Antecedents and Outcomes of Work-Nonwork Conflict in Hospitality: A Meta-Analysis

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Abstract
Purpose – This paper provides and meta-analytically investigates a theoretical framework of work-nonwork conflict and its antecedents and outcomes in hospitality management.
Design/methodology/approach – This paper adopts the psychometric meta-analytical methods and meta-structural equation modelling (meta-SEM) methods to synthesize the relationships between work-to-nonwork conflict (WNC) and nonwork-to-work conflict (NWC) and its antecedents and outcomes.
Findings – WNC and NWC are found to be correlated with antecedents including social support, positive affectivity and negative affectivity, and work characteristics, and correlated with outcomes including job-related well-being, life-related well-being, burnout, performance and turnover intentions.
Originality/value - This paper is the very first meta-analysis in International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management. It is also the first meta-analysis on the relationship between overall work-nonwork conflict and its antecedents and outcomes in hospitality and tourism.

Keywords: meta-analysis; work-nonwork conflict; antecedents; outcomes; talent management.

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Introduction
The hospitality industry has been characterized as being labor-intensive and involves unusual working hours and high work overload (Tsaur and Tang, 2012). In today’s world of fervent quests for “balance”, understanding how employees perceive and effectively manage their work-nonwork interface is critically important (Trefalt, 2013). Businesses tout work-nonwork balance as a strategy to attract top talent and publicize lists of “Best Employers” for achieving the balance (Casper et al., 2018). Healthy interactions between work and nonwork environments are an essential aspect of organizational psychology (Allen and Martin, 2017). Subsequently, this line of research has led to increased initiatives among employers and policy makers aiming at decreasing the conflicts between work and nonwork domains (Casper et al., 2018). A better understanding of conflicts is useful toward the identification of additional approaches to managing work-nonwork interface. Correspondingly, it is vital to have a comprehensive understanding of the factors that cause and result from work-nonwork conflict and provide directions for future research and applications in talent management.

For scholars to develop a comprehensive framework of work-nonwork conflict and build a cohesive body of research, conceptual elaboration and empirical examination of the existing literature is needed (Wayne et al., 2017). Although there is comprehensive review on work-family studies in the hospitality context (Zhao, 2016), it is narrative and exploratory in nature rather than synthesized findings by statistical tests. Given the accumulation of this line of research, the purpose of this paper is to examine the antecedents and outcomes of work-nonwork conflict in hospitality and tourism through statistically integrating the findings by using a comprehensive, theory-driven meta-analysis. Specifically, this paper (a) presents a theoretically sound framework of work-nonwork conflict and its antecedents and outcomes; (b) examines the hypotheses proposed in the framework with an accretion of work-nonwork conflict studies in hospitality and tourism, (c) examines the psychological mechanisms linking work-nonwork conflict and turnover intentions, because maintaining a work-nonwork balance is the key to retaining talents and there is a need to understand why conflict leads to turnover (Deery and Jago, 2015). We identify important theories used to define work-nonwork conflict and explain the relation between conflict and related constructs. As a core set of theories guide research in this area, this fosters accumulation and advancement of research in the study of conflict (Casper et al., 2018). Collectively, the conceptual framework and empirical examination of existing studies build clarity around this important construct as a foundation for scholars to develop stronger research on this burgeoning topic in the future.

Literature Review and Hypotheses
Work-Nonwork Conflict
Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) specified the term work-nonwork conflict as a form of interrole conflict in which meeting the role demands of one role (e.g., work) interferes with meeting the demands of another role (e.g., leisure or family). The definition is built on the assumptions of the role theory (Allen, 2001), which stated that roles are embedded in expectations of appropriate behaviors and that engaging in a variety of incompatible roles could result in conflict, because accomplishing one domain’s expectations could decrease the capacity to address role expectations in another domain. As a result of competing demands on limited resources, time, attention and energy are depleted, which could lead to various far-reaching negative outcomes, including decreased job satisfaction, life satisfaction, job
performance and affective organizational commitment, and increased job burnout and ultimately turnover intentions (e.g., Karatepe and Kilic, 2015; Zhao and Mattila, 2013; Zhao et al., 2014).

Triggered by the development in research activity in this topic, the definitions of work-nonwork conflict and corresponding inventories have become further differentiated with regards to the direction of conflict among domains (Allen et al., 2012). The existing literature has identified two dimensions, including work-to-nonwork conflict (WNC) and nonwork-to-work conflict (NWC). WNC refers to the extent to which participation in the nonwork role (e.g., parenting) is hindered from participation in the work role. An example is that pressures arising from excessive workloads or deadlines prevent employees from attending children’s activities. NWC refers to the extent to which participation in the work role is hindered from participation in the nonwork role. An example is that family commitments to taking care of babies make it difficult to work on evenings (Michel et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2000).

This paper uses work-nonwork conflict as an umbrella concept for a set of terms, including work-family conflict, negative spillover, or interference, etc. While work-family conflict evaluates the conflict between work and family activities, the concept work-nonwork conflict is the interferences between work and the entire domain of nonwork activities, which includes family issues and nonwork roles that go beyond the family, such as involvement in local community (Fisher et al., 2009).

