

The impact of emotional labor on work–family outcomes

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ABSTRACT

Theory and research on emotional labor at work is applied to the study of the work–family interface to explore how emotional experiences in both the work and the family domain relate to the experience of work–family conflict and work–family enrichment, and ultimately attitudinal and health outcomes. Emotional intelligence is also examined as a moderator of the relationship between emotional labor and affective responses to work and family life. A model focusing on emotional experiences in the both the work and family domains is proposed and tested using path analysis. Results indicate that emotional labor in both the work and family domains relate to affective responses to each respective domain, which in turn relates to work–family conflict and work–family enrichment. In turn, consistent with previous research work–family conflict relates to domain-specific satisfaction (job, life) and health outcomes (burnout, depression). Partial support was found for the proposed moderating effect of emotional intelligence.

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1. Introduction

There is increasing scholarly and practitioner interest in the relationship between work and family life (see Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). This is due in part to shifting demographics, including more working women, dual-career couples, and single parent families (Jalilvand, 2000; Major & Germano, 2006; Richie, 2006; U.S. Census Bureau, 2001). Given these changes in family structure, more employees report difficulty juggling responsibilities in the two most important domains of life for adults: work and family (Grzywacz, Frone, Brewer, & Kovner, 2006; Major & Germano, 2006). Scholars have responded with increasing research on the work–family interface.

Research on work and family has examined a wide range of issues such as work–family conflict (e.g., Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992a; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992b; Thomas & Ganster, 1995), the effect of work role stress on family functioning (e.g., Barling, Dupree, & Hepburn, 1998) and work–family support and assistance (e.g., Allen, 2001). There is also increasing recognition that work–family interactions relate to important health outcomes such as work role stress, psychological distress, and physical health complaints (see Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000). More recently, research has focused on the positive aspects of work and family interactions (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

Although researchers have extensively studied the work–family interface, there are several gaps in the existing literature. While research on the emotional experience of work and family life is starting to accumulate (Eby, Maher, & Butts, in press), the primary focus is on the negative aspects of the work–family interface (e.g., Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006; William & Alliger, 1994; Williams, Suls, Alliger, Learner, & Wan, 1991). Moreover, much of the existing research has explored intra-individual differences in emotional experience (e.g., Judge et al., 2006; William & Alliger, 1994; Williams et al., 1991) and not considered domain-specific satisfaction or health outcomes in relation to specific emotional experiences (e.g., Rothbard,

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2001; William & Alliger, 1994; Williams et al., 1991). This is curious since there is increasing awareness that emotions are important in understanding organizational behavior, emotional expression is a significant component of both work and family life, and emotions can influence health outcomes (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000; Salovey, Detweiler, Steward, & Rothman, 2000). The limited literature linking emotions with the positive aspects of work–family interactions is also surprising since experiences in the family are a major source of happiness and emotional well-being (see Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Another gap is that emotional intelligence has not been examined in the work–family literature even though the ability to regulate, appropriately express, and manage one's emotions is logically related to effective functioning within the family domain, just as it is within the work domain (Giardini & Frese, 2006).

The present study addresses these gaps in the literature by integrating the literature on emotions, work–family conflict, and work–family enrichment to propose a process-oriented model to explain how emotional experiences at work and in the family relate to a wide range of attitudinal and health outcomes. Given the central role of emotions in the present study, we use the construct of emotional labor as the theoretical underpinning. Emotional labor refers to the act of expressing feelings and emotions in ways that are considered appropriate for a particular role (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) and has been examined in relation to *display rules* associated with various jobs, particularly those in the service sector (Hochschild, 1983). We extend the construct of emotional labor to the family domain by arguing that there are also display rules, or expected behaviors, in the family which can create another form of emotional labor for role occupants. This responds directly to Judge and colleagues question, "...do individuals perceive such display rules at work and *at home*, and how do these rules relate to emotions..." (Judge et al., 2006, p. 805, emphasis added).

2. Overview of research on emotional labor

Hochschild's (1979, 1983) research was the first to identify emotional labor as the behaviors required by those working in the service industry; specifically, the necessity of regulating one's emotional expression to fit the requirements of service-related interactions. From an organizational standpoint, it is often assumed that requiring employees to express positive emotions will increase organizational profits. However, research indicates that there are mixed or at times even negative results associated with requiring employees to display certain service-oriented behaviors (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989), perhaps because sometimes the emotions required by these interactions are not genuinely experienced by the role occupant.

As research on emotional labor evolved, it began to include other organizational behaviors in addition to those of service-oriented professions and a model has emerged that more precisely delineates the how and why emotional labor may occur (Grandey, 2000). By incorporating emotional regulation theory and research (see Gross, 1998a, 1998b), this model presents emotional labor as an emotional regulatory process, which includes antecedents of emotional labor, the emotional labor itself, and the long-term consequences of emotional labor. In Grandey's (2000) model, the antecedents of emotional labor include situational cues in the work environment such as interaction expectations and emotional events. Interaction expectations are defined as the frequency, duration, variety, and emotional display rules that characterize the interaction between employee and client. The emotional display rules required differ from job to job. For example, flight attendants should be calm and attentive to passengers whereas trial lawyers should be assertive, combative, and confident.

2.1. Dimensionality of the emotional labor construct

Emotional labor has two distinct dimensions. *Surface acting* occurs when individuals manage their *observable expressions*. It involves response modulation whereby an individual may feel a particular response to a situation but rather than reveal it, they alter their emotional expression or reaction to the situation so that it reflects another, more organizationally acceptable or required emotion. This is the revising of emotional expression via faking or by using facial and bodily signs of emotion (Grandey, 2000). For example, a customer service representative may have to act concerned and empathetic with an irate customer even though s/he actually feels as if the customer is over-reacting and being rude. In contrast, *deep acting* occurs when individuals regulate their *true feelings* or change their *appraisal* of the situation. It involves attentional deployment, where the events that triggered a particular emotional reaction are recalled when that emotion is required in a new situation. It also involves cognitive change, whereby the situation is reappraised to decrease its emotional impact. An example is telling flight attendants to re-imagine that difficult airline passengers are children, making it easier to develop the necessary emotional response to deal with them (Grandey, 2000).

