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The Mediating Role of Work-Life Balance in the Relationship Between Workload and Employee Performance (A Study at Statistics Indonesia (BPS) Across Banten Province)

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the effect of workload on employee performance and investigates the mediating role of work-life balance among employees of Statistics Indonesia (BPS) across Banten Province. The study is motivated by performance gaps, increasing work demands, and the imbalance between workforce availability and workload requirements. A quantitative approach with a cross-sectional survey design was employed, involving employees from BPS offices throughout Banten Province. Data were analyzed using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM). The results reveal that workload has a negative but insignificant effect on employee performance. However, workload significantly and negatively affects work-life balance, while work-life balance has a significant positive effect on employee performance. Furthermore, work-life balance fully mediates the relationship between workload and employee performance. These findings indicate that the impact of workload on employee performance occurs primarily through employees' ability to maintain a healthy balance between work and personal life. Therefore, organizations should prioritize workload management and work-life balance initiatives to sustain and improve employee performance.
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Introduction

Employee performance is central to the quality, timeliness, and accountability of public services. In statistical agencies, employees work under recurring peaks associated with censuses, surveys, data validation, and publication deadlines. Workload—task volume, time pressure, and work intensity—is therefore a salient job demand (Uglanova et al., 2024). Under the Job Demands–Resources (JD–R) framework, sustained demands can drain physical and psychological resources and initiate a health-impairment process, particularly when recovery opportunities and organizational resources are insufficient (Demerouti,

2025). Yet prior evidence is mixed: some studies report a negative association between workload and performance (Manurung et al., 2024; Sukin, 2022), whereas others find no significant direct relationship (Adi Harianto, 2024; Johari et al., 2018). This inconsistency indicates that the mechanism connecting workload to performance requires closer examination.

The organizational context provides a practical reason for examining that mechanism. Several BPS statistical activities in Banten did not attain their enumeration targets, including the 2024 Annual Large and Medium Manufacturing Survey (approximately 64%) and the Annual Construction Establishment Survey (40.5%). Table 1 also summarizes achievement in selected units of the 2023 Agricultural Census. These organization-level figures do not measure individual employee performance and should not be interpreted as proof of low individual performance. Rather, they indicate a demanding operational setting in which workload distribution, staffing, field conditions, respondent availability, and administrative constraints may jointly shape outcomes. The present study therefore uses individual survey measures to examine employee-level associations while treating the operational statistics only as contextual evidence.

Table 1. BPS Complete Enumeration of Agricultural Census (ST2023) Achievement in Banten Province and Its Ranking at the National Level

Unit	Target	Actual	Achievement	National Achievement	Difference	Banten's Ranking out of 34 Provinces
RTUP	641.125	601.593	93,83%	101,22%	-7,39%	28
UTP	670.449	609.226	90,87%	101,24%	-10,37%	29
UPB	247	209	84,62%	91,32%	-6,70%	28
UTL	190	132	69,47%	81,10%	-11,63%	29

Table source: BPS-Statistics Indonesia Publications, 2024

This study positions work–life balance as a mediating mechanism rather than a moderator. Work–life balance reflects an employee's assessment of compatibility and balance between work and nonwork roles, whereas work–family conflict focuses specifically on incompatible pressures between family and work domains. In the proposed sequence, workload consumes time and energy, reduces opportunities for recovery and participation in nonwork roles, and is therefore associated with lower work–life balance. Lower balance, in turn, is associated with reduced concentration, energy, and sustained performance (Isa & Indrayati, 2023; Ramdhani & Rasto, 2021). Thus, work–life balance is treated as an individual state or outcome through which job demands are statistically associated with performance, not as a job resource in itself and not as a variable that changes the strength of the workload–performance relationship.

The study addresses a mechanism gap in research on public-sector performance. Rather than merely retesting direct associations in a new location, it examines whether the JD–R health-impairment process is reflected in an indirect pathway within a public statistical institution characterized by cyclical workload peaks. Accordingly, the study examines: (1) the association between workload and employee performance; (2) the association between workload and work–life balance; (3) the association between work–life balance and employee performance; and (4) the indirect association between workload and employee performance through work–life balance. The results are expected to refine the application of JD–R reasoning in a public statistical-agency context and inform workload and recovery policies.

Workload and Employee Performance

Workload is a form of job demand that requires employees to expend physical, mental, and emotional resources in completing their job responsibilities. According to the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) Theory, excessive job demands that are not supported by adequate resources can deplete employees' energy and trigger a health impairment process, including fatigue, stress, and reduced work capacity, which ultimately leads to lower job performance (Demerouti, 2025). High workload, characterized by long working hours, challenging targets, and intense time pressure, may reduce employees' ability to maintain work quality, productivity, timeliness, effectiveness, and overall contribution to organizational goals (Uglanova et al., 2024).

