 5.136** | 3.250** | 2.840* | 0.379 | 2.989* |
| Step 2: Controls + Main Effect (Work-life conflict) | | | | | |
| Age | -.092** | -.066 | -.122** | -.095 | -.081 |
| Number of Children | .027 | .023 | .042 | .102 | .005 |
| Negative Work-family Spillover | -.226*** | -.201*** | -.255*** | -.274*** | -.245*** |
| Negative Family-Work Spillover | -.183*** | -.186*** | -.180*** | -.095 | -.213*** |
| ΔR^2 | 11.7% | 9.9% | 13.9% | 9.9% | 14.6% |
| ΔF | 83.096*** | 36.678*** | 47.123*** | 17.275*** | 69.266*** |
| Step 3: Controls + Main effects (Work-life conflict)+ Main Effect (Social Support) | | | | | |
| Age | -.074* | -.057 | -.088* | -.075 | -.064* |
| Number of Children | .014 | .016 | .015 | .083 | -.004 |
| Negative Work-family Spillover | -.191*** | -.171*** | -.218*** | -.215*** | -.217*** |
| Negative Family-Work Spillover | -.167*** | -.174*** | -.162*** | -.083 | -.199*** |
| Supervisor Support | .215*** | .167*** | .272*** | .248*** | .201*** |
| ΔR^2 | 4.4% | 2.6% | 7% | 5.7% | 3.9% |
| ΔF | 66.439*** | 20.208*** | 52.067*** | 21.173*** | 38.557*** |
| Step 4: Controls + Main effects (Work-life conflict)+ Main Effect (Social Support)+ Interaction Effect | | | | | |
| Age | -.077** | -.061 | -.092* | -.076 | -.071** |
| Number of Children | .017 | .019 | .019 | .091 | .007 |
| Negative Work-family Spillover | -.193*** | -.175*** | -.218*** | -.223*** | -.220*** |
| Negative Family-Work Spillover | -.159*** | -.163*** | -.157*** | -.078 | -.183*** |
| Supervisor Support | .215*** | .170*** | .270*** | .231*** | .184*** |
| NWFS x SS | .012 | .029 | .015 | .010 | .056 |
| NWFS x SS | .066* | .075* | .057 | .061 | .101*** |
| ΔR^2 | 5% | 0.8% | 0.3% | 0.3% | 1.8% |
| ΔF | 3.895* | 3.147* | 0.933 | 9.096*** | 0.497 |
| Final adjusted R ² | 17.5% | 14.3% | 22.1% | 21.0% | 16.2% |
| F | | 15.724*** | 23.374*** | .497 | 9.096*** |
| Condition Number | 14.336 | 14.243 | 14.619 | 15.042 | 15.118 |
| VIF | 1.061-1.324 | 1.030-1.236 | 1.128-1.265 | 1.051-1.333 | 1.063-1.723 |

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

Furthermore, supervisor support represents an important and positive influence on well-being (Steps 3 and 4); thus, H2 is supported. Because supervisor support is a resource that is needed to face difficulties that arise from the work-family interface (Karatepe and Uludag, 2008), it is found to be beneficial for well-being. Specifically, in Step 3, which

is similar to Step 4, for men ($\beta = .272^{***}$), supervisor support, is almost twice as important as it is for women ($\beta = .167^{***}$). As said by Mooney, & Ryan (2009), males dominate most of the supervisory positions in hotels. So, a possible explanation for our result is that, compared with women, men might receive some more help from supervisors because such male supervisor may be more sensitive to men employee's difficulties in meeting their obligations in both family and work domains. In addition, we must take in account that we study the employees' *perception* of supervisor support. So, it might be that men value more positively than women the support they receive from their supervisors. This result is in line to some prior studies within the service industry, such as Ling Suan, & Mohd Nasuridin (2017) who, in an analysis of gender differences of hotel employees in Malaysia, find that the relationship between supervisor support and work engagement was stronger for men than for women. They argue that the perceptions of supervisor support are expected to be highly appreciated by male employees, as support fosters greater career advancement and promotion opportunities, highly limited in the hotel industry (Kuslivan et al., 2010).

