

Université de Montréal

**Étude des mécanismes du débordement de bien-être psychologique entre le travail et la
famille**

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Étude des mécanismes du débordement de bien-être psychologique entre le travail et la famille

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Résumé

Le travail et la famille sont souvent vus comme deux domaines en compétition pour le temps, l'énergie et l'attention des travailleurs. Pourtant, des synergies positives existeraient à l'interface entre ces deux domaines de vie. Plus particulièrement, le bien-être psychologique pourrait déborder positivement d'un domaine à l'autre. Des articulations théoriques réfèrent au débordement de bien-être psychologique (p. ex., Edwards et Rothbard, 2000 ; Greenhaus et Powell, 2006), mais très peu d'études se sont attardées à évaluer les mécanismes par lesquels les bien-être psychologiques au travail et dans la famille s'influencent mutuellement. Les études antérieures ne permettent pas de capter adéquatement le processus à l'intérieur duquel les mécanismes de débordement opèrent, et ce, pour deux raisons. D'une part, elles recourent à des concepts-valises qui englobent l'ensemble du débordement et éludent ainsi les mécanismes internes à celui-ci. D'autre part, elles utilisent des devis majoritairement transversaux qui ne permettent pas de capter le déploiement temporel des mécanismes à l'étude. L'objectif de la présente thèse est donc d'évaluer un ensemble de mécanismes pouvant expliquer le débordement de bien-être psychologique entre le travail et la famille.

Le premier article évalue le rôle médiateur de la performance au travail dans la relation du bien-être psychologique dans la vie hors travail vers le bien-être psychologique au travail, mécanisme le plus universellement soutenu par les théorisations de l'interface travail-famille. Ainsi, l'article explore plus en profondeur ce mécanisme en l'évaluant selon deux conceptualisations du bien-être psychologique, ainsi que deux types de performance. Deux études ont été réalisées : l'une à deux temps de mesure séparés de 7,5 mois et l'autre mesurant des expériences journalières concomitantes. Les résultats confirment le rôle médiateur de la

performance dans les deux cas et mettent en lumière les distinctions entre le débordement de bien-être cognitif et celui de bien-être affectif.

Le deuxième article explore trois autres mécanismes de débordement : la satisfaction dans la vie (médiateur), la centralité du domaine d'origine dans l'identité et la force des frontières travail-famille (modérateurs). Des théorisations périphériques au thème du débordement travail-famille enrichissent la compréhension du processus de débordement du travail vers la famille et inversement. Six-mille-soixante-dix-sept jeunes travailleurs ont répondu à trois questionnaires séparés de 11 semaines chacun. Des analyses acheminatoires soutiennent le rôle médiateur de la satisfaction dans la vie. Par ailleurs, nous avons trouvé que plus un individu accorde d'importance à sa famille, plus sa satisfaction dans la famille influencerait positivement sa satisfaction dans la vie. Finalement, la force des frontières entourant la famille limiterait le débordement de bien-être psychologique du travail vers la famille.

Cette thèse a pour principale contribution l'articulation de plusieurs propositions théoriques en un modèle cohérent de débordement de bien-être psychologique entre le travail et la famille, ainsi que son évaluation empirique. Nos études étayent la documentation précédente en recourant à des échantillons diversifiés et à des méthodologies rigoureuses. Les résultats de cette thèse présentent des implications pratiques pour les travailleurs, les organisations et la société.

Mots-clés : Équilibre travail-hors travail, Débordement positif, Enrichissement travail-famille, Santé psychologique, Bien-être subjectif, Affects positifs, Performance au travail, Satisfaction dans la vie, Identité, Frontières travail-hors travail.

Abstract

Work and family are often considered as two domains competing for the time, energy and attention of workers. Positive synergies could nonetheless exist at the interface between these two life domains. Notably, psychological well-being could spillover from one domain to the other. Theoretical frameworks about the spillover of psychological well-being exist (e.g., Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), but very few studies have evaluated the mechanisms through which work and family psychological well-being influence each other. Previous studies do not adequately capture the process within which spillover mechanisms operate for two reasons. On the one hand, they use global concepts encompassing the whole spillover process, thereby disregarding internal mechanisms. On the other hand, they mainly use cross-sectional designs which cannot capture the processual nature of the proposed mechanisms. The objective of this thesis is therefore to evaluate mechanisms that could explain work-family psychological well-being spillover.

The first article evaluates the mediating role of work performance in the influence of psychological well-being outside of work on psychological well-being at work, the mechanism most supported by work-family interface theories. Hence, the article explores this mechanism in depth by evaluating it according to two psychological well-being conceptualizations, as well as two types of performance. Two studies were conducted: one using a two-wave design with a 7.5-month delay and the other measuring experiences on a given workday. Results support the mediating role of performance in both studies and shed light on the distinction between cognitive well-being spillover and affective well-being spillover.

The second article explores three other spillover mechanisms: life satisfaction (mediator), originating domain identity centrality, and work-family boundary strength (moderators).

Theoretical articulations peripheral to work-family spillover enhance the understanding of the spillover process from work to family and inversely. Six thousand seventy-seven young workers answered three questionnaires with a delay of 11 weeks between each measurement time. Path analyses support the mediating role of life satisfaction. Furthermore, we discovered that the more an individual considers family as an important life domain, the more its family satisfaction will positively influence its life satisfaction. Finally, home boundary strength appears to limit the psychological well-being spillover from work to family.

The main contribution of this thesis is its articulation of different theoretical propositions in one consistent work-family psychological well-being spillover model, as well as its empirical evaluation. Our studies build on previous literature by tapping on diverse samples and rigorous methods. The results of this thesis show practical implications for workers, organizations, and society.

Keywords: Work-nonwork balance, Positive spillover, Work-family enrichment, Psychological health, Subjective well-being, Positive affect, Work performance, Life satisfaction, Identity, Work-nonwork boundaries.

Résumé de vulgarisation

La conciliation travail-famille est une préoccupation croissante pour les travailleurs et les organisations, puisque le manque d'équilibre entre ces deux domaines de vie est une importante source de stress au travail. Alors que le travail et la famille sont souvent vus comme étant en compétition, des synergies positives entre ces deux domaines de vie pourraient exister. Par exemple, il est possible que le bien-être au travail influence positivement le bien-être dans la famille. C'est ce qu'on appelle le transfert de bien-être psychologique. En d'autres mots, une personne qui éprouve du bien-être dans sa famille pourrait, à travers différents processus, être amenée à ressentir davantage de bien-être au travail, et vice-versa. Nous avons évalué les mécanismes qui facilitent ou réduisent le transfert de bien-être à travers trois études portant sur différentes populations : des travailleurs de la santé, des étudiants travailleurs et de jeunes employés de la fonction publique.

Plusieurs constats émergent de nos études. Premièrement, nos résultats confirment l'existence du transfert de bien-être d'un domaine à l'autre. Deuxièmement, la performance au travail expliquerait cette influence positive : une personne qui éprouve du bien-être dans sa vie personnelle a tendance à être plus performante au travail, ce qui augmenterait son bien-être au travail. Troisièmement, le bien-être se transférerait également à travers la satisfaction dans la vie en général. En effet, pour évaluer leur bien-être dans la vie en général, les individus se fonderaient sur leur bien-être dans des domaines particuliers. La perception générale de bien-être dans la vie influencerait ensuite positivement le bien-être dans un second domaine. Quatrièmement, plus un individu centre son identité autour de la famille, plus sa satisfaction familiale contribuerait à ce qu'il ressent de la satisfaction dans la vie. Finalement, les gens qui

limitent les intrusions du travail dans leur vie personnelle vivraient moins de transfert de bien-être du travail vers la famille.

Ces constats pointent vers des applications pratiques pour favoriser une synergie positive entre le travail et la famille. Au niveau personnel, réfléchir ou discuter à la maison d'événements positifs reliés au travail pourrait favoriser un transfert de bien-être. Par ailleurs, nos résultats démontrent la pertinence pour les organisations d'investir dans des politiques de conciliation travail-famille (télétravail, horaire flexible, congés parentaux) puisque leur influence positive sur la famille pourrait se répercuter sur le milieu de travail en termes de bien-être et de performance accrus. Qui plus est, les constats propres à cette thèse soutiennent le maintien de politiques publiques favorisant la conciliation travail-famille.

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Liste des sigles

BEP : Bien-être psychologique

CFI : Comparative fit index

PWB : Psychological well-being

RMSEA : Root mean square error of approximation

SRMR : Standardized root mean square residual

T1 : Time 1

T2 : Time 2

T3 : Time 3

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Introduction

Problématique

La conciliation travail-famille est une préoccupation croissante, que ce soit pour les travailleurs (CROP, 2014) ou les organisations (Kossek et al., 2014). Par ailleurs, le manque d'équilibre entre travail et famille est considéré comme la plus importante source de stress au travail (Towers Watson, 2014), alors que seulement un parent québécois sur cinq rapporte que son employeur possède une politique de conciliation travail-famille (Réseau pour un Québec famille, 2014). Non seulement la situation en matière de conciliation travail-famille s'avère problématique, mais elle a également des effets néfastes au niveau de la société. En effet, au Québec, la difficulté à conjuguer le travail et la vie à l'extérieur du travail engendrerait des coûts de plus de 100 millions de dollars par année en soins de santé (St-Amour et al., 2005). Il apparaît donc primordial de mieux comprendre les dynamiques entourant la gestion de l'interface entre travail et famille.

Le travail et la famille sont souvent vus comme deux domaines en compétition pour le temps, l'énergie et l'attention des travailleurs. En effet, dans un contexte nord-américain où le dévouement au travail est une valeur pratiquement universelle (Williams et al., 2016), il apparaît particulièrement difficile de s'engager simultanément dans les deux domaines centraux que sont le travail et la famille. Par exemple, 72% des parents éprouveraient de la culpabilité à prioriser leur travail (Réseau pour un Québec famille, 2014). Pourtant, combiner l'implication dans le travail et la famille pourrait donner lieu à des synergies positives (Sieber, 1974). Alors que les interactions négatives entre le travail et la famille ont été exposées et étudiées en détail (p. ex., Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), moins d'attention a été portée aux synergies positives provenant de la combinaison de ces deux domaines. L'intérêt plus récent pour la facette positive de l'interface

travail-famille est issu du courant de la psychologie positive (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Cette thèse s'inscrit dans cette lignée de recherche.

Au cœur de l'interface travail-famille, il semblerait que plusieurs éléments puissent se transmettre du travail à la vie familiale et vice-versa : valeurs, compétences, comportements (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), ressources psychologiques, physiques et sociales, flexibilité et ressources matérielles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Par exemple, une gestionnaire avec de jeunes enfants pourrait apprendre à être patiente avec eux et transférer cette compétence à sa relation avec ses employés. Par ailleurs, le bien-être psychologique (BEP) pourrait être un élément majeur qui déborde entre le travail et la famille. En effet, la théorie de l'enrichissement travail-famille (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) et la description théorique du débordement travail-famille (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) positionnent le bien-être comme un élément qui peut faire l'objet d'un débordement entre ces deux domaines de vie. MacDermid, Seery et Weiss (2002) ont décrit un processus par lequel des états émotionnels vécus dans un domaine peuvent se transférer à un autre domaine. Ainsi, plusieurs propositions théoriques ont trait au débordement de BEP, mais très peu d'études se sont attardées à évaluer ces propositions de mécanismes par lesquels le BEP au travail peut influencer le BEP dans la famille et inversement. L'objectif de la présente thèse est donc d'évaluer un ensemble cohérent de processus pouvant expliquer et favoriser le débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille.

Interface travail-famille

Plusieurs domaines significatifs existent dans la vie des individus, notamment le travail, la famille, le logement, la communauté, les finances, les loisirs, l'amitié, la santé, le gouvernement, le mariage et la religion (Hsieh, 2015). Un domaine de vie est « une composante de la vie associée à des lieux, des objets, des activités, des personnes, des rôles sociaux ou des éléments

du concept de soi » (traduction libre, Rice et al., 1985, p. 298). Le terme de rôle, plutôt que domaine, est parfois employé dans la littérature sur le débordement entre travail et famille (p. ex., Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Un rôle serait « la pierre d’assise d’un système social et l’ensemble des exigences imposées à ses membres » (traduction libre, Katz & Kahn, 1978, pp. 219–220). Par rapport à la définition de domaine, celle de rôle est ancrée dans une littérature précise faisant référence aux systèmes sociaux, définition qui s’accorde mal à la perspective individuelle faisant l’objet de la présente thèse de par la nature principalement subjective du concept de BEP (Diener, 1984). De plus, la définition de domaine s’avère plus large, englobant celle de rôle. La grande majorité de la documentation consultée faisant référence au terme de domaine ou de rôle sans justifier la pertinence de ce choix, nous considérerons l’ensemble de la littérature sur les rôles et les domaines en y faisant référence sous le terme de domaine.

Cette thèse s’attarde au travail et à la famille puisqu’il s’agit de deux domaines d’une importance majeure dans la vie de la plupart des personnes. D’une part, la majorité de la vie adulte est passée au travail, certaines personnes pouvant passer plus de 90 000 heures au travail (Erdogan et al., 2012). Par-delà sa contribution pécuniaire, le travail est un domaine d’importance étant donné son apport potentiel au bien-être global d’une personne (Dagenais-Desmarais et al., 2014).

D’autre part, la vie hors travail (*en anglais : nonwork*) existe en opposition au domaine du travail et inclut d’autres domaines plus précis tels la famille, les loisirs, l’amitié ou la communauté. Le domaine de la famille arrive systématiquement parmi les trois domaines jugés les plus importants dans les études mesurant l’importance accordée aux domaines de vie (Hsieh, 2015; Tiefenbach & Kohlbacher, 2015). La famille peut être définie comme « des personnes partageant un domicile qui sont reliées entre elles par des liens biologiques, de mariage, de

coutume sociale ou d'adoption » (traduction libre, Piotrkowski et al., 1987, p. 252). Cette définition, reprise en 2014 par Voydanoff, est toujours d'actualité puisqu'elle reflète les changements démographiques et sociaux qui affectent la famille, dont la monoparentalité, l'homosexualité et la famille recomposée (voir Champagne, 2018). Au contraire de Voydanoff, nous n'avons cependant pas considéré que la définition de la famille pouvait être élargie à « des personnes partageant une relation basée sur l'affection, l'engagement, la dépendance et la coopération » (traduction libre, Voydanoff, 2014, p. 6). En effet, cette définition plus large présente le risque d'intégrer des éléments propres au domaine du travail. Par exemple, un collègue de travail pourrait à certaines conditions être considéré comme de la famille selon cette définition. Une telle juxtaposition du travail et de la famille ferait en sorte que l'on n'étudierait pas le débordement travail-famille, mais simplement une cooccurrence d'éléments propres à ces deux domaines. La définition de Piotrkowski (1987) présente l'avantage d'être assez large pour inclure un ensemble de structures familiales contemporaines, tout en étant assez précise pour limiter la juxtaposition avec le domaine du travail.

Dans la littérature sur l'interface entre des domaines de vie, le travail et la famille constituent les deux domaines les plus fréquemment mis en relation (Cowlshaw et al., 2014). Ainsi, de choisir la famille comme domaine représentant la vie personnelle permet de baser des hypothèses novatrices sur la littérature la plus riche des interfaces interdomaines. Nous ne nions cependant aucunement l'importance de s'attarder à d'autres facettes de la vie hors travail comme les loisirs, les amitiés, la communauté ou le bénévolat. Nous espérons que nos résultats, assis solidement sur la littérature de l'interface travail-famille, pourront être par la suite étendus à l'interface entre le travail et d'autres domaines de vie.

Débordement travail-famille

Le débordement travail-famille (*en anglais : work-family spillover*) peut être défini comme un transfert d'éléments (p. ex., émotions, compétences, comportement, valeurs) entre le travail et la famille (Hanson et al., 2006). Il est parfois vu comme une simple relation entre un construit associé au travail et un construit associé à la famille (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), mais cette définition pourrait laisser place à un effet de congruence où une troisième variable aurait un effet à la fois sur le travail et sur la famille (Frone et al., 1994). Par exemple, une personne pourrait avoir une tendance générale à être optimiste et à s'attarder aux événements positifs de la vie, ce qui ferait en sorte qu'elle serait plus heureuse à la fois au travail et dans la famille, créant une relation factice entre BEP au travail et dans la famille. Par ailleurs, la théorie de l'enrichissement travail-famille (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) propose qu'il doive non seulement y avoir un effet du travail sur la famille, mais que celui-ci doive aussi se solder par une qualité de vie augmentée dans le deuxième domaine. Nous mettons de l'avant qu'il est nécessaire qu'un construit d'un domaine ait une influence sur un construit de l'autre domaine pour qu'il y ait débordement.

Les facettes positive (p. ex., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) et négative (p. ex., Kahn et al., 1964) du débordement entre le travail et la famille sont distinctes. En effet, il semblerait qu'un haut niveau de débordement positif puisse coexister avec un haut niveau de débordement négatif (Tiedje et al., 1990). D'autre part, leurs antécédents et leurs conséquences diffèrent. Par exemple, la facilitation travail-famille, un concept associé à la facette positive du débordement, aurait des antécédents qui se distinguent de ceux du conflit travail-famille, un concept associé à la facette négative du débordement (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). De plus, l'enrichissement travail-famille, également associé à la facette positive du débordement, prédirait des conséquences telles que la satisfaction au travail et dans la vie au-delà de ce qui peut être prédit par le conflit travail-famille

(van Steenbergen et al., 2007). Ceci supporte la distinction de ces deux concepts et des processus qui les sous-tendent.

Faisant suite à cette distinction conceptuelle, il apparaît crucial de s'intéresser au débordement positif. En effet, ce processus est un sujet actuellement moins étudié que le débordement négatif, puisqu'il s'insère dans la lignée plus récente de la psychologie positive (p. ex., Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) et ses mécanismes sont donc moins bien compris. De plus, le débordement positif est un phénomène fréquent, qui touche les individus plus grandement que le débordement négatif. En effet, le score d'enrichissement travail-famille rapporté par les participants de plusieurs études est presque systématiquement supérieur à celui de conflit travail-famille, associé à la facette négative du débordement (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Pour ces raisons, la présente thèse s'attardera au phénomène du débordement positif.

La direction du débordement peut être du travail vers la famille ou de la famille vers le travail (Staines, 1980). Le domaine duquel provient le débordement se nomme *domaine d'origine* et le domaine qui reçoit le débordement s'appelle *domaine recevant* (Carlson et al., 2014). Malgré cette distinction proposée, les deux directions du débordement (travail vers famille et famille vers travail) sont souvent amalgamées. En effet, dans la plupart des théories, les processus décrivant le débordement travail vers famille et le débordement famille vers travail sont dépeints de la même façon (p. ex., Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). L'un des apports de cette thèse sera d'identifier empiriquement les distinctions processuelles entre ces deux directions.

Bien-être psychologique

Le BEP est la facette positive de la santé psychologique, par opposition à la détresse psychologique qui constitue son pendant négatif (Keyes, 2005). Le BEP et la détresse psychologique sont deux construits corrélés négativement, mais distincts (Keyes & Lopez, 2002; Keyes, 2005).

Dans le contexte d'une étude sur le débordement positif entre des domaines de vie, il est pertinent de s'attarder uniquement à la facette positive de la santé psychologique. D'abord, il apparaît conceptuellement cohérent de tabler sur la facette positive du BEP pour étudier la facette positive du débordement travail-famille. Ensuite, le BEP serait un élément central qui se transfère d'un domaine de vie à un autre, tel que souligné dans les théorisations de l'interface travail-famille (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Empiriquement, le BEP au travail a été relié au BEP dans la famille (p. ex., Canan & Knight, 2001; Dunn & O'Brien, 2013; Heller et al., 2004; Rothbard, 2001). Enfin, les mécanismes de débordement du BEP entre les domaines de vie (p. ex., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) seraient distincts de ceux concernant la détresse (p. ex., Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1987).

Le BEP serait un état de fonctionnement psychologique optimal (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Plusieurs termes sont utilisés pour identifier le BEP (p. ex., bonheur, expériences positives et épanouissement), parfois de manière indifférenciée (Lambert et al., 2015). Cependant, il existerait trois façons principales de définir le BEP (Diener, 1984). Premièrement, le bien-être met l'accent sur des critères comme l'épanouissement personnel et les relations aux autres (Ryff, 1989). Il s'agit du bien-être eudémonique (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Selon cette conceptualisation, les critères choisis par l'observateur, et non pas la perception de l'acteur lui-même, déterminent ce qui constitue du BEP (Diener, 1984). Deuxièmement, le BEP peut consister en une évaluation

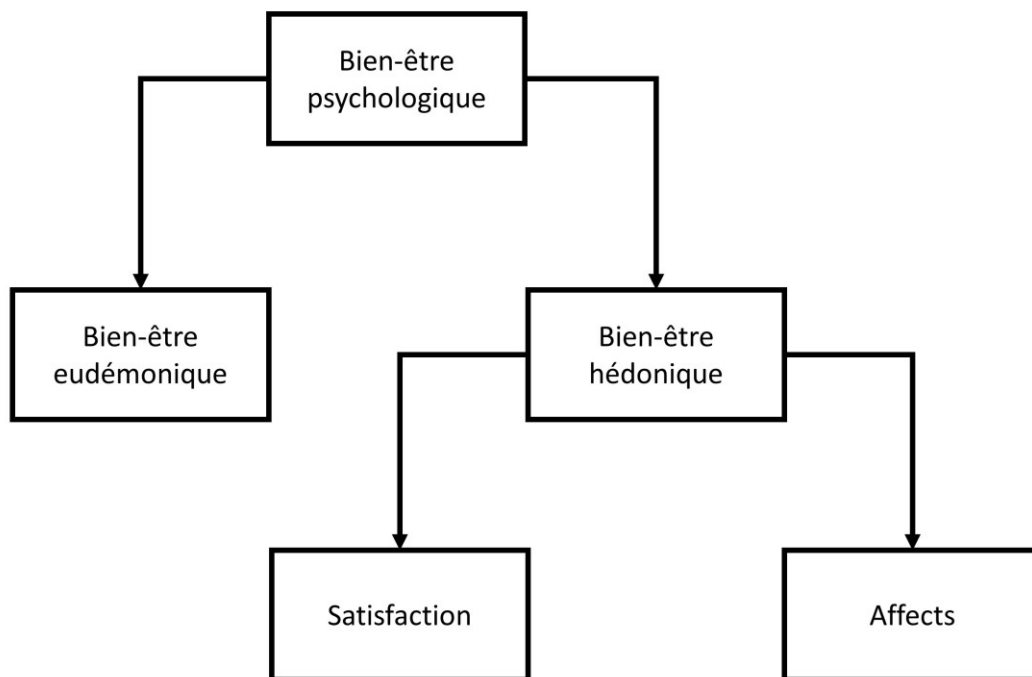


Figure 1. Schéma conceptuel du bien-être psychologique.

subjective des individus, principalement représentée par le concept de satisfaction (Diener, 1984). Troisièmement, le BEP peut être de nature émotionnelle, fondé sur la prépondérance des affects positifs et négatifs chez un individu (Diener, 1984). Les affects se déclinent en deux catégories, soit les émotions, qui sont des réactions à un événement concret, et les humeurs, caractérisées comme des états affectifs plus diffus (MacDermid et al., 2002). Les deuxièmes et troisièmes approches sont les plus courantes dans la littérature, le BEP étant souvent représenté en termes de satisfaction, d'affects positifs et d'affects négatifs (Diener & Ryan, 2009), bien que le concept d'affect négatif reste moins pertinent à l'étude du débordement positif. Le construit regroupant la satisfaction et les affects est parfois nommé bien-être hédonique (Ryan & Deci,

2001) ou bien-être subjectif (Diener, 1984). Par ailleurs, le bien-être eudémonique et le bien-être hédonique peuvent être regroupés sous l'appellation BEP (voir figure 1). Il est nécessaire de considérer à la fois le bien-être eudémonique et le bien-être hédonique pour avoir une vision holistique du BEP (Lambert et al., 2015). C'est pourquoi nous utiliserons les deux conceptualisations dans le cadre de cette thèse, quoiqu'avec un accent sur le bien-être hédonique afin de construire sur la documentation plus abondante s'appuyant sur cette conceptualisation.