Interestingly, negative outcomes are typically associated with surface acting, whereas deep acting can lead to positive outcomes. For example, several studies find that as surface acting increases so does burnout, suggesting that there is emotional strain involved in masking one's true feelings (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). However, greater use of deep acting is related to role identification (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003), feelings of personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), less burnout (Grandey, 2003), and greater service performance (Totterdell & Holman, 2003), suggesting that adjusting one's emotions to be congruent with what is felt and displayed can result in positive outcomes. One explanation for these differential effects might be the distinction between effects of emotional dissonance and emotional congruence. When engaging in surface acting, individuals use the emotional regulatory strategy of response modulation, or faking emotional expression. This can create a dissonance between felt and expressed emotion (see Hochschild, 1983). In contrast, when engaging in deep acting individuals employ emotional regulatory strategies that reduce the

dissonance between felt and expressed emotion, including cognitive re-appraisal and attentional deployment, which results in emotional congruence.

2.2. Extending emotional labor to the family domain

Although research on emotional labor has focused on the workplace, it can be easily extended to the family domain. Zedeck (1992) argues convincingly that “work” occurs within the family. While the specific duties associated with work in the family domain differs from that of the organizational domain, in both domains individuals are working on tasks aimed at reaching some goal (Zedeck, 1992). In the family domain the tasks may include helping children with homework, cooking, cleaning, and engaging in family activities, among other things. While these tasks do not yield financial gain, they nonetheless represent work tasks and activities (Kanter, 1977). Moreover, the role demands associated with family life come with emotional display requirements. For example, while family life can be fulfilling and psychologically rewarding, it can also be emotionally draining, physically exhausting, and stressful (Beehr, Johnson, Nieva, & Hurrell, 1995). Nonetheless, individuals are expected to act like caring parents, supportive spouses, and concerned children/siblings, even when they may feel physically or emotionally drained. This suggests that the construct of emotional labor can be extended to the family domain and that individuals are likely to experience emotional labor here, just as they may in the work domain. Theoretical work by Wharton and Erickson (1993) supports the idea that emotion management occurs in the family.

2.3. Proposed model of emotional labor and the work–family interface

The literature just reviewed suggests that the extent to which one experiences emotional labor in various life roles may influence affective response to work and family experiences. We propose a conceptual model of this process whereby the situational cues of work and family (frequency, variety, and intensity of interactions) lead to emotional labor, which generates an affective response, which in turn relates to the amount of work–family conflict and work–family enrichment experienced, which ultimately relates to attitudinal and health outcomes. We also examine how emotional intelligence influences the emotional labor–affective response relationship. The general model that is used to guide the present study is depicted in Fig. 1.

The hypotheses that follow focus on domain-specific effects. We took this approach for several reasons. First, although some research finds direct transfer of mood across domains (William & Alliger, 1994), stronger effects are generally found for domain-specific (e.g., work experiences to work-related affect) effects (Judge et al., 2006). Second, when considering bi-directional measures of work–family conflict (family-to-work conflict, work-to-family conflict), stronger correlations are typically found when the focus of the conflict (e.g., work interfering with family) and the nature of the outcome (e.g., family satisfaction) are in the same domain (see Eby et al., 2005). Finally, our primary interest is articulating the specific processes linking emotional labor to affective reactions, work–family experiences, and subsequent attitudinal and health outcomes. It would have been difficult to parsimoniously represent both cross- and within-domain effects in such a fine-grained process-oriented model. This represents an important area for future research.

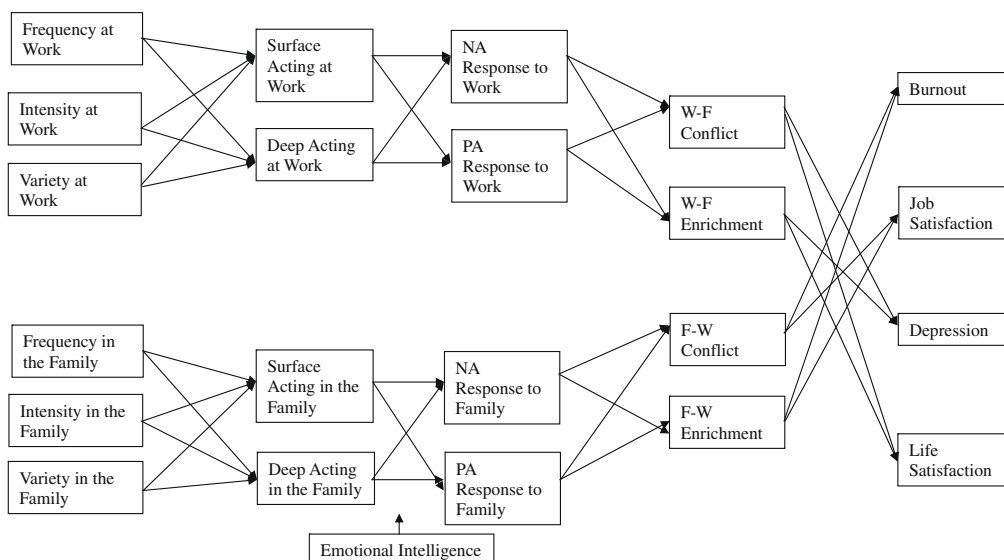


Fig. 1. Proposed model of emotional labor and the work–family interface.