Lastly, the regression analysis examines the moderating role of supervisor support on the effect of NWFS and NFWS on well-being (Step 4). In all of the cases, we find a non-significant impact for the cross effect of work-family spillover and supervisor support on perceived well-being. Thus, our results suggest that supervisors are not able to manage work interference on the family domain. That is, the relationship between the perception of NWFS and well-being does not differ regardless of whether employees in general do or do not perceive support from their supervisor; thus, H3a is disregarded. This result is in accordance with Karatepe (2009), who concluded that the interaction of supervisor support does not significantly influence work-family spillover. The author states that supervisor support as a resource might not have been enough to mitigate employees' work-family spillover in the hospitality industry. In our opinion, the supervisor's area of influence is mainly restricted to employees' life in the organization, and it is almost unfeasible that they might have an impact on the family domain. Thus, other types of social support should alleviate employees' work-family spillover.

In addition, although supervisor support improves men's well-being, it does not have an impact on the effect of both work-family and family-work spillover on well-being; thus, the male sample's results support neither H3a nor H3b. However, in the case of women,

the supervisor does mitigate the negative impact of the responsibilities that are exerted by the family on job demands, probably because women are more involved and committed to home life than men are. The latter finding (family-work spillover) is in accordance with those of Karatepe, & Uludag (2008) and Karatepe (2009). Hence, for this sub-sample, the findings do not support H3a; however, they support H3b.

Figure 1 plots the significant interaction that was estimated for the full sample. It shows that the role that is played by supervisor support in increasing employees' well-being is more important for those individuals who face high family-work spillover, who are clearly those with a greater need support. Indeed, these individuals eventually reach higher well-being at work than those who face low family-work spillover. This likely occurs because employees who experience strong challenges in reconciling work and family responsibilities to a greater extent value the support that they receive from their supervisors and obtain positive states such as enthusiasm, cheerfulness or joy in their firm –in other words, higher well-being (Warr, 1987). For the cases of the female and full-time employee samples, the positive and negative impact of the significant variables are the same as they are for the full sample. The plots of the estimated interactions are not shown because they illustrate similar patterns as in Figure 1.

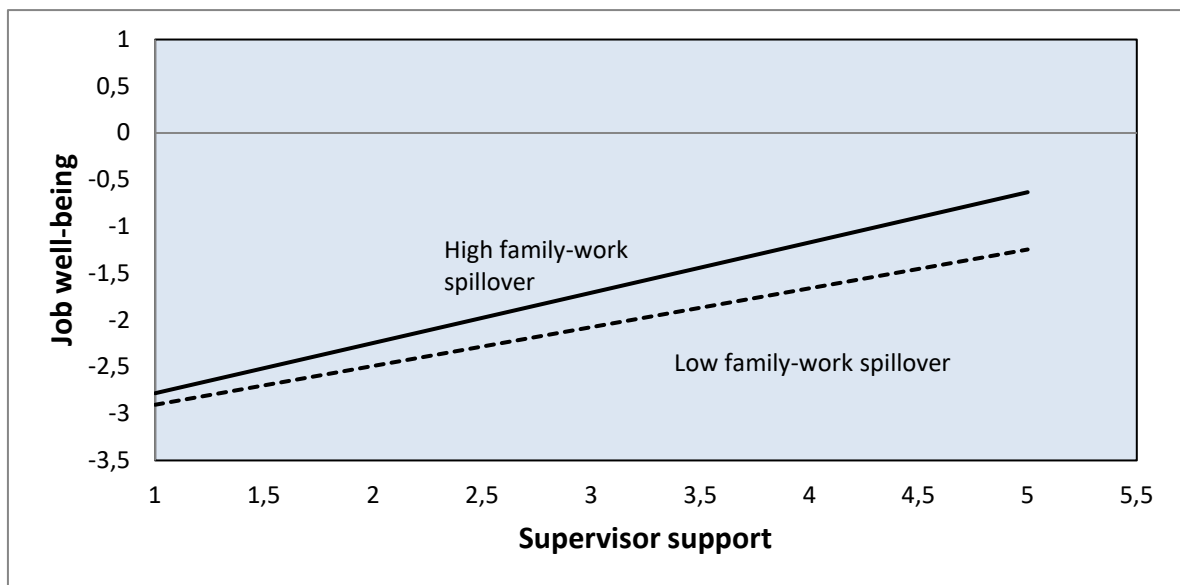


Figure 1. Interaction effects among supervisor support and family-work spillover in predicting hospitality employees' well-being

