
EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS AS PREDICTORS OF
WORK – FAMILY CONFLICT AMONG NURSES

NWANKWO, Barnabas E.¹; KANU, Gabriel C.¹; and OBI, Tobias C.¹

¹Department Of Psychology, Caritas University Enugu, Nigeria.

ABSTRACT

The study investigated emotional labour and Psychological distress as predictors of work – family conflict among nurses. Three hundred and eight female nurses participated in the study. Their age ranged between 19 years to 56 years with a mean age of 37 years. Multi-group cross sectional survey design was adopted. Carlson and Colleagues work- family conflict scale, Kruml and Geddes emotional labour scale and Kessler psychological distress scale were used for data collection. Two hypothesis were tested, namely, emotional labour will not significantly predict work-family conflict among nurses; psychological distress will not significantly predict work-family conflict among nurses. The result of the regression analysis indicates that emotional labour is not a predictor of work-family conflict. However, psychological distress was shown to be a significant predictor of work-family conflict ($\beta=.22$ $P<.001$). The implication of the results were discussed and suggested made for further study.

Keywords: Family, Conflicts, Nurses, Psychological Distress.

1. INTRODUCTION

Harmony in the workplace and family is one of the main factors that determine job output and performance. With the rise in individual experiences of work-family conflict an associated rise in organizational, societal and individual cost is in evidence costs associated with work-family conflict manifests in the form of higher labour turnover, lower productivity, tension, anxiety and lower profitability for organizations (Elloy & Mackie, 2002). Also, among these costs are more health risks for working parents, lowered performance in the parental role, lowered productivity at work, less life satisfaction, work stress and reduced mental satisfaction of spouse (Langballe, Innstrand, Aasland & Falkum 2010).

Balancing work and family responsibilities has become a challenge for many employees nowadays. It is widely known that the incompatibility or conflict between these two domains has adverse effects on employees' health and well-being (e.g. Kinnune, Feldt, Geurts, & Pukkinen, 2006; Noor, 2003), and has also been acknowledged that adequate recovery from Job and family pressures is crucial to avoid these negative health effects. Work-family conflict has been said to be a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. Work-family conflict occurs when work related demands interfere with home responsibilities and when experiences at work

interfere with family like extensive, irregular, or inflexible work hours, work overload, bring work into the home domain and trying to complete it at the expense of family time and other forms of job stress.

According to (Frone, 2003) work-family conflict is bidirectional in nature. Therefore, two types of work-family conflict are distinguished: work interfering with family life (often referred to as work-family conflict) and family interfering with work (family-work conflict).

Work-family conflict is produced by simultaneous pressures from work and family roles that are mutually incompatible (Khan, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 2005). Work-family conflict refers to when experience in a role interfere with meeting the requirements and achieving effectiveness in the other role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

Work-family conflict has been conceptualized by Greenhaus and Beutell (2001) on the basis of source of conflict. They divided work-family conflict into three types of conflict, namely, time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based conflicts. According to Buck, Lee, MacDermid and Smith (2000), the notion of work-family conflict is derived from the scarcity model which suggests that human energy is in limited quantity, although research (Nordenmark, 2002) seems to also support the expansion model which argues that alternative resources provided by multiple roles outweigh the possible stressful effects of multiple role engagements.

It is evident that our work lives can either enhance or detract from our family lives. In the same manner, our family lives can have positive or negative influences on our work attitudes, behavior and outcomes, although researchers argue that both depletion and enrichment processes operate simultaneously for employees who assumes both roles (Otlath, Graues, & Ruderman 2004; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007).

According to Zerbe and Ashkanasu (2005), one area of emotion research that has received considerable attention within work setting is emotional labour (EL) (e.g. Ashforth & Tomiuk, 2000; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1999). Emotional labour is the regulation of emotions for a wage (Hochschild, 1999). Emotional labour consists of personal customers that facilitate the effective and smooth operation of the organization (Meier, Mastracci, & Wilson, 2006). Emotional labour is defined as the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display to keep up with job requirements. Emotional labour is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value.

In many situations in our daily lives, we often display particular emotions (which may not correspond with the emotions we are actually experiencing) in response to social expectations of appropriate behaviour for example, there are times we suppress anger when being cut off by someone in waiting line. This is the process in which people regulate and display their emotions to comply with social norms (Hochschild, 1990). We also regulate our emotions (displaying particular ones and suppressing others) in response to job-related expectations of appropriate emotional behaviour or for a wage.

With the increasing trend of service oriented organizations (e.g. Bowen, Siehl and Schneider, 2001), where internal clients and coworkers are equally treated as important customer-like constituencies (Witt, 1999), the role of emotional labour has gone beyond the traditional focus on only service provider-client interaction to universally applied phenomenon in the work place (Liu, Perrewe, Hochwarter, & Kacmar, 2004). Hence, employees as emotional beings play the key roles and must be instructed by the organization to present themselves according to certain emotional rules.