2.4. Hypothesis development

At both work and in the family, emotional labor can be triggered by interaction expectations. For example, in the work domain, a therapist will have frequent client interactions that differ in intensity and variety depending on each client's needs. In the family domain, an individual may have interactions of differing intensity and variety with family members. For example, on a day-to-day basis a father may interact with his children by helping with homework, coaching their sports team, eating dinner, and putting the children to bed. As a husband, he may have a variety of interactions with his wife such as talking to her on the phone throughout the day, greeting her when she comes home from work, watching a movie, and perhaps flirting with her prior to going to bed. These interactions can trigger emotional labor. This leads to the following predictions:

Hypothesis 1. Frequency, intensity, and variety of interactions at work will be related to the experience of surface acting and deep acting at work.

Hypothesis 2. Frequency, intensity, and variety of interactions in the family will be related to the experience of surface acting and deep acting in the family.

Although multiple role membership can be beneficial (Barnett & Hyde, 2001), the emotional display rules associated with work and family roles carry with them a certain amount of emotional labor. These emotional requirements of work and family can affect individuals' emotional response to their work and family roles, in either a positive or negative direction, as evidenced by the differential effects of surface and deep acting discussed above. As illustrated in Fig. 1, we place affect following the emotional labor process, rather than preceding it, based on the emotion regulation model of Gross and Thompson (2007). According to that model, emotional regulation occurs before the emotional experience is complete. Therefore, while emotions occur before and during the emotional regulation process, the completed emotional experience occurs at the end of the process. This leads to the following predictions:

Hypothesis 3a. Surface acting at work will be positively related to negative affective responses to work and negatively related to positive affective responses to work.

Hypothesis 3b. Surface acting in the family will be positively related to negative affective responses to family and negatively related to positive affective responses to family.

Hypothesis 4a. Deep acting at work will be negatively related to negative affective responses to work and positively related to positive affective responses to work.

Hypothesis 4b. Deep acting in the family will be negatively related to negative affective responses to family and positively related to positive affective responses to family.

Because deep acting involves the regulation and appraisal of one's actual felt emotions, the relationship between deep acting and the subsequent affective response may be moderated by emotional intelligence. The meta-mood processes of attention to feeling, clarity, and mood repair are a part of trait emotional intelligence (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995) and represent perceived emotional intelligence (Salovey, Stroud, Woolery, & Epel, 2002). In the current study, we focus on the facet of mood repair because of its emotional regulatory characteristics and believe that it works in conjunction with deep acting to moderate individuals' affective response to work and family.

The model proposed by Grandey (2000) proposes that emotional intelligence plays a moderating role in the relationship between emotional labor and individual well-being. A study by Johnson and Spector (2007) examined this moderator role of emotional intelligence but found that it did not have an effect on the relationship between emotional labor and outcomes such as emotional exhaustion, affective well-being, and job satisfaction. One explanation for this finding may be the distal relationship between emotional labor and individual well-being. As noted previously, emotional labor is an emotional regulatory process and according to Gross and Thompson (2007), the outcome of this process is an action tendency. In the current model, we examine the more proximal outcome of one's affective experience in relation to emotional labor and emotional intelligence. We expect that individuals who are better able to repair negative mood states should report less negative affective responses and greater positive affective responses to the experience of deep acting. This leads to the following prediction:

Hypothesis 5. Emotional intelligence will moderate the relationship between deep acting at work and in the family, and affective response to work and family. Specifically:

Hypothesis 5a. For individuals higher in mood repair, there will be a stronger positive relationship between deep acting at work and positive affective response to work, and a stronger negative relationship between deep acting at work and negative affective response to work.

Hypothesis 5b. For individuals higher in mood repair, there will be a stronger positive relationship between deep acting in the family and positive affective response in the family, and a stronger negative relationship between deep acting and negative affective response to family.

Next, we predict that positive and negative affective responses to work and family will relate to individuals' experience of work–family conflict and work–family enrichment. The rationale here is that many of the variables identified as predictors of work–family conflict and work–family enrichment carry with them emotional responses. For example, conflict, stress and pressure at work, as well as issues originating within the family such as childcare concerns, family disagreements, and family stress, are all emotionally-charged and have been linked to work–family conflict (for a review see Eby et al., 2005). Likewise, positive work–family spillover is associated with predictors that are affective in nature, such as spouse affective support, spousal harmony, affective support from other family members (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). As shown in Fig. 1, negative affective responses to surface acting should be associated with increased work–family conflict and decreased work–family enrichment. In contrast, positive affective responses to deep acting should be related to lower work–family conflict and higher work–family enrichment. Stated as formal hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6. Negative responses to work will be positively related to work-to-family conflict and negatively related to work-to-family enrichment. In contrast, positive affective responses to work will be negatively related to work-to-family conflict and positively related to work-to-family enrichment.

Hypothesis 7. Negative affective responses to the family will be positively related to family-to-work conflict and negatively related to family-to-work enrichment. In contrast, positive affective responses to work will be negatively related to family-to-work conflict and positively related to family-to-work enrichment.

Finally, as shown in Fig. 1, work–family conflict and work–family enrichment are proposed as proximal predictors of attitudinal and health-related outcomes. Consistent with current conceptualizations of work–family conflict as bi-directional (e.g., Frone et al., 1992a; O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth, 1992), we propose that work-to-family conflict and work-to-family enrichment predict non-work outcomes whereas family-to-work conflict and family-to-work enrichment predict work outcomes.

Consistent with previous research, we expect family-to-work conflict to predict burnout (e.g., Burke & Greenglass 1999; Montgomery, Panagopolou, & Benos, 2006). On the other hand, as individuals report greater family-to-work enrichment, burnout should be lessened because family experiences which enrich work should improve the quality of life at work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Another relevant work-related outcome is job satisfaction. Research indicates that higher family-to-work conflict is negatively related to job satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Grandey, Corderio, & Crouter, 2005; Kosek & Ozeki, 1998), and work–family facilitation is positively related to job satisfaction (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006). Thus, we propose:

Hypothesis 8. Family-to-work conflict will be positively related to burnout and negatively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 9. Family-to-work enrichment will be negatively related to burnout and positively related to job satisfaction.