This paper links work-nonwork conflict to its antecedents and outcomes through various theories that will be discussed in the following sections. An overview of the conceptual framework is depicted in Figure 1. This paper disentangles antecedent constructs into categories of social support (i.e., supervisor support, co-worker support, organizational support, and family support), personality (positive affectivity and negative affectivity) and work characteristics (work overload and job control). Outcome variables include job-related well-being (job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment), life-related well-being (life satisfaction and personal well-being), personal ill-being (burnout), performance (job performance and customer satisfaction), and employee retention (turnover intentions). This paper provides a fine-grained examination of these factors. An outline of the included variables and definitions and theoretical foundations linking the variables to work-nonwork conflict are provided in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 and Figure 1 about here

Antecedents of work–nonwork conflict

Social support

Social support is defined as the instrumental aid, emotional concern, or informational functions from the others that can strengthen one’s feelings of self-importance and help the quality of relationships (Carlson and Perrewe, 1999). Social support may come from both work and nonwork environments and includes various sources including co-workers, the direct supervisor, the organization, or the family. Social support has been found to be an important antecedent to overall work-nonwork conflict (e.g., Carlson and Perrewe, 1999; Kong, 2013; Viswesvaran et al., 1999).

The relationship between social support and work-nonwork conflict can be described by role theory (Allen, 2001) and conservation of resources (COR; Hobfoll, 1989) theory. As suggested by the role theory, individuals have a variety of demands from both work and nonwork domains. Multiple life roles often result in inter-role conflict as individuals have difficulty in performing all the roles successfully due to the conflicting demands (Allen, 2001). When an individual experience social support in one domain, it could lead to an alleviation of the time, attention and effort that are needed to perform that role. Based on COR theory,
individuals typically have very limited resources that permit them to engage in a variety of taxing activities throughout a working day. Social support is one of the resources that can be used as a coping mechanism, because the availability of support can protect the employees from stressful situations such as work-nonwork conflict (e.g., Karatepe, 2009; Mansour and Tremblay, 2016a). Both role theory and COR theory can suggest a negative correlation between social support and work-nonwork conflict. For instance, if family support is provided in the nonwork domain, expectations within nonwork domain could be met more adequately, such as adjustment of role expectations and assisted role performance from spouse. Later on, the individual will experience a decrease of role pressures and increase in resources in the nonwork domain. Similarly, supervisor, co-worker and organizational support are work-related resources. The availability of more resources can protect hospitality employees from stressful situations. Once supervisors, co-workers or organizations are interested in aiding in solving employee’s work- or family-related problems, employees may be better able to cope with difficulties in both work and family roles and experience less WNC and NWC (Karatepe and Bektæshi, 2008). Therefore, increasing in social support could result in a reduction in both WNC and NWC. Accordingly, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: Supervisor support (a), co-worker support (b), organizational support (c) and family support (d) are negatively related to WNC.

Hypothesis 2: Supervisor support (a), co-worker support (b), organizational support (c) and family support (d) are negatively related to NWC.

**Personality**

Personality is defined by the organization of mental structures and coordinated mental processes that could determine ones’ emotional and behavioral responses to the surrounding environments (Michel et al., 2011). Although we intend to investigate various components of personality (e.g., Big-Five personality model and Core-Self Evaluations), within the work-nonwork literature in hospitality and tourism, only positive affectivity and negative affectivity have received adequate empirical attention in the literature to allow for examination in meta-analysis. Positive affectivity and negative affectivity are proposed as the antecedents of work-nonwork conflict as those two constructs tend to have a strong influence on how one perceives both life and work events (Karatepe and Uludag, 2008a; Watson et al., 1988).

Broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001) could be used to illustrate the relationships between positive/negative affectivity and work-nonwork conflict. As stated in this theory, when one is high on dispositional positive affectivity, his/her momentary thought-action repertoire can be broadened (e.g., Joy can broaden by creating the passion to play and be creative). Through this process, positive emotions can build up one’s personal resources in work or nonwork situations. With an expanded repertoire of resources and tendency to effectively react to stressful challenges, individuals who are higher in positive affectivity are more likely to use their resources to improve the functioning in other domains (Michel et al., 2011). Those higher in positive affectivity are more likely to search for solutions and resources to reduce work-nonwork conflict and apply the resources to facilitate functioning in various life domains. Thus, individuals higher in positive affectivity could experience higher control over the interplay between the work and nonwork domains. On the contrary, based on broaden-and-build theory, when an individual is constantly experiencing negative emotions (i.e., high in negative affectivity), it narrows his/her thought-action repertoires. Thus, they may seek fewer solutions to help manage demands and expectations from multiple domains, which makes them feel greater anxiety, stress, and dissatisfaction across work-nonwork situations (Michel et al. 2011). The relationship between positive/negative affectivity and work-nonwork conflict can be demonstrated in several hospitality studies. In an investigation of frontline hotel employees in Turkey, Karatepe and Uludag (2008a) demonstrated that positive affectivity
ameliorated both work-to-nonwork conflict and nonwork-to-work conflict. Karatepe et al. (2008) found that negative affectivity amplified employees’ work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict in a sample of hospitality employees in Northern Cyprus. Karatepe and Magaji (2008) also uncovered the same relationship using a sample of hotel employees in Nigeria. Accordingly, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3: Positive affectivity is negatively related to WNC (a) and negative affectivity is positively related to WNC (b).

