

The Effect of Work-Life Balance on Employee Performance in Cirebon City's General Affairs Division

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Abstract

This study investigates how work-life balance affects employee performance in the general affairs unit of the Cirebon City Regional Secretariat. A quantitative, descriptive-associative design was used, with a five-point Likert questionnaire completed by all 53 employees of the unit (saturated sampling). Work-life balance was analyzed both as a single construct and through its three dimensions (time, involvement, and satisfaction balance), with age, tenure, education, and gender as controls. The analysis covered validity, reliability, and Average Variance Extracted (AVE), classical assumption tests, simple and multiple regression, and a two-stage least squares check using Wu-Hausman and Sargan tests. Work-life balance was rated good (mean = 4.01) and performance very good (mean = 4.39). Work-life balance affected performance positively ($Y = 40.918 + 0.366X$, $t = 2.740$, $p = 0.008$, $R^2 = 0.128$), although the effect was weaker with heteroscedasticity-robust errors ($p = 0.061$). Of the dimensions, only involvement balance was significant ($B = 0.943$, $p = 0.006$). The findings suggest that work-life balance is positively associated with employee performance, particularly through involvement balance, although the relationship becomes less statistically robust after adjusting for heteroscedasticity. Endogeneity was not detected (Wu-Hausman $p = 0.294$), but the instruments were weak and the work-life balance scale showed modest reliability ($\alpha = 0.549$). The results apply to one administrative unit and should be interpreted cautiously. This study contributes empirical evidence on the dimensional effects of work-life balance in local government administration and highlights employee involvement balance as a potential priority for improving performance management practices.

Keywords: Employee Performance, Government Sector, Human Resource Management, Work-Life Balance

1. INTRODUCTION

Public-sector organizations are expected to deliver services that are more effective, efficient, accountable, and of higher quality. Digital administration has made many tasks easier; however, it also keeps employees reachable after hours, which can erode the boundary between work and private life ([Mungkasa, 2020](#)). Since the pandemic, the spread of remote and flexible arrangements has further changed how civil servants (*Aparatur Sipil Negara*/ASN) separate their jobs from their personal affairs ([Tongam, Linardy, Saputra, & Saputra, 2021](#)). People are the main resource through which any organization, including government bodies, reaches its objectives. Employees who can balance their jobs and private lives tend to be more engaged, satisfied, committed to the organization, and ultimately more productive ([Ahakwa, Yang, & Atingabili, 2021](#); [Aruldoss, Travis, & Parayitam, 2022](#)). When the balance is lost, work stress, exhaustion, and falling productivity become more likely ([Muzti, & Mardiana, 2024](#); [Sumirat, & Indradewa, 2023](#)).

In the general affairs unit of the Cirebon City Regional Secretariat, heavy administrative loads, strict procedures, and tight deadlines make it difficult for several employees to keep work and personal time in proportion. An initial observation showed that some staff members still complete tasks after office hours and report physical and mental tiredness. Similar pressure has been noted elsewhere in the public sector, where bureaucratic rules and limited autonomy complicate work-life balance ([Ratih, Mulyono, & Farhan, 2023](#)). Evidence from universities by [Eshun and Segbenya \(2024\)](#), regional government bodies by [Arimbawa, Wijana, Landra, and Imbayani \(2025\)](#), and service and manufacturing firms by [Cahyani, Oktaviana, and Dwianto \(2024\)](#) underlines how work-life balance relates to performance. However, studies of administrative units inside regional secretariats are scarce, especially those that rely on primary data, examine the separate dimensions of work-life balance, and apply a full set of statistical tests. This study is meant to fill that gap.