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Research on work-family conflict shows ample signals of strong correlation between the two domains in the lives of any individual. Nevertheless, further investigations are required to analyse whether work-family conflict is specific for each sector of economic activity or whether it can be generalized across industries. This may be of particular relevance in the tourism industry, where human resources are central for quality of service, customer loyalty and satisfaction, organizational performance and competitiveness (Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilham, & Buyruk, 2010). Employees in this industry often face long hours of work, irregular working time, work overload, low remuneration, night, weekend and holiday shifts, hectic job conditions and demanding and difficult customers (Karatepe, & Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe, & Olugbade, 2009; Wong, & Ko, 2009). Consequently, employees' hospitality industry often experience tensions between high job demands and family-personal responsibilities (Zhao, & Namasivayam, 2012). In fact, Gamor, Amissah, & Boaky (2014) revealed that work time involvement was the factor that affected most of work-family conflict in employees' hospitality industry from hotel of one to three star hotels in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. Further, two key characteristics of employment in the tourism and hospitality industry require special consideration: (1) the proportion of female employees, who generally work in the lower levels of the occupational structure, and (2) the proportion of full-time employees in the workforce. Human resource management in this industry faces the challenge of balancing these two domains (Karatepe, 2009).

This paper provides an overview of work-family conflict as a severe stress factor in the workplace that leads to low psychological well-being and the dampening impact of social support on such relationship in the tourism industry at the EU level.

Specifically, our results reveal that the number of children has no relationship with well-being, although the literature has offered evidence for the importance of the need to care for children as a source of strain, and a great deal of research shows that greater work-family stress should be negatively associated with measures of well-being (Spector et al., 2004). Moreover, this study confirms the causal and negative relationship between work-family and family-work spillover and the employee's well-being in the tourism industry. In line with the previous studies (e.g., Biswakarma, Sandilyan, & Mukherje, 2015), we conclude that work that is performed during non-standard hours and the number of hours has a significant effect on the well-being of employees. Based on linear regression, the

results also reveal that supervisor support alleviates work-family conflict. In particular, the negative impact of family-work spillover on well-being was lower when accompanied by supervisor support. Broadly speaking, negative family-work spillover with adequate supervisor support can balance the demands from family lives and consequently improve employees' well-being. This finding is in accordance with those of Karatepe, & Uludag (2008). In addition, we find gender differences in the role that supervisor support plays in explaining employee's wellbeing and its interaction with negative family-work spillover. European women consider supervisor support to be a means of buffering the effects of negative family-work spillover on well-being, whereas men do not. We propose two possible explanations for this finding. According to Karatepe's study (2009) in Turkey, Europe is surprisingly still a male-dominated society. Although women are fully integrated into the labour market, they still have the main responsibility for addressing childcare, home and family responsibilities. This finding suggests the need to support female employees by making family and work roles compatible in the hospitality industry because the role of supervisor support acquires special relevance to mitigate negative family-work spillover on well-being. It is advisable to avoid a result whereby female employees employ strategies that involve sacrificing work to achieve balance between work and family (Keene, & Quadagno, 2002). The same occurs with full-time employees; thus, despite arguments against part-time status, it represents a human resource strategy to mitigate the effect of work-family conflict on employees' well-being. Therefore, when an employee experiences NFWS, support from supervisors may diminish the negative appraisal by helping the employee to define, understand, and cope with the causes of FWS (Nohe, & Sonntag, 2014).

Contrary to the study prediction addressed in H4a, *Supervisor support moderates the negative effect of NWFS on well-being such that this effect weaker*, the interaction of supervisor support does not moderate this relationship. One potential explanation for this finding is that, surprisingly, supervisor support as an organizational resource can do little with regard to work interference with regard to family responsibilities as employees' family specificities go beyond the supervisor's capacity. Thus, other types of social support, such as family/spousal or friend support, can help to reduce work interference with the family. In this line, Karatepe, & Bektashi (2008) conclude that family support alleviates both work-family spillover and family-work spillover. It is likely that our finding greatly depends on the particular characteristics and work conditions of the

hospitality industry's needs and demands (e.g., labour intensive or anti-social work hours).