Hypothesis 4: Positive affectivity is negatively related to NWC (a) and negative affectivity is positively related to NWC (b).

Work characteristics

Work characteristics consist of the properties in work that impact the perceptions of employees’ cross-domain conflict (e.g., a hotel that has high working load for the employees should increase WNC by making the work environment less compatible with nonwork domain). These consist of such variables as work overload and job control. Work overload refers to employees’ perceived magnitude of demand from work-role, and the feeling that there are too much work to do and not enough time to deal with them (Karatepe et al., 2008). Job control is defined as employees’ perceived discretion in controlling over the work processes (Chiang et al., 2010). The relationship between work characteristics and WNC can be illustrated by conflict theory, role theory and COR theory. The conflict theory involves a form of interrole conflict and argues that the work and nonwork domains are mutually incompatible resulting from different role pressures and requirements (Zedeck, 1992). From the perspective of conflict theory, the characteristics of job (e.g., work overload) could have an effect on cross-domain conflict. For instance, a hotel that has high working load for the employees should increase WNC by making the work environment less compatible with nonwork domain (e.g., Karatepe et al., 2008).

From the perspectives of COR and role theories, greater job control could give rise to higher flexibility which allows for more efficient use of limited resources and in turn reduces feelings of WNC. We believe the level of control over one’s job will decrease perceptions of WNC. High job control implies that having freedom of the job would decrease the degree to which work role conflicts with the role expectations of nonwork domain. Hospitality studies have demonstrated a negative association between job control and WNC (e.g., Lin et al., 2015). Work overload relating with WNC could also be explained by COR and role theories. WNC occurs when job demands deplete an employee’s resources such as time and energy (Frone et al., 1992). COR views individual resources as finite or limited (Tenbrunsel et al., 1995). When employees experience working overload, resource drain is likely to happen. Thus, work overload subtracts from the limited resources available to the employee. Assuming that one has finite immediate disposable resources, increased overload in the work domain could lead to greater cross-domain conflict (Karatepe et al., 2008; Khorakian et al., 2018). From the perspective of role theory, individuals need to be involved in both work and nonwork roles while attempting to meet both role expectations. However, if there is work overload, individuals may adjust their time, attention, and energy to meet the demands of the work role, which results in a reduction in capacity to address nonwork role demands. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 5: Work overload is positively related to WNC (a) and job control is negatively related to WNC (b).

Outcomes of work–nonwork conflict
Job-related well-being and life-related well-being
Conflicting demands from work and nonwork roles usually make employees to face mutually exclusive dilemmas (Zedeck, 1992). There could be a spillover effect between work and nonwork settings. For instance, job conditions impact life satisfaction strongly, and living conditions can significantly influence job satisfaction. Therefore, working/living conditions have a spillover effect, such that work-nonwork conflict negatively impacts employee’ well-being in work and nonwork domains (Zhang et al., 2018).

Affective events theory (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) argues that affective experiences have effects on individuals’ evaluative judgments about their jobs and work environments. The mechanisms suggest that WNC and NWC are sources of negative affective events, which deplete individuals’ psychological resources, promote experiences of negative emotions, and hinder the establishment of rewarding social relationships at work (Nohe et al., 2015). The repeated experiences of negative events at work disrupt the satisfaction level of individuals’ needs and could therefore negatively influences their job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Hospitality jobs usually involve long working hours and irregular scheduling. Employees may experience difficulties in arranging time off from work, decreasing their ability to enjoy nonwork life such as leisure time. Both job satisfaction and leisure satisfaction are negatively influenced by work-leisure conflict (e.g., Lin et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2015). Thus, work-nonwork conflict could result in a spillover effect, which has a negative impact on satisfaction in both work and nonwork domain (Rice et al., 1992). According to the COR theory, one’s time and energy are scarce resources. Experiencing high conflicts in the work-nonwork interface may lead to loss of resources. If individuals lose resources because of experiencing conflicts in the work-nonwork interface, then distress could occur in both work and nonwork domains, which impact the well-being of both domains (Grandey and Cropanzano, 1999).

Several hospitality studies have found the relationship between WNC/NWC with job- and life-related well-being. For instance, Namasiivayam and Mount (2004) demonstrated that work-family conflict reduced employees’ job satisfaction. In a study of frontline employees in Northern Cyprus hotels, Karatepe and Kilic (2007) found out that work-family conflict is a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Zhao et al. (2011) have found that family-work conflict has deleterious influence on life satisfaction among hotel employees in China. In a study of hospitality and tourism employees in Taiwan, Lin et al. (2013) showed that work-to-leisure conflict negatively influenced job satisfaction and leisure satisfaction. Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 6: WNC is negatively related to job satisfaction (a) and affective commitment (b).

Hypothesis 7: NWC is negatively related to job satisfaction (a) and affective commitment (b).

Hypothesis 8: WNC is negatively related to life satisfaction (a) and personal well-being (b).

Hypothesis 9: NWC is negatively related to life satisfaction (a) and personal well-being (b).

