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WHAT EMPLOYEES ACTUALLY DO AT WORK MATTERS FOR THE FAMILY: A DEMANDS-LABOR-CONFLICT MODEL OF WORK AND FAMILY

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WHAT EMPLOYEES ACTUALLY DO AT WORK MATTERS FOR THE FAMILY: A DEMANDS-LABOR-CONFLICT MODEL OF WORK AND FAMILY

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ABSTRACT

WHAT EMPLOYEES ACTUALLY DO AT WORK MATTERS FOR THE FAMILY: A DEMANDS-LABOR-CONFLICT MODEL OF WORK AND FAMILY

By

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The present work examines the distinct forms of work-to-family conflict experienced by employees. Specifically, work-family conflict and emotional labor theories are integrated in order to propose and examine a new form of work-to-family conflict, emotion-based conflict. In addition, a comprehensive model of work-to-family conflict is proposed that includes two other forms of conflict identified in prior work, behavior- and strain-based conflict. This comprehensive model, referred to as the demands-labor-conflict model, includes the various demand- and labor-related antecedents of work-to-family conflict. In order to test this model, alumni and employees of a large Midwestern university were recruited to participate in a study which entailed two Web surveys that were completed in the workplace and two surveys that were mailed to participants homes (one of these surveys was completed by the focal employee and one was completed by their significant other). The results provide support for the emotion-based work-family conflict portion of the model as well as a number of the relationships proposed between labor and the well- and ill-being outcomes. In addition, the results suggest that work effort significantly impacts well-being and burnout, however, these relationships were in the opposite direction than originally proposed. The last section of this document discusses these findings in more detail.

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INTRODUCTION

Two of the central domains that make up most individuals' lives are work and family. Employed work typically composes a large percentage of individuals' activities, not to mention activities at home or with one's family. Accordingly, a popular area of study within organizational research includes work-family conflict, which was originally defined by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) as occurring when the pressures from an individual's work and family domains are mutually incompatible or interfere with one another. Subsequent research proposed that this conflict occurs in two directions consisting of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict. Work-to-family conflict refers to interrole conflict in which the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the job interfere with performing family responsibilities. Family-to-work conflict refers to interrole conflict in which the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the family interfere with performing work-related responsibilities (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). The majority of research in this area of study has focused on the work-to-family direction (see Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005) and the present dissertation will follow this trend. However, the present research will deviate from past work-family research because previous research has primarily examined *general* work-family conflict and largely ignored the distinct forms of conflict proposed by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985).

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) outlined three forms of work-family conflict in their seminal work, involving time-based, strain-based and behavior-based conflicts. Recent meta-analyses on the consequences of work-to-family conflict have concluded

that work-family conflict is related to lower family satisfaction, lower organizational commitment, greater hostility at home and negative physical and psychological health outcomes (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). Some of the established antecedents of conflict, in general, include high job involvement, inflexible schedules and job stress (Byron, 2005). However, much less is understood regarding the unique antecedents and consequences of the distinct forms of conflict (e.g., strain- and behavior-based conflict). The little research that examines these different forms of conflict include only two of the three forms – time- and strain-base conflict – and ignores behavior-based conflict all together. In addition, a review of the work-family literature by Eby et al. (2005) concluded that the most commonly studied predictors of work-family conflict are family characteristics, background characteristics (e.g., demographic), work attitudes and stress. In contrast, one of the least studied predictors includes employee behaviors. What employees actually do at work and how their behaviors impact their family experiences has been largely ignored in the literature. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to propose and test an overall model of work-family conflict containing differential predictions for the various forms of work-to-family conflict, including the behavioral antecedents of these forms of conflict.

PURPOSE

The present research holds multiple contributions for the organizational behavior and human resource management literatures. First, this paper theoretically develops and extends the forms of work-family conflict proposed by Greenhaus and Beutell in 1985. Currently, behavior-based conflict entails a broad concept dealing with employee "in-role" behaviors at work and home. Considering employees may engage in a wide-range

of behaviors at work, such as focused concentration at one point and creative teamwork at other times, as well as at home, examining whether certain aspects of behavior required at work interfere with behavior at home is important. Specifically, behavior-based work-family conflict is further developed herein in terms of how much individuals are expected to act in monitored and controlled ways at work, which I will refer to as *behavioral monitoring*, and how this impacts behavior at home.

In addition, a new form of conflict is proposed entailing emotion-based work-family conflict. Emotion-based conflict occurs when pressures regarding displays or expressions of emotion exist in both individuals' work and family domains and these pressures impact individuals' ability to fulfill responsibilities in one of these domains. This follows from Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) original notion of work-family conflict, defined previously as arising when pressures from employees' work and family spheres interfere with each other such that participation in one role is made more difficult by the other role, and in this case the focus involves individuals' emotional pressures at work and at home. These emotional demands from work and home deal with the intentional or overt displays of certain emotions expected of employees and family members (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Such selective displays are expected to impact whether individuals are able to perform both their work and family roles and responsibilities appropriately (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Furthermore, emotions and work-family conflict have been empirically linked, suggesting that emotions may help explain some of the conflict individuals experience between their work and family roles. For instance, results of a within individual experience sampling study revealed that work-

to-family conflict was positively associated with feelings of guilt and hostility at home (Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006).

Second, in developing the concept of emotion-based work-family conflict, another contribution of the present work is the integration of emotional labor theory and work-family conflict. Emotional labor theory began with Hochschild's (1983) writings on emotion work or management. Emotional labor "requires one to induce or suppress feeling in order to sustain the outward countenance that produces the proper state of mind in others" (p. 7). Hochschild includes examples of jobs that require such labor, such as flight attendants, bill collectors, teachers and therapists. Emotional labor is described as not only taking place within the workplace or on the job, but also within the context of family and individuals' private lives. Hochschild (1983) notes that parents, children, husbands, wives, lovers and friends all engage in some emotion work, yet argues that the emotional labor required from loved ones is different from the emotional labor expected by bosses and coworkers. This suggests that individuals experience various pressures regarding how or what emotions to display at work and at home, which can create work-family conflict. Work-family conflict deals with pressures that make participation in one role (e.g., family) more difficult because of the pressures from a different role (e.g., work). Thus, it is important to investigate whether such emotional conflict exists between individuals' work and family domains and what implications such conflict holds for organizations, individuals and families.

Third, the overall model proposed in the present research includes three distinct forms of work-family conflict and controls for the fourth form (i.e., time-based conflict), which has received the most attention in previous research. Given this is the first

empirical study to examine behavior-, strain- and emotion-based conflict, as well as measure time-based conflict, one contribution of the current research is to actually test the distinctiveness of these constructs. Testing the distinctiveness of the various forms of work-family conflict will provide further evidence for the need to investigate different relationships concerning each type of conflict in future research. As mentioned previously, the majority of work and family research studies *general* work-family conflict and does not take a comprehensive look at all of the distinct forms. Therefore, the present research proposes an integrated model regarding the antecedents of emotion-, strain- and behavior-based work-family conflict.

Furthermore, the majority of previous research on the antecedents of work-family conflict has focused on workload, job demands and job and organizational characteristics (Eby et al., 2005). The present study attempts to extend the demand—work-family conflict model by also examining what employees do in response to job demands and how these responses influence individuals' experiences of work-family conflict. These responses (to job demands) are categorized as labor (i.e., emotional labor, work effort and behavioral monitoring), or in other words, what employees actually do at work. Hence, one of the contributions of the present research is to illustrate the mediating mechanisms that may help explain the established relationship between job demands and work-to-family conflict. In addition, related to work-to-family conflict is the well-being of individuals at home. That is, what is the impact of job demands and labor on individuals' feelings, attitudes and health outcomes at home? Accordingly, individual well-being is also included as an outcome in the current model.

Fourth and finally, the present study also holds multiple methodological contributions and strengths. A recent review of the research methods utilized in work-family research found that most studies are cross-sectional, in field settings and correlational (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007). Few studies have utilized a longitudinal design or data from more than one source, so Casper et al. (2007) suggest that gathering data from more than one source to examine agreement as well as collecting data over time are important endeavors for future work-family research. This study answers the call for different methods in that data was gathered from multiple sources (employees and spouses), over time (data was collected at three different times, two times at work and one at home from both the focal employee and their spouse). Additionally, Casper et al. (2007) conclude that work-family studies typically utilize one data collection method and the present work employs both online surveys and paper questionnaires, as well as measures the relevant constructs in more than one setting. Namely, work demands and labor are measured at work and work-to-family conflict and individual well-being are measured at home. Multiple settings are important because it has been argued that work-to-family conflict should be assessed at home (Neyemeyer et al., 1996), whereas, workplace factors such as workload should be assessed at work, in order to minimize biases associated with retrospective ratings (Judge & Ilies, 2004). As a result, the solution to this potential issue is "not to advocate one setting over another, but to match the setting in which constructs are assessed with the nature of the constructs themselves" (Ilies, Schwind, Wagner, Johnson, DeRue, & Ilgen, 2007, p. 1369). The present study was designed according to this recommendation.

The present paper is organized as follows. First, I will discuss the theoretical foundation for the present research and suggest a new form of work-family conflict that has not been previously examined in the literature. Then, I will review the proposed demands-labor-conflict model as well as discuss the hypothesized relationships that are expected based on literature reviewed from the emotional labor, work and family, and well-being areas of study. Finally, I describe an empirical study and review the analyses and results that were conducted in order to test the hypotheses proposed in this paper.

THEORETICAL REFINEMENT AND EXTENSION

EXISTING FORMS OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Work-family conflict is defined as "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Greenhaus and Beutell propose three sources of work-family conflict including time-, strain-, and behavior-based conflict. Time-based conflict occurs when time pressures from one domain make it physically impossible to fulfill expectations in another domain or when time pressures produce preoccupation with one role when an individual is in a different role or domain. For example, when an employee works overtime and misses dinner with his/her family, this employee is experiencing time-based work-to-family conflict. Strain-based conflict refers to when psychological or physiological strain, such as tension, anxiety, fatigue and depression, from one role affects an individual's performance in another role. This form of conflict is evident when a parent is too exhausted after work to help his/her child practice the piano, for example. Finally, behavior-based conflict occurs when patterns of in-role behavior are incompatible with behavior in a different role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). An example of this form of conflict includes when a lawyer argues with his/her spouse at home following a difficult battle in court earlier that day.

Edwards and Rothbard (2000) review Greenhaus and Beutell's concept of work-family conflict, which involves demands from one domain (e.g., work) making it difficult to meet demands in another domain (e.g., family). These authors discuss how time- and

strain-based conflicts include resource drain – "the transfer of finite personal resources such as time, attention, and energy, from one domain to another" (181). In the case of time-based conflict, time or attention spent in the work domain leaves no time or attention for the family domain, resulting in poor performance in the family domain. Furthermore, behavior-based conflict is is said to occur when "behavior developed in one domain influences behavior in the other domain, with the added condition that the transferred behavior inhibits role performance in the latter domain" (p. 182).

Behavior-based work-family conflict currently represents a broad construct dealing with a number of different behaviors. The examples Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) provide for behavior-based conflict include demands for managers to be objective, logical, powerful, aggressive and self-reliant at work, yet many other types of behavior are also relevant for the workplace. Other work behaviors include helping or citizenship behavior (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006), controlling and leading behavior (Avolio, Sosik, Jung, & Berson, 2003), withdrawal behavior (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985), team cooperation and coordination (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003), to name a few behaviors studied in organizations. Therefore, behavior-based conflict can be applied to an almost unlimited number of behaviors individuals perform. As a result, I propose to develop this construct further by examining a specific characteristic of behaviors that is relevant to most behaviors performed at work. Specifically, I will examine the impact of behavioral monitoring on individuals' ability to perform family responsibilities and in doing so strive to refine and extend research on behavior-based work-to-family conflict.

REFINING BEHAVIOR-BASED CONFLICT

As noted, of the three forms of work-family conflict introduced by Greenhaus and Beutell, empirical research has examined time- and strain-based conflict (e.g., Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, & Beutell, 1989; Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999; Wallace; 1999; Butler, Grzywacz, Bass, & Linney, 2005), whereas, little focus has been given to behavior-based conflict. Bruck and Allen (2003) did not find a significant association between any of the personality characteristics they examined and behavior-based conflict. Specifically, behavior-based work-family conflict was not related to negative affectivity, Type A characteristics, neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, or conscientiousness. The authors suggest that behavior-based conflict may have more situational antecedents compared to dispositional antecedents (Bruck & Allen, 2003, p. 469). Two studies by Lambert and colleagues found that work-to-family behavior-based conflict was negatively related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Lambert, Pasupuleti, Cluse-Tolar, Jennings, & Baker, 2006; Lambert, Hogan, Camp, & Ventura, 2006). Considering the construct of behavior-based conflict was proposed over two decades ago (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), the three studies reviewed do not provide much information about this form of work-family conflict. This suggests that further development of behavior-based conflict is needed.

As mentioned, behavior-based conflict currently represents a broad construct dealing with employee behaviors at work and at home. Thus, I propose to examine a behavioral characteristic that has been identified as relevant and important to organizations and as a response to job demands. Specifically, I focus on a characteristic of behavior at work that was originally proposed as a personality disposition in the

psychology literature – self-monitoring. Trait self-monitoring is defined as an individual's tendency to observe and control their behavior and self-presentation (Snyder, 1974; Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). Individuals high on this trait are characterized as regulating their expressive self-presentation for the sake of desired public appearances and individuals low on self-monitoring are said to lack such ability or motivation and actually display their own inner or true self (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986; Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002). The workplace is a relevant setting in which 'desired public appearances' matter, which suggests that self-monitoring can be applied to work as a response to behaviors desired of employees (i.e., certain job demands). For example, the way employees present themselves influences interactions and outcomes with coworkers, supervisors, clients, etc. In particular, Day and colleagues (2002) suggest that self-monitoring is important for work-related settings and their meta-analytic results support this notion in that self-monitoring is significantly related to job performance and leadership emergence, among other organizationally relevant outcomes. Furthermore, Day et al. (2002) found that self-monitoring is positively related to subjective performance ratings, which suggests that managers and organizations hold some expectation for self-monitoring at work.

In addition, based on Michel and Shoda's (1995) theory, personality traits are not the only determinants of behavior – the situation also needs to be taken into consideration. Michel and Shoda (1995) suggest that features of situations activate a set of internal reactions and individuals differ in how these features influence their cognitive and affective reactions. Furthermore, behavior is generated in response to situations based on an individual's goals and plans. Applying this to a workplace setting, regardless

of employees' standing on trait self-monitoring, it is beneficial for them to monitor and control their behavior around others, especially supervisors and those who make decisions regarding performance ratings, pay, etc. (Day et al., 2002). Based on the distinction between trait self-monitoring and monitored behavior at work, my focus in the present research is on actual self-monitoring *behavior* and, as previously noted, I refer to this as *behavioral monitoring*.

On the other hand, at home, I expect that pressures related to behavioral monitoring are to some extent different than at work and that engaging in behavioral monitoring at work impacts individuals' ability to continue behavioral monitoring at home. For instance, individuals may see their behavior as more open and relaxed at home (Bartolome, 1972; Hochschild, 1983); however, some monitoring is still necessary because, for instance, it would not be appropriate to use certain language or actions around young children. High behavioral monitoring at work may impact a parent's ability to engage in such monitoring at home following the ego depletion argument. The ego depletion argument proposes that acts of volition, such as self-control, initiating behavior and overriding responses, decrease a limited resource (akin to strength or energy), which in turn will have a detrimental impact on subsequent action until that resource has time to recover (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998). This suggests that acts of behavioral monitoring at work may decrease an individual's ability to engage in behavioral monitoring at home. If individuals are unable to engage in behavioral monitoring at home following work, they are more likely to experience behavior-based conflict between work and family. This is consistent with Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985, p. 77) definition of work-family conflict discussed previously because I am proposing

that behavioral monitoring at home is made more difficult due to behavioral monitoring at work. As a result, I propose to investigate the relationship between employee behavioral monitoring at work and the perception of behavior-based conflict at home. My formal expectations concerning this relationship will be discussed in the hypothesis section of the present paper.

EMOTION-BASED CONFLICT: INTEGRATING EMOTIONAL LABOR AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Building from Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) original notions of time-, strain- and behavior-based work-family conflict, I suggest that another distinct form of conflict exists. This form involves individuals' emotions at work and at home. Emotion-based conflict occurs when pressures for emotional displays at work interfere with the performance of emotional displays at home. In other words, emotions required of employees at work and home interfere with each other and individuals experience conflict between the two domains as a result. This construct is different than affective or emotional spillover, which refers to the "effects of work and family on one another that generate similarities between the two domains" (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, p. 180). For example, an individual experiences affective spillover when positive affect at work leads to positive affect at home. Affective spillover, therefore, deals solely with individuals' internal states over time. On the other hand, I propose that emotion-based conflict is concerned with the emotions individuals display both at work and home. The display of emotion is related to literature regarding emotional labor. Next, I will review key literature from the emotional labor and emotion regulation perspectives in order to illustrate how emotional labor is relevant to work-family conflict as well as develop the concept of emotion-based conflict more clearly.

Emotional labor is defined by Hochschild (1983) as "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" (p. 7) and involves enhancing, faking or suppressing emotions to modify one's emotional expression (Grandey, 2000). Two main forms of emotional labor have been proposed, including surface and deep acting. Surface acting refers to managing observable expressions and occurs when employees modify their displays without shaping or changing their inner feelings. Deep acting refers to managing feelings and occurs when employees modify internal feelings to actually experience the emotion one is required to display (Grandey, 2003). Employees engage in such labor in order to conform to organizational display rules, which refer to social norms regarding the appropriate experience and display of emotions (Bono & Vey, 2005). Emotional labor is apparent in numerous occupations and organizations. Hochschild (1983) originally outlined six categories of jobs calling for emotional labor including professional and technical workers (e.g., lawyers, doctors, teachers, and television announcers, etc.), managers and administrators, sales workers, clerical workers (e.g., bank tellers, bill collectors, receptionists, etc.), and service workers both inside and outside private households (e.g., bartenders, child care workers, hairdressers, etc.). Given the wide range of employees and workplaces that have norms or rules regarding emotional labor, research has begun to examine the consequences of emotional labor both inside and outside the workplace (Barsade, Brief, & Spataro, 2003).

Research supports links between emotional labor and emotional exhaustion, stress, alcohol and drug abuse, and depression, among other outcomes (Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Grandey, 2003). Grandey's (2000) work on conceptualizing emotional labor proposed an overall model that helps explain how emotional labor can be

dysfunctional for individuals' health and well-being. This model includes burnout as an outcome of emotional labor, which has also been supported in empirical research. For instance, Grandey (2003) found that surface acting was positively related to emotional exhaustion, one of the components of burnout. Johnson and Spector (2007) also found that surface acting was positively related to emotional exhaustion, as well as negatively related to affective well-being. In Bono and Vey's (2005) review of emotional labor, they found that labor was associated with poor physical and psychological well-being, specifically, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (another component of burnout). In addition, Hochschild (1983) links emotional labor with problems such as drug and alcohol abuse and Adelmann (1989) found that high emotional labor was related to lower self-esteem and more depressive symptoms.

The empirical findings reviewed above support a link between emotional labor and burnout and well-being outcomes. One of the major tenants of emotional labor includes that the management of emotions takes effort (Hochschild, 1983) and controlling one's emotions is unpleasant. Thus, "this unpleasantness and the effort it takes to maintain a smiling face (or other emotions)...is proposed...to relate to burnout and job stress" (Grandey, 2000, p.96). Additionally, Côte (2005) states that the "effort exerted to regulate emotion may increase strain, because this effort uses up resources that cannot be regained" (p. 513). This is similar to a mechanism linking individuals' work and family domains called resource drain, which was proposed by Edwards and Rothbard (2000). Resource drain refers to the transfer of finite personal resources, including time and energy, from one domain to another. Edwards and Rothbard (2000) propose that resource drain leads to a negative direct relationship between work and family resources because

resources utilized in one domain are not available for another domain. This suggests that the effort expended during emotional labor at work may lead to the inability to engage in emotion regulation at home, leading to conflict between the work and family domains.

Following this, the notion of resource drain concerning effort expenditure during emotion regulation closely resembles the tenets of the ego depletion model (Baumeister et al., 1998). Baumeister et al. (1998) refer to ego depletion as "a temporary reduction in the self's capacity or willingness to engage in volitional action (including controlling the environment, controlling the self, making choices, and initiating action) caused by prior exercise of violition" (p. 1253). To test this idea, in one study, Baumeister and colleagues (1998) manipulated ego depletion involving emotion regulation by asking participants to watch an emotionally evocative video and hide any emotional reaction that might result. The act of hiding one's emotions was followed by poorer performance on an anagram task. This finding was replicated in a later study, which found that emotional suppression impaired higher order cognitive functioning (Schmeichel, Vohs, & Baumeister, 2003).

Overall, the ego depletion model argues that regulating emotions consumes personal resources and requires recovery of these resources before performing future emotion regulation. This assumes that individuals have a finite pool of resources and energy, which are exhausted during the regulation of emotions because regulation requires "continual monitoring and modification of expressions" (Grandey, Fisk, & Steiner, 2005, p. 894). The effort-recovery model proposes a similar phenomenon and will also be used as a theoretical foundation for explaining the process of emotion-based conflict (as well as the other forms of work-to-family conflict examined herein). Based on the effort-recovery model, meeting task demands requires effort and after effort is

expended on a task or job, recovery is needed to stabilize the individual's system (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Meijman and Mulder (1998) state that if effort is required again "subsequent to insufficient recovery, the organism (or individual), which is in a sub-optimal state, will have to make additional, compensatory effort...a cumulative process may be started yielding negative (work) load effects such as feelings of prolonged fatigue...and other psychosomatic complaints" (p. 25). This suggests that the display of certain emotions required at work may tax an individual such that he or she is unable to successfully fulfill the emotional pressures he or she faces later at home if sufficient recovery fails to take place. The ego depletion and effort-recovery models hold implications for individuals in both their work and family lives. If an individual engages in high levels of emotion regulation or emotional labor at work, what implications might result for the individual at home? How will such labor impact later interactions with friends or family members after work?