Furthermore, the Job Demand–Control Theory suggests that the negative effects of workload become more pronounced when employees have limited control over their work. Excessive job demands may create job strain, reduce concentration, increase the likelihood of errors, and delay task completion (Zou et al., 2024). Empirical studies have also demonstrated that high workload negatively affects employee performance by increasing fatigue and reducing productivity (Manurung et al., 2024; Sukin, 2022). Therefore, as workload increases, the likelihood of a decline in employee performance also increases.
H1: Workload is negatively associated with employee performance.

Workload and Work–Life Balance

Workload is widely recognized as one of the primary job demands that can influence employees' ability to maintain a balance between their work and personal lives. According to the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) Theory, excessive job demands, such as long working hours, high task intensity, tight deadlines, and heavy responsibilities, consume employees' physical and psychological resources. When these demands exceed employees' available resources, they are more likely to experience work–life conflict, making it difficult to fulfill responsibilities outside the workplace and maintain a satisfactory level of work–life balance (Demerouti, 2025). Therefore, workload is often considered a key antecedent of work–life balance in organizational settings.

A high workload may reduce the amount of time and energy employees can devote to their personal and family lives. Employees who frequently work overtime, face unrealistic

deadlines, or handle multiple tasks simultaneously often experience difficulties separating work from personal life. As a result, work responsibilities tend to interfere with personal activities, leading to lower levels of work–life balance (Isa & Indrayati, 2023). From this perspective, excessive workload can increase work interference with personal life (WIPL) and reduce employees' satisfaction with the balance between their professional and personal roles.

Empirical evidence supports this theoretical perspective. Previous studies have consistently found that workload has a significant negative effect on work–life balance, indicating that employees with higher workloads are more likely to experience difficulties in balancing work and personal responsibilities (Holland et al., 2019; Putri & Satrya, 2025; Tresna et al., 2024). Similarly, Bellini et al. (2025) argue that excessive job demands diminish individual resources, increase work–life conflict, and reduce overall well-being. Therefore, it can be argued that the higher the workload experienced by employees, the lower their level of work–life balance.

H2: Workload is negatively associated with work–life balance.

Work–Life Balance and Employee Performance

Work–life balance refers to an individual's ability to effectively manage and maintain harmony between work responsibilities and personal life demands. According to the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) Theory, work–life balance can be viewed as a valuable job resource that helps employees cope with work demands, preserve their well-being, and sustain optimal performance (Demerouti, 2025). Employees who successfully balance their professional and personal lives tend to experience lower levels of stress, greater job satisfaction, and higher motivation, enabling them to perform their duties more effectively. In contrast, poor work–life balance can create role conflicts that reduce focus, energy, and commitment to work tasks (Isa & Indrayati, 2023).

From a behavioral perspective, employees with a high level of work–life balance are more likely to maintain concentration, emotional stability, and work engagement, which contribute positively to work quality, productivity, timeliness, and overall effectiveness. When work responsibilities do not excessively interfere with personal life, employees have sufficient opportunities for rest, recovery, and family involvement, allowing them to return to work with renewed energy and motivation. Likewise, supportive personal lives can enhance employees' psychological well-being and improve their ability to meet organizational goals (Ramdhani & Rasto, 2021).

Empirical evidence consistently supports the positive relationship between work–life balance and employee performance. Previous studies have found that work–life balance positively and significantly influences employee performance by improving job satisfaction, commitment, and work engagement (Kumari & Vasantha, 2019; Ramdhani & Rasto, 2021). Similar findings were reported by Ahmed et al. (2025), Alnagbi et al. (2025), and Situmorang and Toni (2025), who concluded that employees with better work–life balance tend to demonstrate higher levels of performance. Therefore, it can be argued that employees who

maintain a healthy balance between their work and personal lives are more likely to achieve superior performance outcomes.

H3: Work–life balance is positively associated with employee performance.

The Mediating Role of Work–Life Balance

The mediating role of work–life balance in the relationship between workload and employee performance can be explained through the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) Theory. The theory argues that excessive workload represents a job demand that consumes employees' physical and psychological resources, potentially leading to stress, fatigue, and work–life conflict (Demerouti, 2025). When employees face high workload, they often have less time and energy for their personal lives, resulting in a lower level of work–life balance. In turn, poor work–life balance reduces employees' well-being, motivation, and ability to perform effectively. Therefore, the effect of workload on performance may occur indirectly through its impact on employees' work–life balance.