Personal ill-being

WNC and NWC could deplete employees’ mental resources, resulting in personal ill-being. To addressing personal aspects of ill-being, this paper consider job burnout as an indicator that have been investigated in primary studies on this topic (e.g., Karatepe and Kilic, 2015; Karatepe and Uludag, 2007). Conflict-burnout relationship can be explained by the effort-recovery model (Meijman and Mulder, 1998). Essentially, this theory suggests that accomplishing job tasks requires individual physical and psychological efforts, which elicit needs for recovery outside of work. The model holds that effort expenditure at work or nonwork
life results in load reactions including fatigue or physiological activation (Sonntag and Fritz, 2007). When WNC (e.g. time conflicts, being preoccupied with work when with family) deters employees from recovering from work, it could lead to energy depletion, emotional exhaustion and cynical attitudes towards their jobs. Similarly, high demands from nonwork domain not only are expected to prevent recovery processes but could also result in fatigue at work. Burnout can be determined by nocturnal care for young children and being preoccupied with private life when doing the job (Leavitt et al., 2017). Those may pressure employees to devote additional time and effort to maintain their levels of performance. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

**Hypothesis 10**: WNC (a) and NWC (b) are positively related to burnout.

**Performance**

Regarding performance outcomes, WNC and NWC may impair employees’ job performance and hinders the employee-customer rapport that is key to customer satisfaction (Hülsheger and Schewe, 2011). Similar with many service settings, customers’ perceived service quality is greatly dependent on the job performance of employees in the hospitality industry (Zhao et al., 2014). As discussed above, hospitality employees are affected by long work hours, abundant workloads, and unsocial working schedules. Both WNC and NWC could impede employees from performing the prescribed work-related responsibilities as a result of a lack of the energy and resources lost in the process of juggling both work and nonwork (e.g., family) roles, which will make customers dissatisfied. This view is also consistent with the COR theory. WNC and NWC constitute a loss of resources available to employees and can lead to further losses and make them stressful. Consequently, the service quality will be degraded, and customers are able to pick up on it, which affects customer satisfaction and retention (Mansour and Mohanna, 2018; Zhao and Mattila, 2013). The individual studies in hospitality have provided empirical support for the significant negative relationships between WNC/NWC and job performance and customer satisfaction (e.g., Karatepe, 2013; Karatepe and Bekteshi, 2008; Zhao and Mattila, 2013). Thus, employees who are incapable of balancing work and nonwork role expectations are likely to have lower job performance and customer satisfaction and we hypothesize that:

**Hypothesis 11**: WNC is negatively related to job performance (a) and customer satisfaction (b).

**Hypothesis 12**: NWC is negatively related to job performance (a) and customer satisfaction (b).

**Employee retention**

Employees might think about leaving their current company to preserve their limited resources, if they believe that they are not able to cope with difficulties arising from WNC and NWC. This notion is supported by the COR theory. Additionally, scholars have extended turnover models by adding non-work factors because it has been recognized that turnover intentions could be influenced by outside-of-organization commitments, such as non-work or family factors (Chen et al., 2018; Rode et al., 2007). With this realization, WNC and NWC are among the key factors that may raise hospitality employees’ turnover intentions. Empirical studies in hospitality literature also support those linkages. For example, Yavas et al. (2008) demonstrated that WNC and NWC were significant determinants of turnover intentions in a sample of frontline hotel employees in Turkey. Blomme et al. (2010) found that WNC and NWC were highly correlated with turnover intentions of highly educated hospitality employees. Their results also showed that providing flexible hours and maintaining a good organizational climate to improve work-family balance are important factors for retaining highly educated hospitality employees. In addition, work-nonwork conflict could negatively affect employee
turnover intentions by destroying job-related or life-related well-being, specifically attitudes such as job satisfaction and life satisfaction, which previously have been found to be associated with turnover intentions (e.g., Karatepe and Baddar, 2006; Karatepe and Kilic, 2007; Karatepe and Uludag, 2007).

**Hypothesis 13:** WNC (a) and NWC (b) are positively related to turnover intentions.

**Method**

**Search and inclusion of literature**

The primary goal of this paper is to conduct a meta-analysis on the existing empirical research on the link among work-nonwork conflict and its antecedents and outcomes in hospitality and tourism. Our search for literature was conducted via online databases that include Elsevier Science Direct, Sage, Emerald, Taylor and Francis, EBSCO and Web of Science. The search terms were “work nonwork (family or home or leisure or life) conflict (or interference)” and “hospitality”, “hotel”, “restaurant” or “tourism” in conjunction with the search terms representing the constructs in the conceptual model.

There are four inclusion criteria. First, the study includes a measure of WNC and/or NWC. Second, the study includes at least one construct that we have conceptualized as an antecedent or outcome in our model. Third, all variables are assessed at the individual level and their correlations are reported. Correlations between study variables that are reported at the person level were coded. Fourth, the setting of the primary studies is within the hospitality and tourism industry. To ensure interrater reliability, the coding was cross checked by the authors. Our search covers all manuscripts from 2004 to 2017, plus some issues in 2018 that were available when the search was conducted. Ultimately our search yields 81 articles, and 60 usable correlation matrices among them. These studies are indicated in the reference list with an asterisk at the beginning of the entry. The currency of the manuscripts allows us to capture a relatively long-term development of research on work-nonwork conflict in hospitality.