From a theoretical perspective, work-life balance is a multidimensional concept encompassing time balance, involvement balance, and satisfaction balance ([Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003](#)). Time balance refers to the allocation of time between professional responsibilities and personal activities, while involvement balance reflects the extent to which individuals maintain psychological engagement in both domains ([Murib, 2025](#)). Satisfaction balance concerns the degree of fulfillment experienced in work and personal life. These dimensions may contribute differently to employee performance, particularly in public-sector organizations where administrative responsibilities, procedural requirements, and institutional expectations shape employees' daily activities. Employees may successfully manage their working hours but still experience difficulties maintaining emotional involvement or satisfaction across their professional and personal roles. Therefore, examining work-life balance as a single construct may overlook important differences in how its individual dimensions relate to performance ([Khairunnisa, Wijaya, Haryanti, & Harun, 2026](#)). Analyzing these dimensions separately can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between work-life balance and employee performance in government administrative settings.

Furthermore, the relationship between work-life balance and employee performance may be influenced by individual characteristics and organizational conditions ([Ikhsan & Rozanna, 2026](#)). Differences in age, length of service, educational background, and gender can shape employees' experiences of professional responsibilities and personal commitments. In government administrative units, employees are also expected to maintain productivity, accuracy, and timeliness while complying with established bureaucratic procedures. These expectations highlight the importance of understanding whether work-life balance contributes to performance beyond individual demographic differences. Although previous studies have identified positive relationships between work-life balance and employee performance across various organizational contexts, additional empirical examination is needed to understand how these relationships operate within specific public-sector administrative environments. By incorporating demographic characteristics as control variables and examining the three dimensions of work-life balance, this study seeks to provide a more detailed assessment of employee performance in the general affairs division of the Cirebon City Regional Secretariat.

The study adds to public sector human resource management research on what work-life balance produces in Indonesian local governments ([Haar & Brougham, 2022](#)). Practically, the results may guide personnel policies that help employees maintain a work-life balance, consistent with bureaucratic reform and good governance ([Syarif & Hasan, 2025](#)). Three questions guide the study:

RQ1. How is work-life balance among employees of the division?

RQ2. How is their performance?

RQ3. Does work-life balance influence performance?

Accordingly, this study aims to describe work-life balance, describe performance, and estimate how strongly work-life balance affects performance among employees of the general affairs division of the Cirebon City Regional Secretariat.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Work-Life Balance

Work-life balance refers to how well a person allocates time, energy, and roles between job demands and private life so that role conflict is limited. This is important for human resource management because it shapes stress, job satisfaction, and performance ([Haar & Brougham, 2022](#)). In many sectors, it is linked with stronger engagement and performance, and job satisfaction frequently serves as the mediating mechanism ([David et al., 2025](#); [Indradewa & Prasetyo, 2023](#)).

This study adopts the three dimensions proposed by [Greenhaus et al. \(2003\)](#), such as time balance, which concerns how evenly time is split between work and private life, involvement balance, which concerns the psychological investment a person puts into each domain, and satisfaction

balance, which concerns how content a person feels in both domains. Eight indicators operationalize these dimensions ([Greenhaus et al., 2003](#)). More recent studies highlight work-life balance in flexible and remote settings. Flexible arrangements raise performance by improving work-life balance ([Ismail & Michael, 2025](#); [Jimad et al., 2024](#)), while support from the organization helps remote employees maintain their balance ([Kim & Park, 2025](#)).

2.2 Employee Performance

Employee performance describes the quality and quantity of output an employee achieves when carrying out the assigned tasks ([Sitorus & Hernawaty, 2026](#)). It is shaped by ability, motivation, work environment, leadership, discipline, workload, and work-life balance ([Muzti & Mardiana, 2024](#); [Sumirat & Indradewa, 2023](#)). Performance is measured here with the dimensions of [Bernardin and Russell \(1993\)](#), such as quality, quantity, timeliness, effectiveness, interpersonal relationships, and the need for supervision. These dimensions suit administrative staff in public service units that face heavy workloads and time-sensitive tasks ([Arimbawa et al., 2025](#); [Ratih et al., 2023](#)).