This argument is supported by previous studies showing that workload negatively affects work–life balance (Holland et al., 2019; Putri & Satrya, 2025), while work–life balance positively influences employee performance (Ahmed et al., 2025; Ramdhani & Rasto, 2021). Employees who are able to maintain a healthy balance between work and personal life tend to experience lower stress, higher job satisfaction, and greater work engagement, which contribute to better performance outcomes. Consequently, work–life balance functions as a mechanism through which workload influences employee performance. Based on this reasoning, work–life balance is expected to mediate the relationship between workload and employee performance

Based on the theoretical framework and previous empirical studies, workload can be viewed as a job demand that may reduce employees' ability to maintain a healthy balance between their professional and personal lives. Excessive workload consumes employees' time, energy, and psychological resources, leading to lower levels of work–life balance. At the same time, work–life balance serves as an important resource that enables employees to remain motivated, focused, and productive, thereby enhancing their performance. Consequently, the effect of workload on employee performance may occur not only directly but also indirectly through work–life balance. Higher workload is likely to diminish employees' work–life balance, which in turn may reduce their performance. Conversely, employees who are able to maintain a satisfactory work–life balance are more likely to achieve higher performance outcomes. Therefore, the conceptual framework of this study proposes that work–life balance mediates the relationship between workload and employee performance.

H4: Work–life balance mediates the association between workload and employee performance.

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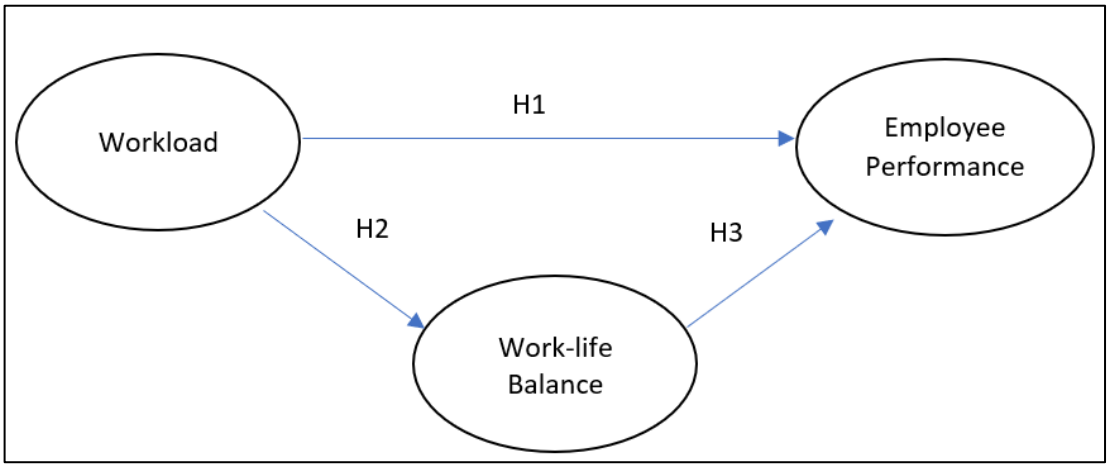

Figure 1. Research Model
Developed by the author, 2026

Method

This study employed a quantitative research approach with a causal-explanatory design to examine the relationships among workload, work–life balance, and employee performance. A cross-sectional survey was conducted among employees of Statistics Indonesia (BPS) across Banten Province. The study focused on analyzing the direct effect of workload on employee performance, the effect of workload on work–life balance, the effect of work–life balance on employee performance, and the mediating role of work–life balance in the relationship between workload and employee performance.

The population of this study consisted of all employees working at Statistics Indonesia (BPS) across Banten Province. Respondents were selected using a probability sampling technique, specifically simple random sampling, to ensure that each member of the population had an equal opportunity to participate in the study. The workload construct was adapted from Uglanova et al. (2024), work–life balance was measured based on the dimensions developed by Isa and Indrayati (2023); Ramdhani and Rasto (2021), while employee performance was assessed using indicators adapted from Maryani et al. (2021).

Table 2. Latent Variables and Indicators

Latent Variable	Indicators	Reference
Workload	Different groups at work require attention but are hard to combine; Unachievable deadlines; Working very intensively; Neglecting some tasks because there is too much to do; Inability to take sufficient breaks; Feeling pressured to work long hours; Working very fast; Unrealistic time pressure.	The Management Standards Indicator Tool (MSIT); (Uglanova et al., 2024)
Employee Performance	Work quality; Work quantity; Timeliness; Work effectiveness; Contribution to the organization.	(Maryani et al., 2021)

Latent Variable	Indicators	Reference
Work-life balance	Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL); Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW); Work Enhancement of Personal Life (WEPL); Personal Life Enhancement of Work (PLEW); Time Balance; Involvement Balance; Satisfaction Balance.	(Isa & Indrayati, 2023; Ramdhani & Rasto, 2021)