In terms of work to family effects, consistent with previous research (e.g., Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997) work-to-family conflict should predict lower life satisfaction and higher depressive feelings. In contrast, work-to-family enrichment should be associated with higher life satisfaction and fewer reports of depression because when work experiences enhance family experiences, one's quality of nonwork life should improve (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). As such, we propose:

Hypothesis 10. Work-to-family conflict will be negatively related to life satisfaction and positively related to depression.

Hypothesis 11. Work-to-family enrichment will be positively related to life satisfaction and negatively related to depression.

3. Method

3.1. Participants and procedure

Members of a psychological society were recruited for the study. This sample was chosen because psychologists work in a wide range of jobs with potentially heavy emotional labor requirements at work (e.g., clinical psychologists, organizational consultants, educators). The American Psychological Association Directory (2001) and the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology Directory (2004) were used to identify potential participants. Individuals were sent a solicitation e-mail which provided a link to a secure website where the survey was housed. Two weeks later a reminder e-mail was sent out to all participants thanking those who had responded and encouraging participation to those that had not yet responded. Of the 2325 people contacted, 2008 had usable e-mail addresses. Out of that sample, 238 participated in the study, resulting in an 12% response rate. This is a highly conservative estimate since some members are unemployed or retired, making them ineligible for the study. Also, we cannot be certain all of the solicitations reached potential participants due to e-mail filtering systems and changes of address. Of those who answered the demographic questions, 60% were female, 91% were white, and the modal age was 30–39 years. This demographic profile is generally similar to that of the American Psychological Association (<http://www.apa.org/monitor/feb02/rc.html>). Married participants accounted for 78% of the sample and 48% had an average of two children living at home (M child age = 8.5 years). Of those who were married, 82% had a spouse that also worked outside

the home. Approximately half (55%) of the participants reported their salary was between \$51,000–100,000 with another 11% reporting lower than \$50,000 and 34% reporting above \$100,000. Finally, 83% had earned a PsyD/PhD/EdD/MD while 17% reported a Masters-level degree.

3.2. Measures

The 14-item Emotional Labor Scale (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003) was used. Since this measure was designed to measure emotional labor at work, parallel items were written to measure frequency, intensity, and variety of interactions, as well as surface and deep acting in the family. Items were measured on a 1 (never) to 5 (always) scale with higher scores indicating greater emotional labor. Frequency was measured with three items (e.g., “Display specific emotion required by my job”). Intensity was measured with two items (e.g., “Express intense emotions”). Variety was measured with three items (e.g., “Display many different kinds of emotion”). Surface acting was measured with three items (e.g., “Resist expressing my true feelings”). Deep acting was measured with three items (e.g., “Make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to others”). Coefficient alpha reliabilities for frequency, intensity, and variety at work scales were all $>.70$.

Consistent with Rothbard's (2001) study of affective responses to work and family, the twenty-item Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) was used to measure affective response to work and family. Four measures were completed: positive affective response to work, negative affective response to work, positive affective response to family, and negative affective response to family. Items were measured on a 1 (very slightly or not at all) to 5 (extremely) scale, with higher scores indicating greater positive and negative affective response, respectively. The coefficient alphas ranged from .86–.94 for these measures. The 6-item mood repair subscale from the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (Salovey et al., 1995) was used to assess emotional intelligence. Items were measured on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) scale (e.g., “When I become upset I remind myself of all the pleasures in life”), with higher scores indicating greater mood repair ($\alpha = .75$).

Conflict between work and family was measured using the Work–Family Conflict Scale (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000). This scale has two subscales, one measuring work conflicting with family (e.g., “My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like”, $\alpha = .83$) and one measuring family conflicting with work (e.g., “The time I spend on family responsibilities often interferes with my work responsibilities”, $\alpha = .82$). Work–family enrichment was measured using Carlson et al.'s (2006) 14-item measure. This scale is also comprised of two subscales, one measuring family-to-work enrichment (e.g., “My family life provides me with contacts that help my career”, $\alpha = .69$) and one measuring work-to-family enrichment (e.g., “I have developed skills in my job that are useful at home”, $\alpha = .71$). These constructs were measured using a 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) scale.

Cammann, Finchman, Jenkins, & Klesh (1979) 3-item scale was used to measure job satisfaction (e.g., “In general, I like working here”, $\alpha = .91$). The emotional exhaustion subscale from the Maslach Burnout Survey (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996) was used to assess burnout (e.g., “I feel used up at the end of the work day”, $\alpha = .88$). Items were measured on a 0 (never) to 6 (every day) scale. The short version of the Center for the Epidemiologic Studies–Depression Scale (Kohout, Berkman, & Evans, 1993) was used to measure depression. These 11 items measured using 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely) scale (e.g., “I do not feel like eating; my appetite is poor” $\alpha = .84$). Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin's (1985) 5-item scale was used to measure life satisfaction (e.g., “In most ways my life is close to my ideal”, $\alpha = .89$). These items are measured on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) scale.

3.3. Control variables

Several control variables were included in all subsequent analyses: marital status (1 = single, no partner; 2 = single, living with partner; 3 = married; 4 = divorced; 5 = widowed), number of children, annual salary, and work schedule (1 = part-time; 2 = full-time). These variables were selected based on previous research (see Eby et al., 2005).

4. Results

Correlations among the study variables are shown in Table 1. Data were analyzed using path analysis. Regression is the preferred method of analysis, as opposed to SEM, for complex models (LeBreton, Wu, & Bing, 2009). A series of ordinary least squares regressions were conducted to obtain standardized beta weights for each path. The results are shown in Fig. 2 and only significant paths are shown for readability. In all regression models the control variables were included. Hypotheses involving emotional intelligence as a moderator were tested using cross-product regression.

