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Does home life interfere with or facilitate job performance?

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Does home life interfere with or facilitate job performance?

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The study examines whether home life influences inrole and extrarole job performance in positive or negative ways. We hypothesized that home resources would have a direct positive effect on job performance, and an indirect relationship through home–work facilitation (HWF). Home demands were predicted to negatively affect job performance through home–work interference (HWI). These hypotheses were tested on a sample of 190 male employees. In addition to employees' self-reports, wives rated their own home demands and resources (these were used as controls), and co-workers rated the men's HWI, HWF, and job performance. Results partially supported the hypotheses. Men's home demands and resources were related to self-rated HWI and HWF respectively, whereas co-worker ratings of HWI and HWF were associated with inrole and extrarole performance respectively. Men's home resources also had a direct relationship with inrole and extrarole performance. There was no convincing evidence that HWI and HWF acted as mediators in these relationships. Taken together, the positive influence of home life on job performance was stronger than the negative one.

Keywords: Extrarole job performance; Home–work facilitation; Home–work interference; Inrole job performance; Work–life balance.

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Researchers have long recognized that work and family are not separate, but rather interdependent domains or roles with “permeable” boundaries (Kanter, 1977; Pleck, 1977). Accumulated research evidence shows that one’s functioning at work may have a negative impact on one’s functioning at home (Byron, 2005; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). However, the effects can also be positive, for example, when one’s functioning at home is facilitated by resources from the work domain (Bakker & Geurts, 2004; Demerouti, Geurts, & Kompier, 2004; Voydanoff, 2004). One’s functioning at home may also influence one’s functioning at work in a negative or positive way (Byron, 2005; Eby et al., 2005). Unfortunately, researchers have primarily focused on the negative effects of work on home life. Thus, our knowledge of the effects of home life on work is limited (Voydanoff, 2005). Although managers often express the idea that employees’ performance suffers because they are busy with home matters during work, researchers are not able to provide an argued opinion due to lack of empirical evidence.

The central aim of the present study is to test the possible favourable and unfavourable effects of home life on inrole and extrarole job performance through the experience of work–home interaction. More specifically, home life is considered as comprising both demanding characteristics and resources (Kabanoff, 1980). Demands are structural or psychological claims associated with role requirements, expectations, and norms to which individuals must respond or adapt by exerting physical or mental effort. Resources are structural or psychological assets that may be used to facilitate performance, reduce demands, or generate additional resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). Inrole job performance is defined as those officially required outcomes and behaviours that directly serve the goals of the organization (Motowidlo & van Scotter, 1994). Extrarole job performance refers to discretionary behaviours on the part of an employee that are believed to directly promote the effective functioning of an organization, without necessarily influencing the employee’s productivity (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991).

THE WORK–HOME INTERFACE

The work–home interface is defined as a process whereby one’s functioning and behaviour in one domain is influenced by quantitative and qualitative demands and resources from the other domain (Demerouti, Geurts, & Kompier, 2004; Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). Because the study concerns the influence of home life on work performance, we will focus on the mechanisms through which family/home to work impact takes place rather than the other way around. This process operates through linking mechanisms between

family characteristics, on the one hand, and work or individual outcomes on the other hand (Voydanoff, 2002). The process may be negative when one's functioning or performance at work is hampered by the intrusion of demands from the home domain ("home-work interference"; HWI). A positive process is also possible, when one's functioning or performance at work is facilitated by resources from the home domain ("home-work facilitation"; HWF). Work characteristics are consistently associated with interference (or facilitation) initiating from work, whereas home characteristics are the major antecedents of interference (or facilitation) initiating from the home domain (e.g., Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999; Voydanoff, 2005). Additionally, work and family demands are more strongly associated with interference because they require effort and therefore deplete individual resources available for functioning in another domain. In contrast, resources are related to facilitation because they provide means that help individual functioning in another domain (Bakker & Geurts, 2004; Demerouti, Geurts, & Kompier, 2004; Voydanoff, 2004).

HOME DEMANDS AND JOB PERFORMANCE

A few studies have observed that the home situation can have a negative influence on organizational behaviour, including absence and job performance (e.g., Grzywacz et al., 2005; Netemeyer, Maxham, & Pullig, 2005). Detrimental effects of the home situation on performance can be explained using the *depletion argument*, which reflects the idea that people have restricted amounts of psychological and physiological resources (like time, attention, energy) to spend, and that they make cutbacks to accommodate these fixed resources (Rothbard, 2001). Similarly, the role-conflict view (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) suggests that strain arising in one role inhibits the individual from meeting the expectations of another role.

When people experience that their home situation negatively influences their work (i.e., HWI), they will try to cope and self-regulate these negative emotions in order to resolve the discrepancy between the current and ideal self (Carver & Scheier, 1981). Exerting self-control in order to regulate negative emotions uses up energy reservoirs, because it costs effort; in the end, this depletes the available supply (Rothbard, 2001). As shown by Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, and Tice (1998), this self-regulation impairs subsequent task performance and can make one less available for engaging in tasks and interpersonal relationships in another role (Piotrkowski, 1979). Therefore, we expect that home demands will influence job performance *through HWI*.