Table source: Author's Compilation, 2026

Data were analyzed using PLS-SEM in SmartPLS 4. The reflective measurement model was evaluated through outer loadings, Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability (ρA and ρC), AVE, and HTMT. Indicators with loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 were retained only when content validity was important and their deletion did not improve reliability or AVE materially. The structural model was evaluated using predictor-set VIF, path coefficients, R^2, effect sizes (f^2), and predictive assessment. Statistical inference used bootstrap samples, two-tailed tests, $\alpha = 0.05$, and 95% percentile or bias-corrected confidence intervals. Mediation was classified from the joint pattern of direct and indirect effects: a significant indirect effect with a nonsignificant direct effect was interpreted as indirect-only mediation. PLSpredict results were interpreted only after comparing PLS prediction errors with a linear-model benchmark.

Results and Discussion

Outer Model

Indicator Reliability

Indicators are regarded as reliable when they demonstrate strong associations with their respective latent constructs. According to Hair et al. (2021), outer loading values of 0.70 or higher indicate satisfactory reliability, whereas loadings ranging from 0.40 to 0.70 may still be accepted provided that their inclusion does not adversely affect the construct's validity and reliability.

Table 3. Outer Loading

Indicator	Workload	Work–Life Balance	Employee Performance
WL1	0.784		
WL2	0.760		
WL3	0.756		
WL4	0.835		
WL5	0.821		
WL6	0.742		
WL7	0.839		
WL8	0.859		

WLB1	0.713	
WLB2	0.746	
WLB3	0.895	
WLB4	0.922	
WLB5	0.856	
WLB6	0.884	
WLB7	0.726	
EP1		0.509
EP2		0.681
EP3		0.840
EP4		0.865
EP5		0.922

Table source: SmartPLS 4.0 Processing Output, 2026

The outer-loading results are generally satisfactory; however, EP1 (0.509) and EP2 (0.681) fall below 0.70. These indicators were retained because they represent substantively important performance domains and the complete employee-performance construct still achieved acceptable reliability ($\alpha = 0.837$; $\rho C = 0.881$) and convergent validity (AVE = 0.605). Before final submission, the authors should report the change in ρC and AVE after deleting EP1 and EP2 to demonstrate that retention does not materially weaken measurement quality. Accordingly, the evidence supports adequate construct-level reliability and validity, but not every indicator individually meets the preferred loading threshold.

Internal Consistency Reliability

The consistency of indicators in measuring a latent variable is assessed through internal consistency reliability. Composite Reliability (CR) and Cronbach's Alpha are the most widely used criteria, with values of 0.70 or higher indicating an acceptable level of reliability (Sarstedt et al., 2021).

Table 4. Reliability and Validity of Constructs

Unit	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability (rho_a)	Composite reliability (rho_c)	Average variance extracted (AVE)
Workload	0.920	0.925	0.934	0.641
Work–Life Balance	0.919	0.930	0.936	0.680
Employee Performance	0.837	0.904	0.881	0.605

Table source: SmartPLS 4.0 Processing Output, 2026

Overall, the test outcomes confirm that all constructs included in this study have adequate internal consistency.

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which a latent construct is able to account for the variance of its reflective indicators. In this study, convergent validity was evaluated

using the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). According to Sarstedt et al. (2021), an AVE value of 0.50 or higher indicates adequate convergent validity, suggesting that the construct explains at least 50% of the variance in its indicators. As presented in Table 4, all constructs achieved AVE values exceeding the recommended threshold of 0.50, confirming satisfactory convergent validity.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity measures the extent to which a construct is distinct from other constructs within the model. In this study, it was assessed using the Heterotrait–Monotrait Ratio (HTMT). A construct is considered to have adequate discriminant validity when the HTMT value is below 0.85 for conceptually distinct constructs or below 0.90 for conceptually related constructs. As all HTMT values among the construct pairs fall within the recommended thresholds, the measurement model demonstrates satisfactory discriminant validity and is therefore suitable for subsequent structural model assessment.

Table 5. HTMT Test Results

Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)	Value
Work–Life Balance → Employee Performance	0.690
Workload → Employee Performance	0.422
Workload → Work–Life Balance	0.555

Table source: SmartPLS 4.0 Processing Output, 2026

Taken together, the reliability, AVE, and HTMT estimates support the adequacy of the measurement model at the construct level. This conclusion is qualified by the two employee-performance indicators below 0.70. Bootstrap confidence intervals for HTMT should be reported as [INSERT HTMT 95% CIs] to confirm that the relevant upper bounds remain below the selected threshold.

