Work Demands, Work-Life Balance and Affect: A Study of Pakistan Managers

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Drawing on the Conservation of Resources theory, this study investigates work demands and their influence on positive and negative affect. In addition, work-life balance is included as a mediator. It is expected that while work demands are detrimental to affect and work-life balance, the direct effect on affect will be mediated by work-life balance. While much is known about these factors in Western economies, there is a lack of insights into more unique cultures like Pakistan. Furthermore, the links between work-life balance and affect are less common, making this a worthwhile outcome to explore. Overall, data came from 101 Pakistan managers. Analysis included direct effects and mediation analysis, using the PROCESS macro (including indirect effects). Overall, strong support for the study model was found. Indeed, while work demands were negative to positive affect and work-life balance, and positive to negative affect, these effects were fully mediated by work-life balance. However, examining the indirect effects showed that work demands still play a significant and detrimental role on affect. The findings highlight that while the influence work-life balance on affect is important, it is still important to consider the role of work demands. Overall, the study highlights the importance of work roles on the affect of Pakistan managers. The implications for HRM and researchers are discussed.
Keywords: work demands; work-life balance, positive affect; negative affect; Pakistan; managers.

INTRODUCTION
Recently, Forbes Magazine suggested that conquering work-life balance was one of the most important considerations for individuals seeking to build successful companies (Molinsky, 2019). Relatedly, a study from the United Kingdom reported that employees stated that dissatisfaction with work-life balance was their principal reason for leaving their job (Elsworthy, 2019). Work-life balance is defined as "the extent to which an individual is able to adequately manage the multiple roles in their life, including work, family and other major responsibilities" (Haar, 2013, p. 3308). Work-life balance is linked to a number of important outcomes (see Haar et al., 2014), making it an essential factor to examine.

However, there are some gaps in the literature. One is the focus on affect, which refers to the positive/negative dispositional tendency to experience a positive/negative mood (Watson & Clark, 1984). Here we use the terms affect/mood interchangeably. The other is the focus on managers or leaders, which has not received adequate attention.

Importantly, a large body of literature shows that leadership and affect are important because leaders' affect has been found to influence follower behaviours (e.g., Van Knippenberg & van Kleef, 2016; Gooty et al., 2019). For example, Ten Brummelhuis et al.(2014) found that leaders positive and negative affect influenced their follower's mood. Combined, this makes the focus on managers and their affect especially appealing. Finally, while the work-life balance literature has extended to cross-cultural exploration (see Haar et al., 2014), Pakistan is one country largely unexplored. There have been criticisms in the literature about the dominant Western focus (see Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017). Thus, the present study explores the role of work demands on managers' work-life balance and affect, seeking to expand our understanding and generate insights into understanding how work shapes balance and, ultimately, moods. Voydanoff (2004) argues that work demands are a salient factor to explore because they hinder individual performance, typically through resource depletion, that subsequently aligns with Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll et al., 2018), used in the present study.

Overall, this paper makes three mainly empirical contributions to human resource (HR) management. Firstly, this study extends the empirical evidence around work-life balance (Haar, 2013; Haar et al., 2014), extending outcomes to affect and including work demands as an antecedent. This helps us better understand the chain of influence on affect. Second, the focus on managers and moods is especially pertinent because, besides being widely untested, they are important positions and outcomes to explore, given the evidence they transfer to followers, influencing their behaviours (Gooty et al., 2019; Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2014). Finally, our cultural focus on Pakistan provides empirical validation of relationships seldom tested outside Western societies (e.g., Junaid et al., 2021), improving the breadth of exploration of these factors. Overall, the present study makes important contributions to understanding work and leaders, and addressing the implications for HR. Our study model is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Study Model
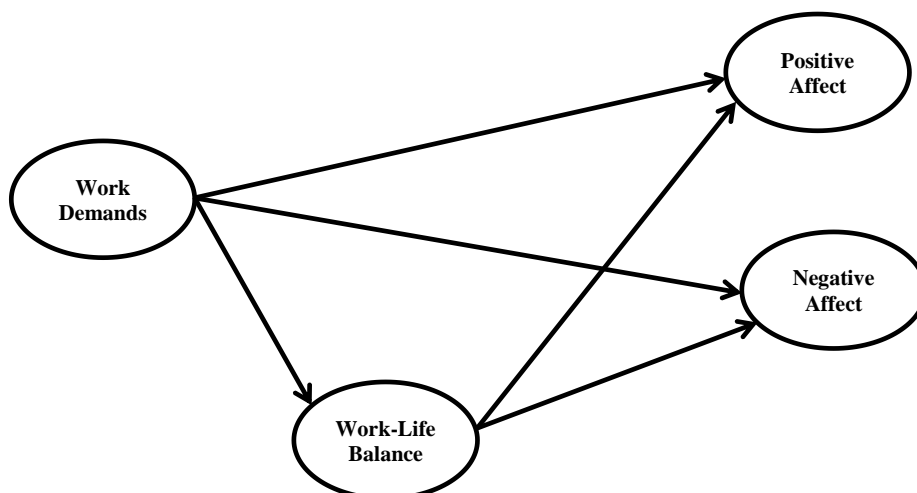
Theoretical Approach: COR