There are several findings confirming this premise. Frone et al. (1997) showed that HWI mediated the effects of family distress, family time

commitment, and family overload on self-rated job performance. Moreover, the combined findings of previous studies provide indirect evidence for a mediational role of HWI in the relationship between home demands and job performance. Several studies reveal a relationship between demanding aspects of family life, such as providing childcare at home (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), parental work overload (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005), emotional tension or distress with the family or spouse (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), and high time demands from family (Demerouti, Geurts, & Kompier, 2004; Frone et al., 1997; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Voydanoff, 2005) and HWI. Additionally, research findings suggest that HWI has a negative impact on job performance (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996; Witt & Carlson, 2006) and customer-directed extrarole performance (Netemeyer et al., 2005). Therefore, we formulated the first two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: HWI mediates the relationship between home demands and inrole job performance.

Hypothesis 1b: HWI mediates the relationship between home demands and extrarole job performance.

HOME RESOURCES AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Some researchers have argued that a greater number of role commitments provides benefits to individuals rather than draining them (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). According to their *enrichment argument*, participation in different roles expands rather than depletes resources (e.g., energy, self-confidence, etc.), and leads to net gratification rather than strain (Rothbard, 2001). There are several pathways through which the home situation may influence behaviour at work.

The first is a direct or instrumental pathway meaning that home provides individuals with resources like esteem, social support, opportunities for self-growth, and flexibility that may help them to perform better across other life domains (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Thus, home resources facilitate work performance by providing means (e.g., social support from one's partner) or by enhancing individual abilities (e.g., opportunities for self-growth). Particularly, support from family or friends was positively related to the quality of job performance (Orthner & Pittman, 1986) and creative work performance (Madjar, Oldham, & Pratt, 2002).

Alternatively, an indirect, affective path is also possible, namely through positive affect (Madjar et al., 2002; Rothbard, 2001). When people experience that their home situation positively influences their work, this favourable cognitive assessment will enhance positive emotions. Positive emotions, in their turn, will make them more likely to engage in their work

role. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) proposed that resources in one role lead to high performance in another role through positive affect in the first role. Direct evidence for this role of HWF is still lacking. Existing evidence only suggests that home resources, particularly social support, positively influence HWF. Carlson et al. (2006) reported positive correlations between family resources (i.e., family salience, relationship with family, and family mutuality) and HWF. Voydanoff (2005) found positive relationships between spouse and kin support and household and parenting rewards and HWF. However, Demerouti, Geurts, & Kompier (2004) found a nonsignificant relationship between home resources and HWF.

According to Fredrickson (2001), positive emotions have the capacity to broaden people's momentary thought-action repertoires and build their personal resources (ranging from physical and intellectual to social and psychological) by widening the array of thoughts and actions that come to mind. Empirical evidence suggests that positive emotions produce a broad and flexible cognitive organization as well as the ability to integrate diverse material (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005; Isen, 1990, 2000). Therefore, HWF, through the experience of positive emotions and the related accumulation of personal resources, will be beneficial for *inrole* performance. Moreover, positive emotions make people more likely to have an outward focus of attention and, for instance, report increased liking for others and willingness to initiate conversations (Clark & Isen, 1982; Wood, Saltzberg & Goldsamt, 1990). Therefore, we expect that the experience of HWF will be positively related to *extrarole* performance. Because the influence of home resources can be both the instrumental (direct) and affective (indirect through HWF) at the same time, we expect partial mediation. Specifically, we formulated the next two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a: HWF partially mediates the relationship between home resources and *inrole* job performance.

Hypothesis 2b: HWF partially mediates the relationship between home resources and *extrarole* job performance.

POSITIVE OUTWEIGHS NEGATIVE INFLUENCE

Although the home situation can have both favourable and unfavourable effects on performance at work, the former will presumably be stronger than the latter. Because such a comparison has not been made in the past, we will review some piecemeal evidence relevant to our hypothesis. First, a study on a representative US sample of married respondents with employed spouses (Keene & Reynolds, 2005) indicated that the majority reported no negative consequences of family demands on work. Only 15% reported that family demands interfered with and diminished job performance, with women

being overrepresented in this group. Second, certainly the home situation can *occasionally* have a negative impact on job performance, e.g., sleep deprivation due to a sick child causing concentration problems. Within larger time frames, however, the home situation provides resources that can directly be used for performance at work, e.g., recovery and self-esteem boosted by having a healthy family.

Third, even when family could potentially damage organizational behaviour, people do whatever they can to keep their inrole performance intact. Demerouti, Verbeke, and Bakker (2005) showed that exhausted or depersonalized employees managed to keep their inrole performance as high as employees without these symptoms in order to remain good performers. Exhausted employees compensated for their limited resources by working extra hard, and depersonalized employees allocated their limited resources to important tasks. Moreover, workplace norms discourage employees from focusing on nonwork-related matters (Rothbard, 2001). Thus, we formulated our last hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: The (favourable) influence of home resources and HWF on inrole and extrarole job performance will be stronger than the (unfavourable) influence of home demands on HWI.

INCORPORATING SPOUSES AND WORK CO-WORKERS INTO THE WORK-FAMILY INTERFACE

Work-home interface research acknowledges that individuals experience the work and family domains in interaction with family members and co-workers. However, few studies explicitly include these important others. This study moves in that direction by examining models that incorporate the family demands and resources of spouses, and a co-worker's perception of the focal individual's HWI, HWF, and inrole and extrarole job performance.