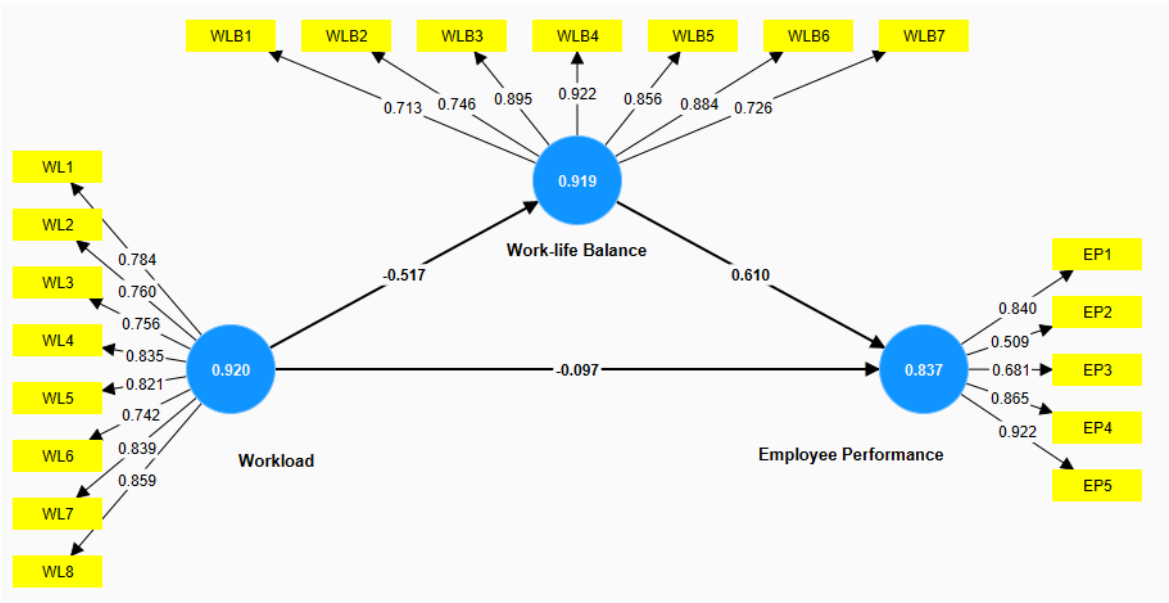

Figure 2. Outer Model Graphical Output
SmartPLS 4.0 Processing Output, 2026

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Inner Model

Collinearity

Collinearity assessment in the structural model is conducted to verify that multicollinearity among exogenous constructs does not compromise the stability and accuracy of parameter estimates. This evaluation is performed using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). According to Hair and Alamer (2022), VIF values below 3 indicate the absence of collinearity concerns, while values ranging from 3 to 5 may still be considered acceptable when supported by strong theoretical justification.

Table 6. VIF Test Results

Relationship	Value
Work–Life Balance → Employee Performance	1.365
Workload → Employee Performance	1.365
Workload → Work–Life Balance	1.000

Table source: SmartPLS 4.0 Processing Output, 2026

For employee performance, workload and work–life balance were evaluated jointly as predictors; both had VIF = 1.365. For work–life balance, workload was the sole predictor (VIF = 1.000). These values are below 3, indicating no material collinearity concern in the predictor sets.

Significance and relevance of path coefficient

In the PLS-SEM structural model, path coefficients represent standardized estimates that indicate both the strength and direction of the relationships between exogenous and endogenous constructs. According to Hair and Alamer (2022), path coefficient values ranging from 0.00 to 0.10 indicate weak effects, values between 0.10 and 0.30 suggest small to moderate effects, values from 0.30 to 0.50 represent moderate effects, and values above 0.50 indicate strong effects. The results show that the path coefficient between Workload and Work–Life Balance is −0.517, indicating a strong negative effect. The relationship between Workload and Employee Performance has a path coefficient of −0.097, suggesting a weak negative effect. In contrast, the path coefficient between Work–Life Balance and Employee Performance is 0.610, indicating a strong positive effect. This finding suggests that higher levels of work–life balance are associated with better employee performance.

Table 7. Path Coefficients

Path	Coefficient
Work–Life Balance → Employee Performance	0.610
Workload → Employee Performance	-0.097
Workload → Work–Life Balance	-0.517

Table source: SmartPLS 4.0 Processing Output, 2026

Explanatory Power

Explanatory power refers to the extent to which the structural model can account for the variance in endogenous constructs. In PLS-SEM, this capability is assessed using the

coefficient of determination (R^2). According to Hair and Alamer (2022), R^2 values between 0.00 and 0.10 indicate weak explanatory power, values from 0.11 to 0.30 indicate small or modest explanatory power, values between 0.30 and 0.50 suggest moderate explanatory power, and values above 0.50 reflect strong explanatory power.