Montgomery, Panagopolou, de Wildt, and Meenks (2006) propose and find some empirical support for a link between emotional labor and general work-family interference or conflict. Specifically, they found that work-family conflict partially mediated the relationship between hiding negative emotions and exhaustion. Furthermore, Hochschild (1983) discusses emotional labor within the context of both the work and home domains. Hochschild (1983, p. 69) states the following:

> Parents and children, husbands and wives, lovers and best friends expect to have more freedom from feeling rules and less need for emotion work; in reality, however...the deeper the bond, the more emotion work, and the more unconscious we are of it. In the most personal bonds, then, emotion work is likely

> to be the strongest. At the other extreme, it is a wonder that we find emotion work at all...in the bill collector and the flight attendant. But we do, and because their contacts do not cut so deep, their emotion work rises more readily to the surface of consciousness...The family is often considered a "relief zone" away from the pressures of work, a place where one is free to be oneself. It may indeed be a refuge from the emotion work required on the job, but it quietly imposes emotional obligations of its own.

Altogether, the concepts of resource drain, ego depletion, and effort-recovery discussed above suggest the following phenomenon. The labor individuals engage in during emotion regulation at work impacts their ability to engage in emotion regulation at home (through energy drain), which suggests that such labor at work impacts employees ability to meet demands and responsibilities at home. In addition, the demands regarding emotion regulation in employees' work and family environments may be different. For instance, within service settings, which are where the majority of emotional labor research has taken place, scholars find that employees are generally expected to display or express positive emotions and suppress any negative emotions they may be feeling (Beal, Trougakos, Weiss, & Green, 2006). At home, individuals are less likely to suppress negative emotions, such as when one might discuss experiencing a bad day with a spouse or friend. The ego depletion model describes this as the reality of the external world in which an individual's inner and outer pressures are in conflict (Baumeister et al., 1998). Overall, this suggests that individuals experience conflicting pressures from their work and family roles in terms of emotion regulation and indicates the need for research that specifically investigates emotional conflict between the two domains.

As discussed previously, I define emotion-based conflict as occurring when demands for emotional labor at work prevent the performance of appropriate emotional displays at home, which creates conflict for the individual between these two domains. Wharton and Erickson (1993) make a similar claim. In their conceptual model, they propose that role demands at work and home lead to requirements for emotion management in both domains, which in turn leads to work-family conflict. That is, Wharton and Erickson (1993) extend research that examines the negative consequences of emotional labor to include associations between work and family domains. One of Wharton and Erickson's (1993) formal propositions suggests that when the emotional requirements of an individual's work and family roles are incompatible, work-family conflict should increase. This provides support for the proposed concept of emotion-based conflict, which I will test empirically for the first time in the present research.

PROPOSED MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

DEMANDS-LABOR-CONFLICT MODEL: A MODEL OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT THAT INCLUDES BEHAVIORAL ANTECEDENTS

A number of work-family studies investigate the relationship between job demands and work-family conflict. Workload includes the demands placed on individuals in their jobs and is often referred to in the literature as a job stressor (Spector, Dwyer, & Jex, 1988). A meta-analytic investigation of the antecedents of work-family conflict found that perceptions of role overload correlated .65 with work-to-family conflict (Byron, 2005). In addition, Demerouti, Bakker, and Bulters (2004) tested structural models using data obtained in a three-wave longitudinal study. They found support for their hypotheses in that work pressure had positive effects on employee reports of work–home interference. Butler and colleagues (2005) conducted an experience-sampling study and found a positive relationship between job demands and work–family conflict across days. Finally, a content analysis and review of the work-family literature found that high involvement in work, including greater job demands, promoted work-family conflict (Eby et al., 2005). Thus, workload and work demands are fairly established predictors of work-family conflict. On the other hand, Eby et al. (2005) conclude that one of the least commonly studied predictors of work-family processes are employee behaviors (less than 1% of studies investigated behaviors). Therefore, the present model (see Figure 1) will extend work-family literature by examining how employee behaviors influence work-to-family conflict.

The overall model presented in this research proposes that work demands lead to employee labor (i.e., the employee's behavioral response to work demands), which in

turn impacts work-family conflict and individual well-being. Well-being is defined as "how people evaluate their lives" and these evaluations typically include individuals' emotional reactions to various events, individuals' moods, and the judgments people form about their life, marital and work satisfactions (Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2003, p. 404). In other words, well-being "concerns the study of what lay people might call happiness or satisfaction" (Diener et al., 2003, p. 404). Diener et al. (2003) note that the different aspects people evaluate in their lives (e.g., mood, domain satisfactions) show some independence, suggesting these dimensions should all be measured individually. Additionally, it is important to measure more than one aspect of individuals' well-being in order to gather a more comprehensive picture of individuals' evaluations of their lives. For this reason, I examine multiple indicators of well-being including positive affect (mood), marital and life satisfactions as well as indicators of poor well-being or "ill-being" including burnout and negative affect (mood). These are important to include in the present model because they will inform scholars and practitioners of the significant consequences work demands and labor have on individuals. Perceptions of work-family conflict will demonstrate how individuals' work and family domains hinder each other in order to inform managers and human resource personnel of what job demands and tasks are the most problematic for individuals' family life. Alternatively, examining well-being will illustrate the impact of work demands and tasks on the focal employee him or herself, by examining employees' internal feelings, attitudes and health-related outcomes (i.e., burnout) at home.

In terms of conflict, this model focuses on three forms of work-family conflict: emotion-based conflict, which is developed and discussed in the previous section, as well

as behavior- and strain-based conflict, which were proposed in earlier research (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Time-based conflict, which is the remaining form suggested in the literature, is not formally included in the present model because previous research has focused on this form and consistently found that hours spent working and work overload predict time-based conflict (Ilies et al., 2007; Greenhaus et al., 1989; Wallace, 1999). However, I will measure time-based conflict in the present research in order to test the distinctiveness of the different forms of work-family conflict found in the literature. Next, I will develop the hypotheses concerning emotion-, behavior-, and strain-based work-family conflict. The differential predictions for the three forms of work-family conflict are presented in Figure 2.

EMOTION-BASED WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

According to emotional labor theory, employees follow display rules that define which emotions are appropriate in work situations. These rules provide expectations for the range, intensity and duration of emotions that should be expressed on the job and emotional labor entails following these rules regardless of one's internal or felt emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000). Thus, display rules emphasize publicly observable or displayed emotions, rather than one's felt emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). The most prevalent display rules encouraged by organizations include demands to express positive emotions and demands to suppress negative emotions (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). Diefendorff, Richards, and Croyle (2006) found that employees and supervisors perceive display rules as required work activities. That is, employees view display rules as in-role requirements and not as extra-role (e.g., OCB)

activities. Thus, display rules are a work demand that should lead to actual displays of the expected emotion(s).

Diefendorff and Richard's (2003) make a similar argument, "theoretically, if individuals perceive that there are strong demands to display particular emotions (or suppress particular emotions) their actual emotional displays should reflect these perceptions" (p. 287). Support for this claim was found in that employee perceived display rules (to express positive emotions) were positively related to coworker ratings of actual employee emotional displays. Grandey (2003) argued that display rules or expectations are enforced/communicated by management, which motivates employees to act accordingly. Furthermore, Grandey (2003) expected such awareness of display rules to positively relate to both surface and deep acting. Her findings indicate support for the relationship between display rules and deep acting, but failed to support the link between display rules and surface acting. As a result, Grandey suggests that deep acting is a response to work demands and surface acting occurs in response to work events rather than rules. Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) similarly note that surface actors are likely to be poor employees because they only follow display rules when they are monitored closely. On the other hand, other studies have found support for a link between display rules and surface acting.

Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) found that display rule perceptions were positively related to surface acting, however, the path between display rules and deep acting, which was in the expected direction, was not significant in the tested structural model. In addition, Diefendorff, Croyle and Gosserand's (2005) results indicate that display rules to express positive emotions predict deep acting and display rules to

suppress negative emotions predict surface acting. All of these findings suggest that display rules lead to emotional labor. Yet, the findings are mixed with regards to whether display rules lead to both surface and deep acting. One possible explanation for this is the studies reviewed utilize a variety of samples and display rules. That is, Grandey (2003) used a homogeneous sample of university administrative assistants, Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) employed a sample of working adults from a variety of organizations and occupations (e.g., sales, professional, education, health care), and Diefendorff et al. (2005) recruited a sample of employed undergraduate students from a variety of fields. Health care organizations are likely to have different display rules than educational institutions and administrative assistants may not need to engage in as much surface acting as employees constantly interacting with customers. Therefore, based on the assumption that in the majority of interpersonal encounters employees experience at work they are primarily required to display positive emotions (Beal et al., 2006), which is the specific display rule I focus on presently, I expect that rules for displaying positive emotions at work will be positively related to surface and deep acting.

Hypothesis 1: Rules for displaying positive emotions at work are positively related to employee emotional labor, including (a) surface acting and (b) deep acting.

As discussed above, emotional display rules are a demand placed upon employees at work and such demands are often referred to as job stressors (Ilies et al., 2007; Spector et al., 1988). Many models of job stressors associate them with negative outcomes, such as decreased well-being and negative affect (Ilies et al., 2007). Additionally, several meta-analyses have connected job stress, including role overload, role ambiguity and

psychological demands, to work-to-family conflict (Byron, 2005; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007). Similarly, Ilies et al. (2007) concluded that perceived workload positively influences work-to-family conflict within individuals. In other words, daily workload measured from work in the morning, significantly predicted work-to-family conflict reported in the evening at home. Overall, these findings support a relationship between work demands and work-family conflict.

The specific relationship between emotional display rules at work and at home is also proposed theoretically in the literature (Wharton & Erickson, 1993). Wharton and Erickson (1993) discuss how for individuals occupying multiple roles (e.g., work and family), overwhelming pressure may result from "the high emotion-management requirements of one role or the experience of moderate degrees of emotion management in two roles...conflict results when the feelings a person is called on to express in one setting are contrary to those feelings that are expected in another setting" (p. 472). In the present research, I assume that employees' work and family lives both involve some emotional display pressures and that engaging in emotional labor at work makes appropriate emotional displays at home more difficult based on the resource drain or ego depletion arguments. These arguments suggest that the emotional demands of work and home may exceed individuals' capacity to deal with all demands successfully, which is proposed to lead to perceptions of emotion-based conflict between the two domains. Therefore, I propose that rules for displaying positive emotions at work are positively related to emotion-based work-to-family conflict.

A similar relationship is expected for individual well-being at home. Wilk and Moynihan (2005) found that the importance supervisors place on interpersonal job

demands, in terms of emotional display rules, is positively related to subordinate's emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, display rules were the only significant job demand predictor of emotional exhaustion. In an experimental simulation, Goldberg and Grandey (2007) found that positive display rules (e.g., to be enthusiastic and hide frustration) result in greater emotional exhaustion and lower task autonomy compared to those with display autonomy (where there was no explicit requirement for managing emotional expressions). These findings suggest a relationship exists between display rules and emotional exhaustion, one of the three components of burnout. Burnout is a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors and includes the dimensions of exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). The first dimension, exhaustion, has been the focus of most previous research on display rules and burnout, however, Maslach et al. (2001) warn researchers that focusing solely on emotional exhaustion is not sufficient and loses "sight of the phenomenon (of burnout) entirely". Thus, I examine all of the components of burnout as well as well-being, and expect rules for displaying positive emotions at work will be negatively related to employee well-being and positively related to employee ill-being at home.

> *Hypothesis 2*: Rules for displaying positive emotions at work are (a) positively related to emotion-based work-to-family conflict, (b) negatively related to individual well-being (positive affect, life and marital satisfactions) at home, and (c) positively related to individual ill-being (negative affect and burnout) at home.

Next, I will discuss relationships between emotional labor and work-family conflict and individual well-being. As previously noted, individuals' actual display of

emotions (i.e., emotional labor) at work may interfere with the display of emotions at home, creating perceptions of emotion-based work-to-family conflict. Following the ego depletion model (Baumeister et al., 1998), there will be a reduction in individuals' ability to engage in emotional labor (at home) due to prior exercise of emotional labor (at work). This suggests that emotional fatigue or exhaustion occurs following performance of emotional labor. Some support exists for such a relationship in the literature. Grandey (2003) and Grandey and Goldberg (2007) found a link between surface acting and emotional exhaustion and such exhaustion could spillover into the family domain. In defining spillover, Edwards and Rothbard (2000) provide the example of work fatigue inhibiting family demands. Thus, emotional exhaustion from work may leave individuals unable to display appropriate emotions at home, creating conflict between the work and home domains.

In terms of well-being, Johnson and Spector (2007) found that surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion as well as negatively related to affective well-being, whereas, deep acting is negatively related to emotional exhaustion and positively related to affective well-being. In the present study, I focus on the emotional labor of positive emotions and deep acting concerning positive emotions may lead to positive affective spillover to the family domain, but not conflict. In a similar argument, Beal et al. (2006) note that surfacing acting "is a more stressful strategy that requires substantially greater levels of self-regulation when compared with deep acting" and that "chronically engaging in this strategy should have some effect on more global aspects of one's life. Various authors have noted relations between surface acting and a variety of negative self-relevant life and work outcomes" (1055). For instance, as part of a larger

study investigating emotion management within both the work and family spheres, Erickson and Wharton (1997) investigated the relationship between emotional labor, or what they called job-related feelings of inauthenticity, and depression. They found that feelings of inauthenticity (which was measured by asking participants if they could be themselves at work and if they had to fake how they really felt at work) are a strong predictor of depressed mood. Depressed mood included questions regarding participants' appetite, feelings of loneliness, trouble sleeping, etc. This suggests that emotional labor at work affects individuals' emotions at home. Additionally, surface acting should have a stronger influence on emotional conflict at home because surface acting is more difficult and stressful compared to deep acting.

The research reviewed above provides support for a relationship between emotional labor and emotion-based work-to-family conflict as well as well-being. Emotional exhaustion is a component of burnout, which is one of the well-being outcomes investigated herein, and depressed mood is relevant for affective well-being. Relationships between surface acting and emotional exhaustion and affective well-being were discussed previously and such relationships are also supported in Zapf's (2002) review of literature regarding emotion work and well-being. Zapf (2002) found that frequency of interactions with customers did not strongly predict emotional exhaustion; however, when employees experience discrepancies between felt and expressed emotions (i.e., surface acting), significant positive correlations exist between such discrepancy and emotional exhaustion. This relationship was found across twelve studies. Similar relationships were also found for psychosomatic complaints and irritation and emotion

work (Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999). Based on the theoretical and empirical support provided, I expect the following:

Hypothesis 3: Employees who engage in emotional labor at work will experience (a) greater emotion-based work-to-family conflict, (b) lower individual well-being (positive affect, life and marital satisfactions) at home, and (c) greater individual ill-being (negative affect and burnout) at home, compared to employees who do not engage in emotional labor at work.

Hypothesis 4: The relationships between emotional labor and work-to-family conflict and well-being will differ for surface and deep acting such that surface acting will have stronger relationships with (a) emotion-based work-to-family conflict, (b) individual well-being and (c) individual ill-being at home, compared to deep acting.

Finally, following the hypotheses proposed, I anticipate that emotional labor will mediate the relationships between emotional display rules at work and emotion-based work-family conflict and well-being at home. Grandey (2000) reviews the emotional labor literature and proposes an overall model of emotional labor including situational cues (i.e., events, display rules, etc.), emotional labor, and various outcomes. Specifically, display rules inform employees which reactions are appropriate or inappropriate and emotional labor regulates the employees' actual reactions or responses (Grandey, 2000). This suggests that display rules lead to emotional labor, which includes surface and deep acting. Furthermore, Goldberg and Grandey (2007) propose that surface acting will mediate the depleting effects of display rules on emotional exhaustion. They argue that display rules increase emotion regulation and surface acting should explain the

depletion of energy leading to emotional exhaustion. In support for this assertion, Goldberg and Grandey (2007) found that surface acting mediated the relationship between display rules and emotional exhaustion, but deep acting was not a significant mediator of the same relationship in this laboratory study. This suggests that surface acting should mediate the relationship between display rules at work and burnout and well-being at home. A similar relationship is expected for work-to-family conflict such that rules for displaying positive emotions at work are expected to lead to higher surface acting (of positive emotions), which in turn will lead to higher emotion-based work-to-family conflict and lower individual well-being. Even though Goldberg and Grandey (2007) did not support a mediating relationship for deep acting, Grandey (2000) proposes such a relationship for deep acting in her overall theoretical model and Johnson and Spector's (2007) find support for an empirical link between deep acting and well-being. Therefore, I expect deep acting will also mediate the relationship between display rules and well-being and work-to-family conflict; however, these relationships will not be as strong as the relationships including surface acting.

Hypothesis 5: Emotional labor at work will mediate the relationships between rules for displaying positive emotions at work and (a) emotion-based work-to-family conflict, (b) individual well-being and (c) individual ill-being at home.

Hypothesis 6: The mediating relationship proposed in Hypothesis 5 will be stronger for surface acting compared to deep acting.

BEHAVIOR-BASED WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

In the present research, behavioral monitoring is the extent to which individuals actually engage in acts that monitor, or observe, regulate and control public appearances

in social settings and interpersonal relationships (building from the concept of self-monitoring as previously discussed; Snyder, 1987; Day et al., 2002). This construct is expected to hold important implications for work settings due to its "social and interpersonal focus, self-monitoring should be especially relevant to understanding those attitudes, behaviors, and outcomes that constitute the primary criterion domains in organizational settings" (Day et al., 2000, p. 390). In fact, Day and colleagues' (2002) meta-analysis suggests that self-monitoring is significantly related to job performance, advancement, ability, leadership, and various work-related attitudes. The relationship between self-monitoring and subjective performance ratings suggests that supervisors hold an expectation for behavioral monitoring to some extent. In addition, if these expectations are communicated to employees by their superior(s) during performance reviews or other discussions, employees should be motivated to act accordingly.

Overall, this suggests that actual behavioral monitoring, not just individual differences in the propensity to self-monitor which has been the focus of previous research, is an important phenomenon to investigate in the workplace. Furthermore, since high self-monitors tend to receive better performance ratings (Day et al., 2002), I argue that some organizations hold an expectation or rule for employee displays of monitored or controlled behavior. Such display rules are a type of job demand and in Karasek's (1979) original job demands model, "work load demands...place the individual (or employee) in a motivated or energized state of 'stress'" (p. 287), which suggests that individuals are motivated to fulfill job demands. Therefore, workplace expectations or rules for appropriate work behavior should lead to actual employee behavioral monitoring.

Hypothesis 7: Rules for displaying appropriate work behavior are positively related to employee behavioral monitoring.

Following the support provided above relating display rules and job demands, Karasek's (1979) model also proposes that job demands are related to stress and strain, which leads to lower individual well-being. This is especially true when employees have low decision latitude or autonomy or lack the resources to fulfill the demands (Karasek, 1979). For instance, Ilies et al. (2007) found that high workload is positively related to negative affect at work and negative affect later at home. Increased workload also shows a consistent relationship with burnout and this relationship is especially evident between high workload and the exhaustion dimension of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Sonnentag and Zijlstra (2006) found that high job demands and high off-job demands (e.g., at home) are both related to poor individual well-being. All of these findings provide support for a relationship between demands for certain behavior at work and lower well-being at home.

Empirical research endorses a similar relationship between job demands and work-family conflict (see Butler et al., 2005; Eby et al., 2005; Ilies et al., 2007). This suggests that display rules concerning behaviors at work may lead to work-to-family conflict. In other words, if individuals experience behavioral demands at work, they are likely to perceive behavior-based work-to-family conflict as a result of diminishing ability to handle behavioral expectations at home due to prior mental effort on behavioral demands at work (i.e., effort-recovery; Meijman & Mulder, 1998). That is, when mental effort is required to process behavioral rules or demands at work, little mental effort is available for subsequent use until an individual has been able to recover their effort or

energy level. Behavior-based conflict refers to patterns of in-role behavior (e.g., at work) that interfere with the performance of behavior required in another role (e.g., at home; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) and this can be explained using the effort drain process described above.

Hypothesis 8: Rules for displaying appropriate work behavior are (a) positively related to behavior-based work-to-family conflict, (b) negatively related to individual well-being (positive affect, life and marital satisfactions) at home, and (c) positively related to individual ill-being (negative affect and burnout) at home.

As noted previously, in one of the few empirical studies conducted on behavior-based work-family conflict, Bruck and Allen (2003) found that none of the dispositional variables examined (including Type A, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and agreeableness) were significantly related to behavior-based conflict. As a result, the authors concluded that behavior-based conflict may have situational determinants rather than dispositional determinants, which suggests that studying whether employees monitor and control their behavior in work-related situations or settings (i.e., behavioral monitoring) and how this impacts behavior-based conflict is appropriate. The meta-analysis regarding self-monitoring at work by Day et al. (2002), established a positive relationship between self-monitoring and role stress and self-monitoring and role conflict. Similar conclusions were drawn by Dubinsky and Hartley (1986) in regards to role conflict, as well as Day and Schleicher (2006) – "self-monitoring was positively related to role conflict and role ambiguity, suggesting that high self-monitors were more likely to experience (or report) greater role stress than low self-monitors" (p. 691). These findings hold implications for work-family conflict and individual well-being given that stress at

work is related to poorer well-being (Sonnentag & Frese, 2003). Sonnentag and Frese (2003) review literature on stress in organizations and conclude that role stress and overload are related to burnout, displeasure, distress, anger, and other health complaints. Spector and colleagues (1988) found that job stressors are highly correlated with the affective outcomes of anxiety and frustration (aspects of negative affect), as well as lower job satisfaction. In a meta-analytic examination of burnout, job stress was found to be highly correlated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Job stress is also one of the strongest predictors of work-to-family conflict based on Byron's (2005) meta-analytic results.

In addition, Toegel, Anand, and Kilduff (2007) propose that an important assumption in research on self-monitoring is that such behavior requires considerable effort and energy because of high self-monitors' motivation to produce a successful social encounter or interaction. Early research illustrated that high self-monitors tend to speak first when interacting with others and attempt to continue the conversation during periods of silence (Ickes & Barnes, 1977). Engaging in high behavioral monitoring at work may drain employees' energy leading to less available energy at home after work (i.e., resource drain; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; ego-depletion, Baumeister et al., 1998). Through such energy drain, individuals will likely experience conflict between their work and family domains as a result of a decreased capacity to engage in monitoring behavior at home.

Hypothesis 9: Employees who engage in high behavioral monitoring will experience (a) greater behavior-based work-to-family conflict, (b) lower individual well-being (positive affect, life and marital satisfactions) at home, and

(c) greater individual ill-being (negative affect and burnout) at home, compared to employees who do not engage in behavioral monitoring.

Following the above support, I propose that behavioral monitoring will mediate the relationships between display rules for appropriate behavior at work and behavior-based conflict. Job demands, such as behavioral expectations at work, are the stressors or work load obligations placed on employees in the workplace and employees, in turn, are expected to accomplish the demanded tasks or obligations (Karasek, 1979). In other words, employees are expected to respond to job demands in an attempt to fulfill their requirements, suggesting that behavioral expectations or display rules should lead to actual behavior. For that reason, I expect display rules for appropriate work behavior to precede actual behavioral monitoring. Additionally, behavioral monitoring at work is expected to lead to work-to-family conflict and well-being later at home, which suggests the following.