Further, in this study of dual-earner couples, we use husbands as the focal respondents in terms of HWI, HWF, and job performance. However, we use both husbands' and wives' home demands and resources as sources of HWI and HWF. Because little is known about the combined effects of husbands' and wives' family demands and resources on HWI and HWF, we pose no specific hypotheses. However, crossover research would suggest that the family demands and resources experienced by one spouse can have a modest impact on the other spouse's HWI and HWF (Bakker, Westman, & van Emmerik, 2009; Westman & Etzion, 2005).

The analyses use the men as the focal person for two reasons. The first reason is practical. The majority of Dutch working women works part-time (75% in 2005 according to the Central Bureau for Statistics). In fact, in only

13% of all couples do both partners work full time (Verbakel, Luijkx, & de Graaf, 2008). Therefore, the women would have encountered difficulties in finding co-workers who could provide reliable ratings of their performance and HWI/HWF (due to a lack of overlap in working days). Second, experimental research has shown that performance ratings of men who experience family–work conflict are lower than those of women (Butler & Skattebo, 2004) (because they behave contrary to gender role stereotypes). Thus, it may be easier to detect effects of the home situation on job performance for men than for women.

The rationale for incorporating co-workers is somewhat different. Scholars have expressed concern about research that only uses self-reports (Pransky et al., 2006). Thus, to avoid method artifacts, we assessed a direct co-worker's perception of the focal employee's HWI, HWF, and job performance. This approach is exploratory, especially for a co-worker's view of the focal employee's HWI and HWF, because no studies have incorporated such assessments. Previous research has included co-worker and supervisor assessments of job performance as a useful complement to self-reports (Barclay & Harland, 1995).

METHOD

Sample and procedure

The participants in the study were 190 dual-earner couples in The Netherlands. They were recruited by 10 bachelor psychology students as part of their bachelor thesis. Each student approached 20 working couples who were family members or friends, which resulted in a sample with very heterogeneous jobs. Of the 200 packages of questionnaires that were distributed, 190 were returned completed, resulting in a response rate of 95%. The students left two identical questionnaires, one for each partner, as well as a questionnaire for the man's co-worker. To provide anonymity, the questionnaires were code-numbered to match the partners and the man's co-worker. The partners were asked to fill out the questionnaires independently. The men were instructed to give an enclosed questionnaire to a direct co-worker with whom he works closely and comes regularly in contact. The co-worker filled out the questionnaire with regard to the participant and returned the completed questionnaire to the participant in a provided envelope to avoid desirable answers. Each couple returned their questionnaires along with the co-worker's questionnaire in a prestamped envelope addressed to the university.

Thirty-two per cent of the couples had no children; 12%, 32%, and 20% had one, two, and three children, respectively. Further, 14% of the couples had at least one child up to the age of 3 years, 17% ages 4–12 years old, and

48% above 13 years old. The mean age of the men was 43.52 years ($SD = 10.39$) and of the women 40.26 years ($SD = 11.88$). About 70% of the men and 60% of the women had completed a university or college degree. Seventy per cent of the men worked with people (e.g., provision of service), 11% worked with things (e.g., production), and 19% with information (e.g., information technology). The majority of the women worked with people (86%), followed by work with information (10%). Of the men, 54% were supervisors, and 87% worked more than 32 hours per week. Only 20% of the women had supervisory positions and 50% worked 27 hours or less (mean = 26.94, $SD = 9.56$). On average, men had 20.62 years ($SD = 11.25$) of work experience and women 16.50 ($SD = 10.23$). Thus, our sample consisted of somewhat older, highly educated couples with older children and long job experience.

Measures

Home demands. The measure of home demands was the factor score of scales assessing emotional demands, mental demands and time requirements. *Emotional demands* were measured with three items developed by Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2005). Specifically, the scale assessed whether participants have to deal with emotionally charged situations at home, and whether they are confronted with events that touch them personally. A sample item is: "Do you face emotionally charged situations in your private life?" (1 = "never", 5 = "always"). *Mental demands* were measured with four items developed by Peeters et al. (2005). The scale assessed the degree to which participants have to remember a lot of things with regard to home life and to coordinate everything carefully at home. A sample item is: "Do you find that you have to plan and organize a lot of things in relation to your home life?" (1 = "never", 5 = "always"). To measure *time requirements*, we asked participants to provide the average number of hours per week that they spend in the following activities: household activities (e.g., cooking, cleaning), care activities (e.g., caring for kids, house animals), and secondary activities (e.g., hobbies, voluntary work). We created an additive index indicating the total number of hours occupied with activities at home. Both men and their wives were asked to fill in these items for their own home demands.

Home resources. Three home resources were included as a factor score of the scales home autonomy, social support, and developmental possibilities. These home resources were developed by the researchers and conceptually mirror existing scales of job resources. Several scholars have successfully used a job-related measure as a model for constructing a symmetrical home-related

measure (e.g., Frone & Rice, 1987; Frone et al., 1992; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk, & Beutell, 1996). *Home autonomy* was assessed with four items, including “I have control over how I use my free time”. *Home social support* was measured with four items, including “My partner/family help(s) me with a certain task if necessary”. *Home developmental possibilities* were assessed by three items, including “I can develop my talents during my free time”. The response categories ranged from 1 = “never” to 5 = “always”. Again, we collected information from both men and women for their own home resources.