Earlier studies generally report that a better work-life balance accompanies higher performance. This link runs through organizational commitment ([Badrianto & Ekhsan, 2021](#)) and job satisfaction ([Asari, 2022](#)) and has been observed in regional governments ([Arimbawa et al., 2025](#); [Harjanti et al., 2025](#)) and in manufacturing ([Arifin & Muharto, 2022](#)). Balance also supports psychological well-being ([Rejeki et al., 2021](#)) and sustained productivity and loyalty ([Malik, 2023](#)), although career development and job satisfaction also play a role ([Shafariah & Gofur, 2025](#)). Overall, the literature points to a positive association in both public and private organizations, with its size varying by personal characteristics, organizational culture, and the work environment ([Henriques & Samagaio, 2025](#)). This variation motivates the tests performed in the setting examined here.

2.3 Conceptual Framework and Hypothesis

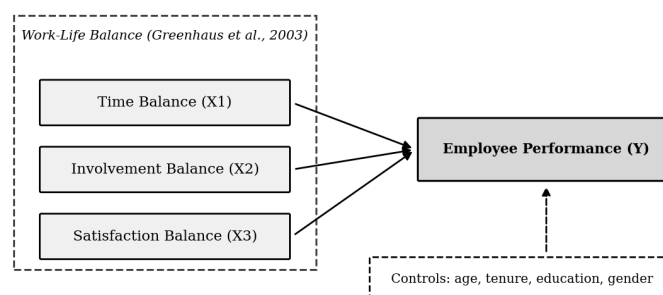


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework, adapted from the three-dimensional view of work-life balance by [Greenhaus et al. \(2003\)](#) and from models linking work-life balance to performance in government organizations by [Arimbawa et al. \(2025\)](#) and [Syarif and Hasan \(2025\)](#). The three dimensions, time balance (X_1), involvement balance (X_2), and satisfaction balance (X_3), are expected to influence employee performance (Y), while age, tenure, education, and gender are entered as control variables. Two hypotheses emerge from this framework:

H_0 : Work-life balance has no significant effect on employees' performance in the division

H_1 : Work-life balance has a positive and significant effect on employee performance in the division

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A quantitative, descriptive-associative approach was used to test how work-life balance relates to employee performance, a design common in survey-based human resource research ([Aruldoss et al., 2022](#); [Haar & Brougham, 2022](#)). Data were gathered in July 2026 at the general affairs division of the Cirebon City Regional Secretariat, located on Jalan Siliwangi No. 84, Kebonbaru, Kejaksan,

Cirebon, West Java. The population consisted of 140 employees of the secretariat. With saturated sampling, all 53 employees of the division participated. They comprised 31 men (58.5%) and 22 women (41.5%), 27 (50.9%) completed senior high school, 2 (3.8%) a diploma, and 24 (45.3%) a bachelor's degree; and 33 (62.3%) had served for more than seven years. Data came from a five-point Likert questionnaire (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) built on the indicators in Table 1.

Table 1. Operationalization of research variables

Variables	Dimension	Items	Scale	Source
Work-Life Balance (X)	Time Balance (X_1)	3 ($X_{1.1}$ - $X_{1.3}$)	Likert 1-5	Greenhaus et al. (2003)
	Involvement Balance (X_2)	3 ($X_{2.1}$ - $X_{2.3}$)	Likert 1-5	
	Satisfaction Balance (X_3)	2 ($X_{3.1}$ - $X_{3.2}$)	Likert 1-5	
Employee Performance (Y)	Quality, quantity, timeliness, effectiveness, interpersonal relationships, need for supervision	12	Likert 1-5	Bernardin & Russell (1993)
Control variables	Age (4 groups), tenure (3 groups), education (3 levels), gender	4	Ordinal / dummy	Respondent data

Item validity was judged by item-total correlation: an item is valid when the r -count exceeds the r -table value of 0.271 ($n = 53$, $df = 51$, $\alpha = 0.05$). Reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha and Composite Reliability (CR) against a cut-off of 0.70. Convergent validity was evaluated from the standardized loadings of a one-factor model and the AVE, with 0.50 as the recommended minimum (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2019). Table 2 presents the results.