Researchers proposed that employees perform emotional labour through two types of acting mechanism, surface acting (SA) and deep acting (DA) (Grandey, 2003; Hochschild, 1999). In surface acting, employee modifies outward displays to be consistent with display rules without shaping inner feelings. In other words, employees hide felt emotions or fake unfeeling emotions. Surface acting increases emotional dissonance (a gap between felt and expressed emotions) (Grandey, 2003). Furthermore, surface acting is also detrimental to organization in a way that employees conform to organizational display roles in order to keep their jobs, but not

to help customers or organization (Grandey, 2003). Employees use their training or past experience to help conjure up appropriate emotions or responses (empathy, cheerfulness) for a given scene (Kruml & Geddes, 2000). Hence, surface acting is termed as “faking in bad faith” (Rafaeli & Sutton, 2002). For example, a cashier maintains a simile and social demeanor even though internally he might be feeling sad. The expression of positive emotion is cutting for the customer-service context, but negative emotion is being experienced.

In deep acting (DA) employees attempt to deeply modify internal feelings to match the required organizational display rules. Deep acting involves changing inner feelings by altering something more than outward appearance. Employees engaged in deep acting make an effort to understand people, be empathetic to their circumstances, and internalize their feelings. Rafaelii and Sutton (2000) referred to this as “faking in good faith” because employees’ intent is to seem authentic to the audience.

Deep acting occurs when employees’ feelings do not fit the situation; they then use their training or past experience to work up appropriate emotions. By practicing deep acting, emotions are actually induced, suppressed, or shaped for example, a cashier tries to look concerned by feeling what a demanding customer is experiencing (from within the frame of reference of that particular customer).

Morris and Feldman (1996) also examined the between relationship emotional labour and its outcomes. Morris and Feldman argued that it is primarily dysfunctional for employee well-being. First of all, it seems that what Morris and Feldman considered as constituents of emotional labour (frequency of emotional display and variety of emotions) are in fact, job features that give to use of emotional regulation strategies. Second, although Morris and Feldman defined emotional labour as the required effort, planning and control of appropriate emotions, none of the dimensions they reflect these processes.

The relationship between emotional labour and work-family conflict can be traced into behaviour based and strained-based conflict. According to Hochschild (1999), performance of emotional labour duties may engender a fusion of self and work roles. Employees performing deep acting are often too identified (preoccupied) with their work roles that they find it difficult to depersonalize and detach themselves from their work roles. They find it difficult to recover their true feelings (even after role performance) and hence lose track of when they are acting or not (Hochschild, 1999). This preoccupation may interfere with their efforts to fulfill the demands of a competing role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 2002). Hence, due to this fusion of self and work role, a person is unable to adjust behaviour to comply with the expectations of different roles (e.g. son, father, brother, husband), and is likely to experience conflict between the roles (work role and family role). For example behavioural styles that employees exhibit at work (e.g. power, authority) may be incompatible with behaviours desired by members within the family domain. Thus, high involvement in a role due to deep acting is predicted to influence work-family conflict.

In a recent over-view, Wharton (1999) points to two stands of work based on the emotional labour concept. The first line of work pivots around emotional labour as a cipher to understand organizational contexts and the nature of interaction in particular kinds of service occupations. The dynamic character of the service encounter in different services cape settings is investigated through keywords like power, control, resistance and empowerment. The second strand of work of emotional labour research focuses more directly on the management of emotions are especially on emotional display across public private work-family boundaries (Hochschild, 2003). With the advent of the various so called service, experience and creative economies, human emotions are in the gambit of wealth creation. The service industry is highly dependent on its service staff to provide satisfying experiences for customers. Attempts are made not only to make customer feel good, attempts are also made to make employees embody the good feelings they demonstrate to sell services. In other words, when demonstrating their positive emotions of employees is not easy, but indeed, there are ways of doing so (Ashforth, 2000).

Psychological distress is a serious problem faced by many employees (Tsaousis & Nikoikou, 2005). Psychological distress refers to a mental disorder that affects the emotion and well-being of an individual. Psychological wellbeing is understood here broadly including mental health emotional states and satisfaction in the domains of work and family as well as generally in life regardless of context. The reviews and meta-analysis of work-family conflict and psychological well-being show that from the work-related indicators, work-family conflict is related to high burnout and job stress, and low job satisfaction (Allen, Herst, Buruck, & Sutton, 2000; Ford, Heinen & Lanakamer 2007; Kossek & Ozek, 1998). Accordingly from the family-related wellbeing indicators, work-family conflict is related to high family stress and low family satisfaction. With regard to general psychological well being, positive work to family interaction was found to be related to low psychological distress (Kinnunen & Rantanen, 2006).

Investigations exploring the reasons underling these difference in mental health status have adopted, for the most part a role stress perspective, focusing on the chronic social and economic disadvantages that many single mothers must cope with. Indeed, many studies have shown single motherhood to be associated with greater exposure to a number of stressful life conditions known to increase the risk of poor mental health. More so, it cannot be ignored that large and still increasing parts of the general population in Europe and the United States consist of migrants (Watters, 2002). Their mental health is often worse than that of the members of the host society (Bhugra, 2004), as is the case for depressive and anxiety disorders (Marwaha & Livingston, 2002).