Hypothesis 10: Behavioral monitoring at work will mediate the relationships between rules for displaying appropriate work behavior and (a) behavior-based work-to-family conflict, (b) individual well-being, and (c) individual ill-being at home.

STRAIN-BASED WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

The final form of work-family conflict included in the present model is strain-based conflict and I will discuss the antecedents of this form of conflict next. Workload is often referred to as "the degree to which employees are required to work fast and hard and have much work to do in a short time, or permanently have a great deal of work to do" (Janssen, 2001, p. 1040). Many theories and research on job demands have connected

workload with a number of satisfaction and performance outcomes (Spector et al., 1988; Janssen, 2001; Gardner, 1986). According to the effort-recovery model (Meijman & Mudler, 1998), workload requires effort and failure to fulfill workload requirements will be associated with negative reactions such as fatigue and dissatisfaction (Dikkers, Geurts, Kompier, Taris, Hourtmand, & van den Heuvel, 2007). This suggests that employees who perceive high levels of workload are more likely to exert greater levels of effort (i.e., work hard) in order to get the job done. Similarly, Rothbard (2001) argues that "people become engaged in roles in response to role demands" (p. 658), thus, I expect workload to be associated with employee work effort. Investigating this relationship is a contribution to the literature because previous work concentrates on perceptions of workload and *assumes* that workload leads to effort as discussed previously, whereas, I will look at actual effort in order to examine whether this assumption is empirically valid.

Hypothesis 11: Workload is positively related to employee work effort.

Consistent with previous research discussed early in this chapter, workload is also expected to be related to work-family conflict. Multiple studies have supported a link between workload and general work-family conflict (Byron, 2005; Demerouti et al., 2004; Butler et al., 2005). A recent meta-analysis conducted by Ford and colleagues (2007) establishes a relationship between job stress, including role overload or high workload, and work-to-family conflict. In addition, Dikkers et al. (2007) found that workload leads to work-home interference or conflict. In terms of strain-based work-family conflict, Wallace (1999) found that work overload is positively related to strain-based conflict. Work overload was actually the strongest predictor of strain-based conflict in his study on lawyers' work-to-family conflict. Thus, there is consistent evidence in the

literature for a relationship between workload and strain-based work-to-family conflict, which is replicated herein.

Additionally, workload is also expected to impact individual well-being at home. Ilies et al. (2007) found that high workload at work positively influences negative affect at work and at home. This suggests that workload may carryover into the family domain creating negative well-being symptoms at home. Rothbard (2001) proposes a similar argument in her model of engagement in work and family roles. Her depletion argument "assumes that the multiple demands of work and family are detrimental to the individuals and that role participation (whether in one or multiple roles) invokes stress, resulting in emotional strain" (p. 656). Rothbard (2001) found some support for the depletion argument, which suggests that job demands lead to stress and emotional strain, which is expected to negatively impact well-being.

> *Hypothesis 12*: Workload is related (a) positively to strain-based work-to-family conflict, (b) negatively to individual well-being (positive affect, life and marital satisfactions) at home, and (c) positively to individual ill-being (negative affect and burnout) at home.

Work effort is also expected to be related to work-family conflict and individual well-being. Following Brown and Leigh (1996), effort is conceptualized as consisting of duration and intensity or force because "time commitment and work intensity constitute the essence of working hard" (p. 361). In terms of the relationship between effort and work-family conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) cite work stressors including mental concentration required at work as a source of strain-based work-family conflict. Mental concentration falls under the work intensity dimension of effort, which I focus on

presently, and I would expect that as concentration or intensity increases, perceptions of strain-based conflict increase as well. A similar relationship is found for job involvement. In particular, job involvement is a significant antecedent of work-to-family conflict across numerous studies (Byron, 2005). Ford et al.'s (2007) meta-analysis replicates Byron's finding and concludes that job involvement is a unique predictor of work-to-family conflict when tested with job stress, work support, and work hours. The findings reviewed indicate a positive relationship should exist between work effort and strain-based work-to-family conflict.

Finally, Rothbard (2001) proposes a depletion argument in which individuals have fixed amounts of psychological and physiological resources available to them and in order to effectively manage such resources individuals must make tradeoffs. The fixed resources Rothbard examines include two dimensions of role engagement. Role engagement includes attention – the cognitive availability and time one spends thinking about a role – and absorption – the intensity of one's focus on a role. Such engagement appears applicable to work effort as defined above, indicating that work effort may be relevant for the relationships investigated by Rothbard (2001). Rothbard proposed that work engagement is associated with negative emotional responses to work, which in turn is negatively related to family engagement. This relationship was partially supported. Specifically, work attention was positively related to negative work affect, which was negatively related to family attention. Therefore, I expect a positive relationship between work effort and negative affect, which is harmful for individual well-being. Such a decrease in well-being might not be the case for all individuals based on Karasek's (1979) work, which found that high effort is not always harmful when employees have

decision latitude or control. However, in the present work, I focus on the effort employees engage in as a response to workload (i.e., hypothesis 11) and assume that this workload is determined by their job and not by the employee's own discretion. Therefore, following the depletion arguments presented, high effort is expected to lead to lower individual satisfactions and well-being.

Hypothesis 13: Employees who engage in high work effort will experience (a) greater strain-based work-to-family conflict, (b) lower individual well-being (positive affect, life and marital satisfactions) at home, and (c) greater individual ill-being (negative affect and burnout) at home, compared to individuals who do not give such effort.

The last relationship concerning strain-based conflict involves mediation. Namely, I expect work effort to mediate the relationship between workload and strain-based work-to-family conflict and well-being. Likewise, Dikkers et al. (2007) suggests that workload leads to effort and constant or regular exposure to workload creates negative reactions, which are likely to spill over and interfere with functioning at home. Employing the same perspective, Geurts, Taris, Kompier, Dikkers, Van Hooff, and Kinnunen (2005) define work-home interference or conflict as a process where a workers' functioning at home is influenced by negative load reactions, resulting from demanding or high workloads, that have built up at work. Overall, this suggests a relationship between workload, effort and work-family outcomes.

Hypothesis 14: Employee work effort will mediate the relationships between workload and (a) strain-based work-to-family conflict, (b) individual well-being, and (c) individual ill-being at home.

MODERATING RELATIONSHIPS

Lastly, the proposed relationships between employee labor and work-family conflict may be affected by a number of moderating variables. First, individuals differ in the extent to which they tend to segment or separate their work and family roles (e.g., Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). This is referred to as work-family integration and individuals with low work-family integration are inclined to segment their work and family domains, whereas, employees with high work-family integration make little distinction between work and family roles (Desrochers, Hilton, & Larwood, 2005; Nippert-Eng, 1996). For example, a highly integrated employee would check his/her work email and voicemail often while at home. On the other hand, an employee with low integration would be less likely to respond to work messages from home. Thus, employees with high work-family integration have more difficulty separating work and family and are more likely to experience spillover and conflict between these two life domains (Ilies, Wilson, & Wagner, 2009).

Work-family integration deals with whether individuals allow their work to influence their experiences with family and visa versa. Ilies et al. (2009) contend that employees with low integration, or those who segment work and family, limit the influence of work on family. In other words, "individuals who segment their work and family roles are less likely to think about work while they are at home because they focus primarily on the role relevant to the life domain in which they are operating at the time" (11). This suggests that individuals who are low integrators are less strongly influenced by work experiences at home and those who are high integrators are more likely to experience a link between work experiences and home experiences. In particular,

individuals who integrate their work and family roles will experience more interference at home from the labor performed at work. Furthermore, high integrators will also allow the work they performed to influence their feelings and attitudes at home, resulting in a stronger relationship between labor and individual well-being.

Hypothesis 15: The relationships between labor at work and work-to-family conflict will be moderated by work-family integration such that: (a) the relationship between emotional labor and emotion-based work-to-family conflict will be stronger for employees with high integration, (b) the relationship between behavioral monitoring and behavior-based work-to-family conflict will be stronger for employees with high integration, and (c) the relationship between work effort and strain-based work-to-family conflict will be stronger for employees with high integration.

Hypotheses 16: The relationships between labor at work and individual well-being at home will be moderated by work-family integration such that: the relationships between (a) emotional labor, (b) behavioral monitoring, and (c) work effort and well-being and ill-being will be stronger for employees with high integration.

Second, work support is also expected to impact the main relationships discussed above because research suggests that work support may prevent or reduce work-family conflict (Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Lapierre & Allen, 2006). That is, research has begun to consider what organizations and managers can do to help employees more effectively handle both work and family responsibilities. One of the major family-supportive elements examined in the workplace is supportive supervision. Thomas and Ganster (1995) define supportive supervisors as supervisors "who empathize with the employee's

desire to seek balance between work and family responsibilities" (p. 7). Examples of this type of support include accommodating a flexible schedule, being tolerant and understanding of family responsibilities, allowing short personal phone calls, etc. The results of Thomas and Ganster's (1995) study demonstrate that supportive supervisor behaviors have a positive influence on employee attitudes and well-being. Warren and Johnson (1995) reviewed and supported literature regarding a relationship between supervisor sensitivity and flexibility and role strain and work-family conflict. Specifically, they found that such supervisor support was significantly negatively related to work-family role strain. In addition, Lapierre and Allen (2006) found a similar relationship between supportive supervision and time- and strain-based work-to-family conflict. These findings suggest a buffering effect in terms of work interfering with family. In other words, when employees experience support from their supervisor, they are less likely to experience work-to-family conflict and negative consequences at home based on what they had to do at work. This suggests that the relationships between labor at work and work-to-family conflict and well-being will become weaker as supervisor support increases.

> *Hypothesis 17*: The relationships between labor at work and work-to-family conflict will be moderated by supervisor support such that: (a) the relationship between emotional labor and emotion-based work-to-family conflict will be stronger for employees with low supervisor support, (b) the relationship between behavioral monitoring and behavior-based work-to-family conflict will be stronger for employees with low supervisor support, and (c) the relationship

between work effort and strain-based work-to-family conflict will be stronger for employees with low supervisor support.

Hypotheses 18: The relationships between labor at work and individual well-being at home will be moderated by supervisor support such that: the relationships between (a) emotional labor, (b) behavioral monitoring, and (c) work effort and well-being and ill-being will be stronger for employees with low supervisor support.

Third, on an exploratory basis I will also examine the impact of family display rules on the relationships between labor at work and work-family conflict at home. In the present model, I study demands (i.e., display rules) at work as well as discuss the pressures or demands individuals may face at home and this follows Hochschild's (1983) contention that emotional labor is required at work and in individuals' personal relationships. Thus, I assume individuals have some emotional requirements at home but that these may be different across families. For instance, some may have fairly strict emotional requirements with family members and others may have little or no emotional requirements. Accordingly, I will investigate whether the strength of individuals' family display rules impact the relationships between emotional labor and work-to-family conflict.

In one of the only studies regarding emotional labor at home, Erickson (1993) operationalized emotion work within the family using items such as: confides innermost thoughts and feelings, lets me know she or he has faith in me, gives me compliments, and acts affectionately toward me, all of which appear more sincere and flexible than the display rules expected in the workplace. Moreover, Erickson's (1993) empirical results

show that husband's emotion work at home has a positive effect on women's marital well-being and wives own emotion work at home is negatively related to marital burnout. This indicates that emotional labor at home has the opposite effect on work-to-family conflict and well-being compared to emotional labor at work. If employees perceive high demands or display rules for emotional labor at home, such display rules should not be as detrimental to the employee's well-being. Thus, I explore whether emotional display rules at home impact the relationship between labor at work and work-to-family conflict and well-being at home.

METHODS AND RESULTS

SAMPLE

Participants were recruited to participate in the proposed study by e-mail and website message boards from a number of Michigan State University networks. This convenience sample, which included employees and former students of the university, was notified of the opportunity to participate in the present study via an email or message board recruitment letter. In this letter, a description and Web link for the study was provided. Interested alumni and employees were asked to sign-up for the study using the link provided, which directed them to a Web-based registration page and consent form. Recruitment for this study was ongoing and ran until enough individuals had completed the first survey (i.e., the proposed sample size for this study was 193 focal employees; the actual sample consisted of 194 employees as discussed below). Participation in the study was completely voluntary and participants were entered into a drawing for a number of small cash prizes as a reward for completing the study. An examination of participants' job titles and descriptions reveals that the sample held a variety of jobs dealing with, for example, accounting, finance, purchasing, administration or management, human resources, education, software and technology, engineering, and clerical and technical work.

One of the key concepts examined in this study includes work or job-related information. Another key criteria examined involves spouse or significant other ratings of participants' work-family conflict and well-being at home. Accordingly, only individuals who worked full-time (defined as 35 or more hours per week) and live with a spouse or

significant other who is willing to complete one survey packet at home, were eligible to participate in the present study. A total of 244 participants completed the initial survey requesting demographic and work demands information. Of these individuals, 229 completed the second survey concerning work labor questions and 194 of the employees and 172 of their spouses or significant others completed the final survey requesting work and home information. In the final sample of 194 focal individuals, 63.9% were women and 87.6% hold a bachelors degree or higher. These individuals also have an average of 1.12 children living at home. Independent sample t-test analyses comparing the 50 individuals who failed to complete all study measurements with the remaining 194 participants shows there were no significant differences between the two groups on any of the demographic variables mentioned.

PROCEDURE

Data was collected in three phases for the present study (please refer to Table 1 for an overview of the present research design). During the first phase of the study, focal participants (the employees) followed a link from the recruitment letter to the consent form and first questionnaire, which took place at work. The first survey assessed demands experienced at work as well as demographic information, support at work (i.e., supervisor support) and work-family integration.

In phase two, the second survey also occurred at work on the Web. Participants received a link via email to the second survey one to two weeks after phase one and the directions indicated that this survey should also be completed during workdays and hours. This survey measured the behaviors (e.g., labor) performed by individuals at work.

An email reminder was sent to those who had not completed the questionnaire one week after the link was sent out.

Finally, in the third phase, participants and their spouses or significant others received a survey packet in the mail at home one to two weeks after phase two was completed. This survey measured employees' work-family conflict and well-being at home. The survey instructed participants and spouses/significant others to complete the questions at home during the week during non-work hours. Both employees and spouses/significant others were asked to report the extent to which the focal participant (the employee) experienced conflict between their work and family roles as well as how they would evaluate the focal participants' well-being at home. Data was collected from the focal participants at home to validate their spouse/significant other reports of the criteria. These scores all correlated significantly (i.e., $r = .35$, $p < .01$ for emotion-based conflict; $r = .40$, $p < .01$ for emotional exhaustion; $r = .36$, $p < .01$ for personal accomplishment and so forth (all of the correlations between the significant other and focal employee reports are included in the correlation table in Table 2), which provides evidence for the validity of spouse/significant other ratings of work-family conflict and well-being.

MEASURES

Emotional Display Rules. Rules for displaying positive emotions at work was assessed during the first phase (i.e., in the first Web survey at work) of the study. Emotional display rules were measured using items from the Emotion Work Requirements Scale (Best, Downey, & Jones, 1997) and three items from Grandey (2003). These items pertain to requirements for the display of positive emotions and

examples are provided to further illustrate two of the questions. Participants were asked if they are required to do the following in their current job: "Reassure others who are distressed or upset," "Remain calm even when you are astonished," Express feelings of sympathy (e.g., be kind and understanding)," and "Express friendly emotions (e.g., smile)," "Part of my job is to make others feel good," "My workplace does *not* expect me to express positive emotions as part of my job," (reverse coded) and "My organization would say that part of my job is to be friendly and cheerful." Responses were given on a scale ranging from *1* = *not at all* to *5* = *always*. The internal consistency reliability for this measure is .86. Please refer to Appendix C for an overview of all measures included in the present study as well as Table 7 for reliability and validity evidence of these measures from past research.

Behavioral Display Rules. Rules for displaying appropriate work behavior were also assessed during the first phase of the present study. The items used to measure rules for appropriate behavior at work were modified from a scale assessing individuals' concern for the appropriateness of social behavior (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Items were modified to reflect a work setting. Participants were asked if their workplace expects the following from employees: "At my work, employees are expected to behave in appropriate ways," "I am expected to behave in a manner that makes me fit in at work," "On the job, when I am uncertain how to act I am encouraged to look to the behavior of others for cues," "At work, I should pay attention to the reactions of others regarding my behavior in order to avoid being out of place," "On the job, the slightest look of disapproval from a person with whom I am interacting is expected to make me change my approach," and "My behavior at work often depends on how I feel others wish me to

behave." Responses were given on a scale ranging from *1* = *not at all* to *5* = *always*. The reliability of this measure is .77.

Workload. To measure employees' workload during the first phase of the study, I used eight items from Janssen (2001) and one item from Ilies et al. (2007) that assesses workload directly: "My workload is high," "I have to work fast," "I have too much work to do," "I have to work extra hard to finish a task," "I work under time pressure," "I can do my work in comfort," (reverse coded) "I deal with a backlog at work," "I have problems with the pace of my work," and "I have problems with my workload." Responses were given on a scale ranging from *1* = *strongly disagree* to *5* = *strongly agree*. The reliability of this measure is .88.

Emotional Labor. Emotional labor was measured during the second phase (i.e., in the second Web survey at work) of the present study. Surface acting was assessed by asking participants how much they have to do the following in order to perform their job effectively: "I fake a good mood," "I put on an act it order to deal with others in an appropriate way," "I pretend to have emotions I need to display for my job," "I put on a 'mask' in order to display the emotions I need for my job," and "I resist expressing my true feelings." The first four items were taken from Grandey (2003) and the remaining item is from the Brotheridge and Lee (2003) emotional labor scale. The internal consistency reliability of this measure is .79. In addition, deep acting was assessed by asking participants if they do the following in order to perform their job: "I generally try to look at the positive side of things to change how I feel," "I attempt to focus on happier things," "I try to actually experience the emotions I must show," "I make an effort to actually feel the emotions I need to display to others," and "I really try to feel the

emotions I have to show as part of my job." The first two items are from Grandey, Dickter, and Sin (2004) and the remaining items are from Brotheridge and Lee's (2003) emotional labor scale. Responses ranged from *1* = *never* to *5* = *always*. The internal consistency reliability for deep acting is .83.

Behavioral monitoring. Behavioral monitoring at work was assessed during the second phase of the study using a modified version of the revised self-monitoring scale from Lennox and Wolfe (1984). Participants were presented with the following items, which are modified to reflect actual self-monitoring or behavioral monitoring performed in a work-related setting, "I alter my behavior at work if I feel that something else is called for," "On the job, I control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them," "At work, when I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does," "I have trouble changing my behavior at work to suit different people and situations," (reverse coded) "I adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in at work," "Even when it might be to my advantage, it is difficult for me to put up a good front at work," (reverse coded) and "Once I know what the situation calls for at work, I regulate my actions accordingly." Responses ranged from *1* = *never* to *5* = *always*. The reliability of the behavioral monitoring measure is .80.

Work Effort. Work effort was assessed during the second phase of the current research. Participants were presented with the work effort items from Brown and Leigh (1996) and asked to respond on a scale from *1* = *strongly disagree* to *5* = *strongly agree*. These items include "When there's a job to be done, I devote all my energy to getting it done," "When I work, I do so with intensity," "I work at my full capacity in all of my job

duties," "I strive as hard as I can to be successful in my work," and "When I work, I really exert myself to the fullest." The coefficient alpha for this measure is .89.

Emotion-based work-family conflict. Emotion-based conflict was assessed at home during the third phase of the study (i.e., the home paper-based survey) by employees themselves and their spouses/significant others, in order to test whether the two sets of ratings have adequate agreement as discussed previously. These items were developed using the theoretical definition previously provided for emotion-based conflict, as recommended by Hinkin (1995), as well as by modifying established work-family conflict items from Netemeyer et al. (1996), Kopelman, Greenhaus and Connolly (1983), and Carlson, Kacmar and Williams (2000). Employees and their spouses or significant others were provided with questions regarding the focal participants' general experience of the following. The spouse/significant other survey items were modified in order to refer to the focal participant in each item (e.g., "...my spouse/significant other..."). "The emotional demands of my job make it difficult for me to express appropriate emotions at home," "The emotions required by my job often prevent me from contributing to our home/family life," "The emotional demands of my work interfere with our home and family life," I am not able to display appropriate emotions at home because of my work," and "The emotions that are necessary for my job make it difficult for me to meet emotional demands here at home." Responses were given on a scale ranging from *1* = *strongly disagree* to *5* = *strongly agree.* In addition, detailed instructions were provided for this measure in order to give participants and their spouses/significant others an example of the emotional demands referred to in the questions listed. The internal

consistency reliability of the measure is .95 for the employee ratings and .92 for the spouse/significant other ratings.

Behavior-based work-family conflict. Behavior-based conflict was assessed by employees and their spouses/significant others during the third and final phase of the study. Items were modified from Carlson et al. (2000) and the other work-family conflict scales included in the present study. Employees and spouses/significant others responded to questions regarding the focal participants' general experience of the following at home: "I am not able to monitor or control my behavior at home as I do at work," "The behavioral demands of my job make it difficult for me to engage in appropriate behaviors at home," "Behavior that is appropriate for me at work interferes with my family life here at home," "The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better spouse or family member," and "The behaviors that are necessary for my job make it difficult for me to meet behavioral demands here at home." Responses were given on a scale ranging from *1* = *strongly disagree* to *5* = *strongly agree.* Detailed instructions were also provided in the surveys for this measure in order to give participants and their spouses/significant others an example of the behaviors referred to in the questions listed. The internal consistency reliability of this measure is .84 for the employee ratings and .85 for the spouse/significant other ratings.

Strain-based work-family conflict. Strain-based conflict was assessed by employees and their spouses or significant others during the final phase of the present study. Items were used from Kopelman et al. (1983) and Carlson et al. (2000). Employees and spouses/significant others were asked whether the focal participant experiences the following in general: "The demands of my job make it difficult for me to be relaxed at

home," "After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I would like to do," "Because my work is demanding, at times I am irritable at home," "It is difficult for me to relax when I am away from work," "Tension and anxiety from work often creep into my family life," "I often feel I am rushing to get my nonwork responsibilities taken care of in order to get back to work," "I am often stressed by trying to balance my responsibilities when work interferes with the rest of my life," "I am often so drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family," "I am often preoccupied with work while I am here at home," "Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I really enjoys," and "Sometimes I feel overwhelmed by all of my responsibilities at work." Responses were given on a scale ranging from *1* = *strongly disagree* to *5* = *strongly agree*. The internal consistency reliability of the measure is .92 for the employee ratings and .89 for the spouse/significant other ratings.