Home–work interference and facilitation. The extent to which the home situation negatively interferes with work (HWI) was assessed with three items from the Dutch questionnaire Survey Work-home Interference NijmeGen (SWING; Geurts et al., 2005). A sample item is: “How often does it happen that you have difficulty concentrating on your work because you are preoccupied with domestic matters?” Home–work facilitation was measured with two items from the SWING. A sample item is: “How often does it happen that after spending a pleasant weekend with your spouse/family/friends, you have more fun in your job?” The answer categories for both home–work interference and facilitation ranged from 1 = “never” to 5 = “always”. Co-workers filled in the same questions as the participant using the same response categories, but with the participant as the focal person.

Job performance. *Inrole performance* was assessed with three items from the scale developed by Goodman and Svyantek (1999). The participants (men) indicated the extent to which they found each statement characteristic of themselves. A sample item is: “You achieve the objectives of the job” (0 = “not at all characteristic”, 6 = “totally characteristic”). In addition, co-workers of the participants indicated the extent to which they found each statement characteristic of the participant. *Extrarole performance* was assessed by three other items from Goodman and Svyantek’s scale. Again, the participant filled in the items for himself while the co-worker scored the items for the participant. A sample item is: “Willingly attends functions not required by the organization, but helps in its overall image”. The same response categories as for inrole performance were used.

Data analysis

The matched responses of both partners and of the men’s co-workers were analysed with covariance structure modelling (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) using the AMOS 7.0 software package. The maximum likelihood method of estimation could be used since all variables were normally distributed. To

test the hypotheses, several nested models were compared by means of the chi-square difference test (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). Besides the chi-square statistic, the analysis assessed the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), the root mean square residual (RMR), the normed fit index (NFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and the comparative fit index (CFI).

All constructs are included in the models as observed variables. The scores for home demands and resources of men and women were computed through principal component analysis (PCA). PCA of the three home resources scales (i.e., autonomy, social support, and developmental possibilities) resulted in one home resources factor for men that explained 57% of the variance and one home resources factor for women that explained 51% of the variance. Similarly, the PCA of the three home demands (i.e., emotional demands, mental demands, and time requirements) resulted in a general home demands factor for men that explained 49% of the variance and one home demands factor for women that explained 57% of the variance. These factor scores are represented as manifest variables in our model. Thus, the home resources manifest variable was the factor score of the three scales; the home demands manifest variable was the factor score of the three home demands scales.

Recall that both the men and the co-workers rated the home-work interaction (HWI and HWF) of the men. Consistent with the criteria for interrater agreement of LeBreton and Senter (2008), Table 1 shows lack of agreement between the self-ratings and the co-worker ratings of home-work interaction where only the ratings regarding HWI approached statistical significance, $r = .13$, $p = .07$. Even though the mean scores for HWF did not differ significantly between men and co-workers, the correlation was nonsignificant, $r = .05$, $p > .10$. This indicates that co-workers rated different things than the employees themselves did when they evaluated the influence of the home domain on work. Therefore, we conducted two separate series of analyses for self-reported and co-worker ratings of home-work interaction. Self-reported and co-worker ratings of HWI and HWF were included in the models as observed variables using the mean scores of the respective items.

In contrast to home-work interaction, self- and co-worker ratings of men's inrole and extrarole performance correlated significantly and positively, $r = .30$, $p < .001$, and $r = .27$, $p < .001$, respectively. This is similar to the agreement between self- and peer-ratings of performance found in meta-analyses which are in the order of .19 (Conway & Huffcutt, 1997) or .24 (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988). Therefore, we created factor scores of inrole and of extrarole performance using the self- and co-worker ratings of the respective performance construct. Using this methodology, the measures of performance minimize subjectivity inherent in self-report measures and reflect the shared variance between self-reports and co-worker ratings (Allen, Barnard, Rush, & Russell, 2000).

TABLE 1
Means, standard deviations (SD), correlations among the study variables, and Cronbach's alpha (on the diagonal) (N = 190 triads)