Subjective psychological distress consists of individual's evaluations of their feeling of anxiety, depression, irritability and paranoid ideations. Psychological distress could be conceptualized as a momentary state or as an enduring trait. Researchers interested in the quality of life usually focus on the trait perspective rather than on the short-term fluctuations (Eld & Diener, 2004). However, perceived conflict between work and family life has been associated with a number of negative physical and mental health outcomes in the research literature, including psychological distress, depression and anxiety. Work-family research has mostly drawn on the experiences of woman in dual earner households. Studies involving single parents effort to negotiate work-family balance have been sparse. Nonetheless, the numerous barriers and challenges that single employed mothers are faced to outcome give reason to believed that this group of women may be more susceptible to work-family conflict than those in dual-earner contexts. Psychological distress is feeling of tension and tiredness resulting from over work, worry etc. An understanding of the relationship between emotional labour, work-family conflict and psychological distress will help managers to take care of problem of distress in employees.

2. REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Ever since the construct of work-family conflict was introduced, a large body of literature has examined its causes and consequences. For instance, Peters, Montgomery, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2005), showed that job demand (Emotional labour) and demands initiate WFC and FWC, respectively, which indirectly results in burnout. We examined whether high job and home demands may initiate a process of work-family conflict, which eventually affects psychological health in an unfovaourable way. This study provides an opportunity to extend prior research on work-family conflict and psychological health. Specifically, previous studies regarding work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Langkamer, 2007; Edwards, & Rothbard; 2000) have primarily focused on the direct effects of work-family conflicts on health outcomes (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005) and tended to concentrate on the role of work-family conflict (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Frone & Cooper, 1992; Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999). Shimazu, Bakker, Demerouti and Peeters (2009) found empirical support for a partial mediating effect of FWC in the relationship between home demands are related to psychological distress

both directly and indirectly through FWC (Frone, 2000; Edwards & Rothard, 2000). Although we predicted that both WFC and FWC would partially mediate the relationship between job and home demands on the one hand and psychological distress on the other hand, WFC did not mediate the relationship between job demand and psychological distress. The proponents of well-being perspective has argued that the presence of positive emotional states and positive appraisal of the worker and his and her relationships within the work place accentuate workers performance and quality of life (Harter, Schmidt & Keyes, 2002). Various studies have assessed the relation between self-determined motivation and psychological distress and its possible outcomes. For instance, Kasser and Ryan (1993, 1996) focused on the effects of intrinsic or extrinsic aspirations on the psychological well-being of adults and adolescents. Intrinsic aspirations reflect self-determined goals based on the authentic self, such as meaningful relationships, personal growth and interest in the community. Extrinsic aspirations such as fame, wealth and image require recognition by other people in order to be gratifying and then reflect non self-determined goals.

A number of studies have evaluated the relation between self-determination toward various contexts and subjective well being on a daily basis. It was demonstrated that the days when people feel the most self-determined are also the days when they feel their best, after having controlled for trout-level of self-determination (Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000; Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). In sum, previous studies indicate that the psychological distress (or low levels of well-being) of individuals results not only from personality-based motivation but also from motivation which govern their daily activities (Julien, Gvay, Senécal & Poitras; 2009). Research carried out by Jamal (1999) revealed that WFC was positively and significantly related to employees' psychological distress and mediated the relationship between time and distress. Thus, long work weeks may be associated (through WFC) with increased depression or other stress-related health problems. Given that positive relationships with depression and somatic complaints, it seems likely that work time and WFC may also be related to additional problems at work and home. Although numerous scholars have proposed, implicitly or explicitly, that work time may foster WFC and psychological distress, the relationship of work time to WFC has been the object of surprisingly little research.

Moreso, it has been that surface acting results in psychological distress (i.e. depression) (Liu, Prati, Perrewt, & Ferris 2008). Grandey (2003) asserts that, "deep acting minimizes emotional dissonance by bring feeling in line with expressions, so deep acting relationship with emotional exhaustion should be weaker than the relationship between surface and emotional exhaustion". Research has demonstrated that surface acting is more positively and strongly related to emotional exhaustion than deep acting (Kruml & Gedded 2000; Totterdell & Hoiman, 2003).

Karim (2009) examined the association amongst emotional labour, WFC and psychological distress in a sample of public sector organizations in Pakistan. The findings of the study suggest that degree of emotional labour undertaken by employees may have negative implications for their psychological well-being that extent beyond their work domain. The employees are more often preoccupied with their roles at work (due to deep acting) they lose track of when they are acting (at work) and when they are off the job (at home). Hence, this preoccupation with job role makes it difficult for the employees to comply with their other roles at family. In other words, "selling" feelings for a wage results in alienation from one's real self (Hochschid, 2002). Moreover, the depletion of cognitive and energy resources (while modifying internal states in DA) suggests that emotion demands at work produces strain (Grandey, 2003) that makes it difficult for employees to fulfill family duties and responsibilities.

In accordance with previous research findings (e.g., Kinman, 2009; Montgomery et al, 2005; Montgomery et al., 2006; Seery et al., 2008), evident has been provided that employees who commonly engage in SA (faking and suppressing emotions) have more WFC conflict SA increase emotional dissonance (a gap between felt and expressed emotions), which in turn leads

to emotional exhaustion (a key component of burnout) (Grandey, 2003). Although not directly tested in this study, it is assumed that SA through emotional exhaustion intrude or spill over in the family domain and has debilitating effects on family life.