**Analytical methods**

Meta-analyses can help synthesize the primary empirical findings using statistical tests (Borenstein et al., 2009). Our analytical framework draws on two advanced meta-analytical methods, which are psychometric meta-analysis (Hunter and Schmidt, 2004) and meta-analytic structural equation modelling (meta-SEM) (Cheung, 2015; Jak, 2015). The analyses were performed with statistical software R and the packages were psychmeta and metaSEM.

**Psychometric meta-analysis.** The psychometric meta-analytical methods developed by Hunter and Schmidt (2004) are commonly used to conduct meta-analyses of organizational behavior and related areas (e.g., Hülsheger and Schewe, 2011). We rely on the analysis (Hunter and Schmidt, 2004, pp.75-188) to estimate the mean value of correlations between antecedents and outcomes, based on the literature we searched for. We coded the correlation matrices and the sample size of each article that we collected. In synthesizing the correlation coefficients between antecedents and outcomes, the psychometric meta-analysis uses sample sizes as weights and adjusts for the sampling variances of the correlations. Other artifacts that alter the value of outcome, as identified in Hunter and Schmidt (2004, p.76), may also be corrected.

**Meta-analytic SEM.** Whilst the correlation coefficients provide a broad picture of the relationship between antecedents and outcomes, a more insightful analysis involves synthesizing the individual causal links among the variables into a single, combined model. We resort to an innovative technique called the meta-analytic structural equation modelling (meta-SEM) approach, as reviewed and introduced in Cheung (2015), Jak (2015) and Landis (2013). The inputs needed are also the correlation matrices and the sample sizes. Specifically, we use a two-stage approach, where in the first stage a correlation matrix of the variables of interest is constructed and in the second stage a structural equation model is fitted on this matrix.
in order to capture the causal links among all variables of interests. Then regression coefficients are estimated.

**Results**

The empirical results from our modelling exercises are reported in Tables 2 and 3, and Figure 2 below. Tables 2 and 3 separately list the correlations synthesized from the literature. We mainly focus on the corrected correlation, \( \rho \). Following Cohen (1988) and Michel et al. (2011), we interpret the strength of correlation \( \rho \) as \( > 0.50 = \text{strong} \), \( > 0.30 = \text{moderate} \), and \( > 0.10 = \text{small} \). A cut-off was used, and an effect size magnitude of \( \rho > 0.10 \) should be considered for meaningful relationships (Michel et al., 2011).

Insert Table 2 and Table 3 about here

**Hypothesized relationship of WNC, NWC and antecedents**

We group the antecedents into three broad categories: social support, personality and work characteristics. Hypotheses 1 and 2 predict that social support, in the form of supervisor support, co-worker support, organizational support and family support, will all be negatively related to WNC and NWC. Both hypotheses are confirmed by the results, as the \( \rho \) for each of the aforementioned support dimensions is negative, ranging from small to moderate. Specifically, supervisor support (\( \rho = -0.285 \)), co-worker support (\( \rho = -0.218 \)), organizational support (\( \rho = -0.350 \)), and family support (\( \rho = -0.259 \)) are all negatively related to WNC, and supervisor support (\( \rho = -0.178 \)), co-worker support (\( \rho = -0.285 \)), organizational support (\( \rho = -0.270 \)), and family support (\( \rho = -0.277 \)) are all negatively related to NWC. Meanwhile, caution should be taken to interpret the relationship between organizational support and NWC, given that there is only one study involved. Overall, those findings imply that as social support increases, WNC and NWC decreases. Thus, H1a-d and H2a-d were all supported.

For personality, Hypotheses 3 and 4 state that positive affectivity is negatively related to WNC and NWC, whereas negative affectivity is positively related to WNC and NWC. The results found that positive affectivity has a negative relationship with both WNC (\( \rho = -0.264 \)) and NWC (\( \rho = -0.360 \)). Negative affectivity has a positive relationship with NWC (\( \rho = 0.240 \)) and WNC (\( \rho = 0.303 \)). Therefore, H3a-b and H4a-b were supported. The relationship between positive affectivity and NWC should be interpreted with caution as there was only one study investigating this relationship.

For work characteristics, Hypothesis 5 predicts that work overload is positively related to WNC, whilst job control is negatively related to WNC. The results provide support for this hypothesis such that work overload and WNC is moderately and positively correlated (\( \rho = 0.341 \)), and job control and WNC is moderately and negatively correlated (\( \rho = -0.381 \)). Thus, H5a-b were supported.

**Hypothesized relationship of WNC, NWC and consequences**

We identify, from the literature, that the consequences of WNC and NWC are associated with job-related well-being, life-related well-being, personal ill-being, performance and employee retention.

On job-related well-being, Hypotheses 6 and 7 predict that WNC and NWC are negatively correlated with job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. Both hypotheses are confirmed, such that WNC is negatively related to job satisfaction (\( \rho = -0.292 \)) and with affective commitment (\( \rho = -0.195 \)), whereas NWC is negatively correlated with job satisfaction (\( \rho = -0.187 \)) and affective commitment (\( \rho = -0.250 \)). Thus, H6a-b and H7a-b were supported.