Débordement de bien-être psychologique

Jusqu'à maintenant, nous avons parlé du débordement travail-famille et du BEP. Nous joignons à présent ces deux champs de recherche en considérant le débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille. S'intéresser à ce phénomène pourrait permettre d'outiller les travailleurs afin qu'ils profitent des synergies possibles entre ces deux domaines de vie. Mieux connaître le processus par lequel le bien-être se transfère entre travail et famille permettrait de favoriser un débordement positif à partir du domaine où une personne est la plus heureuse. Cet objectif de généraliser le BEP est porteur étant donné que le BEP serait associé à une meilleure santé, à une plus grande performance au travail et à des relations de plus grande qualité (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005).

Deux principales propositions théoriques s'attardent à expliquer le débordement de BEP entre travail et famille, soit la théorie de l'enrichissement travail-famille (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) et la description théorique du débordement travail-famille (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). La théorie de l'enrichissement travail-famille fait valoir qu'il existerait une voie affective par laquelle différentes ressources du domaine d'origine (compétences, flexibilité, ressources psychologiques, physiques, matérielles et sociales) pourraient résulter en une augmentation de la qualité de vie dans le domaine recevant. La voie affective propose que l'influence des ressources

acquises dans le domaine d'origine sur la qualité de vie dans le domaine recevant passe par un état affectif plus positif. Plus précisément, les ressources engendreraient des affects positifs dans le même domaine, que ce soit directement ou par le biais d'une performance accrue. Ces affects positifs auraient ensuite une influence positive sur la performance dans le domaine recevant, qui elle, améliorerait les affects positifs propres à ce domaine. Ainsi, quelqu'un qui est plus satisfait de sa vie familiale pourrait avoir tendance à être plus performant au travail et cette performance le rendrait ensuite plus heureux dans son milieu de travail.

La description théorique du débordement travail-famille (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) propose quant à elle qu'il existe plusieurs éléments qui peuvent déborder d'un domaine à l'autre, soit l'humeur, les valeurs, les compétences et les comportements. Nous nous intéressons plus particulièrement à l'humeur puisqu'il s'agit d'une composante affective du BEP (MacDermid et al., 2002). Au contraire des affects positifs qui sont spécifiques et basés sur des événements concrets, l'humeur est plus diffuse (MacDermid et al., 2002). Edwards et Rothbard (2000) proposent un mécanisme où l'humeur dans le domaine d'origine influencerait la performance dans le domaine recevant, que ce soit directement ou par le biais d'une humeur générale, c'est-à-dire non spécifique à un domaine. La performance influencerait par la suite l'humeur dans ce même domaine recevant par le biais des récompenses qui y sont associées. En d'autres mots, une personne de bonne humeur dans sa famille pourrait généraliser cet état à sa vie. Son humeur positive générale pourrait l'aider à performer au travail et cette performance la rendrait heureuse dans ce nouveau contexte.

Au niveau empirique, la force du lien entre le BEP au travail et le BEP dans la famille s'avère variable. À notre connaissance, aucune étude ne s'est attardée à la relation entre bien-être eudémonique au travail et dans la famille. Cependant, en regard du lien empirique entre la

satisfaction au travail et la satisfaction dans la famille, la plupart des études ont trouvé des relations de taille faible à modérée (Canan & Knight, 2001; Hart, 1999; Leung et al., 2011), et deux études n'ont trouvé aucune corrélation significative (Hoopes & Lounsbury, 1989; Odle-Dusseau, 2008). Longitudinalement, la satisfaction au travail a été corrélée à la satisfaction conjugale neuf ans plus tard, et inversement (Cho & Tay, 2016). Des études par journaux de bord ont par ailleurs démontré l'influence des affects positifs au travail sur la satisfaction dans la vie (Ilies et al., 2015), l'effet de la satisfaction au travail sur la satisfaction conjugale (Ilies et al., 2009), ainsi que l'influence mutuelle de la satisfaction au travail et la satisfaction conjugale (Heller & Watson, 2005). À notre connaissance, aucune étude longitudinale n'a cependant étudié la satisfaction dans la famille. En ce qui concerne le lien entre les affects positifs au travail et dans la famille, bien que peu étudiée, cette relation transversale semble significative et de plus grande taille (Rothbard, 2001). La force variable du lien entre le BEP au travail et le BEP dans la famille laisse à penser que certaines variables pourraient intervenir au sein du processus de débordement pour le favoriser ou le limiter.

Bien que le lien entre le BEP au travail et le BEP dans la famille ait été appuyé, les mécanismes impliqués dans cette relation sont encore mal compris. Ceci peut être dû à l'utilisation de concepts-valises englobant l'ensemble du débordement et ne permettant pas de comprendre ses mécanismes internes. D'une part, la documentation s'attarde principalement à la question du « quoi? » : « Quelles sont les conséquences du débordement? », « Quels en sont les antécédents? », éludant la question du « comment? » : « Comment le débordement se produit-il? ». Il existe une utilisation abondante de concepts englobant tout le débordement. Notamment, le concept d'enrichissement travail-famille est défini de manière large : « la mesure dans laquelle des expériences dans un domaine améliorent la qualité de vie dans l'autre domaine » (traduction

libre, Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 72). Il est opérationnalisé en termes de perceptions d'enrichissement, une approche qui capte seulement le résultat et non pas le processus (exemple d'item : « Mon implication au travail me met de bonne humeur et cela m'aide à être un meilleur membre de famille. » ; Dumas, 2008). Répondant à la question du « quoi? », l'enrichissement travail-famille serait entre autres faiblement à modérément relié à la satisfaction au travail et dans la famille (McNall et al., 2009; Shockley & Singla, 2011).

Ces résultats, ainsi que la documentation en général, permettent peu de répondre à la question du « comment? ». Pour ce faire, il serait nécessaire de décortiquer le processus de débordement en des construits plus précis pour connaître la nature exacte du rôle que pourrait jouer chacun d'eux dans ce processus. D'autre part, le manque de propositions théoriques en ce qui concerne le processus de débordement entre des domaines de vie (Hill et al., 2007; Warner & Hausdorf, 2009) a été soulevé. Cependant, la théorie de l'enrichissement travail-famille (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) et la théorie du débordement travail-famille (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) constituent de premières avancées dans le domaine que nous tenterons de peaufiner par l'ajout de perspectives théoriques complémentaires.

Étant données les lacunes de compréhension des mécanismes du débordement de BEP, il s'avère avisé de s'attarder à identifier ces mécanismes. Nous posons donc la question de recherche suivante : quels sont les mécanismes qui influencent le débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille? Pour répondre à cette question, nous avons effectué une recension de la littérature qui a mis en relief quatre mécanismes potentiellement à l'œuvre pour favoriser ou limiter le débordement de BEP. Deux d'entre eux sont des mécanismes médiateurs : la satisfaction dans la vie et la performance dans le domaine recevant. Deux autres mécanismes sont modérateurs : la centralité dans l'identité du domaine d'origine et la force des frontières

séparant travail et famille. Ces mécanismes étant traités en profondeur dans les articles de la thèse, nous n'en ferons ici qu'un survol rapide.

La satisfaction dans la vie. La satisfaction dans la vie pourrait être un mécanisme médiateur du débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille. Les approches *bottom-up* et *top-down* de la satisfaction dans la vie appuient son rôle médiateur dans la relation entre les satisfactions spécifiques au travail et à la famille. Selon l'approche *bottom-up*, la satisfaction spécifique à un domaine mènerait à une perception de satisfaction dans la vie en général (Diener, 1984; Singley, 2005). À l'inverse, l'approche *top-down* suppose que la satisfaction dans la vie influence le bien-être spécifique à un domaine (Diener, 1984; Singley, 2005). Les deux approches ont été soutenues empiriquement (Chmiel et al., 2011; Heller et al., 2004; Rice et al., 1985). Bien qu'il existe toujours un débat quant à l'approche la plus valide (Guardiola & Picazo-Tadeo, 2013), Erdogan et ses collaborateurs (2012) affirment que ces deux propositions ne sont pas irréconciliables. En effet, les deux approches pourraient être vraies en ce que les deux directions d'influence (des domaines vers le général et inversement) agiraient simultanément dans un processus réciproque (Schimmack, 2008; Voicu, 2015). Cette approche bidirectionnelle appuie l'hypothèse que la satisfaction dans la vie soit un médiateur de la relation entre le BEP dans divers domaines. En effet, à la fois une influence du domaine d'origine vers le général (*bottom-up*) et une influence du général vers le domaine recevant (*top-down*) sont nécessaires au déploiement de ce mécanisme médiateur. D'autre part, ce mécanisme est indirectement proposé par la description théorique du débordement travail-famille en ce que l'humeur générale médierait le lien entre l'humeur du domaine d'origine et l'humeur du domaine recevant (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). En somme, une personne pourrait généraliser son expérience de bien-être dans le domaine d'origine à une perception globale de satisfaction dans sa vie. Cette

satisfaction plus générale pourrait ensuite découler positivement sur son bien-être dans le domaine recevant.

La performance dans le domaine recevant. La performance pourrait constituer un autre mécanisme de débordement de BEP entre des domaines de vie. Comme évoqué précédemment, la théorie de l'enrichissement travail-famille (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) et la description théorique du débordement travail-famille (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) posent la performance dans le domaine recevant comme un mécanisme permettant le débordement d'affects positifs ou d'humeur, respectivement. Selon ces théories, le BEP dans le domaine d'origine influencerait la performance dans un autre domaine par le biais de comportements d'entraide accrus, d'un foyer attentionnel externe, de niveaux augmentés d'énergie (Rothbard, 2001), d'un meilleur fonctionnement cognitif, d'une plus grande activité centrée sur la tâche et d'une facilitation des interactions interpersonnelles (Staw et al., 1994). Ainsi, une personne qui éprouve plus de bien-être dans sa famille pourrait s'avérer plus performante au travail puisque ce bien-être l'aiderait à être plus et mieux impliquée dans ses activités sur le lieu de travail. Ensuite, la performance dans le domaine recevant pourrait influencer le BEP dans ce même domaine par le biais de récompenses qu'elle engendre (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Les théories téléiques du bien-être subjectif (*en anglais* : telic theories ; Diener, 1984) ont comme fondement que le bien-être peut être le résultat de l'atteinte d'un but. Ainsi, une personne qui performe au travail pourrait être davantage récompensée et atteindre plus d'objectifs, ce qui la rendrait plus heureuse.

La centralité dans l'identité du domaine d'origine. La centralité du domaine d'origine dans l'identité d'une personne, soit l'importance et la valeur attribuée à ce domaine dans le concept de soi (Kossek et al., 2012), pourrait être un mécanisme modérateur de la relation entre le BEP au travail et le BEP dans la famille. Un domaine davantage central devrait avoir une

influence plus grande sur les autres domaines de vie puisqu'il serait plus souvent réactivé, que ce soit de façon comportementale (Capitano et al., 2017) ou cognitive (Markus & Wurf, 1987).

Cette réactivation pourrait favoriser le fait de revivre, dans le domaine recevant, le BEP associé au domaine d'origine. Ainsi, quelqu'un qui s'identifie particulièrement à sa famille aurait tendance à y réfléchir et à interagir avec ses membres sur son lieu de travail, ce qui pourrait favoriser le fait de revivre au travail les émotions positives associées à sa famille.

La force des frontières séparant le travail et la famille. La façon dont les travailleurs gèrent les frontières qui séparent leur travail et leur vie hors travail pourrait avoir un effet modérateur sur le débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille. En effet, chaque domaine serait entouré d'une frontière qui délimite son étendue (Ashforth et al., 2000) et qui peut être plus ou moins perméable (Clark, 2000). Une frontière forte est une frontière qui est moins perméable aux intrusions d'autres domaines (Hecht & Allen, 2009). Ainsi, plus la frontière du domaine recevant est forte, moins ce domaine serait susceptible de recevoir un débordement provenant du domaine d'origine. Par exemple, un travailleur qui a tendance à rapporter du travail à la maison (intrusion du travail dans la famille) pourrait vivre un plus grand débordement de son bien-être au travail vers son bien-être familial.

Contributions de la thèse

Cette thèse comporte deux articles. Le premier article s'attarde à valider le mécanisme médiateur de la performance dans le rôle recevant. Il s'agit du mécanisme le plus universellement soutenu par les théorisations de l'interface travail-famille (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Ainsi, cet article a l'avantage de s'appuyer sur une littérature plus étoffée, ce qui permet d'explorer ce mécanisme plus en profondeur. En ce sens, l'objectif principal de cet article est de peaufiner notre compréhension théorique du phénomène en

l'étudiant à travers deux types de performance : la performance contextuelle et la performance de tâche. Par ailleurs, l'article s'attarde au débordement de bien-être à la fois cognitif et affectif, contribuant à la littérature sur les conceptualisations variées du BEP, que ce soit le bien-être eudémonique ou les deux éléments propres au bien-être subjectif que sont la satisfaction et les affects.

Le deuxième article explore plus extensivement d'autres mécanismes de débordement préalablement exposés : la satisfaction dans la vie, la centralité du domaine d'origine dans l'identité et la force des frontières travail-hors travail. Cet article a pour principale contribution l'articulation de plusieurs propositions théoriques en un modèle cohérent de débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille, ainsi que la validation empirique de celui-ci. Le recours à des théorisations périphériques au thème du débordement travail-famille (p. ex., Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000; Diener, 1984; Languilaire, 2009; Markus & Wurf, 1987; Singley, 2005) enrichit la compréhension de ce phénomène. De plus, cet article contraste les deux directions du débordement (travail vers famille et famille vers travail), ce qui permet de mettre en exergue des différences processuelles qui ne sont pas soulignées dans la théorie. D'autre part, en évaluant la direction du lien entre la satisfaction spécifique à des domaines et la satisfaction dans la vie en général, ce deuxième article contribue au débat ayant cours sur les approches bottom-up et top-down de la satisfaction dans la vie (Guardiola & Picazo-Tadeo, 2013). Cet article s'appuie également sur un large échantillon de jeunes travailleurs pour qui les enjeux de conciliation travail-famille pourraient être plus saillants (Hill et al., 2014; Spieler et al., 2018).

Au-delà des apports théoriques, cette thèse apporte une contribution méthodologique par l'utilisation de devis longitudinaux, qui vont au-delà des devis transversaux généralement utilisés dans la littérature sur l'interface travail-famille. Notamment, l'évaluation du lien entre

performance et BEP pourrait bénéficier d'études longitudinales telles que celle du premier article (Lazarova et al., 2010), et des chercheurs en interface travail-famille suggèrent l'utilisation de devis longitudinaux à trois temps de mesure tels que celui du deuxième article (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014).

Bien que l'apport de cette thèse se situe principalement au niveau scientifique, elle offre également des pistes d'intervention au niveau pratique. Comprendre comment le BEP se transfère permettrait d'agir pour favoriser une contamination positive à partir du domaine où cet état psychologique est le plus présent et permettrait de guider les interventions individuelles et organisationnelles en matière d'interface travail-famille. Par ailleurs, cette thèse s'inscrit dans un contexte social où la conciliation travail-famille constitue une préoccupation d'envergure, tant pour les travailleurs que pour les employeurs. Il s'avère donc pertinent que des efforts scientifiques accrus soient consentis à comprendre les enjeux entourant l'interface travail-famille et cette thèse se veut être une contribution unique en ce sens.

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Premier article : Spillover of Cognitive and Affective Psychological Well-Being from Nonwork
to Work: Examining Work Performance as a Mediator

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Abstract

Psychological well-being spills over from nonwork to work, and work-nonwork interface theories posit work performance as a mediating mechanism of this process. The objective of this research is to evaluate the mediating role of work performance in the spillover of psychological well-being from nonwork to work. Spillover may exist both at a cognitive and affective level. On the one hand, empirical investigations have mainly studied spillover through cognitive conceptualizations of psychological well-being. On the other hand, work-nonwork interface theories refer to affective conceptualizations of psychological well-being. Additionally, task performance and contextual performance—two types of work performance—could have different roles in the spillover process. We therefore evaluated the mediating role of task and contextual performance in the spillover of psychological well-being from nonwork to work according to cognitive and affective conceptualizations of psychological well-being. To do so, we conducted two studies among Canadian workers. In the first study, 501 workers answered self-reported questionnaires twice, at an interval of 7.5 months. Analyses support that contextual performance mediates the relationship between life satisfaction and eudaimonic well-being at work. The second study presented a cross-sectional research design in which 215 workers completed a questionnaire on their experience on a given workday. Results show that task performance mediates the relationship between positive affect in the family and positive affect at work. Our results nuance work-nonwork interface theories by demonstrating that psychological well-being can spill over through work performance according to different conceptualizations of well-being.

Keywords: Positive spillover, Psychological health, Life satisfaction, Eudaimonic well-being at work, Positive affect, Task performance, Contextual performance.

Introduction

The positive side of the work-nonwork interface constitutes a flourishing area of research in the wake of positive psychology (e.g., Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). It is studied through concepts such as work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), positive spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), work-family facilitation (Grzywacz et al., 2007), and enhancement (MacDermid, Seery, & Weiss, 2002). However, little is known about the mechanisms that explain how nonwork and work influence each other. In fact, the literature has mainly focused on the antecedents and consequences of spillover, without examining its internal mechanisms. To fill this gap, it is essential to break down the spillover process into its more precise constituents in order to evaluate their respective roles.

Psychological well-being (PWB) could spill over between nonwork and work. Greenhaus and Powell (2006), in their seminal theoretical framework, posited that the affective path is one important mechanism through which resources acquired in the family domain, such as self-efficacy or interpersonal skills, are transferred to the work domain, and vice-versa. Through this pathway, positive affect—a component of PWB—spills over from one life domain to the other. Moreover, Edwards & Rothbard (2000) presented mood—another affective component of PWB—as one of four elements that spill over between the work and family domains. Empirically, Rothbard (2001) found that positive affect in the family and at work were strongly correlated.

To gain a better understanding of the PWB spillover process, it is relevant to study how well-being outside of work influences well-being at work. This would help to promote a positive spillover from nonwork to work. For example, individuals could take action to foster their own nonwork-to-work positive spillover.

One of the most theoretically grounded mechanisms through which spillover can operate is work performance (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). More precisely, the affective path of the work-family enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) contends that PWB experienced outside of work can influence PWB at work through higher work performance. For instance, having positive interactions with family members could put someone in a good mood, which could then enhance their performance at work. This higher performance could in turn generate well-being at work. Although theory supports this process (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), to our knowledge, no complete empirical evaluation has been conducted to date.

A contribution of our research is to distinguish between two types of work performance—task performance and contextual performance. Task performance and contextual performance differ in many respects namely in terms of being formally required or not and of being job-specific or generalizable across occupations. Studying how these differences can affect the role work performance has in PWB spillover will enrich our understanding of the phenomenon of PWB spillover through work performance.

Additionally, PWB spillover has two distinct facets. First, a cognitive process exists and taps into cognitive conceptualizations of well-being (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014), such as life satisfaction and eudaimonic well-being at work. To date, empirical investigations of parts of the process in which performance mediates PWB spillover have relied on cognitive conceptualizations of PWB, mainly satisfaction (e.g., Erdogan et al., 2012; Judge et al., 2001). Second, an affective process of PWB spillover exists and implies affective conceptualizations of PWB (MacDermid et al., 2002). Accordingly, work-nonwork interface theories refer to affective concepts of PWB, such as positive affect (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell,

2006), but no empirical evaluation of the complete process using affective conceptualizations exists to our knowledge. Therefore, the goal of this research is to evaluate the mediating role of task and contextual performance in PWB spillover from nonwork to work according to cognitive and affective conceptualizations of PWB. Our research aims to reconcile cognitive empirical evaluations with affective theoretical propositions.

Psychological Well-being

PWB is defined as “optimal psychological functioning and experience” (Ryan & Deci, 2001, p. 142). We follow Diener’s (1984) widely accepted view that PWB can be described in three ways. First, eudaimonic well-being is a facet of PWB that is defined according to predetermined external criteria (Diener, 1984), such as thriving, personal growth and positive relations with others (Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff, 1989). A second approach consists of a subjective and cognitive evaluation of one’s well-being, represented by the concept of satisfaction (Diener, 1984). The third approach is an emotional one that considers the relative preponderance of positive and negative affect (Diener, 1984). Positive affect is considered an affective state, not a stable trait (Watson et al., 1988). Affective states are sometimes categorized as either event-specific *emotions* or more diffuse *moods* (MacDermid et al., 2002). In order to have a thorough understanding of the literature, we will cover affective states both in terms of emotions and moods.

Life Domains

Individuals can experience distinct levels of well-being in different domains of their lives. A domain is “a component of life associated with particular places, things, activities, people, social roles, or elements of the self-concept” (Rice et al., 1985, p. 298). This definition exposes

the elements on which an individual's attitudes can be based. Many life domains have been studied, including work, family, housing, community, finances, leisure, friendship, health, government, marriage and religion (Hsieh, 2015).