Implications for practice

Current research offers several useful guidelines for managerial practice in the hotel industry, which is characterized by low-quality human resource management practices (Rowley, & Purcell, 2001). Maybe the clearest implication is that organizations may influence employees' well-being by reducing their work-family and family-work spillover. Fundamentally, human resource managers should provide and maintain a family-supportive work environment, such as subsidized or on-site childcare services, paid family leave or flexible work arrangements. This is particularly relevant for female employees, who face high levels of family-work spillover that are mainly due to their role as mothers. Thus, it would also be useful for human resource managers to investigate the particular life and family concerns that affect employees and to foster family-work specific social support. This approach will provide better-adapted practices and policies to the different personnel profiles. Second, the literature has shown that having supporters at workplace may help employees to reduce family-work spillover (Lakau, Carlson, & Nielson, 2006). Leaders or mentors could be encouraged to provide emotional and instrumental support when their mentees experience work-family conflict (Nohe, & Sonntag, 2014). This support will primarily concentrate on high levels of smooth communication with regard to the family/life domain and work.

References

- Allen, T. D., Herst, D. E., Bruck, C. S., & Sutton, M. (2000). Consequences associated with work-to-family conflict: a review and agenda for future research. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 5(2), 278. DOI: 10.1037//1076-8998.5.2.278
- Allen, T. D., Johnson, R. C., Kiburz, K. M., & Shockley, K. M. (2013). Work–family conflict and flexible work arrangements: Deconstructing flexibility. *Personnel Psychology*, 66(2), 345–376. DOI: 10.1111/peps.12012
- Amstad, F. T., Meier, L. L., Fasel, U., Elfering, A., & Semmer, N. K. (2011). A meta-analysis of work–family conflict and various outcomes with a special emphasis on cross-domain versus matching-domain relations. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 16(2), 151–169. DOI: 10.1037/a0022170
- Babin, B. J., & Boles, J. S. (1996). The effects of perceived co-worker involvement and supervisor support on service provider role stress, performance and job satisfaction. *Journal of retailing*, 72(1), 57-75. DOI: 10.1016/S0022-4359(96)90005-6
- Biswakarma, S. K., Mousumi, M., & Sandilyan, P. R. (2015). Effect of TQM in hospitality industry: a comparative study of hotels of Kolkata. *International Journal of Social Science and Interdisciplinary Research*, 4(1), 1-11. ISSN: 2277-3630
- Boselie, P., Dietz, G., & Boon, C. (2005). Commonalities and contradictions in HRM and performance research. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 15(3), 67-94. DOI: 10.1111/j.1748-8583.2005.tb00154.x
- Boyd, A. (1997). Employee traps-corruption in the workplace. *Management Review*, 86(8), 9-10. ISSN: 0025-1895
- Burke, P. J. (1991). Identity processes and social stress. *American Sociological Review*, 56, 836-849. DOI: 10.2307/2096259
- Buunk, B. P., & Verhoeven, K. (1991). Companionship and support at work: A microanalysis of the stress-reducing features of social interaction. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 12(3), 243-258. DOI: 10.1207/s15324834basps1203_1
- Cho, E., & Tay, L. (2016). Domain satisfaction as a mediator of the relationship between work–family spillover and subjective well-being: a longitudinal study. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 31(3), 445-457. DOI: 10.1007/s10869-015-9423-8

Cleveland, J. N., O'Neill, J. W., Himelright, J. L., Harrison, M. M., Crouter, A. C., & Drago, R. (2007). Work and family issues in the hospitality industry: Perspectives of entrants, managers, and spouses. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 31(3), 275-298. DOI: 10.1177/1096348007299919

Danna, K., & Griffin, R. W. (1999). Health and well-being in the workplace: A review and synthesis of the literature. *Journal of management*, 25(3), 357-384. DOI: 10.1177/014920639902500305

