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STABILITY AND CHANGE IN NEGATIVE WORK-LIFE SPILLOVER AMONG AMERICAN ADULTS

Katherine Y. Lin

University of Michigan

Sarah A. Burgard

University of Michigan

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Abstract: Changes to American workplaces and families that have occurred in the latter half of the 20th century have stimulated considerable research to both document the magnitude of these changes and understand their consequences (Bianchi and Milkie 2010). In particular, these large-scale social changes have led to an increase in the number of roles and responsibilities in both family and work domains an individual may simultaneously assume, and researchers now document how participation in one domain can have negative consequences for the other – a phenomenon labeled negative spillover. Despite its high prevalence, our understanding of the factors underlying individuals' reports of negative spillover is still developing. As such, we ask how does the burden of spillover evolve as an individual ages? Do life events such as gaining a household partner, increasing family caretaking burden, or changing the amount of time spent in paid employment increase or decrease the burden of negative spillover? We examine individuals' reports of work-to-family and family-to-work negative spillover over a ten-year period in a nationally representative sample of U.S. adults, using data from the 1995 and 2005 waves of the National Survey of Midlife in the U.S. (MIDUS) (N=2,044). We examine the associations between reports of negative spillover at each wave and changes in work and family roles and responsibilities between waves—changing from full to part time employment or vice-versa, having a spouse enter or leave paid labor, and gaining or losing a partner, aging parent, or child between aged 0 to17 years—using fixed effects models. We show that above and beyond stable personality characteristics, reporting behavior, and some stressors and aspects of time use, individuals moving into and out of different work and family responsibilities report a change in negative spillover. This work thus provides a fuller understanding of how the work-family nexus continues to influence individual experiences across the social distribution and through adulthood.

INTRODUCTION

Changes to American workplaces and families that have occurred in the latter half of the 20th century have stimulated considerable research to both document the magnitude of these changes and understand their consequences (Bianchi and Milkie 2010). More specifically, work and family scholars have examined the consequences of the dramatic rise and subsequent stagnation of women's engagement in paid employment, the increase in dual-earner households, and relatedly, an increasing expectation for men to shoulder more parenting responsibilities, and the transition to a 24/7 economy (Bianchi and Milkie 2010; Presser 2003). Moreover, there has been interest in potentially different impacts of these changes on the expectations and experiences of men and women in both the workplace and home that have ramifications for gender equality.

In particular, these large-scale social changes have led to an increase in the number of roles and responsibilities an individual may simultaneously assume, making the work and family lives of individuals increasingly interdependent, and the boundaries between the work and non-work spheres increasingly permeable (Edwards and Rothbard 2000; Greenhaus, Allen, and Spector 2006). Researchers document how participation in one domain can have negative consequences for the other – a phenomenon labeled negative spillover. Research has also shown that spillover is bidirectional—conditions in the work domain can spill over into the home domain just as conditions in the family domain can spill over into the work domain. Studies have shown that negative spillover from work to family (otherwise known as work-family conflict or WFC) and family to work (otherwise known as family-work conflict or FWC) domains has increased since the 1970s, and that up to 70% of working American adults experience interference from work to non-work domains (Nomaguchi 2009; Schieman, Milkie, and Glavin

2009)[1]. Yet, despite its high prevalence, our understanding of the factors underlying individuals' reports of negative spillover is still developing. In particular, we know relatively little about how negative spillover can change for an individual, both generally over the life course, and at particular points as an individual experiences transitions into different roles both at work and at home. How does the burden of spillover evolve as an individual ages? Do life events such as gaining a household partner, increasing family caretaking burden, or changing the amount of time spent in paid employment increase or decrease the burden of negative spillover?

Prior research has not provided clear answers to these questions. For example, while some studies have shown differences in work-family spillover for those with varying amounts of family responsibility, such as young parents versus single adults (Grzywacz and Marks 2000), others demonstrate no such differences (Schieman, Milkie, and Glavin 2009; Voydanoff 2004). Meta-analytic reviews of the antecedents of negative spillover note that while work domain characteristics, such as level of job demand or job involvement, are more likely to relate to work-family conflict, and family domain characteristics, such as spousal strain or number of young children in the household, are more likely to relate to family-work conflict, the association between negative spillover and individual-level characteristics, such as marital status, individual employment status, and spousal employment status, remain unclear (Byron 2005; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, and Baltes 2011).

Furthermore, while a key social identity when considering the work-family nexus is gender, findings for its association with spillover have been mixed. Men and women face major

[1] While previous studies of tension between work and family domains use the term "work family conflict" to denote spillover, more recent studies have adopted the term spillover to move away from the conflict perspective, and allow for positive spillover, or facilitation to occur between domains (Grzywacz and Marks 2000). While we do not examine positive spillover in this study, we adopt the term "spillover" throughout this study to signal that work and family domains may influence each other in multiple ways.

differences in expectations in these domains (Moen and Roehling 2005), and these expectations and experiences have been evolving over the past several decades in ways that affect men and women differently. For example, while scholarship suggests that egalitarian arrangements of housework and parenting duties are becoming more common, with men expressing increased interest in intensive fatherhood and favoring egalitarian as opposed to traditional notions of parenting (Atkinson and Blackwelder 1993; Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth, and Lamb 2000; Gerson 1993), studies still find a persistent gender divide in housework hours and parenting responsibilities (Baxter, Hewitt, and Haynes 2008; Bianchi, Milkie, Sayer, and Robinson 2000; Sanchez and Thomson 1997; Sayer 2005). Moreover, attempts to achieve work-life balance between the two domains often result in situations that reinforce gender inequality, such as reducing hours in the paid labor force, or leaving the paid labor force altogether for one spouse, which is most often the woman (Kelly, Moen, and Tranby 2011). While these findings would lead us to expect gender differences in the experience of negative spillover, prior evidence for gender differences in reported work-family spillover are mixed (Aryee, Srinivas, and Tan 2005; Grzywacz and Bass 2003; Grzywacz and Marks 2000), with some reporting gender differences in the influence of marital status and parental status on spillover, and others reporting no significant gender differences. Although these studies do support a gender moderated relationship between certain predictors and reports of spillover, there is still relatively little evidence to suggest that the experience of work-family spillover differs significantly between men and women (Bellavia and Frone 2005).

One possible explanation for these mixed findings is the predominant use of cross-sectional data. Most prior studies have assessed predictors of negative spillover by examining the how average levels of perceived spillover vary across groups defined by age category, parental

status, partnership status, or employment situation. These group averages could obscure variation within groups or across time; cross-sectional studies cannot observe how individuals might change their reports of spillover as they encounter changes in work and family roles and age across the life course. By extension, they cannot show whether men and women differentially change their ratings of spillover in response to such events. Moreover, studies based on cross-sectional data cannot account for selection into certain social roles and statuses that may confound the relationship between life transitions and spillover. For example, women may be more likely to become parents because they are more likely to parent alone than men, but women may also report more or less spillover than men net of the distribution of parental statuses. It is also possible that individuals select themselves into certain work-family situations based on some underlying personality attribute that is also related to their level of reported spillover, but cross-sectional data often offer limited ways to adjust for such unobserved characteristics.