This is an important finding supporting accumulating evidence for the primacy of SA over DA as an important predictor of WFC (e.g., Montgomery et al., 2006). These results were consistent with Grandey's (2003) assertion that, "DA minimizes emotional dissonance by bringing feelings in line with expressions, so DA's relationship with emotional exhaustion should be weaker than the relationship between SA and emotional exhaustion". In other words, both SA and DA impact WFC through emotional exhaustion but SA has more profound impact on WFC than DA's impact.

This results of this study confirmed expectation for an inverse relationship between WFC and psychological distress. This finding is in line with previous research that documented the adverse effects of WFC on psychological distress (Frone et al., 1997; Kafetsios, 2007). Moreover, WFC emerged as a most important variable contributing to 75% of the variance in psychological distress. This is an important finding delineating the important role of WFC in predicting psychological distress.

In a diary study where participants were part-time service employee, Grandey Tam and Braubarger (2002) found that events that invoked feelings of anger (such as disrespect, humiliation, unjust treatment from the customer) were associated with higher levels of faking behaviours. Similar findings were obtained by Rupp and Spencer (2006). In their study Rupp and Spencer (2006) found that participants who were unfairly treated engaged in higher levels of emotional labour. Grandey, Dickter and Sin (2004) also found that when call-center workers were exposed to customer aggression and verbal treats, they exerted higher levels of surface acting. Wharton (1993) found that workers find jobs involving emotional labour more satisfying than other workers not involved in emotional labour. She suggested that jobs involving emotion labour attract workers whose personal quality are especially suited to working with the public and subsequently, these workers have a better fit between job demands and personal qualities.

According to Chang (2009) research found individuals with low distress tolerance were likely to report distress as being insufferable and that they could not manipulate being distressed or upset. On the contrary, individual with high distress tolerance, they were sufferable distress and internalized negative emotions. As soon as they felt less distress and negative emotions, they exerted less level of surface acting. In other words, they wouldn't engage in more surface acting to pretend themselves. They exerted less level of surface acting. In order words, they wouldn't engage in more surface acting to pretend themselves. They exerted less surface acting than individual with low distress.

Chang (2009) looked at the effects of distress and surface acting were negatively related. That was to say employees with high distress would engage in low level of surface acting when they served customer, because they could prove the relationship between distress and surface acting. That was to say women exerted less level of surface acting than men. Older employees engaged in less level of surface acting than young employees. The findings in this study suggest that strain-based, family-to-work conflict may be of particular importance in explaining differences in psychological distress for single and partnered mothers. That is, the psychological burden of bringing family concerns to the workplace may be more taxing on the well-being of working mothers than other types of work-family conflict, such as those involving time constraints or concerns which originate in the workplace.

3. METHOD AND MATERIALS

Two hypotheses were postulated namely: (a) Emotional labour will not significantly predict work-family conflict; and (b) Psychological distress will not significantly predict work-family conflict.

3.1 PARTICIPANTS

A total number of three hundred and eighty (380) participants participated in the study. They were selected from eight hospitals in Nsukka urban area. The respondents include nurses in Bishop Shanahan Hospital, Medical centre UNN, School of Health, Nsukka, Health Centre, Sadiq Hospital, Ogonu Specialist Hospital, Kenol Specialist Hospital and Chisom Specialist. These participants include both married and unmarried nurses. The three-hundred and eighty (380) nurses comprise of thirty (30) participants from Medical Centre UNN and School of Health, two hundred (200) participants from Bishop Shanahan Hospital, eighty (80) participants from Kenol Specialist Hospital, and twelve (12) participants from Ogonu Specialist Hospital, ten (10) from Sadiq Hospital and Chisom Specialist hospital. Among the participants (nurses) used, 260 were married while 120 were single. The age of participants ranged from 19 years to 56 years, with the mean age of 27.41 and the standard deviation of 5.32.

3.2 INSTRUMENTATION

Three instruments were used in the study. They include the emotional labour scale, the psychological distress scale and the work-family conflict scale. Emotional labour scale developed by Kruml and Geddes (2000), the scale is made up of six-items, the first four items measure emotional effort which represent deep acting. The second two items measure emotional dissonance which represents surface acting.

Kruml and Geddes (2000) found the scale reliable and valid with reliability co-efficient of alpha values for the two emotional labour dimensions α .66 from emotional effort and α .68 from emotional dissonance. Indicating that each set of items is internally consistent, measuring a common construct and its validity. The response options of each items are measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) = not at all to (7) almost always.

The scale was revalidated to make it suitable for the Nigeria sample. Both the face and content validity of the scale were established during revalidation. The reliability estimate of the scale has cronbach alpha of .48 obtained. Seventy (70) participants were used in the pilot study drawn from Akulue Memorial hospital and Nnadi Health Center 30 and 40 participants respectively.

The Kessler psychological distress scale (k10) developed by Kessler (2002), was used to measure psychological distress, It was developed for screening populations on psychological distress. The scale consists of 10 items on non-specific psychological distress and is about the level of anxiety and depressive symptoms a person may have experienced in the most recent four-week periods. Kessler (2002) obtained an internal consistency of cronbach alpha 0.93. Items of k10 were highly inter-correlated (0.43 – 0.74) which indicates that k10 is a moderately reliable instrument. The response categories for each of the 10 – items are: (1) all of the time (2) most of the time (3) some of the time (4) a little of the time (5) none of the time. The items were scored in both direct and reverse directions.