Hypotheses 8 and 9 concern about life-related well-being, and predict that WNC and NWC are negatively related to life satisfaction and personal well-being. The results show that
WNC has a negative correlation with life satisfaction ($\rho = -0.313$) and with personal well-being ($\rho = -0.353$), and NWC negatively correlates with life satisfaction ($\rho = -0.300$) and personal well-being ($\rho = -0.264$). Compared with job-related well-being, the life-related well-being dimensions are more strongly affected by WNC and NWC, as evidenced by the magnitude of correlations. Hence, H8a-b and H9a-b were supported.

Both WNC and NWC are positively affecting burnout, as predicted by Hypothesis 10 and confirmed by the results. Such positive correlation ($\rho = 0.406$ and 0.306, respectively) is in the range between moderate and strong. Thus, H10a-b were supported. Hypotheses 11 and 12 predict that WNC and NWC negatively affect job performance and customer satisfaction. Results show that both WNC ($\rho = -0.111$) and NWC ($\rho = -0.193$) have a negative relationship with job performance. However, the relationship between WNC ($\rho = -0.003$) and NWC ($\rho = -0.048$) and customer satisfaction is almost negligible. Therefore, H11a and H12a were supported, but not for H11b and H12b.

With respect to turnover intentions, Hypothesis 13 rightly predicts that both WNC and NWC are positively related to it, as the results show a moderate to strong correlation ($\rho = 0.402$ and 0.392, respectively), and the magnitude is higher than those for many other relationships. Therefore, H13a-b were supported.

**Additional analysis: Selected causal links**

Maintaining a work-nonwork balance is key to retain the talent (Deery and Jago, 2015). Therefore, it is important to see how the conflict issues are related to employee retention. Although Tables 2 and 3 provide the direct relationship between WNC and NWC and employee’s turnover intentions, we attempt to capture the causal links in a more insightful manner through a meta-analytic structural equation model (meta-SEM). The major benefit of this method is that, by combining individual casual links in a single model, we can capture the relationships that do not necessarily have been studied in existing literature. Various psychological mechanisms could link work-nonwork conflict with turnover intentions, including job satisfaction (e.g., Karatepe and Kilic, 2007) and life satisfaction (e.g., Karatepe and Baddar, 2006). This section intends to examine how work-nonwork relationships lead to retention through the psychological mechanisms. The results are presented in Figure 2.

Insert Figure 2 about here

It is worth noting that the model in Figure 2 only captures the causal relationship among a small number of major consequence variables. In constructing a meta-SEM, we are hindered by the limited availability of correlation matrices from the literature, which ideally should cover the same set of antecedents and consequences across studies and the more variables the better. The fact that, from one study to another, the literature reports correlations among substantially different variables means that only a handful of variables can be fitted within a meta-SEM.

Nevertheless, Figure 2 showcases that WNC and NWC could affect turnover intentions in a more elaborated manner. The model follows the literature which explores how employee’s life satisfaction and job satisfaction mediate the effects of WNC and NWC on turnover intentions (e.g., Karatepe and Baddar, 2006; Karatepe and Kilic, 2007; Karatepe and Uludag, 2007). Consistent with the findings from Tables 2 and 3, the life-related well-being dimension has a stronger link with WNC and NWC than job-related well-being dimension has. The life-related well-being dimension also has greater influence over employees’ turnover intentions than the job-related well-being dimension has.

**Discussion**
This paper is the very first meta-analysis in International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management. It is also the first meta-analysis of work-nonwork conflict and the antecedents and outcomes in hospitality and tourism. This field lacks a conclusive meta-analysis of the studies published in refereed journals. The current article summarizes the findings of relevant research and provides robust evidence on the link between work-nonwork conflict and its antecedents and outcomes. The holistic conceptual model and the empirical findings from this paper will be useful for researchers to reach consensus, and more importantly, supply a solid backdrop for future talent management research in hospitality and tourism.

Collectively, our results suggest that: (1) social support (including supervisor support, co-worker support, organizational support, and family support) is a predictor of WNC and NWC. (2) Positive affectivity predicts both WNC and NWC. Negative affectivity predicts NWC. (3) Work characteristics (work overload and job control) are predictors of WNC. (4) WNC and NWC are negatively related to job- and life-related well-being, including job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, life satisfaction and personal well-being. (5) WNC and NWC are negatively correlated with job performance, and positively correlated with burnout and turnover intentions. Ultimately, the results suggest that employees who borrow time and effort to meet the expectations of other domains will finally have to “pay the piper.”

For the antecedents, though each has its unique magnitudes in correlation with WNC and NWC, several trends across those relationships can be discovered. For instance, work characteristics (work overload and job control) are generally stronger predictors of WNC than social support and personality. The results are consistent with previous findings (e.g., Karatepe et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2015). This indicates that when employees feel high job control and flexible workload, they are more capable of dealing with work pressure that interfere with nonwork domain. This provides important managerial implication for hospitality companies to reduce WNC in terms of reducing workload and increasing job control. In addition, personality dimensions including positive affectivity and negative affectivity are significant predictors of NWC, and this suggests a significant number of variance in overall work-nonwork conflict is disposition-based. It is inferred that employees with high negative affectivity experience higher conflicts between work requirements and family responsibilities. Additionally, employees high in positive affectivity have more enthusiasm, energy, and concentration to be better able to cope with difficulties associated with WNC and NWC. We also see that social support is multifaceted with aspects of organizational support, supervisor support, and coworker support on the work side and family support on the nonwork side. Those are important resources for employees to reduce WNC and NWC.