4.1. Relationship between situational cues and emotional labor

Weak support was found for Hypothesis 1 (see Fig. 2). As expected, frequency of interactions at work was positively related to surface ($\beta = .27, p < .01$) and deep ($\beta = .33, p < .01$) acting at work. However, counter to prediction, variety of interactions at work was *negatively* related to surface acting at work ($\beta = -.27, p < .05$) and unrelated to deep acting at work. Moreover, intensity at work was not related to surface acting at work or deep acting at work. Weak support was also found for Hypothesis 2 (see Fig. 2). Frequency of interactions in the family was positively related to both surface ($\beta = .17, p < .05$) and deep ($\beta = .16, p < .05$) acting in the family. Counter to prediction, variety of interactions in the family was *negatively*

Table 1
Correlations among work–family variables and work–family outcomes.

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Marital status	2.90	.58										
Number of children	.88	1.16	.17*									
Work schedule	1.88	.32	.01	.04								
Salary	107043	76231	-.04	-.05	.26**							
EL-F frequency	10.72	2.28	.04	.07	-.08	.18*						
EL-F intensity	6.19	1.52	-.08	.03	-.02	.05	.25**					
EL-F variety	9.95	2.22	-.10	-.02	.02	.10	.23**	.56**				
EL-F surface acting	6.61	1.77	.01	.02	-.06	.08	.06	-.18**	-.17**			
EL-F deep acting	8.13	2.83	.06	.07	.03	.17*	.24**	.13	.19	-.00		
EL-W frequency	10.49	2.17	-.02	.01	.03	.01	.30**	.21**	.16*	.04	.31**	
EL-W intensity	5.10	1.64	-.08	-.14	.02	.01	-.01	.39**	.32**	-.17**	.17**	
EL-W variety	8.58	2.46	-.10	-.09	.06	-.07	.02	.29*	.45**	-.14*	.16*	
EL-W surface acting	8.11	2.04	.11	-.01	.08	-.03	.06	-.01	-.10	.36**	.11	
EL-W deep acting	7.68	2.60	.08	-.02	.00	.01	.13*	.11	.06	-.01	.61**	
PA-family	40.64	5.14	.20**	.28**	.08	-.09	.24**	.10	.15*	-.21**	.09	
NA-family	16.32	5.38	-.06	.04	.06	-.04	-.04	.17**	.00	.38**	.00	
PA-work	39.00	6.71	.09	-.03	-.03	-.08	-.01	.07	.12	-.01	-.01	
NA-work	16.31	4.94	-.14*	.07	.20**	-.05	.04	.17**	.11	.19**	.01	
Mood repair	22.78	4.94	.04	.10	.09	.07	.05	-.06	.09	-.27**	.05	
W-F conflict	23.41	6.43	.04	-.03	.23**	.17	.48	.01	.03	.20**	.19**	
F-W conflict	19.80	5.72	-.05	-.04	.03	-.01	-.03	.01	-.03	.26**	.03	
W-F enrichment	27.23	4.08	.04	.04	-.02	.05	-.1	.03	.03	-.09	.06	
F-W enrichment	23.04	4.50	.10	.09	-.01	-.10	.01	-.03	.11	-.14	.09	
Job satisfaction	12.25	2.73	.12	.12	-.06	-.06	-.05	-.01	.01	-.07	.01	
Depression	18.02	4.73	-.05	-.05	.02	-.11	-.11	.13*	-.05	.23**	.12	
Life satisfaction	18.80	3.55	.03	.03	.06	.12	.03	-.04	.09	-.20**	-.02	
Burnout	43.03	14.24	-.15*	-.15*	.10	.08	.01	.03	-.05	.17*	.06	
	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
Marital status												
Number of children												
Salary												
Work schedule												
EL-F frequency												
EL-F intensity												
EL-F variety												
EL-F surface acting												
EL-F deep acting												
EL-W frequency												
EL-W intensity	.28**											
EL-W variety	.40**	.69**										
EL-W surface acting	.13*	-.22**	-.20**									
EL-W deep acting	.36**	.17**	.18**	.07								
PA-family	.08	.01	.05	-.11	.13*							
NA-family	.11	.03	.02	.28**	-.09	-.34**						
PA-work	.27**	.25**	.20**	-.19**	.16*	.32**	-.17**					
NA-work	.05	.08	.02	.34**	-.10	-.15*	.55**	-.26**				
Mood repair	.16*	.14*	.07	-.09	.07	.18**	.18**	.20**	-.09			
W-F conflict	.17**	.04	.12	.25**	.05	.21**	.31**	-.19**	.30**	-.09		
F-W conflict	.04	-.05	-.07	.22**	-.05	-.14*	.39*	-.19*	.32**	.16*	.51**	
W-F enrichment	.01	.07	.06	-.19**	.13*	.18**	-.15*	.35**	-.18**	.19**	-.25**	
F-W enrichment	.12	.11	.16*	-.14*	.18**	.21**	-.11	.31**	-.08	.13*	-.17**	
Job satisfaction	.07	.08	-.00	-.25**	.10	.25**	.22**	.68**	-.37**	.20*	-.35**	
Depression	-.03	.03	.03	.22**	-.02	-.31**	.57**	-.34**	.40**	-.42**	.18**	
Life satisfaction	.01	.03	-.05	-.18**	.06	.31**	-.23**	.36**	-.16*	.42**	.28**	
Burnout	-.03	-.07	-.03	.28**	-.06	-.25**	.40**	-.65**	.48**	.23**	.48**	
	21		22		23		24		25		26	27
Mood repair												
W-F conflict												
F-W conflict												
W-F enrichment	.25**											
F-W enrichment	-.18**		.56**									
Job satisfaction	-.28**		.37**		.18**							
Depression	.22**		-.16*		-.18**	-.27**						
Life satisfaction	-.25**		.22**		.18**	.38**		-.42**				
Burnout	.46**		-.34**		-.20**	-.75**		.36**		-.35**		