The scale was revalidated to make it suitable for the Nigeria sample. It made use of both face and content validity. The reliability estimate of the scale has item total correlation coefficient, cronbach alpha of .89 by the researcher. Seventy (70) participants were used in the pilot study drawn from Akulue memorial hospital and Nnadi Health Centre. The response categories for each item are: (1) all of the time (2) most of the time (3) some of the time (4) all of the time (5) none of the time.

The third scale is the work-family conflict scale developed by Carlson, Kacmar and Williams (2000). The scale was used to measure work-family interference of employees. The scale is made up of six facts measuring the six dimensional perspective of work-family conflict which are (1) time-based work interference with family (2) time-based work interference with work, (3) strain-based work interference with family, (4) strain-based work interference with (5) behavior-based work interfere with family, (6) behaviour-based family interference with

work respectively. The scale is designed in a 5 point Likert type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The internal consistency of each of the dimensions was estimated with coefficient alpha of .86, .89, and .76 for time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based WFC respectively. Higher scores on each scale indicate higher levels of WFC.

The scale was revalidated by Amazue (2011). The result of the item analysis revealed that the items have an internal consistency of alpha .87 and a Spearman Brown corrected split-half reliability index of .56. the result of the item analysis further showed coefficient alpha of .82, .77, and .83 for time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based work-family conflict (Amazue, 2011).

3.3 PROCEDURE

A cross-sectional survey design was employed in the study and regression analysis used to analyze the data. The three instruments were administered simultaneously by the researcher to the participants during their working hours with the help of the matron and (other available assistant). The questionnaires were distributed to the participants in their different departments and wards where they were discharging their duties. The questionnaires were also collected in sections exactly the same way they were shared. Out of the four hundred copies of questionnaires distributed, 392 were completed and returned, with the percentage of 98%. Twelve (12) of this number were also discarded as a result of improper completion, leaving 380 of the total copies. The 380 returned and proper filled copies were used for the study, with the percentage of 96.94%.

4. RESULTS

Table 1: Model Summary Table of Emotional Labour and Psychological Distress in Work-Family Conflict

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.031 ^a	.001	-.002	11.89840
2	.224 ^b	.050	.045	11.61717

Predictors: (constant), Emotional Labour; Predictors: (constant), Emotional Labour, Psy Distress

The results of the regression analysis as presented in table 1 shows that the association between emotional labour and work-family conflict is not significant ($R = .03$). In other words, emotional labour is not a predictor of work-family conflict. Thus, the null hypothesis for emotional labour is accepted. Although, table 1 shows that when combined with distress tolerance the predictive value of distress tolerance increase, regression equation reveals that emotional labour was not a significant predictor of work-family conflict.

Distress tolerance showed a positive relationship with work-family conflict ($R = .05$, $F(2, 377) = 9.95$, $P < .001$). Thus, it is a positive predictor of work-family conflict ($\beta = .22$, $P < .001$). The null hypothesis for psychological distress tolerance is rejected. Table 1 showed that distress tolerance contributed 5% of the variance in the levels of work-family conflict.

Table 2: Regression Coefficient Table of Emotional labour, Psychological Distress and Work-Family Conflict.

	Unstandardized coefficients	Standardized coefficient			
Model	B	Std. error	Beta	t	Sig.
(constant) Emotional labour	49.190 .096	2.991 .161	.031	16.446 .595	.000 .552
(Constant) Emotional labour Psy Distress	40.927 .089 .329	3.468 .157 .074	.28 .222	11.802 .566 4.418	.000 .572 .000

The result of this research shows that for all participants, the levels of psychological distress tolerance is significantly related to work-family conflict ($\beta=.22$, $P<.001$). As the level of psychological distress tolerance increases, so does work-family conflict. However, for all participants emotional labour is not a predictor of work-family conflict. In other words, regardless of the level of emotional labour individuals possess, it does not predict nor explain work-family conflict.

5. DISCUSSION

The result of this study indicate non-significant main effect of emotional labour on work-family conflict ($R=.03$), ($B=22$, $P>.05$). This means that emotional labour does not significantly predict work-family conflict among nurses. Therefore, the first hypothesis which states that there will be no statistically significant difference in emotional labour among nurses on work-family conflict is not rejected.

The result is contrary to Peters, Montaomery, Bakkers and Schaufeli (2005), who found that emotional labour initiate work-family conflict, which directly results in conflict between work and home in unfavourable way. Similarly, Grandey (2003) suggests that emotional demand produces strain that makes it difficult for employees to fulfill family duties and responsibilities. In this study, it is mainly assumed that employees perceptions of these rules affect their behaviours and expressions of feelings during their interactions with customers which leads to interference of work and home. Also in contrast, Cheung and Tang (2009) found significant relationship between emotional labour and work-family conflict. Moreso, in contrast, Grandey, Tam and Braubarger (2002) found that events that were associated with higher levels of faking behaviour leads the conflict in family domain. In contrast, Rupp and Spencer (2006) found out that when call-center workers were exposed to customer aggression and verbal treats thereby predicting worker-family-conflict. This research findings is consistence, Wharton (1993) found that workers find Jobs involving emotional labour more satisfying than other workers not involved in emotional labour and thereby do not predict work-family conflict among workers. Kruml and Geddes (2002) found that the more employees engage in emotional labour, the more likely it was that they would be involved in work-family conflict. Moreover, in the two different studies conducted on nurses, Seery et al. (2008) found a positive and significant relationship between surface acting (a form of emotional labour) and work-family conflict, Montgomery et al. (2005) found no significant relationship between SA and WFC.