For the outcomes, we expected negative relationships of overall work-nonwork conflict and well-being, performance and retention. WNC and NWC showed substantial relationships with job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, life satisfaction, personal well-being, burnout, job performance and turnover intentions. Applying Cohen’s (1988) rule of thumb, the size is assessed as medium to large when the outcomes were life-related well-being, burnout and turnover intentions. However, the performance facet customer satisfaction were not related with both WNC and NWC. The reason maybe that customer satisfaction is a distal outcome rather than a proximal outcome of work-nonwork conflict. There are several underlying mechanisms linking work-nonwork conflict and customer satisfaction, e.g., through emotional labor and negative emotions (Zhao and Mattila, 2013; Zhao et al., 2014). Future research could examine the potential mediators between work-nonwork conflict and customer satisfaction. In addition, in the additional meta-SEM analysis, we found that WNC and NWC show a stronger relationship with life satisfaction than job satisfaction, which in turn, predict turnover intentions. This is consistent with previous findings in literature. For example, Hsieh et al. (2009) demonstrated that the effect of work-personal life conflict on turnover intentions was strongest among hotel managers who were highly involved in their personal lives. Those
who are more involved in personal lives perceive satisfaction from their personal lives and agree that important things that happened to them are especially in their personal lives. Hence, employees are more sensitive to when work threatens their personal lives and tend to react to threats by leaving their jobs so as to resume their life satisfaction. Though the findings of the meta-analysis may be attributed to the fact that life satisfaction is more influenced by work-nonwork conflict than job satisfaction, more empirical studies are needed pertaining to the impact of conflicts on job/life satisfaction and retention to generalize the results in the hospitality literature.

**Theoretical and practical implications**

This present study has contributions to the work-nonwork conflict literature in hospitality management and influences the practice in several ways. First, this paper provides and examines a theoretical framework that incorporates the key work, nonwork, and personality antecedents, and examines employee well-being, performance and retention as consequences. In doing so, this study incorporates and covers the relevant seminal works and theories into a coherent framework (e.g., Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Michel et al., 2011; Zedeck, 1992). Second, although there are existing review papers on work-nonwork issues within the hospitality literature (e.g., Zhao, 2016; Deery and Jago, 2015), none has used meta-analysis to provide a quantitative review. As Zhao (2016) advocated, an urgent task for work-family issues in hospitality is to identify consistencies across literature and construct a consolidated theoretical framework. The meta-analysis allows for a finer grained examination of the variables in this study, along with additional analyses on how overall work-nonwork conflict leads to turnover.

Third, with the improved understanding of work-nonwork conflict and the antecedents and outcomes, implementations of these results can progress in organizations to better manage talents. For instance, many of the antecedents in the model can be under the control of the individuals themselves, family members, peers or co-workers and managers in the organization, etc. Thus, the findings herein could be used for reducing work-nonwork conflict at multiple levels. For instance, the meta-analytic results suggest that work overload is an important antecedent of WNC. Organizations which are interested in retaining talents and reducing WNC could particularly benefit from focusing on ensuring clear and compatible job duties and responsibilities, and also making sure that the volume of duties are reasonable for employees. The results also showed that positive and negative affectivity are related with WNC and NWC. Organizations can introduce a mindfulness-based workshop to help cultivate employees’ positive emotions and reduce work-nonwork conflict (Kiburz et al., 2017). The theoretical framework also presents the major outcomes of work-nonwork conflict, thereby helping hospitality practitioners understand why they should spend time, effort and resources on dealing with those issues, and why it is beneficial to talent management and the organization. The results should alert hospitality employers on the risks of not responding to the demand for nonwork friendly measures. Balancing employee work-nonwork life should be considered a component of an organization’s plan for implementing strategic human resources practices, which allows an organization to be competitive for attracting and retaining talents eventually (Mansour and Mohanna, 2018; Mansour and Tremblay, 2018).

The results also have implications for nonwork domains. When individuals have less conflict or better meet expectations across work and nonwork roles, they experience better outcomes such as life satisfaction. Given these potential benefits, employees may want to discuss with their spouses or family members on mutual expectations, whether expectations are met, and how to provide mutual support in accomplishing expectations to maximize each other’s balance (Wayne et al., 2017).

**Limitations and directions for future research**
As with any study, this paper is not without its own limitations. The first limitation is that although we are able to aggregate and evaluate unique correlations from various studies, primary study data is rather limited and finite, which restricts the number of studies that are able to be evaluated. In addition, the variables used in the literature vary substantially from study to study. This indicates that there has yet to form a unified framework to analyze the mechanisms linking relationships between NWC, WNC and turnover intentions. However, as Schmidt et al. (1985) pointed out, even meta-analyses with small number of studies could provide us meaningful and reliable insights into the relationships among constructs and are worthwhile being conducted (see also Hülsheger and Schewe, 2011; Valentine et al., 2010).