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26									
1. Home demands factor score M	0.00	1.00	.78																																		
2. Emotional demands M	2.12	0.56	.70**	.69																																	
3. Mental demands M	2.17	0.79	.70**	.23**	.87																																
4. Time requirements M	17.56	11.27	.70**	.23**	-.83																																
5. Home resources factor score M	0.00	1.00	-.14	-.17*	-.07	-.05	.83																														
6. Autonomy M	3.26	0.57	-.06	-.08	-.03	-.01	.73**	.69																													
7. Social support M	3.58	0.90	-.09	-.14	-.06	.01	.73**	.86	.86																												
8. Developmental possibilities M	3.28	0.84	.08	-.01	.00	.18*	.49**	.41**	.37**	.86																											
9. Home demands factor score W	0.00	1.00	.35**	.26**	.24**	.24**	-.09	-.20**	.00	-.06	.86																										
10. Emotional demands W	2.28	0.67	.22**	.35**	.05	.04	-.05	-.03	-.09	-.05	.75**	.77																									
11. Mental demands W	2.80	1.00	.30**	.12	.36**	.14*	-.05	-.19*	.05	-.05	.85**	.48**	.89																								
12. Time requirements W	30.08	18.08	.28**	.11	.10	.39**	-.13	-.27**	.03	-.03	.64**	.18*	.36**	-.10	.78																						
13. Home resources factor score W	0.00	1.00	-.08	.00	-.23**	.07	.20**	.13	.16*	.17*	-.20**	-.15*	-.19**	-.10	.78																						
14. Autonomy W	3.61	0.59	-.20**	-.09	-.30**	-.03	.14	.10	.09	.09	-.12	-.11	-.05	-.12	.77**	.68																					
15. Social support W	3.68	0.84	.08	.02	.01	.13	.19**	.04	.34**	.19**	-.25**	-.25**	-.22**	-.07	.47**	.07	.85																				
16. Developmental possibilities W	3.33	0.87	.00	.06	-.14	.07	.13	.11	.03	.12	-.12	-.04	-.17*	-.03	.85**	.45**	.87	.85																			
17. HWI self-ratings	1.63	0.50	.44**	.46**	.29**	.18*	-.14	-.09	-.07	-.05	.19**	.21**	.15*	.05	-.06	-.10	-.02	.00	.71																		
18. HWI co-worker ratings	1.41	0.38	.05	.07	.04	.00	-.03	-.08	-.04	-.07	.11	.05	.13	.05	.02	.08	.02	-.05	-.13	.68																	
19. HWF self-ratings	2.83	0.95	.08	.06	.11	.01	.24**	.11	.29**	.02	.05	.02	-.04	.04	-.05	.11	.16*	.18*	.16*	.83																	
20. HWF co-worker ratings	3.02	0.92	.01	-.05	-.05	.12	.06	.04	.13	.13	.04	-.04	.03	.11	.16*	.18*	.16*	.05	-.12	.08	.05	.76															
21. Inrole performance factor score	0.01	0.97	.06	-.06	-.15*	.02	.22**	.18*	.14	.24**	.00	-.01	.07	-.08	.09	.05	.07	.08	-.12	-.27**	.12	.09	.81														
22. Inrole performance self-ratings	4.76	0.87	.02	-.05	.08	.01	.24**	.19**	.13	.23**	-.01	.00	.04	-.09	.09	.03	.11	.08	-.13	-.13	.11	.03	.81**	.86													
23. Inrole performance co-worker ratings	4.78	0.75	.07	-.04	.16*	.03	.13	.11	.10	.15*	.02	-.02	.07	-.03	.06	.05	.01	.07	-.07	-.30**	.08	.11	.80**	.30**	.87												
24. Extrarole performance factor score	0.00	0.99	-.02	-.05	-.07	.08	.16*	-.01	.26**	.17*	.08	.03	.09	.06	.03	.05	.05	-.03	-.12	-.03	.05	.19**	.31**	.22**	.27**	.69											
25. Extrarole performance self-ratings	3.90	1.35	-.02	-.01	-.14	.11	.21**	.04	.24**	.13	.14	.09	.12	.10	.07	.11	.02	.02	-.08	-.04	.06	.11	.32**	.36**	.14	.79**	.77										
26. Extrarole performance co-worker ratings	4.18	1.09	-.02	-.07	.02	.01	.04	-.06	.16*	.12	-.01	-.04	.02	-.01	-.03	-.02	.06	-.06	-.12	-.01	.01	.19**	.18*	-.01	.29**	.79**	.26**	.74									

M = men, W = women, HWF = home-work facilitation; HWI = home-work interference; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

To test whether HWI mediated and HWF partially mediated the relationship between men's home demands and home resources respectively, we first included the direct effects of home demands and resources on performance (direct effect model). This model examines whether there is an effect to be mediated (Hoyle & Smith, 1994). Next, we added the indirect paths through the respective mediator for each relationship (direct and indirect model), namely home demands—HWI—performance and home resources—HWF—performance. Finally, we inspected the total, direct, and indirect effects as suggested by Brown (1997). Note that because socio-demographic characteristics (age, amount of contract hours, education) were unrelated to the study variables, they were eliminated from the analyses. Moreover, home demands and resources were allowed to correlate within and between genders. Next to the hypothesized relationships and the correlations, we included the effect of women's ratings of their own home demands and resources on self-reported and co-worker rated HWI and HWF of the focal male employees respectively, in order to examine whether the partner's home situation influences the employee's home-work interaction.

RESULTS

Self-reported home-work interaction

Hypothesis 1 states that HWI fully mediates the relationship between men's home demands and performance. The direct effect of home demands on inrole as well as extrarole performance was nonsignificant. Therefore, according to Baron and Kenny (1986) there is no direct effect to be mediated. Including the indirect effects in the model revealed that home demands as reported by men were positively related to HWI, $\beta = .43$, $p < .001$. However, HWI was unrelated to either performance dimension. The total effect of home demands on inrole performance was .056, and the total direct and indirect effects were .134 and $-.078$, respectively. Home demands had a total effect of $-.024$ on extrarole performance, and the total direct and indirect effects were .038 and $-.062$, respectively. Taken together, Hypothesis 1 was rejected using self-ratings of HWI.