The analysis for the study revealed that participants who experience psychological distress manifest signs conflict between work and family roles ($R=.22$, $F(2, 377)=9.95$, ($\beta=.22$ $p<.001$), The second hypothesis which stated that there would be no statistically significant difference between psychological distress will not predict work-family conflict. This implies that the null hypothesis was rejected. Sullivan, Bowiles, Jeon, Colano and Mccorkie (2011) examined the high psychological distress. Women with high psychological distress are usually not functional in their homes, though they try to their best to balance work and family but their family suffers it. This result of consistent with Chang (2009) research found individuals with low distress tolerance where likely to report work-family conflict. This study is consistent with the result of Frone et al, (1997) and Kafeyisios (2007). Psychological distress emerged as a most important variable contributing 75% of the variance in work-family conflict Liv, Prati, Perreuit and Ferris (2008) result shows that psychological distress (i.e depression) causes imbalance between work and family domain Klein and Ehrhart (2000) reveal that work-family conflict was positively and significantly related to employees psychological distress. This is consistent with the findings of Harter, Schmldid and Keves (2002) found out that the presence of positive emotional states and positive appraisal of the worker and his/her relationship with work and home accentuates. In contrast with War (1999) psychological distress has been found to be negatively correlated with work-family conflict. More so, it is consistent with Shimazu, Bakker,

Demerouti and Peters (2009) found support for the relationship between home demand and family demand that they are related to psychological distress, it also consistent with Allen, Therist Del, Bruck Sutton (2002) psychological have an effect on the problems between work and family.

The non-significant difference in work-family conflict among participants with emotional labour goes to show that are other factors (such as emotional exhaustion and emotional load), efforts should be made toward the emotional exhaustion and emotional load involved in their job. If work emotions do not predict work-family conflict, it means that peoples emotional with regards to work, so as to put a good emotion has nothing to do with, whether the individual is experiencing conflict between his/her work and family responsibilities.

The significant main effect of psychological distress on work-family conflict found in this study has great implication for nurses. Enhancement of positive emotions help in preventing and treating problems such a psychological distress, deeply rooted in negative emotions. Fredrickson's (2000), suggested many intervention strategies that may help in preventing and treating psychological health related problems as well as help in building personal strengths, resilience and wellness of people. These intervention strategies include, (a) Relaxation therapies (b) Decreasing the intensity of unpleasant events and increasing the rates of engagement in pleasant activities (c) Cognitive therapies (d) Training employees in finding positive meaning in daily life (c) building empathy between people and groups.

6. CONCLUSION

This study investigated emotional labour, psychological distress as a predictor of work-family conflict. The result of emotional labour indicates non significant main effect in work-family conflict. This means that emotional labour does not predict work-family conflict. However, psychological distress results indicate significant main effect in predicting work family conflict. This means that psychological distress in an importance factor to be of considered in work-family conflict because is a good predictor of work-family conflict among workers in their various homes. The conclusion of the study is that emotional labour does not influence work-family conflict while psychological distress influences work-family conflict. Employees and Employers can avoid work-family conflict through cooperative effort by enhancing social support among colleagues; and special training programmes on how to cope with stress and manage pressure should be enforced to help employees adjust and adapt with work and family circumstances.

REFERENCES

- Allen, T. D, Herst, D. E. L, Bruck, C. S., & Sutton, M (2000). Consequences associated with work-to-family conflict: A Review and Agenda for Future Research. *Journal of occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 278-308.
- Amazue, L. O. (2011), *Role of Cultural Variations, Self-Esteem and Gender in Work-Family Conflict*, Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, Department of Psychology of Nigeria, Nsukka.
- Arnold, MB, (2000). *Emotion and Personality*. New York: Colombia University Press.
- Aryee, S. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict among married professional women: evidence from Singapore. *Human Relations*, 45, 813-837.
- Ashforth, B.E, & Tomiuk, M, A. (2000), "Emotional Labour and Authenticity: Views from Service Agents". In S. Fineman (Ed.), . Sage, Thousand Oaks, G A.
- Bakker AB, Geurts S. (2004), toward a dual-process model of work-home interference. *Work Occupation* 31, 345-66.
- Bhugra D. (2004), Migration, distress and cultural identity. *British Medical Bulletin*, 69, 129 – 141, DOI: 10. 1093/bmb/idh007.