Burnout. Burnout was assessed during the final phase of the study by employees and their spouse or significant other. These items include those from Maslach and Jackson (1981) and respondents were asked the following questions regarding the focal participant at home. The first set of questions concerns the emotional exhaustion component of burnout. "I feel emotionally drained from my work," "I feel used up at the end of the day," "I feel fatigued when I gets up in the morning and have to face another day on the job," "Working with people is really a strain for me," "I feel burned out from my work," "I feel frustrated after work," "I feel I'm working too hard," "Working with people puts too much stress on me," and "I feel like I'm at the end of my rope." The depersonalization component was measured by asking employees and spouses/significant

others the extent to which the focal participant experiences the following in general at home: "I feel I treat others as if they are impersonal 'objects'," "I feel I am callous toward others," "I worry I am becoming emotionally hardened," "I don't really care about what happens to others," and "I feel others blame me for some of their problems." Finally, the component of personal accomplishment was measured by asking employees and their spouses/significant others whether the focal participant: "I easily understand how others feel about things," "I deal very effectively with problems," "I feel I'm positively influencing others lives," "I feel very energetic," "I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with others," "I feel exhilarated after working closely with others," "I feel I've accomplished many worthwhile things," and "I deal with emotional problems very calmly." Responses ranged from *1* = *never* to *5* = *always*. The reliabilities of the burnout components are .87 and .86 for emotional exhaustion, .77 and .81 for depersonalization, and .76 and .82 for personal accomplishment for the employee ratings spouse/significant other ratings respectively.

Affect at home. Home affect was assessed by employees and their spouses or significant others during the final phase of the present study using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Watson & Clark, 1994). Employees and spouses/significant others were presented with a list of 20 adjective descriptors of affect and asked to indicate the extent to which the focal participant typically feels each of the adjectives listed in the evening (at home). Responses were given on a scale ranging from *1* = *very slightly or not at all* to *5* = *extremely*. Specifically, the ten adjective descriptors for the positive scale are "interested," "enthusiastic," "excited," "strong," "proud," "alert," "inspired," "attentive," "active" and "determined." The ten adjective descriptors for the

negative scale are "upset," "irritable," "distressed," "guilty," "scared," "ashamed," "nervous," "jittery," "afraid" and "hostile." The internal consistency reliability scores for positive and negative affect at home are .88 and .86 for the employee ratings and .88 and .85 for the spouse/significant other ratings, respectively.

Life satisfaction. Life satisfaction was measured at home on the final paper-based survey completed by both employees and spouses or significant others. A five-item measure of life satisfaction (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) included the following general items. "If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing," "I am satisfied with my life," "So far, I got the important things I want in life," "The conditions of my life are excellent," and "In most ways my life is close to ideal." Responses were given on a scale ranging from *1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree.* The average internal consistency reliability for the measure is .88 for the employee ratings and .87 for the spouse/significant other ratings.

Marital satisfaction. During the final phase of the study I used Norton's (1983) scale to assess marital satisfaction using employee and spouse/significant other ratings. Employees and their spouses or significant others were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with the following statements concerning their marriage. The scale items include: "I feel that I have a good marriage or relationship," "I feel that my relationship with my spouse or significant other is very stable," "Our marriage or relationship is very strong," "I really feel like part of a team with my spouse/significant other" and "My relationship with my spouse or significant other has made me happy." This measure included a five-point scale, ranging from *1 = strongly disagree,* to *5 =*

strongly agree. The reliability of the marital satisfaction scale is .97 for the employee ratings and .96 for the spouse/significant other ratings.

Work-family integration. The extent to which each participant in the study integrates work and family roles was measured using a slightly-modified version of the three-item Work-Family Role Integration-Blurring Scale (Desrochers et al., 2005). At the beginning of the study, during the first work survey, focal participants responded to the following items: "It is often difficult to tell where my work life ends and my family life begins," "I tend to integrate my work and family duties when I work at home," and "In my life, there is a clear boundary between my career and my role as a spouse or family member" (reverse-scored). The response scale I used to measure work-family integration ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*; and therefore, higher scores are associated with more integrated work-family roles. The reliability score for this measure is .75.

Supervisor support. At the beginning of the study (during phase one), focal participants also responded to a nine-item measure of supervisor support. Participants were asked the following questions from Shinn, Wong, Simko and Ortiz-Torres (1989). A 5-point response scale ranging from 1 = *never* to 5 = *always* was used for participants to rate how often their supervisor engaged in the following behaviors: "Switched schedules (hours, overtime hours, vacation) to accommodate my family responsibilities," "Listened to my problems," "Was critical of my efforts to combine work and family," (reverse coded) "Juggled tasks or duties to accommodate my family responsibilities," "Shared ideas or advice," "Held my family responsibilities against me," (reverse coded) "Helped me to figure out how to solve a problem," "Was understanding or sympathetic,"

"Showed resentment of my needs as a working parent or family member" (reverse coded). The coefficient alpha score for this measure is .82.

Family emotional display rules. Participants completed an assessment of family display rules during the final paper-based survey that took place at home. To measure this construct, items from Erickson (1993) were modified to reflect demands regarding family emotional displays rather than actual emotional displays or labor within the family. Participants were asked if they are expected to do the following at home: "Confide your innermost thoughts and feelings," "Let your family members (e.g., spouse, children, etc.) know you have faith in them," "Sense when a family member is disturbed about something," "Offer others encouragement," "Give your spouse or family compliments," "Stick by your family in times of trouble," "Act affectionately toward your spouse/significant other," and "Communicate your feelings about the future of your family." Responses were given on a scale ranging from *1 = not at all* to *5 = always*. The internal consistency reliability for this measure is .88.

Other variables. Time-based conflict was also measured in order to test the distinctiveness of the different forms of work-family conflict in the overall measurement model. Time-based conflict was assessed by employees and spouses/significant others during the final phase of the study (i.e., the paper survey at home) using a three-item measure from Kopelman et al. (1983). The items include "My work takes up time that I would like to spend with family or friends," "My work schedule often conflicts with my family life," "I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests." Responses were provided on a scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly*

agree. The reliability of the time-based conflict measure is .83 for the employee ratings and .79 for the spouse/significant other ratings.

ANALYSES AND RESULTS

Latent variable structural equation modeling was utilized to analyze the data. I followed the two-step approach recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), which involves testing the measurement model to establish acceptable convergent and discriminant validities and then the structural model to test the paths (hypotheses) proposed in the present research. Several measurement models and structural models were tested based on the comprehensive work-to-family conflict model and well- and ill-being outcomes proposed herein (see Figures 3 through 7). Additionally, the means, standard deviations, correlations and coefficient alpha reliabilities (which are on the diagonal) for all variables are provided in Table 2 (these descriptive statistics only include the items supported in the factor analyses discussed below). Finally, in the LISREL results discussed below concerning both the measurement and structural models, which utilized the relevant raw item data, missing data was dealt with by using the maximum likelihood estimation imputation option in PRELIS (the data program connected to LISREL). The MLE imputation method is the optimal strategy recommended for fitting structural equation models (Du Toit & Mels, 2002). This method assumes missing values are missing at random, which was confirmed by conducting a missing values analysis in SPSS. The SPSS results confirmed that the vast majority of items were missing at random, suggesting MLE imputation is appropriate.

Measurement models. For a more thorough analysis, before conducting any confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs), I first analyzed the data in SPSS using exploratory

factor analysis (EFA). EFA does not include prior specification of the number of factors (whereas, a CFA includes a measurement model that is specified a priori) and this exploratory analysis is recommended as a preliminary step in the progression of Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach. In terms of the job demands measures (emotional display rules, behavioral display rules and workload), the EFA suggested that a few items did not load highly on just one factor (emotional display rules item #6, behavioral display rules items #1 and 2, and workload items #6, 8, and 9). Reviewing these items suggests dropping them is appropriate because two of the items are intended to be reverse coded, which may confuse participants, and a couple of the workload items refer to how individuals feel about their workload and not about their actual level of workload like the remaining items. After removing these items from the EFA, three factors emerged as expected.

Next, a CFA was conducted in LISREL (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996) using the reduced number of items. This analysis confirmed the EFA findings discussed above. In order to determine the extent to which the data conform to the measurement model proposed, a variety of fit indexes were examined. Table 3 presents the fit indexes for the measurement models tested herein. Based on the scores reported by the focal participant (the employee), the overall fit of the demands measurement model was acceptable [chi-square statistic (χ^2) = 210.27, $p < .00$; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.96; nonnormed fit index (NNFI) = 0.96; the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.07 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.05; 0.08; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = 0.05]. The chi-square test statistic is a goodness-of-fit measure that is used to assess whether the data adequately fit the proposed model (Joreskog & Sorbom,

1996). However, reliance on chi-square alone is not recommended because it is sensitive to sample size (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Muller, 2003), which is why other fit indexes were also be evaluated. The CFI and NNFI are less affected by sample size and are indexes that compare the fit of the proposed model to a baseline or restricted model. Values greater than 0.90 for CFI and NNFI are said to indicate adequate fit (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Bentler, 1990; Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003). The RMSEA is a measure of approximate fit in the population or "close fit" (Browne & Cudeck, 1993) and is an estimate of the difference between the model and the population covariance matrix. Values between 0.05 and 0.08 for RMSEA indicate adequate fit (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003). Additionally, SRMR is a measure of the average of the fitted residuals and is an overall badness-of-fit measure in which values close to zero suggest good fit. The rule of thumb for SRMR is that values less than .05 indicate good fit, yet values less than .10 can be interpreted as acceptable (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996; Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003).

Next, in terms of the labor variables (emotional labor, behavioral monitoring and effort), an EFA suggested that a few items did not load highly on one factor (surface acting #2 and 5, deep acting #1 and 2, and behavioral monitoring #4 and 6). These EFA suggestions make sense for the surface and deep acting items because these items came from different measures (i.e., different manuscripts), which suggests they should not be combined. In addition, the behavioral monitoring items that were dropped were reverse coded and may have been misinterpreted by participants. Using this reduced set of items with the focal participant ratings (the employee), the overall fit of the labor CFA in LISREL was acceptable [chi-square statistic (χ^2) = 161.21, $p < .00$; comparative fit index

(CFI) = 0.97; nonnormed fit index (NNFI) = 0.97; the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.05 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.04; 0.07; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = 0.05].

Next, a CFA was conducted in order to test the distinctiveness of the four different forms of work-family conflict. The scale items presented in the measures section for emotion-, behavior-, strain- and time-based work-family conflict served as the indicators of their respective latent constructs (see Figure 3). This model received good fit [chi-square statistic (χ^2) = 535.07, $p < .00$; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.97; nonnormed fit index (NNFI) = 0.97; the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.08 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.07; 0.09; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = 0.06]. In addition, a CFA was conducted on just the three forms of work-family conflict that will be tested in the structural model. Only the first three strain-based work-family conflict items were included in order to simplify the model and follow previous research. This CFA also received good fit [chi-square statistic (χ^2) = 131.52, $p < .00$; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.98; nonnormed fit index (NNFI) = 0.98; the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.08 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.06; 0.09; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = 0.04].

Finally, similar factor analyses were conducted for the well-being and ill-being outcomes proposed. In terms of well-being (i.e., positive affect, life and marital satisfaction), the EFA and CFA suggests that all of the items proposed are appropriate indicators of the three factors. Specifically, the CFA model was well supported [chi-square statistic (χ^2) = 303.64, $p < .00$; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.98; nonnormed fit

index (NNFI) = 0.97; the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.06 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.05; 0.08; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)= 0.06]. Regarding the ill-being outcomes, the EFA suggested that many of the emotional exhaustion and negative affect items loaded on the same factor. Since both of these constructs deal with emotions, this was not surprising. As a result, analyses were conducted separately for the burnout and negative affect outcomes. In addition, the EFA suggested that emotional exhaustion items #4 and 8 should be dropped, as well as depersonalization item #5 and personal accomplishment items #1, 3, 5 and 6. In reviewing these items this appears appropriate because all of these burnout items pertain to working with others or how one feels about others and I am interested in the participants' own feelings of burnout. By dropping the items that focus on "others", the CFA fit indexes improved and the measurement model received adequate fit [chi-square statistic (χ^2) = 172.73, $p < .00$; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.96; nonnormed fit index (NNFI) = 0.95; the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.07 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.06; 0.09; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = 0.07].

Similar CFA results were found using the spouse/significant other ratings (refer to Table 4), which suggests that using spouse/significant other ratings in order to limit potential common rater problems may be appropriate in future analyses. However, when using significant other ratings of the outcomes in the structural models, some of the conclusions regarding the specific hypotheses change (e.g., hypotheses that were supported with focal data are no longer significant when using spouse/significant other ratings of the outcomes). Since the purpose of the present research is to investigate how

demands and labor at work impact experiences of work-family conflict and well-being at home, which are primarily internal individual processes, I focus on the focal employee data findings herein given there are discrepancies between the focal employee data findings and those found when using significant other ratings. Namely, I will provide an overview of the fit indexes for each structural model using both focal and significant other data; however, the results for the specific hypotheses will be discussed in terms of the focal employee data findings only.

Structural models. The first structural model tested in LISREL focuses on the hypothesized relationships concerning work-family conflict (displayed in Figure 4). In general, the model was supported (Table 5; $\chi^2 = 1457.81$, $p < .00$; CFI = .93; NNFI = .92; RMSEA = .05 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.05; 0.06; SRMR = 0.14). In terms of the work-family conflict structural model using the spouse/significant other data, this model also received adequate fit, similar to the focal employee model just presented (Table 6; $\chi^2 = 1371.61$, $p < .00$; CFI = .93; NNFI = .92; RMSEA = .05 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.05; 0.06; SRMR=.12). In addition, four out of the five main effects hypotheses that were supported by the focal employee data were also supported by the significant other data (i.e., Hypotheses 1b, 7, 11 and 12 were supported, however, Hypothesis 3a was supported for surface acting with the focal data but not supported with the significant other data). Of particular interest here is that the emotion-based work-family conflict relationship that was supported with the focal employee data is not supported when using the significant other data; whereas, the supported strain-based conflict relationship remains strong and significant in both the focal and significant other models. An explanation for this finding may be that significant

others can more accurately rate strain-based conflict because fatigue and tension are more easily observed compared to emotion-based conflict which may be a more internal process (this is discussed in more detail in the limitations section of this document).

The second model focuses on the well-being outcomes proposed. Overall, this model also received adequate fit (Figure 5; $\chi^2 = 1852.01$, $p < .00$; CFI = .93; NNFI = .93; RMSEA = .05 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.04; 0.05; SRMR = 0.11). When including the spouse/significant other ratings of well-being, the same model[1] also received good fit ($\chi^2 = 1785.61$, $p < .00$; CFI = .93; NNFI = .92; RMSEA = .05 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.05; 0.06; SRMR=.11) and in general, similar relationships were supported minus the links from surface acting to positive affect and life satisfaction (which were significant when examining the focal employee data).

In addition, the structural model for burnout was supported by the data (Figure 6; $\chi^2 = 1487.05$, $p < .00$; CFI = .92; NNFI = .91; RMSEA = .05 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.04; 0.05; SRMR = 0.09). The significant other structural model for burnout also received adequate fit ($\chi^2 = 1459.96$, $p < .00$; CFI = .91; NNFI = .91; RMSEA = .05 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.05; 0.06; SRMR=.09). In spite of this, different relationships between the labor and outcome variables were supported when comparing the significant other results with the focal (i.e., significant links are found between surface acting and work effort and all three dimensions of burnout with the focal data; whereas, with the significant other data the links between deep acting and depersonalization and personal accomplishment and behavioral

[1] The significant other well-being structural model was the same as the model using focal employee responses except for the removal of the tenth positive affect item because this item was preventing the model from converging (possibly due to the large number of items for positive affect and the smaller sample size of significant others).

monitoring and depersonalization are supported. These differences may be due to the notion mention previously, that such process and experiences are internal to employees and not easily observed by spouses or significant others). Finally, the structural model for negative affect as an outcome was moderately supported due to the NNFI value boarding acceptable levels (Figure 7; $\chi^2 = 1401.19$, $p < .00$; CFI = .90; NNFI = .89; RMSEA = .06 and the 90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA = 0.06; 0.07; SRMR = 0.08). In addition, the structural model regarding negative affect received poor fit with the spouse or significant other data, which is not a surprise given this model received the worst fit of all the structural models tested when examining focal employee ratings.

Next, the results for the specific hypotheses will be reviewed, which focuses on the data that was collected from the focal participant as discussed previously. Hypothesis 1a was not supported concerning the relationship between rules for displaying positive emotions at work and surface acting. In contrast, Hypothesis 1b was supported, which suggests that rules for displaying positive emotions are associated with an increase in deep acting. The paths were positive for both surface and deep acting, yet significant for deep acting only ($B = .06$, *ns*; $B = .29$, $p < .01$ respectively). Not consistent with Hypothesis 2a, rules for displaying positive emotions at work was not significantly related to emotion-based conflict ($B = .00$, *ns*). In addition, Hypothesis 2b regarding the relationships between rules for displaying positive emotions and the well-being outcomes were not supported by the data ($B = .15$, $p < .01$ for positive affect; $B = .26$, $p < .01$ for life satisfaction; $B = .21$, $p < .01$ for marital satisfaction). In fact, the relationships proposed in Hypothesis 2b are strongly significant in the opposite direction, which will be discussed in the discussion section. Hypothesis 2c concerning the relationships

between rules for displaying positive emotions at work and the ill-being outcomes was not supported by the data. However, this relationship was significant in the opposite direction in terms of the personal accomplishment dimension of burnout, which is reverse coded in the data since traditionally lower scores on personal accomplishment correspond with higher degrees of experienced burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; B = -.03, *ns* for negative affect; and B = -.03, *ns* for emotional exhaustion; B = -.08, *ns* for depersonalization; B = -.11, $p < .01$ for personal accomplishment).

Surface acting had a positive effect on emotion-based conflict, whereas the effect for deep acting was not significant as proposed in Hypothesis 3a (B = .61, $p < .01$ for surface acting; B = -.10, *ns* for deep acting). In terms of Hypothesis 3b, surface acting had a negative effect on well-being in terms of positive affect and life satisfaction (B = -.40, $p < .01$ for positive affect; B = -.31, $p < .05$ for life satisfaction; B = .15, *ns* for marital satisfaction). Different relationships were found for deep acting and well-being. Only one of the well-being relationships was significant and it was in the opposite direction than expected (B = .06, *ns* for positive affect; B = .10, *ns* for life satisfaction; B = .17, $p < .05$ for marital satisfaction).

Finally, as expected, surface acting had significant positive effects on all four ill-being outcomes (B = .29, $p < .05$ for negative affect; and B = .51, $p < .01$ for emotional exhaustion; B = .42, $p < .01$ for depersonalization; B = .15, $p < .05$ for personal accomplishment) and deep acting had a no significant effects on ill-being (B = -.06, *ns* for negative affect; and B = -.02, *ns* for emotional exhaustion; B = -.04, *ns* for depersonalization; B = -.02, *ns* for personal accomplishment). These findings provide

support for Hypotheses 3a, b and c, in terms of surface acting, but are not supported in regards to deep acting.

Hypothesis 4 proposes that surface acting has stronger relationships with the outcomes in the previous hypothesis compared to deep acting. In terms of emotion-based conflict, surface acting was significantly related to such conflict, whereas the relationship with deep acting was not significant. Additionally, confidence intervals (at the $p<.05$ level) were calculated for the coefficients in both relationships and these intervals did not overlap, suggesting the effect for surface acting on emotion-based work-family conflict were stronger and significantly different than the effect for deep acting. Similar results were found for both positive affect and life satisfaction. The confidence intervals for the effects of surface and deep acting on life satisfaction overlap very slightly suggesting these are different effects (confidence interval for surface acting: -.02, -.60; confidence interval for deep acting: .24, -.04). On the other hand, this hypothesis was not supported with regards to marital satisfaction. Deep acting has a significant relationship with marital satisfaction and the confidence intervals for the deep and surface acting coefficients overlap in terms of their relationship with marital satisfaction. Finally, surface acting had statistically significant relationships with all of the burnout outcomes and negative affect, whereas deep acting did not. In addition, none of the confidence intervals for these coefficients overlapped except for the interval regarding personal accomplishment, which barely overlapped (confidence interval for surface acting: .28, .02; confidence interval for deep acting: .04, -.08), suggesting the effects for surface acting on burnout and negative affect are statistically different than the effects for deep acting. Taken as a whole, these results provide support for Hypothesis 4.

The indirect effects of rules for displaying positive emotions at work on emotion-based work-family conflict and well-being, mediated by emotional labor, will also be examined using LISREL. The indirect effects of rules for displaying positive emotions on emotion-based conflict via surface acting were calculated using the product of the coefficients (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996) for rules for positive emotions at work and surface acting (B = .06, *ns*) and surface acting and emotion-based conflict (B = .61, $p <$ .01), which is (.06 X .61 = .04). This indirect effect is not significant based on the Sobel (1982) test (Sobel = 1.36, *ns*). The indirect effects of rules for displaying positive emotions on well-being via surface acting are negative for positive affect and life satisfaction and positive for marital satisfaction (.06 X -.40 = -.02 for positive affect; .06 X -.31 = -.02 for life satisfaction; .06 X .15 = .01 for marital satisfaction), however these are not significant (Sobel = 1.33, *ns* for positive affect; Sobel = 1.18, *ns* for life satisfaction; and Sobel = .77, *ns* for marital satisfaction). Additionally, the indirect effects of rules for displaying positive emotions on ill-being via surface acting are positive (.05 X .29 = .02 for negative affect; .06 X .51 = .03 for emotional exhaustion; .06 X .42 = .03 for depersonalization; .06 X .15 = .01 for personal accomplishment) but not significant (Sobel = 1.21, *ns* for negative affect; Sobel = 1.39, *ns* for emotional exhaustion; Sobel = 1.37, *ns* for depersonalization; Sobel = 1.22, *ns* for personal accomplishment).