Hypothesis 2 suggests that HWF partially mediates the relationship between home resources of the men and performance. The direct paths of men's home resources on both performance dimensions were significant and positive, namely for inrole performance, $\beta = .21$, $p < .01$; and for extrarole performance, $\beta = .16$, $p < .05$. Including the indirect paths from men's home resources to performance via self-reported HWF shows the following interesting pattern: Home resources of the men were positively related to HWF, $\beta = .25$, $p < .001$, to inrole performance, $\beta = .18$, $p < .01$, and to

extrarole performance, $\beta = .14$, $p < .05$. However, HWF was unrelated to both inrole performance and extrarole performance. The total effect of home resources on inrole performance was .218, the total direct effect was .198, and the total indirect effect was .017. This means that only 7.80% of the covariance between men's home resources and inrole performance is mediated by self-reported HWF. Similarly, the total effect of home resources on extrarole performance was .164, the total direct effect was .147, and the total indirect effect was .003. This means that only 1.82% of the covariance between men's home resources and extrarole performance is mediated by self-reported HWF. Hypothesis 2 was therefore partially supported because home resources of the men were only directly related to performance and not via self-reported HWF.

The home-work interaction model for self-reported home-work interaction including all significant relationships is displayed in Figure 1. The model had a satisfactory fit to the data, $\chi^2 = 15.56$, $df = 13$, $p = .274$, AGFI = .95, RMR = .04, NFI = .89. In addition to the discussed mediations, we found that neither home demands nor home resources of the women were related to HWI and HWF (as reported by the men) respectively.

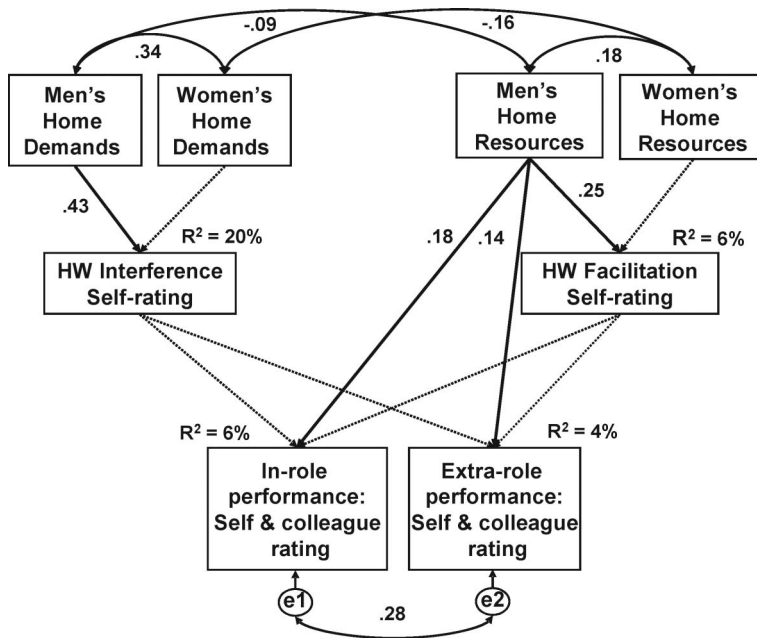


Figure 1. Maximum likelihood estimates of the HWI model using self-reported home-work interaction, $N = 190$. Paths with dotted lines are nonsignificant.

Co-worker rated home–work interaction

As was shown in the previous analysis, mediation between men's home demands and performance (cf. Hypothesis 1) cannot be tested because there was no direct effect to be mediated. Including the indirect effects in the model showed that home demands of the men were unrelated to HWI. Moreover, HWI was negatively related to inrole performance, $\beta = -.27$, $p < .001$, and unrelated to extrarole performance. The total indirect effect of home demands on inrole performance and extrarole performance via HWI were very low, namely $-.002$ and $-.014$, respectively. Therefore, and similar to the findings using self-reports, Hypothesis 1 was rejected.

Regarding Hypothesis 2, the previous analyses suggested that there was a direct effect of men's home demands on performance to be mediated. By including the indirect effects through co-worker ratings of HWF, we found that men's home resources were not significantly related to HWF. Co-worker ratings of HWF were positively related to extrarole performance, $\beta = .19$, $p < .01$, and unrelated to inrole performance. The total indirect effect of men's home resources on inrole and extrarole performance was $.005$ and $.010$, respectively. Taken together, Hypothesis 2 was only partially supported using co-worker ratings of home–work interaction because men's home resources were unrelated to HWF and only directly related to both inrole and extrarole performance.

The home–work interaction model for co-worker ratings of home–work interaction including all significant relationships is displayed in Figure 2. The model had a satisfactory fit to the data, $\chi^2 = 10.22$, $df = 13$, $p = .676$, $AGFI = .97$, $RMR = .03$, $NFI = .91$. In addition to the results of the mediation analysis, we found that women's home resources had a significant and positive effect on co-worker ratings of HWF. This indirect effect (women's home resources \rightarrow men's HWF \rightarrow men's extrarole performance) is mediation because the direct effect of women's home resources on men's extrarole performance was nonsignificant.