Additionally, the small number of longitudinal studies of negative spillover cannot provide answers to our research questions. Many of these studies are conducted over a short period of time, thus not allowing enough time for respondents to transition in and out of roles (Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham 1999). These studies also often restrict their samples to individuals who are already partnered and have children, thus particularly precluding observations of transitions in and out of partner and parent statuses (A. Grandey, L. Cordeiro, and C. Crouter 2005). Furthermore, these prior longitudinal studies have generally been conducted on small samples, usually restricted to one industry, work environment, or organization (Kelly, Moen, and Tranby 2011). While informative, these studies do not allow analyses of differences in the experience of the work-family interface across groups that make up the general population, thus limiting the generalizability of findings (Williams 2010). Using

population-representative data with a relatively long follow up period is important if we wish to understand how key social identities may shape the level and distribution in reports of negative spillover and the way that it is perturbed by work and family events.

Finally, many prior cross-sectional and longitudinal studies have examined only one dimension of the work-family interface - usually negative work to family spillover – which limits a more complete understanding of the work-family interface. Prior research based on cross-sectional data suggests that the factors that lead to increased negative spillover from work to family may not be the same factors associated with changing reports of spillover from family to work. This means that it is also important to consider a variety of changes in the work and home domains to understand how variable the response in spillover reports may be to changes in both domains.

To add to the literature and address some of these limitations, the present study examines individuals' reports of work-to-family and family-to-work negative spillover over a ten-year period in a nationally representative sample of U.S. adults. We use data from the 1995 and 2005 waves of the National Survey of Midlife in the U.S. (MIDUS) to examine the associations between reports of negative spillover at each wave and changes in work and family roles and responsibilities between waves—changing from full to part time employment or vice-versa, having a spouse enter or leave paid labor, and gaining or losing a partner, aging parent, or child between 0 and 17 years old. Further, we examine potential mediating factors, such as changes in paid and unpaid work, spousal strain, or perceived job demands that could explain changes in reports of negative spillover. We find that transitions into and out of certain work and family roles and responsibilities are associated with changes in individual reports of negative spillover, and furthermore, that these changes are sometimes different for men and women. We also use

longitudinal data on this representative sample of adults to show how individual trajectories of spillover aggregate to a population average trajectory across the life course. This work thus provides a fuller understanding of how the work-family nexus continues to influence individual experiences across the social distribution and through adulthood.

BACKGROUND

Prior research on work-to-family and family-to-work negative spillover

Initial scholarly work examining the potential negative repercussions of permeability between work and family domains have predominantly focused on "work-family conflict"—a type of inter-role conflict that arises when an individual's role in one domain conflicts or interferes with his or her role in another domain (Greenhaus and Beutell 1985; Grzywacz and Marks 2000). This early research examined how stressors and conditions in workplaces affected an individual's ability to perform family and non-work duties such as parenting and caregiving (Kossek and Ozeki 1998; Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian 1996). More recently, research has recognized that family responsibilities may interfere with an individual's capacity to fulfill workplace roles and responsibilities, and that multiple roles in work and family domains may also potentially enhance or facilitate an individual's sense of balance between the two realms, and thus discussion has shifted from the term "conflict" to "spillover" to allow for multiple ways in which family and work domains may influence each other (Byron 2005; Greenhaus and Powell 2006; Grzywacz and Marks 2000; Voydanoff 2004). There is both empirical and theoretical support for the bi-directionality of spillover, which demonstrates that not only are individuals aware of the source of their strain when encountering spillover, but also that pressures from both the work and non-work domains can trigger feelings of spillover (Bellavia

and Frone 2005; Byron 2005; Greenhaus, Allen, and Spector 2006). Thus it is important for studies to incorporate an understanding of not only work to family spillover, but also of family to work spillover to develop a more complete picture of how individuals may be experiencing both domains.

Most work on negative spillover has focused on associations between individuals' work and family experiences at a given point in time and their contemporaneous reports of spillover, as opposed to how individuals change in their reports of spillover as they experience different life course events. While such work has covered much ground in improving our understanding of the antecedents of negative spillover, this work has been unable to show how experiences of the work-family nexus may vary as individuals' work and family careers unfold as they age. Thus many have called for a "life course reframing" of the understanding of work and family, arguing that individual experiences of work and family must be understood in the context of one's trajectory over time, in reference to those around them, and in particular socio-historical contexts (Martinengo, Jacob, and Hill 2010; Moen and Sweet 2004). In response, we add to current understanding of negative spillover by turning our attention to decadal changes in spillover and the way that transitions in and out of different life stages and roles may be influential. In this study we thus explore three main research questions: How do reports of spillover change for individuals as they age through their adult years? How do reports of spillover change for individuals as they transition through life events in both work and family domains? Do changes in individuals' roles and responsibilities result in different changes in negative spillover for men and women?

What statuses and events are associated with changes in negative spillover?

Prior research has examined the statuses and roles that predict negative work-family spillover (Allen, Herst, Bruck, and Sutton 2000; Byron 2005; Michel et al. 2011), and thus we build hypotheses about how reports of spillover may change as individuals age or encounter changes in these roles based on these previous findings. We also consider how men and women might respond differently to such changes, drawing on prior literature where possible.

Age. Previous studies have generally shown that age has a negative relationship with reports of negative spillover. For instance, studies provide evidence for a negative, but curvilinear relationship, with mean level work to family spillover increasing through mid-adulthood and eventually decreasing only after age 50+ (Grzywacz, Almeida, and McDonald 2002; Rantanen, Kinnunen, Pulkkinen, and Kokko 2012; Schieman, Milkie, and Glavin 2009). However while another cross-sectional study shows a small, but significant linear decline with age for negative family to work spillover, it finds no relationship between age and negative work to family spillover (Grzywacz and Marks 2000).

These findings, though somewhat mixed, suggest two possible mechanisms by which aging may affect an individual's reports of negative spillover. On the one hand, age may serve as an indicator for transitions into and out of different life course stages that affect negative spillover, such as starting one's first job, becoming a spouse, becoming a parent, and retirement from the paid labor force (Mirowsky and Ross 1992; Moen and Yu 2000). On the other hand, age may be a proxy for an individual's maturation. As an individual ages and matures, they may grow more accustomed to the simultaneous pressures of work and family, or they may learn or adopt better coping strategies, or develop a higher sense of self-esteem which would aid in balancing the two domains (Mirowsky and Ross 1992). A linear relationship with age suggests that there is an exogenous age effect on negative spillover that declines regardless of life stage or

the changes in roles it may typically involve, whereas a more curvilinear relationship suggests that age acts as an indicator for life stage, and as individuals take on a multitude of responsibilities during mid-adulthood, their reports of spillover remain relatively high, and only begin to decline during late adulthood. Thus we may expect that individual reports of spillover may decline with age, but that these declines could differ by age category or life stage.