- Blais, M. R., Sabourin, S., Boucher, C. & Vallerand, R. J. (2001), Toward a motivational model of couple happiness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79, 1021 – 1031.
- Bowen, D. E., & Schneider, B. (2001), Services marketing and management: implications for organizational behaviour. *Research in Organizational Behaviour*, 10, 43-80.
- Buck, M. L., Lee M. D., MacDernid, S. M., & Smith S (2000). *Reduced Load Work and the Experience of Time among Professionals Behaviour*, 7:13 – 36. Toronto: John Wiley & Sons.
- Casper WJ, LockWood, A, Bordeaux C, Brinley A (2005). Work and Family Research in IO/OB: Content Analysis and Review of the Literature (1980 – 2002). *Journal Vocational Behaviour* 66, 124- 97
- Carlson, D. S., & Kacmar, K. M. (2000), Work-family conflict in the organization: do life role values make a difference? *Journal of Management*, 26 , 1031-1054.
- Chang, E. C. & Sanna, L. J. (2003), Optimism, accumulated life stress, and psychological and physical adjustment: is it always adaptive to expect the best.. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 22, 97-115.
- Cote, S. & Morgan, L. M. (2002), A longitudinal analysis of the association between emotion regulation, job satisfaction, and intentions of quit. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 23, 947 – 962.
- Deci, E. L. Connell, J. P. & Ryan, R. M. (2000), Self-determination in a work organization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74, 580 – 590.
- Diener, E., Shigehiro, O., & Lucas, R. E. (2007). Personality, culture, and subjective well-being: emotional and cognitive evaluation of life, *Annual Review of Psychology*, 54, 403-425.
- Duxbury, L., & Higgms, C. (2003), Work Life Conflict in Canada in the Millennium: A Status Report. Public Health Agenda of Canada. Retrieved October 23, 2005, from <http://www.phac-aspc.gc./publicat/work-travail/report2/index.html>.
- Edwards JR, Rothbard NP (2000), mechanisms linking work and family: clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs. *Academy of Management Review* 25, 178-99.
- Eid, M., & Diener, E. (2004). Global judgements of subjective well being: situational variability and long-term stability. *Social Indicators Research*, 65(3), 345-277.
- Ford, M. T., Hienen, B. A., & Longkamer, K. L. (2007), Work and family satisfaction and conflict. a meta-analysis of cross domain relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 57-80.
- Fox, M. L., & Dwyer, D. J. (1999). an investigation of effects of time and involvement in the relationship between stressor and work family conflict. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 4, 164-174.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2001), “The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions”, *American Psychologist*, 56, 218-226.
- Frone M. R, Russell M, & Cooper M.L (1992), Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict: Testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 77, 65-78.
- Grandey, A. A. (2000), Emotional regulation in the work place: a new way to conceptualize emotional labour. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 95-110.
- Greenhaus, J. M., Bedian, A. G., & Mossholder, K. W. (1999), Work experiences, job performance, and feelings of personal and family well-being. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 31, 200-215.
- Gross, J. (1999). The emerging of emotion regulation: on integration review. *Review of General Psychology*, 2, 271-299.
- Gutek, B. A., Searle, S., & Klepa L. (1991). Rational versus gender role explanations for work – family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76 – 560 -568.

- Hobfoll S. E. and Lilly, R. S. (2000). Resource conservation as a strategy for community psychology. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 21, 128-148.
- Hochschild, A. (1999). *"The Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling"*, University of California Press, Berkeley.
- Holmes, T. H and Rahe R. H, (1999). The social readjustment rating scale. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 11, 213-218.
- Izraeli, D. N. (1993), Work/family conflict among women and men managers in dual – career couples in israel. *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality*, 8, 371 – 388.
- Jamal, M. (1999), Job stress and employee well-being: a cross cultural empirical study. *Stress Medicine*, 15, 153 – 158.
- Julien E., Guay G., Senecal C., & Poltras S.C. (2009), Subjective psychological distress among young adults: The role of global and contextual levels of self-determined motivation. *Hellenic Journal of Psychology*, 6. 145-168.
- Kahn, R. L, Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. DL, & Roserthal, R. A. (2005). *Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity*. New York: Wiley.
- Kasser T., & Ryan, R. M. (1996). Further examining the american dream: Differential correlates of intrinsic and extrinsic goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22, 280-287.
- Kessler L. & D. Mooczek. (2002), *Final Versions of our Non Specific Psychology Distress Scale* (Written Communication – Memo dated 10/3/94). Ann Arba (MT), Survey Research Center of the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan.
- Kinman, G. (2009), "Emotional labour and strain in 'front-line' service employees. Does mode of delivery matter?" *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24, 118-135.
- Kinnunen, U, Feldt, T., Geuts, S., Pullinen, L (2006). Types of work family interface: Well-being correlates of negative and positive spillover between work and family. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 47, 149-162.
- Kirchmeyer C, Cohen A. (1999), Different strategies for managing the work/non-work interface: A test for unique pathways to work outcomes. *Work Stress* 13, 59-73.
- Kossek, E. E., & Ozeki, C. (1998), Work-family Conflict, Policies, and the Job-life Satisfaction Relationship: A review and directions for organizational behaviour-human resources research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 139-149.
- Kruml, S., & Geddes, D. (2000), "Catching Five without Burning Out: Is there an Ideal way to Perform Emotional Labour?" in N. M. Ashkanasy, C. E. J. Haerteu, & W. J. Zerbe. (Eds.), *Emotional in the Workplace: Research Theory and Practice* (177 – 188), Quorum Books, West Port, C T.
- Lazarus, R. S., (1999), *Psychological Stress and the Coping Process*. New York: McGraw Hills.
- Liv, Y., Perrewe, P. L., Hochwarter, W. A., & Kacmar, C. J. (2004), "Dispositional antecedents and consequences of emotional labour at work", *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 10, 12 -0 25.
- Lobel, S. (1999). Allocation of investment in work and family roles: Alternative theories and implications for research. *Academy of Management Review*, 16, 507-21.
- Meijman TF, Mulder G. (1998). *Psychological Aspects of Workload*. In: Handbook of Work and Organizational Psychology, 2nd Ed., Drenth PJD, Theiry H, de Wolff CJ (Eds), 5-33, Psychology Press/Eribaum, Hove.
- Marwaha, S, Livingston G. (2002). Stigma, racism or choice. Why do depressed ethnic elders avoid psychiatrists? *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 72,257 -265. DOI: 10:1016/50165-0327(00)00381-5.
- Meier, K. J., Mastracci, S. H., & Wilson, K. (2006). Gender and Emotional Link to Performance", *Public Administration Review*.5, 899-909.
- Morris, J. A., & Feldman, D. C. (1986). The dimensions, antecedents and consequences of emotional labour. *Academy of Management Review*, 21, 986-1010.