Total effects

To test Hypothesis 3 stating that the favourable influence of the home situation will be stronger than the unfavourable one, we inspected the standardized total effects as provided by AMOS. The total effect of home demands of the men on inrole performance was $.056$ and on extrarole performance was $-.024$. The standardized total effect of home resources of the men on inrole performance was $.218$ and on extrarole performance was $.164$. This suggests that the positive effects of the home situation (home resources and HWF) outweigh the negative effects of home demands and HWI. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was accepted.

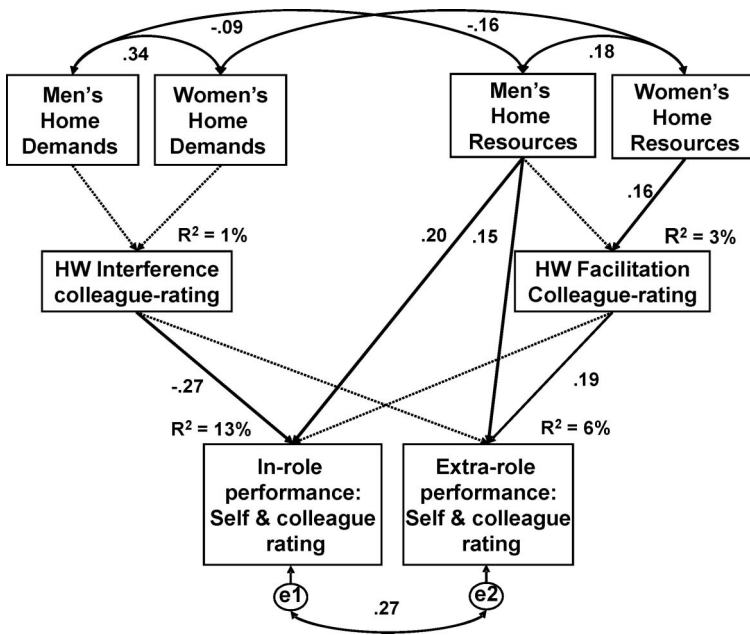


Figure 2. Maximum likelihood estimates of the HWI model using co-worker ratings of home-work interaction, $N = 190$. Paths with dotted lines are nonsignificant.

In total, the proposed model using *self-reported* home-work interaction explained 6% and 4% of the variance in inrole and extrarole performance, respectively, and 20% and 6% of the variance in negative and positive home-work interaction, respectively. Using *co-worker ratings* of home-work interaction, the model explained 13% and 6% of the variance in inrole and extrarole performance respectively, and 1% and 3% of HWI and HWF, respectively.

DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to examine simultaneously the possible favourable and unfavourable effects of the home situation on job performance. Although past studies have examined and to some extent found negative effects, this study is the first to investigate and show that the home situation can have both negative *and* positive effects on job performance. Perhaps even more importantly, the positive influence of home life was stronger than the negative one. An additional advantage of the present study was the inclusion of partner ratings regarding the home situation and of co-worker ratings regarding the home-work interaction and job performance. This methodology incorporates spouses and co-workers

into the analysis of the work–family interface and reduces the possibility that relationships are due to common method variance. In what follows we will discuss the most important findings in more detail.

Home life interferes with, but particularly facilitates, job performance

In concert with the enrichment and depletion argument (Rothbard, 2001), the home situation influenced work performance both favourably and unfavourably. The unfavourable influence was expected to be triggered by home demands (emotional demands, mental demands, and time requirements) that enhanced the degree to which the men experienced home–work interference. In turn, this interference would have detrimental effects on job performance as reported by the men and their co-workers. Such a mediating role of HWI was *not* confirmed in the present study—irrespective of whether it was rated by the participants or their co-workers. Thus, in the present study home demands did not result in deterioration of performance through HWI. The detrimental pathway leading to diminished performance was interrupted by nonsignificant relationships indicating that the unfavourable influence of private life on work is not strong, particularly when it is tested using ways that minimize common method variance.

At the same time, home resources (autonomy, social support, and developmental possibilities) had a *direct* favourable influence on job performance. This is a unique contribution of our study since such an effect has not been reported in the past. As already presented, several arguments spoke for such an effect including that home resources create positive affect and are instrumental for job performance. Moreover, results indicated that spouse’s home resources enhanced facilitation of men’s home life to work interaction as perceived by a direct co-worker, which in turn, contributed to better job performance. This is evidence for an indirect effect of HWF on the relationship between home resources and performance. More importantly, this indirect effect is confirmed even by using ratings of spouses (home resources), co-workers (HWF, performance), and employees themselves (performance) for the different constructs, meaning that the relationships cannot be attributed to common method variance. The more resourceful home life was for the wives, the higher the likelihood that men’s co-workers perceived that men’s home life positively influenced work. This HWF, in turn, positively influenced extrarole performance.