Individual and spouse's working status. Another important contributor to an individual's reports of negative spillover is the nature of his or her own paid labor force participation and where relevant, that of their spouse or partner. As employment status is a characteristic of the work domain, we would expect it to influence negative work to family spillover more so than family to work. For example, it is well documented that individuals who spend longer hours in the paid labor force report higher levels of negative spillover from work to family (but not family to work), even after controlling for other job characteristics such as occupation, job demand, and level of autonomy (Byron 2005; Glavin, Schieman, and Reid 2011; Grzywacz, Almeida, and McDonald 2002; Grzywacz and Marks 2000; Schieman, Milkie, and Glavin 2009; Voydanoff 2004). A positive relationship between one's own paid work involvement and reported spillover provides empirical support for the scarcity hypothesis—that increased time in one domain leads to negative spillover because it takes away time in another domain (Edwards and Rothbard 2000; Greenhaus, Allen, and Spector 2006). Thus we can expect that as individuals increase in their work hours, and particularly as they move from part-time to full-time employment, their reports of negative spillover may also increase. In contrast, we may expect those who move from full-time to part-time employment to report lower levels of negative spillover than before.

While one's own labor force participation may be directly and positively linked with reports of spillover, the link between spillover and employment status of one's spouse is less

clear. Spousal employment status can be seen as a family domain characteristic as it would determine how much a spouse could devote time to the home sphere versus the work sphere. As such we may expect spousal employment to influence family to work spillover more than work to family. Some studies show that among workers who have household partners, those with employed partners were more likely to feel strain, and this was particularly true for men (Higgins and Duxbury 1992; Nomaguchi, Milkie, and Bianchi 2005). However, other reviews of the antecedents of negative spillover report no significant effect of spousal working status on an individual's own reported negative spillover (Byron 2005; Kinnunen and Mauno 1998; Michel et al. 2011). One other study finds that spousal employment is associated with lower levels of negative work to family spillover (Aryee, Srinivas, and Tan 2005).

This previous work thus leaves open a number of possibilities for how a change in spousal employment status may induce a change in one's own reports of spillover. If having a stay-at-home spouse were seen as a resource for maintaining balance between work and family domains, then having a spouse enter the labor force would decrease resources available for maintaining balance, and thus increase one's reports of negative spillover. Alternatively, a working spouse may be seen as a family resource by providing an extra source of income that could be used to purchase household services and thus reduce spillover between work and family. A stay-at-home spouse may also be a source of family demand, requiring that an individual spend more hours at home with their partner or serving as a source of strain in other ways, perhaps due to financial strain of a single income. As such, having a spouse enter the labor force may decrease this demand on the work-family nexus, and thus decrease reports of spillover for an individual.

A change in one's own or one's spouse's employment could differentially affect reports of negative spillover among women and men. First, previous studies have shown that women may experience protective effects from involvement in the paid labor force on various measures of well-being, including spillover (Byron 2005; Schnittker 2007). As such, women may experience a decrease in strain after they enter the labor force, relative to men. Furthermore, gendered expectations for women to be caregivers and men to be breadwinners may also play into the influence employment has on reported negative spillover. If the expectation in a household is for women to take on the majority of the household and parenting work, then husbands may feel greater spillover when their partners enters the labor force than wives may feel when their partners enter the labor force.

Family caregiving. Marital status, presence of an aging parent, and presence of a young child in a household are also factors that have been investigated as predictors of negative spillover. While adding an additional role in the family domain with its associated set of responsibilities may influence spillover from work to home, previous research largely supports a stronger relationship between greater family responsibility and greater family to work spillover. However, findings are still mixed: some studies show no significant relationship between marital status and spillover (Grzywacz and Marks 2000; Schieman, Milkie, and Glavin 2009) whereas others show that married individuals report higher levels of family to work, but not work to family, negative spillover (Grzywacz, Almeida, and McDonald 2002). Findings for an association between presence of children in the household and negative spillover are also mixed, with some studies showing no significant relationship (Aryee, Srinivas, and Tan 2005; Glavin and Schieman 2012; Schieman, Milkie, and Glavin 2009), and some studies only showing a small relationship with family to work, but not work to family, spillover (Grzywacz, Almeida,

and McDonald 2002; Grzywacz and Marks 2000; Michel et al. 2011). These mixed results could be due to the limited number of studies that compare the spillover reports of married versus non-married individuals, or parents versus non-parents.

Previous work-family spillover studies have paid relatively little attention to the potential influence of having an aging parent present in the household. Most work has focused on the spillover that may occur in early adulthood as one assumes parenting responsibilities for young children, with less work focusing on how caregiving responsibilities are increasingly extending into the mid- to late-adulthood years as adults assume caregiving responsibilities for elderly parents (Marks 1998; Pavalko and Henderson 2006), sometimes even while they still care for children. Evidence suggests that more than 1 in 5 women aged 35-64 reported caring for relatives (Marks 1996), and that the prevalence of elderly caregiving is set to increase with population aging (Agree and Glaser 2009; Cherlin 2010), underscoring the importance of examining the influence of gaining or losing an aging parent in the household on negative spillover. One study suggests that having to care for a parent in the household increases both work to family and family to work spillover for both men and women (Marks 1998). Other studies of caretaking and strain suggest that taking care of aging parents in the household increases strain predominantly among women (Aneshensel, Pearlin, Mullan, Zarit, and Whitlatch 1995; Fredriksen 1996; Marks 1998).

While there is little past evidence examining the impact of gaining or losing household members of various types, the extant findings suggest that becoming a spouse, a parent, or a caregiver to an elderly parent while also employed can increase family responsibilities leading to inter-role conflict that could contribute to higher reports of negative spillover, and in particular family to work spillover. However, having additional family members around the house may

alternatively serve as a resource. Partners and aging parents may provide crucial support needed to balance between work and family domains that may decrease one's reports of spillover (Agree and Glaser 2009; Cherlin 2010). Additionally, while caregiving while working for pay generally has been theorized as a stressor in the family domain, others argue that assuming multiple roles may have positive impacts on an individual if the individual feels able to execute the expectations of each of the roles, and through providing social networks and a sense of social integration for the individual (Marks 1998; Moen, Dempster-McClain, and Williams 1992).

Because social expectations for caretaking differ for men and women, the addition of a household member may influence negative spillover differently for men and women. In particular, as women are more frequently expected to shoulder the caretaking responsibility in the household, much of the negative spillover associated with additional caretaking burden may only influence women, whereas the benefits for having additional help around the house may only accrue for men (Fredriksen 1996; Marks 1998; Moen, Robison, and Fields 1994).

The mediating influence of time use and psychological strain

The relationship between changes in individuals' work and family conditions and changes in their reports of spillover may be explained by changes arising in time use or in the level of psychological strain associated with a new role. As spillover between work and life domains may arise due to time-based conflict, where increasing time spent in one domain decreases time spent in another domain (Greenhaus and Beutell 1985), the influence of work, marital, or parental status on spillover may be explained by an individual devoting more time to either the work or family domain that takes away time spent in the other domain. We examine this pathway by adjusting for hours spent in paid labor and in providing unpaid assistance to family members.

Conversely, strain-based conflict is also another form of work-family conflict, where levels of strain experienced in one domain lead one to perceive spillover between the work and non-work domains (Greenhaus and Beutell 1985). Previous studies have also shown that psychological stressors have a larger impact on reports of negative spillover than objective conditions (Byron 2005). As such, one of the ways changes in objective conditions in the work and family domains can influence an individual's reports of spillover is by changing the level of strain felt in each domain. Thus, we examine this pathway by controlling for level of job demand and spousal strain.