Nonwork. The nonwork area of life refers to life domains outside of work. An evaluation of nonwork can include more precise domains such as family, leisure, friendship or community. Family is the most studied non-work domain (Cowlshaw et al., 2014), and is defined as “persons sharing a residence and household who are related by biological ties, marriage, social custom, or adoption” (Piotrkowski et al., 1987, p. 252).

Work. Work is defined as “human activities, in the context of formal organizations, performed with the intention of producing something of acknowledged social value” (Rice et al., 1985, pp. 296–297). Many individuals attach great importance to this domain, as most of adult life is spent working, with lifelong implication sometimes reaching 90,000 hours (Erdogan et al., 2012).

Psychological Well-Being Spillover Between Nonwork and Work

Work-nonwork positive spillover is defined as “the transfer of positively valenced affect, skills, behaviors, and values from the originating domain to the receiving domain, thus having beneficial effects on the receiving domain” (Hanson et al., 2006, p. 251). Spillover can occur in two directions: “the effects of work on nonwork” and “the effects of nonwork on work” (Staines, 1980, p. 123). It seems important to investigate the spillover from nonwork to work because positive spillover is more frequent in this direction than from work to nonwork (Carlson et al., 2014).

The mechanisms by which well-being can spill over between work and family are not completely understood (Hill et al., 2007), particularly in terms of how engagement in multiple domains can lead to positive spillover (Warner & Hausdorf, 2009). Work-family enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and the spillover process (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) nonetheless constitute initial advances in the understanding of PWB spillover. Indeed, these theories explain processes linking positive affect in the family with positive affect at work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and mood in the family with mood at work (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). In this article, we investigate work performance as a spillover mechanism since it is well articulated in both theories, but has not been subjected to thorough empirical evaluation.

Work Performance as a Spillover Mechanism

Work performance constitutes a mechanism through which nonwork PWB influences PWB at work. Performance is defined as “the aggregated value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual performs over a standard interval of time” (Motowidlo et al., 1997, p. 71).

The affective path described by the work-family enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) posits that positive affect in one domain influences positive affect in a second domain through performance in the second domain. For example, workers might have positive interactions with their child at home, creating positive affect that could foster better performance once at work. This increased performance would then lead to positive affect at work. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) posited the effect of positive affect outside of work on work performance based on Rothbard’s (2001) explanation that positive affect in one domain can increase helping behaviors, create an outward focus of attention and increase energy levels in another domain. Rothbard (2001) argues that positive emotions help a person understand another’s perspective

and be more engaged with them, leading to helping behaviors. Similarly, positive emotions would create an outward focus of attention by increasing availability and reducing self-centeredness as opposed to negative emotions (Rothbard, 2001). Finally, positive emotions indicate to a person that self-regulation is less required, leaving energy available for other purposes (Rothbard, 2001). These outcomes of positive affect can in turn enhance performance in the receiving domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Although originally theorized as a process occurring between the family and work domains (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), this proposition has been successfully extended to spillover between nonwork and work (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014).

Another theoretical articulation posits work performance as a spillover mechanism. Much like the proposition of work-family enrichment theory, Edwards and Rothbard (2000) contended that mood spillover can occur through enhanced performance in the receiving domain. They based this hypothesis on previous work by Staw, Sutton, and Pelled (1994), who proposed that positive mood can spill over to performance in another domain by enhancing cognitive functioning, increasing task activity, and facilitating positive interactions. Performance in the receiving domain then positively affects mood in that domain through rewards derived from good performance (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). This relationship is also supported by the telic approaches to subjective well-being, which hypothesize that well-being is the result of achieving a goal (Diener, 1984). Given that no study has evaluated the complete process of PWB spillover through work performance, our objective is to empirically verify its existence.

Performance as a Multidimensional Concept

Although we treated work performance as a global construct up to this point, work performance is multidimensional. In fact, Borman and Motowidlo (1997) have distinguished two

types of work performance: task performance and contextual performance. Task performance is “the effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of its technological process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 99). In other words, task performance is composed of behaviors that contribute to the production of goods or the provision of services (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Contextual performance contributes to organizational effectiveness indirectly, that is through improving the social and psychological context in which tasks are carried out (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). It was defined by Borman and Motowidlo (1993) as interpersonal and volitional behaviors that support the social and motivational context in which tasks are carried out. For instance, contextual performance could include interpersonal actions such as helping a colleague or actions that demonstrate higher dedication to the organization than expected such as taking the initiative to solve a problem (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

Task performance and contextual performance are dissimilar on a variety of aspects and this supports the importance of studying their differential effect in the spillover process described earlier. First, task and contextual performance contribute to explaining distinct portions of the variance in supervisors' overall judgment of their employee's performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). These proportions of explained variance are fairly equivalent between the two types of performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Second, while task performance is often a requirement of the job description, contextual performance is not formally required (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Third, the behaviors leading to task performance are job-specific, while contextual performance behaviors tend to be similar across a variety of occupations (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). A final distinction resides in the organizational value of both types of performance. As

exposed earlier, while task performance contributes directly to the organizational goals of providing valuable goods and services, contextual performance supports the organizational context in which these tasks are accomplished (Motowidlo et al., 1997). To understand how both types of performance can mediate the spillover of PWB, our first study evaluated the role of contextual performance, while our second study evaluated the role of task performance.

Cognitive and Affective Psychological Well-Being Spillover

We argue that PWB spillover can be categorized in two different processes: a cognitive process and an affective process. The cognitive process taps into cognitive conceptualizations of PWB (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014), such as satisfaction, while the affective process is based on emotional representations of PWB (MacDermid et al., 2002), such as positive affect.

Accordingly, through qualitative exploration, Languilaire (2009) found several types of boundaries one can modulate to manage the interface between one's nonwork and work domains, among which are cognitive and emotional boundaries. "Cognitive boundaries indicate what positive and negative thoughts belong to one domain or another as well as dictate how thoughts related to one domain affect other domains and may be expressed in each domain", whereas "emotional boundaries indicate how emotions relate to one domain or another as well as dictate how emotions related to one domain go from one domain to another and may be displayed in each domain" (Languilaire, 2009, p. 378). The existence of these two types of boundaries supports the distinction between the cognitive process and the affective one.

Regarding the mediating role of performance in the spillover of positive affect, work-family enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and the spillover process described by Edwards and Rothbard (2000) are based on affective conceptualizations of PWB. On the other hand, studies on PWB spillover through work performance have primarily used cognitive

conceptualizations of PWB, mainly satisfaction. The present research therefore aimed to reconcile the affective theorization and the cognitive evidence.

To evaluate both processes, we examined work performance as a spillover mechanism in two studies using distinct PWB conceptualizations. Study 1 is a two-wave longitudinal study (interval = 7.5 months) using cognitive conceptualizations of PWB and evaluating the role of contextual performance as a mediator. Study 2 is a cross-sectional study on experiences on a given workday using affective conceptualizations of PWB and evaluating the mediating role of task performance. Our objective was to provide a complete examination of the mediating role of work performance in PWB spillover from nonwork to work.

Study 1

Theoretical Context

The objective of this study was to evaluate the mediating role of contextual performance in the relationship between life satisfaction and eudaimonic well-being at work.

Life Satisfaction. Life satisfaction is a widely studied (Ryff, 1989) cognitive concept (Eid & Diener, 2004) defined as “a global assessment of a person’s quality of life according to [their] own chosen criteria” (Shin & Johnson, 1978, p. 478). Hence, life satisfaction is a subjective evaluation relying on norms and standards established by the individual (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985).

Eudaimonic Well-Being at Work. Eudaimonic well-being at work includes dimensions of interpersonal fit, thriving, a feeling of competency, a desire for involvement, and perceived recognition (Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2012). Exploratory factor analyses support the five-factor structure of this conceptualization (Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2012). Eudaimonic

well-being is a product of individuals' cognitive representations of the experience of well-being (McMahan & Estes, 2011).

Contextual Performance. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) define contextual performance as interpersonal and volitional behaviors that support the social and motivational context in which tasks are carried out. Two types of behavior therefore contribute to contextual performance. On the one hand, interpersonal facilitation is defined as “interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment” (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996, p. 526). This dimension of contextual performance includes behaviors such as cooperating with colleagues and nourishing good relationships (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). On the other hand, job dedication is “the motivational foundation for job performance that drives people to act with the deliberate intention of promoting the organization’s best interests” (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996, p. 526). It includes behaviors such as persisting on a difficult task with enthusiasm and voluntarily accomplishing task that are not formally required (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Contextual performance is also proximal to the concept of organization citizenship behavior (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Organizational citizenship behavior is defined as “extra-role discretionary behavior intended to help others in the organization or to demonstrate conscientiousness in support of the organization” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 100).

While a great deal of research has focused on task performance, it is relevant to study contextual performance. First, contextual performance is as highly predictive of supervisors' evaluation of performance as task performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Contextual performance behaviors are therefore likely to have an important influence in organizations. Moreover, because contextual performance behaviors are similar across a variety of occupations

(Borman & Motowidlo, 1997), the conclusions of studies on contextual performance could be applied in multiple organizational settings.

Spillover of Life Satisfaction onto Eudaimonic Well-Being at Work. Studies support the spillover relationship between life satisfaction and eudaimonic well-being at work. For example, life satisfaction has been positively associated with eudaimonic well-being at work (Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2012). Meta-analyses also found that life satisfaction was moderately correlated with job satisfaction (Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010; Tait, Padgett, & Baldwin, 1989), another cognitive conceptualization of PWB at work.

Studies show partial support to the mediating role of contextual performance in the spillover of life satisfaction onto eudaimonic well-being at work. Two relationships are important for this mediation to exist: 1) the link between life satisfaction and contextual performance, and 2) the link between contextual performance and eudaimonic well-being at work. On the one hand, life satisfaction has been related to general work performance in two meta-analyses (respectively, Erdogan et al., 2012; Ford, Cerasoli, Higgins, & Decesare, 2011). Lyubomirsky, King, and Diener's (2005) literature review supports the notion that people who are globally happier tend to exhibit better work performance. More specifically, although no study has examined the link between life satisfaction and contextual performance, organizational citizenship behaviors have been linked to life satisfaction (Duncanson, 2007; Lambert, 2010; Meynhardt et al., 2018). On the other hand, no direct evidence exists to our knowledge concerning the relationship between contextual performance and eudaimonic well-being at work. One study has nonetheless found that organizational citizenship behaviors were significantly correlated with eudaimonic well-being at work (Bartels et al., 2019). Overall, preliminary

evidence supports the possible existence of the hypothesized mediation process. We will evaluate the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between life satisfaction and eudaimonic psychological well-being at work is mediated by contextual performance.

Research Design and Participants

To evaluate the cognitive PWB spillover from nonwork to work through work performance, Canadian health care workers completed two questionnaires six to nine months apart ($M = 7.56$ months, $SD = 0.57$ months). This interval seems sufficient to reduce common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and to observe the cognitive spillover process (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014). The participants, recruited through a professional order, were technical staff from the medical sector. Members were contacted by the professional order and 3826 of them were invited to participate in the study by our research team. A total of 878 people agreed to participate in the first wave, of whom 831 completed the questionnaire (95%). Among the participants in the first wave, 501 agreed to respond to the second questionnaire, and 436 of them completed it (87%). The attrition rate was 48% between T1 and T2, but t-tests showed no significant difference on T1 variables between people who participated only in T1 and those who participated in T2. Most participants were women (89%) and mean age was 38.8 years ($SD = 11.2$ years). Eighty-two percent of participants held a full-time job (at least 35 hours per week). Inclusion criteria for participants were to 1) be at least 18 years old, 2) be a Canadian citizen or permanent resident, 3) be engaged in paid employment, and 4) have an adequate understanding of written French. Participants gave their informed consent and data were treated confidentially.

Measures

Life Satisfaction. Life satisfaction was measured with the French translation (Blais et al., 1989) of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985). This unidimensional instrument is frequently used (Singley, 2005) and is the life satisfaction measure that has been subjected to the most intensive validation efforts (Erdogan et al., 2012). To be consistent with the definition of life satisfaction as “a global assessment of a person’s quality of life according to [their] own chosen criteria” (Shin & Johnson, 1978, p. 478), items are formulated in a general manner, without specific reference to a criterion respondents should use in evaluating their life satisfaction. This allows the respondents to freely choose the criteria on which they wish to base their life satisfaction evaluation. The measure comprises five items (e.g., “In most ways, my life is close to my ideal.”) rated on a scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). Cronbach’s alpha indicates good reliability in the French validation study ($\alpha = .79-.84$; Blais et al., 1989).

Contextual performance. We used Van Scotter and Motowidlo’s (1996) contextual performance scale translated using back-translation (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). This scale measures two dimensions: interpersonal facilitation (seven items; e.g., “Talk to other workers before taking actions that might affect them”) and job dedication (eight items; e.g., “Persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task”) on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Always*). Cronbach’s alphas indicate adequate internal consistency of the original English scale ($\alpha = .89-.94$; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

Eudaimonic Well-Being at Work. The Index of Psychological Well-Being at Work (Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2012) was used. Eudaimonic well-being at work is measured through 25 items (e.g., “I value the people I work with.”), rated on a Likert scale from 0

(*Disagree*) to 5 (*Completely agree*). The Cronbach's alpha of the original validation study indicates adequate reliability ($\alpha = .96$; Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2012).

Analyses

After preliminary analyses, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses on each instrument. Model fit was assessed using the following criteria: a normed chi-square below three (Hooper et al., 2008); a CFI above .95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999); an RMSEA below .08 (acceptable) or .05 (good fit; Browne & Cudeck, 1993), and an SRMR below .05 (Byrne, 2013).

To assess hypothesis 1, we used mediation analyses evaluating contextual performance's mediating role in the relationship between life satisfaction and eudaimonic well-being with Hayes's (2013) PROCESS macro for SPSS. The contextual performance mediator was considered at T2 because the cross-domain effect is likely to take more time to unfold than the intra-work effect.

Results

Preliminary Analyses. Twenty-three outlier scores on the main variables were adjusted to 3.29 standard deviations from the mean. Pairwise missing data handling was used. Table 1 presents descriptive results and Pearson correlations.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses. To validate the factorial structure of the three instruments, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses on T1 data using AMOS (Arbuckle, 2010). Table 2 presents the results.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Correlations for Study 1

Variable	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Life satisfaction T1	831	5.53	0.98	-1.22	1.57	.88							
2. Contextual performance T1	841	3.54	0.70	-0.39	-0.08	.19**	.83						
3. EWB at work T1	878	4.00	0.69	-0.83	0.44	.41**	.31**	.94					
4. Life satisfaction T2	436	5.40	1.07	-1.03	0.65	.73**	.16*	.31**	.90				
5. Contextual performance T2	470	3.49	0.68	-0.30	-0.13	.11*	.61**	.28**	.05	.83			
6. EWB at work T2	501	4.00	.70	-0.90	0.84	.34**	.32**	.68**	.30**	.36**	.95		
7. Age	790	38.75	11.24	0.36	-.29	.08*	.04	.07	.14**	-.04	.12**	-	
8. Gender	790	1.11	0.31	-	-	-.08*	-.05	-.05	-.07	-.04	-.09	-.01	-

Note. **: $p < .01$; *: $p < .05$; EWB = Eudaimonic well-being; Cronbach's alphas are presented on the diagonal; gender is coded 1 = female, 2 = male.

Table 2

Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analyses of Study 1

Model	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA	CI RMSEA	SRMR
Life satisfaction	4.13	.99	.061	[.035; .090]	.018
Contextual performance - 15 items	6.13	.88	.078	[.072; .085]	.055
Contextual performance - 8 items	4.73	.97	.067	[.053; .081]	.035
EWB at work	5.52	.92	.072	[.068; .075]	.057

Note. EWB = Eudaimonic well-being; χ^2/df = Normed chi-square; CI = 95% confidence interval.

A first model was tested with life satisfaction as a latent variable regressing on the five items composing its measure. Fit indices were acceptable. A second model was tested with contextual performance, composed of the interpersonal facilitation and job dedication dimensions as latent variables. All fit indices fell short of the norms described earlier, except for the RMSEA which complied with the “acceptable” norm. Given that eight items presented a standardized regression weight on their latent factor below .60, we excluded the items presenting the lowest standardized regression weight one by one until only each dimension’s four most representative items remained. This new model presented satisfying fit indices and was therefore adopted. Table 3 presents the items that were included in and excluded from the final model¹. A third, second-order model was tested with a global eudaimonic well-being latent variable

¹ Caution should be used when interpreting the results following this modification to the original instrument. On the one hand, items excluded from the interpersonal facilitation dimension seem to capture concrete actions taken to help colleagues. The four items that were included in the measure refer to giving verbal support without necessarily taking action to help coworkers concretely. Phrases from these items such as “Praise”, “Say things”, and “Encourage” support this interpretation. Hence, the measure without excluded items captures interpersonal facilitation—“interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment” (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996, p. 526)—through contributions in support and encouraging coworkers that could motivate them to perform, but not through direct contributions to the tasks at hand. On the other hand, we acknowledge that removing items “Put in extra hours to get the job done on time”, “Work harder than necessary”, and “Ask for a challenging work assignment” from the job dedication dimension could reduce the ability of the measure to capture the behaviors that go above formal requirements to contribute to organizational performance. Items “Take the initiative to solve a work problem”, “Persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task”, and “Tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically” still contribute to capturing two central elements of contextual performance: “Persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort as necessary to complete own task activities successfully” and “Volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of own job” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 102). All items included in the final measure of job dedication appear to contribute in capturing behaviors that denote motivation to perform on the job, corresponding to the definition of this dimension of contextual performance : “Job dedication is the motivational foundation for job performance that drives people to act with the deliberate intention of promoting the organization’s best interests” (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996, p. 526).

regressing on its five dimensions, themselves regressing on the five items composing each dimension. Most fit indices did not follow the prescribed norms by a small margin, which can be explained by the large number of parameters in this model.

Table 3

Included and Excluded Items for the Contextual Performance Measure

Dimension	Item	Included	Excluded
Interpersonal facilitation	Praise your co-workers when they are successful	X	
	Support or encourage a co-worker with a personal problem	X	
	Talk to other workers before taking actions that might affect them		X
	Say things to make people feel good about themselves or the work group	X	
	Encourage others to overcome their differences and get along	X	
	Treat others fairly		X
	Help someone without being asked		X
Job dedication	Put in extra hours to get the job done on time		X
	Pay close attention to important details	X	
	Work harder than necessary		X
	Ask for a challenging work assignment		X
	Exercise personal discipline and self-control		X
	Take the initiative to solve a work problem	X	
	Persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task	X	
	Tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically	X	

Mediation Analyses. Using the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2013), mediation analyses evaluated the mediating role of contextual performance (T2) in the relationship between life satisfaction (T1) and eudaimonic well-being at work (T2). Among the potential control variables of age and gender, only age was significantly related to the dependent variable of eudaimonic well-being at work ($r = .12, p = .008$). It was therefore included in the model as a covariate. Neither age nor gender were significantly related to the contextual performance mediator. The total mediation model explains 22.7% of the variance of eudaimonic well-being ($p < .001$). The indirect mediation effect is statistically significant ($b = 0.031, CI 95\% [0.010,$

0.059]) and represents 14.1% of the total effect on the dependent variable ($P_M = 0.141$, CI 95% [0.050, 0.245]). Therefore, employee contextual performance explains the spillover effect from life satisfaction to eudaimonic well-being at work, supporting hypothesis 1. Figure 2 presents the mediation model.

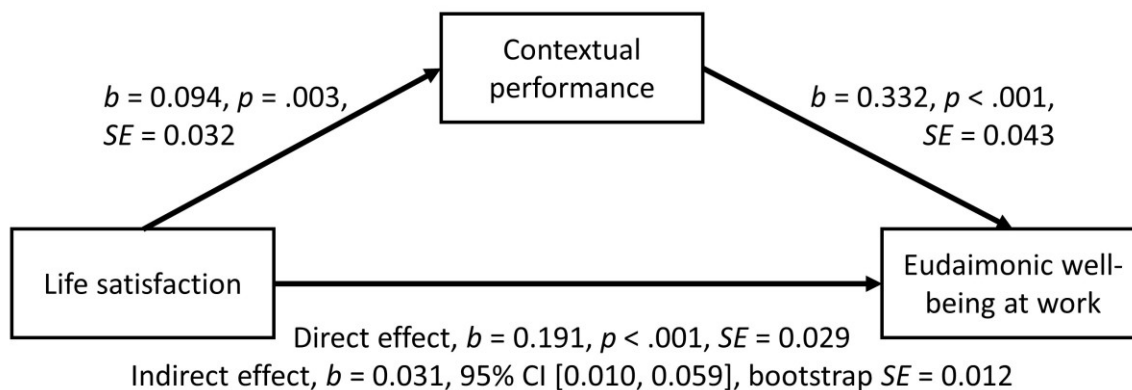


Figure 2. Mediation model of study 1.

Discussion

Hypothesis 1, according to which contextual performance mediates the relationship between life satisfaction and eudaimonic well-being at work, is confirmed. Hence, a cognitive process of PWB spillover seems to be at least partly explained by the mediating role of contextual performance.

The results of this study build on partial empirical support regarding the link between life satisfaction and contextual performance. In fact, while no theoretical or empirical support was directly related to the life satisfaction-contextual performance relationship, life satisfaction had been linked to organizational citizenship behaviors (Duncanson, 2007; Lambert, 2010; Meynhardt et al., 2018). Our results support the fact that workers with a higher evaluation of

their satisfaction in life tend to encourage their colleagues at work and persist in the face of difficult work tasks. This result adds to the previous empirical evidence, as well as extend the work-nonwork interface theories (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) by pointing out that a cognitive component of nonwork PWB—life satisfaction—can influence the aspects of contextual performance covered by our operationalization of this construct.

According to the theoretical description of work-family spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), work performance should lead to a positive mood in this same domain due to the rewards resulting from high performance. Yet, contextual performance is not formally prescribed (Motowidlo et al., 1997) and is therefore not likely to lead to formal rewards, even if informal rewards remain possible. Part of the effect of performance on same-domain mood through rewards (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) could therefore be overlooked by focusing on contextual performance instead of task performance. However, Edwards and Rothbard (2000) propose that both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards affect mood. Hence, the process by which performance influences mood would also tap into internal rewards such as enhanced self-esteem and perceived self-efficacy (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Study 2 will adopt another perspective and evaluate the affective process of PWB spillover by looking at the mediating role of task performance in the relationship between positive affect in the family and positive affect at work.

Study 2

Theoretical Context

The objective of this study was to evaluate the mediating role of task performance in the relationship between positive affect in the family and positive affect at work.