Hobfoll et al. (2018) state, "COR theory is a motivational theory that explains much of human behavior based on the evolutionary need to acquire and conserve resources for survival, which is central to human behavioral genetics" (p. 104). Researchers use COR theory to help explain individual differences in relationship between stressors and stress, as some people appear less stressed in similar circumstances. Under COR theory, this is because they have greater resources to draw on. This allows such employees to cope better. In opposition, employees with fewer resources cannot cope so well, and are more likely to suffer detrimentally. Ghafoor and Haar (2021) argue that COR theory might be viewed as a resource reservoir. Those with greater resources fare better than those with less. According to Hobfoll et al. (2018), resources are varied and broad. These include personal resources like coping skills and personality traits, energy resources like knowledge, and resources based on work conditions like seniority.

Hobfoll et al. (2018) state that the basic tenet of COR theory is that "individuals (and groups) strive to obtain, retain, foster, and protect those things they centrally value" (p. 106). Further, COR theory has four principles (Hobfoll et al., 2018), specifically: (1) *Primacy of loss,* the impact of loss of resources is disproportionately salient when compared to that of gaining resources; (2) *Resource investment principle*, where individuals are viewed as needing to invest resources in order to protect, gain, or recover resources; (3) *Gain paradox principle*, where gaining resources in the context of resource losses is especially salient; (4) *Desperation principle*, which refers to the context where individuals resources are depleted, and they enter "a defensive mode to preserve the self which is often defensive, aggressive, and may become irrational" (p. 106). COR theory has been used to understand the way that work demands and work-life balance represent resource loss and gain states, respectively (Haar & Brougham, 2020). The following section develops hypotheses drawing on COR theory and applying these specifically to demands and balance.

Resource Drains: Work Demands

In COR theory, Hobfoll (2001) argues that long work hours represent a state of resource loss, due to a "reduction in resources, because longer hours draw on a finite energy resource" (Haar & Brougham, 2020, p. 5). Empirical studies of work tend to focus more on work demands than work hours alone (Boyar et al., 2007), reinforcing meta-analytic evidence that work demands are a stronger predictor of conflict between work and non-work roles (Byron, 2005). Voydanoff (2004) defines demands as either structural or psychological claims associated with role requirements. Demands include norms and expectations, to which employees typically adapt or react, via the exertion of mental effort or physical effort. The present study focuses on demands pertaining to work. Boyar et al. (2007) define *work demands* as how an employee perceives how demanding the work role responsibilities are. Boyar et al. (2007) also note that work demands reflect pressures originating from the environment and within the individual. Yang et al. (2000) defines work demand as "pressures arising from excessive workloads and typical workplace time pressures such as rush jobs and deadlines" (p. 114).

Haar et al. (2019) argue that work demands are a perceptual construct, accounting for an employee's "overall consideration of his or her work role responsibilities" (p. 264). Haar et al. (2019) noted that the pressures that encompass work demands could originate from the workplace – such as a leader giving the employee more work to do – or from the individual, such as an employee being highly motivated to finish a specific piece of work. Importantly, work demands differ from work hours. An employee could work a 32-hour week (i.e., a four day/week) and report high work demands, which might reflect they felt their work never ended and they were incredible pressured to complete it. Alternatively, work demands might be modest and lower for someone working a 40-hour week. Work

demands reflect the pressure felt and inability to sufficiently rest and recover from the demands of work.