DATA AND METHODS

Data

To test these relationships we use data from two national waves of the National Survey of Midlife in the U.S. (MIDUS). The initial round of data collection occurred between 1995 and 1996 (Wave 1) with a follow up conducted between 2004 and 2006 (Wave 2). MIDUS respondents first completed a telephone survey (Wave 1 response rate 70%, Wave 2 response rate 71%) and then a mailed self-administered questionnaire (Wave 1 response rate 89%, Wave 2 response rate 81%). The first wave collected data from 7,108 Americans aged 25 to 74 years, based on a representative sample of English-speaking, non-institutionalized adults residing in the contiguous 48 states, with oversampling of five metropolitan areas, twin pairs, and siblings. Of the original 7,108 MIDUS participants, 4,963 were successfully re-contacted and completed the MIDUS II survey ten years later. Further information about the study design has been published elsewhere (Brim, Ryff, and Kessler 2004; Radler and Ryff 2010).

Our analytic sample consists of those who responded to both waves of the study (N=4,963), who were working for pay in both waves (N=2,148), were ages 25 and older at Wave 1 (N=2,145), and provided responses on all key measures (N=2,044). Models that assess the influence of a change in a spouse's working status use only individuals who were partnered at both waves (N=1,404). As our sample ages approximately ten years between waves, most of our reduction from the original MIDUS sample responding to both waves is due to individuals who were not working at baseline or who aged out of the labor force by follow up.[2] As we are interested in examining changes in negative spillover between work and family domains, we focused on those who were working at both waves so that we could observe a change in levels of reported spillover. We did not, however, require the sample to consist only of individuals with families—those partnered and with children in the household—as the battery of questions ascertaining spillover refers to "home" spillover as opposed to specifically "family" spillover.

The MIDUS study is particularly useful for our empirical questions as it collects work-family spillover measures at two time points from a large, nationally representative sample of adults in the United States. Moreover, the study also ascertains an individual's work and family information at each time point, as well as measures a variety of potential mediating factors such as time use and psychosocial stressors. To our knowledge, this is the only data set that collects a robust measure of work-family and family-work negative spillover on a nationally representative sample of adults in a longitudinal context, and thus provides a unique opportunity to examine how changes in individual conditions may be associated with changes in spillover.

Measures

[2] In sensitivity analyses not shown we do find that women who report a higher level of work to family spillover tend to leave the paid labor force, and thus exit our analytic sample. Implications for this attrition are discussed later.

Negative Spillover

Both types of negative work-family spillover are calculated from a series of survey items on the MIDUS self-administered questionnaire (Grzywacz and Marks 2000). Negative work to family spillover was assessed with the following items: "How often have you experienced each of the following in the past year? 1) Your job reduces the effort you can give to activities at home. 2) Stress at work makes you irritable at home. 3) Your job makes you feel too tired to do things that need attention at home. 4) Job worries or problems distract you when you are at home." Negative family to work spillover (FWC) was assessed with the following items: "How often have you experienced each of the following in the past year? 1) Responsibilities at home reduce the effort you can devote to your job. 2) Personal or family worries and problems distract you when you are at work. 3) Activities and chores at home prevent you from getting the amount of sleep you need to do your job well. 4) Stress at home makes you irritable at work." Responses for both series of items were coded such that Never=1, Rarely=2, Sometimes=3, Most of the time=4, and All of the time=5. Following typical procedure, we calculated the mean response to the four survey items to create a summary measure of negative spillover (Grzywacz and Marks 2000).[3] A higher score indicates a greater amount of negative spillover.

Independent Variables

As we are interested in how reports of spillover change as individuals age, move in and out of the workforce, and move in and out of caretaking responsibilities, our independent variables were generated using dichotomous indicators at each wave of data collection that

[3] We used all information provided by individuals, and thus, as there was item non-response on particular items, a mean was calculated for an individual even if they did not provide full information on all four survey items. However, less than 1% of the analytic sample had a spillover score calculated based on fewer than 4 survey items. Among those with fewer than four items, the majority had three items available.

measured age, work status, spousal work status, household partner status, presence of an aging parent in the household, and presence of young child. At each wave, part-time employment status equals 1 if an individual is working 35 hours or less per week and 0 if they were working more than 35 hours per week. Spousal work status equals 1 if a respondent indicated their spouse was currently working for pay. An individual was assigned a 1 for household partner if they were married or indicated they were living with someone in a steady, marriage-like relationship, and 0 otherwise. Respondents who indicated that one or more of their aging parents had lived with them as their place of residence (excluding parents who were visiting, or staying for an extended period of time) in the past 12 months were coded 1 for presence of an aging parent and others were coded 0. A dichotomous indicator was constructed with 1 indicating that the respondent had a child aged 0-17 years, while those with no children or whose children were all at least 18 were coded 0.

Mediating Variables

Logged hours spent providing unpaid assistance is calculated by summing across a series of items that assess how many hours an individual spends per month providing unpaid assistance (such as help around the house, transportation, or childcare) to their parents, in-laws, grandchildren or grown children, or other family members/close friends (not including hours spent providing childcare to one's own children in the household). Summed hours were top coded at 82.5 hours per month, or at the top 1% of the distribution of hours, and logged to adjust for the skew. Level of job demand was assessed with a series of survey items that measure the frequency with which an individual experiences certain characteristics in their work environment. Drawn from the Karasek Job Strain model (Karasek and Theorell 1990), job demand is also assessed with a battery of five survey items: "1) How often do you have to work

very intensively -- that is, you are very busy trying to get things done? 2) How often do different people or groups at work demand things from you that you think are hard to combine? 3) How often do you have too many demands made on you? 4) How often do you have enough time to get everything done? 5) How often do you have a lot of interruption?" Responses were coded 1=Never and 5=All the time and summed across the items. Level of spousal strain is assessed with a series of survey items that measure the frequency of spousal conflict: "1) How often does your spouse or partner make too many demands on you? 2) How often does he or she argue with you? 3) How often does he or she make you feel tense? 4) How often does he or she criticize you? 5) How often does he or she let you down when you are counting on him or her? And 6) How often does he or she get on your nerves?" Responses were coded 1=Often and 4=Never. Items were reverse-coded such that higher scores indicated higher levels of strain, and a mean was calculated across the items.[4] Those who did not have household partners were coded 0 for spousal strain.

Socioeconomic controls

Previous research has suggested that individuals in professional or managerial occupations report higher levels of spillover, even after controlling for job characteristics, such as job resources and job demands, and income (Schieman, Milkie, and Glavin 2009). As such, we also include a control for log income and a dummy indicator for professional/managerial occupation. We log the income measure to adjust for the skew in income distribution as well as for ease of interpretation.

Methods

[4] Similar to how we calculate spillover, we also use all information here provided by individuals. We had less than 1% of the analytic sample missing for these items. Those who were missing on all items were assigned 0s.