Davis, S. N., Greenstein, T. N., & Gerteisen Marks, J. P. (2007). Effects of union type on division of household labor: Do cohabiting men really perform more housework?. *Journal of Family Issues*, 28(9), 1246-1272. DOI: 10.1177/0192513X07300968

Dawson, C., Veliziotis, M., & Hopkins, B. (2017). Temporary employment, job satisfaction and subjective well-being. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 38(1), 69-98. DOI:10.1177/0143831X14559781

De Cieri, H., Holmes, B., Abbott, J., & Pettit, T. (2005). Achievements and challenges for work/life balance strategies in Australian organizations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(1), 90–103. Doi.org/10.1080/0958519042000295966

Diener, E. (2009). Happiness. In M. R. Leary & R. H. Hoyle (Eds.), *Handbook of individual differences in social behavior* (pp. 147–160). New York, NY: Guilford.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchinson, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 500–507. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500.

Erden Bayazit, Z., & Bayazit, M. (2017). How do flexible work arrangements alleviate work-family-conflict? The roles of flexibility i-deals and family-supportive cultures. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1–31. DOI: 10.1080/09585192.2017.1278615

Ernst and Young (2013). The Hospitality Sector in Europe. An Assessment of the Economic Contribution of the Hospitality Sector Across 31 Countries (pp. 147–160). The Brewers of Europe. ISBN 978-2-9601382-0-7

Eurofound (2015). Available: <https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/es/surveys/european-working-conditions-surveys/sixth-european-working-conditions-survey-2015>

Faulkner, B. & Patiar, A. (1997). Workplace induced stress among operational staff in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 16(1), 99–117. DOI: 10.1016/S0278-4319(96)00053-9

Fortanier, F., & Van Wijk, J. (2010). Sustainable tourism industry development in sub-Saharan Africa: Consequences of foreign hotels for local employment. *International Business Review*, 19(2), 191–205.

Franco-Santos, M., & Doherty, N. (2017). Performance management and well-being: a close look at the changing nature of the UK higher education workplace. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 28(16), 2319–2350. DOI: 10.1080/09585192.2017.1334148

Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Barnes, G. M. (1996). Work-family conflict, gender, and health-related outcomes: A study of employed parents in two community samples. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 1, 57–69. DOI: 10.1037//1076-8998.1.1.57

Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work family conflict: Testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 65–78. DOI: 10.1037//0021-9010.77.1.65

Gamor, E., Amissah, E. F., Amissah, A., & Narthey, E. (2017). Factors of work-family conflict in the hospitality industry in Ghana. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 1–20. DOI: 10.1080/15332845.2017.1328263

Gilbreath, B., & Benson, P. G. (2004). The contribution of supervisor behaviour to employee psychological well-being. *Work & Stress*, 18(3), 255–266. DOI: 10.1080/02678370412331317499

Grandey, A. A., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). The conservation of resources model applied to work–family conflict and strain. *Journal of vocational behavior*, 54(2), 350–370. Doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1998.1666

Grzywacz, J. G., & Marks, N. F. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work–family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 5(1), 111.

Grzywacz, J. G., Almeida, D. M., & McDonald, D. A. (2002). Work–family spillover and daily reports of work and family stress in the adult labor force. *Family relations*, 51(1), 28–36. DOI: 10.1111/j.1741-3729.2002.00028.x

House, J. S. (1981). *Work stress and social support*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Hsu, Y.R. (2011). Work-family Conflict and Job Satisfaction in Stressful Working Environments: the Moderating Roles of Perceived Supervisor Support and Internal Locus of Control. *International Journal of Manpower*, 23(2), 233–248. DOI: 10.1177/0972150916668696

Hughes, D. L., & Galinsky, E. (1994). Gender, job and family conditions, and psychological symptoms. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 18, 251–270. DOI: 10.1111/j.1471-6402.1994.tb00454.x

Hyondong K., Youngsang K. & Dae-Lyong K. (2017). Negative work–family/family–work spillover and demand for flexible work arrangements: the moderating roles of parenthood and gender, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, DOI:10.1080/09585192.2016.1278252

Jensen, M. T. (2014). Exploring business travel with work–family conflict and the emotional exhaustion component of burnout as outcome variables: The job demands–resources perspective. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23(4), 497–510.