There is a large body of work showing work demands are detrimental to outcomes. Specifically, towards affect, Kim et al. (2017) found daily work demands to be positively related to daily negative affect. Again, at the daily level, Harris and Daniels (2005) found daily work demands were related to daily affect. Ilies et al. (2020) found multiple components of work demands were negatively related to positive affect and positively related to negative affect. Further, Pinquart et al. (2009) found work-related demands were negatively associated with positive affect. Using COR theory (Hobfoll et al., 2018) to apply work demands to affect outcomes, we know work demands are largely detrimental to affect. This suggests that work demands are a resource loss that drains away the resources available to an employee, leaving them with less positive mood and more negative mood. Work demands take away the time and energy of an employee, and these represent resources according to Hobfoll (2001). Thus, it is expected that work demands will increase negative affect and decrease positive affect.

Work demands have been found to influence factors within the work, family, and life domains. They are negatively related to work-family enrichment (Butler et al., 2005) and positively linked to work-family conflict (Byron 2005; Hammer et al., 2005). However, the links to work-life balance are more limited. In one study, Haar et al. (2019) found work demands were negatively related to work-life balance. Similarly, Brough et al. (2014) found work demands were negatively related to work-life balance, as did Haar and Brougham (2020). These detrimental effects are expected under COR theory (Hobfoll et al., 2018). High work demands represent a loss of resources, with high workloads and pressing demands eroding the resource reservoirs (Ghafoor & Haar, 2021) of employees. Thus, employees have fewer resources to balance work and non-work roles. Hence, as work demands grow, we expect employees to suffer resource losses, culminating in lower work-life balance. This leads to the first set of hypotheses around resource losses:

Hypothesis 1: Work demands will be negatively related to work-life balance.
Hypotheses 2: Work demands will be (a) negatively related to positive affect and (b) positively related to negative affect.

Resource Gains: Work-Life Balance

Next, we explore the links between work-life balance and affect. Work-life balance is linked to better work outcomes such as work engagement (Haar et al., 2017), job satisfaction (Haar, 2013; Brough et al., 2014; Haar et al., 2014), and to better mental health outcomes, including lower emotional exhaustion (e.g., Haar, 2013; Ma et al., 2021; Haar et al., 2021a), lower anxiety and depression (Haar et al., 2014), and lower psychological distress (Brough et al., 2014). However, few studies have used work-life balance as a predictor of affect.

Althammer et al. (2021) reported satisfaction with work-life balance was negatively correlated with negative affect. Gröpel and Kuhl (2009) found work-life balance was positively related to subjective well-being, which included positive affect less negative affect. Under COR theory, high work-life balance represents employees with additional resources that should enable them to achieve superior affect – enhanced positive affect and reduced negative affect. Aligned with COR theory Principle 3 (*Gain paradox principle*), we expect employees in the context of resource losses (through high work demands) to become more focused on resource accumulation (Hobfoll et al., 2018), and seek this via work-life balance. Hence, in response to being drained of resources from work demands, work-life balance gains even greater salience and will aid the influence on affect. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Work-life balance will be (a) positively related to positive affect and (b) negatively related to negative affect.

Beyond the links between work-life balance and affect, we also explore work-life balance as a mediator of work demands. There have been calls for greater development and understanding of the process by which work-life balance operates (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). That model focused specifically on work-*family* balance, and conceptualised balance as the final outcome of study. However, many studies since then have explored both antecedents and outcomes of work-life balance, providing support for balance as an intermediary step towards achieving a better life. Russo et al. (2016) used this argument to explore both antecedents of work-life balance and the potential mediating mechanism of work-life balance. Indeed, this approach of work-life balance mediating antecedents has gained favour in the literature. For example, studies have found work-life balance mediated the influence of work-family conflict, which is related to work demands (Pattusamy & Jacob, 2016; Haar et al., 2014; Haar, 2013). Similarly, Russo et al. (2016) found work-life balance mediates other antecedents. Specific to this study, Brough et al. (2014) found work-life balance mediated the influence of work demands and similarly, using two New Zealand samples, Haar and Brougham (2020) found comparable mediation effects. Haar et al. (2018), using a sample of low paid workers, found that pay fairness was an important predictor of job satisfaction and work-life balance. Again, work-life balance was found to mediate the direct effect of pay fairness, highlighting the importance of work-life balance as an explanatory mechanism.