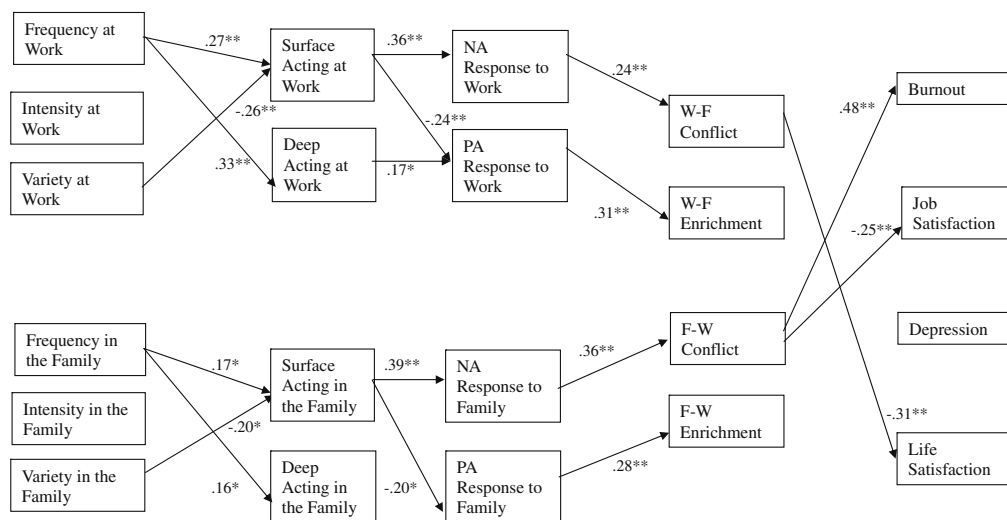


Fig. 2. Results of path analysis for work-family model.

related to surface acting in the family ($\beta = -.20, p < .05$) and unrelated to deep acting in the family. Intensity in the family was unrelated to surface acting and deep acting in the family.

4.2. Relationship between emotional labor and affective responses

As shown in Fig. 2, Hypotheses 3a and b were supported. Those engaging in surface acting at work reported stronger negative affective responses to work ($\beta = .36, p < .05$) and those engaging in surface acting in the family reported stronger negative affect to family ($\beta = .38, p < .01$). Also as expected, those engaging in surface acting at work reported less positive affective responses to work ($\beta = -.24, p < .01$) and those engaging in surface acting with the family reported less positive affective responses to family ($\beta = -.20, p < .01$). In contrast, limited support was found for the effects of deep acting (see Fig. 2). As proposed in Hypothesis 4a, deep acting at work was positively related to positive affective responses to work ($\beta = .17, p < .05$) but unrelated to negative affective responses to work. Counter to prediction, deep acting in the family was unrelated to either positive affective responses to family or negative affective response to family.

4.3. Emotional intelligence as a moderator

Hypotheses 5a and b proposed an interaction between deep acting and mood repair on affective response to work and family. For these hypotheses, main effects for deep acting and mood repair were entered into a regression equation in step

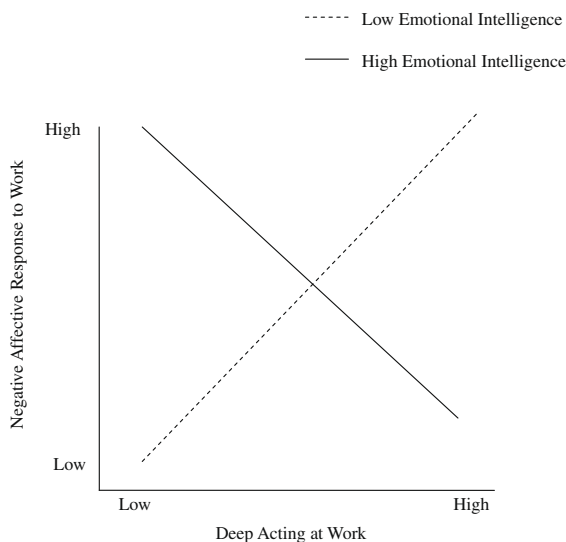


Fig. 3. Emotional intelligence as a moderator of the relationship between deep acting at work and negative affective response to work.

1. In step 2 the interaction term (e.g., deep acting at work \times mood repair) was entered and the change in R^2 examined for significance. If the change in R^2 was significant the interaction was plotted using the 10th percentile and 90th percentile, due to positively skewed data, to create high and low groups.

Mixed support was found for Hypothesis 5a. The interaction term associated with deep acting at work and mood repair was significantly related to negative affective responses to work ($\beta = -.19, p < .05, \Delta R^2 = .04, p < .05$, Overall $R^2 = .06$). As expected there was a stronger negative relationship between deep acting at work and negative affective response to work among those more able to repair their mood (see Fig. 3). However, the interaction term associated with deep acting at work and mood repair was not related to positive affect. There was also partial support for Hypothesis 5b. The interaction term associated with deep acting in the family and mood repair was significantly related to positive affective response to family ($\beta = .18, p < .05, \Delta R^2 = .03, p < .05$, Overall $R^2 = .07$). The nature of the interaction paralleled Hypothesis 5b; there was a stronger positive relationship between deep acting in the family and positive affective response to the family for those more able to repair their mood. However, the interaction term associated with deep acting in the family and mood repair was not related to negative affect.