Positive Affect in the Family. Positive affect reflects the extent to which a person feels active, enthusiastic, and alert—as opposed to sad and lethargic (Watson et al., 1988). To better capture discrete emotions as opposed to more diffuse moods, we situate positive affect in the specific context of the family, rather than relating more broadly to nonwork. In the context of the study described below, this allowed the participants to anchor affective perceptions in discrete, timely defined events.

Positive Affect at Work. Positive affect has been contextualized in the work domain (Kanfer & Klimoski, 2002). Positive affect at work and in the family are two distinct constructs, as indicated by confirmatory factor analyses (Rothbard, 2001).

Task performance. Task performance is “the effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of its technological process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 99). It is composed of behaviors that contribute to the production of goods or the provision of services (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). As exposed in the discussion of study 1, using task performance should allow to better capture some of the theoretical explanation for the mediating role of performance in mood spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Namely, task performance is more likely than contextual performance to lead to formal rewards because it constitutes a set of formally required behaviors (Motowidlo et al., 1997). According to Edwards and Rothbard (2000), formal rewards could partially explain why performance affects mood at work.

Spillover of Positive Affect in the Family onto Positive Affect at Work. Positive affect spillover has received less empirical attention than the spillover of cognitive conceptualizations

of PWB examined in study 1. Positive affect in the family and at work were nonetheless strongly correlated in one study (Rothbard, 2001).

Regarding the mediating role of performance in the spillover of positive affect, work-family enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and the spillover process described by Edwards and Rothbard (2000) refer to affective conceptualizations of PWB. Beyond these theoretical articulations regarding positive affect or mood spillover through performance, no empirical examination has simultaneously investigated both relationships implied in the mediation process. There is no empirical evidence on the link between positive affect in the family and task performance, to our knowledge. However, task performance has been correlated with positive affect at work (Woerkom & Meyers, 2015). We put forward the following hypothesis concerning spillover of positive affect.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between positive affect in the family and positive affect at work is mediated by task performance.

Research Design and Participants

We recruited Canadian continuing education program students from a major Canadian university by contacting professors and presenting our research project in classes and through email communications. Students were invited to complete an online questionnaire about their experience on a given workday. This concurrent evaluation was chosen because affect spillover could occur over a short timeframe of a few days at most (Hanson et al., 2006; MacDermid et al., 2002). Participants were instructed to answer the questionnaire after work on their own time. A total of 224 respondents accepted to participate. Eight participants did not complete the questionnaire because they did not meet the following inclusion criteria: 1) be at least 18 years

old, 2) be a Canadian citizen or permanent resident, and 3) have an adequate comprehension of written French. One participant's data was excluded because there was no variation in answer scheme, and this created outliers on multiple variables, leaving data from 215 participants for the analyses. Only participants living with at least one family member ($n = 163$) could complete the family-related instruments and only participants occupying the same job for the last six months ($n = 158$) could complete the work-related measures. Participating students came from communication (38%), social intervention (33%), management (22%), general (10%), and healthcare (7%) programs. Most participants were women (87%) and mean age was 29.9 years ($SD = 9.0$ years). More than one in three participants had at least one child (36%). Almost half (49%) of student workers were unionized. Participants gave their informed consent and data were treated confidentially.

Measures

Positive Affect. Affect is most commonly measured through Watson, Clark, and Tellegen's (1988) Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Singley, 2005). In this study, we used the French version (Gaudreau et al., 2006), retaining only the five positive affect items of Thompson's (2007) short version. The rating scale ranges from 1 (*Very slightly or not at all*) to 5 (*Extremely*). Internal consistency is adequate ($\alpha = .90-.91$, $\alpha = .73-.78$, respectively; Gaudreau et al., 2006; Thompson, 2007).

Positive affect at work was measured by adding work frame-of-reference instructions to the measure described above, an addition originally proposed by Brief, Burke, George, Robinson, and Webster (1988) that demonstrates adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .89$; Rothbard, 2001). A corresponding addition of family frame-of-reference instructions was used to measure *positive affect in the family* ($\alpha = .91$; Rothbard, 2001).

Task performance. We used the French version of Williams and Anderson’s (1991) task performance measure (Lapointe, 2014). This instrument comprises seven items (e.g., “At work, on average, how often do you feel you adequately complete assigned duties?”) rated on a scale ranging from 0 (*Never*) to 4 (*Always*). Cronbach’s alpha is .85 (Lapointe, 2014). In this study, the instructions and items were adapted to refer to a time frame of one day. We added a time frame (“today”) to the instructions and used the past tense in the items to refer to that time frame.

Analyses

As was the case for study 1, confirmatory factor analyses and mediation analyses using the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2013) were conducted to evaluate hypothesis 2.

Results

Preliminary Analyses. Two outlier scores on task performance items were adjusted to 3.29 standard deviations from the mean. There was no outlier on the main variables. Pairwise missing data handling was used. Table 4 presents descriptive results and Pearson correlations.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Correlations for Study 2

Variable	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis	1	2	3	4	5
1. Positive affect in the family	163	3.04	0.95	-0.08	-0.72	.84				
2. Positive affect at work	158	3.31	0.79	-0.52	0.17	.27**	.81			
3. Task performance	153	3.13	0.47	-0.23	-0.46	.31**	.30**	.70		
4. Age	183	29.93	8.97	1.02	0.95	.19*	.15	-.08	-	
5. Gender	183	1.13	0.34	-	-	.13	.06	.24**	.17*	-

Note. **: $p < .01$; *: $p < .05$; Cronbach's alphas are presented on the diagonal; gender is coded 1 = female, 2 = male.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses. To validate the factorial structure of the three instruments used, confirmatory factor analyses were conducted using AMOS (Arbuckle, 2010). Table 5 presents the results.

Table 5

Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analyses of Study 2

Model	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA	CI RMSEA	SRMR
Positive affect in the family - 5 items	0.47	1.00	.000	[.000; .069]	.018
Positive affect in the family - 4 items	0.27	1.00	.000	[.000; .104]	.008
Positive affect at work - 5 items	7.58	.88	.205	[.147; .268]	.074
Positive affect at work - 4 items	4.87	.97	.157	[.069; .262]	.043
Task performance	1.60	.96	.063	[.000; .111]	.056

Note. χ^2/df = Normed chi-square; CI = 95% confidence interval.

Two models had respectively positive affect in the family and positive affect at work as latent variables regressing on the five items composing their measure. Fit indices were good for positive affect in the family. However, the positive affect at work model did not meet the norms for fit indices. For both measures, one item (“Alert”) had a weak standardized regression weight (Family: .19; Work: .48). This is understandable as in French the word “*alerte*” can also be interpreted in a negative way, that is, as a response to strain or uncertainty. Therefore, we excluded this item from subsequent models. All fit indices improved or remained the same for both models, although global fit remained uncertain for positive affect at work, which had two out of four indices respecting established norms. The last model tested the factorial structure of task performance by regressing a latent variable on its seven items. Fit indices were acceptable.

Mediation Analyses. We evaluated the mediating effect of task performance in the relationship between positive affect in the family and positive affect at work. Among the potential control variables of age and gender, only gender (coded 1 = female; 2 = male) significantly predicted the mediator of task performance ($r = .24, p = .004$). It was therefore

included in the model as a covariate. Neither age nor gender significantly predicted the dependent variable of positive affect at work. The total mediation model explained 12.4% of the variance of positive affect at work ($p < .001$). The indirect mediation effect was statistically significant ($b = 0.062$, CI 95% [0.016, 0.144]) and represented 27.3% of the total effect on the dependent variable ($P_M = 0.273$, CI 95% [0.060, 0.911]). Therefore, employee task performance explains the spillover effect from positive affect in the family to positive affect at work, supporting hypothesis 2. Figure 3 presents the mediation model.

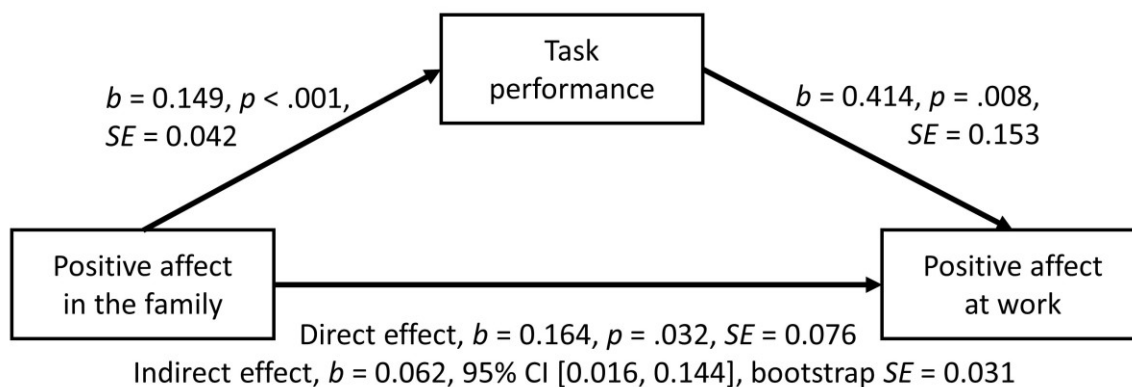


Figure 3. Mediation model of study 2.

Discussion

This second study confirms hypothesis 2, according to which task performance mediates the relationship between positive affect in the family and at work. Task performance therefore seems to explain the affective process of PWB spillover.

These results support the process of positive affect spillover described by work-nonwork interface theories (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). They do so despite the assertion that affective states do not always persist beyond the activity that engendered them

(Waterman et al., 2010). Although daily diary designs could provide further support, our study shows that affective states in the family seem to persist beyond the family context in order to predict task performance and positive affect at work. Larger implications of the two studies are presented in the following section.

General Discussion

The objective of this article was to evaluate the mediating role of work performance in two PWB spillover processes. The cognitive process taps into cognitive PWB conceptualizations. The mediating role of contextual performance in this process was supported in study 1. Hence, workers with a higher evaluation of their satisfaction in life would tend to encourage their colleagues at work and persist in the face of difficult work tasks. These behaviors would then lead to judgments of better interpersonal fit at work, of thriving, of being competent and involved at work, as well as perceptions of being recognized for one's contribution. The affective process taps into affective PWB conceptualizations. The mediating role of task performance in this second process was supported in study 2. In other words, feeling positive emotions in the family context would influence the behaviors leading to the production of goods and the provision of service at work. This higher task performance would then nourish positive emotions in the work context.

These findings have multiple theoretical implications. First, testing performance mediation in the spillover of cognitive and affective PWB provides a much-needed empirical demonstration to support theoretical claims. Our results suggest that although work-nonwork interface theories (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) rely on affective conceptualizations of PWB (positive affect and mood), the work performance mechanism they suggest may also explain spillover of cognitive forms of PWB (satisfaction and eudaimonic well-being). We

propose that future theoretical propositions on the work-nonwork interface recognize the distinction between cognitive and affective types of spillover. This would allow a more precise understanding of the described phenomena and clearer indications for empirically validating the theoretical propositions.

Second, our results also build on past empirical evidence pertaining to cognitive conceptualizations of PWB, by providing an empirical examination of PWB spillover using the concept of positive affect. In this way, our research bridges the empirical and theoretical literature by confirming PWB spillover through work performance in distinct studies with cognitive and affective conceptualizations of PWB.

Third, the present study enhances our understanding of the relationship between nonwork PWB and work performance. The theory of planned behavior predicts that individuals orient their behaviors towards the object of their attitudes (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, nonwork PWB should influence behaviors outside of work. Our results go above this proposition and constitute evidence towards the fact that attitudes outside of work—life satisfaction and positive affect in the family—can influence behaviors at work—contextual and task performance.

Comparing the two studies, the mediation model explains a greater proportion of the variance of eudaimonic well-being at work in study 1 (22.7%) than of positive affect at work in study 2 (12.4%). This indicates that PWB at work could be more readily enhanced through the cognitive spillover process than through the affective one. On the other hand, the proportion of the spillover explained by the mediator of work performance appears to be greater in study 2 (27.3%) than in study 1 (14.1%). As put forward in the discussion of study 1, this is coherent with the fact that contextual performance is less likely to engender formal rewards for the employees. This reduces its potential effect on PWB at work, as explained in the spillover

process described by Edwards and Rothbard (2000). Future study could focus on task performance as a particularly promising mechanism through which nonwork PWB can enhance work PWB. The distinction between contextual and task performance is another contribution of our study towards more precise conceptualizations in work-nonwork theories. It is nonetheless hard to distinguish the effect of the cognitive versus affective conceptualizations of PWB and the effect of the contextual versus task performance conceptualizations of work performance on the discrepancy between the results from the two studies. Hence, future studies could render our conclusions more precise by evaluating separately the effect of the two conceptual differences.

This research has practical implications. First, workers should realize the resource that their well-being outside of work constitutes for improving their performance and well-being at work. Workers should craft opportunities for this positive spillover to occur. For instance, they could think of positive nonwork events before settling to do an important work task or they could introduce in their work environment reminders of positive nonwork events, such as pictures on their desks or on other work equipment. Second, the present results suggest that giving workers opportunities to improve and perceive their own performance in the workplace will enable positive spillover. This could be achieved by giving them the autonomy to choose the tasks for which they feel most competent and by providing frequent positive feedback on their performance. Timely feedback should be prioritized over once-a-year feedback through performance appraisal (Prayson & Rowe, 2017). For instance, public posting of patients' satisfaction reviews (Wickner et al., 2019) and multisource feedback from colleagues (Ferguson et al., 2014) have been effectively applied in the healthcare sector. Third, theoretically supported mechanisms explaining the effect of nonwork PWB on work performance, although not directly tested in this study, particularly tap into interpersonal relationships. Theories support the fact that

nonwork PWB can influence work performance through increasing helping behaviors (Rothbard, 2001) and positive interactions (Staw et al., 1994). Additionally, the contextual performance measure used in study 1 captured behaviors of verbal support towards colleagues. Consequently, according to both our results and prior theoretical propositions, offering opportunities for interactions and teamwork could enhance PWB spillover. In sum, providing opportunities for performance and collaboration could positively influence workers' psychological state at work.

This study is not without limitations. First, study 2 relied on a cross-sectional design, and as such, results could have been affected by common method variance biases. However, evaluating concurrent experiences on a given workday limits several other biases, including that of retrospection (Reis & Gable, 2000). It would be advantageous for future studies to use daily diary designs to assess how the spillover process unfolds in time. In study 1, the mediator and dependent variable were also assessed simultaneously. Future studies should use at least three measurement times to evaluate the mediation process.

Second, both studies used self-reported data. This method is recommended for measuring PWB, as it provides reliable and valid accounts of the subjective experience of well-being (Lucas & Diener, 2008). However, self-reported performance measures can offer a limited account of job performance. Future studies should use colleague or supervisor reports to measure work performance.

Third, both studies relied on a predominantly female sample (Study 1: 89%, study 2: 87%). Although we controlled for gender when relevant, the sample composition could preclude generalization of the results to male workers. The evaluation of the role of gender in positive spillover has produced inconsistent results (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). One study with a similar research question pointed out that positive emotional spillover from family to work is

observable for women but not for men (Rothbard, 2001). We therefore advise conducting further studies among predominantly male samples before concluding that men experience the same PWB spillover process.

Fourth, we had to remove items from the contextual performance measure of study 1 in order to achieve an acceptable fit of the measurement model, given that regression weights of latent variables on observed variables contribute to model fit (Hermida, 2015). The items retained seem to capture a different perspective of contextual performance than that of the original measure. Concerning the first dimension of contextual performance, interpersonal facilitation seems to capture verbal support to coworkers, eluding concrete actions taken to help them accomplish their tasks. The job dedication dimension was less sensitive to behaviors that go above formal requirements to contribute to organizational performance. This can be explained by the fact that our sample of technical staff from the medical sector differs from the sample of Air Force mechanics from the original validation study (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). More precisely, given the considerable demands that affect the Canadian healthcare workers (Kilroy et al., 2016), they might be unable to envision going above an already important workload. It is also possible that an important proportion of workers of the public sector appreciate the benefits they typically get from collective agreements in terms of work-nonwork balance (Buelens & Broeck, 2007) enabling them to limit their effort expenditure at work (e.g., paid overtime, parental leave). However, the items retained for the job dedication dimension seemed to maintain an adequate representation of motivational components.

The adaptations made to the contextual performance measure incite to make use of caution when interpreting the results of study 1 and comparing them to those of other studies. More specifically, we cannot conclude that some aspects of contextual performance excluded from our

final measure have any incidence on the spillover of PWB. Hence, we cannot draw conclusions concerning concrete behaviors of helping colleagues accomplish their work or behaviors demonstrating involvement above what is formally required. The aspects covered by the final measure such as encouraging colleagues and showing persistence in the face of difficulties seem to be sufficient to explain a significant part of how life satisfaction spills over to eudaimonic well-being at work.

Fifth, future studies should also use a more precise conceptualization of cognitive nonwork PWB. The life satisfaction measure used in study 1 could refer both to non-work and work. We recommend the use of a more specific nonwork satisfaction measure excluding work experiences. However, the measure of life satisfaction used in study 1 has an important proportion of common variance with nonwork satisfaction measures, with correlations higher than .60 not unusual (Erdogan et al., 2012), while job satisfaction and life satisfaction presented correlations between .27 and .55 (Hart, 1999; Heller et al., 2004; Hoopes & Lounsbury, 1989; Loewe et al., 2013). Examining spillover from work to nonwork would also be an interesting research avenue (e.g., Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014). This line of research could shed light on possible interventions in the workplace that would enhance workers' PWB at and outside of work. Such an approach could also evaluate the contribution of the work domain in maintaining good general psychological health. Evaluating other spillover mechanisms is another promising avenue. For example, the theoretical description of work-family spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) proposes that mood in one domain affects mood in another through a general experience of positive mood (Headey et al., 1991).

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Deuxième article : Transferring Well-Being Between Work and Family: The Contribution of Life Satisfaction, Identity Centrality and Boundary Strength to Work-Family Spillover of Satisfaction
Among Young Workers

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Abstract

The correlates of positive spillover between work and family have been extensively studied, but less attention has been given to the mechanisms involved in this spillover. The objective of this study is to evaluate a mediator—life satisfaction—and two moderators—identity centrality and boundary strength—that could affect work-family satisfaction spillover. First, bottom-up and top-down theories of life satisfaction suggest spillover could occur through a general perception of life satisfaction. Second, in accordance with the dynamic self-concept theory, we argue that spillover originates from domains central to one's identity. Third, how people manage boundaries between work and family could moderate the occurrence of spillover. To test these hypotheses, 6,077 Canadian workers between the ages of 18 and 35 participated in a three-wave self-report longitudinal study. Path analyses support the hypothesis that life satisfaction mediates satisfaction spillover from work to family and from family to work. Moreover, family identity centrality facilitates the generalization of satisfaction from family to life. Home boundary strength also limits satisfaction spillover from work to family. These results enrich work-family interface theories by integrating the theoretical approaches of work-family spillover, identity centrality and boundary management. This study also refines existing theories by pointing at distinct conditions under which work-to-family and family-to-work spillovers occur.

Keywords: Work-nonwork balance, Work-family enrichment, Positive spillover, Subjective well-being, Job satisfaction, Family satisfaction, Life satisfaction, Identity, Work-home boundary.

Introduction

The context surrounding work-family balance in western countries is undergoing rapid and profound changes, such as increased telecommuting (Allen et al., 2014), globalization (Rothbard & Ollier-Malaterre, 2016), and the use of work-related information and communication technology at home (Leung & Zhang, 2017). Understandably, Canadian workers are becoming increasingly concerned with work-family balance (CROP, 2014) and consider the lack of balance to be the most important source of stress at work (Towers Watson, 2014). This situation calls for innovative studies on the work-family interface.

At the heart of this interface between work and family, a number of elements could spill over from one domain to the other, including stress (Crompton, 2011), values, skills, behaviors (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), psychological, physical, material and social resources, and flexibility (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). For example, a manager with young children could learn patience with them at home and then transfer this skill to relationships with employees at work. Alternatively, a health professional might benefit from numerous social interactions with patients to discuss and identify the best school for his or her children.

Positive spillover is “the transfer of positively valenced affect, skills, behaviors and values from the originating domain to the receiving domain, thus having beneficial effects on the receiving domain” (Hanson et al., 2006, p. 251). We argue more specifically that satisfaction is an important element which spills over between work and family. Some authors have tested how job satisfaction and satisfaction outside of work could influence each other. For instance, in a daily diary study, Heller and Watson (2005) uncovered that job satisfaction predicts subsequent marital satisfaction, and inversely, that marital satisfaction predicts subsequent job satisfaction.

These relationships were mediated by positive affect. Similarly, Ilies, Wilson, and Wagner (2009) found that daily job satisfaction predicted daily marital satisfaction. Moreover, discussing work events in the family context could explain why positive affect at work influences life satisfaction (Ilies et al., 2015).

This literature presents some elements we wish to build upon. First, past studies mainly used a short-term daily diary design. While this approach presents numerous advantages, it typically relies on smaller sample sizes, which may limit statistical power. Large sample size is important, given the call for higher statistical power when searching for typically small interaction effects in the organizational sciences (Murphy & Russell, 2017). We also wish to evaluate if results found in daily diary studies hold true over a longer period. Uncovering long-term benefits would provide additional support for the importance of acting upon work-family balance. Second, these studies evaluated the spillover of job satisfaction onto life or marital satisfaction, but family satisfaction is also an important outcome to consider. Since the family is systematically perceived as one of the three most important life domains (Hsieh, 2015; Tiefenbach & Kohlbacher, 2015), studying family satisfaction is highly relevant. Furthermore, family and life satisfaction could play distinct roles in the spillover process in that life satisfaction could mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and family satisfaction, based on bottom-up and top-down approaches to life satisfaction (Erdogan et al., 2012; Singley, 2005). Third, most previous studies focused on the spillover from work to family, although work-family scholars argue in favor of investigating both directions of influence (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hecht & Allen, 2009), underlining the importance of studying the family-to-work direction as well.

Overall, the mechanisms influencing satisfaction spillover are not well understood. In fact, the “what” of spillover—“What are its consequences and antecedents?”—is known, but the “how”—“How does spillover occur?”—has received little empirical examination. This is partly due to the fact that many positive work-family interface measures encapsulate the whole process of spillover. For instance, work-family enrichment, defined as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 72), is operationalized in terms of perceptions of enrichment (sample item : “My involvement in my work puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member”; Carlson et al., 2006). Using measures that merge all components of the process into a single construct of spillover acknowledges the correlates (what) as topics of research, but not the internal mechanisms (how). Moreover, we argue that the use of these instruments creates a frame of reference that forces respondents to consider spillover as an existing phenomenon and prevents rigorous testing of its existence. To address these issues, we propose to measure individual variables—mediators and moderators—that might explain the process that unfolds between job satisfaction and family satisfaction. The objective of this study is therefore to determine the mechanisms by which satisfaction spills over from work to family and from family to work. Given that work-family scholars have called for the evaluation of mechanisms implied in work-family spillover (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014; Ilies et al., 2015), we will describe and test three such mechanisms: 1) life satisfaction as a mediator, 2) work and family identity centrality as moderators, and 3) work and home boundary strength as moderators.