Table 8. R-Square Test Results

Construct	R-square	Adjusted R-square
Employee Performance	0.443	0.436
Work–Life Balance	0.268	0.263

Table source: SmartPLS 4.0 Processing Output, 2026

The results show that Work–Life Balance has an R^2 value of 0.268 and an adjusted R^2 value of 0.263, indicating modest explanatory power. This suggests that Workload explains approximately 26.8% of the variance in Work–Life Balance, while the remaining 73.2% is explained by factors outside the model. Employee Performance has an R^2 value of 0.443 and an adjusted R^2 value of 0.436, indicating moderate explanatory power. This finding implies that Workload and Work–Life Balance jointly explain approximately 44.3% of the variance in Employee Performance, whereas the remaining 55.7% is attributable to other factors not included in the model.

Predictive Power

Predictive power refers to the ability of the structural model to accurately predict outcomes in out-of-sample observations. While the R^2 value provides information regarding the model's explanatory power within the sample, it does not assess the model's predictive performance beyond the sample data. Therefore, predictive power in PLS-SEM is evaluated using the PLSpredict procedure. A model is considered to have predictive relevance when the Q^2predict value is greater than zero for its endogenous constructs. According to Hair et al. (2017), Q^2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 indicate small, medium, and strong predictive relevance, respectively.

Table 9. Q^2predict Test Results

Construct	Q^2predict	RMSE	MAE
Employee Performance	0.133	0.953	0.688
Work–Life Balance	0.232	0.894	0.654

Table source: SmartPLS 4.0 Processing Output, 2026

Both endogenous constructs have Q^2predict values above zero (work–life balance = 0.232; employee performance = 0.133), which provides initial evidence of predictive relevance. However, RMSE and MAE values cannot be classified as low or acceptable in isolation. The final assessment must compare each PLS prediction error with the corresponding linear-model benchmark and report whether PLS produces lower errors for most indicators Until that comparison is provided, no claim of low, medium, or high out-of-sample predictive power is warranted.

The structural model explains 26.8% of the variance in work–life balance and 44.3% of the variance in employee performance, and predictor-set VIF values show no collinearity

concern. Q^2predict values above zero suggest predictive relevance, but predictive strength remains undetermined without the linear-model benchmark. Report f^2 values, total effects, bootstrap confidence intervals, and—if used—Stone–Geisser Q^2 separately from Q^2predict These qualifications should be considered when interpreting the hypothesis tests.

Estimate for Path Coefficients (Hypothesis Testing Results)

Hypotheses were evaluated with bootstrap resamples, two-tailed tests, $\alpha = 0.05$, and 95% confidence intervals. Table 10 reports the standardized path estimates. Workload was not directly associated with employee performance ($\beta = -0.097$, $p = 0.336$), but it was negatively associated with work–life balance ($\beta = -0.517$, $p < 0.001$). Work–life balance was positively associated with employee performance ($\beta = 0.610$, $p < 0.001$). The specific indirect association through work–life balance was significant ($\beta = -0.316$, $p < 0.001$). Because the direct association was nonsignificant while the indirect association was significant, the pattern is classified as indirect-only mediation, subject to confirmation from the reported 95% bootstrap confidence interval.

Table 10. Significance Test Results

Path	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	STDEV	T Statistic	P Value	Result
Workload -> Employee Performance	-0.097	-0.103	0.101	0.962	0.336	Not Significant
Workload -> Work–Life Balance	-0.517	-0.530	0.080	6.463	0.000	Significant
Work–Life Balance -> Employee Performance	0.610	0.618	0.077	7.878	0.000	Significant
Workload → Work–Life Balance → Employee Performance	-0.316	-0.328	0.070	4.477	0.000	Significant