4.4. Relationship between affective response and work–family experiences

As shown in Fig. 2, Hypothesis 6 was partially supported. Negative affect toward work was positively related to work-to-family conflict ($\beta = .24, p < .01$) but not work-to-family enrichment. Moreover, positive affective response to work was positively related to work-to-family enrichment ($\beta = .31, p < .01$) but not work-to-family conflict. Hypothesis 7 was also partially supported (see Fig. 2). Negative affect toward family was positively related to family-to-work conflict ($\beta = .36, p < .01$) but not family-to-work enrichment. Moreover, while positive affective response to the family was positively related to family-to-work enrichment ($\beta = .28, p < .01$) it was unrelated to family-to-work conflict.

4.5. Relationship between work–family conflict, work–family enrichment, and outcomes

Replicating previous research, Hypothesis 8 was supported (see Fig. 2). Family-to-work conflict was positively related to burnout ($\beta = .48, p < .01$) and negatively related to job satisfaction ($\beta = -.25, p < .01$). Hypothesis 9 was not supported (see Fig. 2). Family-to-work enrichment was not related to job satisfaction or burnout. Hypothesis 10 was partially supported since work-to-family conflict was negatively related to life satisfaction ($\beta = -.31, p < .01$) but not depression. Finally, no support was found for Hypothesis 11 (see Fig. 2). Work-to-family enrichment was not related to either life satisfaction or depression.

5. Discussion

Several general conclusions can be reached from the present study. First, the situational cue of frequency of interaction, both at work and in the family domain, is associated with the experience of emotional labor in each respective domain. Second, emotional labor generated in *both* the work and family domain has explanatory power in understanding affective responses to work and family life. Third, emotional intelligence (specifically mood repair) is an important individual difference variable to consider in understanding how emotional labor influences affective reactions to work and family life. Fourth, consistent with previous research, surface acting and deep acting represent different emotional experiences with distinct relationships with emotional responses to work and family life. Fifth, positive and negative affective reactions display different relationships with work–family conflict and work–family enrichment. Sixth, work–family conflict (but not work–family enrichment) was predictive of important domain-consistent attitudinal and health outcomes. Finally, looking at the results as a whole, emotional labor appears to operate somewhat differently in the work domain compared to the family domain.

5.1. Emotional experiences in the work and family domain

As suggested by previous theory (Grandey, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996) and research (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003), there was a positive relationship between the situational cue of frequency of interactions at work and in the family, and surface and deep acting in the respective domain. However, in contrast to past research and theory (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Morris & Feldman, 1996), as variety of interactions at work and in the family increased, surface acting decreased. Moreover, variety of interactions in both domains was unrelated to deep acting. One explanation for why variety of interactions was negatively related to surface acting may be that with greater demands for variety in emotional expression, individuals may have more fleeting emotional encounters. This may make the need to fake emotional expression less salient for individuals. Another unexpected finding was that intensity of emotional expression demonstrated no significant relationship with surface or deep acting in either domain. A possible reason for this result in the work domain may be that the measure of intensity, which asks individuals about the expression of strong emotion and the display of strong emotion, could be tempered in a more clinical-oriented sample in which the role requires the maintenance of a more composed display and expression of emotion. In other words, clinicians may *feel* intense emotions, but may not *express* them outright.

Consistent with previous theory (Grandey, 2000) and research (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003) surface acting at work related to more negative, as well as less positive, affective responses to work. However, we make an important extension to existing research by also finding that greater surface acting in the family related to less positive, as well as more negative, emotional reactions to family life. A more complex pattern of effects were found for deep acting. As with previous research (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), deep acting at work was associated with greater positive affective reactions to one's work role. However, a different pattern of effects was found for negative affect toward work. Specifically, deep acting at work was only associated with less negative affect toward work when mood repair was high. In fact, when emotional labor was low, deep acting at work was actually associated with increased negative affect toward work (see Fig. 3). This is important since it suggests that the integration of research on emotional labor and emotional intelligence may provide greater insight into both the process of emotional regulation and the buffering effects of emotional intelligence on emotional reactions to work.

A different pattern of effects was found in the family domain. In particular, regulating one's true feelings or re-appraising stressful family encounters (deep acting) was not associated with positive affective responses in the family domain. However, support was found for emotional intelligence as a moderator of this relationship. Specifically, a positive relationship was found between deep acting in the family and positive affective response to the family, but only for those who are better able to repair their moods. For individuals lower in mood repair, deep acting in the family was actually associated with less positive affective response to family. This result bears some similarity to the moderating role of emotional intelligence in the work domain, although is an important difference; in the work domain emotional intelligence served to lessen the negative impact of emotional labor whereas in the family domain emotional intelligence increased the positive affective response to the effects of emotional labor. One explanation for this difference is that work roles have more negative affect associated with them, and family roles may have more positive affect related to them. If so, then negative affective responses to performing work roles may be reduced by the combination of deep acting and greater mood repair ability. For example, being a sales clerk in a retail store may cause a certain amount of emotional strain, but the ability to regulate one's emotions combined with engaging in deep acting techniques may soften this effect. In contrast, the family role may engender generally more positive affective responses, which are enhanced by deep acting under conditions of high mood repair. In other words, even if couples argue, or parents and children argue, there likely remains a generally high positive affiliation for each other. In fact, working through conflicts in a relationship may actually enhance the bond between husband and wife, and parent and child.

The consistent effects of surface acting, coupled with the differential effects of deep acting, across work and family domains is important for at least three reasons. First, it provides further evidence that surface acting and deep acting represent distinct types of emotional labor. Second, it highlights the importance of examining emotional labor in both of the work and family domain. Finally, it showcases the importance of considering emotions in the study of the work–family interface. In so doing, it compliments existing research on how intra-individual differences in work and family demands relate to daily fluctuations in emotional experiences (Judge et al., 2006; William & Alliger, 1994; Williams et al., 1991) by examining inter-individual differences.