We contend that these mechanisms may be best observed among young people. In fact, managing the work-family interface could be more difficult for young workers between the ages

of 18 and 35. Indeed, young workers exhibit lower work-family balance (Spieler et al., 2018) and higher work-family conflict (Hill et al., 2014). This may be because typically, in this age group, both the work and family domains develop at a particularly fast pace, with projects such as climbing the career ladder and starting a family being most prominent. In particular, young workers change jobs more frequently, which influences their subsequent career path (Mukoyama & Zhang, 2019). They also tend to experience higher family demands, namely in the form of caring for dependent young children (Hill et al., 2014). Moreover, young workers usually possess weaker boundaries between work and family (Spieler et al., 2018), making them a relevant population to study the interaction between these domains. Finding ways to improve young workers' experience of the work-family interface is especially important because they seem to face greater challenges in balancing these two domains.

Life Domains

A domain is “a component of life associated with particular places, things, activities, people, social roles, or elements of the self-concept” (Rice et al., 1985, p. 298). Numerous life domains have been studied, including work, family, housing, community, finances, leisure, friendships, health, government, marriage, and religion (Hsieh, 2015).

We choose to focus on the work and family domains for several reasons. These domains are among the most important ones in a person's life (Erdogan et al., 2012; Hsieh, 2015; Kanter, 1977). Consequently, studying these two domains has major implications for many individuals. Moreover, work and family domains are more easily distinguishable, whereas leisure, friendships or community frequently overlap with other domains, notably because the same people are involved (Hoopes & Lounsbury, 1989; Loewe et al., 2013). This distinction between work and

family makes it possible to evaluate a real spillover process rather than simply experiences that overlap domains.

Work is defined as “instrumental human activity, whose aim, at minimum, is the provision of goods and services for supporting human life” (Piotrkowski et al., 1987, p. 252). This definition largely avoids overlap with domains such as community or family; in using this definition, we focus on paid work only. *Family* is defined as “persons sharing a residence and household who are related by biological ties, marriage, social custom, or adoption” (Piotrkowski et al., 1987, p. 252). This definition has the advantage of being specific, to ensure investigation of real spillover rather than co-occurrence; yet open, to acknowledge newly diverse family structures (Voydanoff, 2014).

Work-Family Spillover

Work-family spillover has been conceptualized in many ways. Edwards and Rothbard (2000) define spillover as the “effects of work and family on one another that generate similarities between the two domains” (p. 180). Accordingly, Staines (1980) proposes that one of the causal explanations for the relationship between work and nonwork is the effect of third variables on both. However, we argue that spillover cannot merely be defined by the existence of a relationship; rather, this relationship must also represent a causal influence of one construct on the other. For spillover to occur, there must be an element from one domain that affects the other, rather than a third variable that influences both domains and creates a spurious relationship. In sum, positive spillover is defined as “the transfer of positively valenced affect, skills, behaviors and values from the originating domain to the receiving domain, thus having beneficial effects on the receiving domain” (Hanson et al., 2006, p. 251).

Spillover comprises two directions: “the effects of work on nonwork” and “the effects of nonwork on work” (Staines, 1980, p. 123). Despite this distinction, work-family interface theories (e.g., Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) usually describe both directions through the same processes. An empirical test distinguishing between the directions of influence should validate or enhance this perspective. The domain at the source of the spillover is called the *originating domain* and the domain onto which there is a spillover is called the *receiving domain* (Carlson et al., 2014).

Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is defined as “a global assessment of a person’s quality of life according to [their] own chosen criteria” (Shin & Johnson, 1978, p. 478). Satisfaction is also associated with specific life domains (Singley, 2005). For example, job satisfaction can be characterized as the extent to which a person appreciates their work (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction follows a U-shaped relationship with age, where the lowest levels of satisfaction are experienced at age 26 (Birdi et al., 1995). This supports the relevance of studying satisfaction spillover in young workers and provide avenues to improve this situation. Although frequently measured (e.g., Boyar & Mosley Jr., 2007; Hunter, Perry, Carlson, & Smith, 2010), to our knowledge, family satisfaction has not been defined in the literature. As with job satisfaction, we define family satisfaction as the extent to which a person appreciates their family life.

Satisfaction is one component of subjective well-being (Diener, 1984), a concept widely used in the psychological literature (Ryff, 1989). Subjective well-being also refers to experiencing more pleasant than unpleasant emotions (Angner, 2010). Given that satisfaction spillover has yet to be studied in depth, we will also consider research on the related concept of

affective states to support our hypotheses. The affect construct comprises both diffuse moods and event-specific emotions (MacDermid et al., 2002).

Satisfaction Spillover Between Work and Family

Theoretical propositions and empirical evidence support the existence of satisfaction spillover between work and family. Theoretically, Edwards and Rothbard (2000) propose that work and family mood influence each other through mood in life in general. Regarding empirical evidence, one study found a moderate correlation between job satisfaction and family satisfaction (Loewe et al., 2013), while another found no significant relationship (Hoopes & Lounsbury, 1989). Job satisfaction was correlated to nonwork satisfaction (Hart, 1999) and satisfaction about one's home (Canan & Knight, 2001). A meta-analysis (Heller et al., 2004) presented a significant mean correlation of .14 between job satisfaction and marital satisfaction in a sample of 32 studies. These results are all based on cross-sectional evidence and therefore cannot rule out the possibility of a congruence effect. The "*congruence hypothesis* states that job and family satisfaction are positively related because they share a common cause or causes" (emphasis added, Frone et al., 1994, p. 565). We therefore turn to studies that used alternate designs.

Daily diary studies have also examined satisfaction spillover. For instance, Ilies, Wilson, and Wagner (2009) found that intra-individual differences in daily job satisfaction predicted daily marital satisfaction and daily positive affect at home. Results of another daily diary study showed that discussion of work events in the family context could explain why positive affect at work influences life satisfaction (Ilies et al., 2015). Moreover, Heller and Watson (2005) found that job satisfaction in the afternoon predicts marital satisfaction at night, and that marital satisfaction at night predicts next day job satisfaction in the afternoon. These relationships were mediated by

positive affect. However, as outlined earlier, these studies present drawbacks we wish to build upon: their short time frame, their disregard for satisfaction *in the family*, and their unidirectional emphasis on the influence of work on family. We propose these hypotheses on work-to-family and family-to-work satisfaction spillover.

H1a: Job satisfaction is positively related to subsequent family satisfaction.

H1b: Family satisfaction is positively related to subsequent job satisfaction.

Life Satisfaction as a Mediator. Life satisfaction constitutes an explanatory mechanism through which originating domain satisfaction affects receiving domain satisfaction. Bottom-up and top-down approaches to life satisfaction support its mediating role in work-family satisfaction spillover. According to the bottom-up approach, satisfaction in different domains can lead to a perception of global life satisfaction (Diener, 1984; Singley, 2005). In other words, people evaluate their global satisfaction based on the aggregate of satisfaction in discrete domains (Erdogan et al., 2012). Conversely, the top-down approach suggests that life satisfaction can influence satisfaction in specific domains (Diener, 1984; Singley, 2005). It supposes that people have tendencies, namely personality traits, that affect how satisfied they are with their lives in general; this satisfaction subsequently trickles down to satisfaction in specific domains (Erdogan et al., 2012). Both approaches are empirically supported (Chmiel et al., 2011; Heller et al., 2004; Rice et al., 1985). While the debate remains open as to which approach is more valid (Guardiola & Picazo-Tadeo, 2013), Erdogan et al. (2012) affirm that the two propositions are compatible. Hence, both approaches could be true, in that both directions of influence (from domains to life, and from life to domains) could be enacted simultaneously in a reciprocal process (Schimmack, 2008; Voicu, 2015). This bidirectional process supports the hypothesis that life satisfaction is a

mediator in the relationship between originating and receiving domain satisfaction because both bottom-up and top-down influence are necessary to this process of generalization-specification. Another theoretical support for the mediating role of life satisfaction in the spillover process comes from the positive spillover process described by Edwards and Rothbard (2000). It posits that mood in the originating domain can affect mood in the receiving domain through general mood. A positive mood felt in a specific domain could therefore generalize to a larger positive feeling, which could then nourish a positive mood in another domain.

Most of the evidence on the mediating role of life satisfaction is cross-sectional, but a few longitudinal studies evaluating the bottom-up and top-down approaches exist. Cho and Tay (2016) found that, within a nine-year delay, life satisfaction was related to previous ($r = .25$) and subsequent ($r = .26$) job satisfaction, and to previous ($r = .28$) and subsequent ($r = .30$) marital satisfaction. Headey et al. (1991) conducted a study with a four-wave longitudinal design and a two-year delay between each wave, to evaluate the direction of influence between satisfaction in specific domains and life satisfaction. Their results partially support the bidirectionality hypothesis, as life satisfaction influences job satisfaction, but not the reverse (top-down only), while marital and life satisfaction exhibited a bidirectional relationship (bottom-up and top-down). However, the bidirectional influence of life and domain satisfaction could unfold at a faster pace, meaning that a shorter delay could be optimal for observing the relationships of interest. Accordingly, Hagmaier et al. (2018) found stronger bidirectional relationships between life and career satisfaction within an eight-week interval than within a five-year delay.

Cross-sectionally, correlations between job satisfaction and family satisfaction—or nonwork/home/marital equivalents—vary between .05 and .37, but the two direct links implied

by the mediation are stronger, with correlations between work and life satisfaction varying between .27 and .55, and correlations between family and life satisfaction varying between .37 and .61 (Hart, 1999; Heller et al., 2004; Hoopes & Lounsbury, 1989; Loewe et al., 2013). Hence, the relationship between the two most distal variables of the mediation seems weaker than the two direct links. This pattern is coherent with the mediation process proposed. As such, we put forward the following hypotheses.

H2a: Life satisfaction mediates the relationship from job satisfaction to family satisfaction.

H2b: Life satisfaction mediates the relationship from family satisfaction to job satisfaction.

Identity Centrality as a Moderator. The relatively weak relationship between job and family satisfaction (Canan & Knight, 2001; Hart, 1999; Leung et al., 2011) could also be explained by the presence of moderators. One of these could be domain identity centrality, which “reflects identity salience and indicates the relative value the individual places on [their] different identities” (Kossek et al., 2012, p. 114). There are four types of identity configurations relating to the work and family domains (Kossek et al., 2012): 1) work-centric (high work identity centrality, low family identity centrality), 2) family-centric (low work identity centrality, high family identity centrality) 3) dual-centric (high work identity centrality, high family identity centrality), and 4) other-centric (low work identity centrality, low family identity centrality).

The more central to identity a domain is, the more satisfaction spillover will originate from that domain, because a domain highly relevant to the self-concept is more likely to have far-reaching impacts on other life domains. Indeed, the *enactment effect* (Capitano et al., 2017) suggests that enacting a central domain in other domains is common, because it is intrinsically satisfying. Capitano and colleagues have found that work identity centrality increases the

tendency to bring work elements into the home domain ($r = .32$). At the same time, the dynamic self-concept theory posits that self-relevant information—information that relates to a highly central domain identity—is more likely to be memorized and recalled (Markus & Wurf, 1987), and is therefore more likely to spill over into another domain. Accordingly, family identity centrality has been linked to family-to-work positive spillover for both men ($r = .11$) and women ($r = .14$; Wright et al., 2015).

We contend, more specifically, that the moderating role of identity centrality on satisfaction spillover can be explained through its effect on the life satisfaction mediation process. Indeed, a highly central domain is also more likely to influence life satisfaction. For example, Loewe et al. (2013) suggest that the moderate relationship between job and life satisfaction could be caused by a moderation effect of the value people attribute to work. Results confirm the moderation effect of work centrality on the relationship between career satisfaction and life satisfaction (Hagmaier et al., 2018). To our knowledge, no empirical examination exists of the relationship between family and life satisfaction, and we therefore propose a similar moderation of family identity centrality. To summarize, higher identity centrality of the originating domain could lead to more influence of originating domain satisfaction on life satisfaction.

H3a: The positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is stronger when work identity centrality is higher.

H3b: The positive relationship between family satisfaction and life satisfaction is stronger when family identity centrality is higher.

Boundary Strength as a Moderator. Individuals vary in their tendency to either segment or integrate different domains of their lives (Nippert-Eng, 1996). This interface between domains

is characterized by role boundaries, “whatever delimits the perimeter—and thereby the scope—of a role” (Ashforth et al., 2000, p. 474). Boundaries differ in permeability, defined as “the degree to which elements from other domains may enter” (Clark, 2000, p. 756). In that sense, boundary permeability is conceptually proximal to work-family spillover. Hecht and Allen (2009) proposed a conceptualization of boundary strength as boundaries characterized by low permeability. Boundary strength is bidirectional in the sense that work boundary strength influences what can enter the work domain, while home boundary strength influences what can enter the home domain (Hecht & Allen, 2009). Researchers have called for investigation of the role of boundaries in work-family satisfaction spillover (Heller & Watson, 2005), as well as the individual processes associated with work-family boundaries (Allen et al., 2014).

Generally, the more segmented two domains are, the less spillover is possible (Ashforth et al., 2000; Rothbard et al., 2005). In this vein, Clark (2000) has coined the term “psychological permeation” and has posited that it can facilitate positive spillover of emotions. Qualitative work has suggested that workers describe boundaries between work and nonwork in cognitive terms, referring to thoughts that could be transferred between domains (Languilaire, 2009). Satisfaction being a cognitive evaluation (Diener, 1984), boundaries could affect the transference of satisfaction between work and family. Evidence mainly supports the moderating role of boundary strength in satisfaction spillover. Ilies et al. (2009) found that work-family integration moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and positive affect at home, but not the relationship between job satisfaction and marital satisfaction. To our knowledge, this is the only study examining the role of boundary strength by considering the individual variables implied in the spillover process. Other studies support the moderating role of boundary strength by considering

measures of positive spillover (e.g., work-family enrichment, work-family affective spillover). For instance, a significant relationship ($r = .27$; $r = .20$) was found between preference for home permeability and work-to-family enrichment (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2016; Leduc et al., 2016, respectively), while work permeability was linked to family-to-work positive affective spillover for both men ($r = .13$) and women ($r = .14$; Wright et al., 2015), but only with marginal statistical significance in another study ($r = .17$; Leduc et al., 2016). Boundary preference for segmentation (regardless of direction) was negatively linked to both work-to-family enrichment ($r = -.44$) and family-to-work enrichment ($r = -.21$; McNall et al., 2015). However, Hyland and Pottrass (2017) found that work permeability and home permeability were neither linked to work-to-home positive affective spillover nor to home-to-work positive affective spillover. No longitudinal study has examined the moderating effect of boundary strength on satisfaction spillover. Overall, we posit that higher boundary strength of the receiving domain allows for less influence of originating domain satisfaction on receiving domain satisfaction.

H4a: The positive relationship between job satisfaction and family satisfaction is stronger when home boundary strength is lower.

H4b: The positive relationship between family satisfaction and job satisfaction is stronger when work boundary strength is lower.

The Present Study

The objective of this study is to determine the mechanisms by which satisfaction spills over from work to family and from family to work. This endeavor is relevant in many respects. First, our study moves beyond common approaches to investigating spillover correlates by focusing on internal mechanisms that potentialize work-family satisfaction spillover. Accordingly, our study

defines a coherent and bidirectional model of satisfaction spillover by integrating various theoretical frameworks—work-family spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), subjective well-being (Diener, 1984), top-down/bottom-up theories of life satisfaction (Singley, 2005), identity centrality (Kossek et al., 2012), dynamic self-concept theory (Markus & Wurf, 1987), and boundary management (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000). An original, key component of our study is the positioning of life satisfaction as a mediator of satisfaction spillover, rather than its outcome. Second, the three-wave longitudinal design adopted here overcomes the main drawback of previous studies, namely their cross-sectional or daily diary design. This longitudinal design is coherent with the objective of evaluating a process of influence. Third, although satisfaction spillover has been studied with samples comprising all age groups, the young workers we focus on could be a particularly relevant population in which to study this phenomenon. Notably, they could be especially prone to experiencing interaction between work and family given their weaker boundaries (Spieler et al., 2018). We therefore invited workers between the ages of 18 and 35 to participate in our study.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Our study adopted a three-wave self-report longitudinal design, which proves to be necessary to arrive at a clearer understanding of the temporality of spillover mechanisms. To date, satisfaction spillover has mostly been studied through cross-sectional correlations between a work construct and a family construct (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Hanson et al., 2006). However, cross-sectional designs do not reveal the causal processes at work in spillover

(Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Spillover researchers advise conducting longitudinal studies with a minimum of three waves (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014).

Data collection occurred between September 2017 and March 2018, with an 11-week delay between each of the three measurement times. This delay seems to maximally capture the relationships implied in positive spillover. Indeed, a delay of at least three months could be necessary to observe the spillover process (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014). On the opposite end of the spectrum, a delay exceeding three months could underestimate the influence of determinants such as job satisfaction on life satisfaction (Erdogan et al., 2012). The authors who evaluated the impact of these endpoints also proposed the existence of a set point of satisfaction. From this perspective, various events could influence satisfaction, but it returns to the person's set point after about three months (Suh et al., 1996). Too long a delay could therefore miss some of the spillover effect. A three-month interval also makes it possible to simultaneously reduce common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003), attrition, and the impact of outside events (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014).

We recruited participants through a public administration workers' association in Canada. Participants were included based on the following criteria: 1) Be engaged in paid full-time employment (at least 30 hours per week) for at least the last six months²; 2) Be between 18 and

² We included only full-time employees because participants had to be sufficiently involved in their work in order to have a clear and stable representation of their job satisfaction, as performed by several authors studying this concept (e.g., Brown & Sargeant, 2007).

35 years old; 3) Be a Canadian citizen or a permanent resident³; 4) Live with at least one person related by biological ties, marriage, social custom, or adoption⁴. Our partnership with a public administration workers' association allowed us to reach a large sample of workers. We sent an invitation to participate to the 19,242 members of this association. A total of 8,822 participants (45.8%) agreed to participate in at least one measurement time. Of that number, 1704 were excluded before completing any questionnaire, because they did not meet the inclusion criteria 1 to 3. Data from the completed questionnaires of another 905 people were excluded, because these participants did not meet the fourth criterion. Further validation led to rejecting data from 136 participants for a variety of reasons: 1) They were absent from work for more than 75 days in the last three months; 2) They answered that they were more than 35 years old to the sociodemographic questions although they indicated complying with the second inclusion criterion; 3) Similarly, they indicated that they worked less than 30 hours per week in response to the sociodemographic questions. Overall, we retained data from 6,077 participants who completed at least one questionnaire. This large sample size meets a recommendation to aim for higher statistical power in searching for typically small interaction effects in organizational sciences (Murphy & Russell, 2017). Concerning measurement times, 4,377 workers participated at T1. An invitation was sent to all members on the original list at T2 and T3, reaching

³ Given that the cultural background can influence the work-nonwork interface (Beham et al., 2017; Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017), including only Canadian citizens or permanent residents ensures that participants have a minimal common cultural understanding. This helps put aside confounding cultural variables and clarifies the population to which the results can be generalized.

⁴ This criterion aims to make sure participants correspond to the definition of family as “persons sharing a residence and household who are related by biological ties, marriage, social custom, or adoption” (Piotrkowski et al., 1987, p. 252).

respectively 3,605 and 3,212 participants. A total of 2,565 eligible participants completed all three questionnaires.

The participants were mostly women (61.4%) and worked an average of 37.5 hours per week ($SD = 4.2$). Mean age was 30.8 years ($SD = 3.4$) and participants had an average job tenure of 3.0 years ($SD = 2.8$). Participants worked in public service in different occupation types (professional: 35.6%; technician: 25.1%; peace officer: 15.5%; clerical worker: 13.1%; other: 10.7%). Among participants, 38.7% were living with one other person, 22.7% with two people, 27.8% with three people, and 10.8% with four or more people ($M = 2.1$, $SD = 1.1$). Almost half of the participants (43.8%) did not have a child, 21.2% had one child, 27.8% had two children, and 7.2% had three or more children ($M = 1.0$, $SD = 1.0$).

Measures

Satisfaction. *Life satisfaction* was measured with the French translation (Blais, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Brière, 1989) of the *Satisfaction With Life Scale* (Diener et al., 1985). This unidimensional instrument is used frequently (Singley, 2005) and has been subjected to the most intensive validation among existing life satisfaction measures (Erdogan et al., 2012). It comprises five items (e.g., “In most ways my life is close to my ideal.”) rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly agree*). Cronbach’s alpha indicates good reliability in the French validation study ($\alpha = .79 - .84$; Blais et al., 1989).

Job satisfaction was measured with the French *Scale of Global Satisfaction at Work* (Bérubé, Donia, Gagné, Houlfort, & Koestner, 2007; Blais, Lachance, Forget, Richer, & Dulude, 1991). This scale is an adaptation of the *Satisfaction With Life Scale* (Blais et al., 1989; Diener et al., 1985) to the work context. It comprises five items rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly*

disagree) to 7 (*Strongly agree*). Compared to other available job satisfaction instruments, this adaptation by Blais et al. (1991) better captures the cognitive aspect of job satisfaction (Bérubé et al., 2007), which helps to distinguish it from more emotional components of subjective well-being (e.g., positive affect). The alpha varies between .73 and .87 for the different samples used to validate the five-item French version (Bérubé et al., 2007).

To measure *family satisfaction*, we adapted the French version of the *Satisfaction With Life Scale* (Blais et al., 1989), following Canan and Knight's (2001) instructions. They propose replacing the term "life" by "family" in each item. For instance, "I am satisfied with my life." became "I am satisfied with my family." The five items were rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly agree*). The English adapted version demonstrates good reliability ($\alpha = .93$; Canan & Knight, 2001).