Under COR theory, Hobfoll et al. (2018) reiterate the importance of exploring multiple resources simultaneously. Further, the mediating effect also aligns with COR theory Principle 3 (*Gain paradox principle*), where resource gains (from high work-life balance) become more important in the context of resource loss (high work demands), which should enhance the resource gain factor (work-life balance) towards affect (Hobfoll et al., 2018). However, the antecedent focus of the present study provides a useful test of Principle 3. This is because work demands also drain resources, leading to lower work-life balance, and making the role of work-life balance in influencing and ultimately mediating work demands especially challenging. If work-life balance is found to mediate work demands, then this provides useful theoretical support for Principle 3, indicating that even in the context of direct resource loss – high work demands draining work-life balance – employees still rely on work-life balance to aid their well-being (affect), supporting the gain paradox. Here, while work demands are a resource drain, work-life balance represents a gain in resources, and testing them together is useful for advancing the field. Overall, we expect the work-life balance to influence affect and mediate the influence of work demands. We posit the following:

Hypotheses 4: Work-life balance will mediate the influence of work demands on (a) positive affect and (b) negative affect.

METHODS

Samples and Procedures

Data were collected from managers in Pakistan, spread across a variety of industries in four cities (Lahore, Faisalabad, Sargodha, and Jhang). Managers were recruited via personal and professional networks, and had the study explained to them. For this cross-sectional study, 200 surveys were distributed, and 101 responses were received (for a 50.5% response rate). Overall, our sample showed manager participants were predominantly male (77.2%), and highly educated (68.3% having a master's degree), with the majority (67.3%) working over 40-hours/week. The average age was in the 26-35 years band (43.6%), with an average

tenure of around three years. Participants work in various industries, including textile manufacturing, banking, insurance, retail, and education. While the sample reflects managers who are predominantly male, young, and highly educated, that is reflective of the Pakistan industries explored.

Measures
Except where noted, all items were coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. All measures achieved adequate reliability within each country sample (all $\alpha > 0.70$). The four samples were first combined in order to collectively test the relationships and were later cross-compared.

Work-Life Balance was measured using the 3-item measure by Haar (2013), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. A sample item is "I am satisfied with my work-life balance, enjoying both roles". Because this construct is currently untested in Pakistan, we confirmed the nature of the scale by factor analysis (principal components, varimax rotation), which confirmed the items loaded onto a single factor with eigenvalues greater than 1 (2.362), accounting for a sizeable amount of variance (78.7%) and having excellent reliability (α=.86). All three items loaded between 0.877 and 0.896.

Work Demands were measured using the 3-item scale by Haar et al. (2019), based on Yang et al. (2000), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. A sample item is "I have more work than I can do well" (α=0.84).

Positive Affect and Negative Affect were measured using three items each from Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988), coded 1= very slightly or not all, 5=extremely. Respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they felt emotions such as "Interested" (PA) and "Guilty" (NA). Both scales had adequate reliability (α= 0.75/.77).

Control Variables: We controlled for variables that typically impact employees' WLB (e.g., Haar et al., 2018; 2019). These were Gender (2=female, 1=male), Age (in bands, 1=18-25 years, 2=26-35, 3=36-45, 4=46-55, 5=56-65 years), Education (1=NCEA year 1 (equivalent), 2=high school qualification, 3=Bachelor's degree, 4=master's degree, 5=PhD), and Tenure (in bands, 1=less than 6 months, 2=6 months-1 year, 3=1-2 years, 4=2-3 years, 5=3-5 years, 6=more than 5 years).

Measurement Models
We conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using structural equation modelling (AMOS version 26). Typical goodness-of-fit guidelines from Williams et al. (2009) were followed: (1) the comparative fit index (CFI $\geq$.95), (2) the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI $\geq$.90), (3) the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA $\leq$.08), and (4) the standardised root mean residual (SRMR $\leq$.10). This resulted in a good fit to the data for: χ^2(df)= 66.9(48), CFI=.97, RMSEA=.06, and SRMR=.06. Alternative CFAs where work demands and work-life balance were combined and affect dimensions were combined both resulted in a poorer fit (all p< .001) when compared to the hypothesised model (Hair et al., 2010).