Table 2. Validity, reliability, and AVE results

Variables	Items	r -count range	r -table	Cronbach α	CR	AVE	Description
Work-Life Balance (X)	8	0.338-0.675	0.271	0.549	0.604	0.178	Items valid, α and AVE below threshold
Employee Performance (Y)	12	0.332-0.619	0.271	0.704	0.717	0.187	Items valid, α and CR acceptable, AVE below threshold

Equations (1) – (3) specify the regression models. Formula 1 examines the overall effect of work-life balance (X , the total of eight items) for H_1 , Formula 2 uses the three dimensions as separate predictors, and Formula 3 adds the control variables.

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 Age + \beta_5 Tenure + \beta_6 Education + \beta_7 Gender + \varepsilon \quad (3)$$

where Y is employee performance (total of 12 items), α is the constant, β denotes the regression coefficients, and ε is the error term. The classical assumptions were checked using the Lilliefors-corrected Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests for normality, a lack-of-fit F-test for linearity, the Glejser and Breusch-Pagan tests for heteroscedasticity, tolerance, and the variance inflation factor for multicollinearity, and the Durbin-Watson statistic for autocorrelation. Where heteroscedasticity appeared, HC3 robust standard errors were reported as well (MacKinnon & White, 1985). Possible endogeneity of work-life balance, for instance because performance may feed back into balance, was assessed with two-stage least squares using work-unit dummies as instruments, the Wu-Hausman test

(Hausman, 1978), and the Sargan overidentification test (Sargan, 1958). The significance level was set at 5%.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Descriptive Results

Mean item scores were sorted into five categories (1.00-1.80 very low, 1.81-2.60 low; 2.61-3.40 moderate, 3.41-4.20 good, 4.21-5.00 very good). Table 3 shows that work-life balance was rated as good (mean = 4.01) and performance as very good (mean = 4.39). Time balance had the lowest score (3.75), and its weakest indicator was keeping work within eight hours a day (mean = 3.42), therefore, overtime still appears to be an issue. As performance was self-assessed, the high average may partly reflect self-rating bias.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics (n=53)

Variable/dimension	Mean item score	SD (sum score)	Range (sum)	Category
Time balance (X_t)	3.75	2.01	6-15	Good
Involvement balance (X_2)	4.25	1.48	8-15	Very good
Satisfaction balance (X_3)	4.06	1.19	5-10	Good
Work-life balance (X)	4.01	3.50	20-40	Good
Employee performance (Y)	4.39	3.57	45-60	Very good

4.2 Factor Loadings, Item Diagnostics, and Convergent Validity

Table 4 lists the standardized loading of each indicator together with its corrected item-total correlation and Cronbach's alpha obtained if the item were removed. All indicators satisfy the item-total criterion used in Table 3, but most loadings are weak (X : 0.147–0.578, Y : 0.253–0.660). The AVE values (0.178 and 0.187) therefore stay under 0.50, and convergent validity at the construct level is not achieved (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The corrected item-total correlations of $X_{t.1}$, $X_{t.3}$, $X_{2.2}$ (work-life balance) and $Y_{t.2}$, $Y_{3.2}$, $Y_{4.2}$ (performance) fall below the r -table value; the weakest loading is $X_{t.3}$ (0.147), and dropping it would raise the alpha of work-life balance only to 0.592. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin values of 0.492 (X) and 0.594 (Y) likewise signal little shared variance among the items. The alpha of work-life balance (0.549) is below 0.70, whereas that of performance is acceptable (α = 0.704, CR = 0.717). Both scales are multidimensional, which depresses single-factor loadings; for this reason, dimension-level results are reported below, and conclusions about work-life balance should be drawn carefully.