Identity Centrality. Work and family identity centrality were each measured with four items from two existing instruments, because having only two items per construct would preclude confirmatory factor analyses. Four items come from Lobel and St. Clair's (1992) identity salience measure, two measuring work identity salience (e.g., "The major satisfactions in my life come from my job.") and two measuring family identity salience (e.g., "The most important things that happen to me involve my family."). Two additional items measured work identity centrality (e.g., "People see me as highly focused on my work.") and two items measured family identity centrality (e.g., "I invest a large part of myself in my family life."; Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006; Kossek et al., 2012). In our study, mean work and family identity centrality scores were computed based on the four items relevant to each domain. The first author of the present study and another scholar specializing in work and organization psychology translated the instrument

into French, following a back-translation procedure (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). Participants responded to the eight items on a rating scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Kossek and colleagues (2012) found alphas from .75 to .76 for work identity centrality and alphas from .77 to .85 for family identity centrality.

Boundary Strength. Work and home boundary strength were measured with the *Work-Nonwork Boundary Strength Measure* (Hecht & Allen, 2009). To obtain a French version of the instrument, the first author and another specialist in the field followed a back-translation procedure (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). The two dimensions of the instrument, work boundary strength (e.g., “I leave my personal life outside of the workplace.”) and home boundary strength (e.g., “I never do work on my personal time.”), were both measured through eight items on a rating scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly agree*). Reliability is satisfying for work boundary strength ($\alpha = .82$) and home boundary strength ($\alpha = .87$; Hecht & Allen, 2009).

Extraversion. Controlling for extraversion appears to be particularly important in studying satisfaction spillover. Extraversion is defined as a combination of talkativeness, sociability and cheerfulness (Lee & Ashton, 2004). It is related to positive affectivity, a general propensity to experience positive emotions (Watson et al., 2002), be it theoretically (Magai, 2008; Tellegen, 1985; Watson & Clark, 1997) or empirically ($r = .62-.67$; Lucas et al., 2000). Following other work-family spillover studies (e.g., Heller & Watson, 2005), we controlled extraversion’s effect on satisfaction variables in all models. Extraversion was measured with the HEXACO-60 (Ashton & Lee, 2009) in its French version (Bérard et al., 2015). The 10 items capturing extraversion (e.g., “In social situations, I’m usually the one who makes the first move.”) were

rated on a scale from 1 (*Totally disagree*) to 5 (*Totally agree*). Cronbach's alpha was .74 in the French version (Bérard et al., 2015).

Measurement Order Bias. A priming effect—“the process by which activated mental constructs can influence how individuals evaluate other concepts and ideas” (Domke et al., 1998, p. 51)—can occur between different measures in the same study. In fact, well-being measures could be influenced by prior instruments in a questionnaire (Schwarz & Strack, 1999). More specifically, placing domain-specific satisfaction measures prior to life satisfaction ones could activate the specific information which could in turn color the more general evaluation (Strack et al., 1988). Therefore, when general and specific measures are included in the same study, it is recommended to place the general measures first (Erdogan et al., 2012). In our study, the life satisfaction measure was therefore completed first. Another priming effect occurs when a domain-specific measure establishes a frame of reference which colors the evaluation of a measure associated with another domain (Voicu, 2015). An alternate sequencing of measures enables control for this bias (Voicu, 2015). In the present study, half of the participants were invited to answer the work-related measures before the family-related measure and the other half were to proceed in the reverse order. In our final sample ($N = 6,077$), 2,990 participants completed the work-related measures first.

Analyses

After a series of preliminary analyses, we used confirmatory factor analyses to verify the validity of translated or modified measures. These included the *Work-Nonwork Boundary Strength Measure*, the identity centrality measure, and the *Satisfaction With Life Scale* adapted to measure family satisfaction. Confirmatory factor analyses were performed using data from T1.

We evaluated our hypothesized model through path analysis using Mplus software version 7.4. We tested parallel models for the two directions of satisfaction spillover. Each direction was examined through a series of models incorporating our hypotheses one by one. First, model 1 tested for the mediation effect only. Job/family satisfaction was measured at T1, life satisfaction at T2, and family/job satisfaction at T3. Second, two other models (2.1 and 2.2) each added one of the two hypothesized moderation effects to the mediation model. The identity centrality moderator was measured at T1, because its co-occurrence with job/family satisfaction could potentiate the influence on life satisfaction. The boundary strength moderator was measured at T2, because satisfaction spillover between work and family is hypothesized to occur between T1 and T3, and we argue that it is during that time that higher boundary strength could hinder this process. Third, model 3 combined, as necessary, all significant moderation effects found in step two and excluded nonsignificant paths from previous models. To verify model fit, CFI, RMSEA and SRMR were examined. The normed chi-square goodness of fit index was not used because it dramatically increases with larger sample size (Marsh et al., 2004). We instead included the SRMR as an alternative absolute fit index benefitting from large sample size (Iacobucci, 2010). We also included the increment fit index of CFI, which is relatively robust with respect to variations in sample size (Iacobucci, 2010). Good fit standards are represented by a CFI above .95, an RMSEA below 0.06, and an SRMR below .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). However, those standards are sometimes judged as being too strict or even impractical, with acceptable fit accomplished outside these cutoff values, particularly for more complex models (Marsh et al., 2005). Standardized regression weights and theoretical fit were also examined for each model.

Because of the high proportion of missing data, our study requires a proper technique to handle missingness. In our study, variables of interest comprise a percentage of missing data between 22.5% and 33.2% at T1, between 32.7 % and 39.3% at T2, and between 37.9% and 43.1% at T3 (see table 6). However, missing data rates are typically above 40% in organizational studies (Baruch, 1999), and we might have expected this rate to be even higher in a longitudinal study. Because the percentage of missing data increased between measurement occasions in our data set, randomness is likely not the sole explanation for missingness. This is corroborated by Little's MCAR test (1988) indicating that this study's data are not missing completely at random ($\chi^2 = 315.1, df = 232, p < .001$).

To resolve any potential issues related to missingness in the present study and include data from participants who did not complete all measures, we performed maximum likelihood analyses with the robust standard error option correcting for non-normality, using Mplus software version 7.4. Maximum likelihood estimation and multiple imputation are optimal techniques for handling missing data because they enhance the accuracy and power of analyses (Schafer & Graham, 2002), without the usual drawbacks of the listwise and pairwise deletion techniques (for an overview, see Enders, 2010). Notably, maximum likelihood estimation is likely to hold an advantage over multiple imputation when testing for interaction effects (Enders, 2010). We included three auxiliary variables—age, gender, and education level—in all models to reduce bias in maximum likelihood estimates without altering the substantive interpretation of regression coefficients (Enders, 2010). As such, auxiliary variables do not constitute controls, because their relationships with model variables have no direct effect on the computation of regression

coefficients, nor on the proportion of variance from the dependent variables explained by the models.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

For all variables, outliers at more than 3.72 standard deviations from the mean were brought back to this cutoff. It was used instead of the usual cutoff (± 3.29 *SD* corresponding to 1/1,000 chances given normal distribution) because our large sample size calls for more relaxed criteria (± 3.72 *SD* corresponding to 1/5,000 chances). Confirmatory factor analyses allowed verification of translated or modified measures' validity. Models for boundary strength and identity centrality were composed of two correlated latent variables representing their two dimensions (work/home boundary strength and work/family identity centrality, respectively). Results are presented in Table 7. The indices suggested acceptable fit overall and justified the use of these measures.

Correlations and descriptive statistics were computed using the maximum likelihood option of Mplus version 7.4 and are presented in Table 6. Job satisfaction at T1 was significantly and positively correlated to family satisfaction at T2 ($r = .19, p < .001$) and T3 ($r = .21, p < .001$), supporting hypothesis H1a, and family satisfaction at T1 was significantly and positively correlated to job satisfaction at T2 ($r = .17, p < .001$) and T3 ($r = .18, p < .001$), supporting hypothesis H1b.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Correlations Using Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Variable	<i>N</i>	Missing %	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Life satisfaction T1	4377	22.5%	5.49	0.97	-										
2. Family satisfaction T1	3874	29.1%	5.88	1.04	.53	-									
3. Job satisfaction T1	4042	26.9%	4.83	1.24	.51	.19	-								
4. Family identity centrality T1	3824	29.8%	4.04	0.69	.22	.45	.04	-							
5. Work identity centrality T1	3988	27.6%	2.69	0.72	.09	-.10	.38	-.20	-						
6. Home boundary strength T1	3565	33.2%	5.58	1.11	.01	.06	-.09	.12	-.34	-					
7. Work boundary strength T1	3565	33.2%	5.22	0.90	.14	.11	.17	.01	.21	.06	-				
8. Life satisfaction T2	3605	32.7%	5.56	0.94	.71	.50	.41	.24	.07	.02	.12	-			
9. Family satisfaction T2	3318	36.5%	5.84	1.05	.48	.74	.19	.41	-.11	.08	.09	.58	-		
10. Job satisfaction T2	3432	35.0%	4.91	1.22	.43	.17	.77	.03	.34	-.08	.15	.47	.22	-	
11. Family identity centrality T2	3284	37.0%	4.03	0.69	.22	.38	.03	.78	-.21	.13	.01	.26	.46	.05	-
12. Work identity centrality T2	3404	35.4%	2.72	0.74	.07	-.10	.34	-.19	.78	-.34	.21	.09	-.10	.38	-.20
13. Home boundary strength T2	3104	39.3%	5.56	1.12	.01	.05	-.09	.10	-.34	.81	.04	.02	.09	-.09	.13
14. Work boundary strength T2	3104	39.3%	5.24	0.91	.13	.10	.14	-.01	.22	.04	.75	.12	.10	.15	.00
15. Life satisfaction T3	3212	37.9%	5.54	0.31	.68	.47	.40	.21	.05	.02	.12	.72	.52	.44	.22
16. Family satisfaction T3	2981	41.0%	5.82	1.08	.49	.71	.21	.40	-.08	.06	.08	.55	.77	.22	.40
17. Job satisfaction T3	3054	40.0%	4.87	1.22	.43	.18	.74	.04	.31	-.06	.13	.44	.22	.81	.05
18. Family identity centrality T3	2958	41.3%	4.04	0.68	.21	.39	.00	.77	-.24	.15	.00	.23	.43	.01	.80
19. Work identity centrality T3	3017	40.5%	2.71	0.75	.08	-.09	.33	-.20	.75	-.34	.21	.08	-.11	.35	-.22
20. Home boundary strength T3	2821	43.1%	5.58	1.12	.02	.05	-.08	.10	-.33	.78	.05	.02	.09	-.10	.13
21. Work boundary strength T3	2821	43.1%	5.23	0.92	.12	.10	.13	.01	.19	.03	.74	.12	.11	.15	.02
22. Extraversion	5765	4.1%	3.59	0.50	.33	.24	.20	.13	.12	-.12	.07	.31	.22	.20	.11
23. Age	4959	14.8%	30.82	3.36	-.02	.00	-.04	.11	-.07	-.05	-.04	-.02	.02	-.04	.11
24. Gender	4958	14.8%	1.39	0.49	.01	.04	-.03	-.13	-.03	-.14	-.01	-.01	.05	-.03	-.14
25. Education level	4964	14.7%	4.65	0.93	.09	.03	.04	-.09	.05	-.11	-.01	.09	.02	.06	-.07

(Continued)

Variable	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
12. Work identity centrality T2	-												
13. Home boundary strength T2	-.36	-											
14. Work boundary strength T2	.23	.08	-										
15. Life satisfaction T3	.06	.00	.12	-									
16. Family satisfaction T3	-.07	.06	.10	.62	-								
17. Job satisfaction T3	.33	-.05	.14	.51	.24	-							
18. Family identity centrality T3	-.24	.15	.01	.24	.44	.03	-						
19. Work identity centrality T3	.80	-.36	.23	.09	-.09	.37	-.25	-					
20. Home boundary strength T3	-.34	.82	.05	.01	.07	-.06	.16	-.37	-				
21. Work boundary strength T3	.22	.05	.79	.14	.12	.16	.01	.23	.07	-			
22. Extraversion	.13	-.12	.08	.29	.23	.18	.10	.13	-.12	.09	-		
23. Age	-.08	-.05	-.03	.00	.02	-.04	.09	-.06	-.05	-.02	.03	-	
24. Gender	-.02	-.13	.00	-.02	.01	-.03	-.14	-.03	-.13	.01	.04	.05	-
25. Education level	.08	-.10	.00	.09	.03	.04	-.07	.10	-.12	.03	.08	.12	-.02

Note. $p < .05$ when $r > .025$; $p < .01$ when $r > .033$; $p < .001$ when $r > .042$; Gender: 'Female' = 1, 'Male' = 2.

Table 7

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses Using Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Model	CFI	RMSEA	CI RMSEA	SRMR
Boundary strength	.90	.064	[.061; .067]	.054
Identity centrality	.94	.103	[.097; .109]	.042
Family satisfaction	.99	.070	[.059; .083]	.012

Note. CI = 95% confidence interval.

Table 8

Results of Path Analysis Models Using Maximum Likelihood Estimation to Predict Family Satisfaction at T3 (Work-to-Family Direction)

Mediator/Dependent variable =	Model 1a		Model 2.1a		Model 2.2a		Model 3a	
	LS (T2)	FS (T3)	LS (T2)	FS (T3)	LS (T2)	FS (T3)	LS (T2)	FS (T3)
β								
Extraversion	.22***	.05*	.23***	.04*	.22***	.05**	.22***	.05*
Job satisfaction (T1)	.40***	-.04	.44***	-.04	.39***	-.02	.39***	
Life satisfaction (T2)		.57***		.57***		.56***		.55***
Work identity centrality (T1)			-.12***					
WIC x JS			.03					
Home boundary strength (T2)						.06**		.06**
HBS x JS						-.05*		-.06*
Indirect effect		.22***		.25***		.22***		-
R^2	.24***	.32***	.25***	.32***	.24***	.32***	.24***	.32***
Fit indices								
CFI		1.00		.98		.98		.98
RMSEA		.000		.055		.043		.034
CI RMSEA		[.000; .000]		[.041; .071]		[.029; .059]		[.021; .047]
SRMR		.000		.023		.018		.018

Note. WIC = Work identity centrality at T1; HBS = Home boundary strength at T2; CI = 95% confidence interval; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Path Analyses

We used Mplus software version 7.4 to conduct maximum likelihood path analysis with the robust standard error option correcting for non-normality. All models included three auxiliary variables (age, gender, and education level) and the extraversion control variable, which predicted the life satisfaction mediator and the family/job satisfaction dependent variable. Separate model sequences were carried out for the work-to-family and family-to-work directions. Fit indices satisfied the norms for all models.

Work-to-Family Spillover. For the work-to-family model sequence, model 1a tested the mediation effect of life satisfaction (T2) on the relationship between job satisfaction (T1) and family satisfaction (T3). Results for work-to-family models are presented in Table 8, indicating that there was a significant indirect effect ($\beta = .22$, 95% CI [.19; .26], $p < .001$), where the positive relationship between job satisfaction and family satisfaction could be explained by life satisfaction. The direct effect was not significant ($p = .147$), indicating a complete mediation. This confirms hypothesis H2a.

Moderating effects were then added separately to the confirmed mediation effect (model 1a). Model 2.1a tested the interaction between job satisfaction (T1) and work identity centrality (T1) to predict life satisfaction (T2). The interaction term did not significantly predict life satisfaction ($\beta = .03$, 95% CI [-.01; .07], $p = .135$), and as such, hypothesis H3a is not supported. Model 2.2a tested the interaction between job satisfaction (T1) and home boundary strength (T2) to predict family satisfaction (T3). The significant interaction ($\beta = -.05$, 95% CI [-.10; -.01], $p = .030$) confirmed hypothesis H4a. In other words, people who tend to protect their home domain

from outside intrusions could be less likely to experience a spillover from job satisfaction to family satisfaction.

Model 3a included the only significant moderation and replicates model 2.2a, but without the non-significant direct link between job and family satisfaction. Results remain stable for the interaction effect ($\beta = -.06$, 95% CI [-.10; -.01], $p = .015$) and confirm the complete mediation effect. Model 3a explained 24% of the variance of life satisfaction and 32% of the variance of family satisfaction.⁵

Family-to-Work Spillover. For the family-to-work model sequence, model 1b tested the mediation effect of life satisfaction (T2) on the relationship between family satisfaction (T1) and job satisfaction (T3). Results for family-to-work models are presented in Table 9 and indicate a significant mediation effect ($\beta = .21$, 95% CI [.17; .24], $p < .001$), where the positive relationship between family satisfaction and job satisfaction can be explained by life satisfaction. The direct effect was not significant ($p = .167$), indicating a complete mediation and confirming hypothesis H2b.

Model 2.1b tested the interaction between family satisfaction (T1) and family identity centrality (T1) to predict life satisfaction (T2). The interaction was significant ($\beta = .11$, 95% CI [.06; .17], $p < .001$), confirming hypothesis H3b. Hence, people for whom family is more central could exhibit more influence of their family satisfaction on their life satisfaction. Model 2.2b

⁵ Additionally, we conducted a chi-square difference test between a model 3a where all regression coefficients were constrained to be equal between women and men, and a model 3a where every coefficient could freely vary between the two groups. There was no statistically significant difference between the models ($\Delta\chi^2 = 5,609$; $\Delta df = 6$; $p = 0,468$), meaning that model 3a applied equivalently to data from women and men.

Table 9

Results of Path Analysis Models Using Maximum Likelihood Estimation to Predict Job Satisfaction at T3 (Family-to-Work Direction)

Mediator/Dependent variable	Model 1b		Model 2.1b		Model 2.2b		Model 3b	
	= LS (T2)	JS (T3)	LS (T2)	JS (T3)	LS (T2)	JS (T3)	LS (T2)	JS (T3)
β								
Extraversion	.20***	.05*	.19***	.05*	.20***	.04*	.19***	.05*
Family satisfaction (T1)	.47***	-.04	.50***	-.04	.47***	-.04	.50***	
Life satisfaction (T2)		.44***		.43***		.43***		.41***
Family identity centrality (T1)			.02				.02	
FIC x FS			.11***				.12***	
Work boundary strength (T2)						.08***		
WBS x FS						.01		
Indirect effect		.21***		.22***		.20***		-
R^2	.30***	.19***	.31***	.19***	.30***	.19***	.31***	.18***
Fit indices								
CFI		1.00		1.00		.99		1.00
RMSEA		.000		.028		.028		.023
CI RMSEA		[.000; .000]		[.013; .045]		[.013; .045]		[.010; .037]
SRMR		.000		.012		.012		.014

Note. FIC = Family identity centrality at T1; WBS = Work boundary strength at T2; CI = 95% confidence interval; * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$.

tested the interaction between family satisfaction (T1) and work boundary strength (T2) to predict job satisfaction (T3). The interaction was not significant ($\beta = .01$, 95% CI [-.04; .06], $p = .703$), leading to the rejection of hypothesis H4b.

Model 3b replicated model 2.1b, but without the nonsignificant direct link between family and job satisfaction. Results remained stable for the interaction effect ($\beta = .12$, 95% CI [.06; .17], $p < .001$) and confirmed the complete mediation effect. Model 3b explained 31% of the variance of life satisfaction and 18% of the variance of job satisfaction.⁶

Discussion

The objective of this study was to determine the mechanisms by which satisfaction spills over from work to family and from family to work. To achieve this, we assembled diverse theoretical propositions in an original and coherent model of satisfaction spillover between work and family, and tested its propositions in a large sample of young workers following a longitudinal design. We integrated work-family interface theories (e.g., Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) and larger theoretical articulations (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000; Diener, 1984; Languilaire, 2009; Markus & Wurf, 1987; Singley, 2005). Using a three-wave longitudinal design, we tested resulting propositions, which were previously only explored through cross-sectional and daily diary designs and without consideration for the full spillover process.

⁶ Additionally, we conducted a chi-square difference test between a model 3b where all regression coefficients were constrained to be equal between women and men, and a model 3b where every coefficient could freely vary between the two groups. There was no statistically significant difference between the models ($\Delta\chi^2 = 12,5$; $\Delta df = 6$; $p = 0,053$), meaning that model 3b applied equivalently to data from women and men.

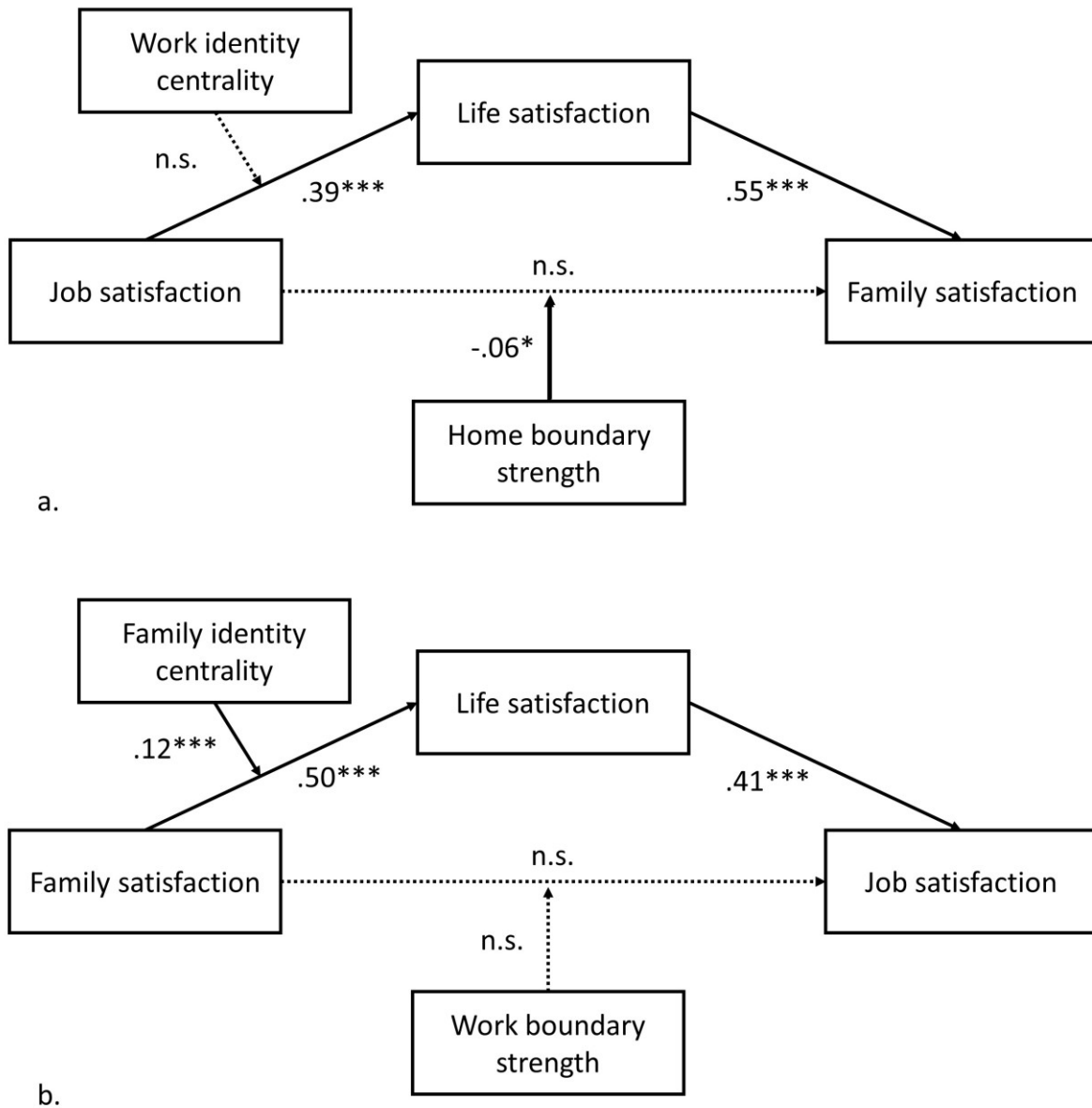


Figure 4. Summary of model 3 results for the work-to-family direction (a) and the family-to-work direction (b). Standardized regression weights are represented.