We examine both average changes as respondents age in ten year increments across the life course and how changes over time in key statuses influence individual reports of spillover. We first calculate age-group specific means of spillover in both waves of the data and connect them to examine change in respondents' reports over a decade for each age cohort. This will give us a preliminary understanding of how negative spillover is distributed and changes over adulthood. To ascertain how changes in certain roles and statuses may influence changes in individual-level spillover, we estimate fixed effect models of negative spillover. More specifically, if we believe spillover can be estimated from a series of individual characteristics, such as age, income, and occupation (X_{it}), indicators for work and family roles (d_{it}), adjusting for random time-varying individual level error (m_{it}), as well as stable personality characteristics (e_i), we would be interested in estimating the following model:

$$Y_{it} = b_0 X_{it} + b_1 d_{it} + m_{it} + e_i \qquad (1)$$

Where Y_{it} represents an individual's current report of spillover, the bs are the estimate of the effect of each individual level covariate's contribution to negative spillover. If we do not have measures of e_i this can bias our estimates of the contribution of each individual level characteristic on spillover (b). Given longitudinal data, we can difference out the stable level characteristics by estimating a fixed effects model, where we regress the changes in spillover on the changes in individual level characteristics. Thus we estimate the following OLS model:

$$Y_{it} - Y_{it-1} = b_0^*(X_{it} - X_{it-1}) + b_1^*(d_{it} - d_{it-1}) + (m_{it} - m_{it-1}) + (e_i - e_i) \qquad (2)$$

Here we can see, by estimating a regression of changes, we can difference out the individual level stable characteristics (e_i) and thus provide unbiased estimates of the effect of changes of individual level roles and statuses $(d_{it} - d_{it-1})$, such as a change from part-time to full-time work

status (or vice versa), having a spouse enter/leave paid employment, gaining/losing a household partner, gaining/losing an aging parent in the household, and gaining/losing a child aged 0-17, on changes in negative spillover (b_1^*).

Models are estimated separately for each change in work or family roles (change in working status, spousal working status, marital status, presence of aging parent, presence of young child) and all models control for age and socioeconomic status. We estimate three models for each change in status: The first model adjusts only for socioeconomic status and demographic characteristics, the second model adds a gender interaction to test whether or not gender moderates the relationship between a change in roles in either work or family domains and spillover, and the third model adds the time use and strain indicators to test whether these mediate associations between the change in status and spillover changes.

The primary advantage of using a fixed-effects modeling strategy is to gain estimates that are unbiased by stable individual-level characteristics (Winship and Morgan 1999). In particular, previous studies have noted that stable personality characteristics such as negative affectivity, reporting style, and neuroticism may influence reports of spillover above and beyond what is impacted by an individual's objective conditions (Byron 2005; Grzywacz and Marks 2000). Underlying stable traits may also select individuals into certain work-family situations and also influence their reports of spillover, confounding the relationship between assuming certain roles and responsibilities and reports of spillover. As such we calculate more precise estimates for the relationship between spillover and these life events that are unbiased by these unmeasured, stable characteristics.

RESULTS

Tables 1 and 2 display descriptive information for our analytic sample. At baseline, the mean age of the sample was about 43 years. About 51% of respondents are male, 43% are college-educated, and about 44% work in professional or managerial occupations. On average they worked about 42 hours per week, and devoted a little over 5 hours per month to providing unpaid assistance to family members.

[Table 1 and 2 about here]

Almost 76% of the sample reported having a household partner at the beginning of the study, and the majority of those partnered have spouses who work. Table 2 shows that over follow-up, 9% of the sample gained a household partner and almost 7% lost a household partner. Of those who had a household partner in both waves, 9% had spouses that started working, whereas nearly 18% of the sample had spouses who stopped working for pay. While nearly 4% of the sample reported having an aging parent in the household with them at the beginning of the study, about 3% of the sample gained an aging parent in the household during the study period and 2.5% of the sample reported losing an aging parent. Almost half of the sample report having children between 0-17 years in the first wave, with nearly 8% gaining a child between waves, and 22% either aging a child out of that age range, or losing a child 0-17 years old. While nearly 20% of the sample was working part-time at the beginning of the study period, 13% moved from full-time jobs to part-time jobs and nearly 7% had moved from part-time to full-time jobs between waves.

Figure 1 shows population level averages of work-family and family-work negative spillover across 5 different age categories. Each line connects an age cohort's mean in the first wave to their mean at the second wave. Together, this figure illustrates the average population level progression of work-family and family-work negative spillover across the age distribution

and over the decade of the study. We can see that on average, work-family negative spillover is higher than family-work negative spillover at all ages. We can also see that in every line but the family to work spillover for the youngest age cohort, spillover declines across the ten years. Yet, pieced together, we have evidence that both types of negative spillover follow a curvilinear pattern, increasing slightly during early to mid-adulthood (from mid-twenties to mid-fifties) and then declining sharply after the mid-fifties. For instance, work-family spillover starts higher than family-work spillover for those in the mid-twenties, at an average of 2.67, but then declines to an average low of 2.18. Similarly, while FWC starts a little lower at 2.17, it also declines to a low of 1.72 in the mid-sixties.

[Figure 1 about here]

This population level pattern averages across individual level differences in burden of work-family spillover and family-work spillover and the distributions of roles and role changes that underlie them. Thus, the fixed effects models in Tables 3 and 4 document how changes in certain aspects of an individual's life may be associated with changes in experience of work-family and family-work negative spillover. Table 3 displays how change in one's work role, or the work role of one's spouse, may alter reports of work-family or family-work negative spillover. Table 4 shows how changes in one's family roles may influence reported spillover.

[Table 3 and 4 about here]

In both Tables 3 and 4, Model 1 shows the fixed effect estimate of a certain change in roles or statuses on change in negative spillover, adjusting only for age and socioeconomic status. Model 2 adds the coefficient from the gender interaction, and Model 3 adds the influence of a change in life conditions after adjusting for potential mediators. The top panel of Table 3 shows that reducing one's own work hours to part time is associated with a statistically

significant reduction in negative work to family spillover for both men and women, with a main effect coefficient of -0.265. There is some evidence that a gendered effect may be suppressed, as a slight greater decrease in WFC is observed in men after controlling for time use and stressors (gender difference of -0.112, significant at $p<.10$). Switching to part-time work also decreases negative family to work spillover for both men and women, with a main effect coefficient of -0.065. This estimate does not change significantly after controlling for time use and stressors.

Additionally, while there is no overall effect of one's spouse entering the workforce on reported negative work-family spillover, this masks a significant gender difference in the association. For women, having a spouse enter the workforce significantly decreases negative work to family spillover, with a coefficient of -0.150, whereas it increases reported spillover for men, with a gender difference of 0.233. This association persists, but decreases, when controls for time use, as well as work and family stressors, are added in Model 3 (for women, -0.103, for the gender difference, 0.160). Conversely, there does not seem to be an association between spousal employment change and family to work negative spillover.