Table source: SmartPLS 4.0 Processing Output, 2026

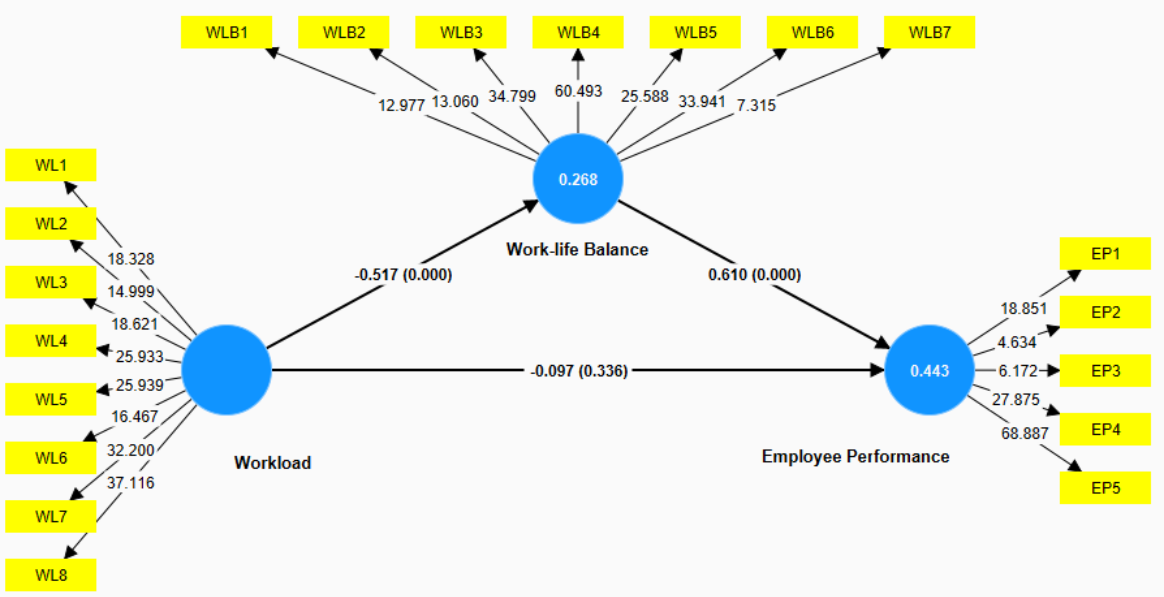

Figure 3. Bootstrapping Test Results
SmartPLS 4.0 Processing Output, 2026

Discussion

Workload on Employee Performance

The results of the hypothesis (H1) test indicate that Workload does not have a significant direct effect on Employee Performance. This is evidenced by the path coefficient of -0.097, a t-statistic of 0.962, and a p-value of 0.336, which exceeds the significance threshold of 0.05. Therefore, the hypothesis proposing a direct effect of Workload on Employee Performance (H1) is not supported. Although the negative coefficient suggests that higher workload tends to be associated with lower employee performance, the effect is statistically insignificant and relatively weak. This finding implies that variations in workload do not directly explain changes in employee performance among the respondents in this study.

The nonsignificant direct path should not be interpreted as evidence that workload is harmless. Several explanations remain plausible but were not tested in this study: a nonlinear relationship, different appraisals of workload as a challenge or hindrance, restricted variation in self-reported performance, or measurement limitations arising from EP1 and EP2. These possibilities should be examined in longitudinal research with objective or supervisor-rated performance; they are not findings of the present analysis.

This result is consistent with Johari et al. (2018) and Adi Harianto (2024), who also reported no significant direct association between workload and performance in their respective settings. The comparison suggests that workload may be related to performance through intervening conditions rather than a uniform direct pathway. Nevertheless, differences in occupation, measurement, and research design limit direct generalization to BPS employees.

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Workload on Work-Life Balance

The results of the hypothesis (H2) test indicate that workload has a significant negative effect on Work–Life Balance ($\beta = -0.517$; $t = 6.463$; $p < 0.001$), H2 is supported. This finding confirms that increased workload is associated with a lower level of work–life balance among employees of Statistics Indonesia (BPS) across Banten Province. The path coefficient value of -0.517 also indicates a relatively strong negative relationship, implying that workload is an important antecedent of employees' ability to maintain balance between work responsibilities and personal life. These findings support the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) theory, which posits that excessive job demands consume employees' physical, cognitive, and emotional resources, thereby reducing their capacity to effectively manage non-work roles and personal responsibilities.

This association is relevant to BPS because statistical production involves periodic workload peaks and concurrent assignments. However, the present survey did not directly test staffing shortages, overtime, task overlap, or recovery opportunities as separate variables. These organizational conditions should therefore be treated as contextual explanations requiring independent data, not as empirical findings of the structural model.

The findings are consistent with previous studies demonstrating that excessive workload negatively affects work–life balance. Putri and Satrya (2025) found that higher workloads significantly reduce employees' ability to maintain a balance between work and personal life. Similarly, Holland et al. (2019) and Tresna et al. (2024) reported that employees experiencing greater workload pressure tend to report lower satisfaction with their work–life balance. Therefore, this study strengthens existing empirical evidence by confirming that, within the public sector context, particularly in statistical institutions characterized by high work intensity and periodic survey and census activities, workload remains a critical factor influencing employees' work–life balance. Consequently, organizations should consider workload redistribution, workforce planning improvements, and flexible work arrangements to mitigate the negative impact of excessive workload on employees' well-being and work–life balance

Work-Life Balance on Employee Performance

The results of the hypothesis (H3) indicate that Work–Life Balance has a positive and significant effect on Employee Performance ($\beta = 0.610$; $t = 7.878$; $p < 0.001$), H3 is supported. The path coefficient of 0.610 suggests a strong positive relationship, indicating that employees who are able to maintain a balance between work and personal life tend to demonstrate higher levels of performance. This finding supports the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) theory, which considers work–life balance as an employee-level state that supports recovery and sustained functioning that helps employees preserve their physical, emotional, and cognitive energy. When employees experience a healthy balance between work and non-work roles, they are better equipped to maintain motivation, concentration, and productivity, ultimately contributing to superior job performance.