Similar results were found for deep acting. The indirect effect of rules for displaying positive emotions on emotion-based conflict via deep acting is (.29 X -.10 = -.03). This indirect effect is not significant based on the Sobel (1982) test (Sobel = 1.20, *ns*). The indirect effects of rules for displaying positive emotions on well-being via deep acting are not significant for positive affect and life satisfaction and marginally

significant, yet positive for marital satisfaction (.28 X .06 = .02 for positive affect; .28 X .10 = .03 for life satisfaction; .28 X .17 = .05 for marital satisfaction; and Sobel = 1.08, *ns* for positive affect; Sobel = 1.32, *ns* for life satisfaction; Sobel = 1.85, $p = .07$ for marital satisfaction). Additionally, the indirect effects of rules for displaying positive emotions on ill-being via deep acting are negative but not significant (.28 X -.06 = -.02 for negative affect; .28 X -.02 = -.01 for emotional exhaustion; .28 X -.04 = -.01 for depersonalization; .28 X -.02 = -.01 for personal accomplishment; Sobel = 1.11, *ns* for negative affect; Sobel = .26, *ns* for emotional exhaustion; Sobel = .72, *ns* for depersonalization; Sobel = .65, *ns* for personal accomplishment). Overall, these results do not support Hypotheses 5a, b or c. The indirect effects for surface acting reported for the previous hypothesis are not larger than those for deep acting, which does not support Hypothesis 6.

Next, the relationships regarding behavioral display rules and monitoring will be examined. Specifically, Hypothesis 7 was supported. Rules for displaying appropriate behavior at work was associated with an increase in employee behavioral monitoring ($B = .17$, $p < .01$). Not consistent with Hypothesis 8a, rules for displaying appropriate behavior at work was not related to behavior-based conflict ($B = -.04$, *ns*). Additionally, Hypothesis 8b was not supported concerning the relationship between rules for displaying appropriate behavior and well-being ($B = -.02$, *ns* for positive affect; $B = -.07$, *ns* for life satisfaction; $B = -.11$, *ns* for marital satisfaction) and Hypothesis 8c regarding the ill-being outcomes was also not supported by the data ($B = .07$, *ns* for negative affect; and $B = .02$, *ns* for emotional exhaustion; $B = -.02$, *ns* for depersonalization; $B = -.03$, *ns* for personal accomplishment). Behavioral monitoring had a positive but not significant effect on behavior-based conflict ($B = .13$, *ns*) and no significant effects on well-being (*B*

= .09, *ns* for positive affect; *B* = -.16, *ns* for life satisfaction; *B* = -.05, *ns* for marital satisfaction). There was also no support for Hypothesis 9c in that behavioral monitoring had no significant effects on ill-being (*B* = .04, *ns* for negative affect; and *B* = .05, *ns* for emotional exhaustion; *B* = -.11, *ns* for depersonalization; *B* = -.03, *ns* for personal accomplishment).

In terms of mediation, Hypotheses 10 a, b and c were not supported by the data. The indirect effect of rules for displaying appropriate behavior on behavior-based conflict via behavioral monitoring is positive (i.e., the coefficient for rules for appropriate behavior and behavioral monitoring multiplied by the coefficient for behavioral monitoring and behavior-based conflict is .02) and not significant (Sobel = 1.08, *ns*). The indirect effects of rules for displaying appropriate behavior at work on well-being via behavioral monitoring are mixed (.16 X .09 = .01 for positive affect; .16 X -.16 = -.03 for life satisfaction; .16 X -.05 = -.01 for marital satisfaction) and not significant (Sobel = .89, *ns* for positive affect; Sobel = 1.12, *ns* for life satisfaction; and Sobel = .33, *ns* for marital satisfaction). Additionally, the indirect effects of rules for displaying appropriate work behavior on ill-being at home via behavioral monitoring are mixed (.17 X .04 = .01 for negative affect; .17 X .05 = .01 for emotional exhaustion; .17 X -.11 = -.02 for depersonalization; .17 X -.03 = -.01 for personal accomplishment) and not significant (Sobel = .41, *ns* for negative affect; Sobel = .51, *ns* for emotional exhaustion; Sobel = 1.07, *ns* for depersonalization; Sobel = .43, *ns* for personal accomplishment).

Regarding strain-based work-to-family conflict, Hypothesis 11 was supported. Workload was associated with an increase in employee work effort (*B* = .15, $p < .01$). Consistent with Hypothesis 12a, workload was also positively related to strain-based

conflict ($B = .51$, $p < .01$). Additionally, Hypothesis 12b was supported for life satisfaction ($B = -.08$, *ns* for positive affect; $B = -.17$, $p < .05$ for life satisfaction; $B = .02$, *ns* for marital satisfaction) and 12c was supported for emotional exhaustion ($B = .04$, *ns* for negative affect; and $B = .28$, $p < .01$ for emotional exhaustion; $B = .09$, *ns* for depersonalization; $B = .03$, *ns* for personal accomplishment). That is, workload was significantly and negatively related to life satisfaction, as well as significantly and positively related to emotional exhaustion as expected. Employee work effort did not have significant effect on strain-based conflict ($B = .02$, *ns*) and had positive effects on well-being, which is in the opposite direction than originally proposed ($B = .31$, $p < .01$ for positive affect; $B = .40$, $p < .01$ for life satisfaction; $B = .18$, *ns* for marital satisfaction). With regards to Hypothesis 13c, there was no support for the relationships expected between work effort and the three burnout outcomes, however, these relationships were significant in the opposite direction (B = -.16, ns for negative affect; and B = -.23, p < .05 for emotional exhaustion; B = -.25, p < .05 for depersonalization; B = -.23, p < .01 for personal accomplishment).

Finally, Hypotheses 14a, b and c were not supported by the data (however, in 14b and c, a number of the tests for mediation were significant, but one of the links in these supported relationships was in the opposite direction than expected as discussed above). The indirect effect of workload on strain-based conflict via employee work effort is positive (.15 X .02 = .00) and not significant (Sobel = .16, *ns*). The indirect effects of workload on well-being via work effort are positive (.14 X .31 = .04 for positive affect; .14 X .40 = .06 for life satisfaction; .14 X .18 = .03 for marital satisfaction) and significant for positive affect and life satisfaction (Sobel = 2.27, p < .05 for positive

affect; Sobel = 2.17, $p < .05$ for life satisfaction; and Sobel = 1.14, *ns* for marital satisfaction). In addition, the indirect effects of workload on ill-being at home via employee work effort are negative (.14 X -.16 = -.02 for negative affect; .14 X -.23 = -.03 for emotional exhaustion; .14 X -.25 = -.04 for depersonalization; .14 X -.23 = -.03 for personal accomplishment) and significant for depersonalization and personal accomplishment and marginally significant for emotional exhaustion (Sobel = 1.44, *ns* for negative affect; Sobel = 1.81, $p = .07$ for emotional exhaustion; Sobel = 1.99, $p < .05$ for depersonalization; Sobel = 2.26, $p < .05$ for personal accomplishment).

Moderation Analyses. The last set of analyses conducted in LISREL tested the moderating effects of work-family integration and supervisor support on the relationships tested thus far. Following the Mathieu, Tannenbaum and Salas (1992) procedure, which is explained thoroughly in Cortina, Chen and Dunlap (2001), composites of each latent variable (i.e., surface and deep acting, behavioral monitoring, work effort and work-family integration or supervisor support) were calculated by summing the item indicators and standardizing each composite. Then, these standardized scores were multiplied together to form the 'latent' product or moderator term. For example, in the case of examining the impact of work-family integration on the surface acting relationships, the surface acting standardized composite was multiplied with the work-family integration standardized composite to create the product term to test moderation. The measurement properties for the three calculated composites are then fixed following the step-by-step procedure outlined in Cortina et al. (2001). Specifically, the loadings or values for lambda, or the paths from the latent composites to their indicator variables, are set equal to the square roots of the reliabilities of those composites. In addition, the error variances

are also fixed and set equal to the product of the composite's variance and one minus its reliability (Cortina et al., 2001).

The results show that the interactive effect of work-family integration and surface acting is positive and significant when predicting emotion-based work-family conflict, but not significant for deep acting ($B = .15$, $p < .01$ for surface acting; $B = .09$, *ns* for deep acting), which partially supports Hypothesis 15a. These findings suggest that individuals who have more highly integrated work and family roles and engage in surface acting at work, experience greater emotion-based work-family conflict at home compared to individuals who do not integrate their work and family roles. On the other hand, the interaction between work-family integration and surface acting is not significant when predicting well-being ($B = -.07$, *ns* for positive affect; $B = -.09$, *ns* for life satisfaction; $B = -.10$, *ns* for marital satisfaction), yet the interaction with deep acting is negative and significant for two of the well-being outcomes ($B = -.08$, $p < .05$ for positive affect; $B = -.15$, $p < .01$ for life satisfaction; $B = -.11$, *ns* for marital satisfaction; see Figure 8 for a plot of this interaction with life satisfaction. Please note that interaction plots are only provided for some of the supported moderated relationships due to the vast number of moderation analyses conducted). The plot for the interaction regarding life satisfaction suggests that this effect is not stronger for individuals with highly integrated work and family roles (i.e., the interaction is in the opposite direction than expected). Instead, individuals who have highly segmented roles (low work-family integration) experience higher levels of life satisfaction when they engage in high levels of deep acting at work and lower levels of life satisfaction when they engage in low levels of deep acting at work. An explanation for this finding may be that after engaging in deep acting

individuals experience positive feelings and positive affect has been positively linked to life satisfaction (Diener et al. [1985] found a positive correlation between life satisfaction ratings and ratings of positive affect); furthermore, segmentors are not aware that this change in internal feelings resulting from deep acting at work is creeping into their family life. Additionally, the interaction for surface acting with work-family integration is positive and significant for two of the ill-being at home outcomes ($B = .09$, *ns* for negative affect and $B = .12$, $p < .01$ for emotional exhaustion; $B = .09$, $p < .05$ for depersonalization; $B = .02$, *ns* for personal accomplishment) and not significant in terms of deep acting except for emotional exhaustion ($B = .08$, *ns* for negative affect and $B = .12$, $p < .01$ for emotional exhaustion; $B = .03$, *ns* for depersonalization; $B = .02$, *ns* for personal accomplishment), which provides partial support for Hypothesis 16a.

In terms of behavioral monitoring, the results show that the interactive effect of work-family integration and behavioral monitoring is positive and significant when predicting behavior-based work-family conflict ($B = .11$, $p < .05$), which supports Hypothesis 15b. This suggests that behavioral monitoring has an impact on behavior-based conflict when individuals' work-family integration is taken into account. That is, individuals with highly integrated work and family roles experience more behavior-based work-family conflict when they engage in higher levels of behavioral monitoring at work (see Figure 9 for a plot of this interaction). In addition, the interaction between work-family integration and behavioral monitoring is significant only when predicting the positive affect aspect of well-being ($B = -.09$, $p < .05$ for positive affect; $B = -.09$, *ns* for life satisfaction; $B = -.03$, *ns* for marital satisfaction). This interaction is positive and significant for the emotional exhaustion (see Figure 10 for a plot of this interaction) and

depersonalization dimensions of burnout as well (B = -.02, *ns* for negative affect; B = .13, $p < .01$ for emotional exhaustion; B = .11, $p < .01$ for depersonalization; B = -.00, *ns* for personal accomplishment), which provides partial support for Hypothesis 16b.

Third, the results show that the interactive effect of work-family integration and employee work effort is not significant when predicting strain-based work-family conflict (B = .03, *ns*), which does not support Hypothesis 15c. In addition, the interaction between work-family integration and work effort is not significant when predicting well-being (B = .01, *ns* for positive affect; B = .04, *ns* for life satisfaction; B = -.02, *ns* for marital satisfaction). This interaction is also not significant for ill-being at home, only depersonalization received a significant finding (B = .06, *ns* for negative affect; B = .07, *ns* for emotional exhaustion; B = .08, $p < .05$ for depersonalization; B = .02, *ns* for personal accomplishment), which does not provide support overall for Hypothesis 16c. Overall, these findings provide little support for the interaction effects of work-family integration and work effort on the conflict, well-being and ill-being outcomes.

In order to test the final set of formal hypotheses, the composite product for supervisor support and surface acting, support and deep acting, support and behavioral monitoring and support and work effort was included in the various outcome models. The results show that the interactive effect of supervisor support and emotional labor is not significant when predicting emotion-based work-family conflict (B = -.05, *ns* for surface acting; B = -.06, *ns* for deep acting), which does not support Hypothesis 17a. In addition, the interaction between supervisor support and surface acting did not receive support when predicting well-being because the model did not converge, which suggests poor fit of the proposed model regarding supervisor support moderating the relationships between

surface acting and well-being. The interaction with supervisor support was also not significant for well-being in terms of deep acting (B = .04, *ns* for positive affect; B = .06, *ns* for life satisfaction; B = .05, *ns* for marital satisfaction). The interaction for surface acting is negative and significant for all of the ill-being at home outcomes except negative affect (B = -.05, *ns* for negative affect and B = -.09, $p < .05$ for emotional exhaustion; B = -.11, $p < .01$ for depersonalization; B = -.05, $p < .05$ for personal accomplishment), but not significant in terms of deep acting (B = .02, *ns* for negative affect and B = -.01, *ns* for emotional exhaustion; B = -.02, *ns* for depersonalization; B = .04, *ns* for personal accomplishment), which provides support for the surface acting form of emotional labor only in Hypothesis 18a. This suggests that individuals who have high supervisor support and engage in high levels of surface acting at work experience less burnout at home compared to individuals with low supervisor support.

For behavioral monitoring, the results show that the interactive effect of supervisor support and behavioral monitoring is positive but not significant when predicting behavior-based work-family conflict (B = .04, *ns*), which does not support Hypothesis 17b. In addition, the interaction between supervisor support and behavioral monitoring is not significant when predicting well-being (B = .01, *ns* for positive affect; B = -.04, *ns* for life satisfaction; B = -.08, *ns* for marital satisfaction). This interaction is also not significant for ill-being at home (B = -.01, *ns* for negative affect; B = -.05, *ns* for emotional exhaustion; B = -.02, *ns* for depersonalization; B = -.02, *ns* for personal accomplishment), which does not support Hypothesis 18b. Overall, these findings provide little support for the interaction effects of supervisor support and behavioral monitoring on the conflict, well-being and ill-being outcomes.

The results show that the interactive effect of supervisor support and employee work effort is not significant when predicting strain-based work-family conflict (B = -.05, *ns*), which does not support Hypothesis 17c. In addition, the interaction between supervisor support and work effort is not significant when predicting well-being (B = -.04, *ns* for positive affect; B = -.08, *ns* for life satisfaction; B = -.07, *ns* for marital satisfaction). This interaction is also not significant for ill-being at home (B = .01, *ns* for negative affect; B = -.02, *ns* for emotional exhaustion; B = .01, *ns* for depersonalization; B = .02, *ns* for personal accomplishment), which does not support Hypothesis 18c. These results provide no support for the interaction effects of supervisor support and work effort.

Finally, two sets of additional analyses were conducted in order to test the exploratory relationship proposed as well as test the impact gender had, if any, on the results presented herein. First, the results of the exploratory moderator analyses concerning family emotional display rules are provided. Given that these analyses are exploratory, I will only review the specific relationships that were significant and, therefore, supported by the data. A number of the relationships concerning the interaction between family display rules and surface acting received support. However, only one of the interactions between family display rules and deep acting was supported. The interaction between family emotional display rules and surface acting was significant when predicting emotion-based work-family conflict (B = .13, p < .05), depersonalization (B = .09, p < .05), negative affect (B = .09, p < .05) and positive affect (B = -.10, p < .01). These results suggest that individuals who experience more family emotional display rules and engage in more surface acting at work, experience higher work-family conflict,

greater negative feelings towards others, greater internal negative affect, as well as lower positive affect. The interaction between deep acting and family display rules had a similar effect on negative affect ($B = .09$, $p < .05$). Apparently, display rules at home are detrimental to employees' well-being unlike previously discussed (i.e., I originally proposed that family display rules would not be as harmful as display rules from work). In other words, display rules at work and at home both act as demands placed on individuals and through the different strain mechanisms discussed herein (e.g., resource drain or ego depletion), these demands, in combination with individuals engaging in emotional labor, lead to higher work-family conflict, lower well-being (e.g., positive affect) and higher ill-being (e.g., depersonalization and negative affect).

Second and lastly, independent sample t-tests were conducted on all of the demand, labor and family outcomes to determine whether gender may have impacted the results. Only two of the labor variables suggest a significant difference for men and women. The mean levels for deep acting and behavioral monitoring were significantly different; however, few of the relationships concerning deep acting and behavioral monitoring were supported in the models tested, which suggests that gender had little effect on the present results.

DISCUSSION

The present dissertation proposes to contribute to the literature on work-family and emotional labor in a number of ways, including: proposing and testing an overall model consisting of multiple work demands, labor and a number of work-family conflict, well-being and ill-being outcomes at home, developing and testing a new form of work-family conflict called emotion-based conflict, and examining the labor-related behaviors that impact the proposed outcomes in individuals' family domain. The findings reviewed provide some support for the work-family conflict model, especially with regard to the link between surface acting and emotion-based work-to-family conflict, which will be discussed in more detail next. In addition, the analyses conducted provide considerable support for the measurement models utilized presently. All of the measurement models received acceptable fit indexes and reliabilities including the measurement model for work-family conflict. This model suggests that the four forms of work-family conflict (emotion-, behavior-, strain- and time-based conflict) were appropriate and distinct, and that including the new construct of emotion-based conflict is important for future work-family conflict research.

In terms of the structural models tested, all of the models received adequate fit indexes providing overall support for the models proposed. The only exception is the model including the ill-being outcome of negative affect, which received borderline acceptable fit indexes (in terms of NNFI). A closer examination of these models in order to look at the specific relationships tested suggests that the portions of the overall model that received the most support include the demands to labor links (all three were

supported), the workload to effort and strain-based conflict links, as well as the relationships concerning the emotional labor construct of surface acting and numerous conflict, well- and ill-being outcomes.

Specifically, surface acting was positively and significantly related to emotion-based work-family conflict, which suggests that employees who engaged in surface acting at work experience higher levels of emotion-based conflict at home. This provides support for the theoretical argument that individuals who engage in high surface acting at work are less able to engage in surface acting at home due to resource drain or depletion. In addition, surface acting was also significantly negatively related to two out of three of the well-being outcomes (positive affect and life satisfaction) and positively related to all of the burnout outcomes and negative affect (which make up the concept of ill-being). These findings provide strong support for the links between the labor form of surface acting and individuals' experience of emotion-based work-family conflict, as well as individuals' attitudes, feelings and burnout at home.

Not to mention, Hypothesis 4 concerning the strength of the relationships for surface and deep acting was supported, which suggests that surface acting is more detrimental to employees' home lives compared to deep acting, which was not significantly related to work-family conflict, well- or ill-being. A possible explanation regarding why the links were not supported for deep acting may be that deep acting occurs when individuals' actually modify their internal feelings to experience the positive emotions they are required to show at work. This means that the individual actually feels positive affect, which may positively spillover into the family domain and lead one to rate their marriage more highly (since a significant, positive relationship was found

between deep acting and marital satisfaction herein, which is similar to findings from Heller & Watson, 2005; Ilies et al., 2009). Overall, these findings suggest the need for organizations and managers to help employees limit their engagement in surface acting (e.g., only perform such labor when absolutely necessary for their job) in order to help lower the experience of negative outcomes in individuals' family life such as negative affect and emotional exhaustion.

Taken as a whole, the findings regarding surface and deep acting suggest opposite effects. In other words, surface acting appears to have a negative effect on individuals and lead to more conflict and burnout, whereas deep acting may have a positive effect and lead to higher satisfaction. An alternative explanation is that deep acting may have two different effects on the outcomes examined, a positive effect via positive felt emotions and a negative effect via resource drain and depletion. The present research assumes that the majority of employees are required to show positive emotions at work. Therefore, this particular study focused on individuals who had to positively deep act or change their internal feelings in a positive way. As discussed above, this may explain why some of the links between deep acting and well-being were in the opposite direction. Alternatively, what about occupations that require individuals to show negative emotions (e.g., bill collectors, corrections officers, judges, etc.)? If individuals are deep acting negative feelings this may impact outcomes in a negative way as originally proposed via resource drain. Future research should investigate these relationships using individuals with jobs that require negative emotional labor tactics.

In addition, workload was significantly and positively related to work effort and strain-based conflict, among other outcomes. It appears that employees who experience

high workloads report increased work effort levels, greater strain-based work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion, and lower life satisfaction. This suggests that high workloads may lead to depletion in that such demands create stress resulting in strain and negative emotional and attitudinal outcomes (e.g., Rothbard's [2001] depletion argument).

The results also indicate that work effort had significant relationships with some of the well-being and ill-being outcomes, however, these relationships were in the opposite direction than originally proposed. That is, work effort was positively related to positive affect and life satisfaction and negatively related to all three burnout dimensions. This suggests that work effort may not impact the proposed outcomes based on the resource drain or depletion arguments, but in fact, work effort may be regarded by employees as a positive thing; meaning, individuals may take pride in their work and see effort as "motivation (that) is translated into accomplished work" (Brown & Leigh, 1996, p. 362). Such accomplishment(s) may lead to increased positive affect and life satisfaction. As discussed previously, work effort may be related to Rothbard's (2001) construct of work engagement. An inspection of the five items used herein to measure work effort suggests they are very similar to the four items Rothbard (2001) used for work attention. Furthermore, the present results are consistent with Rothbard's finding that work attention is positively related to positive affect at work. Thus, these findings add support to her enrichment argument and provide no support for the depletion argument (from Rothbard, 2001) in terms of how work effort impacts conflict and well-being at home.

Moreover, rules for displaying positive emotions at work are positively, not negatively as expected, related to well-being. One explanation for this finding includes that demands to display specifically positive emotions spillover into individuals' family life in a positive way, which increases ratings of positive affect, life and marital satisfaction. A mood induction study conducted by Brief, Butcher and Roberson (1995) found that positive mood inducing events such as giving individuals cookies, increases ratings of job satisfaction. If display rules from work induce employees to feel positive emotions, this may carry over into their home life. In addition, the present results suggest that rules for displaying positive emotions at work are related to deep acting but not surface acting. This is consistent with Grandey's (2003) findings and supports her notion that deep acting is a response to work demands (i.e., display rules) and surface acting occurs in response to work events rather than rules. This suggests taking an event-level approach to studying surface acting. Future research should examine the relationships between different work events and surface acting as well as how such momentary acts of surface acting impact daily experiences of emotion-based work-family conflict and well-being.