The top panel in Table 4 shows that while gaining a household partner is associated with an increase in work-family conflict for the sample overall, it more clearly increases work-family conflict for men, with a gender difference of 0.162. Once time use and stressors are controlled for, women appear to report a decrease in work-family spillover, with a coefficient of -0.124, while the gender difference falls slightly to 0.143. Furthermore, the decrease in negative work to family spillover resulting from gaining a household partner is accompanied by a reduction in family to work spillover when acquiring a household partner. While the unadjusted models show a marginally significant positive relationship between gaining a household partner and family-

work conflict, after controlling for time use and stressors, gaining a household partner is associated with a significant reduction in family-work conflict for both men and women.

While gaining a household partner may prove beneficial in mitigating spillover, gaining an aging parent is associated with a significant increase in both work-family and family-work spillover. However, this main effect actually suppresses a gendered association with work to family spillover, such that men experience virtually no change in work-family conflict after having an aging parent join the household (main effect 0.280, gender difference of -0.274) or even a slight decrease in work-family conflict after controlling for time use and stressors (main effect 0.294, gender difference of -0.328). Women experience an increase in work to family spillover that persists even after controlling for a change in time use and stress. In contrast, both men and women experience an increase in family to work spillover upon gaining an aging parent in the household even after adjusting for time use and stressors. Controlling for time use and stressors do appear to explain part of the increase in family to work spillover that results from gaining an aging parent in the household, with the coefficient associated with gaining an aging parent declining slightly from 0.128 in Model 1 to 0.177 in Model 3.

Gaining a child between the ages of 0 and 17 seems to have no association with negative spillover from work to family, though the association could be masked by a gender interaction visible in Model 2, where men report higher levels of negative spillover when gaining a young child. This association seems to be largely be explained by hours spent in paid labor, spousal strain, and level of job demand, as the coefficient is reduced to non-significance in Model 3. Conversely, gaining a child is positively and significantly associated with family to work spillover for both genders, and this change is only marginally explained by time use and strain changes.

Across the models in Tables 3 and 4 the age pattern that emerged from Figure 1 is visible —while those in ages 35-44 do not differ significantly in levels of work-family conflict from the 25-34 year olds, those 45 years and older show decreases in their reports of negative spillover as they age between survey waves. For family-work conflict, measures stay constant up to about 55 years and older, and then start seeing significant decreases. Additionally, while this age pattern is mostly explained by life events and mediating variables for work to family spillover (when we compare Models 1 and 3), these events explain less of the age pattern for family to work spillover. Both higher incomes and having a professional or managerial occupation contribute to higher levels of work-family conflict, but have no bearing on family-work conflict. However, these associations are explained away when measures of job demand are added to the model. More hours spent in paid labor increases work to family conflict, whereas more hours spent in unpaid assistance increases family to work conflict. Both higher levels of spousal strain and job demand increase both measures of negative spillover.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study examines how reports of spillover change for individuals as they age, and as they encounter transitions in work and family roles, and how these changes can differentially influence negative spillover for men and women. We first document a curvilinear trend between age and negative spillover that is mostly, but not entirely, explained by changes in individuals' changes in roles and statuses. That is, to a certain extent, we can understand the age pattern in negative spillover to be attributed to the transitions in adulthood that individuals go through—entering and leaving the workforce, becoming a household partner, becoming a parent, and becoming a caregiver for an aging parent. However, both multivariate analyses and population

average means also support a linear decline in spillover across age. That is, across almost all the age groups, we see a linear decline in report of spillover, and accounting for different roles and statuses do not fully explain the age coefficients in our models.

We then clarify the connections between specific work and life statuses and their influence on negative spillover, using a longitudinal, national sample to estimate the effects of changes in certain statuses on changes in negative spillover. Our findings support previous studies that show that one's own employment conditions strongly influence reports of negative work to family spillover, and have a relatively smaller influence on family to work spillover (Byron 2005; Michel et al 2011). Our findings provide more robust evidence because we show that a reduction in hours spent in paid labor is associated with a change in reported spillover, even when controlling for level of job demand and an array of other characteristics and changes. We also find that changes in caregiving burden and family roles increase both work to family and family to work spillover. Gaining a child 0-17 years old only increases family to work spillover, while gaining an aging parent increases both work to family and family to work negative spillover.

We also document gender differences in how certain changes in roles influence negative spillover. We document that women report higher levels of negative spillover, relative to men, after gaining an aging parent in the household, which suggests that women potentially are shouldering the brunt of the caregiving role even as they remain in the paid labor force (or at least are reporting more interference with their work responsibilities after gaining an aging parent). Additionally, the influence of a household partner or spouse also has different influences on negative spillover for men and women. Women see a reduction in work to family spillover with gaining a household partner. Women also see a reduction in spillover if their spouse starts

working. Men on the other hand, report an increase in negative spillover after gaining a household partner. Men also report increases in spillover after their spouse starts working. Interestingly, however, both genders report a decrease in family to work spillover after gaining a household partner.

These results lend some support to the scarcity hypothesis, and the demands-resources model of negative spillover—that an individual has a limited supply of time and energy to devote to different roles, and an increased demand in each domain will lead to increased reports of spillover. However, it is important to note that what may be a resource or a demand for an individual may differ by gender. For instance, having a household partner seems to be a resource for women, but a demand for men, in terms of work to family negative spillover. Having an aging parent move into the household may present itself as a demand for a woman, but a resource for a man. These findings provide further insight into how transitions in and out of family roles differentially influence the experiences of men and women.

Additionally, we note that one of the main mechanisms through which changes in objective roles and statuses may influence one's reports of spillover is through a change in time use or a change in level of stressor affecting the individual. In particular, the increase in R^2 in the models containing the mediating variables demonstrates that time use and stressors explain a greater portion of the variance of spillover than the changes in objective roles and conditions. This also reinforces previous findings about the correlates of negative spillover (Byron 2005; Michel et al 2011).

While this is one of the first studies to examine how changes in negative spillover are associated with changes in work and family roles on a longitudinal, national sample, it has several limitations. First, though ten years between waves means we are likely to observe a

number of changes in an individual's status, we cannot identify when in the ten-year span individuals experienced these changes. If proximity in time to role changes is important for measures of spillover then this means our estimates for influence on spillover may be biased downward if the change in status happened a significant amount of time before data collection in wave 2, and biased upward if it happened close to data collection. Second, we only have two waves of data, which limits our ability to account for experiences prior to wave 1 that could potentially influence selection into certain statuses and reports of spillover or to temporally order changes in roles and changes in spillover reports. Additionally, as we are limited by measures available to us from the study, we have relatively inadequate measures of parental status and hours spent in childcare. We are unable to document whether young children are living with respondents in the same household, as the two waves of MIDUS employed different strategies at gaining a list of children associated with the respondent (Wave 1 asks for non-biological and biological children, while Wave 2 asks for children present in and out of the household). We also do not have a measure of hours spent in providing childcare to children in the household, which is a potentially important mediating variable when considering the transition into parenthood.

Furthermore, attrition between the two waves could contribute to bias in our estimates. Attrition from our analytic sample could occur from non-response or selection out of the paid labor force. Those who responded to the second wave of the MIDUS study were disproportionately white, female, and married, and also have higher levels of educational attainment (Radler and Ryff 2010). Preliminary sensitivity analyses (not shown) also reveal that women with higher reports of negative spillover in wave 1 tend to leave the paid labor force, and thus exit our analytic sample. Both forms of attrition bias our estimates downward if those who are leaving the sample are experiencing higher levels of strain. As such, the gender differences

we document should be interpreted with caution—the women that remain in our analytic sample may be a self-selected group with different experiences at the work and family boundary.