In the BPS setting, employees balance recurring statistical deadlines with personal and family responsibilities. The positive association suggests that employees reporting greater compatibility between work and nonwork roles also report better work quality, quantity, timeliness, effectiveness, and organizational contribution. Because both constructs were self-reported at the same time, reverse direction and common-method inflation cannot be excluded.

The result is consistent with Ramdhani and Rasto (2021), Kumari and Vasantha (2019), Ahmed et al. (2025), and Alnagbi et al. (2025), all of whom link work–life balance with favorable performance-related outcomes. The present evidence extends this association to a public statistical institution, while its cross-sectional nature prevents a definitive causal conclusion.

The Mediating Role of Work–Life Balance in the Relationship between Workload and Employee Performance

The mediation analysis identified a significant indirect association between workload and employee performance through work–life balance ($\beta = -0.316$, $t = 4.477$, $p < 0.001$). Workload was negatively associated with work–life balance ($\beta = -0.517$), and work–life balance was positively associated with performance ($\beta = 0.610$). In contrast, the direct workload–performance path was nonsignificant ($\beta = -0.097$, $p = 0.336$). This pattern is more precisely described as indirect-only mediation, not as evidence that workload affects performance both directly and indirectly. The 95% bootstrap interval must be added to establish that the indirect effect excludes zero.

The indirect pathway is consistent with the JD–R health-impairment logic: intensive demands are associated with reduced compatibility between work and nonwork roles, while lower balance is associated with poorer performance. Work–life balance is interpreted here as the intervening employee-level state, not as a buffering mechanism. “Buffering” would imply moderation—an interaction in which work–life balance changes the strength of another relationship—which was not tested in this model.

The indirect pathway is particularly relevant in an institution with cyclical survey and census demands, but the study did not independently measure staffing sufficiency, overtime, or periodic workload spikes. Future multilevel and longitudinal studies should integrate verified administrative workload data with repeated employee measures to test whether changes in demands precede changes in work–life balance and performance.

The findings also corroborate prior studies that identified Work–Life Balance as a significant mediator between work-related demands and employee outcomes. Previous research has shown that excessive workload increases work-life conflict and reduces employee well-being, while higher levels of Work–Life Balance contribute positively to productivity, engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational performance. The present study extends this body of knowledge by providing empirical evidence from the Indonesian public sector, particularly within a statistical institution characterized by high work intensity and resource constraints. Consequently, the results suggest that Work–Life Balance should

be viewed not only as a personal well-being issue but also as a strategic organizational mechanism through which workload influences employee performance. Organizations that successfully protect employees' work–life balance may therefore be better positioned to maintain high performance even in environments characterized by demanding workloads.

Conclusion

This cross-sectional study found that workload was not directly associated with self-reported employee performance ($\beta = -0.097$, $p = 0.336$). Workload was negatively associated with work–life balance ($\beta = -0.517$, $p < 0.001$), whereas work–life balance was positively associated with employee performance ($\beta = 0.610$, $p < 0.001$). The significant indirect pathway ($\beta = -0.316$, $p < 0.001$) is consistent with indirect-only mediation: in these data, the workload–performance relationship was identified primarily through work–life balance rather than through a significant direct path. These estimates represent structural associations and do not establish causal sequence.

For BPS offices, the results support practical attention to how work is distributed during peak statistical activities and whether employees retain adequate recovery opportunities. Recommended actions include periodic workload audits by unit and role, temporary redistribution of assignments during census and survey peaks, transparent overtime and recovery arrangements, supervisor monitoring of work–life balance, and evaluation of each intervention using pre–post or longitudinal data. These actions should be treated as policies to be tested, not as guaranteed causes of improved performance.

The study has important limitations. All constructs were self-reported in a single measurement wave, creating risks of common-method bias, social desirability, reverse direction, and unobserved confounding. The study involved one institution in one province, the representativeness of the achieved sample must be documented, and demographic or job-level controls were not reported. The employee-performance measurement also retained two indicators below 0.70. Future research should use probability samples with transparent response reporting, multi-source performance measures, controls for office and job type, repeated measurements across workload cycles, and verified administrative workload indicators.

Overall, the study contributes evidence that work–life balance is a plausible statistical pathway linking workload with employee performance in a public statistical-agency context. Stronger causal and predictive claims require longitudinal, multi-source, and externally validated evidence.

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