Analysis
Hypotheses were tested in SPSS (version 26) using the PROCESS macro to assess mediation. This includes bootstrapping (5,000 times), providing confidence intervals, and calculating indirect effects.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics for the study variables are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Model Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age	2.49	1.04	--						
2. Education	3.64	.76	-.11	--					
3. Tenure	2.96	1.02	.52**	-.03	--				
4. Work Demands	2.41	.83	-.04	-.07	-.14	--			
5. Work-Life Balance	3.64	.75	.04	-.00	.12	-.64**	--		
6. PA	3.65	.83	.10	.28**	.15	-.51**	.63**	--	
7. NA	2.31	.90	-.01	-.18	-.06	.40**	-.41**	-.33**	--

N=101. * p<.05, ** p<.01

Table 1 shows that work demands are significantly correlated with work-life balance (r= -.64, p< .01), positive affect (r= -.51, p< .01), and negative affect (r= .40, p< .01). Further, work-life balance is significantly correlated with positive affect (r= .63, p< .01), and negative affect (r= -.41, p< .01). Finally, positive affect and negative affect correlate significantly (r=-.33,p=.01).

Table 2 shows that work demands is significantly related to work-life balance (β=-.57(.07), p< .0001, [LL= -.72, UL= -.43]), positive affect (β=-.46(.08), p< .0001, [LL= -.63, UL= -.20]) and negative affect (β=.43(.10), p< .0001, [LL= .23, UL= .63]), supporting Hypotheses 1, 2a and 2b. Work-life balance is significantly related to positive affect (β=.58(.10), p< .0001, [LL= .38, UL= .78]) and negative affect (β=-.34(.13), p= .0161, [LL= -.62, UL= -.06]), supporting Hypotheses 3a and 3b. When work-life balance is included in the model the direct effect from work demands becomes non-significant towards both positive affect (β=-.13(.09), p= .1746, [LL= -.31, UL= .06]) and negative affect (β=.24(.13), p= .0638, [LL= -.01, UL= .49]), supporting Hypotheses 4a and 4b. We checked mediation effects via the indirect effect of work demands on affect (see Table 2) and they show a significant indirect effect for work demands on positive affect (β=-.33(.07), p<.0001, [LL=-.49, UL= -.20]) and a significant indirect effect on negative affect (β=.20(.10), p= .0227, [LL= .04, UL= .42]). Thus, while work-life balance fully mediates the influence of work demands on positive and negative affect, work demands exert a significant indirect effect.

Amongst the control variables, none are significant towards work-life balance. Towards positive affect, both gender (β=.25(.12), p=.0430, [LL= .01, UL= .49]) and education (β=.30(.08), p=.0003, [LL= .14, UL= .45]) are significant. Towards negative affect, education (β=-.22(.10), p=.0470, [LL= -.43, UL= -.00]) is also significant. Overall, the models are all significant (all p< .001) and account for large amounts of variance towards work-life balance (41%) and positive affect (52%) but are more modest towards negative affect (25%).

Results of the mediated regression analysis is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Results of Regression Effects towards Work-Life Balance and Affect