Johnston, M.W., Futrell, C.M., Parasuraman, A. & Sager, J. (1988). Performance and job satisfaction effects on salesperson turnover: a replication and extension, *Journal of Business Research*, 16(1), 67–83. DOI: 10.1016/0148-2963(88)90081-1

Karatepe, O. M. (2009). An investigation of the joint effects of organisational tenure and supervisor support on work-family conflict and turnover intentions. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 16(1), 73–81. DOI: 10.1375/jhtm.16.1.73

Karatepe, O. M., & Aleshinloye, K. D. (2009). Emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion among hotel employees in Nigeria. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(3), 349–358. Doi: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2008.12.002

Karatepe, O. M., & Baddar, L. (2006). An empirical study of the selected consequences of frontline employees' work–family conflict and family–work conflict. *Tourism Management*, 27(5), 1017–1028. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2005.02.009

Karatepe, O. M., & Bektashi, L. (2008). Antecedents and outcomes of work–family facilitation and family–work facilitation among frontline hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27: 517–528. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2007.09.004

Karatepe, O. M., & Kilic, H. (2007). Relationships of supervisor support and conflicts in the work–family interface with the selected job outcomes of frontline employees. *Tourism management*, 28(1), 238–252. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2005.12.019

Karatepe, O. M., & Olugbade, O. A. (2009). The effects of job and personal resources on hotel employees' work engagement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 504–512. Doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2009.02.003

Karatepe, O. M., & Uludag, O. (2008). Affectivity, conflicts in the work–family interface, and hotel employee outcomes. *International Journal of hospitality management*, 27(1), 30–41. Doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2007.07.001

Karatepe, O.M. & Karadas, G. (2014). The effect of psychological capital on conflicts in the work-family interface, turnover and absence intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 43, 132–143. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.09.005

Karatepe, O.M. & Sokmen, A. (2006). The effects of work role and family role variables on psychological and behavioral outcomes of frontline employees. *Tourism Management* 27(2), 255–268. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2004.10.001

Keene, J. R., & Quadagno, J. (2002). Beyond role models: Institutional structures and workers' perceptions of work-family balance. *Persons, Processes, and Places: Research on Families, Workplaces and Communities*. San Francisco.

Keyes, C. L., Shmotkin, D., & Ryff, C. D. (2002). Optimizing well-being: the empirical encounter of two traditions. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 82(6), 1007. DOI: 10.1037/0022-3514.82.6.1007

Kim, H., Kim, Y., & Kim, D. L. (2017). Negative work–family/family–work spillover and demand for flexible work arrangements: the moderating roles of parenthood and

gender. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1–24. DOI: 10.1080/09585192.2016.1278252

Kinnunen, U., & Mauno, S. (1998). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict among employed women and men in Finland. *Human Relations*, 51, 157–177. DOI: 10.1023/A:1016962202639

Kinnunen, U., Feldt, T., Geurts, S., & Pulkkinen, L. (2006). Types of work-family interface: Well-being correlates of negative and positive spillover between work and family. *Scandinavian journal of psychology*, 47(2), 149–162. DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-9450.2006.00502.

Kusluvan, S., Kusluvan, Z., Ilhan, I., & Buyruk, L. (2010). The human dimension: A review of human resources management issues in the tourism and hospitality industry. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 51(2), 171–214. DOI: 10.1177/1938965510362871

Lankau, M. J., Carlson, D. S., & Nielson, T. R. (2006). The mediating influence of role stressors in the relationship between mentoring and job attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68(2), 308–322.

Law, J., Pearce, P.L. & Woods, B.A. (1995). Stress and coping in tourist attraction employees. *Tourism Management*, 16(4), 277–284. DOI: 10.1016/0261-5177(95)00017I

Lawson, K.M., Davis, K.D., Crouter, A.C. & O'Neill, J.W. (2013). Understanding work-family spillover in hotel managers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33, 273–281. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.09.003

Levinson, H. (1965). Reciprocation: The relationship between man and organization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 9, 370–390. DOI: 10.2307/2391032

Ling Suan, C. & Mohd Nasurdin, A. (2016) Supervisor support and work engagement of hotel employees in Malaysia: Is it different for men and women?. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 31(1), 2–18. DOI: 10.1108/GM-11-2014-0105

Loo, R. (2002). A Caveat on Using Single-Item Versus Multiple-Item Scales, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 17(1), 68–75. Doi: 10.1108/02683940210415933.