Even though our hypotheses regarding indirect effects were generally not supported, we found that the home situation can have both positive and negative effects on job performance. Our study adopted a comprehensive view of the home domain by examining a range of content-based home demands and resources. This moves beyond previous studies that have

reduced the home situation to demographic characteristics such as marital status and number of children (cf. Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). This approach enabled the detection of both favourable and unfavourable effects. How is it possible that the home domain exhibits both positive and negative influences on the work domain? The two processes can operate at the same time since an employee can, for example, have a sick child (meaning increased home demands) and high support from the family (meaning increased home resources). Moreover, these processes can operate interchangeably over time where periods with positive load effects are followed by periods with negative load effects. Therefore, we need to view and investigate the phenomenon in time frames and not just base conclusions on specific (negative) incidents or simply the fact that there are young children in the family.

By systematically examining positive and negative effects, the present study clearly showed that the positive influence of the home domain on job performance outweighs the negative influence for male employees. This finding agrees with the results of a recent study among managers where the total effects of marital and parental role commitment on outcomes, including job performance, were positive (Graves, Ohlott, & Ruderman, 2007). Our results show that the home situation has both positive and negative effects on inrole performance and only a positive effect on extrarole performance. This means that, at least for men, home life should not be viewed as a distracting factor for job performance but exactly the opposite. Apparently, male employees do everything they can to keep their job performance intact independent from home matters and at the same time allow certain characteristics to facilitate their work behaviour. Future research should illuminate the type of strategies employees use to keep a balance between their work and home life. Moreover future studies should uncover whether these relationships hold for female employees as well. It is conceivable that women's work role and men's caretaker role are still seen as more voluntary and self-chosen, and therefore emotionally and instrumentally easier to exit.¹ Including women in this study might have resulted in different findings.

HWI and HWF did *not* play a crucial role as a process linking home with work. Although the mediating role of these constructs has been confirmed in previous studies, other studies provide no evidence of mediation (Voydanoff, 2002). Even so, such self-report measures helped the advancement of our insight in work-to-family interaction and may therefore improve our knowledge of the impact of family on work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). However, as Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggest, we need to combine such subjective evaluations with direct measures of experiences

¹We thank the anonymous reviewer for this explanation.

and outcomes in the work and the family domain. Our findings suggest that we additionally need to search for alternative ways of using information from people in the work and family environment.

Strengths and weaknesses of this study

The most important limitation of this study concerns our sample, which represents a convenience group. The advantage of this recruitment method was that the participants were employed in very heterogeneous jobs. Moreover, the sample consisted of relatively highly educated dual earner couples employed in human services, which is the majority of the working population in The Netherlands. Thus, while the convenience sample may threaten the generalizability of the findings, the composition of the sample is a clear reflection of the Dutch working population. Future studies should try to replicate the findings in more representative samples and other countries. Another limitation concerns the cross-sectional character of the study which prohibits causal inference. As Demerouti, Bakker, and Bulters (2004) showed in their three-wave panel study, work–family conflict can be both a predictor *and* an outcome of work pressure, providing evidence for causal and reversed causal relationships. Multiwave studies are therefore needed to provide more insight into the dynamics involved in positive and negative home–work interaction.

The study was strengthened substantially by incorporating information from spouses and co-workers into the analysis. In addition to men's self-reports about all study variables, we included wives' assessments of their own home demands and resources and co-worker ratings of men's HWI and HWF. Even though wives' home characteristics were significant predictors only of co-worker rated men's HWF, it is crucial to consider more complete information regarding the home situation. This is because home life is a social system where behaviours and experiences of the focal person are influenced by other members of the system and because we can control for the threat of subjectivity that might account for the resulting relationships. Future research should examine the various ways in which both partners' home demands and resources combine to influence their participation in the work domain.

The poor correlation between men's own and co-workers' ratings is worth mentioning. Although the agreement between self- and co-worker-ratings regarding performance is similar to earlier studies (e.g., Conway & Huffcutt, 1997), co-worker HWI ratings correlated only weakly with men's own ratings. This could indicate that it is difficult to rate home–work interaction for a colleague. The performance ratings seem to be easier for a colleague to rate. However, in general their ratings of the men's performance are higher and HWI ratings are lower than the men's own ratings. One explanation could be that the colleagues were afraid that the ratings would

be shown to the men. Moreover, the fact that the men chose the co-workers to be involved in the study could have affected the ratings.

Each rating of HWI and HWF produced different findings and resulted in different relationships with the hypothesized predictors and outcomes. Our findings using self-reports may suggest that earlier self-report studies overestimated the relationship between home characteristics and HWI and HWF. The finding that women's home resources were related to their partners HWF as rated by their co-workers indicates that what we study is not just a matter of subjectivity. Still, the question remains whether we should trust the findings gained by self-reported home-work interaction or by co-worker ratings. Therefore, our findings should be interpreted with caution. Diary studies that measure daily fluctuations of specific behaviours might be more proper to provide answers to these question.

CONCLUSION

The present study is one of the first to show that home life can exert both a positive and negative influence on organizational behaviour and that the positive influence is more prevalent than the negative. Still, the explained variance was rather low and the effects were not strong, which implies that other factors (e.g., characteristics of workers' jobs) are more salient than family factors in explaining job performance (see Demerouti & Bakker, 2006). A unique characteristic of our study was the use of three different sources of information to expand our analysis of the work-family interface and minimize the influence of common method variance. The strength of the relationships as well as the possible pathways differed depending on who rated what. Future research is needed to determine the extent to which these different data sources are measuring different perspectives on the work-family interface or are useful only for reducing common method variance.

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