Table 4. Factor loadings and item diagnostics

Indicator	Loading	Corrected item-total r	α if item deleted
$X_{t.1}$	0.542	0.257	0.520
$X_{t.2}$	0.384	0.420	0.446
$X_{t.3}$	0.147	0.118	0.592
$X_{2.1}$	0.578	0.337	0.507
$X_{2.2}$	0.242	0.157	0.545
$X_{2.3}$	0.395	0.325	0.491
$X_{3.1}$	0.562	0.373	0.499
$X_{3.2}$	0.314	0.275	0.511
Work-life balance (X): AVE / α	0.178		0.549
$Y_{t.1}$	0.305	0.301	0.692
$Y_{t.2}$	0.253	0.252	0.705
$Y_{2.1}$	0.536	0.494	0.662
$Y_{2.2}$	0.433	0.394	0.680
$Y_{3.1}$	0.261	0.285	0.692
$Y_{3.2}$	0.360	0.266	0.695

Indicator	Loading	Corrected item-total r	α if item deleted
$Y_{4.1}$	0.501	0.398	0.676
$Y_{4.2}$	0.300	0.203	0.702
$Y_{5.1}$	0.501	0.325	0.688
$Y_{5.2}$	0.660	0.480	0.669
$Y_{6.1}$	0.506	0.435	0.670
$Y_{6.2}$	0.357	0.308	0.690
Employee performance (Y): AVE / α	0.187		0.704

Loadings from a one-factor model: $r\text{-table} = 0.271$. $X1.1$ - $X1.3$ -time balance, $X2.1$ - $X2.3$ involvement balance, $X3.1$ - $X3.2$ satisfaction balance; $Y1.1$ - $Y6.2$ follow the order of the performance dimensions in Table 2.

4.3 Classical Assumption Tests

Table 5 presents the diagnostics for Model 1. The residuals are normal, the relationship is linear, and autocorrelation is absent. The Glejser ($p = 0.014$) and Breusch-Pagan ($p = 0.012$) tests nevertheless detect heteroscedasticity, therefore, HC3 robust standard errors are reported next to the conventional estimates. In Table 6, every tolerance value in Model 3 lies well above 0.10 (lowest 0.565) and every VIF is under 2, so multicollinearity is not a concern; in Model 2, tolerance runs from 0.829 to 0.854.

Table 5. Classical assumption tests (model 1)

Test	Statistic	Sig.	Conclusion
Normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Lilliefors)	0.102	0.203	Normal (>0.05)
Normality (Shapiro-Wilk)	0.962	0.092	Normal (>0.05)
Linearity (lack-of-fit F)	0.942	0.522	Linear (>0.05)
Heteroscedasticity (Glejser)	$t = -2.540$	0.014	Present (<0.05)
Heteroscedasticity (Breusch-Pagan)	6.304	0.012	Present (<0.05)
Autocorrelation (Durbin-Watson)	2.193	-	No autocorrelation (≈ 2)

Table 6. Multicollinearity test (model 3)

Predictor	Tolerance	VIF	Conclusion
Time balance (X_1)	0.659	1.518	No multicollinearity
Involvement balance (X_2)	0.806	1.240	No multicollinearity
Satisfaction balance (X_3)	0.813	1.231	No multicollinearity
Age	0.565	1.770	No multicollinearity
Tenure	0.571	1.750	No multicollinearity
Education	0.813	1.231	No multicollinearity
Gender (male = 1)	0.586	1.707	No multicollinearity

4.4 Regression Results and Hypothesis Testing

Table 7 shows the regression estimates as B (standard error). Model 1 yields $Y = 40.918 + 0.366X$: performance is predicted at 40.918 when work-life balance is zero, and each additional unit of work-life balance adds 0.366 units of performance. The F-test ($F = 7.510$, $p = 0.008$) indicates that the model fits, and the t -test ($t = 2.740$, $p = 0.008$, standardized beta = 0.358) confirms a positive effect, therefore, H_0 is rejected and H_1 is accepted when conventional standard errors are used. Work-life balance accounts for 12.8% of the variance in performance. However, with HC3 robust standard errors, the coefficient has a standard error of 0.195 and $p = 0.061$, only marginal significance; therefore, support for H_1 should be regarded as modest.