Marcinkus, W. C., Whelan-Berry, K. S., & Gordon, J. R. (2007). The relationship of social support to the work-family balance and work outcomes of midlife women. *Women in Management Review*, 22(2), 86–111. DOI: 10.1108/09649420710732060

- McNall, L. A., Nicklin, J. M., & Masuda, A. D. (2010). A meta-analytic review of the consequences associated with work–family enrichment. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(3), 381–396. DOI 10.1007/s10869-009-9141-1
- Mennino, S. F., Rubin, B.A. & Brayfield A. (2005). Home-to-Job and Job-to-Home Spillover: The Impact of Company Policies and Workplace Culture. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 46,107–35. DOI: 10.1111/j.1533-8525.2005.00006.x
- Milkie, M. A., Nomaguchi, K. M., & Denny, K. E. (2015). Does the amount of time mothers spend with children or adolescents matter? *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 77(2), 355–372. DOI:10.1111/jomf.12170
- Mooney, S., & Ryan, I. (2009). A woman's place in hotel management: upstairs or downstairs? *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 24(3), 195-210. DOI: 10.1108/17542410910950877
- Nagy, M. S. (2002). Using a single-item approach to measure facet job satisfaction. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 75(1), 77–86.
- Namasivayam, K. & Zhao, X. (2007). An investigation of the moderating effects of organizational commitment on the relationships between work–family conflict and job satisfaction among hospitality employees in India. *Tourism Management*, 28 (5), 1212–1223. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2006.09.021
- Netemeyer, R. G., Boles, J. S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work-family conflict and family-work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 400–410. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.81.4.400
- Nohe, C., & Sonntag, K. (2014). Work–family conflict, social support, and turnover intentions: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 85, 1–12. DOI:10.1016/j.jvb.2014.03.007
- Nohe, C., Meier, L. L., Sonntag, K., & Michel, A. (2015). The chicken or the egg? A meta-analysis of panel studies of the relationship between work–family conflict and strain. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(2), 522. DOI: 10.1037/a0038012
- Noor, N. M. (2004). Work-family conflict, work- and family-role salience, and women's well-being. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 144, 389–405. DOI: 10.3200/SOCP.144.4.389-406

O'driscoll, M. P., Poelmans, S., Spector, P. E., Kalliath, T., Allen, T. D., Cooper, C. L., & Sanchez, J. I. (2003). Family-responsive interventions, perceived organizational and supervisor support, work-family conflict, and psychological strain. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 10(4), 326. DOI: 10.1037/1072-5245.10.4.326

Parasuraman, S., Greenhaus, J. H., & Granrose, C. S. (1992). Role stressors, social support, and wellbeing among two-career couples. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13, 339–356. DOI: 10.1002/job.4030130403

Perrewe, P. L., Hochwarter, W. A., & Kiewitz, C. (1999). Value attainment: An explanation for the negative effects of work–family conflict on job and life satisfaction. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 4(4), 318.

Rafferty, A.E., & Jimmieson, N.L. (2017). Subjective Perceptions of Organizational Change and Employee Resistance to Change: Direct and Mediated Relationships with Employee Well-being. *British Journal of Management*, 28(2), 248–264. DOI: 10.1111/1467-8551.12200

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 698. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.698

Robertson, I., & Cooper, C. (2011). *Well-being: Productivity and happiness at work*. Springer.

Robins, R.W., Hending, H.M., and Trzesniewski, K.H. (2001), 'Measuring Global Self-Esteem: Construct Validation of a Single-Item Measure and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27(2), 151–161.