As workplaces and families continue to change, it is imperative to gain a more nuanced understanding of how individuals experience these changes. We show that above and beyond stable personality characteristics, reporting behavior, and some stressors and aspects of time use, individuals moving into and out of different work and family responsibilities report a change in negative spillover. That is, the negative ramifications of the permeability of boundaries between work and family domains are a tangible consequence of individuals taking on increased responsibility in both domains. Furthermore, it is important to recognize that men and women respond to these changes differently, at least in terms of their reports of spillover. Our study provides some support towards the notion that women still face a considerable level of strain from caregiving despite participation in the paid labor force. Our work also shows that a household partner can be both a benefit and a cost to an individual, in terms of being able to balance between work and family domains. Understanding the mechanisms that lead to such disparity is important to ensure gender equality both in the workplace and in the household. As more research continues to show the detrimental effects of work to family and family to work negative spillover, such as depression, job dissatisfaction, poor health behaviors, and even chronic fatigue and other physical illness (Allen, Herst, Bruck, and Sutton 2000), it is increasingly important to direct policy towards mitigating negative spillover .

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Figure 1. Population means of Work to Family Conflict (WFC) and Family to Work Conflict (FWC) Across Age Categories, MIDUS I and II (N=2,044)

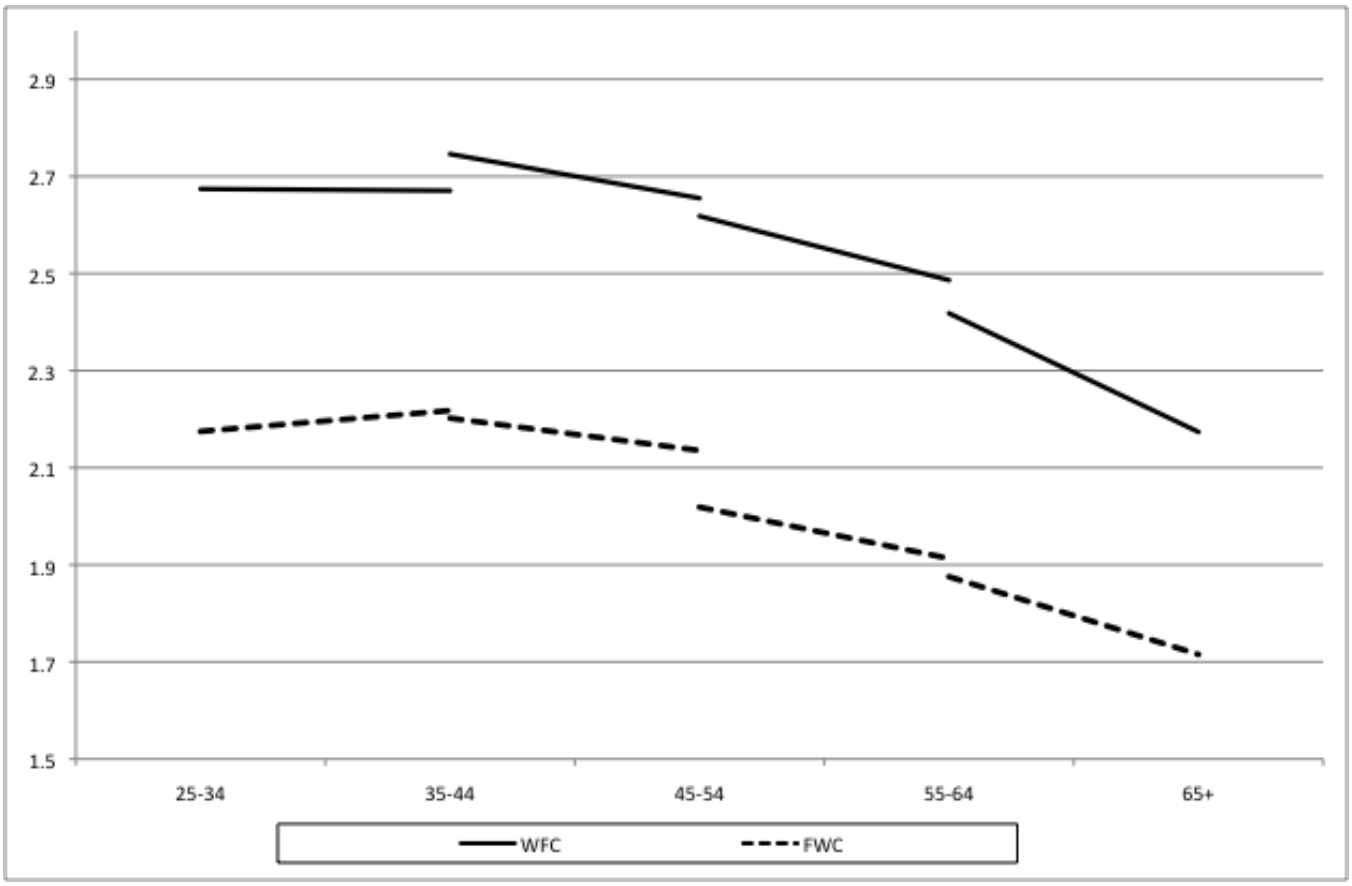

Table 1. Wave 1 Descriptive Statistics of Analytic Sample (N=2,044), MIDUS I and II

	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Age				
25-34 yrs	21.48%			
35-44 yrs	26.00%			
45-54 yrs	23.93%			
55-64 yrs	17.53%			
65+	11.06%			
Log income	10.96	1.38	0	12.61
% in professional or managerial occupations	44.23%			
% Male	50.88%			
% college educated	43.21%			
% have HH partner	75.73%			
% of those with HH partners, spouses work	67.31%			
% have aging parent in household	3.67%			
% have children 0-17 years in the household	49.17%			
Hours worked/week*	42.25	13.93	0	108
Hours spent providing unpaid assistance/month*	5.18	11.51	0	82.5
Level of job demand	3.08	0.66	0	5
Level of spousal strain	1.71	1.06	0	4

*Median work hours = 40, median unpaid assistance hours = 1.25

Table 2. % of Analytic Sample that encountered certain life events during study period (N=2,044), MIDUS I and II

	%
Started working part time	13.73%
Stopped working part time	6.95%
Spouse started working*	9.05%
Spouse stopped working*	17.59%
Gained a household partner	9.00%
Lost a household partner	6.95%
Gained an aging parent in the household	3.16%
Lost an aging parent in the household	2.45%
Gained a child 0-17 years old	7.88%
Lost a child 0-17 years old	22.26%

* Percentage based on those with household partners in both waves

Table 3. Fixed Effects Estimates of Individual and Spouse Employment Status on Work to Family Negative Spillover and Family to Work Negative Spillover, MIDUS I and II (N=2,044) (N=1,404 for spouse model)