- Noor, N. M. (2003). Work and family related variables, work – family conflict and women’s well – being: Some observations. *Community, Work & Family*, 6, 297 – 319.
- Nordenmark, M. (2002). Multiple Social roles – a resource or a burden? Is it possible for men and women to combine paid work with family life in a satisfactory way? *Gender, Work and Organization*, 9, 125-45.
- O’Driscoll, M. P., Ilgen, D. R., & Hildreth, K. (1992). Time devoted to job and off – job activities, inter role conflicts and affective experiences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 272 – 279.
- Ohlott P. L. Graves and M. Ruderman (2004), *Commitment to Family Roles: Effects on Managers’ Work Attitudes and Performance* Paper Presented at the 2004 Academy of Management Meeting, New Orleans. L A.
- Parasuraman, S., Pruhit, Y. S., Godshalk, V. M., Beutell, N. J. (1996). Work and family variables, entrepreneurial career success, and psychological well-being. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 48, 275 – 300.
- Peeters MCW, Montgomery AJ, Bakker AB, Schaufeli WB (2005). Balancing work and home: how job and home demands at related to burnaut. *International Journal of Stress Management* 12, 43-61.
- Pleck, J. H. (1990), The work-family roles system. *Social Problems*, 24, 417 – 427.
- Rafaeli, A., & Button, R. L. (2000), Emotion regulation in customer service roles: Testing a model of emotional labour. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 8, 55-73.
- Reis, H. T., Sheldon, K. M., Gable, S. L., Roscoc, J., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Daily well-being: The role of autonomy, competence and relatedness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26, 429-435.
- Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or Depleting? the dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46, 655 - 684.
- Rupp. O. E. & Spencer. S. (2006), When customers lash out: the effects of perceived customer interactional injustice on emotional labour and the mediating role of discrete emotions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91: 971 – 978.
- Senecal, C. & Vallerand, R. J. (1999). Construction et validation dep echelle de motivation envers less activities famillales activities scale). *Revenue Europeene de Psychologie Appliquee*, 49, 261-274.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, R. J. (1999), goal striving, need satisfaction and longitudinal well-being: The self-concordance model. *Journal of Personality in Social Psychology* 76, 482-497.
- Sonnentag, S., & Fritz, C. (2007). The recovery experience questionnaire: development and validation of a measure for assessing recuperation and unwinding from work. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12, 204 – 221.
- Totterdell, P., & Holman, D. (2003). “Exploring the relationship of emotional intelligence with physical and psychological health functioning”. *Stress and Health*, 21, 77-86.
- Vallerand, R. J. (1997), Toward a hierarchical model of behaviour: A prospective study. *Journal of Personality*, 60, 599 – 620.
- Watters C. (2002). Migration and mental health care in europe: Report of a preliminary mapping exercise. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*; 28, 153-172.
- Wharton, A. S. (1999), The psychosocial consequences of emotional labour. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 561, 158 – 176.
- Witt, L. A. (1999)..“*This Job is Too much: Emotional Labour on the Job*”, Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of Society for Industrial Organizational Psychology, Atlanta G
- Yanchus, N. J., Eby, L. T., Lance, C. L., & Brolllinge, S. (2009). The Impact of_Vocational Bbehaviour, doi: 10.1016/j.jub.2009. 05. 001.
- Zapf, D. (2002), “Emotional work and psychological wellbeing: A review of the literature and some conceptual consideration,” *Human Resource Management Review*, 12, 237 – 268.

Zerbe, W. J. (2000). *Emotional Dissonance and Employee Well-being*. In U. M. Ashkanasy & C. E. Thaertel (Eds), *Emotions in the Workplace: Research, Theory and Practice*. Pp. 189-214. West Port, CT: Quorum Books/Greenwood.