Ross, L.E., Boles, J.S. (1994). Exploring the influence of workplace relationships on work-related attitudes and behaviors in the hospitality work environment. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 13(2), 155–171. DOI: 10.1016/0278-4319(94)90036-1

Rowley, G., & Purcell, K. (2001). 'As cooks go, she went': is labour churn inevitable? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 20(2), 163–185. Doi.org/10.1016/S0278-4319(00)00050-5

Savery, L. K. (1988). Comparison of managerial and non-managerial employees' desired and perceived motivators and job satisfaction levels. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 9(1), 17–22. DOI: 10.1108/eb053629

Schlenker, B. R. (1987). Threats to identity: Self-identification and social stress. In C. R. Snyder & C. E. Ford (Eds.), *Coping with negative life events: Clinical and social psychological perspectives* (pp. 273–321). New York: Plenum Press. 10.1007/978-1-4757-9865-4_11

Schulte, P., & Vainio, H. (2010). Well-being at work—overview and perspective. *Scandinavian journal of work, environment & health*, 422–429.

Spector, P. E., Cooper, C. L., Poelmans, S., Allen, T. D., O'DRISCOLL, M. I. C. H. A. E. L., Sanchez, J. I., ... & Lu, L. (2004). A cross-national comparative study of work-family stressors, working hours, and well-being: China and Latin America versus the Anglo world. *Personnel Psychology*, 57(1), 119–142.

Stamper, C. L., & Van Dyne, L. (2003). Organizational citizenship: A comparison between part-time and full-time service employees. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 44(1), 33–42. DOI: 10.1016/S0010-8804(03)90044-9

Topp, C. W., Østergaard, S. D., Søndergaard, S., & Bech, P. (2015). The WHO-5 Well-Being Index: a systematic review of the literature. *Psychotherapy and psychosomatics*, 84(3), 167–176. DOI: 10.1159/000376585

Thompson, B. M., Brough, P. A., & Schmidt, H. (2006). Supervisor and subordinate work-family values: Does similarity make a difference? *International Journal of Stress Management*, 13(1), 45.

UNWTO/UNESCO (2015). World conference on tourism and culture: Building and new partnership Siem Reap, Cambodia, 4–6 February 2015. DOI: doi/book/10.18111/9789284417360

Veld, M., & Alfes, k. (2017). HRM, climate and employee well-being: comparing an optimistic and critical perspective. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 28(16), 2299–2318. DOI: 10.1080/09585192.2017.1314313

Viswesvaran, C., Sanchez, J. I., & Fisher, J. (1999). The role of social support in the process of work stress: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54(2), 314–334. DOI: 10.1006/jvbe.1998.1661

Wang M.-L., Tsai L.-J. (2014). Work-family conflict and job performance in nurses: The moderating effects of social support. *Journal of Nursing Research*, 22, 200–207. DOI:10.1097/jnr.0000000000000040

Wanous, J. P., & Hudy, M. J. (2001). Single-item reliability: a replication and extension. *Organizational Research Methods*, 4(4), 361–375.

Warr, P. (1987). *Work, unemployment, and mental health*. Oxford University Press.

Wong, S. C. K., & Ko, A. (2009). Exploratory study of understanding hotel employees' perception on work–life balance issues. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(2), 195–203. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2008.07.001

World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2017). *Travel & Tourism Global Economic Impact & Issues 2017*. Marzo 2017.

Yavas, U., Babakus, E., & Karatepe, O. M. (2008). Attitudinal and behavioral consequences of work-family conflict and family-work conflict: does gender matter? *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 19(1), 7–31.

Zhao, X. R., & Namasivayam, K. (2012). The relationship of chronic regulatory focus to work–family conflict and job satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 458–467. Doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.07.004

Zhao, X. R., Qu, H., & Ghiselli, R. (2011). Examining the relationship of work–family conflict to job and life satisfaction: A case of hotel sales managers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(1), 46–54. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2010.04.010.

Zhao, X., & Ghiselli, R. (2016). Why do you feel stressed in a “smile factory”? Hospitality job characteristics influence work–family conflict and job stress. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(2), 305–326. DOI: 10.1108/IJCHM-08-2014-0385

Zhao, X.R. & Mattila, A.S. (2013). Examining the spillover effect of frontline employees' work-family conflict on their attitudes and customer satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33 (2), 310–315. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.10.001