In terms of behavior-based conflict, the results also show a high correlation between emotion-based and behavior-based conflict ($r=.76$, $p<.01$). This suggests that these forms of conflict may not be entirely distinct as the factor analysis results suggest. In addition, surface acting is significantly and positively related to behavior-based conflict ($r=.35$, $p<.01$). An alternative explanation includes that the emotional side of behavior-based conflict may be what matters the most when considering the effects of labor at work on conflict at home. In other words, surface acting not only impacts

emotion-based but also behavior-based conflict at home, meaning that surface acting interferes with the behaviors individuals believe to be appropriate at home. Future research should investigate whether other emotional labor constructs (e.g., emotional dissonance, attention deployment; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Kruml & Geddes, 2000) or behaviors (e.g., citizenship behaviors, face-to-face customer care, etc.) impact behavior-based work-family conflict in order to help tease apart what portion of behavior-based conflict is explained by emotional and behavioral antecedents.

Additionally, support was found for the link between behavioral monitoring and behavior-based conflict only when taking into account the impact of individuals' work-family integration on this relationship. The moderation analyses suggest that when taking into account how individuals integrate or segment their work and family roles, individuals with highly integrated work and family roles (low segmentors) experience greater behavior-based conflict at home when they engage in high levels of behavioral monitoring at work. Thus, it appears important for future research to take into account individuals' work-family integration strategies when examining relationships concerning behavior-based conflict. Failure to do so may help explain why previous research has found little support for relationships concerning behavior-based conflict. Previous research has examined general personality characteristics (Bruck & Allen, 2003); however, going forward, the present findings suggest the importance of including personal tendencies *specific* to individuals' work and family lives to help explain the nature of relationships regarding behavior-based work-family conflict.

Furthermore, the moderator analyses also suggest that individuals with highly segmented roles report higher positive affect and life satisfaction when they engage in

higher levels of deep acting at work compared to individuals high on work-family integration. These results are examples of relationships in which the main effect was not significant when work-family integration was not taken into consideration. Overall, the results provide support for a number of the labor—conflict and labor—well/ill-being links initially predicted and suggest that future research should continue to examine the impact of integration on various work-family relationships.

STRENGTHS

This research holds a number of strengths. First, recruiting a sample using alumni and employees of a large university leads to a diverse field sample of individuals from a number of different organizations and job types. Second, the research tests a comprehensive conflict model including three distinct forms of work-family conflict, as well as other well- and ill-being outcomes at home. This allows for a more complete understanding of the home- and family-related benefits and burdens to employees of engaging in various forms of labor at work. Third, this study takes a longitudinal approach to examining the proposed model by utilizing three different time periods during data collection (i.e., the first work survey occurred 1-2 weeks before the second work survey and the final home survey occurred 1-2 weeks after the second survey). Finally, the research includes two raters (focal employees and their significant others); however, the results are somewhat different when comparing the focal employee and significant other data models, which will be discussed next.

LIMITATIONS

One possible limitation regarding the spouse or significant other responses includes how much time and interaction the focal employee generally shares with their

significant other after work. Even though the significant other reports of the home outcomes converged or significantly correlated with the self-reports, other factors may influence the significant other ratings. For example, focal employees may only share highlights or more intense examples of their experiences leading significant others to make assumptions about the employee's attitudes, feelings and conflict. In addition, even though more detailed instructions and examples were provided in the surveys before the emotion- and behavior-based work-family conflict questions, some of the concepts examined include fairly intricate processes (e.g., the emotional demands of individuals' work and home domains) that significant others may not be entirely aware of. This may explain why the link between surface acting and emotion-based conflict was not supported in the model using significant other ratings of conflict. Another possible limitation of the present research is that a large proportion of the sample holds a college degree or higher. This is not a surprise given the sample consists of university alumni and employees, however, this may limit the generalizability of the results.

FUTURE RESEARCH

As discussed previously, future research on this topic should examine the relationships examined herein within individuals. For instance, following an experience sampling approach, future research could examine how daily work events impact emotional labor and in turn, how such events and labor impact individuals' experience of emotion-based work-family conflict at home on the same day. In addition, given the strong support for the links between surface acting and conflict and well-being, future research may examine these and similar relationships within a service context or organization, as well as examine other forms of support that may help buffer the negative

effects of surface acting on conflict and well-being. That is, since the supervisor support moderator did not receive a lot of support in the present research, maybe social support from peers and coworkers is more important and should be examined going forward.

Secondly, future research should consider investigating the crossover effects of the different forms of work-family conflict in dual career couples. For example, if an individual experiences high levels of work-to-family time-based conflict, does his/her significant other experience higher levels of family-to-work time-based conflict because he/she is dealing with the family responsibilities that the other partner does not have time to complete? Other research might also examine children-related outcomes in the present model. Namely, does labor at work impact individuals' ability to engage in healthy and satisfactory relationships with one's children at home after work?

Thirdly, future research should also examine the family-to-work direction of labor-related behaviors. That is, how do behaviors and responsibilities from the family domain impact job performance, work effort and engagement? Additionally, future research should investigate behavioral spillover instead of conflict. It may be that behaviors from work spillover or lead to similar behaviors at home. In other words, individuals may view behaviors that are appropriate for work as appropriate anywhere including at home and, thus, may monitor their behavior similarly at work and at home.

Fourthly, future research should explicitly examine work effort and engagement to determine if they are distinct or similar constructs, as well as whether effort and engagement have similar relationships with the conflict, well-being and burnout outcomes examined. Future research could also examine possible differences between individuals' level of effort at work and at home and whether well-being is impacted

differently based on the domain in which the effort is expended. Looking at the long-term effects of work effort would also be an interesting next step for future research. Examining how work effort impacts job performance, satisfaction and other well-being outcomes after a year or longer might hold important implications for organizations in terms of how long employees should expend high work effort.

Fifthly, behavioral monitoring was proposed in the current research as the act of self-monitoring in the workplace. Behavioral monitoring did not receive a lot of support in the current research; however, the link between behavioral display rules and such monitoring was significant. Specifically, demands to display appropriate behavior at work was positively related to behavioral monitoring. This suggests that demands lead to such behavior at work; however, this behavior may not carryover into the family domain. Future research should examine how behavioral monitoring impacts job performance, satisfaction and fatigue at work. Future research might also consider examining whether recovery from such behavior explains the lack of support concerning the relationships between behavioral monitoring and conflict, well-being and burnout at home.

Lastly, the findings regarding family display rules suggest the importance of including this construct in future work-family research. The present results suggest that individuals who engage in high levels of surface acting at work and experience high levels of emotional display rules at home experience more emotion-based conflict, depersonalization and negative affect at home compared to individuals with few or no family display rules. This suggests that the ego or energy depletion arguments apply here as well. That is, energy depletion matters more when an individuals' family places more demands on that individual, which in turn requires a higher level of energy from him/her.

Given these findings, future research should continue to examine family display rules and workload demands at home. For example, do people with children face greater levels of family display rules and demands at home compared to individuals with no children? Do high family demands impact one's strain and fatigue at home? In addition, does such fatigue from home spillover into an individual's workplace (i.e., does fatigue from demands at home impact individual's work engagement and performance?)?

CONCLUSION

In general, the present dissertation suggests that surface acting leads to emotion-based work-family conflict as well as a number of well- and ill-being outcomes. This provides support for the theoretical integration of emotional labor and work-family conflict theories. As proposed earlier, the emotional labor, or more specifically based on the present findings, the surface acting employees engage in at work impacts their ability to engage in emotion regulation at home through resource or energy drain. This suggests that such labor at work impacts individuals' abilities to meet emotional demands and requirements in the family domain. In addition, this research supported a number of relationships between work effort and well- and ill-being. These relationships were positive in nature and as a result, future research should investigate the impact of work effort on various work-related and home-related outcomes. Overall, the present findings suggest that labor at work, in particular surface acting and work effort, significantly impact various family and life relevant outcomes for employees and future research should continue to investigate the impact of actual behaviors on employees personal lives.

APPENDIX A: TABLES

TABLE 1: Research Design Overview

	Measured in Phase 1	**Measured in Phase 2**	**Measured in Phase 3** (self and other ratings)
Demands •Emotional •Behavioral •Workload	X		
Labor •Emotional •Behavioral •Effort		X	
Work-Family Conflict •Emotion-based •Behavior-based •Strain-based			X
Well-Being •Positive & Negative Affect •Life & Marital Satisfactions •Burnout			X
Moderators •Work-Family Integration •Supervisor Support	X		

TABLE 2: Correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Emotional Display Rules	3.35	.90	(.87)				
2. Behavioral Display Rules	2.28	.90	.18**	(.80)			
3. Workload	3.46	.83	.12	.06	(.88)		
4. Surface Acting	2.43	.65	.12	.19**	.14*	(.75)	
5. Deep Acting	3.09	.90	.28**	.28**	.16*	.15*	(.92)
6. Behavioral Monitoring	3.37	.64	.07	.25**	.05	34**	.27**
7. Work Effort	4.07	.66	.08	.15*	.19**	-.13	.16*
8. Strain-based Conflict	3.18	.89	.08	.00	.43**	.18*	.06
9. Time-based Conflict	2.77	.96	.08	.01	.45**	.17*	.02
10. Emotion-based Conflict	1.92	.78	.03	.02	.24**	.28**	-.06
11. Behavior-based Conflict	1.91	.67	-.02	.01	.18*	.35**	-.08
12. Emotional Exhaustion	2.71	.68	.07	.10	.33**	.36**	.04
13. Depersonalization	1.74	.61	-.07	-.04	.07	.25**	-.11
14. Personal Accomplishment	2.50	.48	-.25**	-.09	-.05	.13	-.16*
15. Positive Affect	3.43	.59	.16*	.03	-.03	-.25**	.15*
16. Negative Affect	1.81	.53	-.02	.09	.05	.21**	-.05
17. Life Satisfaction	3.77	.81	.22**	-.01	-.06	-.15*	.12
18. Marital Satisfaction	4.30	.91	.20**	.01	.11	.11	.19**
19. SO Strain-based Conflict	3.12	.87	.02	-.05	.33**	.08	.02
20. SO Time-based Conflict	2.56	.84	.05	-.06	.28**	.06	.03
21. SO Emotion-based Conflict	1.93	.73	-.15*	-.04	.09	-.08	-.14
22. SO Behavior-based Conflict	1.89	.68	-.11	-.05	.10	-.02	-.17*
23. SO Emotional Exhaustion	2.75	.65	.02	-.08	.33**	.10	.00
24. SO Depersonalization	1.58	.64	-.01	-.07	.03	-.10	-.13
25. SO Personal Accomplishment	2.31	.63	-.17*	-.14	-.04	.00	-.22**
26. SO Positive Affect	3.53	.63	.20**	.12	-.05	-.02	.18*
27. SO Negative Affect	1.76	.54	-.06	-.06	.12	.03	-.06
28. SO Life Satisfaction	3.55	.77	.17*	.09	-.14	.01	.13
29. SO Marital Satisfaction	4.28	.83	.21**	.13	.04	.15	.21**
30. Work-Family Integration	2.57	.92	.16*	.20**	.34**	.01	.17*
31. Supervisor Support	3.62	.67	.04	-.19**	-.09	-.18**	.00
32. Family Display Rules	3.90	.76	.22**	.10	.10	.03	.10

SO: Significant Other Rated

( ): Reliabilities on diagonal in parentheses

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

TABLE 2 continued

	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Emotional Display Rules							
2. Behavioral Display Rules							
3. Workload							
4. Surface Acting							
5. Deep Acting							
6. Behavioral Monitoring	(.84)						
7. Work Effort	.00	(.89)					
8. Strain-based Conflict	.14*	.12	(.77)				
9. Time-based Conflict	.11	.14	.64**	(.83)			
10. Emotion-based Conflict	.06	-.03	.47**	.42**	(.95)		
11. Behavior-based Conflict	.06	-.17*	.40**	.32**	.76**	(.84)	
12. Emotional Exhaustion	.13	-.10	.62**	.53**	.57**	.52**	(.87)
13. Depersonalization	.00	-.23**	.27**	.27**	.39**	.40**	.41**
14. Personal Accomplishment	-.02	-.30**	.22**	.10	.27**	.33**	.33**
15. Positive Affect	.03	.27**	-.23**	-.11	-.46**	-.47**	-.35**
16. Negative Affect	.08	-.14*	.31**	.33**	.39**	.37**	.54**
17. Life Satisfaction	-.10	.21**	-.22**	-.18*	-.41**	-.38**	-.34**
18. Marital Satisfaction	.03	.09	.03	.05	-.22**	-.18*	-.05
19. SO Strain-based Conflict	.00	.03	.35**	.29**	.27**	.19*	.28**
20. SO Time-based Conflict	.04	.10	.27**	.41**	.15*	.08	.22**
21. SO Emotion-based Conflict	-.08	.09	.24**	.15	.35**	.22**	.22**
22. SO Behavior-based Conflict	-.10	.03	.19*	.14	.40**	.29**	.23**
23. SO Emotional Exhaustion	.06	.04	.38**	.23**	.24**	.16*	.40**
24. SO Depersonalization	.10	-.04	.05	.01	.17*	.14	.01
25. SO Personal Accomplishment	.00	-.18*	.07	.02	.21**	.17*	.20**
26. SO Positive Affect	.02	.17*	-.13	-.04	-.26**	-.27**	-.20**
27. SO Negative Affect	.02	.00	.28**	.13	.20**	.19*	.26**
28. SO Life Satisfaction	.09	.16*	-.16*	-.14	-.26**	-.18*	-.20**
29. SO Marital Satisfaction	.11	.08	.03	.07	-.21**	-.18*	-.01
30. Work-Family Integration	.09	.13*	.30**	.37**	.25**	.14*	.18*
31. Supervisor Support	.01	.02	-.09	-.19**	-.27**	-.29**	-.20**
32. Family Display Rules	.15*	.16*	.16*	.13	-.07	-.15*	.10

SO: Significant Other Rated

( ): Reliabilities on diagonal in parentheses

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

TABLE 2 continued

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. Emotional Display Rules							
2. Behavioral Display Rules							
3. Workload							
4. Surface Acting							
5. Deep Acting							
6. Behavioral Monitoring							
7. Work Effort							
8. Strain-based Conflict							
9. Time-based Conflict							
10. Emotion-based Conflict							
11. Behavior-based Conflict							
12. Emotional Exhaustion							
13. Depersonalization	(.80)						
14. Personal Accomplishment	.32**	(.61)					
15. Positive Affect	-.37**	-.57**	(.82)				
16. Negative Affect	.34**	.35**	-.31**	(.86)			
17. Life Satisfaction	-.27**	-.44**	.54**	-.42**	(.88)		
18. Marital Satisfaction	-.06	-.19**	.30**	-.37**	.59**	(.97)	
19. SO Strain-based Conflict	.11	.06	-.04	.13	-.25**	-.06	(.74)
20. SO Time-based Conflict	.13	-.01	.09	.16*	-.12	-.08	.62**
21. SO Emotion-based Conflict	.07	.12	-.11	.14	-.33**	-.25**	.54**
22. SO Behavior-based Conflict	.16*	.16*	-.17*	.26**	-.34**	-.25**	.38**
23. SO Emotional Exhaustion	.15*	.12	-.15	.20**	.20**	-.08	.68**
24. SO Depersonalization	.29**	.14	-.09	.10	-.19*	-.25**	.21**
25. SO Personal Accomplishment	.12	.36**	-.26**	.31**	-.37**	-.35**	.32**
26. SO Positive Affect	-.10	-.28**	.35**	-.28**	.37**	.36**	-.34**
27. SO Negative Affect	.08	.23**	-.17*	.31**	-.31**	.27**	.43**
28. SO Life Satisfaction	-.13	-.29**	.27**	-.29**	.54**	.40**	-.30**
29. SO Marital Satisfaction	-.04	-.18*	.21**	-.25**	.43**	.66**	-.05
30. Work-Family Integration	-.08	-.04	.02	.13	.06	.13	.15
31. Supervisor Support	-.14	-.10	.15*	-.03	.07	-.11	-.12
32. Family Display Rules	-.19**	-.26**	.31**	-.10	.29**	.41**	.06

SO: Significant Other Rated

( ): Reliabilities on diagonal in parentheses

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

TABLE 2 continued

	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1. Emotional Display Rules							
2. Behavioral Display Rules							
3. Workload							
4. Surface Acting							
5. Deep Acting							
6. Behavioral Monitoring							
7. Work Effort							
8. Strain-based Conflict							
9. Time-based Conflict							
10. Emotion-based Conflict							
11. Behavior-based Conflict							
12. Emotional Exhaustion							
13. Depersonalization							
14. Personal Accomplishment							
15. Positive Affect							
16. Negative Affect							
17. Life Satisfaction							
18. Marital Satisfaction							
19. SO Strain-based Conflict							
20. SO Time-based Conflict	(.79)						
21. SO Emotion-based Conflict	.46**	(.92)					
22. SO Behavior-based Conflict	.37**	.66**	(.85)				
23. SO Emotional Exhaustion	.52**	.48**	.34**	(.85)			
24. SO Depersonalization	.20**	.30**	.36**	.30**	(.86)		
25. SO Personal Accomplishment	.18*	.38**	.40**	.40**	.32**	(.75)	
26. SO Positive Affect	-.20**	-.40**	-.40**	-.37**	-.33**	-.70**	(.88)
27. SO Negative Affect	.30**	.51**	.38**	.54**	.32**	.52**	-.41**
28. SO Life Satisfaction	-.31**	-.43**	-.37**	-.43**	-.32**	-.48**	.48**
29. SO Marital Satisfaction	-.06	-.35**	-.35**	-.10	-.38**	-.53**	.55**
30. Work-Family Integration	.20**	-.10	-.06	.13	-.09	-.07	.11
31. Supervisor Support	-.04	-.07	.00	-.10	-.10	-.01	-.11
32. Family Display Rules	.09	.04	.02	.11	-.04	-.15	.14

SO: Significant Other Rated

( ): Reliabilities on diagonal in parentheses

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

TABLE 2 continued

	27	28	29	30	31	32
1. Emotional Display Rules						
2. Behavioral Display Rules						
3. Workload						
4. Surface Acting						
5. Deep Acting						
6. Behavioral Monitoring						
7. Work Effort						
8. Strain-based Conflict						
9. Time-based Conflict						
10. Emotion-based Conflict						
11. Behavior-based Conflict						
12. Emotional Exhaustion						
13. Depersonalization						
14. Personal Accomplishment						
15. Positive Affect						
16. Negative Affect						
17. Life Satisfaction						
18. Marital Satisfaction						
19. SO Strain-based Conflict						
20. SO Time-based Conflict						
21. SO Emotion-based Conflict						
22. SO Behavior-based Conflict						
23. SO Emotional Exhaustion						
24. SO Depersonalization						
25. SO Personal Accomplishment						
26. SO Positive Affect						
27. SO Negative Affect	(.85)					
28. SO Life Satisfaction	-.46**	(.87)				
29. SO Marital Satisfaction	-.35**	.56**	(.96)			
30. Work-Family Integration	.03	.14	.12	(.75)		
31. Supervisor Support	.01	.03	-.04	-.07	(.82)	
32. Family Display Rules	.05	.19*	.24**	.10	-.09	(.88)

SO: Significant Other Rated

( ): Reliabilities on diagonal in parentheses

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

TABLE 3: Confirmatory Factor Analyses with Focal Employee Ratings

Measurement Model	$\chi 2$	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI	SRMR
Demands Items	210.27	101	.07	.96	.96	.05
Labor Items	161.21	98	.05	.97	.97	.05
Work-Family Conflict Items	131.52	62	.08	.98	.98	.04
Well-being Items	303.64	167	.06	.98	.97	.06
Ill-being Items	172.73	87	.07	.96	.95	.07

Note. N=194. $\chi 2$ = chi-square statistic; df = degrees of freedom; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; NNFI = nonnormed fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

TABLE 4: Confirmatory Factor Analyses with Significant Other Ratings

Measurement Model	$\chi 2$	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI	SRMR
Work-Family Conflict Items	109.21	62	.07	.98	.98	.04
Well-being Items	386.92	167	.09	.96	.96	.06
Ill-being Items	167.84	87	.07	.95	.95	.07

Note. N=172. $\chi 2$ = chi-square statistic; df = degrees of freedom; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; NNFI = nonnormed fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

TABLE 5: Structural Equation Models with Focal Employee Ratings

Structural Model	$\chi 2$	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI	SRMR
Work-Family Conflict	1457.81	931	.05	.93	.92	.14
Well-being	1852.01	1246	.05	.93	.93	.11
Burnout	1487.05	1006	.05	.92	.91	.09
Negative Affect	1401.19	805	.06	.90	.89	.08

Note. N=194. $\chi 2$ = chi-square statistic; df = degrees of freedom; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; NNFI = nonnormed fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

TABLE 6: Structural Equation Models with Significant Other Ratings

Structural Model	$\chi 2$	df	RMSEA	CFI	NNFI	SRMR
Work-Family Conflict	1371.61	931	.05	.93	.92	.12
Well-being	1785.61	1196	.05	.93	.92	.11
Burnout	1459.96	1006	.05	.91	.91	.09

Note. N=172. $\chi 2$ = chi-square statistic; df = degrees of freedom; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; NNFI = nonnormed fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual. Also, the Negative Affect model would not converge and as a result, the specific results are not available.

TABLE 7: Reliability and Validity Information for Measures

Phase 1 Measures			
Emotional display rules	Best et al., 1997; Grandey, 2003	$\alpha = .78$ $\alpha = .75$	First alpha reported from Brotheridge & Grandey (2002) who used Best et al. items: correlated with display rules to hide negative emotions ($r=.65$, $p<.01$) and with emotional labor ($r=.21$, $p<.01$ for surface acting and $r=.36$, $p<.01$ for deep acting), but did not correlate highly with negative affectivity ($r=.08$, ns)
Behavioral display rules	Lennox & Wolfe, 1984	$\alpha = .83$	Correlated with self-monitoring ($r=.40$, $p<.01$) and fear of negative evaluation ($r.=.64$, $p<.01$), but not extraversion($r=-.09$, ns)
Workload	Janssen, 2001; Ilies et al., 2007	$\alpha = .79$ $\alpha = .93$	Correlated with lack of autonomy and overtime ($r=.18$ and $.13$, $p<.01$; from van der Hulst; van Veldhoven & Beckers, 2006) as well as with work satisfaction ($r=-.21$, $p<.05$) and work negative affect ($r=.20$, $p<.05$), but not with innovative performance ($r=.14$, ns)
Work-family integration	Desrochers et al., 2005	$\alpha = .73$	Correlated as expected with distractions at home ($r=.21$, $p<.05$) and work-family conflict ($r=.33$, $p<.01$), but no correlations exceeded .50 which authors use as a "rough indicator of discriminant validity" (p. 459)
Supervisor support	Shinn et al., 1989	$\alpha = .83$	Alpha reported from Thomas & Ganster (1995) who used Shinn et al. items: correlated with flexible schedule ($r=.21$, $p<.01$) and control over work and family ($r=.34$, $p<.01$)

TABLE 7 continued

Phase 2 Measures			
Emotional labor [Surface acting (SA) and deep acting (DA)]	Grandy, 2003; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003	α = .88 for SA, .79 for DA α =.74 for SA, .83 for DA	Surface and deep acting correlated with each other as expected (r=.43, p<.01; r=.27, p<.01) in Grandey (2003) and Brotheridge & Lee (2003) respectively
Self-monitoring	Lennox & Wolfe, 1984	α = .77	Correlated with sensitivity to expressive behavior of others (r=.22, p<.01) and individuation (r=.30, p<.01, but not public self-consciousness (r=.07, ns)
Work effort	Brown & Leigh, 1996	α = .82 and .83 (two samples)	Correlated with job involvement (r=.24, p<.01) and time commitment (.50, p<.001) as expected.
Phase 3 Measures			
Emotion-based work-family conflict	Adapted items from the following to compile emotion-based conflict scale: Netemeyer et al., 1996; Kopelman et al., 1983; Carlson et al., 2000		
Behavior-based work-family conflict	Carlson et al., 2000	α = .78	Correlated highly with behavior-based family-to-work conflict (r=.83), but did not show extremely high correlations (over .55) with time- or strain-based conflict.