Table 7. Regression results (dependent variable: employee performance)

Predictor	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Constant	40.918 (4.310), $p < 0.001$	39.793 (4.490), $p < 0.001$	43.485 (5.105), $p < 0.001$
Work-life balance (X)	0.366 (0.133), $p = 0.008$	-	-
Time balance (X_t)	-	0.363 (0.248), $p = 0.150$	0.507 (0.280), $p = 0.077$
Involvement balance (X_2)	-	0.943 (0.331), $p = 0.006$	0.819 (0.344), $p = 0.021$
Satisfaction balance (X_3)	-	-0.400 (0.415), $p = 0.341$	-0.489 (0.426), $p = 0.258$
Age	-	-	-0.396 (0.543), $p = 0.469$
Tenure	-	-	-0.898 (0.719), $p = 0.218$
Education	-	-	-0.319 (0.512), $p = 0.537$
Gender (male = 1)	-	-	1.273 (1.199), $p = 0.294$
R^2 / Adjusted R^2	0.128 / 0.111	0.214 / 0.166	0.266 / 0.151
F-statistic (sig.)	7.510 (0.008)	4.439 (0.008)	2.326 (0.041)

Cells show B (standard error), p -values are from conventional OLS. $n = 53$.

In Model 2, involvement balance was the only significant predictor ($B = 0.943$, $p = 0.006$, standardized beta = 0.391, HC3 $p = 0.034$), time balance ($p = 0.150$) and satisfaction balance ($p = 0.341$) were not. Together, the three dimensions accounted for 21.4% of the variance in performance (adjusted $R^2 = 0.166$). Involvement balance remained significant in Model 3 ($p = 0.021$, HC3 $p = 0.062$), while none of the control variables reached significance (all $p > 0.20$). Interactions between work-life balance and age, tenure, and gender were likewise not significant ($p = 0.250$, 0.642, and 0.972, respectively), so moderation by these characteristics is not supported.

Table 8 reports the endogeneity tests. Wu-Hausman does not reject the exogeneity of work-life balance ($p = 0.294$), and the Sargan test does not reject the validity of the instruments ($p = 0.260$). The first-stage F-statistic is 3.10, well under the rule-of-thumb value of 10, which makes the instruments weak and the two-stage estimate ($B = 0.025$, $p = 0.944$) highly imprecise. The tests thus show no sign of endogeneity but cannot exclude it.

Table 8. Endogeneity tests (two-stage least squares)

Test	Statistic	df	Sig.
Wu-Hausman (exogeneity of X)	$F = 1.127$	1, 46	0.294
Sargan (overidentifying restrictions)	$\chi^2 = 2.692$	2	0.260
First-stage F (instrument strength)	$F = 3.102$	3, 45	0.036

4.5 Discussion

The result that a stronger work-life balance goes together with better performance agrees with research in higher education by [Eshun and Segbenya \(2024\)](#), with [Aruldoss, Travis, and Parayitam \(2022\)](#) and [Haar and Brougham \(2022\)](#), and with studies of Indonesian government employees ([Arimbawa, Wijana, Landra, & Imbayani, 2025](#); [Harjanti, Harryman, Noerchoidah, & Rossitika, 2025](#)). The effect is small ($R^2 = 0.128$) and less certain once robust standard errors are used; thus, the association within this one administrative unit looks genuine but not strong.

At the dimension level, the effect appears to come from the involvement balance, meaning that private life supplies energy and readiness for the working day. This fits the view of work-life balance as a resource that helps people cope with job demands ([Haar and Brougham, 2022](#); [Aruldos et al., 2022](#)). Time balance and satisfaction balance were not significant, which may stem from restricted variance, the small sample, and the weak reliability of dimensions built from two or three items; it should not be read as evidence that they have no effect.