Figure 4 summarizes the hypothesis testing. Our results confirm the existence of a satisfaction spillover from work to family and from family to work, after controlling for extraversion. They also support the mediating role of life satisfaction in the spillover process for

both directions. Hence, over six months, people could transfer an experience of satisfaction from one domain to another by a two-step process: first, by generalizing domain-specific satisfaction to their entire life, and then, by a trickle-down effect where life satisfaction influences satisfaction in the receiving domain. Of the four moderation hypotheses, two were supported. First, people for whom family is more central to their identity could exhibit greater generalization of family satisfaction to life satisfaction. Second, people who tend to protect their home domain from outside intrusions could experience less satisfaction spillover from work to family.

The confirmed mediating role of life satisfaction for both directions of spillover support bottom-up and top-down approaches to life satisfaction within an adequate time frame. We used a delay of 11 weeks between measurement times, thereby enriching the literature on bottom-up and top-down approaches to life satisfaction, which typically use delays of several years (Cho & Tay, 2016; Headey et al., 1991). This study thus evaluates the direction of the relationship between specific domain satisfaction and life satisfaction and contributes to the present debate on bottom-up and top-down approaches to life satisfaction (Guardiola & Picazo-Tadeo, 2013) by testing a shorter delay consistent with the existence of a set point of well-being (Erdogan et al., 2012; Suh et al., 1996). More generally, although satisfaction spillover between work and family had been postulated theoretically, few longitudinal studies have tested its existence, much less with an adequate time frame. This study is in part a response to a call for longitudinal designs in the literature on the relationship between domain and life satisfaction (Heller et al., 2004; Lent et al., 2005), and was conceived to explore more fully the causal mechanisms at play in satisfaction spillover.

Concerning work/family identity centrality, we found that family satisfaction had a stronger influence on life satisfaction when the family domain was central to one's identity. However, work identity centrality had no effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. This could be explained by the fact that too high a work identity centrality might have negative effects on family satisfaction, which would then negatively influence life satisfaction. The work devotion schema is a prevalent social norm in North America demanding "that those who are truly committed to their work will make it the central or sole focus of their lives" (Williams et al., 2016, p. 515). This schema puts pressure on workers to be highly engaged in this productivity-centered domain. Any supplemental identification to work could engender too high a work engagement that would have negative consequences on other life domains such as family. In support of this hypothesis, work identity centrality was negatively correlated to family satisfaction in our study. Since family satisfaction predicts life satisfaction, high levels of work identity centrality could indirectly lower life satisfaction, which would preclude finding a significant moderation on the job satisfaction-life satisfaction relationship. Another explanation for the results could be that participants were public sector workers. Given that workers typically choose to work in this sector for work-life balance concerns (Buelens & Broeck, 2007), it is likely that they attribute greater importance to family satisfaction when evaluating their global life satisfaction. Future studies could validate our findings with private sector workers.

Another possible hypothesis concerning identity centrality and work-family spillover of satisfaction is that the more central a domain is, the more likely it is to receive spillover. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) propose that the salience of the receiving domain moderates the influence of the originating domain on the receiving domain. More precisely, people will want to

invest more of themselves and nourish the receiving domain if that domain constitutes a “significant source of self-identity” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 86). However, since spillover is largely unintentional (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), the moderating role of receiving domain identity centrality could be limited. Hence, family domain importance has been linked to home-to-work positive spillover ($r = .29$) more than to work-to-home spillover ($r = .16$) and work domain importance has been linked to work-to-home positive spillover ($r = .32$) but not to home-to-work positive spillover (Wolfram & Gratton, 2014). It would nonetheless be worthwhile to explore this possibility in future research.

We looked at how lower boundary strength might enhance positive spillover, to go beyond previous studies that mainly positioned boundary strength in terms of the positive consequences of segmenting work and personal life (e.g., Michel et al., 2014). We found support, be it of weak magnitude, for the role of home boundary strength in limiting satisfaction spillover from work to family, but no support for the role of work boundary strength in limiting the spillover from family to work. This is consistent with the results of a study by Leduc et al. (2016), which showed that integrating work into nonwork life predicts work-to-family enrichment, but that integrating nonwork life into work does not predict family-to-work enrichment. These results refine work-family interface theories (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) by showing that processes for work-to-family and family-to-work spillover present different mechanisms. For instance, workers and employers may hold a negative bias against low work boundary strength. Given the shared work devotion schema (Williams et al., 2016), integrating family-related elements in the work setting might be mostly seen as favoring unwelcome

intrusions and could signal poor work devotion. On the contrary, including work elements in the family context, such as telecommuting, is more frequent and held in positive regard.

An interesting avenue for future research could involve linking identity centrality with boundary permeability. Hence, the moderating role of family identity centrality is coherent with the fact that individuals want to integrate the domains they most identify with into others (Ashforth et al., 2000). In that sense, the more central a domain identity, the more likely this domain is to intervene in another (Kossek et al., 2012), meaning the second domain would exhibit lower boundary strength. From the perspective of receiving domain centrality, Clark (2000) argues that a “more powerful” domain usually has higher boundary strength. Accordingly, individuals who identify strongly with a domain will be more satisfied with their work-family balance when this domain has strong boundaries (Clark, 2000). Consistent with Ashforth et al.’s (2000) and Clark’s (2000) contention, work identity centrality has been positively linked to work interrupting nonwork behaviors and negatively linked to nonwork interrupting work behaviors, while family identity centrality has been positively linked to nonwork interrupting work behaviors and negatively linked to work interrupting nonwork behaviors ($r = -.13$ to $r = -.22$; Kossek et al., 2012).

The focus of this study on a sample of young workers between the ages of 18 and 35 allowed us to examine work-family issues in the context of a population that experiences them more intensely. This population’s typically lower boundary strength (Spieler et al., 2018) allows observation of more intensive work-family spillover. It is important to study this population as it typically presents more difficulties in managing the work-family interface, characterized by lower work-family balance (Spieler et al., 2018) and higher work-family conflict (Hill et al.,

2014). Future studies should evaluate if our results stand for older cohorts of workers. This seems likely, as Hill et al. (2014) found that a work-family interface model remained constant for young, middle-aged and older workers. Hence, our model could also be applicable to workers aged 35 and over.

Our study suggests practical implications. Globally, a better understanding of satisfaction spillover can guide actions that would facilitate a positive spillover originating from the domain where one experiences more satisfaction. Our study constitutes a counterweight to the general tendency to view work and family as two competing domains. Specifically, family satisfaction could contribute to enhancing job satisfaction, and inversely. The spillover demonstrated in this study suggests that organizations could invest in facilitating their employees' family lives and that this could have positive effects on job satisfaction over time. In particular, offering policies such as flexible schedules (Glass & Finley, 2002), telecommuting (Kossek et al., 2006), and parental leaves (Glass & Riley, 1998) could provide beneficial returns in the workplace. In parallel, individuals could also tap into strategies based on the spillover process documented here. Instead of seeing reflections about family/work as unwelcome distractions at work/in the family, reflection regarding positive family/work events could be encouraged with moderation, because positive reflections could facilitate a positive cognitive spillover (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014). Sharing positive family events with coworkers or sharing positive work events with family members could also help enhance positive spillover between the two domains, a strategy called *work-family interpersonal capitalization* (Ilies et al., 2015). Results on the moderating role of boundary strength in work-to-family spillover suggest that training employees on how to manage work-home boundaries could prove beneficial. Depending on the level of job satisfaction,

segmenting or integrating strategies could, respectively, enhance the transference of satisfaction to the family or limit the negative influence of low job satisfaction (Ilies et al., 2009).

This study presents some limitations that suggest relevant future research paths. First, given our young sample, an important proportion of participants did not have children (43.8%), as was the case in other satisfaction spillover studies (e.g., 48%; Ilies et al., 2009). Focusing on childless individuals may be incompatible with a certain conceptualization of work-family balance where caring for children is an important part of family responsibilities that compete with work responsibilities. However, we chose to define family as “persons sharing a residence and household who are related by biological ties, marriage, social custom, or adoption” (Piotrkowski et al., 1987, p. 252). This definition is likely to encompass newly diverse family structures (Voydanoff, 2014) and enhance the generalizability of our conclusions. Additionally, it would be interesting to contrast the experience of the work-family interface of parents and of adults living with their parents. To our knowledge, no study to date has investigated the work-family dynamics of young adults living with their parents. In our study, 91.8% of the participants were either cohabiting under common-law status (69.7%), married (20.7%) or separated/divorced (1.4%). Moreover, 91.7% of participants cared for no dependent adult. Consequently, young adults living with their parents are likely to compose only a small part of our sample and should be studied in more depth in future studies.

Second, this study represents the first complete examination of the satisfaction spillover process between two of the most studied life domains. Future studies could investigate if similar processes hold true for other domains, such as community, leisure or friendship. They could also

integrate the proposition that spillover is not necessarily a bidirectional phenomenon, but likely occurs simultaneously between three or more domains (Rothbard & Ollier-Malaterre, 2016).

Third, work-family spillover is embedded in a social context, the influence of which could be investigated in future studies (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017). For instance, the cultural variable of gender egalitarianism could influence how much work-family enrichment is experienced by men versus women (Beham et al., 2017). Given that the interpretation of our results relies on the work devotion schema, which is described as a typically North American phenomenon (Williams et al., 2016), our results could vary in different cultural contexts. Finally, the present study focuses on the individual process of spillover. However, inter-individual mechanisms could also play a role in satisfaction spillover. For instance, family members or coworkers can act as border-keepers and could be “especially influential in defining the domain and border” (Clark, 2000, p. 761). A phenomenon of crossover could also exist, where attitudes and feelings of one domain member could affect the attitudes and feelings of another domain member (Westman, 2001).

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Conclusion

L'objectif de cette thèse était d'évaluer un ensemble cohérent de mécanismes médiateurs et modérateurs pouvant influencer le débordement de bien-être psychologique (BEP) entre le travail et la famille. Cet objectif est justifié par la littérature antérieure qui présentait une compréhension pour le moins partielle de ces mécanismes. Certains mécanismes étaient postulés théoriquement, mais très peu d'évaluations empiriques de ceux-ci existaient. Par ailleurs, bien que le BEP au travail eût été relié au BEP dans la famille, les chercheurs ne s'attardaient pas au processus complet permettant de comprendre comment cette influence était possible. Cette compréhension partielle des mécanismes de débordement du BEP entre le travail et la famille s'explique de plusieurs façons. D'une part, les études antérieures sur ce thème avaient tendance à utiliser des devis transversaux (Hanson et al., 2006) qui sont inadéquats pour représenter la nature processuelle des mécanismes évalués. Lorsque des devis longitudinaux étaient préconisés, leur cadre temporel trop long (p. ex., Cho & Tay, 2016) ou trop court (p. ex., Ilies et al., 2015) ne permettait pas de capturer maximallement le processus de débordement. D'autre part, l'utilisation de concepts et mesures englobant l'ensemble du débordement (p. ex., enrichissement travail-famille ; Carlson et al., 2006) ne permettait pas de comprendre les mécanismes internes par lesquels le débordement de BEP est possible. Pour pallier cet état de fait, la présente thèse posait la question de recherche suivante : quels sont les mécanismes qui influencent le débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille?

Globalement, cette thèse a démontré que le débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille existe. Ainsi, il semble que le ressenti psychologique positif d'une personne dans un domaine puisse se transférer au ressenti propre à un autre domaine. En effet, nos modèles expliquent entre 12% et 32% de la variance du BEP dans le domaine recevant. Nous nous

sommes par ailleurs attardés à plusieurs mécanismes pouvant expliquer ce débordement.

D'abord, la performance au travail semble expliquer le débordement de BEP de la vie hors travail vers le travail, que ce soit au cours d'une même journée ou sur un intervalle de sept mois et demi. Ainsi, quelqu'un qui est heureux dans sa vie hors travail pourrait avoir tendance à être plus performant au travail, ce qui augmenterait son bien-être en milieu de travail.

Ensuite, la satisfaction dans la vie en général est un mécanisme médiateur qui agit tant dans la direction de débordement travail vers famille que famille vers travail. Il semblerait que les individus généralisent à leur vie une perception de bien-être propre à un domaine. Cette perception générale de bien-être pourrait par la suite découler sur un second domaine. Puis, plus un individu accorde d'importance à sa famille, plus sa satisfaction dans la famille influencerait sa satisfaction dans la vie en général, potentialisant ainsi l'effet médiateur de la satisfaction dans la vie dans le débordement de la famille vers le travail. Par contre, la centralité du travail dans l'identité n'aurait pas d'effet sur la relation entre la satisfaction au travail et la satisfaction dans la vie en général. Finalement, la force des frontières entourant la famille limiterait le débordement de BEP du travail vers la famille. En conséquence, quelqu'un qui aurait tendance à protéger sa vie familiale des influences de son travail laisserait moins sa satisfaction envers son travail nourrir sa satisfaction dans sa famille. Cependant, la force des frontières entourant le travail n'aurait pas d'effet modérateur sur le débordement famille vers travail. Un schéma résumant les résultats est présenté aux figures 5 et 6.

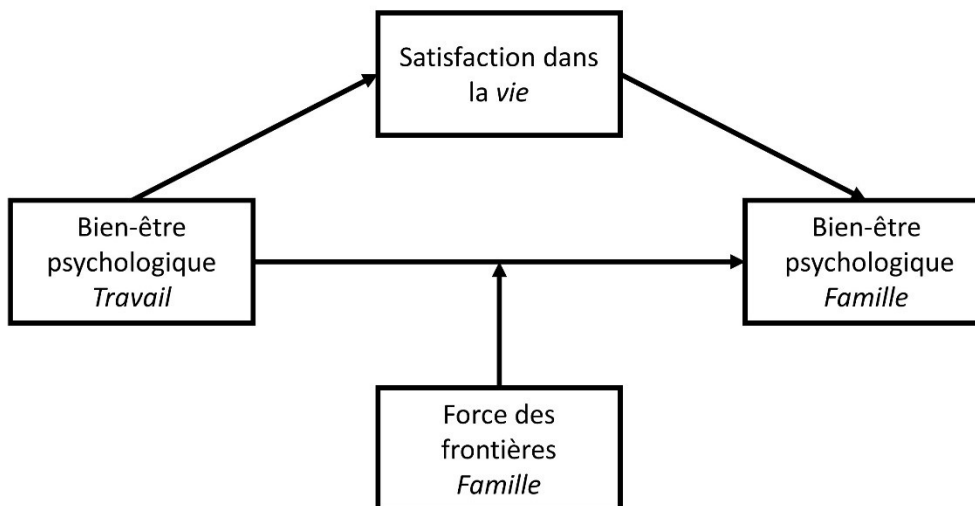


Figure 5. Schéma récapitulatif des résultats pour le débordement de bien-être psychologique du travail vers la famille. Tous les résultats proviennent du deuxième article.

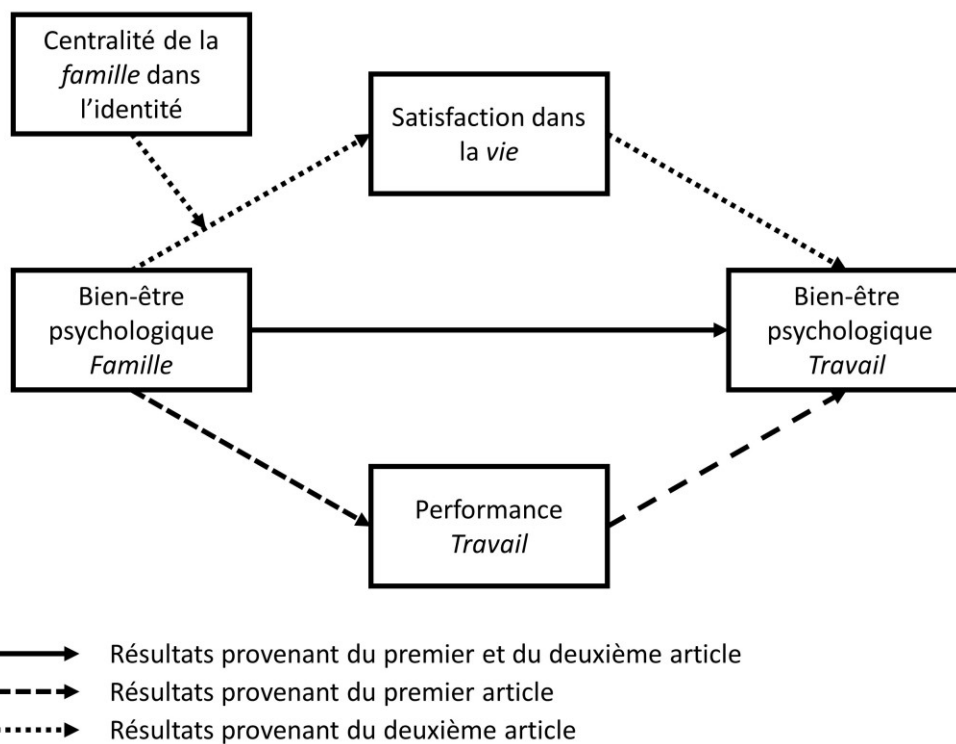


Figure 6. Schéma récapitulatif des résultats pour le débordement de bien-être psychologique de la famille vers le travail.

Principales contributions de la thèse

L'exploration des mécanismes internes du débordement de bien-être psychologique entre le travail et la famille. L'une des principales contributions de cette thèse est l'exploration des mécanismes internes au débordement positif. Nos choix méthodologiques ont pallié les lacunes des études antérieures qui ne permettaient pas la pleine compréhension du processus de débordement. D'une part, nous avons étudié des mécanismes précis qui pouvaient opérer à l'intérieur de ce processus comme médiateurs ou modérateurs, plutôt que de voir le débordement comme une boîte noire en le mesurant dans son ensemble, comme le faisaient plusieurs études antérieures. Ceci nous a permis d'identifier quatre variables qui peuvent faciliter ou limiter le débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille, soit la performance dans le domaine recevant, la satisfaction dans la vie, la centralité dans l'identité du domaine d'origine et la force des frontières du domaine recevant.

D'autre part, cette étude a répondu à l'appel pour plus d'études longitudinales dans l'étude de la relation entre travail et famille (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014), la relation entre BEP et performance (Lazarova et al., 2010), et la relation entre le BEP général et spécifique à des domaines (Heller et al., 2004; Lent et al., 2005). Les devis longitudinaux utilisés s'accordent avec l'objectif d'explorer le processus de débordement tel qu'il se déploie dans le temps.

Une réelle évaluation des processus dans le temps. Par l'utilisation de devis longitudinaux, cette thèse a mis un accent particulier sur l'évaluation processuelle des mécanismes postulés. L'étude 1 du premier article de thèse a évalué le débordement cognitif de bien-être avec un intervalle de sept mois et demi entre les deux temps de mesure. Dans le second article, une attention particulière a été portée au choix du délai entre les temps de

mesures. Le délai de trois mois choisi permet de capter maximale-ment le débordement puisqu'il permet de limiter l'effet du point d'ancrage (*en anglais : set-point*) du BEP, selon lequel l'impact d'un événement sur le BEP ne serait que temporaire avant son retour au niveau habituel de l'individu (Erdogan et al., 2012). En effet, peu importe l'impact d'un événement sur le bien-être d'une personne, il s'ensuit une adaptation à ce changement qui fait en sorte que le BEP revient graduellement à son niveau habituel (Myers & Diener, 1995). Par exemple, Suh, Diener et Fujita (1996) ont trouvé que seuls les événements de vie ayant eu lieu dans les trois derniers mois permettent de prédire le BEP d'une personne. Le délai choisi permet également d'enrichir notre compréhension des effets *bottom-up* et *top-down* du BEP (Singley, 2005) puisqu'il ajuste l'intervalle temporel par rapport aux études antérieures qui utilisaient des délais de plusieurs années (p. ex., Cho & Tay, 2016) susceptibles à l'effet du point d'ancrage. Il contribue aussi à la littérature sur le débordement de satisfaction qui utilisait majoritairement des devis par journaux de bord à plus court terme (p. ex., Ilies et al., 2015).

De futures études pourraient s'attarder à explorer d'autres avenues au niveau de la temporalité des mécanismes de débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille. Bien que le premier article ait permis de distinguer des processus affectifs et cognitifs de débordement, ces processus pourraient s'inscrire dans des cadres temporels distincts. En effet, le débordement positif pourrait opérer selon deux processus agissant à l'intérieur de délais temporels distincts (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Le premier processus impliquerait des mécanismes affectifs et se produirait selon un délai temporel de quelques jours (MacDermid et al., 2002). Par exemple, Hanson et ses collaboratrices (2006) suggèrent que le débordement positif affectif soit moins stable que le débordement de comportements ou de valeurs. Ce premier processus opérerait sur des conceptualisations plus changeantes du BEP, tels les affects

positifs. Le deuxième processus en serait un au niveau cognitif et son déploiement pourrait prendre place sur une plus longue période de temps (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014). Il impliquerait des conceptualisations plus stables du BEP, telle la satisfaction.