TABLE 7 continued

Phase 3 Measures continued			
Strain-based work-family conflict	Kopelman et al., 1983; Carlson et al., 2000	α = .89 (total scale) α = .85	Did not correlate extremely high (no correlations over .58) with time- or behavior-based conflict, which Carlson et al. use as evidence for discriminant validity
Burnout	Maslach & Jackson, 1981	α = .83	The Maslach Burnout Inventory correlated with certain job characteristics and outcomes as expected, as well as was validated by behavioral ratings by outside observers (see Maslach & Jackson, 1981)
Affect [Positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA)]	Watson & Clark, 1994	α = .83 to.90 for PA α = .85 to .93 for NA	Correlate highly with momentary, daily, weekly, etc. PA and NA items (convergent correlations range from .89 to .95), whereas the PA and NA items correlate quite low with each other (discriminant correlations range from -.02 to -.18)
Life satisfaction	Diener et al., 1985	α = .87	Correlated highly global satisfaction as expected (r=.57), but they are not equivalent constructs.
Marital satisfaction	Norton, 1983	α = .76	Correlates highly with relationship quality items as expected, but not as highly with relationship termination.
Time-based work-family conflict	Kopelman et al., 1983	α =.89 (total scale)	Correlated negatively with family and life satisfactions (r=-.27 and -.29, p<.01 respectively).
Family emotional display rules	Erickson, 1993	α = .94	Correlated with spouse's emotion work (r=.69, p<.01) and marital well-being (r=.56, p<.01) as expected

APPENDIX B: FIGURES

FIGURE 1: Overall Demands-Labor-Conflict Model

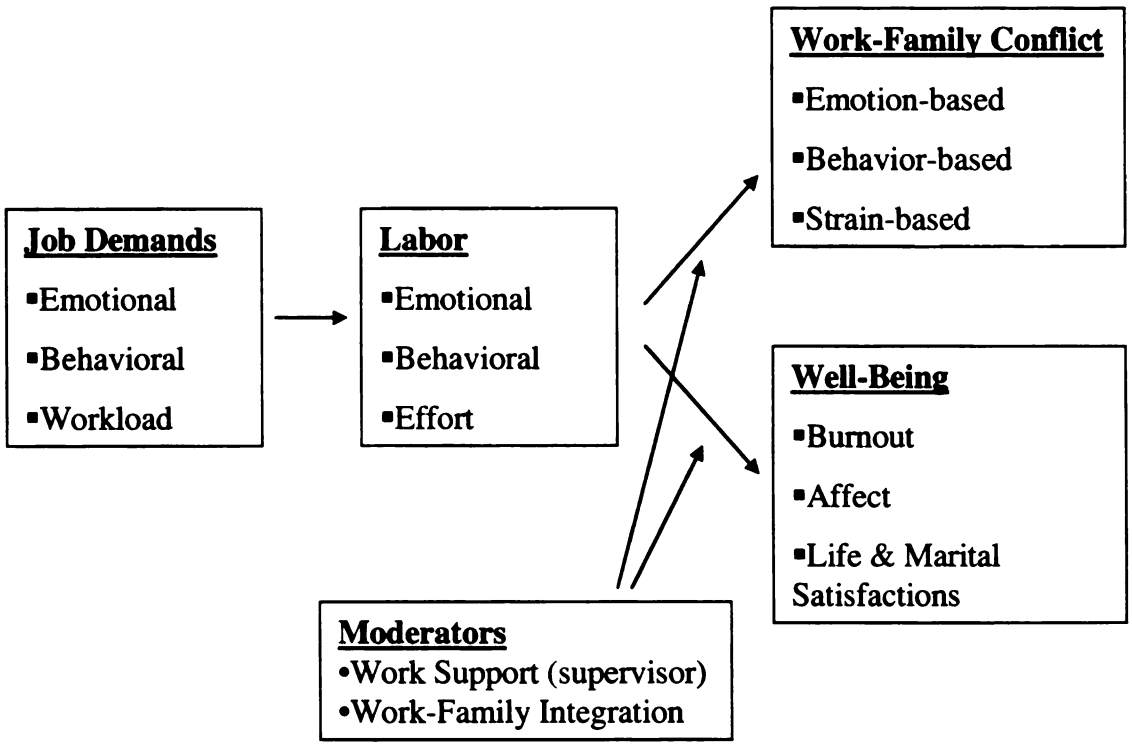


FIGURE 2: Illustration of Differential Predictions for the Demands-Labor-Conflict Effects

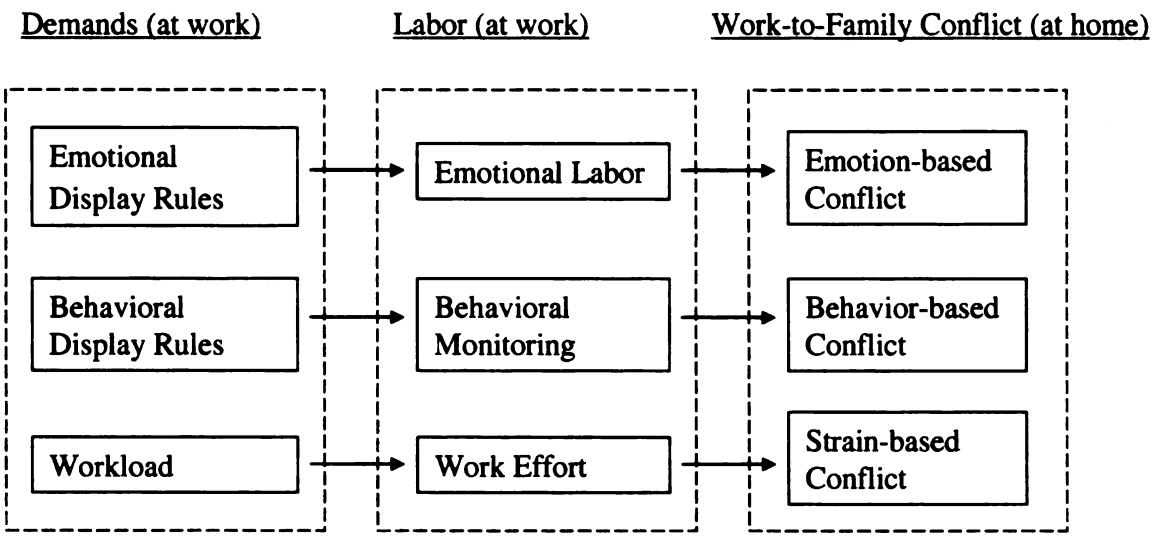


FIGURE 3: Measurement Model for Work-Family Conflict (Four Forms)

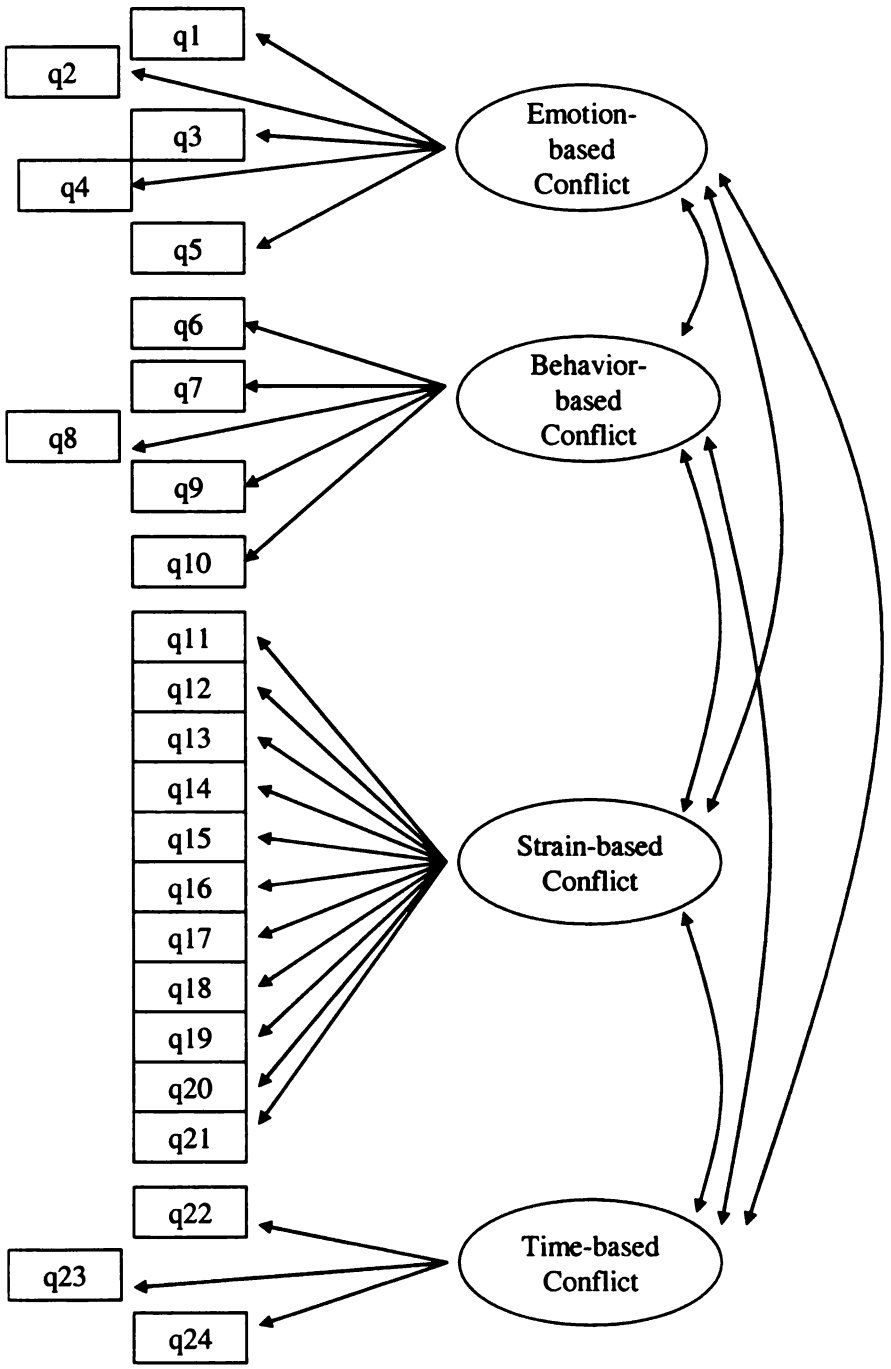
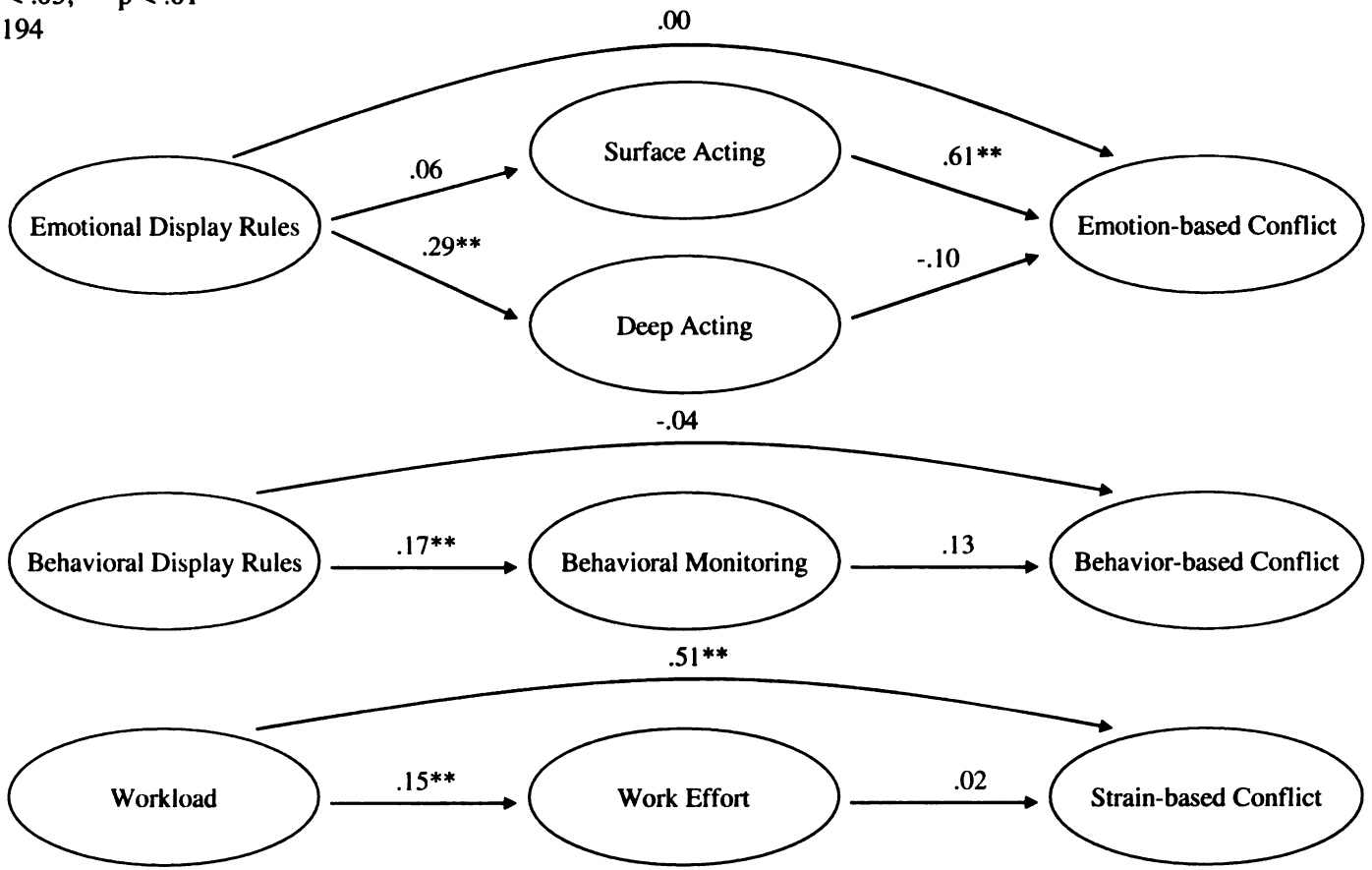
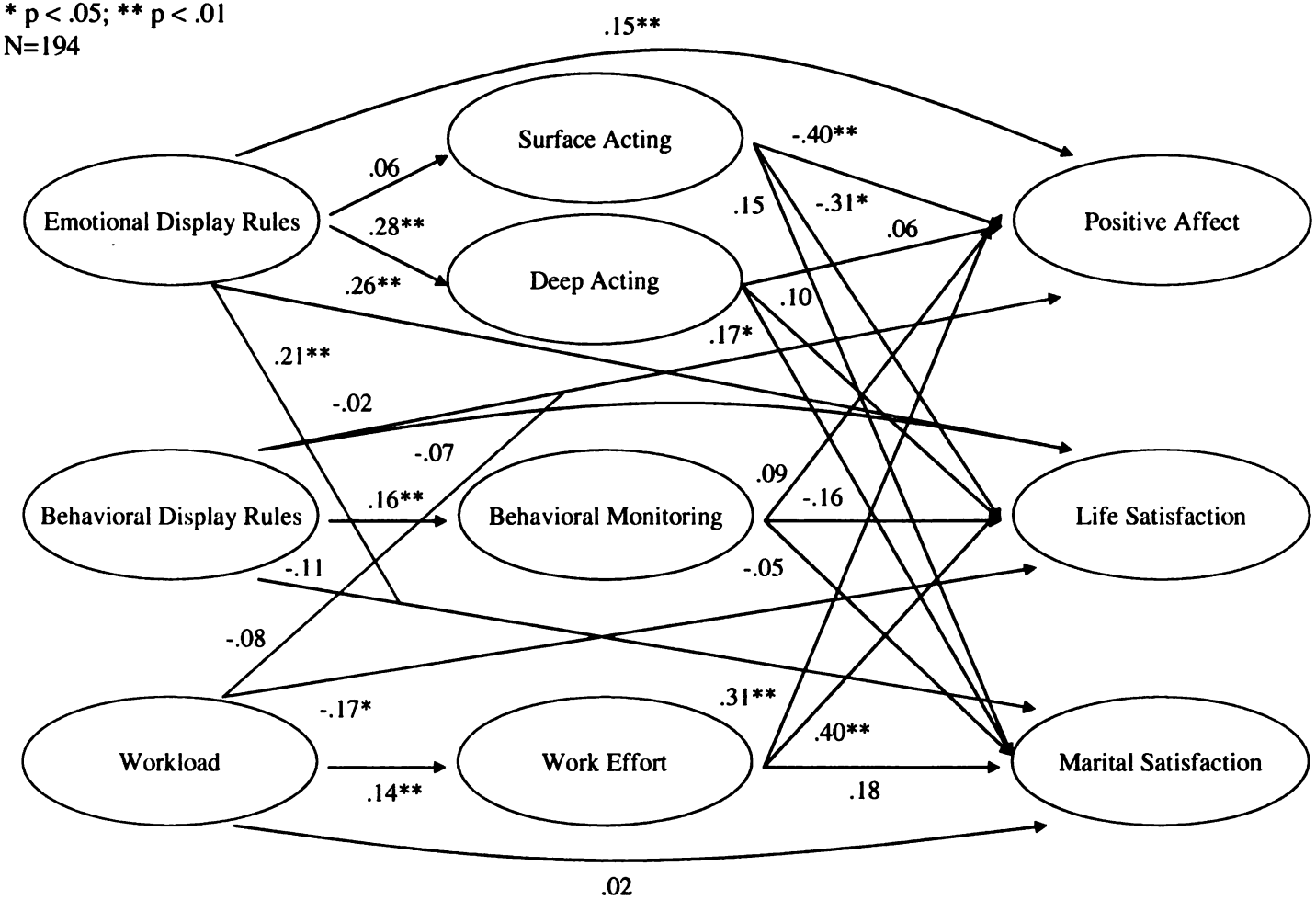


FIGURE 4: Structural Equation Modeling Results (maximum likelihood estimates) for Work-to-Family Conflict Outcomes
* p < .05; ** p < .01
N=194



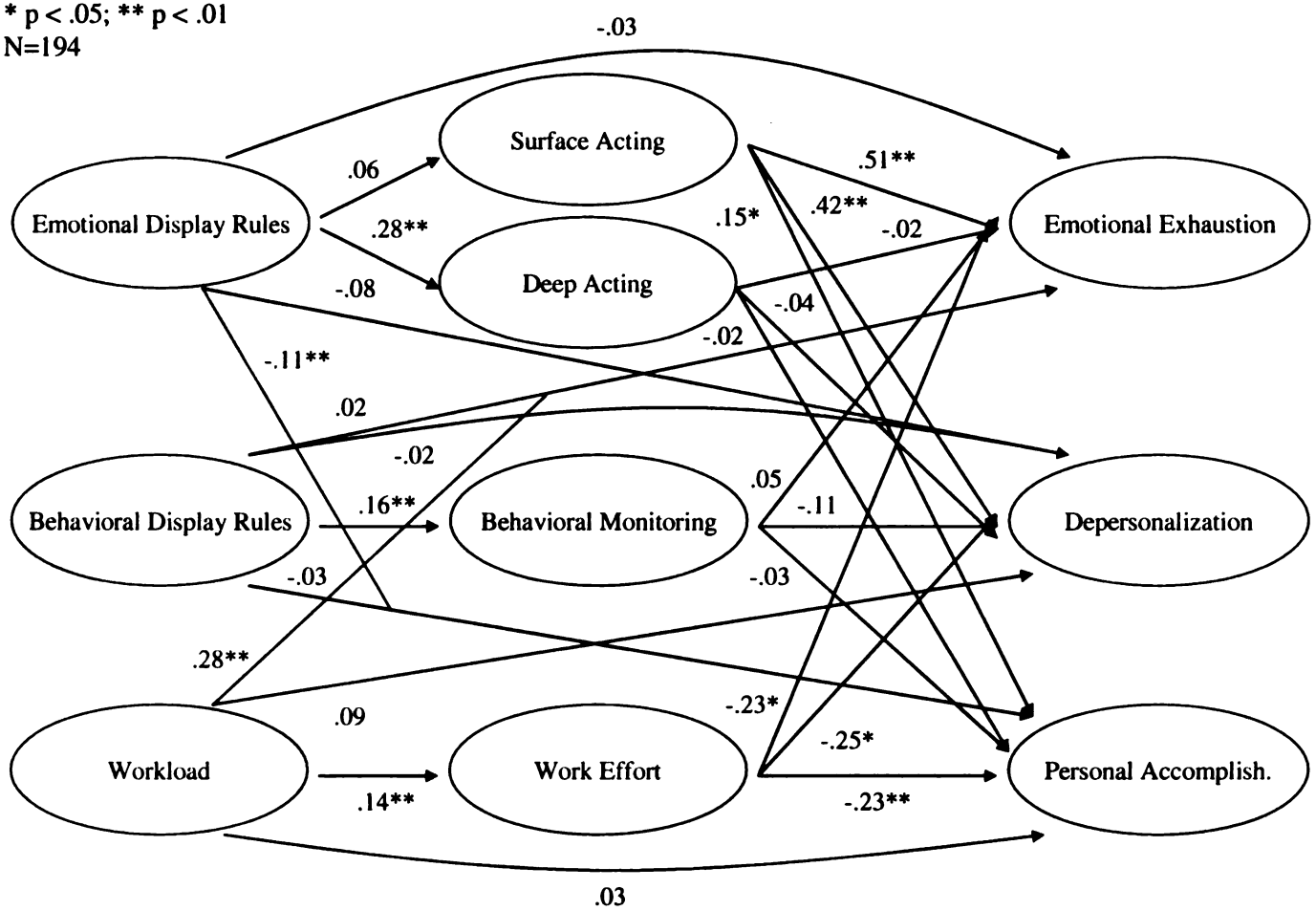
Note: In all structural models presented, PHI and PSI were set free allowing the demand latent factors (i.e., emotional and behavioral display rules and workload) to correlate with each other; the same is true for the labor and conflict latent factors respectively.