	β (SE)	Confidence Intervals	p-value
Controls:			
Age → Work-Life Balance	-.00(.07)	LL= -.14, UL= .13	.9877
Gender → Work-Life Balance	.05(.12)	LL= -.20, UL= .29	.7041
Education → Work-Life Balance	-.05(.08)	LL= -.21, UL= .11	.5317
Tenure → Work-Life Balance	.03(.07)	LL= -.12, UL= .17	.7155
Direct Effects:			
Work Demands → Work-Life Balance	-.57(.07)	LL= -.72, UL= -.43	<.0001
Controls:			
Age → Positive Affect	.08(.07)	LL= -.06, UL= .20	.2948
Gender → Positive Affect	.25(.12)	LL= .01, UL= .49	.0430
Education → Positive Affect	.30(.08)	LL= .14, UL= .45	.0003
Tenure → Positive Affect	.07(.07)	LL= -.08, UL= .21	.3604
Direct Effect:			
Work Demands → Positive Affect	-.46(.08)	LL= -.63, UL= -.20	<.0001
Mediator Effect:			
Work-Life Balance → Positive Affect	.58(.10)	LL= .38, UL= .78	<.0001
Direct Effects with Mediator:			
Work Demands → Positive Affect	-.13(.09)	LL= -.31, UL= .06	.1746
Indirect Effect:			
Work Demands → Positive Affect	-.33(.07)	LL= -.49, UL= -.20	<.0001
Controls:			
Age → Negative Affect	-.01(.09)	LL= -.19, UL= .17	.9328
Gender → Negative Affect	.27(.17)	LL= -.06, UL= .59	.1071
Education → Negative Affect	-.22(.10)	LL= -.43, UL= -.00	.0470
Tenure → Negative Affect	.05(.10)	LL= -.14, UL= .25	.5889
Direct Effect:			
Work Demands → Negative Affect	.43(.10)	LL= .23, UL= .63	<.0001
Mediator Effect:			
Work-Life Balance → Negative Affect	-.34(.13)	LL= -.62, UL= -.06	.0161
Direct Effects with Mediator:			
Work Demands → Negative Affect	.24(.13)	LL= -.01, UL= .49	.0638
Indirect Effect:			
Work Demands → Negative Affect	.20(.10)	LL= .04, UL= .42	.0227
	R^2 Values:	**F-Scores:**	**p-value**
Work-Life Balance	.41	13.2515	<.0001
Positive Affect	.52	17.0772	<.0001
Negative Affect	.25	5.1906	.0001

*p< .05, **p< .01, ***p< .001. Unstandardized path coefficients

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DISCUSSION

The goal of this paper was to examine the relationships between work demands, work-life balance, and affect. We focused on managers because there is a wealth of research showing that leaders' affect can shape follower behaviours (e.g., Van Knippenberg & van Kleef, 2016; Gooty et al., 2019; Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2014). While the present study does not also include follower data, we argue that managers – as leaders with followers – are likely to shape their followers' behaviours through their affect. Further, studies of affect from work-life balance are rare, making the study of manager affect especially useful. We found evidence that work demands shaped affect in the expected direction, and this supports COR theory. Thus, managers with high work demands have lost resources to cope with workplace issues and challenges, and this leaves them reporting weaker positive affect and stronger negative affect. This supports the arguments under COR theory that the effects of resource loss are destructive to the emotions of leaders. Further, we found evidence that work demands also shaped work-life balance, which reinforces the few studies that have explored this (e.g., Haar et al., 2019; Brough et al., 2014; Haar & Brougham, 2020).

Beyond the direct effects, we also found evidence that including work-life balance as a mediator is a worthwhile contribution, especially towards understanding the chain of effects. Our study also adds to the literature by showing work-life balance fully mediated the direct effect of work demands. However, work demands retain a significant indirect effect towards positive and negative affect, highlighting the continued influence and the importance of including indirect effects in mediation studies (Hayes, 2018). Hence, work demands might be best understood, in this study's context at least, as influencing work-life balance, which in turn shapes affect. This meets the calls for greater development around understanding how work-life balance operates (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Our mediation findings also reinforce studies showing similar effects – at least within New Zealand (Haar, 2013; Haar & Brougham, 2020) and across a number of different countries (Haar et al., 2014; Brough et al., 2014). Using three distinct samples from Italy, Russo et al. (2016) found work-life balance mediates other antecedents but found they still retained a significant indirect effect. Importantly, of the mediation studies above, only Russo et al. (2016) tested indirect effects. This approach is important because, while full mediation is found here, significant indirect effects from work demands shows it still plays an important role in shaping leaders affect.

The present study further contributed to the literature by examining relationships in a sample of Pakistan managers. Pakistan is atypical of the work-family and work-life balance field, in that there is a dominant Western focus (see Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017), making such a setting more unique. While the above work-life balance studies highlight the importance of work-life balance across New Zealand, Australia, Europe, and Malaysia and China, we find here that it is similarly important in Pakistan. Broadening the breadth of cultural settings is needed to better understand the broad appeal of studying factors like work-life balance. Haar et al. (2014) argued that work-life balance appeared to be universally beneficial. The present findings suggest we can add Pakistan to the cross-cultural literature where achieving superior work-life balance is beneficial. This reinforces the arguments for work-life balance being universally beneficial.