Similarities were found in terms of how affective responses relate to work–family conflict and work–family enrichment. In the work domain we found a symmetrical pattern of effects whereby negative affective responses related only to work-to-family conflict whereas positive affective responses related to only work-to-family enrichment. This might be explained by mood congruency theory (see Ilies & Judge, 2002) which argues that negative (positive) emotions activate similarly valenced information in memory, which then increases the likelihood of recalling family-to-work conflict (enrichment). This mood congruency effect was also evident for affective responses to family (see Fig. 2).

Finally, as shown in Fig. 2 work–family conflict was negatively related to domain-consistent attitudes (life and job satisfaction, respectively) and health outcomes (depression and emotional exhaustion, respectively). These findings are consistent with previous research (see Eby et al., 2005). Interestingly, work–family enrichment was not related to any of the outcomes examined in the present study. While counter to some previous research, this may be a function of the measure that we used to measure enrichment or the sample used to test the studied predictions. The differential pattern of effects for work–family conflict and work–family enrichment (along with their modest intercorrelations, see Table 1) provide further empirical evidence that conflict is not simply the opposite of enrichment (see Powell & Greenhaus, 2006) and highlight the importance of examining both the positive and negative aspects of the work–family interface in future research.

5.2. Implications for theory

Our findings have numerous theoretical implications. We provide support for a fundamental tenet of research on emotional labor at work; namely that surface acting and deep acting at work have differential effects on individuals and that the ability to engage in effective emotional regulation may be important to the successful execution of deep acting (Grandey, 2000). We also extend existing research by expanding emotional labor into the family domain. While replication is important before firm conclusions can be drawn, the finding of effects of deep acting across work and family roles is provocative because it suggests that deep acting elicits affective reactions in both the work and the family role, but that there is a different pattern of responses in the two domains. Thus, there may be different pathways by which the emotional demands of work and family ultimately influence work–family conflict and work–family enrichment. Taken together, our findings provide a platform for researchers to investigate additional roles in which emotional labor may occur (e.g., community

interactions, spiritual life) and leads to a variety of research questions about emotional labor. For example, what factors lead to various forms of emotional labor? Is surface or deep acting used more frequently in various life roles? What is the relative magnitude and relative effectiveness of surface and deep acting across life roles?

The study findings also have implications for theory and research on emotional intelligence and the work–family interface. Individuals who are able to effectively regulate their emotions reported less negative affective responses to work when experiencing emotional labor, and greater positive affective responses to family. This suggests that emotional intelligence may be uniquely important in decreasing the emotional demands of work and increasing the positive aspects of family roles. There are also implications for theory and future research on the work–family interface. We build on previous research which has focused on the daily experience of emotion in work and the family (e.g., Judge et al., 2006; William & Alliger, 1994) and highlight the potential importance of studying emotional experiences and affective responses in work–family research. This compliments existing research which tends to examine objective characteristics of the work and family environment as predictors of work–family conflict (for a review see Eby et al., 2005) and work–family enrichment (for a review see Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The finding that emotional experience operates differently in the work and family domain suggest the importance of taking into account the domain in which the conflict or enrichment is experienced to more fully understand work–family interactions. Finally, the general mood congruency effects and the differential pattern of relationships found for attitudinal and health outcomes contribute to recent attempts to clarify and expound on the conceptual differences between work–family conflict and work–family enrichment (e.g., Powell & Greenhaus, 2006).

5.3. Implications for practice

An important implication for practice involves increasing managers' awareness of the emotional demands facing their employees in both the work and family domain. This may legitimize the provision of both informal supervisor support for work–family and facilitate more formal, proactive attempts to help employees manage the emotional demands of work and family. This might include training programs focusing on building emotional regulation skills, learning deep acting techniques to cope with the emotional demands of work and family, understanding the potentially deleterious effects of surface acting in both domains, and encouraging the use of employee assistance programs. In addition, openly discussing the emotional realities of work and family life may increase communications between employees and managers, fostering more general perceptions of perceived organizational support for work–family, which has been shown to reduce work–family conflict and increase positive work attitudes (Allen, 2001; Clark, 2001).

5.4. Limitations

Like all research, this study has several limitations. All data were collected with the single administration of a survey raising the concern about common method variance. However, the magnitude of the correlations, varied pattern of effects across positive and negative affective responses, different patterns of effects across work and family domains, and moderating effects for emotional intelligence only in the work domain suggest that this may not be a major threat to validity in the present study. Another research design limitation is that we cannot draw cause-and-effect inferences and rule out reverse causality as an alternative explanation for our findings. For instance, burnout may lead to more negative affective responses to work, in addition to being a consequence of it. Likewise, in their theoretical model of work–family enrichment, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggest that enrichment leads to positive affective responses, rather than affective responses being a predictor of enrichment.

We based our predictions on the emotional labor literature and the work of Rothbard (2001), both of which suggest that the experiences in a particular role (emotional labor generated in work, family) engender affective responses to that role (positive and negative affect in work and family, respectively). Moreover, it seems reasonable to speculate that one's emotional reaction to a role may lead to recall of events in that domain which are consistent with that emotional reaction (see Ilies & Judge, 2002). For instance, if substantial negative affect is generated in response to one's work role, emotional carryover seems likely in the form of increased perceptions of work-to-family conflict. Notwithstanding the plausibility of our argument here, additional research using longitudinal designs is clearly important in work–family research (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Burnett, 2007) and our research is no exception. Our study is also limited by the use of a convenience sample of individuals who are somewhat homogeneous with respect to occupational training. The extent to which our findings generalize to individuals in other types of occupations awaits further study.

Notwithstanding these limitations, the present study makes several important contributions to theory and research. Most notably, we extend research on emotional labor to the family domain. We also highlight an important individual difference variable, emotional intelligence, which should be considered in future research on the emotional experiences in work and family life. Finally, we bridge the emotional labor and work–family literatures by offering a first look at how emotional labor in multiple life domains relates to work and non-work health outcomes.

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