Bien que cette thèse ait évalué la plupart des mécanismes postulés dans un délai temporel de quelques mois, il pourrait être intéressant de faire appel à des études par journaux de bord afin de mieux comprendre les processus affectifs entourant le débordement de BEP. Ce genre de devis a été conseillé (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014). Sachant que jusqu'à 42% de la variance des affects positifs serait attribuable à des variations intra-individuelles journalières (Heller, 2003), une étude par journaux de bord permettrait d'accéder à ces variations quotidiennes. Au niveau de l'analyse des mécanismes de débordement, une étude par journaux de bord aurait plusieurs avantages. D'abord, un devis par journaux de bord permettrait de valider les résultats de la deuxième étude de notre premier article par un devis plus solide que notre devis transversal portant sur les expériences au cours d'une journée. Ensuite, il pourrait également être intéressant d'évaluer par journaux de bord les mécanismes modérateurs de centralité d'un domaine dans l'identité et de force des frontières. Il est possible que ces mécanismes soient plus actifs à court terme. Par exemple, la force des frontières pourrait varier régulièrement, que ce soit en fonction du moment de la semaine (p.ex., fin de semaine versus semaine) ou en fonction des aspects du travail impliqués (p. ex., rédaction versus rencontres de comités ; Maertz & Boyar, 2011). À ce titre, Ilies, Wilson et Wagner (2009) ont trouvé dans une étude par journaux de bord que la force des frontières modérait l'influence de la satisfaction au travail sur les affects positifs à la maison, mais non sur la satisfaction conjugale. Ces résultats soulignent l'importance de choisir une conceptualisation du BEP qui

s'accorde au cadre temporel de l'étude. Ainsi, les affects positifs, plus changeants, pourraient être privilégiés pour de futures études par journaux de bord.

Une compréhension plus fine du rôle de la performance dans le débordement de bien-être psychologique. Plutôt que de traiter la performance au travail de manière générale, le premier article de cette thèse a distingué ses dimensions de performance contextuelle et de performance de tâche. Ceci a permis de confirmer le rôle de ces deux types de performance dans le débordement de BEP. Plus précisément, nous avons trouvé que la relation entre la satisfaction par rapport à la vie et le bien-être eudémonique au travail pouvait être expliquée par des comportements au travail comme le fait d'encourager ses collègues ou de persister dans des tâches difficiles (performance contextuelle). De plus, les affects positifs dans la famille pourraient déborder sur les affects positifs au travail par le biais de comportements contribuant directement à la production de biens ou de services (performance de tâche). Ces résultats permettent d'enrichir la documentation empirique sur les liens entre ces deux types de performance et diverses conceptualisations du BEP au travail et hors-travail. Au niveau théorique, nos résultats permettent d'apporter des nuances aux théories de l'interface travail-hors travail (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) en précisant les types de performance qui peuvent jouer un rôle dans le débordement positif.

Afin de garantir l'adéquation du modèle de mesure, nous avons dû retirer des items de l'échelle de performance contextuelle de Van Scotter et Motowidlo (1996). Nos résultats soutiennent donc qu'une certaine portion de la performance contextuelle captée par la mesure modifiée agit dans le débordement de satisfaction de vie vers le bien-être eudémonique au travail. De futures études pourraient néanmoins s'assurer d'avoir recours à une opérationnalisation plus complète du construit de performance contextuelle. Une solution

serait d'utiliser des mesures qui ont été validées auprès de la population ciblée par l'étude, comme l'échelle de performance appliquée aux soins infirmiers (Greenslade & Jimmieson, 2007).

La compréhension des liens entre le bien-être psychologique général et le bien-être psychologique propre à des domaines de vie. Cette thèse contribue également à la littérature sur les approches *bottom-up* et *top-down* du BEP. Ces approches supposent respectivement que la satisfaction dans la vie se construit à partir de la satisfaction propre à des domaines de vie, ou que la satisfaction associée à des domaines particuliers découle d'une satisfaction générale envers la vie (Diener, 1984; Singley, 2005). Il existe un débat quant à laquelle des deux approches serait la plus représentative de la séquence causale relative à la construction du sentiment personnel de bien-être (Guardiola & Picazo-Tadeo, 2013). Cette thèse appuie la position selon laquelle les deux directions d'influence opéreraient simultanément (Schimmack, 2008; Voicu, 2015), puisque les résultats du deuxième article soutiennent que la satisfaction propre à un domaine de vie influence la satisfaction dans la vie (*bottom-up*) et inversement (*top-down*), que ce soit en ce qui concerne la satisfaction au travail ou la satisfaction dans la famille. Tel qu'évoqué précédemment, la présente thèse étend les études antérieures sur les approches *bottom-up* et *top-down* du bien-être qui utilisaient des devis longitudinaux avec des délais de plusieurs années (p. ex., Cho & Tay, 2016), en confirmant ces résultats selon un intervalle de 11 semaines. Cet intervalle est plus adéquat pour capter maximale l'influence mutuelle des composantes de BEP, étant donné l'existence d'un point d'ancrage du BEP (Erdogan et al., 2012) se situant autour de trois mois (Suh et al., 1996).

Une autre implication de cette thèse relative au lien entre le BEP général et le BEP propre à un domaine de vie est l'établissement d'une distinction claire entre ces deux aspects

du bien-être. En effet, certaines études en contexte organisationnel ont tendance à considérer le BEP au travail à travers des conceptualisations de BEP général (Warr, 2006). Les mesures spécifiques à un contexte démontrent cependant une meilleure validité de critère par rapport aux mesures générales (Schmit et al., 1995). De plus, en raison du rôle médiateur distinct de la satisfaction dans la vie, nos résultats supportent qu'il soit pertinent de distinguer le bien-être général du bien-être au travail afin d'obtenir une compréhension plus fine de leur influence réciproque. En somme, nos résultats soutiennent que les BEPs au travail et dans la vie s'influencent mutuellement et qu'il est avantageux de les considérer comme des construits distincts dans de futures études. Les trois prochaines contributions découlent de la qualité des échantillons sur lesquels cette thèse s'appuie.

La généralisation des résultats. Cette thèse s'appuie sur trois échantillons provenant de milieux variés, ce qui a permis d'évaluer comment le débordement de bien-être s'opère dans différents contextes. Le premier article repose sur un échantillon de travailleurs du domaine de la santé et un échantillon d'étudiants de programmes de formation continue, alors que le deuxième article s'appuie sur des travailleurs provenant d'une variété d'emplois du secteur public.

Certaines catégories de travailleurs sont tout de même surreprésentées au sein de nos échantillons. D'une part, la proportion de femmes est majoritaire dans l'étude du deuxième article et fortement prépondérante dans les deux études du premier article. De futures études devraient s'attarder à répliquer nos résultats auprès d'échantillons à plus forte proportion masculine. D'autre part, la grande majorité de nos participants travaillaient au sein du secteur public. Les conditions de travail de ce secteur, régies par des conventions collectives, diffèrent de celles du secteur privé. Il serait donc pertinent de vérifier dans quelle mesure nos résultats

reflètent également les dynamiques de l'interface travail-hors travail au sein d'entreprises privées.

La puissance statistique. L'ensemble des collectes de données de la thèse ont rejoint 6793 participants, ce qui a permis d'obtenir une puissance statistique adéquate. Ceci était particulièrement important pour le deuxième article qui évaluait des effets de modération, puisque ces effets ont tendance à être petits et que les études en sciences organisationnelles disposent souvent d'une puissance trop faible pour les capter (Murphy & Russell, 2017).

L'étude d'une population à risque. Les jeunes travailleurs constituent une population particulièrement propice à l'étude de l'interface travail-famille. Le deuxième article ciblait spécifiquement les travailleurs entre 18 et 35 ans, alors que la moyenne d'âge du deuxième échantillon du premier article était de 30 ans. L'étude de l'interface travail-famille sur une population de jeunes travailleurs est avisée pour plusieurs raisons. D'abord, ce stade de vie en est un durant lequel plusieurs changements se produisent à la fois au travail et dans le contexte familial. Par exemple, c'est une période où les changements d'emplois sont plus fréquents, influençant le reste d'une trajectoire de carrière (Mukoyama & Zhang, 2019). Il s'agit également du moment auquel les travailleurs font typiquement le choix de fonder une famille, ce qui apporte des demandes grandissantes en lien avec ce domaine de vie (Hill et al., 2014). Ensuite, les jeunes travailleurs pourraient vivre plus intensément l'interface travail-famille. En effet, ils ont tendance à intégrer davantage leurs domaines de vie (Spieler et al., 2018), ce qui pourrait accroître la fréquence des interactions entre ceux-ci (Ashforth et al., 2000; Rothbard et al., 2005). Enfin, la situation des jeunes en termes de conciliation travail-famille est loin d'être enviable, ce qui soutient la pertinence de s'y attarder pour l'améliorer. Notamment, les

jeunes rapportent un plus faible équilibre travail-famille (Spieler et al., 2018) et plus de conflits entre ces deux sphères de vie (Hill et al., 2014).

Implications pratiques

Étant donné le caractère novateur de l'exploration des mécanismes associés au débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille, il serait prudent de répliquer les résultats de cette thèse avant d'appliquer leurs implications dans la pratique. Les résultats présentés offrent tout de même des pistes d'action, que ce soit au niveau individuel, organisationnel ou sociétal.

Sur le plan individuel, nos résultats soutiennent qu'il existe un débordement entre l'expérience de bien-être au travail et dans la famille. En ce sens, les travailleurs pourraient mettre en place certaines stratégies pour favoriser leur BEP dans ces deux sphères de vie. Le débordement positif pourrait être vécu à travers des réflexions positives par rapport à l'autre domaine de vie. Par exemple, le fait de réfléchir à des aspects positifs de son travail lorsqu'à la maison pourrait favoriser une influence positive du travail sur la famille (Daniel & Sonnentag, 2014). Une autre stratégie consisterait à discuter d'événements positifs reliés au travail avec les membres de sa famille (Ilies et al., 2015). Nos résultats supportent par ailleurs que la force des frontières de la famille puisse limiter le débordement de BEP du travail vers la famille. Ceci suggère qu'il pourrait être particulièrement judicieux de laisser des interruptions positives reliées au travail pénétrer dans la sphère familiale, notamment tel que décrit par les stratégies précédentes. Par exemple, lorsqu'à la maison, il pourrait être profitable de réfléchir à un projet du travail qui est particulièrement intéressant. Un autre résultat porteur sur le plan individuel est le fait que la satisfaction envers la famille contribue à augmenter la satisfaction dans la vie, particulièrement pour les personnes qui accordent une grande importance à leur

vie familiale. Ainsi, une personne pourrait se questionner quant à l'importance qu'elle accorde à sa famille et, si celle-ci est grande, mettre en œuvre le nécessaire pour s'épanouir dans ce domaine, par exemple en y accordant du temps ou en s'engageant dans des projets familiaux positifs.

En ce qui concerne les implications pour les organisations, nos résultats soulignent que la famille ne doit pas être uniquement considérée comme un domaine en compétition avec le travail pour le temps et l'énergie des employés. Des synergies positives peuvent jouer à l'interface entre le travail et la famille. Notamment, le BEP dans la famille peut déborder sur le BEP vécu au travail. Il pourrait donc s'avérer pertinent d'investir dans des politiques touchant la vie familiale afin de favoriser le bien-être des travailleurs. En particulier, le télétravail, l'horaire flexible et les congés parentaux pourraient contribuer à cette synergie positive. Notamment, le télétravail serait associé à moins de symptômes de dépression (Kossek et al., 2006), les horaires flexibles seraient reliés à plus de BEP (Glass & Finley, 2002) et la longueur d'un congé parental influencerait le maintien en emploi (Glass & Riley, 1998). Faire preuve de flexibilité dans l'application de ces politiques permettrait aux travailleurs qui accordent la plus grande importance à leur famille d'en bénéficier maximale. Par ailleurs, il est important de considérer les mécanismes médiateurs lorsqu'une intervention ou une politique organisationnelle visant à favoriser le débordement de la famille vers le travail est implantée. En ce sens, un suivi sur la performance au travail devrait être réalisé pour s'assurer d'éliminer les barrières potentielles au niveau de ce mécanisme qui potentialise l'effet du bien-être dans la famille sur le bien-être au travail.

De façon plus générale, alors que les politiques de conciliation travail-famille sont de plus en plus populaires, des chercheurs commencent à identifier des désavantages au fait de

bénéficiaire de ces opportunités. Par exemple, l'utilisation de politiques qui ajoutent à la flexibilité du travailleur (p. ex., télétravail ou congés parentaux) pourrait envoyer à l'employeur un signal de faible dévouement au travail, ce qui pourrait nuire à la progression de carrière de l'employé (Bourdeau et al., 2019). En conséquence, lorsque de telles politiques sont offertes, il est important d'évaluer et d'intervenir sur les normes implicites entourant leur utilisation.

Bien que la perspective adoptée par cette thèse soit de niveau individuel, les résultats démontrant la synergie possible entre travail et famille supportent indirectement des implications au niveau de la société dans son ensemble. Le fait que l'expérience familiale puisse déborder positivement sur l'expérience au travail justifie l'implantation de politiques publiques visant la famille, non seulement pour les bénéfices directs qu'elles engendrent dans ce domaine, mais également pour les effets positifs, notamment d'ordre économique, qui pourraient en découler au travail. Par exemple, certaines politiques publiques facilitent l'expérience d'avoir des enfants, telles que le congé parental et les garderies subventionnées par l'État. Ces politiques auraient également un effet positif sur la productivité économique, en augmentant l'accès des organisations à des travailleurs qualifiés, et en réduisant le taux de roulement et les absences, notamment (Boushey, 2016). Au Québec, le Régime québécois d'assurance parentale établi en 2006 couvre jusqu'à 70% du revenu d'un parent pour une période allant jusqu'à 55 semaines (Gouvernement du Québec, 2018), alors que le Programme de place en garderie à contribution réduite permet aux familles à bas revenu d'accéder à une place en garderie pour un tarif quotidien de 8,25\$ (Gouvernement du Québec, 2019). Ces programmes sont généreux et les résultats de cette thèse soutiennent indirectement leur maintien pour favoriser le BEP en contexte familial et au sein des organisations.

Avenues de recherches futures

De futures recherches pourront construire sur les avancées scientifiques réalisées à travers cette thèse. D'abord, les données sur lesquelles repose cette thèse sont toutes de nature autorapportée. En ce sens, l'évaluation des relations entre des expériences subjectives propres à deux domaines de vie serait particulièrement susceptible aux biais de variance commune dus à la méthode (Barnett, 1998). Toutefois, ces biais n'auraient qu'un effet minimal sur la relation entre la satisfaction dans la vie et la satisfaction propre à des domaines (Schimmack, 2008). De surcroît, en ce qui concerne l'évaluation de modérations, les biais de variance commune dus à la méthode ne faciliteraient pas les erreurs de type 1, mais pourraient contribuer à augmenter le risque d'erreur de type 2 (Evans, 1985). Ainsi, ces biais induiraient des résultats d'interaction plus conservateurs. De futures études pourraient s'attarder à recueillir la perspective d'autres personnes, que ce soit en contexte de travail ou dans la famille (Dunn & O'Brien, 2013). Bien qu'il puisse être difficile d'obtenir des données provenant d'autres sources sur des enjeux sensibles tels l'interface travail-famille (Valcour, 2007), la performance au travail pourrait être évaluée par le supérieur immédiat ou par des indicateurs objectifs, alors que le BEP pourrait faire l'objet d'une évaluation par les collègues de travail (travail) ou par le conjoint ou la conjointe (famille).

Cette thèse a mis l'accent sur l'interface entre deux domaines des plus importants dans la vie de nombreuses personnes. S'ancrer dans la littérature sur les relations entre les deux domaines de vie les plus étudiés a permis d'approfondir notre compréhension des mécanismes de leur influence mutuelle. De futures études pourraient cependant s'attarder à évaluer les relations du travail avec d'autres domaines de vie comme la communauté ou les loisirs. Ceci serait pertinent puisque chaque domaine pourrait avoir une contribution positive unique sur le

vécu au travail. Par exemple, Kirchmeyer (1992) a trouvé qu'alors que la famille offrait davantage une protection contre les problèmes du travail, le travail communautaire fournissait des idées et de la valeur en contexte de travail, et les loisirs permettaient d'accroître l'énergie disponible et de se détacher des problèmes du travail. Le travail communautaire et les loisirs pourraient donc avoir des contributions uniques au débordement positif qu'il serait intéressant d'explorer. Par ailleurs, la majorité de la littérature sur l'interface travail-hors travail a considéré l'influence mutuelle de domaines pris deux à deux, comme ce fut le cas dans cette thèse. Il est néanmoins envisageable que le débordement se produise simultanément entre plus de deux domaines (Rothbard & Ollier-Malaterre, 2016). De futures études pourraient ainsi évaluer des modèles plus complexes où plus de deux domaines de vie s'influencent mutuellement. La satisfaction dans la vie constitue un mécanisme probable unissant plusieurs domaines étant données les approches *bottom-up* et *top-down* qui pourraient s'appliquer à l'ensemble des domaines de vie (Diener, 1984).

Une autre piste de recherche intéressante serait le rôle du genre dans le débordement travail-hors travail. Ce rôle reste incompris puisque son évaluation empirique a mené à des résultats contradictoires (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Par exemple, les femmes pourraient être plus portées à voir le travail comme une échappatoire aux pressions de leurs exigences familiales (Hochschild, 1997). Ainsi, le débordement positif du travail vers la famille pourrait être plus grand pour les femmes. Ceci est cohérent avec le fait que les affects positifs au travail seraient reliés à la satisfaction dans la famille uniquement pour les femmes (Dunn & O'Brien, 2013), ainsi que la proposition que les hommes auraient davantage tendance à segmenter leurs domaines de vie par suite des différences de socialisation quant aux rôles de genre (Rothbard, 2001). Les résultats de Rothbard vont cependant à contre-courant en ce que le débordement

positif du travail vers la famille opérerait uniquement chez les hommes. Des chercheurs (p. ex., ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) suggèrent d'évaluer les différences de genres quant au processus de l'interface travail-hors travail. De futures études pourraient ainsi viser à mettre au clair le rôle du genre dans le débordement de BEP.

Nous nous sommes attardés aux mécanismes médiateurs de performance et de satisfaction dans la vie de manière indépendante. Ces deux mécanismes pourraient cependant s'imbriquer pour former un processus de débordement plus complexe qu'il serait opportun d'étudier. Plus précisément, il semblerait que le BEP général (satisfaction dans la vie, humeur ou affects positifs) puisse prédire la performance dans le domaine recevant. En effet, le processus de débordement entre l'humeur du domaine d'origine et celle du domaine recevant impliquerait le passage successif par les médiateurs d'humeur générale et de performance dans le rôle recevant (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Par ailleurs, la théorie *broaden-and-build* soutient que les affects positifs généraux puissent contribuer à une meilleure performance, parce qu'ils permettent de considérer un plus large éventail de possibilités d'action et qu'ils favorisent l'émergence de ressources personnelles (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001). De plus, une méta-analyse soutient que les affects positifs influencent la performance dans plusieurs domaines, dont le travail et le mariage (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005).

En terminant, certains enjeux de définition et de conceptualisation du débordement de BEP ont été traités sommairement dans cette thèse, mais mériteraient une attention plus soutenue pour guider les choix conceptuels et opérationnels de futures études. Nous avons souligné que le débordement ne peut être simplement une relation entre un construit du domaine d'origine et un construit du domaine recevant. Pour éviter l'effet de congruence (Frone et al., 1994), il est également nécessaire qu'une influence de l'un à l'autre soit présente,

et non seulement l'effet d'une tierce variable sur les deux construits. Or, la nature de l'influence d'un domaine sur l'autre pourrait être clarifiée. Nous entrevoyons plusieurs possibilités quant à cette nature.

Une première possibilité est que le BEP du domaine d'origine soit revécu dans un lieu ou un moment consacré au domaine recevant. Par exemple, une travailleuse pourrait partager un succès au travail avec les membres de sa famille et revivre les affects positifs associés à ce succès en contexte familial. Or, l'on pourrait se demander si le bien-être vécu en contexte familial est réellement du BEP dans la famille ou s'il s'agit encore de BEP au travail qui est simplement revécu dans la famille. Ceci sous-tend également un questionnement quant à la définition du BEP spécifique à un domaine. Est-ce simplement du bien-être vécu dans un contexte spatiotemporel relatif à un domaine ou le bien-être doit-il être créé par des éléments propres à ce domaine?

Ceci nous amène à la deuxième possibilité quant à la nature de l'influence propre au débordement de BEP. Le BEP du domaine d'origine pourrait influencer la production d'un BEP relatif au domaine recevant. Par exemple, un travailleur qui quitte la maison de bonne humeur par suite d'interactions positives avec ses enfants pourrait démontrer plus d'énergie dans son travail, ce qui susciterait des affects positifs au travail. Ici, il ne s'agit pas uniquement d'une reviviscence du bien-être propre à un domaine dans le contexte propre à un autre, mais bien d'une création à proprement dit d'un « nouveau » bien-être dans le domaine recevant.

Une troisième possibilité quant à la nature du débordement nous provient des considérations propres à la gestion de frontières. En effet, il est possible que deux domaines

soient si intégrés que leurs frontières disparaissent et qu'ils ne fassent plus qu'un. Par l'analyse qualitative d'entrevues, Cruz et Meisenbach (2018) ont découvert ce phénomène qu'elles nomment l'effondrement des frontières (*en anglais : role collapsing*). Par exemple, un couple qui démarre ensemble une entreprise pourrait avoir très peu de démarcation quant à ce qui réfère au travail versus à la famille. Ainsi, le bien-être propre à un domaine serait également automatiquement du bien-être propre à l'autre domaine, puisque les deux domaines n'en feraient plus qu'un. Ce type de débordement serait peu fréquent, du moins dans sa forme complète, bien que certains individus pourraient se trouver très proche de l'intégration totale sur le continuum segmentation-intégration. Dans cette thèse, nous avons tenté de limiter l'influence de ce type de débordement en définissant les domaines du travail et de la famille de façon à favoriser leur exclusion mutuelle. Il n'en reste pas moins qu'en faisant un exposé de ces types de débordement, notre objectif n'est pas d'en désigner un comme plus adéquat que les autres, mais simplement de suggérer aux chercheurs de l'interface travail-hors travail de considérer ces différentes possibilités dans la conception de leurs études et d'argumenter le choix de l'une ou l'autre de ces perspectives.

Mot de la fin

Cette thèse avait pour objectif d'évaluer les mécanismes qui influencent le débordement de BEP entre le travail et la famille. Il s'agit d'un test empirique rigoureux d'une articulation cohérente de quatre mécanismes parmi les plus soutenus dans la littérature. Malgré le contexte social inquiétant relatif à la conciliation travail-famille (CROP, 2014; Kossek et al., 2014) et la tendance générale à positionner ces deux domaines comme des compétiteurs pour le temps, l'attention et l'énergie des individus, nous avons démontré que des synergies positives existent. Nous espérons que cette thèse inspirera d'autres chercheurs à poursuivre

l'exploration des interactions positives entre le travail et la vie hors travail, en portant une attention particulière à la conceptualisation des variables et au devis de recherche.

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