The second limitation revolves around the fact that it was unable to evaluate the detailed facet level relationships. On the facet-specific level, the types of conflict are divided into strain-, time- and behavior-based conflict (Allen et al., 2012). Theoretically, it would helpful to assess how the antecedent and outcome variables relate to specific facets of conflict. Unfortunately, the current literature cannot allow facet-level evaluation in a meta-analysis because the facet level details have typically not been reported.

Future research endeavors could aim at examining how technology influence employees work and nonwork lives. Although advances in technology have made organizations much more convenient to communicate with their workforce outside of the normal working hours, there is an increased concern that employees may experience elevated work-nonwork conflict when they are away from the office (Butts et al., 2015). Future research could also utilize longitudinal designs wisely to examine work-nonwork conflict (Allen et al., 2018). For example, future scholars could find that employees manage WNC and NWC differently at different points of time. Employees could be more willing to sacrifice their nonwork life for work time at the end of a financial reporting stage when job expectations and demands are high or when promotions are imminent. In addition, work and nonwork issues influences not only attitudes and behaviors in job or life but also non-HR issues such as corporate social responsibilities, brand equity, etc. (Zhao, 2016). Researchers could go beyond the scope of HR to examine the various impact of work-nonwork relationships.
Reference

References noted with “*” are included in the meta-analysis.


Table 1 Summary of included definitions of constructs and theoretical foundation linking work-nonwork conflict and related constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
<th>Theories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work-nonwork conflict</td>
<td>The extent to which employees’ participation in the work (or nonwork) role is made more difficult from participation in the nonwork (or work) role (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). It includes work-to nonwork conflict (WNC) and nonwork-to-work conflict (NWC).</td>
<td>Role theory (Allen, 2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>The instrumental aid, emotional concern and informational functions from other people that can strengthen one’s feelings of self-importance and help the quality of relationships (Carlson and Perrewé, 1999). Social support comes from both work and nonwork environments and includes various sources such as co-workers, the direct supervisor, the organization and the family.</td>
<td>Conservation of resources (COR; Hobfoll, 1989) theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive affectivity</td>
<td>A trait measuring the extent to which one feels enthusiastic, active, and alert (Watson et al., 1988)</td>
<td>Broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative affectivity</td>
<td>A trait measuring the degree to which one experiences discomfort across times and situations (Watson and Clark, 1984)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work overload</td>
<td>Employees’ perceived magnitude of demand from work-role, and the feeling that there are too much work to do and not enough time to deal with them (Karatepe et al., 2008)</td>
<td>Conflict theory (Zedeck, 1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job control</td>
<td>Employees’ perceived discretion in controlling over the work processes (Chiang et al., 2010)</td>
<td>Role theory (Allen, 2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>The pleasurable state resulting from the evaluation of one’s job (Locke, 1969)</td>
<td>Affective events theory (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996)</td>
</tr>
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<td>Life satisfaction</td>
<td>An overall assessment of a person’s quality of life (Yavas et al., 2013)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal well-being</td>
<td>Individual’s cognitive and affective evaluations of their lives (Diener, 2000)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Burnout</td>
<td>A state of exhaustion in which one is cynical about the value of the job and doubtful of one’s capability to do the job. Burnout includes three key aspects: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a decreased feeling of personal accomplishment</td>
<td>Effort-recovery model (Meijman and Mulder, 1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job performance</td>
<td>The levels of productivity of an employee, relative to his/her colleagues, on several job-related behaviors and outcomes (Babin and Boles, 1998).</td>
<td>COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer satisfaction</td>
<td>Customer’s cognitive and affective evaluations of a product or service (Zeithaml et al., 2006).</td>
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<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover intentions</td>
<td>Employees’ willingness to leave their current organization (Thoresen et al., 2003). (Hobfoll, 1989)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 Relationship between WNC and antecedent/consequence variables

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Relation with antecedents</th>
<th>Relation with consequences</th>
<th>k</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>r</th>
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<td>0.104</td>
<td>0.303</td>
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<td>0.468</td>
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Notes: WNC, work-to-nonwork conflict; k, number of samples; N, total number of participants; r, sample size weighted mean observed correlation; SD r, standard deviation of r; ρ, mean correlation corrected for sampling error; SD ρ, standard deviation of ρ; CI, confidence interval; CV, credibility interval.
<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>k</th>
<th>N</th>
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<td>-0.264</td>
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<td>Job performance</td>
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<td>Turnover intentions</td>
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<td>0.130</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>0.480</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.558</td>
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Notes: NWC, nonwork-to-work conflict; k, number of samples; N, total number of participants; r, sample size weighted mean observed correlation; SD r, standard deviation of r; ρ, mean correlation corrected for sampling error; SD ρ, standard deviation of ρ; CI, confidence interval; CV, credibility interval.
Figure 1. Conceptual model.
Figure 2. Causal relationship between NWC, WNC and turnover intentions

Note. NWC = nonwork-to-work conflict; WNC = work-to-nonwork conflict; LS = life satisfaction; JS = job satisfaction; TI = turnover intentions; ***$p < 0.001$