Most of the variation in performance remains unexplained, and none of the control variables was significant. Job satisfaction, workload, and work stress probably matter as well ([Muzti, & Mardiana, 2024](#); [Sumirat, & Indradewa, 2023](#); [Amanda, Kurniawan, & Wulandari, 2024](#); [Arisanti, & Kusumayadi, 2023](#)). Work-life balance and job satisfaction have been shown to contribute to performance in a bureaucratic setting ([Syarif & Hasan, 2025](#)). Because these variables were not measured, they should be added in later research.

In practical terms, the low score on keeping work within eight hours a day suggests limiting work communication after office hours and allowing more flexible arrangements, in line with evidence that flexibility, organizational support, and telework paired with a good balance improve performance ([Henriques, & Samagaio, 2025](#); [Ismail, & Michael, 2025](#); [Jimad, Roslina, & Yuningsih, 2024](#); [Kim, & Park, 2025](#)). Writing such measures into operating procedures and leave rules would be an inexpensive way to ensure that administrative units perform well.

5. CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Conclusion

This study aimed to examine the level of work-life balance, assess employee performance, and analyze the effect of work-life balance on employee performance in the general affairs division of the Cirebon City Regional Secretariat. Based on the findings, three main conclusions can be drawn. First, employees generally demonstrated a good level of work-life balance (mean = 4.01), although time balance remained the weakest dimension, indicating challenges in managing professional responsibilities alongside personal activities. Second, employee performance was categorized as very good (mean = 4.39), reflecting favorable assessments of employees' ability to fulfill their administrative responsibilities. Third, work-life balance showed a positive relationship with employee performance ($B = 0.366$, $p = 0.008$), explaining 12.8% of the variance in performance. However, this relationship became less statistically significant when heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors were applied ($p = 0.061$), suggesting that the overall evidence should be interpreted cautiously. Among the three dimensions, involvement balance emerged as the strongest and only statistically significant predictor of employee performance, highlighting the importance of maintaining psychological engagement across professional and personal roles. Although the endogeneity tests did not identify significant evidence of endogeneity, the weak instruments limited the reliability of this assessment. Overall, the findings suggest that work-life balance, particularly involvement balance, is positively associated with employee performance in local government administration. These results emphasize the importance of organizational practices that support balanced employee engagement while recognizing that other organizational and individual factors may also influence performance.

5.2 Research Limitations

First, the design is cross-sectional and covers a single work unit with 53 respondents, which restricts the statistical power and scope for generalization. Second, the work-life balance scale showed modest reliability and an AVE under 0.50, and performance was rated by the employees themselves. Third, the study has a fairly narrow focus: the questionnaire captured only work-life balance and performance, therefore, mediating, moderating, or further independent variables such as job satisfaction, workload, and work stress could not be examined, and the model rests on the dimensions of work-life balance and respondent characteristics. This limitation is addressed in the suggestions for further research. Fourth, the instruments used in the endogeneity test were weakly correlated.

5.3 Suggestions and Directions for Future Research

Agency leaders are encouraged to restrict work-related communication after office hours, distribute tasks proportionally, and weigh flexible working schemes. Employees should plan their working time and keep office matters separate from private ones. Later studies could refine the work-life balance scale, bring in job satisfaction, work stress, workload, or organizational commitment as mediators or moderators (Arimbawa et al., 2025; Badrianto & Ekhsan, 2021; Muzti & Mardiana, 2024), employ stronger instruments or longitudinal data to deal with endogeneity, and cover other units or institutions.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

JS contributed to research conceptualization, questionnaire development, data collection, statistical analysis, interpretation of findings, and preparation of the original manuscript. ZKurniawan contributed to research supervision, methodological guidance, theoretical framework development, validation of research findings, and critical review and editing of the manuscript. Both authors contributed to the refinement of the research and reviewed and approved the final version of the manuscript for publication.

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