FIGURE 5: Structural Equation Modeling Results (maximum likelihood estimates) for Well-Being Outcomes
* p < .05; ** p < .01
N=194



Note: In all structural models presented, PHI and PSI were set free allowing the demand latent factors (i.e., emotional and behavioral display rules and workload) to correlate with each other; the same is true for the labor and well-being latent factors respectively.

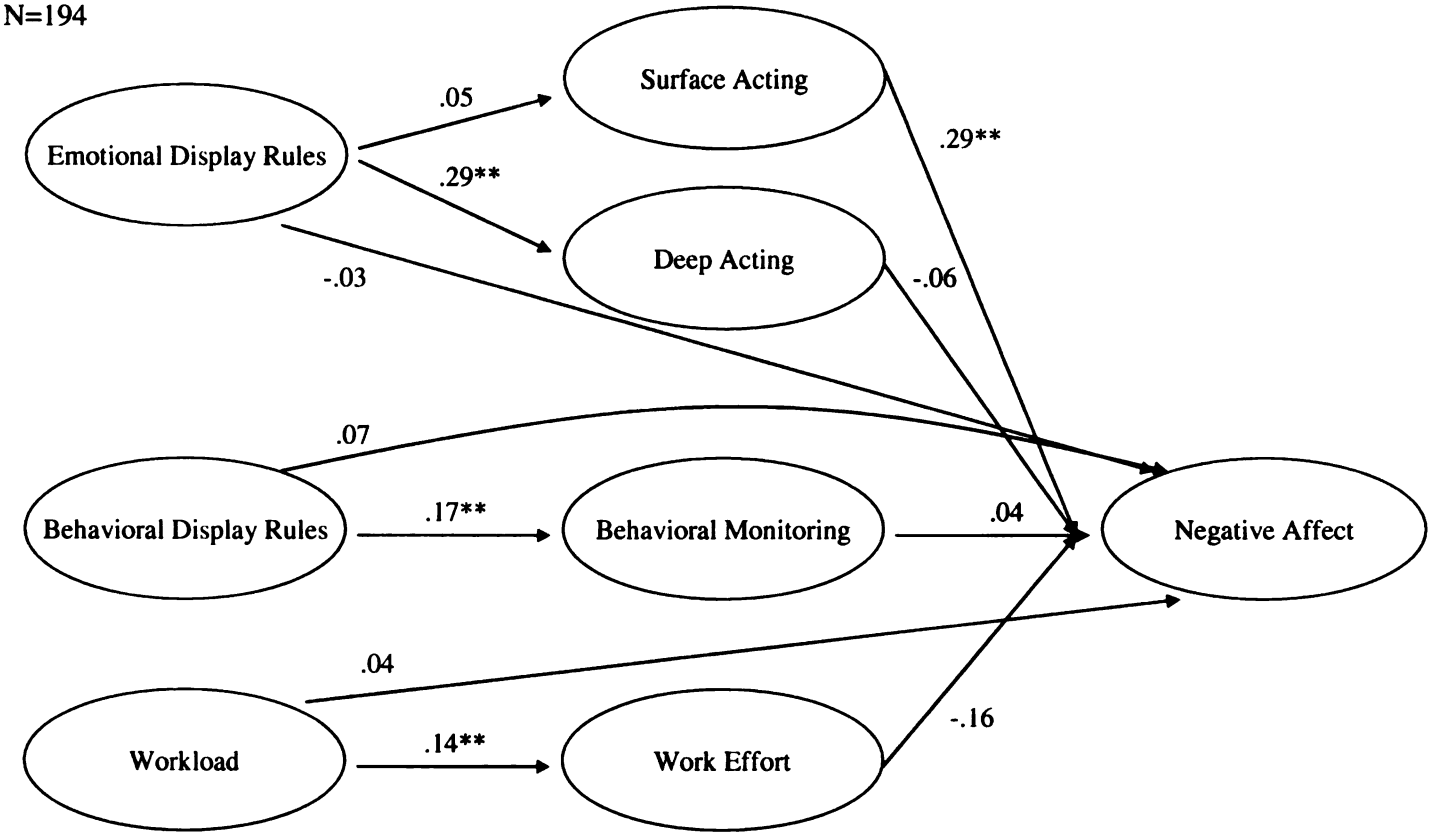
FIGURE 6: Structural Equation Modeling Results (maximum likelihood estimates) for Burnout Outcomes
* p < .05; ** p < .01
N=194



Note: In all structural models presented, PHI and PSI were set free allowing the demand latent factors (i.e., emotional and behavioral display rules and workload) to correlate with each other; the same is true for the labor and burnout latent factors respectively.

the above model.

FIGURE 7: Structural Equation Modeling Results (maximum likelihood estimates) for Negative Affect
* p < .05; ** p < .01
N=194



Note: In all structural models presented, PHI and PSI were set free allowing the demand latent factors (i.e., emotional and behavioral display rules and workload) to correlate with each other; the same is true for the labor latent factors in the above model.

FIGURE 8: Interactive Effect of Work-Family Integration and Deep Acting on Life Satisfaction[a]

[a]The numbers represent scores on life satisfaction. Low deep acting and work-family integration represent one standard deviation below the mean on their respective scores; high scores are one standard deviation above the mean.

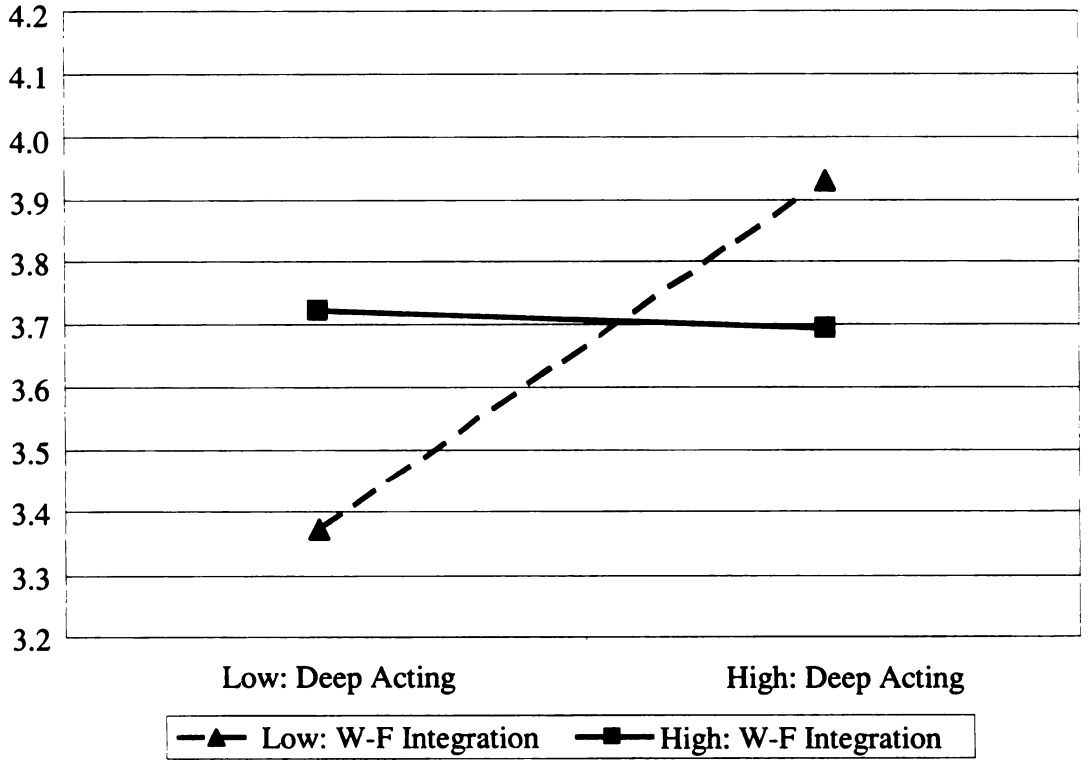


FIGURE 9: Interactive Effect of Work-Family Integration and Behavioral Monitoring on Behavior-Based Work-Family Conflict[a]

[a]The numbers represent scores on behavior-based conflict. Low behavioral monitoring and low work-family integration represent one standard deviation below the mean on their respective scores; high scores are one standard deviation above the mean.

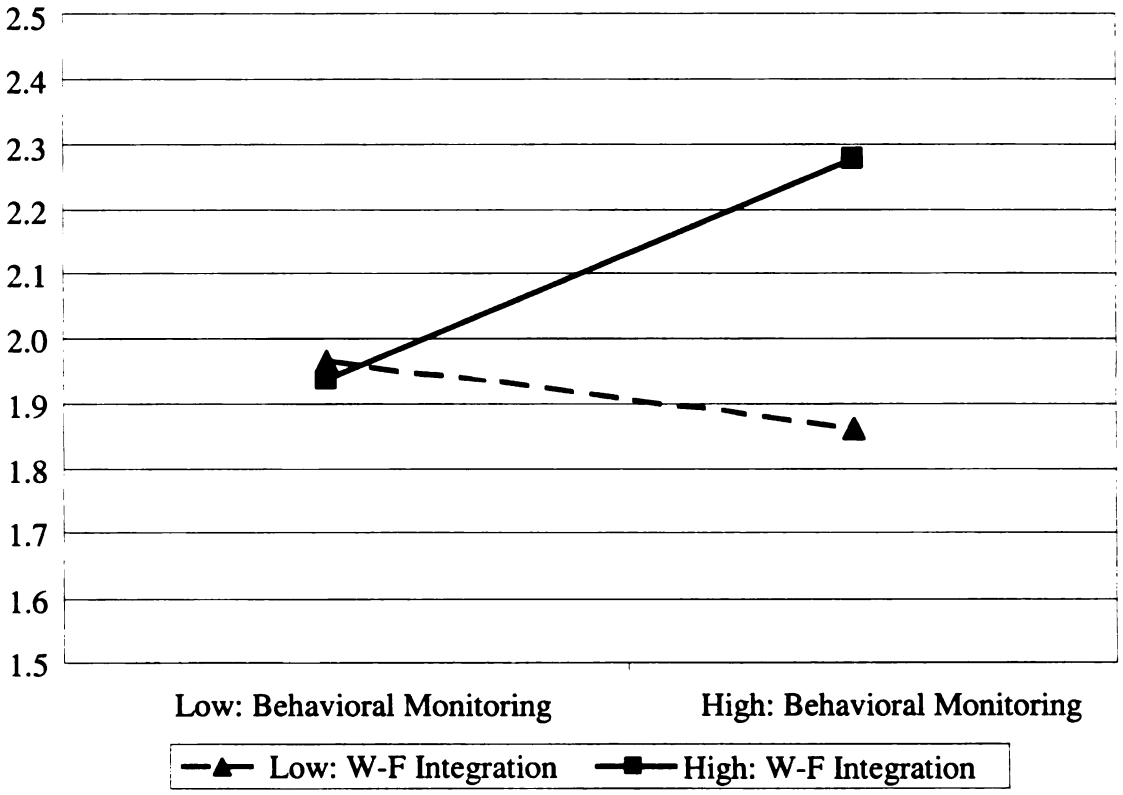
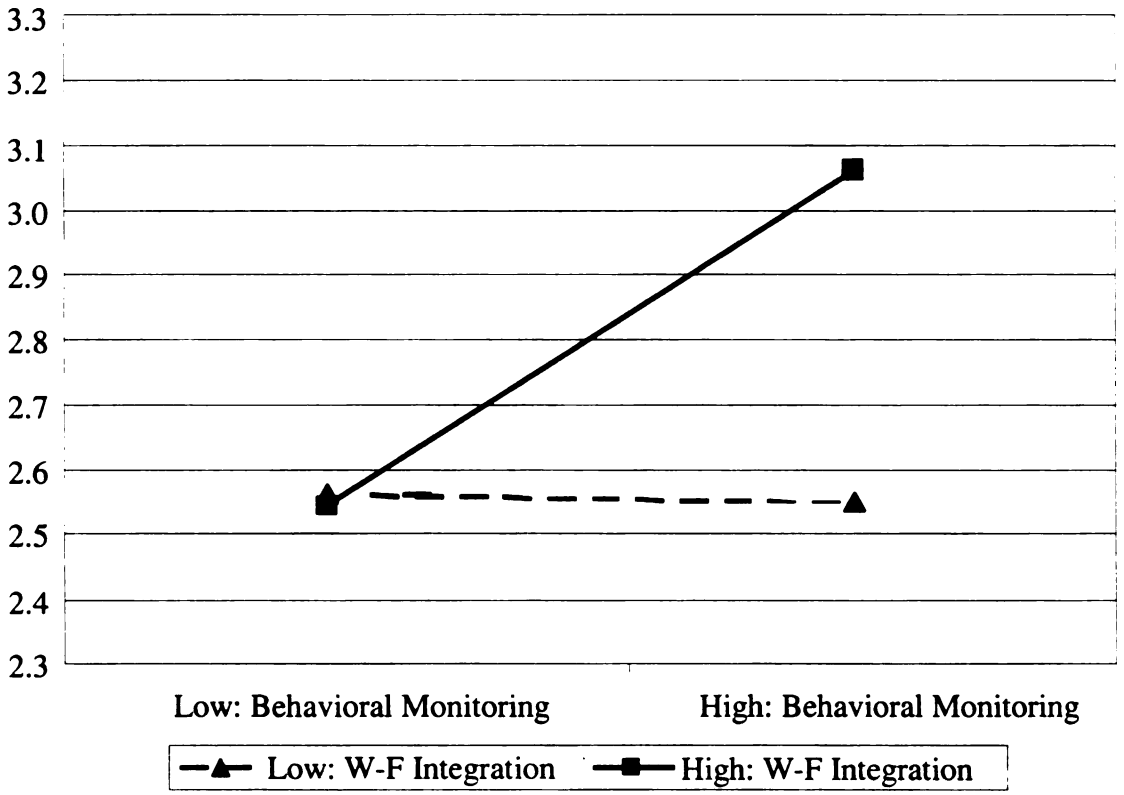


FIGURE 10: Interactive Effect of Work-Family Integration and Behavioral Monitoring on Emotional Exhaustion[a]

[a]The numbers represent scores on emotional exhaustion. Low behavioral monitoring and work-family integration represent one standard deviation below the mean on their respective scores; high scores are one standard deviation above the mean.



APPENDIX C: ITEM MEASURES

Emotional display rules (Best et al., 1997; Grandey, 2003):
*Notes items used in final analyses

1. Reassure others who are distressed or upset.*
2. Remain calm even when you are astonished.*
3. Express feelings of sympathy (e.g., be kind and understanding).*
4. Express friendly emotions (e.g., smile).*
5. Part of my job is to make others feel good.*
6. My workplace does *not* expect me to express positive emotions as part of my job. (reverse coded)
7. My organization would say that part of my job is to be friendly and cheerful.*

Behavioral display rules (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984):

1. At my work, employees are expected to behave in appropriate ways.
2. I am expected to behave in a manner that makes me fit in at work.
3. On the job, when I am uncertain how to act I am encouraged to look to the behavior of others for cues.*
4. At work, I should pay attention to the reactions of others regarding my behavior in order to avoid being out of place.*
5. On the job, the slightest look of disapproval from a person with whom I am interacting is expected to make me change my approach.*
6. My behavior at work often depends on how I feel others wish me to behave.*

Workload (Janssen, 2001; Ilies et al., 2007):

1. My workload is high.*
2. I have to work fast.*
3. I have too much work to do.*
4. I have to work extra hard to finish a task.*
5. I work under time pressure.*
6. I can do my work in comfort. (reverse coded)
7. I deal with a backlog at work.*
8. I have problems with the pace of my work.
9. I have problems with my workload.

Emotional labor (Grandy, 2003; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; items 1-5 refer to surface acting; items 6-10 deep acting):

1. I fake a good mood.*
2. I put on an act it order to deal with others in an appropriate way.
3. I pretend to have emotions I need to display for my job.*

Emotional labor items continued:

4. I put on a 'mask' in order to display the emotions I need for my job.*
5. I resist expressing my true feelings.
6. I generally try to look at the positive side of things to change how I feel.
7. I attempt to focus on happier things.
8. I try to actually experience the emotions I must show.*
9. I make an effort to actually feel the emotions I need to display to others.*
10. I really try to feel the emotions I have to show as part of my job.*

Behavioral Monitoring (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984):

1. I alter my behavior at work if I feel that something else is called for.*
2. On the job, I control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them.*
3. At work, when I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.*
4. I have trouble changing my behavior at work to suit different people and situations. (reverse coded)
5. I adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in at work.*
6. Even when it might be to my advantage, it is difficult for me to put up a good front at work. (reverse coded)
7. Once I know what the situation calls for at work, I regulate my actions accordingly.*

Work effort (Brown & Leigh, 1996):

1. When there's a job to be done, I devote all my energy to getting it done.*
2. When I work, I do so with intensity.*
3. I work at my full capacity in all of my job duties.*
4. I strive as hard as I can to be successful in my work.*
5. When I work, I really exert myself to the fullest.*

Emotion-based work-family conflict (Netemeyer et al., 1996; Kopelman et al., 1983; Carlson et al., 2000):

1. The emotional demands of my job make it difficult for me to express appropriate emotions at home.*
2. The emotions required by my job often prevent me from contributing to our home/family life.*
3. The emotional demands of my work interfere with our home and family life.*
4. I am not able to display appropriate emotions at home because of my work.*
5. The emotions that are necessary for my job make it difficult for me to meet emotional demands here at home.*

Behavior-based work-family conflict (Carlson et al., 2000):

1. I am not able to monitor or control my behavior at home as I do at work.*
2. The behavioral demands of my job make it difficult for me to engage in appropriate behaviors at home.*
3. Behavior that is appropriate for me at work interferes with my family life here at home.*
4. The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better spouse or family member.*
5. The behaviors that are necessary for my job make it difficult for me to meet behavioral demands here at home.*

Strain-based work-family conflict (Kopelman et al., 1983; Carlson et al., 2000):

1. The demands of my job make it difficult for me to be relaxed at home.*
2. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I would like to do.*
3. Because my work is demanding, at times I am irritable at home.*
4. It is difficult for me to relax when I am away from work.
5. Tension and anxiety from work often creep into my family life.
6. I often feels I am rushing to get my nonwork responsibilities taken care of in order to get back to work.
7. I am often stressed by trying to balance my responsibilities when work interferes with the rest of my life.
8. I am often so drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.
9. I am often preoccupied with work while I am at home.
10. Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I really enjoy.
11. Sometimes I feel overwhelmed by all of my responsibilities at work.

Burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981):

Emotional exhaustion component:

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.*
2. I feel used up at the end of the day.*
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.*
4. Working with people is really a strain for me.
5. I feel burned out from my work.*
6. I feel frustrated after work.*
7. I feel I'm working too hard.*
8. Working with people puts too much stress on me.
9. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.*

Burnout items continued:

Depersonalization component:

1. I feel I treat others as if they were impersonal 'objects'.*
2. I feel I am callous toward others.*
3. I worry that I am becoming emotionally hardened.*
4. I don't really care about what happens to others.*
5. I feel others blame me for some of their problems.

Personal accomplishment component:

1. I easily understands how others feel about things.
2. I deal very effectively with problems.*
3. I feel I'm positively influencing others lives.
4. I feel very energetic.*
5. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with others.
6. I feel exhilarated after working closely with others.
7. I feel I've accomplished many worthwhile things.*
8. I deal with emotional problems very calmly.*

Affect (Watson & Clark, 1994):

The ten adjective descriptors for the positive scale include:

1. Interested*
2. Enthusiastic*
3. Excited*
4. Strong*
5. Proud*
6. Alert *
7. Inspired*
8. Attentive*
9. Active*
10. Determined*

The ten adjective descriptors for the negative scale include:

1. Upset*
2. Irritable*
3. Distressed*
4. Guilty*
5. Scared*
6. Ashamed*
7. Nervous*
8. Jittery*
9. Afraid*
10. Hostile*

Life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1985):

1. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.*
2. I am satisfied with my life.*
3. So far, I got the important things I want in life.*
4. The conditions of my life are excellent.*
5. In most ways my life is close to ideal.*

Marital satisfaction (Norton, 1983):

1. I feel that I have a good marriage or relationship.*
2. I feel that my relationship with my spouse or significant other is very stable.*
3. Our marriage or relationship is very strong.*
4. I really feel like part of a team with my spouse/significant other.*
5. My relationship with my spouse or significant other has made me happy.*

Work-family integration (Desrochers et al., 2005):

1. It is often difficult to tell where my work life ends and my family life begins.*
2. I tend to integrate my work and family duties when I work at home.*
3. In my life, there is a clear boundary between my career and my role as a spouse or family member. (reverse-scored)*

Supervisor support (Shinn et al., 1989):

1. Switched schedules (hours, overtime hours, vacation) to accommodate my family responsibilities.*
2. Listened to my problems.*
3. Was critical of my efforts to combine work and family. (reverse coded)*
4. Juggled tasks or duties to accommodate my family responsibilities.*
5. Shared ideas or advice.*
6. Held my family responsibilities against me. (reverse coded)*
7. Helped me to figure out how to solve a problem.*
8. Was understanding or sympathetic.*
9. Showed resentment of my needs as a working parent or family member. (reverse coded)*

Family emotional display rules (Erickson, 1993):

1. Confide your innermost thoughts and feelings.*
2. Let your family members (e.g., spouse, children, etc.) know you have faith in them.*
3. Sense when a family member is disturbed about something.*
4. Offer others encouragement.*
5. Give your spouse or family compliments.*
6. Stick by your family in times of trouble.*
7. Act affectionately toward your spouse/significant other.*
8. Communicate your feelings about the future of your family.*

Time-based work-family conflict (Kopelman et al., 1983):

1. My work takes up time that I would like to spend with family or friends.*
2. My work schedule often conflicts with my family life.*
3. I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.*

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