Negative Spillover from Work to Family

	Working Part time						*Spouse Working*					
	Model 1		*Model 2*		*Model 3*		*Model 1*		*Model 2*		*Model 3*	
(Life change of interest)	-0.265	***	-0.226	***	-0.122	***	-0.020		-0.150	**	-0.103	*
Male*(life change of interest)			-0.102		-0.112	+			0.233	**	0.160	*
Age												
25-34 yrs	.		.		.		.		.		.	
35-44 yrs	-0.003		-0.004		-0.032		-0.011		-0.010		-0.025	
45-54 yrs	-0.107	*	-0.107	*	-0.106	**	-0.132	*	-0.137	*	-0.120	*
55-64 yrs	-0.197	***	-0.192	***	-0.130	**	-0.251	***	-0.259	***	-0.135	*
65+	-0.328	***	-0.317	***	-0.158	*	-0.500	***	-0.495	***	-0.155	+
Log Income	0.013	+	0.013	+	0.007		0.011		0.012		0.006	
Professional/Managerial Occupation	0.065	*	0.065	*	0.022		0.089	*	0.092	*	0.036	
Log hours spent in paid labor					-						0.126	***
Log hours spend in unpaid assistance					0.002						-0.002	
Spousal Strain					0.066	***					0.111	***
Job Demand					0.405	***					0.395	***
Constant	2.591	***	2.587	***	1.289	***	2.582	***	2.577	***	0.720	***
N	4088		4088		4088		2808		2808		2808	
r2	0.060		0.061		0.225		0.031		0.038		0.234	

Negative Spillover from Family to Work

	Working Part time						*Spouse Working*					
	Model 1		*Model 2*		*Model 3*		*Model 1*		*Model 2*		*Model 3*	
(Life change of interest)	-0.065	*	-0.093	*	-0.073	*	0.004		-0.025		0.007	
Male*(life change of interest)			0.075		0.072				0.053		0.011	
Age												
25-34 yrs	.		.		.		.		.		.	
35-44 yrs	0.044		0.044		0.030		0.052		0.052		0.045	
45-54 yrs	-0.025		-0.025		-0.031		-0.028		-0.029		-0.033	
55-64 yrs	-0.121	*	-0.125	**	-0.102	*	-0.155	**	-0.157	**	-0.119	*
65+	-0.253	***	-0.261	***	-0.205	**	-0.280	***	-0.279	***	-0.195	*
Log Income	-0.001		-0.001		-0.005		0.000		0.000		0.004	
Professional/Managerial Occupation	0.020		0.020		0.006		0.019		0.020		0.002	
Log hours spent in paid labor					-						0.012	
Log hours spend in unpaid assistance					0.034	**					0.026	*
Spousal Strain					0.084	***					0.181	***
Job Demand					0.118	***					0.103	***
Constant	2.131	***	2.134	***	1.630	***	2.101	***	2.100	***	1.273	***
N	4088		4088		4088		2808		2808		2808	
r2	0.020		0.021		0.063		0.023		0.024		0.077	

Table 4. Fixed Effects Estimates of adding a Household member on Work to Family Negative Spillover and Family to Work Negative Spillover, MIDUS I and II (N=2,044) (N=1,404 for spouse model)

Negative Spillover from Work to Family

	Household Partner			*Aging Parent*			*Child 0-17 years*		
	Model 1	*Model 2*	*Model 3*	*Model 1*	*Model 2*	*Model 3*	*Model 1*	*Model 2*	*Model 3*
(Life change of interest)	0.085 *	0.011	-0.124 *	0.129 *	0.280 **	0.294 ***	0.021	-0.057	-0.022
Male*(life change of interest)		0.162 *	0.143 *		-0.274 *	-0.328 **		0.145 *	0.076
Age									
25-34 yrs	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
35-44 yrs	-0.018	-0.017	-0.022	-0.016	-0.019	-0.034	-0.015	-0.014	-0.027
45-54 yrs	-0.114 **	-0.113 **	-0.092 *	-0.114 **	-0.120 **	-0.106 **	-0.106 *	-0.107 *	-0.093 *
55-64 yrs	-0.238 ***	-0.239 ***	-0.118 *	-0.237 ***	-0.243 ***	-0.133 **	-0.224 ***	-0.224 ***	-0.114 *
65+	-0.478 ***	-0.483 ***	-0.154 *	-0.472 ***	-0.473 ***	-0.158 *	-0.462 ***	-0.464 ***	-0.148 *
Log Income	0.014 +	0.015 +	0.006	0.016 *	0.016 *	0.005	0.016 *	0.016 *	0.005
Professional/Managerial Occupation	0.076 *	0.076 *	0.013	0.079 *	0.079 *	0.014	0.077 *	0.077 *	0.014
Log hours spent in paid labor			0.116 ***			0.116 ***			0.116 ***
Log hours spend in unpaid assistance			-0.004			-0.006			-0.002
Spousal Strain			0.081 ***			0.070 ***			0.065 ***
Job Demand			0.404 ***			0.404 ***			0.403 ***
Constant	2.464 ***	2.449 ***	0.854 ***	2.498 ***	2.500 ***	0.859 ***	2.489 ***	2.487 ***	0.851 ***
N	4088	4088	4088	4088	4088	4088	4088	4088	4088
r2	0.031	0.033	0.230	0.031	0.033	0.233	0.029	0.032	0.229

Negative Spillover from Family to Work

	Household Partner			*Aging Parent*			*Child 0-17 years*		
	Model 1	*Model 2*	*Model 3*	*Model 1*	*Model 2*	*Model 3*	*Model 1*	*Model 2*	*Model 3*
(Life change of interest)	0.067 +	0.029	-0.197 ***	0.128 *	0.161 *	0.177 *	0.150 ***	0.119 **	0.104 **
Male*(life change of interest)		0.083	0.060		-0.059	-0.103		0.058	0.047
Age									
25-34 yrs	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
35-44 yrs	0.037	0.038	0.037	0.039	0.038	0.025	0.021	0.021	0.013
45-54 yrs	-0.030	-0.029	-0.023	-0.031	-0.032	-0.037	-0.003	-0.004	-0.010
55-64 yrs	-0.134 **	-0.135 **	-0.089 +	-0.135 **	-0.136 **	-0.107 *	-0.067	-0.067	-0.046
65+	-0.293 ***	-0.295 ***	-0.198 **	-0.289 ***	-0.289 ***	-0.211 **	-0.222 ***	-0.223 ***	-0.150 *
Log Income	-0.002	-0.002	-0.002	0.000	0.000	-0.005	-0.001	-0.001	-0.005
Professional/Managerial Occupation	0.023	0.023	0.003	0.026	0.026	0.007	0.026	0.026	0.007
Log hours spent in paid labor			0.012			0.013			0.015
Log hours spend in unpaid assistance			0.031 **			0.030 **			0.030 **
Spousal Strain			0.129 ***			0.086 ***			0.076 ***
Job Demand			0.121 ***			0.121 ***			0.123 ***
Constant	2.080 ***	2.072 ***	1.583 ***	2.106 ***	2.107 ***	1.563 ***	2.034 ***	2.033 ***	1.500 ***
N	4088	4088	4088	4088	4088	4088	4088	4088	4088
r2	0.020	0.02	0.068	0.021	0.021	0.064	0.033	0.033	0.073