These findings have broad implications for HR. We understand that managers are an important resource for organisations because they are key to driving and managing the workforce and setting strategic directions. Indeed, Roche and Haar (2013) have argued that organisations are always seeking out high quality leaders, and this makes their work-life balance a critical factor to consider. We also know that managers face greater pressures and detrimental outcomes such as job burnout (see Haar, 2021) and thus organisations need to understand the importance of well-being (work-life balance, and affect), and the role that work demands play in diminishing balance and detrimentally influencing affect. Workloads

and associated work demands are an important issue – for all workers including leaders - and these findings encourage organisations to monitor and manage work demands better.

HR departments might seek to provide training highlighting the transfer of mood from leaders to followers as an initial first step, noting that a leader's mood shapes the mood and behaviours of their team. Managers who are stressed out are unhappy, and that makes their subordinates unhappy less engaged, and less productive. Hence, maximising the work-life balance and well-being of managers (high positive affect and low negative affect) is critical. Further, providing training and development for managers around the importance of managing their workload and maximising their work-life balance is also vital. Not only will such managers then have better well-being, but they will also spread these positive moods to their teams. One suggestion around workload issues is managing the connectivity to the workplace after hours (Haar, 2021), because this connectivity is a growing area of concern. Employees who are more connected typically suffer more problems. For example, it would relate to higher work demands and lower work-life balance. Perhaps New Zealand organisations might trial disconnecting the office email system over weekends to see what influence that has on their workforce? If managers (and employees) know they cannot connect, perhaps they will switch off from working at home. This is likely to reduce work demands and positively shape work-life balance.

There is also evidence showing work-life balance is positively related to important factors, including work attitudes like job satisfaction and work engagement, and work behaviours such as organisational citizenship behaviours and turnover intentions (Haar et al., 2014, 2017; Haar, 2013; Haar & Brougham, 2020). All four of these outcomes have meta-analytic support towards firm performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011; Park & Shaw, 2013; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Hence, there is strong inferred importance to organisations for addressing and enhancing work-life balance where possible, especially amongst managers. Perhaps high performance work systems (e.g., Haar, O'Kane, & Daellenbach, 2021b) are an important way an HR department can shape the well-being of managers and their workforce. HR practices offer organisations with better recruitment and selection of the workforce, and then provide employees with enhanced training and development opportunities and better compensation practices (Haar et al., 2021b), might all enhance the well-being of managers and employees. This is to be encouraged.

Limitations

Overall, our sample size is modest (n=101). However, our sample did include managers across four major Pakistan cities and a number of different industries. Strengths of the paper included using CFA to provide robust confidence in the constructs and using bootstrapping and indirect effects in PROCESS provide greater confidence around mediation effects. Haar et al. (2014) argue that CFA provides greater confidence around common method bias (CMB) because running alternative CFAs should indicate CMB if there is a lack of difference across the alternative measures. However, we do acknowledge that the data is from a single source and collected at a single point in time. Our cross-sectional study could be strengthened by separating variables at different time periods such as affect collected one month later, or by using a longitudinal study design. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) suggest post-hoc tests can be conducted to provide confidence that CMB is not an issue. The first approach is the Harman's One Factor Test, which is an unrotated factor analysis. This produced the largest factor that accounted for 35% of the variance, well below the 50% threshold for identifying CMB. Second, we conducted The Lindell and Whitney's (2001) procedure, which is a partial correlation controlling for an unrelated construct. Here we used team size and the resulting correlations remained unchanged. Combined, both tests suggest CMB is not an issue.

Conclusion

The present study examined work demands and found them to be detrimental to all outcomes, reducing work-life balance and positive affect, and increasing negative affect. While work-life balance appeared to fully mediate these effects, the indirect effects test showed that work demands are still an important factor towards negative affect. This provides a useful start to new areas of research, with work-life balance and affect seldom tested. The current study also provides new insights with a new cultural setting of Pakistan, although the effects here appear to confirm recent calls about the universal appeal of better work-life balance (Haar et al., 2014). Overall, better management of leaders' work demands, and work-life balance, are likely to shape their moods, which is important as leaders have been found to influence their followers' affect and behaviours. The present study therefore adds to the work-life balance literature and provides new insights highlighting the importance for HR around managing the workload of managers better.

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